The Routledge Handbook of Gastronomic Tourism explores the rapid transformations that have affected the interrelated areas of gastronomy, tourism and society, shaping new forms of destination branding, visitor satisfaction, and induced purchase decisions. This edited text critically examines current debates, critical reflections of contemporary ideas, controversies and queries relating to the fast-growing niche market of gastronomic tourism.

This comprehensive book is structured into six parts. Part I offers an introductory understanding of gastronomic tourism; Part II deals with the issues relating to gastronomic tourist behavior; Part III raises important issues of sustainability in gastronomic tourism; Part IV reveals how digital developments have influenced the changing expressions of gastronomic tourism; Part V highlights the contemporary forms of gastronomic tourism; and Part VI elaborates other emerging paradigms of gastronomic tourism.

Combining the knowledge and expertise of over a hundred scholars from thirty-one countries around the world, the book aims to foster synergetic interaction between academia and industry. Its wealth of case studies and examples make it an essential resource for students, researchers and industry practitioners of hospitality, tourism, gastronomy, management, marketing, consumer behavior, business and cultural studies.

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Dedicated to Seema, Rakshit and Rayaan for putting up with me.
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In the beginning, the canvas of our industry was all but bare. There was not much, save for a few scattered works, the best known of which was Lucy Long’s *Culinary Tourism: A Folkloristic Perspective on Eating and Otherness* [Long, L. M. (1998). ‘Culinary tourism: A folkloristic perspective on eating and otherness’. *Southern Folklore*, 55 (3): 181–204].

I had not even heard of Lucy Long until 2001, when I began to lay the foundation of my white paper about the nature of culinary tourism and its potential benefits. I sincerely hoped that *Culinary Tourism: A Tasty Economic Proposition* would be a white paper whose ideas would catch on sooner rather than later. It was obvious to me how many destination marketing organizations, small businesses, and even larger commercial enterprises were missing out on the idea that there is a large and growing number of consumers for whom food is an important focus, even an obsession, not just in our everyday lives, but on holiday as well.

Like the start of any trend, I was initially alone in my thinking. Gastronomic tourism was so new to so many people. It seemed that it would take forever to take root. Even academics were slow to embrace the idea of gastronomic tourism in these early days. Back then, the only food-related things in tourism that seemed to matter were restaurants. Many destination marketing organizations published the ubiquitous ‘restaurant guide’ which was usually nothing more than a printed list of their members or chain businesses that sold food or drink. Thankfully, quite a few destination marketers now understand that the depth of gastronomic tourism includes experiences of all kinds, from food tours and cooking schools, to food events, specialty food retail shops, and more. Nevertheless, we didn’t get there overnight.

In 2003, my white paper gave rise to the founding of our World Food Travel Association (née International Culinary Tourism Association), and eventually, our four substantial gastronomic tourism research studies published in 2007, 2010, 2013, and 2016. These were much-needed additions to our understanding of gastronomic tourism (a.k.a. culinary tourism and food tourism) and of gastronomy travelers. Our works added an important body of knowledge to other extant and significant published works, notably the Canadian TAMS study in the earliest days of our industry. In between major research studies, we organized regional symposia in the USA, as well as international conferences, to help our industry’s stakeholders grasp the ‘hidden harvest’ of gastronomic tourism. It was slow going.

In some regards, our industry’s big break came with the Global Financial Crisis (2008–2010), a.k.a. the Dark Ages of gastronomic tourism, which pushed the world’s reset button. Many
businesses closed, and any remaining businesses were too scared to spend any money at all. Consumers became just as frugal. In an economic downturn, people tend to return to school. The silver lining in this cloud of frugality was the mushrooming of gastronomic tourism research around the world. This was also the era when Facebook, YouTube, and, towards the tail end, Instagram, really began to gain traction. No one had any idea about the potential impact of social media on food and beverage tourism. The wheels of industry development were turning.

As the Global Financial Crisis ended, it was no surprise when interest in food and beverage surged. We saw the same effect after the 2001 World Trade Center tragedy. In times of crisis, people withdraw to what is familiar. As consumers focused more on food and drink, the media caught on. New reality shows centered around every topic imaginable, including food and drink. These shows could be produced at a fraction of the cost of older shows, an important feature in our new era of frugality. Series like MasterChef and Iron Chef helped to cement in consumers’ minds the importance of food. Suddenly, consumers were obsessed with chefs, cooking, and unusual ingredients. As the memory of past financial crises began to fade, we began to eat out more as well. By that point, a clear trend had emerged. Food and drink were becoming an obsession with consumers.

While our industry itself was maturing, the World Food Travel Association was maturing as well. In 2012, we discovered, much to our surprise, that ‘culinary tourism’ had elitist connotations to native English speakers. Obviously, that was never our intent, so we adopted the more user-friendly term ‘food tourism’ for the benefit of our industry. ‘Culinary tourism’ began to wither away, although it still enjoys frequent use in academia. Regardless of your preference for the term that describes our industry, the phrase ‘food tourism’ enjoys the broadest usage among professionals today. Those from countries with Latin-based languages still prefer ‘gastronomic tourism’ and that is the term you will find most prevalent in this handbook. You say to-may-to, we say to-mah-to. It really does not matter. Our industry is finally a formally recognized niche within travel and hospitality.

Today, interest in food and drink have risen further, nearly to celebrity status. You can hardly dine out without seeing a few smartphones snapping pictures of the prettiest dishes, and phone owners cooing over whose meal is prettier, like parents over their babies. This phenomenon dredged up the older term ‘food porn’, and gave it new life. Instagram has been one of the most important tools in this meteoric rise of the smartphone, but we also cannot forget Pinterest, Flickr, and the impact of other social media properties, not the least of which is the ubiquitous Facebook. And why not? It has never been easier to share our ‘food porn’ with friends, relatives, and colleagues. Now literally everyone we know, literally everywhere on Earth, can see what we are eating and drinking in real time.

We have entered what our organization calls the ‘Golden Age of Food Tourism’, with research showing that the majority of travelers today have, at a minimum, a significant interest in food and drink experiences while on holiday. Food or drink products with ‘artisanal’ or ‘craft’ in the product name are no longer reserved for hipsters. Special diets have also gained importance, with gluten-free and vegan at the top of the list. We take our behavior with us while on holiday. A vegan from the U.K. doesn’t stop being vegan because she is in Spain for a week. Sustainability, especially with regard to food and beverage packaging waste, is also a tremendous emerging concern. As we seek to minimize our use of plastics in food and beverage packaging, remember that we also take our behavior with us when we travel. And issues of food safety, from mad cow disease to \textit{E. coli} and hepatitis A, are persistent threats and a concern for all travelers, not just food and beverage lovers.

As we approach the end of the second decade of gastronomic tourism, we can see both how far we have come as an industry, and also how much we still have to learn, both as researchers
and practitioners. With every professional who leaves our industry, two new ones join from different corners of our planet, each a tabula rasa, eager to absorb as much information as possible about tourism, hospitality, and gastronomy. Despite our varied backgrounds and perspectives, whether we are practitioners or academics, we still continuously need to teach what gastronomic tourism is, and how it is different from, and how it relates to, agritourism, gourmet tourism, and wine tourism. We still need to explain why chain restaurants, no matter how much we may love our favorites, provide no impetus for a food lover to travel. And we still need to explain how promoting a city’s 185 cuisines does not attract the bona fide food lover.

We have grown much in our industry’s 20 years, like a newborn baby who is finally almost ready to attend university. At the same time, consumers’ tastes have matured. We now know that food lovers are motivated by authenticity more than any other culinary characteristic. We also know that food lovers are explorers; we emerge in a new destination, eager to find experiences we can call our own, which will create our own memories, adding to the culinary lingua franca of that area. In the past, eating and drinking may have been a part of a holiday, something you do three times per day. Today we see food lovers who now travel for bespoke food- and beverage-themed holidays, or ordinary holidays whose itineraries are liberally peppered with food and drink experiences. We even see food lovers trekking hours across their metropolitan areas for a gourmet meal in a new restaurant or to visit a new food market. In fact, they are actually gastronomy travelers in their own towns.

The Routledge Handbook of Gastronomic Tourism edited by Saurabh Kumar Dixit makes a much-needed and major contribution to our industry’s repository of gastronomic tourism knowledge. Favorite topics such as demographics and consumers; farmers’ markets; festivals and events; terroir and sense of place; and food systems, heritage, and authenticity are joined by newly important subjects such as native foods, culinary heritage, and authenticity; flavor and perception; digital and influencer marketing; technology; law; special diets; artisanal and street foods; customer expectations and experience; and, of course, sustainability. Anyone with a vested interest in gastronomic tourism will benefit from the insights of our industry’s 104 best minds from around the planet.

I am proud to recommend The Routledge Handbook of Gastronomic Tourism as essential reading for industry practitioners and academics alike. This work will be regarded in the annals of gastronomic tourism as one of our industry’s most significant works.

Erik Wolf
Executive Director, World Food Travel Association,
and Founder of the Food Tourism Industry
Portland | London | Barcelona
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Saurabh Kumar Dixit
Shillong
INTRODUCTION

Saurabh Kumar Dixit

A guest never forgets the host who had treated him kindly.

(Homer, The Odyssey, 9th century B.C.)

This quotation from Greek epic poem attributed to Homer evidently articulates bonding between host (food and service provider) and guest (tourists). While doing research on different facets of consumer behavior in hospitality and tourism industry, I realized the substantial influence of gastronomy, gastronomic activities/events on the consumer decision-making process. *The Routledge Handbook of Gastronomic Tourism*, is therefore, conceived to offer an insight on gastronomy and its association with the global and vibrant tourism and hospitality sector. This volume exemplifies food as a tourism product and a leisure experience. It reconnoiters its nature, evolution, forms, management, marketing, distribution, and gastronomic tourists’ behavior, including their motivations, needs, information searching, and expectations.

Hospitality and tourism are intermingled so intimately to each other that they are considered complementary to each other during its operations and management. Hospitality encompasses varied activities meant for welcoming guests in commercial, private, and social domains. Food, gastronomic activities, and other food related events are considered as most the important constituents of hospitality. The food, besides satisfying hunger and promoting growth and energy to the body also enhances friendliness and social warmth. It acts as a stimulus in performing rituals and advancing hospitality. In hospitality, the pleasure from food is not only based on the taste and flavor but also it prolongs sharing meal experiences with others.

As stated by Swarbrooke and Horner (2007), the tourist market is considerably heterogeneous. In other words, tourists differed from one another in terms of behavior, which consequentially leads to a continuum of *general interest* to *special interest* type of tourists. *General interest* tourists are less demanding, and their focus is usually in the place and not activity specific. *Special interest* tourists, on the other hand, are more interested in the activities available at the destination and the specific activities they wish to pursue while there (Trauer 2006). Gastronomic tourism, culinary tourism, and food tourism are terms that have been used interchangeably to refer to food-related special interest tourism activities by scholars (Long 2004; Trauer 2006).

Jean Baudrillard, a French philosopher argues that the characteristics of the consumer society is the condition where people create ‘consuming’ as a center of life: shaped by consuming,
live from consuming, and is a community with a passion that always wants to consume. Food consumption in the general context is recognized as a collection of contextual and evolving social practices, where food no longer merely serves as sustenance, but also a way to relate to other people in social, cultural, and political terms (Oosterveer 2006). Food consumption was originally a domestic activity, but it has now shifted to outdoor and become a leisure activity with craving to spend disposable time/income for pleasure. In the context of tourism, food consumption is acknowledged to bear ‘symbolic’ significance; for example, as a marker of social distinction (Chang, Kivela, and Mak 2010; Kim, Eves, and Scarles 2009), and a way for encountering and experiencing other foodways and cultures (Chang, Kivela, and Mak 2010; Molz 2007). Gastronomy is therefore a tangible part of cultural and traditional representation for most tourists.

The first formal study of gastronomy was undertaken by the French connoisseur Jean Anthelme Brillat-Savarin (1755–1826), which was most eloquently published in La Physiologie du Goût in 1825 and has been translated numerous times into English as The Physiology of Taste. (Brillat-Savarin (2011), What Brillat-Savarin (1825/1994) has done is to pave the way for subsequent studies about the relationship between the senses and food, and food and beverage consumption as a science (Kivela and Crotts 2006). Etymologically, the word gastronomy is derived from Greek gastros, meaning stomach, and gnomos, knowledge or law. Culinaria, on the other hand, is a term often used in the context of gastronomy that describes a country’s or region’s dishes, foods, and food preparation techniques, which give rise to the country’s or region’s distinctive cuisine (Kivela and Crotts 2006).

Gastronomy is not simply about gastronomic enjoyment or the practice or art of selecting, cooking, and relishing quality food. Rather, gastronomy is a form of symbolic communication within a community. It conveys messages of ethnicity, religion, status, and identity through sensory experiences (Civitello 2008). The act of consuming food at a destination allows tourists to immerse into the aspect of otherness of a culture in both sensory and intellectual ways. Tasting exotic food or having an unusual gastronomic experience can be a doorway for tourists to learn about the local culture of a destination besides having an exotic and extraordinary touristic experience (Quan and Wang 2004). Gastronomic tourism studies have been undertaken from a variety of disciplinary perspectives including economics, marketing, regional development, nutrition, economics, tourism, anthropology, psychology, and other social sciences.

According to the United Nation World Tourism Organization (UNWTO 2012), gastronomic tourism is a growing market in the tourism industry and can be a dynamic force contributing to a destination’s competitiveness and attractiveness. Gastronomic tourism comprises different dimensions and subsectors, if we look at the gastronomic attractions. Thus, gastronomic tourism offerings relate to food products such as meat, fish, cheese, fruits or beverages such as wine, beer, whisky, cider, coffee, sake, or tea. Gastronomic routes are also coming up as one of the most prominent products in this sector. Savoring local gastronomy at a destination is viewed as a trend nowadays, in which millions of tourists return to familiar places to enjoy the local gastronomic culture (UNWTO 2012). Due to the rising trend of gastronomic tourism amongst tourists worldwide, the impact of gastronomy on destinations and tourists has become one of the favorite themes in tourism and hospitality research.

The existing gastronomic tourism literature can be neatly categorized into two disciplinary approaches and perspectives. It includes ‘management and marketing perspectives’ and ‘cultural and sociological perspectives’. From the management and marketing perspective, for example, there are studies on tourism motivations of experiencing local or regional distinctive food or culinary and food products, as well as their relationships with destination choice and
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satisfaction (Au and Law 2002; Chang and Yuan 2011; Everett 2009 2012; Everett and Slocum 2013; Kim and Eves 2012; Smith and Costello 2009), whereas the cultural and sociological approach focuses on gastronomic experience as a process of deeper cultural and social learning and understanding of a society and its culture, as it is considered as exploration of cultural identity of a place (Alonso 2013; Cohen and Avieli 2004; Hillel, Belhassan, and Shani 2013; Staiff and Bushell 2013).

In the present handbook, an attempt has been made to present impartial and rational coverage of emerging philosophies, practices, and success stories pertaining to gastronomic tourism. The volume intends to introduce to the reader the taste of different flavors of global gastronomic tourism. It also attempts to uncover liaisons of gastronomic tourism with other arenas of research to explore novel opportunities of gastronomic product development and diversification. The Handbook offers a fusion of chapters authored by educators, industry practitioners, and eminent experts involved in gastronomic tourism research, industrial practices, and operations from different corners of the globe. It will definitely encourage to readers to study gastronomy in isolation and in conjunction with tourism to assess its impact on tourism marketing and development.

The handbook organization

The handbook is organized into six parts that have emerged as the result of the appraisal of different perspectives of gastronomic tourism. The collection of topics presented in the handbook epitomizes an unprecedented scholarly attempt to cover a large number of both conceptual and practical facets, in order to foster synergetic interaction between academia and industry. The sixty chapters of the handbook are divided into six parts to highlight diverse standpoints of global gastronomic tourism. Part I ‘Gastronomic tourism: An insight’ contains eleven chapters that endeavor to formulate the fundamental understanding of the gastronomic tourism; eleven chapters in Part II ‘Gastronomic tourist behavior’ highlight the issues concerning the appreciation of the behavior of gastronomic tourists; Part III ‘Sustainability for gastronomic tourism’ includes ten chapters weighing and emphasizing the sundry sustainability measures to be applied in the arena of gastronomic tourism; Part IV ‘Gastronomic tourism in the digital arena’ comprises of eight chapters dealing with different digital/online platforms and mobile technology influencing gastronomic tourism; Part V ‘Contemporary forms of gastronomic tourism’ includes eleven chapters pondering on the popular global gastronomic tourism forms; and Part VI ‘Futuristic perspectives in gastronomic tourism’ comprises of nine chapters that look into the innovative and emerging dimensions of gastronomic tourism. The multidisciplinary organization of the handbook will enable its readers to appreciate gastronomic tourism in assorted perspectives.

Part I: Gastronomic tourism: An insight

Part I includes chapters offering the fundamental understanding of gastronomic tourism. This part constructs the theoretical base for the readers to advance their horizon towards the thriving scholarly field of gastronomic tourism. Chapter 1 authored by Saurabh Kumar Dixit has attempted to portray the conceptual underpinning of gastronomic tourism: the core theme of the handbook. He further underlines the liaison between gastronomy and tourism, besides highlighting important determinants leading to the memorable gastronomic experience. John Mulcahy’s Chapter 2 demonstrates the evolution of gastronomic tourism against four dimensions. First, the genesis of the evolution laid due to forces capable of penetrating cultural barriers and inter-
nationalizing food; second, travelers wrote about gastronomy of places to assess differences; third, in the late 19th century changes leading to the increase in mass travel, contributed to the evolution of gastronomic tourism too; and fourth, continued evolution requires research and dissemination, which has only begun to flourish for gastronomic tourism. Peter R. Klosse, in Chapter 3 points out that gastronomy is the science of flavor and tasting which is intimately related to hospitality and guest satisfaction. He further elaborates on what the science of gastronomy entails and shows how it is related to guest satisfaction. Tomás López-Guzmán, Ana Lucía Serrano López, Jesús Claudio Pérez Gálvez and Augusto Tosi Vélez in Chapter 4 provide the travelers’ relationship to gastronomy, their motivations for consumption/level of satisfaction of local foods in the city of Cuenca (Ecuador). Chapter 5 by John Mulcahy outlines how creative collaboration became evident in series of initiatives and exemplars in Ireland during the first decade of the 21st century to promote gastronomic tourism.

Janez Bogataj in Chapter 6 cites experiences from Slovenia, which has been systematically developing its gastronomic identity since 2006. In order to promote gastronomic tourism in the country the chapter further highlights the issues of structuring conducive conditions for the development of gastronomy and gastronomic tourism products positioning strategies. Bernadett Csurgó, Clare Hindley, and Melanie Smith in Chapter 7 analyze how gastronomic tourism can play a role in rural development, ideally by contributing to socio-economic diversification and formation of the gastronomic image by illustrating the case studies of the Őrség and Derecske-Létavértes regions from Hungary. Chapter 8, authored by Rebecca Mackenzie, elucidates how the terroir can be transformed into a tourist destination utilizing gastronomic resources by means of the case of the Taste Trail, Canada; the cider industry in Basque, Spain; and the pesto producers of Genoa, Italy. Xiang Ying Mei in Chapter 9 embodies a way to provide unique stories and experiences through food using two Norwegian cases (Taste of National Tourism Routes and National Tourist Routes) represented from both at regional and national levels. The chapter reiterates that marketing destinations through gastronomy may lead to enhanced experiences for tourists, as well as increased pride and identity among locals.

Matthew J. Stone, Roberta Garibaldi, and Andrea Pozzi in Chapter 10 details the food and beverage travel consumption behavior among samples of American and French wine travelers. To highlight the same, a case study from France describes how wineries and destinations are combining food and wine in their tourist offerings. Chapter 11 by Roy C. Wood instigates two premises to the study gastronomic tourism (a) tourists intend to experience new/local foods while visiting a destination, and (b) this experimentalism can be accommodated by manipulating food cultures to consolidate, stimulate, and sometimes create this demand. The chapter further reasoned that each of these premises is seriously flawed and, having demonstrated this, the discussion moves to consider what intellectual strategies are required to provide a more constructive approach to analyze gastronomic tourism.

**Part II: Gastronomic tourist behavior**

Part II raises different concerns pertaining to gastronomic tourist behavior, one of the important constructs of gastronomic tourism. Research stresses that a true understanding of tourists’ behavior requires perceiving visitor experiences and involves conscious analysis of their needs, motivation, perception, expectations, and quality. Brian Kee Mun Wong and Christy Yen Nee Ng examine need recognition and motivation for gastronomic tourism in Chapter 12. The chapter further expounds several motivation categories reviewed from previous studies, besides the marketing and managerial implications of motivations within the gastronomic tourism framework. Derong Lin and Ling Ding touche on factors affecting tourist’s food con-
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sumption in their Chapter 13. The chapter also takes the tourist food consumption in Chengdu, the birthplace of Szechuan cuisine culture in China, as a case study to exhibit its content. Chapter 14 authored by Mozard Mohtar and Thinaranjeny Thirumoorthi explores the role of food images in influencing tourists’ perception and expectation towards their gastronomic experience. The chapter takes the case study of gastronomic destination in Malaysia (Nasi Kandar Line Clear) by using Instagram and Facebook postings to argue for the role of food image in building the overall gastronomic experience. Chapter 15 by Azni Zarina Taha and Christy Yen Nee Ng addresses how different service strategies (cost-leadership strategy and differentiation strategy) manipulate the four service quality dimensions to enhance service quality and to accomplish sustainable competitive advantage. Donald Getz and Richard N.S. Robinson in Chapter 16 introduce foodies and their behavior to the readers. It also critically examines a range of research that enables researchers, firm and destination managers, and marketers and policy makers to make more informed decisions in identifying, reaching, and complying with the specific interests of food lovers. Matthew J. Stone in Chapter 17 reports typologies and segmentation of gastronomic travelers based on the empirical research. Many researchers segmented travelers based on past participation in culinary travel activities. Recent research indicates that nearly all leisure travelers intentionally participate in food/beverage activities, so today it seems preferable to do segmentation on both travel motivations, attitudes toward gastronomy, and participation in gastronomy activities while traveling.

Chapter 18 authored by Fabrizio Ferrari provides a base for recognizing the application of the concept of servicescape on the gastronomic tourism specifically in restaurants. The chapter further highlights its content by offering the case study of the ‘Gola Gola Festival’ in Parma, Italy to explain ‘festivalscape’. Robert J. Harrington, Michael C. Ottenbacher, and Byron Marlowe in Chapter 19 provide an overview of Malaysian gastronomic tourists’ expectations and address the issues relating to gastronomic touristic behaviors. The chapter further identifies methods and outcomes to assess gastronomic attributes as drivers of unanticipated ‘wow factors’, those driving satisfaction and those driving other positive gastronomic tourist behaviors. Namita Roy, Ulrike Gretzel, Gordon Waitt, and Venkata Yanamandram authored Chapter 20 reviews conceptualization of gastronomic trail as a service ecosystem, which results in making considerations of relevant actors, resources, and institutional arrangements in creating the themed trail experience. Chapter 21 authored by Shirley V. Guevarra investigates the gastronomic performativities of Sariaya, Philippines during its Holy Week and the Agawan/ San Isidro Festival celebration. The findings of the chapter shows the hybrid character of the locality’s gastronomy and the performativities in its preparation and consumption. Sandhiya Goolaup, Cecilia Solérm and Robin Nunkoo in Chapter 22 provide an understanding of the nature of gastronomic experiences and how these can be studied. The chapter further cites two case studies and adopts an embodied and spatial perspective to understand their experience.

Part III: Sustainability for gastronomic tourism

Gastronomy is the vital driving force of different cultures/destinations and the key to sustaining and developing tourism. Part III proposes a theoretical framework based on stakeholder and social practices in the context of sustainable gastronomic tourism development. Chapter 23 by Paolo Corvo and Michele Filippo Fontefrancesco reviews the issue of managing sustainable gastronomic tourism through the case studies of Costa Vescovado (AL) and Lavagna (GE). The chapter further endorses that sustainable gastronomic tourism organizations are expected to implement a long-term sustainability management system that embraces aspects of environmental, social, cultural, and economic protection, and assures quality, health,
and safety. Tiffany S. Legendre and Melissa A. Baker in Chapter 24 create a discourse on how promoting local food can add value to local community via sustainable tourism forms. To demonstrate this, the chapter espoused a case from the city of Houston, TX, U.S.A. Chapter 25 by Jane Eastham epitomizes the complexities and dilemmas in the implementation of sustainable gastronomic tourism supply chains from the perspective of the three pillars of sustainability: economic, social, and environmental. Michelle Thompson and Bruce Prideaux authored Chapter 26, discovering the tourism potential of farmers’ markets, and the opportunities and challenges this presents to regional communities by means of the Barossa Farmers’ Market, South Australia as a case study. Chapter 27 contributed by Silvia Aulet Serrallonga, Dolors Vidal-Casellas, and Joaquim Majó reconnoiters the relationship among the concepts of gastronomy, heritage and local communities. The case study on ‘Benvinguts a Pagès’ (Welcome to the farm) illustrates how gastronomic tourism can help in the development of local communities.

Melissa A. Baker and Kawon Kim in Chapter 28, offer the conceptualizations of authenticity, the role of the servicescape in influencing perceptions of authenticity, heritage, and the importance of authenticity relating to gastronomic tourism experiences. The chapter therefore illuminates understanding of authenticity from both food and people perspective. Chapter 29 authored by Willy Legrand, Philip Sloan, Mirja Fett, and Theresa Manten explores understandings and perspectives of the term terroir and debates the role of terroir in the perception of a destination’s authenticity. The chapter further probes the broad spectrum of present-day interpretations of terroir and its importance in the development of tourist destination as well as providing an authentic experience to travelers. Sidney C. H. Cheung in Chapter 30 offers a brief overview of his knowledge transfer project on gastronomic tourism in Sheung Wan-Hong Kong. He has also explained the background of Four Seasons model for the cultural tourism practice evolved from the research outcomes of his previous research on coastal resource, agricultural traditions, and gastronomic interests in Hong Kong. Paul Hellier in Chapter 31 details the evolution of sustainable food and sustainable restaurant system in different stages. It further ponders upon issues such as unsustainable foods, food waste, food supply, and past and future food revolutions. Ann Hindley and Tony Wall in Chapter 32 divulge how and why gastronomy has been used as a tourist attraction by markets, festivals, and shows in Cheshire, England. It also demonstrates how gastronomy can be used to increase visitor footfall and provide an economic stimulus in analogous rural and urban areas.

**Part IV: Gastronomic tourism in the digital arena**

To date little is known about the use and role of digital marketing/communications within the gastronomic tourism milieu, therefore Part IV of the handbook contributes to enriching the knowledge base to expand a better understanding of how digital marketing communications can be used in promoting gastronomic tourism and employing it to attract, engage, and build a relationship with gastronomic tourists. Chapter 33, authored by Sandra Maria Correia Loureiro Eduardo Moraes Sarmento, endeavors to comprehend the influence of lifestyle changes and the effect of Web 2.0, have on gastronomic tourism. To disclose the outcome of their study, authors employed netnography approach for the analysis. Marios Sotiriadis and Lesedi Nduna in Chapter 34, deliberate on the technological advances in the field of gastronomic experiences within the context of collaborative consumption/sharing economy. The chapter presents the case of VizEat, the global online marketplace and leader in the field of collaborative gastronomy to highlight the chapter content. Sedigheh Mogavvemi and Brian Kee Mun Wong deliberate on the marketing decision in gastronomic tourism by the usage
of online customer review in Chapter 35. The chapter also applies the understanding of tri-reference point (TRP) theory in purchase decision-making. Ingrid Booysen and Gerrie E. du Rand authored Chapter 36 exploring the use of culinary mapping as a gastronomic tourism planning tool both for the tourists and travel agents. The authors have elucidated how culinary mapping can be performed using FOODPAT, a GIS-based inventory developed by the authors to focus specifically on gastronomic tourism data (including food products, food and wine attractions, events, and facilities).

Chapter 37 authored by Thinaranjeney Thirumoorthi and Sedigheh Moghavvemi examines how Tourism Malaysia and the state tourism boards promote gastronomic tourism through their websites. The websites were analyzed using nine indicators, based on the Singapore Tourism Board, which was used as a benchmark. The result indicates that very few states emphasis on gastronomic tourism. Dayna Ortner in her Chapter 38 provides an overview of mobile/smartphone technology and its influence on gastronomic tourism. It additionally explores whether it can assist to construct a more sustainable food system through the case study of the Fair Food Forager mobile applications. Velvet Nelson focuses on place reputation management strategies in Chapter 39. Besides targeting online reputation management for gastronomic tourism, the chapter further addresses strategies used by DMOs via official tourism websites and related social media pages. To verify these concepts, the chapter uses the cities of Houston, Texas and Cleveland, Ohio as case studies. Chapter 40 authored by Orsolya Szakály and Ivett Sziva gives an overview of the theoretical background of eWOM in the gastronomy industry, with a special focus on gastronomy blogs as emerging tools nowadays. The chapter also highlights the fact through the consumer-generated content and consumer decision-making in gastronomy through bloggers, vloggers, and eWOM.

Part V: Contemporary forms of gastronomic tourism

Part V shares a cluster of chapters that report upon the different contemporary forms prevailing in the niche of gastronomic tourism globally. Kuan-Huei Lee in Chapter 41 presents an overview of the Slow Food movement and other related movements such as Slow City (Cittàslow), slow tourism, and travel etc. To highlight chapter content, the author has presented the case study of Slow Food Singapore. Chuanfei Wang in Chapter 42 proposes a sociological approach, the ‘wine worlds approach’ to study wine tourism as a cultural practice in Japan. In this chapter, the author examines the key concepts and strategies incorporated in Japanese wine tourism by means of ‘Wine Tourism Yamanashi’ as a case study. Chapter 43, authored by Brittany Dahl, discusses how existing and future food-based touring routes (FTR) planning procedures could benefit from geospatial technology to promote better experiences and foster local sustainable development. This is explicated in the chapter through an introduction to understanding and planning sustainable FTRs, and a framework to implementing web-GIS route planning, as highlighted by a case study on Fair Food Forager Pty Ltd. İğe Pınar and Duygu Çelebi authored Chapter 44 which deals with the interface between the organic agriculture, organic restaurants, and gastronomic tourism. The chapter also throws light on the organic agriculture; principles and benefits of organic agriculture; consumer purchase motivations; organic food consumption. Chapter 45 by Melissa A. Baker, Tiffany S. Legendre, and Young Wook Kim enlightens readers about the prominence and current gastronomy of edible insects. The chapter explicitly investigates the health and sustainability issues relating to edible insects, besides discussing insect gastronomy from cultural and anthropological perspectives.

Maria Teresa Simone-Charteris in her Chapter 46 investigates the increasing popularity of craft drinks tourism (beer, cider, and gin) worldwide and, more specifically, in Northern
Ireland. The findings of the chapter reveal that tourists are thirsty for craft beer, cider, and gin in Northern Ireland, and craft drinks tourism benefits local business owners and communities. Joan C. Henderson in Chapter 47 looks into the relationship between street food and tourism. Particular reference is made to environments in Asia where food vendors are an integral part of everyday life and of interest to visitors, explains the part they play in destination marketing. The chapter content is illuminated by a case study of Bangkok, deemed one of the leading cities in the world for street food. Rafa Haddad, Salem Harahsheh, and Ayman Harb in Chapter 48 build an understanding of the concepts of Halal tourism and Halal food as associated mainly with Muslim culture and Muslim tourists. The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) is used as a theoretical framework to discuss Halal food from a tourism perspective. Chapter 49 authored by Freya Higgins-Desbiolles, Gayathri Wijesinghe, Tricia Vilkinas, and Stuart Gifford offers opportunities for tourists to appreciate and understand Indigenous foods and cultures and thereby have more enriching gastronomic tourism experiences. The chapter uses a case study of ‘Koomal Dreaming’ of Western Australia to illustrate its content. Ishan Singh and Péter Varga in Chapter 50 present the sociological perspectives of tea tourism in India. Tea is popular in India as a cheap and healthy beverage for all, used in gastro diplomacy and as a symbolic ingredient in popular Bollywood movies. Tea is also promoted as an exclusive, national beverage by the post-independence governments of India. Chapter 51 of Adela Balderas-Cejudo, Ian Patterson, and George W. Leeson offers an insight into the emerging and changing market segment of senior traveler, and to observe how the market responds to increased demand for gastronomic tourism. The case study on Nova Scotia is elucidated to address the chapter content appropriately.

**Part VI: Futuristic perspectives in gastronomic tourism**

Part VI contains chapters addressing the innovative and embryonic perspectives of gastronomic tourism. The contributions listed in this part examine the key emerging issues and prominent forces shaping the future of gastronomic tourism. Keith Mandabach and Wu Chuanbiao in Chapter 52 share the concerns of future for gastronomic events and festivals and the chapter further reveals that the gastronomic festival and event of the future will be much more experiential, interactive, and expensive. The chapter deliberates the relevant case studies from the U.S.A. and China to validate its content. Chapter 53, authored by Marlene A. Pratt and Joan Carlini, focuses on Hentley Farm, based in the Barossa region in South Australia, which supports the notion that a total food and wine tourism experience includes a combination of quality wine and innovative cuisine in a personal and intimate environment. Barossa has created and applied sophisticated food and wine experiences, which has attracted talented people and entrepreneurs to the region. Trevor Jonas Benson’s Chapter 54 deals with the presence and use of important legal provisions for gastronomy-based intellectual property, such as the name of a heritage foodstuff, in an environment where foodways are increasing in value and could be susceptible to appropriation if not protected. Jennifer Laing and Warwick Frost in Chapter 55 reproduce the association of gastronomic tourism and media. Television programs linked to gastronomy are driving and shaping the nature of gastronomic tourism, both in relation to destinations that have traditionally been associated with food, and those emerging as new foodie destinations. The chapter also highlights these issues through relevant case studies. Maria del Pilar Leal Londoño in Chapter 56 studies relationships among stakeholders involved in the alternative food networks of gastronomic tourism based on the Convention Theory. Taking as the main case study Catalonia in Spain, the chapter addresses key theoretical and practical issues of gastronomic tourism supply chain in the alternative food systems.
Chapter 57 of Ciani Stefano, Mason Michela C. and Moretti Andrea contributes to an extensive understanding of Geographic Indications at a tourism destination. The chapter further explains how agri-food products of a specific area (GIs) can contribute in promoting a tourism destination. Two case studies concerning well-known, typical Italian food and wine – Parmesan cheese and Prosecco wine – are presented in the chapter. Girish Prayag and Valentine de Cellery d’Allens address in Chapter 58 how the personal branding of celebrity chefs influences both marketing and operational strategies of luxury hotels. Using a case study of the celebrity chef, Alain Ducasse, and the luxury Hôtel Plaza Athénée in France, the chapter further demonstrates that, increasingly, celebrity chefs have an influence on image, branding, and communication strategies of luxury hotels. Chapter 59 of Dante Di Matteo reviews the paradigm of innovation in tourism practices; this chapter further discusses the case study of ‘Napoli Pizza Village’, one of the largest examples of temporary restaurants worldwide to accentuate the chapter’s content. Roberta Garibaldi’s Chapter 60 portrays positive correlations between food, wine, culture, and tourism through the presentation of a selection of international case studies where these elements have been creatively combined. Saurabh Kumar Dixit concludes the handbook with chapter entitled ‘Conclusion: building an agenda for global gastronomic tourism research’, where the findings and themes of the diverse chapters are reviewed and synthesized, and future research directions for gastronomic tourism research are indicated.

It is satisfying to notice that there is no dearth of empirical studies on different perspectives of gastronomic tourism; however, there is a paucity of literature providing detailed theoretical framework in one place. Therefore, the handbook attempts to bridge this research gap by offering the comprehensive body of knowledge comprising of chapters organized on both practical and academic approaches. The handbook is international in its structure as it attempts to examine issues, challenges, and global trends of gastronomic tourism, drawing the knowledge of experts from around the world. One hundred and four experienced researchers/trade professionals from 31 countries were invited to contribute chapters to the Handbook on wide-ranging topics. In order to offer in-depth understanding of the debates, the chapters are supported by the relevant case studies on the topics of deliberations.

The handbook has been designed for the undergraduate, masters, research students, and practitioners and/ or industry consultants. The interdisciplinary organization and diverse content of the volume also make it of interest for even non-tourism researchers such as marketing, consumer behavior, management, psychology, anthropology, international business, sociology, cultural studies, etc. As an editor of the Handbook, I strongly believe that the diverse and multidisciplinary nature of the Handbook will definitely supplement the existing body of knowledge on gastronomic tourism.

So, enrich your appetite and inquisitiveness with diverse food for thought on gastronomic tourism. This handbook will definitely acquaint you with myriad manifestations of gastronomy, tourism and culture alike. Bon Appétit!

References


PART I

Gastronomic tourism

An insight
1

GASTRONOMIC TOURISM

A theoretical construct

Saurabh Kumar Dixit

Background

Gastronomic tourism is a relatively new field of academic research, and modest scrutiny has been conducted in this arena. It was Long (2004) who first coined the term “culinary tourism” in 1998 to express the idea of experiencing other cultures through food. She states that “culinary tourism is about food; exploring and discovering culture and history through food and food related activities in the creation of memorable experiences” (Long 2004). However, Wolf (2006) describes culinary tourism as the combination of traveling, exploration, and enjoyment of food and drinks with unique and memorable gastronomic experiences. Consequently, culinary travel is not only “exploration and adventure” (Kivela and Crotts 2009: 164) but also a “cultural encounter” (Kivela and Crotts 2009: 181), as culinary tourists look for new restaurants, local tastes, and unique food experiences. According to Smith and Costello, culinary tourism “promotes visitor attractions with unique and memorable food and drink experiences” (2009: 99). Culinaria and gastronomy therefore play a pivotal role in the marketing of tourist destinations (see Richards 2002; Scarpato 2002). One of the most utilized definitions of gastronomic tourism in the literature is that proposed by Hall and Sharples (2003), according to which gastronomic tourism is an experiential trip to a gastronomic region, for recreational or entertainment purposes, which includes visits to primary and secondary producers of food, gastronomic festivals, food fairs, events, farmers’ markets, cooking shows and demonstrations, tastings of quality food products, or any tourism activity related to food.

Food and other gastronomic activities have now been acknowledged by governments, business, and academics as an integral part of the tourism package, and they also serve as a means of differentiation for destinations. Food is the one of key elements of a destination’s culture and identity, along with its history, symbols, myths, and discourses (Smith 1995). Gastronomic tourism is an emerging phenomenon that is being developed as a new tourism product due, inter alia, to the fact that, according to the specialized literature (Quan and Wang 2004, among others), over a third of tourist spending is devoted to food. Therefore, the local cuisine of the destination should be given due importance in delivering the quality holiday experience. Everett (2016) proposed that food and drink tourism (also known as “culinary tourism”, “gastronomic tourism”, or “food tourism”) has become “a distinct sector” in tourism – and not just an “inconsequential holiday necessity”. Many destinations are now striving
to market themselves as gastronomy and cultural hubs and are mobilizing their food and beverage products and experiences as their USP.

Savoring the gastronomic products of a place is a growing trend in modern tourism business, a leisure pursuit for thousands, and one of the main motives for many tourists. People now devote a day’s travel to experience food in the same way that they seek out other elements of different cultures like art, music, and architecture. In its broadest sense, gastronomic tourism is acting as the intentional pursuit of appealing, authentic, memorable, culinary experiences of all kinds, while traveling internationally, regionally, or even locally. Therefore, gastronomy plays a vital role in broadening a destination’s appeal; increasing visitor yield; enhancing visitor experience; strengthening regional identity; and stimulating growth in other sectors. The economic growth originates not only from gastronomic outlets (e.g. hotels and eateries) but also from farmers and other local producers. Thus, gastronomic tourism contributes to the attainment of the overall sustainable competitiveness of a destination.

To facilitate an overview of the gastronomic tourism research, it is enlightening to divide existing research into a consumer, a producer, and a destination development perspective (see Figure 1.1). Characteristic of all three perspectives is the multitude of interests, and possible conflicts between them, which they deal with (Andersson, Mossberg, and Therkelsen 2017). From the consumers’ perspective, food can be a motive for travelling, part of a search for an extraordinary experience, and one of a combination of factors influencing visits to destinations. The types of experiences gained from consuming food on holidays seem to vary and may, for instance, cover sensory, cultural, and social experiences. A large variety of producers cater for the experiential needs of gastronomic tourists, including food producers, retailers, hotels, restaurants, attractions, farmers’ markets, and gastronomic festivals (Hall and Sharples 2003). Moreover, destination development centered on gastronomic tourism depends on cooperation across interests and between public and private parties (Henriksen and Halkier 2015).

Considering the various facets of gastronomic tourism, a focus on how food can contribute to tourism marketing strategies is becoming more urgent and apparent in present-day research. This chapter examines the intersection of food and tourism to offer a conceptual framework to understand gastronomic tourism.
Synergies in gastronomy and tourism

Food and tourism have a strong historical connection which joins them together as a binding force. A wide range of terms is used to describe the relationship between food and tourism: cuisine tourism, food tourism, gourmet tourism, gastronomy tourism, gastronomic tourism, and culinary tourism. Gastronomic tourism usually incorporates an appreciation of beverages too, both alcoholic and non-alcoholic (Hall 2003). Henderson presents three research lines around the relationship between tourism and gastronomy (Henderson 2009): food as a tourism product, the marketing of food to tourists, and food tourism as an instrument of destination and general development. Tikkanen notes that gastronomy establishes a synergy with tourism through four different aspects: as an attraction, which means that the destination can use this item to promote this place; as a component of the product, where it delves into the design of dining (or oenological) routes; as an experience, addressing the existence of one or more locations where gastronomy takes on a different level and becomes a claim in itself, an example of this being the cuisine made by the great masters; and as a cultural phenomenon, premised on the existence of different food festivals (Tikkanen 2007).

Food and tourism play a major part in the contemporary experience economy. Food is a key part of all cultures, a major element of global intangible heritage, and an increasingly important attraction for tourists. Linking gastronomy and tourism offers a platform for the promotion of cultures through their culinary resources. The linkages between food and tourism also provide a platform for local economic development, and food experiences help to brand and market destinations, as well as supporting the local culture that is so attractive to tourists (Hjalager and Richards 2002; OECD 2009). For these destinations, gastronomy and food-related activities are a central feature of the tourist attraction. Gastronomic tourism offers enormous potential in stimulating local, regional, and national economies and enhancing sustainability and inclusion (see Figure 1.2). It contributes positively to many levels of the tourism value chain, such as agriculture, culture, and local food. Hence, this not only assists in destination branding, but also helps to promote sustainable tourism through preserving valuable cultural heritage, empowering and nurturing pride amongst communities, and enhancing intercultural understanding.

Through a visit to a food festival, cooking class, or farm-to-table dining experience, tourists garner a better sense of local values and traditions. An increasing number of tourist destina-

![Figure 1.2](image_url)

*Figure 1.2  Food truck displaying local foods in Hong Kong. (Source: Saurabh Kumar Dixit.)*
tions are very sought-after because of their unique culinary and gastronomy (Hjalager 2002). In addition, food has an important role in differentiating destinations in a meaningful way (Okumus, Okumus, and McKercher 2007). Local and regional food can add value to a destination because visitors consume the products of a destination; hence, the products must be something that satisfies their needs and wants. Familiarity with local, regional, and national cuisine has become an interest for tourists (Du Rand, Heath, and Alberts 2003). Local food is a fundamental component of a destination’s attributes, adding to the range of attractions and the overall tourist experience (Symons 1999). This makes local food an essential constituent of tourism production as well as consumption. This implies that gastronomic tourism is better developed in areas where the local cuisine is better connected to the local culture, and is less so in areas where there is a weaker connection (Riley 2005).

The cuisine has an impact on the level of satisfaction the tourist has with their experience and is also a part of the destination’s cultural heritage (Ignatov and Smith 2006). Although the matter of whether food affects tourist travel intentions has received ample scholarly and empirical attention, little is known about how food affects tourist satisfaction (Smith and Costello 2009). The examination of tourists’ behavioral processes that transmit the effects of gastronomic tourism has been recognized as critical for moving toward understanding this matter (Bertella 2011; Ignatov and Smith 2006; Tse and Crotts 2005).

Classification of gastronomic tourism

The roots of gastronomic tourism lie in agriculture, culture, and tourism (Bessiere 1998; Boniface 2003; Cusack 2000; Hjalager and Corigliano 2000; Selwood 2003; Wagner 2001; Wolf 2002). All three components offer opportunities and activities to be marketed and to position gastronomic tourism as an attraction and experience in a destination. Agriculture provides the product, namely food and wine; culture provides the history and authenticity; and tourism provides the infrastructure and services, and combines the three components into the overall gastronomic tourism experience. These three components form the basis for the positioning of gastronomic tourism as one of the components in the tourism paradigm.

Food is seldom the key reason for visiting a destination and most often is considered as part of the overall destination experience (Hjalager and Richards 2002; Long 2004; Selwood 2003). However, food is becoming one of the most important attractions as tourists seek new and authentic experiences and alternative forms of tourism (Boyne, Hall, and Williams 2003; Crouch and Ritchie 1999; Hjalager and Richards 2002; Selwood 2003).

There is an array of uses for food in tourism, ranging from meeting the tourist’s biological and functional need to eat, to the use of produce in tourism promotion to differentiate destinations and create a sense of “place” through regional identity. Food may also add value to a core tourism product and become the focus for special events. Additionally, food may be used as a stand-alone niche attraction (Jones and Jenkins 2002: 115), referred to by tourism writers as gourmet tourism, gastronomic tourism, cuisine tourism, culinary tourism, or food tourism (Okumus, Okumus, and McKercher 2007: 19). Some other synonyms for this form of tourism are: tasting tourism, gourmet tourism, spa cuisine, wine tourism, cuisine tourism, beer pub tourism, and other product- or region-specific terms or destination brands, such as regional culinary vacations.

Hall et al. (2003) used words and phrases such as: experiential trip, gastronomic regions, recreational or entertainment purposes, visits to primary and secondary producers of food, gastronomic festivals, food fairs, events, farmers’ markets, cooking shows, demonstrations, tastings of quality food products, and food-related activities related to particular lifestyles.
and cultures. Gastronomy products can refer not just to food and beverages, but also to food-related activities pertaining to culture and heritage (Zahari et al. 2009).

Gastronomic tourism can be regarded as a form of niche or alternative tourism and, as a result of escalating competition and a change in traveler wants in terms of a destination experience, is now more often being included as a new or additional sector in the travel and tourism business (Poon 1993; Ritchie and Crouch 2000). Gastronomic tourism has grown dramatically, although it takes many diverse forms in different places, including the following (Swarbrooke 2002):

- food- and drink-themed events and festivals (e.g. the Annual Food Festival in Hong Kong; Wine/Tea/Indigenous Food Festival, Shillong, India)
- food and drink markets (e.g. “producers’ markets”, such as Cours Saleya in Nice, France)
- traditional, national types of eating (e.g. the Churrascarias of Brazil); food producers and drink manufacturers who offer visits and tours to their premises and opportunities to taste their products (tea estates of Assam and Meghalaya)
- food producers who develop attractions to promote their brands (e.g. Société Roquefort, France; street food market, Thailand)
- opportunities for tourists to visit working farms (e.g. coffee trails at Coorg, India)
- hotels that offer food- and drink-themed breaks where visitors can learn to cook particular dishes and/or appreciate local wines (food-themed hotels/resorts)
- food based souvenirs – items prepared by local businesses and offered to tourists through retail outlets, farms, or special events such as local jams, honey, pickle, etc

According to Long (2004), it is widely accepted that the scholarship relevant to gastronomic tourism comes primarily from three fields, which very often overlap: Anthology of Tourism; Folklore; and Food Studies. Studies related to gastronomic tourism have been largely limited to areas such as food safety, hygiene issues, analyses of food and wine festivals, supply issues, food production, food in tourism and cross-promotion of tourism in regional or national cuisines (Hall et al. 2000)

Hall and Sharples (2003) divided gastronomic tourism into three major categories according to the level of interest and the number of tourists. The first category, gourmet tourism (or gastronomic/cuisine tourism), has the most highly interested and committed gastronomic tourists. Nearly all tourist activities are related to food. Gourmet tourism can be considered a niche product because only a low number of tourists travel to a tourism destination with the major aim to dine at a specific restaurant or visit a food market or winery. Hall et al. (2003) define gourmet tourism as the type of gastronomic tourism that includes visits to expensive restaurants or wineries that include special products. A major aspect that distinguishes fine-dining restaurants from other segments is customer expectations of individuality and uniqueness in regard to food, wine, service, and atmosphere (Ottenbacher and Harrington 2006).

The second category, culinary tourism, has a moderate number of interested tourists. Culinary tourists appreciate food as a part of the essential experience, but the emphasis is not on food. Culinary tourists are those who eat out in local, rustic, traditional, but also reasonably priced restaurants and place value on good quality and quantity. It is presumed that these culinary tourists are, compared to gourmet tourists, easier to satisfy and rather more “down to earth.” The third category of gastronomic tourism, is rural/urban tourism, which characterizes a clear majority of the tourists. These gastronomic tourists have low (or no) interest in any kind of food activities and consider eating as trying something different or as a plain necessity. Therefore, the third category of gastronomic tourism is considered as non-gastronomic tourism.
According to Hall and Sharples (2003), wine tourism activities are also included in the definitions of the categories of gastronomic tourism. Despite the inclusion of wine tourism within gastronomic tourism, it can also be viewed as a gastronomic tourism category by itself (Charters and Ali-Knight 2002; Getz 2000). The different typologies of gastronomic tourists are elaborated further in Chapter 17 of the present handbook.

Memorable gastronomic experience

Although it is established that food is an inextricable element of the touristic experience (Hall and Sharples 2003) and can act as a primary trip motivator (Quan and Wang 2004), it remains on the fringes of tourism research. The food experience is no longer considered as an ad hoc experience for travelers, but rather it is rooted in the tourists’ quest for novelty, uniqueness, sensation-seeking, and the distinctive culture of the host country (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen 2016). The gastronomic tourism experience is a form of tourism experience that is related to tourists savoring the gastronomy in local restaurants, sampling street foods, attending cooking classes, and visiting local food markets and food exhibitions or festivals in unfamiliar places. It encompasses tourists who travel with local gastronomy sampling as the primary purpose of their trip (i.e. the main motivation) and those who deliberate local gastronomy sampling as a side activity (i.e. the secondary motivation) of their vacation (Long 2004; Stanley and Stanley 2015).

Based on Cohen’s (1984) phenomenological categorization of tourist lifestyles, Hjalager (2003) offers a phenomenological model of gastronomic tourism experiences. The model of tourism and gastronomy lifestyles depicts tourist attitudes and preferences for food and beverage according to four categorizations – recreational, existential, diversionary, and experimental gastronomic tourists (see Chapter 17 of this handbook for further elaboration). While investigating food as part of the tourist experience, Quan and Wang (2004) developed a typology of food consumption. On vacation, food may be consumed as: (1) a peak experience (main attraction), (2) secondary or supporting experience, or (3) an extension of the daily routine.

Tourists’ gastronomic experiences are instrumental in the overall tourist experience and are therefore important considerations in destination marketing (Cohen and Avieli 2004; Kivela and Crotts 2006). Bhattacharjee and Mogilner (2014) defined tourism experience as being either ordinary or extraordinary. Ordinary experiences are those that are common, frequent, and within the realm of everyday life. Extraordinary experiences, by contrast, are uncommon, infrequent, and go beyond the realm of everyday life. They are emotionally intense experiences, perceived as magical, intrinsically enjoyable, surprising, and transformative, and often yield a feeling of personal triumph and sense of achievement (Arnould and Price 1993; Bhattacharjee and Mogilner 2014; Schmitt, Brakus, and Zarantonello 2015).

Kivela and Crotts (2006) illustrated that our sensory perceptions play a major psychological and physiological role in our appraisal and appreciation of food, as they do for other experiences at a destination. Consumption of food, especially when dining out, is a pleasurable sensory experience, hence the pleasure factor or the “feelgood” factor as a result of food consumption at a destination is a “pull factor” and a marketing and merchandising tool that must not be underestimated. For this reason, one can argue that tourists often place considerable emphasis on how they feel at a destination, and how they experience what the destination offers, by carefully selecting that special restaurant and/or food that might fulfil a particular personal desire (Richards 2002).

Research stresses that providing tourists with positive, memorable experiences is essential to the tourism industry (Ritchie, Tung, and Ritchie 2011) because travelers cognitively use memorized experiences for future travel intentions, such as decisions to revisit locations or
Gastronomic tourism

relive an experience (Braun-LaTour, Grinley, and Loftus 2006; Huang and Hsu 2009). Indeed, food and eating experiences may constitute one essential aspect of these positive, memorable experiences (Morgan 2006). A number of studies have been carried out on the food experiences of travelers, many of which have focused on memorable food experiences (e.g. Adongo, Anuga, and Dayour 2015; Lashley, Morrison, and Randall 2004). Existing literature has often treated the terms “memorable” and “extraordinary” experience as synonymous. Memorable food and drink experiences are proposed not only to significantly contribute to travel motivation and behavior but also to influence how tourists experience a tourism destination (Wolf 2006) (see also Chapter 22 of this handbook: The Tourists’ Gastronomic Experience).

Numerous studies have portrayed the importance of food, wine, and dining as a key contributor to the tourist experience (Hall and Sharples 2003; Kivela and Crotts 2006, 2009). It has been proposed that food and drink are significant to memory because they often involve all five senses (Sutton 2001, 2010), and food can evoke cognitive, emotional, and physical recollections (Holtzman 2006). However, it is difficult to objectively describe the connection between food and memory. One major reason is that “memory” is difficult to define (Berliner 2005; Holtzman 2006), as it may refer to individual, social, or collective memory. Berliner (2005) argued that the term “memory” is vague and confusing, proposing that researchers often combine or confuse the concepts of culture and memory. Memory is an ongoing process that can incorporate giving meaning to the past (Holtzman 2006) at an individual or societal level. It can be difficult to remember individual meals, as “ordinary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Aspect of Gastronomic Experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Occasions</td>
<td>Family events; repetition (Sutton 2001); holidays; family rituals; type of meal or snack (Lupton 1994); change from everyday life (Kivela and Crotts 2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>Standard; familiar; family (Sutton 2001); great joy or pleasure; unhappiness; frustration; special occasion; marker of difference/out of the ordinary; did not match expectations; ethnic cohesion; surprise; smell and taste (particular senses) (Lupton 1994); weird foods; “real” food/authenticity; atmosphere; themed restaurants; meeting expectations (Kivela and Crotts 2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual traits</td>
<td>Status-seeking; individualism; novelty-seeking (Sutton 2001); sentimental; particular emotions (Lupton 1994); food reflecting their lifestyle; learn about local culture; hands-on learning; prestige (Kivela and Crotts 2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local culture</td>
<td>Offers the opportunity to taste dishes made with local ingredients, recipes, and technique (Kim 2013; Lin and Mao 2015; Quan and Wang 2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novelty</td>
<td>Refers to the extent to which the food/drink experience provides an intensification of daily life experiences by offering novel, fresh, and original features Quan and Wang 2004; Ritchie and Crouch 2003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social interaction</td>
<td>Relates to whether the food/drink experience fosters social interactions between the travelers and the residents as well as between the travelers and their traveling party (Chandralal and Valenzuela 2013, 2015; Chandralal, Rindfleish, and Valenzuela 2015)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service quality</td>
<td>Based on the extent to which the staff is perceived by travelers as being friendly, courteous, helpful, and willing to go the extra mile (Kim 2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Décor</td>
<td>Facilitates the immersion into the food/drink experience through the use of music, design, architecture, color, and smell (Kim 2013; Magnini and Thelen 2008).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

meals … are non-events” (Sutton 2001: 107), but memory could be triggered by what one “used to eat.”

Food may be most memorable while traveling for many reasons. First, food memories often relate to a particular instance, so they can be categorized as events (rather than Sutton’s “non-events”). For example, during travel, even “ordinary” activities (like eating) can be perceived to be “extraordinary” because of the food or setting. Sutton argued that without an element of novelty, a food may not be able to be the “source of distinction, discourse, and hence memory” (2001: 199). Travel often provides this element of novelty by presenting varied food in varied settings with different people. Table 1.1 presents many potential attributes that may lead to memorable gastronomic experiences.

Conclusion

The consumption of food in experience marketing is socially and culturally embedded within contemporary life. The gastronomic capital of a destination reflects its prevailing cultural and historical heritage. In tasting the typical gastronomic products and dishes, and by acquiring the mentioned gastronomic experiences, one may expand one’s knowledge of the destination visited. Because of the increasing importance that tourists grant to acquiring such experiences, gastronomic tourism (as part of cultural tourism) is being consolidated as an essential aspect for destinations, especially as an alternative to sun, sand, and sea tourism. Despite the growing interest in gastronomic tourism as a field of study and as a way to promote a tourism destination, the knowledge about how to successfully develop and implement a gastronomic tourism strategy is limited. Gastronomic tourism in most parts of the world has been, and needs to be, integrated into traditional tourism activities.

Destination marketers need to weigh the contribution of gastronomic products in their tourism packages. When developing food as tourism products, destinations should target food lovers as their potential consumers and utilize different information sources to deliver the information of local cuisine and related products to the target consumers. Boyne, Hall, and Williams (2003) argued that policy makers should cooperate with practitioners and developers to promote gastronomic tourism initiatives as a means of regional development, demonstrating that the role of food in tourism can be extended from a tourist’s attraction to a destination into the tourist’s major attraction to a destination.

Bringing together consumer, producer, and destination development perspectives contributes to a comprehensive understanding of gastronomic tourism, which considers the multitude of interests at stake, but also the multitude of resources that producers across sectors and public–private divides, as well as consumers, can contribute. While tourists are quite eager to consume gastronomic products, concern is also spreading to save the gastronomic heritage before it is washed away by globalization or McDonaldization.

This introductory chapter of the *Handbook* therefore sets the scene to understand the basics of food, its linkages with tourism, and different dimensions of gastronomic tourism. It further examines the key drivers leading to variable gastronomic experiences. Furthermore, this chapter presented the elements that contribute to memorable gastronomic experiences, which differ from the elements of a memorable destination or a generic memorable tourism experience.

References

Gastronomic tourism


The genesis of gastronomic tourism

Throughout history, people have prepared food which was sourced from, and influenced by, their immediate surroundings and circumstances, and its consumption has always been fundamental to civilization and daily life. Practical economic needs have repeatedly motivated people of all classes to improve culinary technology, thereby achieving gastronomic progress (Rebora 2001:x). Essentially, though, that progress tended to have a parochial nature, as frequent travel, and at scale, was just not possible, but as modes of travel improved, a natural curiosity about the ‘other’ was aroused so that travel outside of normal surroundings became attractive. Historically, little is known about travelers’ food. They may have taken some of their own food with them (and the people that prepared it), but the supplies were unlikely to last more than a few days, so they relied on the hospitality of others either during the journey or at their destination. Some rulers encouraged this – over 4000 years ago the caravan routes in Sumeria (now Southern Iraq) had networks of inns for travelers (Symons 1998:302). So, contrary to popular perception, gastronomic tourism as a behavior is not a twentieth-century phenomenon. In many cases, the reason for travel was food itself, searching for new and tradable foods, such as spices, which had great economic value in Europe (Katz and Weaver 2003:416). A happy by-product of this led to the realization that food is one of the most effective ways to communicate with, and begin to understand, the ‘other’ and his or her culture. In effect, this breaks down the barriers that exist between cultures, different ethnicities, and geographies.

However, the evolution and development of gastronomic tourism arguably has a more substantial genesis in forces capable of penetrating cultural barriers and internationalizing food. These forces include war (invading forces seeking familiar foods, but also returning soldiers familiar with a wider range of foods than before); disaster or famine (where a people accept a food which they might otherwise reject); imperialism and colonization (such as Islamic influence in Spain in the middle ages, Spain and Portugal in the Americas, the Ottoman Empire in southeast Europe); migration and exile (both forced, such as slavery, and economic diasporas) (Fernández-Armesto 2002; for substantial discussion on this, see Chapter 6: The Edible Horizon; Laudan 2015; Katz and Weaver 2003:416). Both Fernández-Armesto (2002) and Laudan (2015) also cite ‘cultural magnetism’ as a more intangible force where communities emulate the foodways of cultures of superior prestige. The global hegemony of French gastronomy is an obvious
historical example, while a more contemporary example is the emergence of “New Nordic Food” in 2005 (Nordic Council of Ministers 2006). Over time, gastronomic counter-colonization has also occurred where both returnees and migrants from the colonies have added to the gastronomy of the colonizer in the post-colonial era. Obvious examples include Indian and Pakistani food in England, Vietnamese food in France, and Indonesian food in Holland.

**Using gastronomy to assess social difference**

There is considerable evidence that, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, food was the principal benchmark which travelers used to assess the difference between themselves and the people they were meeting on their travels, and they wrote about it in terms of cultural meaning and social markers (Dursteler 2014). Similar to what is expected now, contemporaries created a literature aimed at future and prospective travelers offering advice on what, and how, to observe on their journey, with food a prominent element of the recommendations. For example, in 1548, one commentator (Ortensio Lando), perhaps one of the earliest forerunners of gastronomic tourism, suggested in his literature a tour of Italy travelling north from Sicily to the Alps for a hypothetical visitor, recommending where to stop and eat local food specialties (Montanari 2012:53; Montanari 1996:160). Similarly, in France, the French naturalist Jean Florimond Boudon de Saint-Amants wrote of the foods he encountered during his travels in the Pyrénées in 1789 – and this was just one of the 157 accounts of travels in France at this time (Csergo 1999:502). Even Thomas Jefferson, the third president of the USA in 1801, upon encountering a request for travel advice from two wealthy Americans, mentions the wines of France in addition to providing information about the sights worth seeing (Levenstein 1998:3). Aristocratic young Englishmen and women on ‘grand tours’ of the European Continent in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries regularly described the foods that they ate, and their opinions of it, in their letters home (Black 2003).

So, whether in travel accounts from the early modern period or in contemporary developed economies, while food may well be perceived only as ‘fuel’ or a survival necessity, gastronomic tourism is also perceived as a means of enriching experiences, expressing personal identities, or adding to a quality of life. Globalization has increased interest in, and focus on, the regional identities and roots of our culture. Gastronomy is fundamentally related to some sort of ethnic, national or religious ‘character’ and how it reflects people’s social and cultural values. Examples of this would include: Jewish or Muslim communities not eating pork, or Catholics not eating fish on Fridays; the Moroccan habit of eating sweet pastries with soup; Italians and pasta; Spaniards and tapas; Ireland and potatoes. Not only that, gastronomy arguably occupies an increasingly meaningful place in people’s consciousness, as evidenced by its huge attraction as a topic of modern public commentary, usually on social media.

Clearly, there is evidence that tourists have increasingly wished to share their gastronomic tourism experience with whoever might be interested, but why? Anthropologists such as Claude Lévi-Strauss (1978) have emphasized that eating is not only a basic physical need, but also, and perhaps primarily, a marker of social and cultural belonging. Indeed, there is an increasing body of work which sees the consumption and experience of food ‘on site’ as being core, but not mainstreamed as yet:

In short, foodways and cuisine are a more important part of the tourism system than simply food and food services; they are imbued with cultural meaning, experience and permanence.

*(Timothy and Ron 2013:99)*
Both now, and in the past, the manner in which travelers or tourists dealt with the daily physical requirement of nourishment, and their relationship with food during the visit was, and is, limited by two extremes. At one extreme, the motivation for the visit is the gastronomy itself or a specific element of it, and, at the other extreme, food is simply fuel and there is no desire or interest to change from habitual consumption. In between, of course, is a wide range of opportunities to embrace and practice gastronomic tourism. Happily, for tourism, gastronomy cannot travel successfully, even now; yes, a dish can be reproduced elsewhere assuming the availability of its ingredients, but the authentic gastronomy of a dish is tied to tangible and intangible elements, such as a sense of place, context, manners, material culture, and social customs, that are difficult to replicate away from its native surroundings (Ramos Abascal 2016). This illustrates how the gastronomy/tourism relationship goes beyond eating and creates a fundamentally different type of relationship between producers and tourists. Essentially, the tourist experiences gastronomy “embedded with information at the point of sale” so that the tourist can make connections (an economy of regard) with the place of production, the methods employed, and the values of the people involved (Sage 2003:49). Montanari (2012) arrives at a similar point of view:

Identity does not exist without exchange. Identity is defined and constructed as a function (author’s emphasis) of an exchange that is simultaneously economic and cultural, the market and the skill, the merchandise and the experience.

(Montanari 2012:163–164)

This, in turn, both creates and reinforces the affiliation that tourists seek with their environment, inevitably increasing social and cultural capital. Consequently, authenticity and forms of economic, social, cultural, and culinary capital are germane to this discussion about gastronomic tourism (Naccarato and LeBesco 2012; Buscemi 2014). While these concepts are not specific to gastronomic tourism, they inform and deepen an understanding of the dynamics and evolution of contemporary gastronomic tourism. In effect, people have always wanted to either tell others about their experiences, particularly about their gastronomic travel experiences, in order to demonstrate their social and cultural capital, or to hear from others relating ‘insider’ information on what to do or eat, thus acquiring social and cultural capital in advance of their trip. This behavior implies that, up to the mid-twentieth century at least, gastronomic tourism information tended to be asymmetric; that is, one party to an economic transaction (usually the seller, because their store of information is based on numerous sales over a period of time), possesses greater material knowledge than the other party (usually a buyer, whose information is based on the experience of only a few purchases).

**Gastronomic tourism comes of age**

In this context, one of the more significant twentieth century developments in gastronomic tourism is credited to Maurice-Edmond Sailland (1872–1956) who described himself as the ‘Prince of Gastronomes’ and used the pseudonym of Curnonsky (Kay 2017). Curnonsky and others linked gastronomy and tourism, by using their gastronomic publications to capitalize on two ‘novelties’. As quoted by Mennell, Curnonsky wrote:

This pioneering work benefitted from two novelties: the ‘democratised’ motorcar and the taste for good fare which … developed in France from 1919 onwards.
The motor-car allowed the French to discover the cuisine of each province, and created the breed of what I have called ‘gastro-nomads’.

(Mennell 2016:245)

This, of course, was a particular advantage not only to car tire companies, particularly Michelin, but also to others, as it encouraged gastronomic tourism and popularized regional foods by addressing the availability of information which could be trusted. The Michelin Guide and its star system was the first of many consumer guides to emerge in the early twentieth century. It is also the oldest, and the most widely perceived as an authority (particularly by chefs, which legitimized it in the eyes of the gastronomic tourist) especially as the guide moved from France to other European countries (Lane 2014).

Most consumers prefer to have a variety of views to choose from, online or offline, and this explains the gastronomy discourse explosion in the twentieth and twenty-first centuries. The plethora of modern food criticism has been characterized as “The Judge” (known personalities, food critics such as Ruth Reichl in the USA or Nicholas Lander in the UK); “The Tribunal” (obviously Michelin, where annual judgements are given without publishing the grounds for reaching them); and “The Plebiscite” (essentially, democracy in action where diners report their experiences, such as TripAdvisor or Zagat) (Parkhurst Ferguson 2008). As an example of the plebiscite, Zagat (now owned by Google since 2011) exemplified the American democratic way – any restaurant customer sends in their opinions – but it also highlights weaknesses. There was no objectiveness guarantee, no documentation required (receipts, for example), and the volume of comment required severe editing to arrive at an average opinion, which could be misleading (Shaw 2000). Even with all these opinions available, gastronomic tourists have preferred to rely on word of mouth, and still do, although that has now evolved from one tourist/consumer/customer telling another on a personal level to being curators of their own information through a variety of platforms, mostly online (Bussell and Roberts 2014). With the advent of the digital age, gastronomic tourism has become even more complex in its production. Each tourist now has more control over the ‘what’, ‘when’, and ‘how’ of their tourism experiences through social media, peer review sites, and a multiplicity of websites providing the means to self-organize, in real time. Thus, each individual tourist experience is a series of distinct moments, connecting service provider/producer and tourist/consumer, influenced on both sides by need, mood, and context (Mulcahy 2015). This complexity in the individual compares to the structural complexity and granularity of the tourism and hospitality industry in terms of its ability to service each distinct moment of consumption, whether that is having a meal, getting on a train, going to an event, or visiting an attraction.

It has only been in the later part of the nineteenth century that mass travel, facilitated by economic, social, and technological improvement, evolved into tourism generally, although gastronomic tourism did not become an identifiable distinct industry until the late 1990s or later. Key drivers of this evolution were improved communications and transport systems, particularly the growth of railway and airline networks and the reduction in costs as mass market tourism emerged. Forms of mass communication, initially through print media, and then the introduction of broadcast media (television, radio, and cinema), particularly after the Second World War, spread new culinary ideas and recipes. In the 1960s, women went to work outside the home, while labor-saving technology (fridges, washing machines, and vacuums, for example) lessened the burden of the tasks that still needed to be done at home (Short 2006). The emergence and growth of supermarkets ensured an abundance of global products which encouraged the ‘cultural magnetism’ referred to above. Essentially, consumers were increasingly eating out of preference, not just physical need, given wider choices through
more information and travel options. More recently, globalization has made a range of foods familiar, indeed, almost mundane (e.g. Japanese sushi, Mexican tacos, Korean kimchi, Arab pita bread, and Turkish doner kebab) beyond their geographic origins, so that they have a much reduced gastronomic or touristic attraction. As gastronomic tourists have become more familiar with the exotic or unfamiliar, they seek more new opportunities to experience gastronomic activities (Katz and Weaver 2003:407). This is a characteristic of gastronomic tourism which ensures continued development and evolution, irrespective of the origin or destination of the tourist.

At the later end of the twentieth century, interest was growing in local heritage at an international level, arguably led by France. In 1996, France’s gastronomic heritage inventory program was extended, with the assistance of the European Union, to the whole of Europe (Poulain 2005). Given sustained growth in international travel over sixty years, which has increased from 25 million travelers globally in 1950 to 1,186 million in 2015 (United Nations World Tourism Organization 2016), the tourism industry now utilizes gastronomic tourism as a heritage asset and revenue driver where tourists attach value to tradition, native cooking, and authenticity. In doing so, tourists are reassured in their unease not only about the increasing industrialization of food and its production, but also about how globalization may be diluting local or regional identities (Poulain 2005). Given that perspective, tourism now continues to evolve as part of the contemporary experience economy, and food is increasingly a more obvious and considerable component of that (Richards 2012). The significance of gastronomic tourism was exemplified by the 1st UNWTO World Forum on Food Tourism organized by the UNWTO in 2015, and located in a center of gastronomic tourism – San Sebastian in Spain. Such was the interest level, that it was organized again in 2016 and called the 2nd UNWTO World Forum on Gastronomy Tourism (note the change in the title from Food Tourism to Gastronomy Tourism), this time in Peru. The 3rd Forum returned to San Sebastian in 2017, and, interestingly, the 4th was held in Bangkok, Thailand in 2018, and 5th forum is scheduled in San Sebastian (Spain) in 2019, thus recognizing the global nature of gastronomic tourism as countries seek to establish credibility in the space.

Current evolution depends on research and its dissemination

It has already been demonstrated here that gastronomic tourism has existed in an informal manner for some time. As gastronomic tourism has progressed, continued successful development and evolution of the activity requires study and research which must then be disseminated accordingly if it is to have any beneficial effect. The research would ordinarily seek to establish the size and characteristics of the market, discover who the gastronomic tourist is, what are the motivators for that tourist to travel, and what are the motivators of satisfaction during the trip. In this regard, gastronomic tourism is still in its infancy, as without this information, it is very difficult to establish whether existing gastronomic tourism infrastructure in destinations can meet the needs of gastronomic tourists. An early indication of the significance of gastronomic tourism was in 2001 when Erik Wolf, President of the International Culinary Tourism Association (now the World Food Travel Association or WFTA), presented a white paper about culinary tourism to his organization. The paper evolved into a book that documented the growing interest in food and wine tourism, and how requests for culinary tours could drive local businesses and restaurateurs to meet the growing demand (Wolf 2006). Around the same time, commissioned studies of significance were undertaken by the Canadian Tourism Commission (Lang Research 2001 and 2007), the Cooperative Research Centre in Australia (2005), and the WFTA in America (Travel Industry Association of America 2007),
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although not all are in the public domain (Getz, Robinson, and Vujicic 2014). The UNWTO also published a report at their 3rd Forum (United Nations World Tourism Organization 2017). The WFTA has since conducted research in 2010, 2013, and again in 2016. The 2016 research was much more international in scope by conducting analysis of outbound travelers from eleven countries: Australia, China, France, Germany, Ireland, India, Italy, Mexico, Spain, United Kingdom, and the United States.

Contemporary academic researchers of tourism tend to see tourism as a “state of mind” and, rather than classify it as a singular experience, consider tourism as a series of experiences in which some type of ‘Otherness’ is explored (Katz and Weaver 2003:407). The challenge for gastronomic tourism has been that there is no single theory for being a tourist and no single practice can define gastronomic tourism, thus implying a great degree of diversity. According to Getz, Robinson, and Vujicic (2014), academic research literature in food or gastronomic tourism only began to flourish since 2005, with the largest academic study conducted in Hong Kong by Kivela and Crotts (2006). This may be due to the fact that, to date, it is not entirely clear that there is a common understanding of, or agreement on, what constitutes ‘gastronomic tourism’. Tourism based on food has generated several descriptors, reflecting the different sectors of the tourism industry. The folklorist Lucy Long holds that the term gastronomic tourism was first used in 1985 by Wilbur Zelinsky in an analysis of ethnicities prevalent in US restaurants (Long 2014). In the meantime, other terms emerged, such as culinary tourism (Long 1998), gourmet tourism, cuisine tourism, or tasting tourism (Henderson 2009). ‘Gastronomic tourism’ was presented in 2002 by Anne-Mette Hjalager and Greg Richards as an emerging discipline recognizing both gastronomy and tourism as dynamic cultural constructions reflecting specific histories and contemporary interests (Hjalager and Richards 2002). Thus there is a real need to differentiate between tourists who consume food as a part of the travel experience, and those tourists whose activities, behaviors, and even destination selection are influenced by an interest in food (Hall and Sharples 2003; OECD 2012:52).

The journey has only just begun.

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Introduction

The role of food in tourism and the economy at large can hardly be underestimated. The OECD (2012) states that there is a growing number of tourists that are looking for authentic and novel food experiences that are linked to places they visit. Tourists eat at least twice a day, and food expenditure is reported to comprise at least 30 per cent of tourist expenditure. Evidently, this money is spent in local businesses, which is positive for the employment of people and may help to ease poverty in relevant places. The above-mentioned report gives examples of such policies. Increasingly, (local) governments are acknowledging the importance of gastronomic or culinary tourism and developing programs to attract tourists. This development may well be inspired by the success of Catalonia in Spain and/or the development of the Nordic cuisine in the Scandinavian countries (Byrkjeflot, Strandgaard Pedersen, and Svejenova 2013). The dominant positions of restaurants from these regions in the list of best restaurants is likely to be correlated to the interest in gastronomy of their governments.

Consumers have become more and more knowledgeable and demanding. According to Pine and Gilmore (1999), the economy has shifted from service to experience. They argue that the contemporary consumer is willing to pay more for complete and meaningful experiences that enhance a basic service, like eating and drinking, and bring it to a higher level. Boswijk, Thijssen, and Peelen (2005), elaborated on this concept and outlined the following characteristics of such experiences:

- There is a heightened concentration and focus, involving all one’s senses.
- One’s sense of time is altered.
- One is touched emotionally.

Hospitality professionals deliver the gastronomic experience. If you take the above seriously, delivering a meaningful gastronomic experience must be regarded as quite a challenge. Many aspects could be involved, like authenticity (local ingredients, preparations, customs, etc.), quality and consistency, food safety and security, local sourcing and building networks, and marketing strategies and promotion, just to mention a few. We will ultimately focus on a subject that is crucial above all: the role of education of food professionals in
the development of gastronomic tourism. The scientific approach to gastronomy offers a fundamentally new way to assess eating and drinking and therefore liking or customer satisfaction. In this chapter, we will discuss some aspects of this new view on gastronomy, how it links to hospitality and hospitality management, and how this knowledge could benefit hospitality education in relation to gastronomic tourism. We first take a closer look at how we define gastronomy.

**About gastronomy**

Traditionally, gastronomy was primarily associated with culinary enjoyment, or ‘the practice or art of choosing, cooking and eating good food’ as the Oxford dictionary states. Today we define gastronomy as the science of flavor and tasting (Klosse 2013). This new definition brings gastronomy to a completely different playing field; it places it in the realm of science, and this offers great opportunities, especially for training of food professionals both in the service and in the kitchen.

The two central concepts in the science of gastronomy are flavor and tasting. Both are intricately related and yet very different. Flavor can be defined in many ways. In our view of gastronomy, flavor can best be considered as a product quality, a result of nature and human intervention. Thus defined, flavor is basically a particular collection of molecules and physical structures. Consequently, flavor is placed in the world of the natural sciences and has quite an objective dimension. Tasting, on the other hand, is the human capacity to register flavor, and people use all of their senses to do that. Tasting is a sublimation of our senses. Therefore, it is by definition subjective and the domain of the human related sciences, including bodily knowledge like neurology.

The mission of gastronomy is to get a better understanding of why foods and beverages are liked. Liking adds value to the tasting experience. This is a function of the brain: information gathered during tasting is synthesized and interpreted. This is flavor perception and can be defined as the brain image we get from tasting. This whole process has always been considered as a black box and led to the general supposition that there is no arguing about taste.

The key for opening this box is making the distinction between flavor and tasting. When a wine is poured from one bottle, people have the same product, yet they can perceive the same wine differently. Flavor is the constant, people are the variable. If both flavor and tasting are considered to be personal, or rather subjective, scientific research is severely hindered, if not impossible. It may well be one of the reasons why we still know little about tasting compared to other senses.

**Flavor classification**

Flavor can be assessed objectively and this opens the door for classification. The flavor styles model was developed which can be used for all kinds of purposes. It is a tool to identify flavors and communicate about them. Furthermore, this model is used for menu composition, improvement of dishes, and for matching foods and beverages. The model is based on powerful parameters that can be measured, at least to a certain extent: mouthfeel and flavor intensity. These are the universal flavor factors that help to describe the flavor not only of wines, but also of chocolate and chips, French fries and mayonnaise, soft drinks and milk, beer and wine, coffee and tea, meat and fish, fruits and vegetables. In other words, in everything we could possibly taste, these same flavor factors can be distinguished, in all kinds of ways, combinations and intensities, or in whatever culture or local cuisine.
Mouthfeel is the core concept of the classification. Mouthfeel is about the feeling a product gives in the mouth, whether it is a food or a beverage. Within mouthfeel, three classes are distinguished:

- Contracting
- Coating
- Dry

Within each class of mouthfeel, there are differences in intensity. Take acidity: we can measure the acidity by looking at the pH and the concentration. The lower the pH and the higher the concentration, the greater the intensity and the force of contraction will be. Likewise, there are many mustards on the market that may be very different in contracting. In many cases, mixing ingredients within the same class will also lead to a rise in intensity. Think of how the flavor intensity increases when you add salt or red peppers to a regular vinegar. Or how the force of coating increases by mixing sugar and fat. This particular mix is suggested to be the secret behind many popular industry foods.

We see the three classes of mouthfeel as forces, vectors if you want. For something to be tasted, it needs to be above the so-called ‘sensory threshold’. That is where the intensity starts. In essence, flavor intensity is about the force of flavor. Not all intensities are equal and they mutually react. There are elements that enhance flavor and there is suppression or masking. It is a real power play.

The vectors of mouthfeel flavor combined with intensity form the basis of a three-dimensional model: the flavor styles cube with eight distinct flavor styles. This theory is scientifically validated in my thesis *The Concept of Flavor Styles to Classify Flavors* (Klosse 2004).

**Deliciousness and liking**

Food quality can be considered both the most well-defined and ill-defined concept in the food industry today. Food scientists or professional chefs are likely to define food quality from a product point of view. Their definition does not necessarily correspond with consumer opinion. For commercial food products and dishes in restaurants, it is essential that a product has a high quality from a consumer point of view. For commercial food companies, restaurants included, it is essential to know the ‘drivers’ of product acceptance (Cardello 1995).

Similar to distinguishing flavor and tasting, it is useful to separate deliciousness from liking. Deliciousness relates to flavor and liking relates to tasting. The first is product-related, the second human-related. The logical consequence would be that deliciousness could also be approached objectively, just as flavor. Liking is a personal judgement and, by definition, subjective. Deliciousness is in the hands of the producer, chef, winemaker, even of nature itself, while liking is the desired consumer response.

An interesting perspective opens up. Is ‘yummy’ a coincidence? Is there is a right way of doing things? To say the least, there is a lot of objective knowledge involved. Harold McGee’s *On Food and Cooking* (2004) unlocked many culinary secrets. In 2011, Nathan Myhrvold and his associates added ‘Modernist Cuisine’ to the ‘must have list’ of chefs Myhrvold, Young and Bilet (2011). It is important for chefs to learn about the science behind their recipes. People will like foods that have been well prepared over the ones that have been ruined by a bad cook.

We can also approach the question from the other side: if yummy was a coincidence, it would be reasonable to suppose that the group of people that like a certain product or combination would always be find a similar number of people that dislike it. We know that this is not the case.
Although there are — to my knowledge — no foods that are universally liked, it is clear that there are foods that are liked more than others and even more importantly, it is safe to assume that the ones that are well-prepared are better liked than the ones that are less well-made.

Liking is a subjective personal judgement. People are not the same, which implies that the same food may be liked by the one and disliked by the other. Tasting capacity differs from person to person and there are many other influences. Tasting is learning. Some preferences are ‘acquired tastes’. A liking for beer, Brussels sprouts, coffee, and dark chocolate takes time to develop. Wine tasting is can also serve as an example. People can learn to recognize flavors and build up experience. In the process, it is likely that preferences and liking are going to shift. Elements that experts consider as positive, may be negative drivers of liking for ‘normal consumers’, and the other way around: amateurs may like flavors that experts consider to be defects (Hughson and Boakes 2002; Delgado and Guinard 2011).

**Culinary success factors**

Up to now, the fundamentals of flavor composition have not been formulated. Without a solid backbone, cooking and food-product development can easily get the character of ‘cook and look’. In art, music and architecture, laws of composition have been developed. Deliciousness in taste is comparable to ‘beauty’ in art. The ancient Greek had the same word, *techne*, for both ‘art’ and ‘technique’. Art was defined as ‘the right way of making things’. In all art, technique is essential. There may be technique without art, but there is no art without technique. Formulating CSFs can be seen as a first step in getting a better understanding of flavor and the components that drive liking.

The CSF’s were developed by analyzing successful dishes of 18 of the best chefs in the Netherlands. Six product characteristics or Culinary Success Factors (CSFs) were found and these were tested several times at different locations. This was done by having chefs develop three series of similar dishes. Every series consisted of one dish based on the CSFs and two variants, in which one of the CSFs was systematically left out, under the condition that the dish was still restaurant worthy. In a tasting, these nine dishes were served to focus groups. In the tasting, the ‘perfect’ dishes were preferred over the variants.

The following CSFs have been identified (Klosse 2004):

1. Name and presentation fit the expectation
2. Appetizing smell that fits the food
3. Good balance in flavor components in relation to the food
4. Presence of umami
5. Combination of hard and soft textures
6. Flavor richness is high

Another international study confirmed these outcomes (Klosse, poster presentation at the Pangborn conference Aug. 2017). The results show that the deliciousness of dishes is not a coincidence. It is the predictable outcome when the CSFs of food are present. The formulated CSFs will help chefs in the development of new dishes and improvement of existing ones. An interesting prospect for future research is to verify these factors in other cultures.

**Quality perception**

Consumers are not neutral observers and therefore flavor perception merits our attention. In hotels and restaurants, gastronomy is directly linked to hospitality. Above, we mentioned...
hospitality as an extrinsic factor. Therefore, it is logical that hospitality studies incorporate knowledge about gastronomy (see Santich in Lashley, Lynch and Morrison 2007). Liking is personal. Every human being has a personal framework in which he or she tastes. There are differences between men and women, children and the elderly, and genetic variations of human beings in general. Culture and experience play a role and also the climate and the price of products, just to mention a few of many influences. And it doesn’t stop there: products that are tasted simultaneously tend to react on each other. There are flavors that enhance others, while some others degrade. Even the greatest of wines can turn into ‘plonk’ with the ‘wrong’ meal, and adding an unfitting herb or spice may spoil the flavor of a dish. Surely, those types of interactions can better be avoided.

Flavor must also fit time and place. Consequently, the relationship between product quality as such and consumer appreciation is indirect and can be very complex. It is conceivable that although product quality may be high based on product characteristics, the consumer does not like it. In other words: a product is not good, but it is found to be good. This concept is known in marketing as the difference between the product and the consumer approach, and this applies to many other product categories as well.

In general, expectancies play an important role in liking. The package, label, and advertisements of products are mostly designed to raise consumer’s expectation of a product. Care should be taken that the product meets these expectancies. If it does, it is reported to be able to modify people’s actual perceptual experiences, similar to placebo effects in medicine. The magnitude of this effect is related to the availability and reliability of sensory information. If there is ample reliable information, the role of expectancy is smaller than when sensory information is less available and less reliable (Dougherty and Shanteau 1999).

**Broad and fundamental approach**

Mouthfeel and flavor intensity describe the intrinsic side of flavor; what it factually is. But before we take a bite or a sip, we are likely to have seen or heard things about what we’re going to taste, and we also have our recollections and prior experiences. These are the so-called extrinsic elements. These may be more important than often thought. Studies show that ‘what you see, is what you get’ finds a new dimension in flavor perception. Connoisseurs describe a white wine differently after it has been colored red with neutral coloring (Morrot, Brochet, and Dubourdieu 2004). Presentation is important in general. Indeed, the plates can have an influence on the flavor of the dish. Food served on a star-shaped plate was reported to be perceived as more bitter than when served on a round plate. Yoghurt was judged to be more dense and expensive when it was eaten from a heavier bowl. These heavier bowls even made people feel more full (deLange 2012). Other experiments show the influence of atmosphere. Music in restaurants, for instance, may well prove to influence the flavor experience. People enjoyed eating oysters much more when hearing breaking waves than farmyard sounds. Conversely, a dish of bacon and eggs tasted more ‘bacony’ when listening to the sound of sizzling bacon than to a farmyard of clucking chickens. Heston Blumenthal’s dish ‘the sound of the sea’ is a good example of how this knowledge can be set to use (Spence and Shankar 2010; Spence and Piqueras-Fiszman 2014).

If such extrinsic factors of flavor are taken into account, tasting gets even more multisensory as sight and hearing are involved as well. All the more reason to use the word flavor, whenever an edible product is involved. It is the flavor, and not the taste, of a certain dish or a wine that is being tasted. Flavor is the product property part of taste that is influenced by peo-
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people like chefs, brewers, and winemakers. At the same time, flavor may have an emotional side, which leads to preferences and appreciation. To mention just one example: in some cultures, insects are a delicacy; in others, people wouldn’t dream of eating them.

Both on the product and on the people side, tasting is influenced by a host of external influences. On the product side, such influences include the name on the menu, presentation, advertising, price, etc. Tasting is also influenced by various aspects that affect people, such as hospitality, atmosphere, culture, education, knowledge and experience, religion, sensory capacity, etc. If we truly want to understand why people enjoy some foods more than others, all of these aspects need to be taken into account.

Much of the above influences expectancy. In tourism, people in general have different objectives and expectations. Unfamiliar foods are a barrier to some and an attraction to others. Mitchell and Hall (2003) distinguish four types of food tourists, the gastronomes, indigenous foodies, tourist foodies, and familiar foodies. Of these, the last group is considered to be neo-phobic; only the ‘gastronomes’ seem interested in discovering new foods and may choose to eat foods that are unfamiliar to them.

Gastronomic tourism and education

Gastronomy is closely linked to the culture and heritage of a certain region. What local people eat, when, where, and the way they eat are all visible manifestations of culture. In fact, food can be considered as the most intimate contact with the local culture as it is ingested. Furthermore, landscapes have often been forged by the food that is grown and the way this is done.

We have seen that there is an interest in attracting tourists through food. We have also shown a new approach in gastronomy which opens new windows in educating people about flavor and tasting. On the flavor side culinary education could be less recipe-based. Chefs could profit from knowing more about food science and how product characteristics and culinary techniques relate to the composition of flavor, e.g. the culinary success factors and deliciousness. On the tasting side, hospitality education could be less service-oriented. Again, education should change, and putting more focus on learning about understanding the customer and how all the extrinsic influences could enhance the food experience would be a great step forward.

For strategies to attract gastronomic tourism to be successful, it is essential to include programs to educate the food professionals that must do the job of satisfying the customers, in all levels of restaurants. Food professionals should be able to ascertain that their guests enjoy what is being served. After all, these guests do the tasting and must pay for the service. Clearly, it is vital for a successful operation that they like what they have consumed. However important, without specific knowledge and experience, ‘deliciousness’ and ‘liking’ are elusive concepts. The academic approach to gastronomy could enable students to make it less mysterious.

In the development of the curriculum of gastronomy, we need to take into account that the senses of gustation, olfaction, and touch have been considered during history as inferior to seeing and hearing. Onfray (1991) gives a review of the history of this neglect. Consequently, modern day people need to be trained at schools or universities. Therefore, practical tastings and workshops are needed to develop experience and create a basis for understanding gastronomic concepts. Senses that have long been neglected need to be involved in the construction of the (gastronomic) reality of the students. This form of constructivist education deserves the attention of educational researchers.
References


Introduction

The new trends in tourism are implying a change in the attitudes and needs of tourists and serve to reinforce the existing destinations as well as strengthen non-traditional destinations (Cracolici, Nijkamp, and Rietveld 2008; Lee and Scott 2015). In this respect, gastronomy is a fundamental element for understanding the culture, customs, and intangible heritage of a certain place (Björk and Kauppinen-Räsänen 2016). Tikkanen (2007) indicates that the relationship that exists between gastronomy and tourism can be analysed through four different aspects: first, food as an attraction; second, food as a product component; third, food as an experience; and fourth, food as a cultural phenomenon. The relationship that exists between the tourists and gastronomy in the destination depends on the individual’s taste as well as the socio-psychological aspects of the tourist, among which stand out the socio-demographic differences, the socio-cultural elements, and the type of trip (Tse and Crotts 2005; Kong, Du Cros, and Ong 2015).

Local gastronomy involves a transfer of knowledge and information to the tourists regarding the culture, the traditions, and the identity of that geographic area (Ignatov and Smith 2006) since gastronomy is something that is rooted in the very cultural and social history of these geographic areas (Crouch and Ritchie 1999; López-Guzmán et al. 2017). In this regard, gastronomy, in addition to being part of the cultural heritage, is a differentiating element of the identity of a specific destination (Nam and Lee 2011; Harrington and Ottenbacher 2010; Torres Chavarria and Phakdee-Aukson 2017).

Food and beverage tourism studies have emerged in the last decades, focusing on culinary destination, gastronomic tourist, and hygiene issues, using both qualitative and quantity analyzes (Lee and Scott 2015). Local food can give added value to the destination and contribute, thus, to the competitiveness of the geographical area (Crouch and Ritchie 1999), and, in this regard, many researchers believe that each geographical area should promote food as a central attraction to tourists (Nam and Lee 2011), as dining out and local and national cuisines are a fundamental element for most tourists (Nam and Lee 2011). Food has been configured in recent years as one of the key elements for the enhancement and consolidation of tourist destinations. Studies focusing on the relationship between gastronomy and tourism (Harrington and Ottenbacher 2010) have focused on different aspects, such as tourists (Sohn and Yuan 2013) or dining destinations (Hillel, Velasen, and Shani 2013).
The food and beverage tourist experiences a complete sensory experience, especially in terms of flavor, which suggests, following Cohen and Avieli (2004) that the tourist through food receives a greater connection with the environment to which they travel, far from the previously noted experience of a mere observer. Let us also remember that food (including wine) is part of the social and cultural heritage of the people, and this is because it reflects a certain lifestyle in the different geographical areas since gastronomy is something rooted in the tradition itself and culture of these geographical areas. However, traditional gastronomy, like the rest of the economic sectors, also has a constant need to innovate with products and techniques. Likewise, as in other countries in terms of gastronomy, where certain geographical areas are linked to local food concepts, such as pizza in Italy or sushi in Japan, Latin American (and especially Andean cuisine) adds the concept of ceviche, which is basically a culinary dish where fish or seafood is mixed with the acids of citrus juices and seasoned with, for example, onions or cilantro.

Review of the literature

Gastronomy and motivation

Analysing the motivation is essential in order to understand gastronomic tourism, since the majority of the visitors when travelling turn to restaurants and/or other food establishments to satisfy their basic physiological needs, as defined by Maslow in his pyramid of needs (Tikkanen 2007). The basic supposition from which it begins is that although all the tourists consume food due to necessity, their interests and motivations in gastronomy may be very different (Pesonen et al. 2011; Sohn and Yuan 2013). Thus, travellers may be interested in the local food and in obtaining gastronomic experiences. Culinary expectations can even play an important role in the choice of the destination (Basil and Basil 2009). Following Fields (2002), it is possible to identify four types of gastronomic motivations associated with tourism; physical, cultural, interpersonal, and that of status and prestige. The physical motivations are those that come from a person’s need to eat; the cultural motivations are focussed on the need to know better a certain geographical area or a culture; the interpersonal motivations are the response to the social function that one has in interrelating with other persons; and the motivations of status and prestige are those that are derived from the social distinction that one seeks.

The study of gastronomic tourism entails the analysis of the visitor’s behaviour. A tourist who does not feel a special interest in the gastronomy of the place or who does not travel with the principal or secondary intention of tasting it behaves as a visitor who only needs to eat during his stay in the chosen destination. On the opposite pole are the tourists interested in gastronomy since they travel with the principal and/or secondary motivation of discovering a different cuisine, learning more about it, relaxing while tasting typical local dishes, becoming culturally enriched, etc. (Cohen and Avieli 2004; López-Guzmán et al. 2017).

The research conducted in this field reveals two items of great importance (Fields 2002): first, the tourists interested in the gastronomy of the destination usually have a higher spending capacity; second, those who travel for gastronomic reasons are usually quite demanding with regard to the quality and the authenticity of the tasted local gastronomy.

Motivation as an area of study in tourism is presented rigorously in the papers of Fodness (1994) and Goossens (2000). In this regard, gastronomy can be the principal motivation for getting to know a certain geographic site or a secondary, but important, motivation for traveling to that place. On their part, Kim, Eves, and Scarles (2013) indicate five different gastronomic dimensions: sensory appeal, cultural experience, excitement, interpersonal relationship, and health concerns.
In accordance with the relationship between gastronomy and motivation, Quan and Wang (2004) present a conceptual model of the tourist experience according to which the tourist, when he travels, has different principal and secondary motivations. Gastronomy would be framed as the principal or secondary motivation. Therefore, it would be a principal motivation, for example, for those persons who visit a certain place with the main purpose of enjoying its culinary offerings. It would be a secondary motivation, for example, for those persons who, although their principal motivation is not that of knowing the gastronomic wealth of a place, do consider this option as very important when planning their trip.

**Gastronomy and Satisfaction**

A tourist destination is something more than a conglomerate of natural, cultural, or artistic resources, since it also has to reflect the experience that the tourist is seeking (Cracolici, Nijkamp, and Rietveld 2008). Based on this, destinations must consider the importance of gastronomy as a tool that contributes to a unique experience (Haveng-Tang and Jones 2005). Therefore, satisfaction is a concept that is going to bring together the expectations of the traveller with the experiences obtained (Correia, Kozak, and Ferradeira 2013; Timothy and Ron 2013). And, in fact, the expectation in relation to gastronomy is one of the fundamental elements that, translated to the gastronomic experience of the traveller in the destination, is going to determine partially the satisfaction of the traveller (Pérez-Gálvez et al. 2017). Therefore, gastronomy as motivation, whether principal or secondary, is considered an essential aspect in the satisfaction of the traveller (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen 2016), uniting the concepts of motivation, experience and satisfaction (Hillel, Velasen, and Shani 2013).

**Description of the geographic area**

Latin American gastronomy in general, and the Ecuadorian in particular, begins to be known internationally by different attributes, such as the quality of the raw material used, the ancestral gastronomic techniques, and the innovative character of its chefs. Furthermore, and as occurs in other countries in gastronomic terms where certain geographic areas are linked to some concepts of local food, such as, for example, pizza in Italy or sushi in Japan, the Latin American gastronomy (and especially the Andean gastronomy) is linked to the concept of ceviche, which is a culinary dish where fish or seafood is mixed with the acids of citric juices and seasoned with, for example, onions or coriander (Pérez-Gálvez et al. 2017). The Ecuadorian gastronomy is characterised by mixing the traditions of the ancient settlers and the different cultures that have arrived in the country, and is based, especially, on a great variety of flavours and aromas. On the other hand, and along the lines contributed by Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen (2016), Ecuador presents some singular local food markets where the local community finds typical recipes of the traditional Ecuadorian cuisine, and in recent years, they are used increasingly as a lure of the tourist destination. These markets are called huecas. The huecas were originally street stands that specialised in a certain culinary recipe, although at present they are restaurants where the local culinary traditions and gastronomic innovation come together. In conclusion, Ecuador, and along the lines contributed by Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen (2016), presents both a typical local food such as ceviche and a local food market such as a huecas.

In this sense, the gastronomy of the city of Cuenca, designated a World Heritage site by UNESCO, is based on the different agricultural resources produced in this geographic area. Among them we highlight maize, potatoes, zambo (fig-leaf gourd), beans, peaches, tree toma-
toes, guinea pigs, and trout. And as some dishes most representative of the city we can highlight barley rice, cow’s foot soup, squash soup, humitas (Andean steamed corn cakes), and llapingachos (fried potato cakes).

**Methodology**

The methodology used for conducting this research is based on carrying out field work on a representative sample of foreign tourists who visited the city of Cuenca (Ecuador). The purpose of this research is to know the opinion of the travellers in relation to gastronomy, their motivations for consuming the local food in this tourist destination and their level of satisfaction with respect to it. The survey used in this research is based on different previous papers (Kim, Eves, and Scarles 2009 and 2013; Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen 2016) and it responds to different questions related with tourism and gastronomy. The survey was distributed in English and Spanish. The questionnaire is divided into two large blocks in order to collect the motivations of the tourist and their level of satisfaction with respect to gastronomy.

A total of 544 questionnaires were filled out between the months of February and July 2016, of which 526 were valid. The surveys were conducted in different culinary establishments of the historic centre of the city, on different days and at different times, in order to try to collect in this way the widest possible range of persons and situations. It was done through convenience sampling, commonly used in this type of research where the persons sampled are available to be surveyed in a determined space and time (Finn, Elliott-White, and Walton 2000).

The specific framework of this research is the foreign tourist who visits the city of Cuenca. It is estimated that an average of around 200,000 visitors arrive annually in the city of Cuenca. Therefore, starting with the figure of 200,000 foreign visitors, the sampling error for a confidence level of 95% would be ± 4.27%.

**Result of the research and discussion**

**Gastronomy and motivations**

One of the objectives of this research is to assess the different motives for tasting the local gastronomy of a destination. Therefore, a question was designed in the survey which included 20 items (Kim, Eves, and Scarles 2009 and 2013; Sims 2010; Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen 2016) to be measured on a Likert five-point scale (with 1 being very little, and 5 being very much) in order to determine the relative importance of a series of motives on their decision to consume local foods. The items were grouped, following the model of Kim, Eves, and Scarles (2013), in five different gastronomic dimensions: sensory appeal, cultural experience, excitement, interpersonal relationship, and health concerns. The results are presented in Table 4.1.

The results reveal that the reasons grouped in the sensory appeal and cultural experience categories are the most relevant motivational dimensions for the foreign tourists in relation to the local gastronomy. Forty-two per cent of the persons interviewed considered ‘the good taste’ as one of the main reasons for trying the local gastronomy. ‘The taste of the dish is different from that which we prepare in my region’, ‘discovering something new’, and ‘being an authentic experience’ also stand out. Thus, 37% of those surveyed indicated both dimensions as principal motives. On the opposite pole, the dimensions with the least relevance were health concerns and interpersonal relationship, with excitement falling in an intermediate area. The least recurring motives were the following: ‘get away from the noise and the crowds’, ‘nutritive’, and ‘trying the local food increases the family ties and those of friendship’.
The satisfaction level declared on a Likert five-point scale is high (4.09 points), with a significant percentage of tourists who declared being fully satisfied (35.1%). Furthermore, only 3.6% of those surveyed showed a score equal to or less than two points.

Having verified that the visitors left very content with the cuisine of Cuenca, we delved deeper into this important aspect, analysing what relation there could be with the reasons or motivations for trying the local gastronomy since this is fundamental in order to have good tourist management and planning. Each of the five dimensions considered discriminated significantly in relation to the degree of perceived gastronomic satisfaction (see Table 4.2). Despite being moderate, the Spearman’s rho corroborated the concordance between the degree of satisfaction and the five motivational dimensions. The data indicated that the lesser presence of reasons related to the dimension of health concerns and interpersonal relationship contribute to a lesser degree to the perceived satisfaction in relation to the gastronomy of Cuenca.

Table 4.1 Assessment of motivations for consuming local gastronomy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions and gastronomic motivations</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sensory appeal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha (0.794)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good taste</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The flavour of the dish is different from what we prepare in my region</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visually attractive</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasant aroma</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha (0.844)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being an authentic experience</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discover something new</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase my knowledge of different cultures</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discover local food tastes</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offer a unique opportunity to understand the local culture</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excitement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha (0.750)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is different from what i normally consume</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am excited to try the local food in its place of origin</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is relaxing</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoiding the noise and crowds</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal relationship</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha (0.811)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It allows me to enjoy pleasant moments with family and/or friends</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommending local culinary experiences to other travellers</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to transmit my experiences with the local food</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trying the local food increases the family and friendship bonds</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health concern</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha (0.797)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It contains a great quantity of fresh ingredients produced in a local area</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being healthy</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being nutritional</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Own elaboration
Conclusions

Gastronomic tourism is currently perceived as one of the greatest elements for strengthening or consolidating certain tourist destinations, due to the increasing importance for the travellers of knowing everything related to the gastronomic culture of the places they visit. In fact, there are already certain travellers who consider going to a certain restaurant, or simply knowing better the gastronomy of a specific geographic area, as the principal motivation of their trip. In this chapter, we have presented an analysis of the relationship existing between foreign tourists and the gastronomy in a cultural destination such as the city of Cuenca, Ecuador. The tourists that visit a cultural destination, in addition to participating in the knowledge of its heritage, also want to engage in sensorial experiences. In this regard, gastronomy, and its relationship with tourism, has become a key aspect in the analysis of the tourist destinations, especially those related to culture and heritage.

The greater or lesser gastronomic interest also conditions the culinary motivations and the perception of satisfaction that the tourist experiences. One of the principal contributions of this research is verifying the degree of satisfaction towards the local gastronomy is conditioned by the culinary motivations of the tourist. From the motivational viewpoint, the results show that the tourists most satisfied with the cuisine of Cuenca use gastronomy as a tool to get to know the culture of the tourist destination better. In fact, the motivational dimensions of sensory appeal and cultural experience contribute to a greater extent to the satisfaction of the foreign tourist. The visitors indicate high satisfaction with their culinary experience, with a significantly different assessment depending on the interest declared towards gastronomy. In the same way, the greater interest is translated in significantly different perceptions in relation to the attributes of Cuenca’s cuisine, with the traditional gastronomy, the quality of the dishes, the ambiance of the establishments, and the innovation of the dishes being assessed more highly.

The principal practical application of this research is to contribute to understanding the motivations of the tourists in relation to the local gastronomy for the purpose of conceiving tourist and cultural products that better satisfy their needs and, at the same time are compatible with the sustainable management of the local gastronomy.

The principal limitation of this research is found in the time period; we consider that it would be advisable to extend the research to tourism arriving in the city during all the months of the year. As a future line of research, we recommend reinforcing the research that takes up the importance of gastronomy from the viewpoint of the offer.

Table 4.2 Kruskal Wallis analysis of gastronomic satisfaction and motivational dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Kruskal Wallis</th>
<th>Spearman’s Rho</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sensory appeal</td>
<td>93.222</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural experience</td>
<td>86.427</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excitement</td>
<td>99.520</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal relationship</td>
<td>105.555</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health concern</td>
<td>73.309</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(*** The correlation is significant at the level 0.01 (bilateral)

Source: Own elaboration.
References


5 BUILDING A TOURISM DESTINATION USING GASTRONOMY THROUGH CREATIVE COLLABORATION

John D. Mulcahy

Introduction

In tourism, gastronomy is a growing market segment internationally, and many destinations are developing this as a means of gaining competitive advantage. At 34 per cent of overall tourist receipts, food and beverage spending by visitors constitutes a significant marketplace, offering opportunities and growth for a wide range of businesses, not only in tourism itself, but also in the wider economic community (Hashimoto and Telfer 2006; Fáilte Ireland 2015c; Mulcahy 2014). However, creative collaboration is critical if the tourism and food relationship is to benefit economic, social, and environmental aspects of the community. Historically, locals in their community constitute a powerful asset as evangelists of their region, as identified in the late twentieth century (Warde 1997:67), and appear to continue to do so. Locals are the emissaries of culture, and as Rachel Laudan points out, “What makes a food or a cuisine local is culture, not geography or agriculture or the ‘rich bounty’ of the region” (Laudan 2012:210). The challenge for food and tourism is how to harness the power of these locals, the people that call their locality their home.

This chapter will outline how creative collaboration has been manifested in Ireland between 2012 and 2017 by identifying those who had a resounding passion and belief in Irish food, together with the commitment and drive to actively influence and shape the future of food in tourism and Irish cuisine in their region. Over three years, groups of these food ‘champions’ or ‘ambassadors’ were taken on benchmarking and teambuilding trips to Canada, Norway, and Denmark to see best food tourism practice first hand and to meet the individuals involved. This exposed the groups to new ideas and ways of doing things, while also boosting confidence in their own perspectives. Currently, there are now twenty-two food champions who act as change agents, actively influencing food tourism development in their areas, while also exchanging information with those operating at national level (Mulcahy 2016). They also seek to educate, develop, and to connect the dots, thus ensuring that what is promised to the visitor is what is delivered, and that they are an essential local connection to what is happening on the ground. As a result, Ireland has improved
its capability to offer a unique food experience to visitors; one that is honest and authentic and that is as much about the people as it is about the product and the recipes.

**Recent discourse: collaboration, cooperation and models of State involvement**

In the contemporary ‘experience economy’ (Bell and Valentine 1997), sophisticated experiences are emerging that combine elements of education, entertainment, aesthetics, and escapism to engage the consumer. As experiences become more complex and consumers become more knowledgeable and demanding, leisure and tourism markets have become more competitive, forcing suppliers to innovate and develop new service concepts (Sidali, Kastenholz, and Bianchi 2015). Gastronomy (that is, in this chapter, consumption of both food and drinks) has a particularly important role in the experience economy, particularly in the development of tourism services. When combined with tourism, a natural competitive advantage is created, as others cannot easily replicate an authentic gastronomic tourism experience when it is specific to both a location and a culture. Gastronomic tourism is about the range of ‘food and/or drinks experiences’ available for visitors which forms a vital part of the value network linking local food producers, communities, and cultural and tourism entrepreneurs (Mulcahy 2014). For public and private enterprise, gastronomic tourism offers a means of enhancing and extending the tourist spend without compromising the environmental, social, or cultural fabric of a destination. Gastronomic tourism experiences can also stimulate local development, because it is high yield tourism, it can extend the tourist season, and it can diversify rural economies. Those experiences are also proven to be labor-intensive, creating jobs, while also creating backward linkages that stimulate agriculture and a range of service sectors, but do not necessarily require major new investment (Mulcahy 2017a).

As a tourism product which expresses identity and culture, gastronomy encourages people to travel and experience it, and it is therefore a critical component of tourism. In fact, the ‘spatial fixity’ of an indigenous gastronomy tourism product is a critical differentiation factor, as tourists must be present in the region to consume the product (both physically and metaphorically) to become gastronomy tourists (Hall and Sharples 2003:10). The way a dish is prepared, the method used to combine ingredients to create a certain taste, the manner in which food and drinks are offered and received, all convey the very substance of their roots and their particular culture. In this way, gastronomic tourism is the production and consumption of local culture, heritage and identity.

Such is the level of enthusiasm for gastronomic tourism experiences that a capacity to handle demand from visitors is implicit. If gastronomic tourism is to truly reflect local and regional food, the collaboration between the agricultural and tourism sectors is critical, particularly in the gastronomy and economics of rural tourism where scale and volume are factors of success (Mulcahy 2015). This collaboration became evident in a series of initiatives and exemplars in the first decade of the twenty-first century. Academic discourse has recognized this, and a review of the literature describing these initiatives and exemplars shows the importance of the role of local, regional, or national government, the pre-eminent examples being:

- collaborative tourism marketing across sectors in New Zealand (Hall et al. 2003)
- leveraging scenario planning to set explicit tourism performance targets in Scotland (Yeoman, Greenwood, and McMahon-Beattie 2009)
identifying and assisting innovation by responding favorably when local social or commercial initiatives have early success in Norway (Mykletun and Gyimóthy 2010; Kvam 2006)

But there was something else – evidence that communities and individuals were acting independently, without significant support from government. In New Zealand, the gastronomy tourism sector was being particularly innovative in creating wine and food tourism networks, given the absence of targeted local, state, or national supports, apart from cooperative marketing and branding schemes. Termed ‘lifestyle entrepreneurship’, it was seen as a major factor in the emergence of new food and tourism-related developments (Hall, Mitchell, and Sharple 2003:57). First in Auckland, and later in Hawks Bay, hospitality entrepreneurs took a central role by defining the ‘feel’ of the neighborhood, and in consciously shaping their businesses to promote a distinctive conviviality and informality attractive to locals and tourists alike. It was described it as the social capital of the champions being converted into the social and economic capital of others by virtue of multilevel networks of local firms. This was confirmed as the network extended beyond tourism to include broader range of sectoral linkages between businesses that had previously seen themselves as having little in common to form clusters (Hall 2005). This independence, self-helping, and working among peers in a locality is important. That is, local stakeholders working as equals to rebuild local knowledge through networking, shared experiences, discussions, and observation, while avoiding the risk of valuable local knowledge being hijacked by external or non-local consultants (Fonte 2008). This approach also identified and protected local food assets and exploited them more appropriately, as in the case of Shetland’s lamb (Morgan, Morley, and Sherwin 2007).

The common denominator appeared to be that creative collaboration in the community, led by those who can demonstrate social and cultural capital, had been critical to success. While these ‘lifestyle entrepreneurs’, or champions of gastronomy, might have economic capital as well, they seemed to be instinctively aware that others in the community will think differently, and that for any one project to work, it must benefit the entire community in multiple ways through sharing, communication, openness, and good management. If this is true, and in order to be sustainable, a destination’s objective should be to develop an integrated, holistic approach to policy development and implementation, driven by a focus;

- in the medium term, on developing new and existing food tourism networks and relationships within local businesses and organizations as well as with other regional and national stakeholders
- in the longer term, on the development of intellectual and social capital in order to enhance the regional knowledge base and to develop engaging food experiences

The following case study outlines how a destination, Ireland, has put some of these ideas into practice since 2010 (during an economic recession), and demonstrates how creative collaboration in gastronomic tourism, at minimal cost, can sustainably build a destination.
Case study 5.1: Ireland’s proactive approach to gastronomic tourism through creative collaboration

The island of Ireland is situated on the north western edge of Europe, in the North Atlantic Ocean, at similar latitudes to Alaska (USA) and Hamburg (Germany). There are two national jurisdictions on the island, one of which, the Republic of Ireland, comprises approximately 80% of the island of Ireland. The other, in the north-eastern part of the island, is Northern Ireland, part of the U.K. An independent country, the Republic of Ireland has a GDP of €265 billion, a population of 4.7 million (0.9% of the total EU population), and covers just under 70,000 km² (European Union 2016). The hospitality sector (an important services sector which includes tourism) contributes €3 billion gross value added to the economy. It directly employs 158,000 people (8% of employment) within 16,000 enterprises in the hospitality-related accommodation and food services sector (Expert Group on Future Skills Needs 2015). In 2015, total tourism spend was estimated at €6 billion and overseas visitors to Ireland at 8 million (Fáilte Ireland 2016a). This represents a significant improvement from the beginning of the recession in Ireland, when overseas visitor numbers in 2009 fell by 12% to 6.6 million, and revenue fell by 19% to €3.9 billion (Fáilte Ireland 2010:9).

In 2010, a representative working group formed and led by Fáilte Ireland (the National Tourism Development Authority), and comprised of industry stakeholders and government agencies, developed a National Food Tourism Implementation Framework where the overall vision for food tourism was:

that Ireland be recognised by visitors for the availability, quality and value of our local and regional food experiences which evokes a unique sense of place, culture and hospitality.

(Fáilte Ireland 2010:16)

The intention was that not only would the framework have a positive impact on the consumer’s overall food experience, but successful implementation offered the potential for new business and employment opportunities for suppliers, producers, and providers across the food tourism value chain. If this was achieved, the consequence would be that previous fragmentation of effort would be largely eliminated.

This meant encouraging and facilitating a ground-up approach by advocating a strategic road map to capitalize on the local potential – this was the National Food Tourism Implementation Framework, 2011–2013. This strategic approach centered on a number of key areas, including identifying food champions, conducting international benchmarking, and disseminating best practice (Fáilte Ireland 2010:21). The objectives were:

- To build Ireland’s food tourism reputation and encourage visitors to stop, spend and stay longer
- To develop networks and relationships within local business organizations and regional stakeholders
- To enhance the regional knowledge base and develop engaging food experiences
- To utilize food tourism as an economic development strategy

Implementation commenced in August of 2012, when Fáilte Ireland initiated a process to identify ‘food champions’ – not the big established names of the Irish food scene, but the emerging ‘players’ having an impact in their locality. A social media campaign asked members of the
tourism, food and hospitality industry all across Ireland to nominate people on the ground with proven ability to champion Irish food, influence Irish cuisine, promote and develop Irish food tourism; individuals recognized locally as doers, networkers, connectors (Fáilte Ireland 2012b). Remarkably, the campaign attracted over 160 nominations in less than a week, particularly in light of the absence of any financial reward, and the requirement for nominees to contribute €750 each, if selected, towards the expenses of a benchmarking tour. Other costs were subsidized by Fáilte Ireland. The selection criteria were:

- A demonstrable commitment to implement change
- A food tourism agenda
- A food business operation in business a minimum of two years
- Capacity to lead and/or make decisions
- Membership of food/tourism organization/s
- Accolades/awards received
- A proven track record of collaboration

By October 2012, 14 people (food producers, hoteliers, restaurateurs, retailers and event organisers) were selected for the Food Tourism Network Development program as Food Champions. They immediately went on a food tourism benchmarking journey to Prince Edward County in Canada where they experienced a bespoke itinerary developed by the Ontario Culinary Tourism Alliance. Canada’s Prince Edward County was picked as a model because it had faced similar challenges to Ireland and had a range of successfully integrated food tourism products and activities (Fáilte Ireland 2012a). The key insights from the journey, as expressed by the new food champions, were collaboration, cooperation and being ‘visitor ready’. (Fáilte Ireland 2012a:2).

In 2013, the process was repeated. The focus on this occasion was to seek out similar individuals who were located along the Wild Atlantic Way – Ireland’s first long-distance touring route (2,500 km), stretching along the west and southern coast from Donegal to Cork. This time the objectives were refined, based on the experience gained in 2012, so that the food champions would, as before, experience an exemplary food tourism destination, and witness, first-hand, how to affect change in their business and locality. In doing so, they would learn how to develop networks and relationships with food-focused individuals, and how to build a network of like-minded people in Ireland that they could work with. The expectation was, on their return home, that they would immediately begin to apply those new skills. Eight new food champions, (artisan producers, a culinary lecturer, a blogger, chef restaurateurs, a food festival organizer), joined the network development program (Fáilte Ireland 2013a). Their benchmarking trip to Norway was an ideal opportunity not only because of the emergence of Nordic food, but also because Norway had well-established tourist driving routes. The linkage between a driving route and food tourism was apt, as any insights could be immediately assessed for use on the Wild Atlantic Way. Again, the key insights, as expressed by the participants, centered on collaboration, and being ‘visitor ready’, along with the confidence that came from how their own businesses benchmarked well with those in Norway (Fáilte Ireland 2013b).

Integrating the food tourism strategy with the development of the new Wild Atlantic Way proposition proved successful, such that Fáilte Ireland set a new Food Tourism Activity Plan in place for 2014–2016 in collaboration with the food champions and others (Fáilte Ireland 2014), and developed two new propositions: ‘Ireland’s Ancient East’, and ‘Dublin, a Breath of Fresh Air’. This was an
opportunity to review and refresh the Network Development Programme. As part of that review, 16 of the 22 existing food champions chose to become ‘Food Ambassadors’ by continuing to help to spread the vision and values of Irish food tourism among visitors, media, food tourism businesses, and other stakeholders (Fáilte Ireland 2015b). The remaining six chose to remain as ‘Food Champions’, thus providing an opportunity to find new food champions who would be aligned to the new propositions and enter a new three-year cycle of activity. In April 2016, a recruitment process commenced, similar to that used in 2012 and 2013, resulting in a response of over 400 nominations (Fáilte Ireland 2016c). In June 2016, 16 new emerging food champions were selected, so that there were now a total of 22 Food Champions and 16 Food Ambassadors in the network (Fáilte Ireland 2015a). The new group of Food Champions visited the cities of Copenhagen and Aarhus in November 2016 to discover how Denmark has achieved its high status in the international food tourism landscape. As before, the key insights included confidence, collaboration, and collective vision (Fáilte Ireland 2016b). These insights, and future plans for Food Champion initiatives were shared at the annual meeting of the network in May 2017 (Fáilte Ireland 2017b). An example of one of those initiatives that had immediate impact was the ‘Ireland’s Ancient East’ Banquet at the Oxford Symposium of Food & Cookery in July 2017 (Fáilte Ireland 2017a).

Implications and critical success factors for tourism destinations

The implications for any gastronomic tourism destination and the sustainability of what is on offer are clear. This writer contends that sustainability and visitor satisfaction is not best served through extensive state funding of activity on the ground (with the exception of destination marketing, which drives business to the operators). In such cases, activity becomes overly dependent on the state funding which acts as a constraint rather than facilitating innovation. When funding has to be withdrawn, as it inevitably does (in a recession, for example), the invariable consequence is that activity ceases and there are no local exemplars available to either maintain activity or to encourage independent action to reinvigorate tourism. Clearly, as demonstrated in this chapter, it is possible to harness the power of locals by leveraging social, civic, and business networks through collaboration and cooperation, not only in tourism itself, but also in other parts of the wider gastronomic landscape (Mulcahy 2017b:43). When that power is harnessed positively and creatively, the potential for greater sustainable impact increases exponentially in terms of social, cultural and economic capital, with multiple identifiable benefits in terms of jobs, tax and enterprise revenues, return visitors, positive peer reviews on social media, and much more.

In summary, and drawing on the evidence, the critical success factors for gastronomic tourism experiences clearly are:

- Start from the basics (quality, authenticity, locality)
- Build coalitions (public–private partnership)
- Spread the message together (build the brand, communicate clearly)
- Develop and promote a holistic approach (gastronomic tourism should be seen as one aspect of the entire food value network)
- Ensure a solid base of local food culture
- Develop a network abroad that helps to profile national and/or regional cuisine.
References


6

GAstronomic tourism is today a global fact of the tourism industry, with countless original products and brands and a wide range of approaches that have developed in individual countries. Tourism of this type is making a significant contribution to general global awareness of food culture. We are increasingly discovering a cultural gastronomic heritage, which even in the tourism sector is no longer seen merely as a romantic curiosity or museum piece, but as a creative foundation for a recognisable modern culinary identity. This identity is increasingly focused on the local and regional, as a response to decades of aggressive dominance by global food perspectives and brands which have contributed nothing to the possibility of getting to know local and regional cultures. With the increased interest in gastronomic tourism, these factors have become prized values for multitudes of travellers who, through food and drink, the stories around them, gastronomic and culinary events, special thematic tourism programmes, various workshops and other pursuits, are replacing the former merely nutritional function of food with discovery, exploration, and other positive qualities.

In 2006, the European Union launched EDEN (European Destinations of Excellence), a project that has subsequently evolved into a network of completely new destinations. These destinations are creating forms of sustainable development in various fields, including gastronomy. People have grown tired of big, well-known destinations, where crowds of visitors produce all the negative consequences of the tourist industry. For this reason, we are seeing the rise of new, less famous destinations that offer a range of high-quality, universally green services and products for visitors. Another important networking forum is the European Region of Gastronomy, a movement that involves local and regional gastronomy. Through this movement the European Union is opening a window onto numerous culinary traditions that until recently were entirely unknown outside their regions, but can offer a wide range of everything we think of as healthy food. Through their food, dishes and beverages, local and regional cuisines are offering an insight into the everyday lives and particular festivities of the local population, and providing tourists with a new awareness of other cultures. Of course, the importance of gastronomy in tourism does not only lie in the specific characteristics of local and regional flavors, types of food, dishes and beverages, but ultimately because it supports livelihoods, the development of the local economy and new jobs and earnings. However naive
it sounds, can you imagine the extraordinarily positive effects if, for instance, sales staff from major shopping centers were employed in fields and meadows, in pastures and vineyards, in cheese dairies and elsewhere, and these centers gradually changed into modern fairgrounds where their former employees could sell their own local and regional products? They would become a tourist attraction overnight, but an attraction based on something that would help us understand the diversity and difference of cultures. Local and regional gastronomy conceived in a modern way incorporates above all the food of the four seasons and consistently refers to the originality of food. As for primary ingredients, the world seems to have been turned upside down: cherries or strawberries all year, anywhere in the world and in any quantity. This is without a doubt an entirely unsuitable method of providing local and regional gastronomy for the needs of tourism. When we were in the process of establishing a gastronomy brand in a certain region of Slovenia region a few years ago, one of the producers brought in an outstanding pineapple yoghurt for evaluation. But, of course, the special committee responsible for awarding certificates gave her yoghurt a negative score, since pineapples do not grow in Slovenia. The yoghurt maker appealed our decision, so we asked her to show us where pineapples grew and thrived in her local environment. It took her a little while to grasp our meaning and understand the message. She is still making her yoghurt, but without a certificate that confirms the product’s originality for tourists from different parts of the world, as part of the story of typical local and regional foods.

Gastronomic tourism – experiences from Slovenia

Until 2006, Slovenia was relatively invisible in gastronomic terms. Even the presence of gastronomic content in the tourism offering was negligible, if we exclude wine. But this does not mean that the country did not possess a good basis for the development of gastronomic tourism. The important thing in this context is that the population should value and be proud of its own gastronomic heritage and contemporary forms of cuisine. For this reason, it was first necessary to lay down the conditions for the development of gastronomy, and then to systematically develop individual tourism products in this field. This process will be presented briefly below. We believe that our experience can also serve as a good starting point for other countries that in the future will contribute with their own gastronomy to the positive development of gastronomic tourism around the world.

Conditions

In 2006, we drew up the Gastronomic Strategy of Slovenia, the purpose of which was not only to promote a broad spectrum of gastronomic diversity but also to establish a solid system for the inclusion of gastronomy in the context of tourism in general. The decision to create such a document was particularly important given the impacts of the global gastronomic uniformization that is destroying the variety of local and regional gastronomies along with other aspects of ways of life and points of contact with cultural heritages. The fundamental task of the strategy was to create a gastronomic pyramid that would define and give a foundation to Slovenia’s culinary and gastronomic identity. This pyramid is already being used consistently in the tourist promotion and other promotion of the country. The top of the pyramid is taken up by the four groups of dishes that most emphatically represent Slovenia. The essential characteristic of Slovenia’s gastronomy derives from its geographical position, in a territory that represents a point of contact between the Alpine, Mediterranean, Pannonian, and Balkan worlds. Over centuries of historical development, this has created a varied palette of differences, including
in the gastronomic field, not as the sum of influences from these major European environments, but as innovative adaptations of these influences to local and regional ways of life. In the central part of the pyramid we defined, from this great gastronomic diversity, 24 gastronomic regions with 336 dishes and beverages that are typical of (or a signature of) individual regions. The bottom of the gastronomic pyramid – its broadest part – represents all dishes, all periods, and all social groups, and could therefore be described as a kind of ‘gastronomic bank’ of Slovenia. The pyramid approach described has enabled the construction of a system that passes from the multiplicity of gastronomic culture to its representativeness or distinctiveness. This basic strategy was followed in subsequent years by numerous steps and actions that have confirmed the system with practical examples or specific tourism products – something more than necessary for the successful development of gastrotourism. The approach has also been adopted in certain regions, and even in individual localities. The process of acceptance of the pyramid structure by the local population is not yet complete, since considerable efforts and arguments are needed to persuade people to begin gradually to identify with the selection of dishes and beverages chosen for individual regions rather than with all those dishes and beverages that represent their food culture as a whole. There have also been some difficulties with those employed in the catering sector, whose limited knowledge of food heritage makes them more reluctant to accept those innovations based on heritage dishes that are an important foundation of a modern culinary identity.

The next important step in establishing the essential conditions was the definition of stories about food and drink. A year after the adoption of the Strategy, an extensive monograph was published featuring 200 dishes along with their stories and basic recipes (Bogataj 2007). Meanwhile, brochures presenting a selection of dishes in several world languages were published in tourist contexts. Dishes from the gastronomic pyramid began to feature consistently at events designed to promote tourism. The foundations of a gastronomic diplomacy for the country as a whole had essentially been laid. Even so, awareness of this important component of the promotion and economy of the country only appears for the first time in 2015, which means that we are only just waking up to the importance of this field.

Among the key conditions for the development of gastrotourism was the introduction of systematic encouragement and education for workers in the catering and retail sectors and the population as a whole. In these contexts, it is most important to reach young people, who are increasingly under the influence (via the media) of the products of multinational food companies and ‘global food’. All this takes them further away from knowledge of the characteristics of their own local and regional food and from an understanding of food culture in connection with the possibilities of the environment and the seasons of the year. One successful development in Slovenia has been a cookery competition for schoolchildren called Kuhna pa to. This has been running for a number of years now and enables children to discover and get to know local and regional dishes and then try making them themselves in a cookery competition. The basic aim of this project is to create motivation among children at primary and lower secondary schools to learn about specific local and regional food traditions and the characteristics of their cultural environments. The project focuses on food as cultural heritage, not in a romantic, ‘museological’ manner, but rather as an understanding of the causal links between specific dishes and other economic, social, and cultural factors in specific periods and social environments. Every year the leaders of the project try to ensure as far as possible that the children enter these culinary worlds autonomously, in other words, in a manner that corresponds to their knowledge, their abilities, and their world. Mentors are on hand to guide them, but never to an extent that would compromise the authenticity of their understanding and culinary knowledge. The recipes are published every year in a special book. The results of this com-
petition, which has grown into a real movement, are more than excellent. From time to time, the most successful school cooking teams will prepare their local dishes at tourist events of various kinds, and have even acted as promoters of Slovenian cuisine abroad (Bogataj 2017). Efforts to educate those working in the catering sector have been less successful. While the latter are very receptive to global culinary innovations, it is more difficult to persuade them to see the basics of local and regional food as a starting point in the search for modern, innovative solutions. The support of televisial media would be extremely useful here, but while television channels are increasingly dedicating themselves to reality shows, they struggle to insert an adequate measure of educational content even in these contexts.

Since the adoption of the Strategy, a major step has been taken in the field of regional and local culinary and food brands, which are likewise among the important elements of the development and recognizability (identity) of gastrotourism. The creation of these brands was connected to projects launched by one or more municipalities, and also by various development centers and tourism organizations. Setting up the system for a specific brand included, and continues to include, the local population on the one hand and experts on the other. The latter run the certificate-based assessment and award system for the brand, while at the same time through their assessment of food (and drink) products, dishes, and crafts products, they direct producers and providers towards the perfection of individual products, including their content or story, and towards giving their packaging a distinctive and recognizable appearance. As a result, in the last few years, a series of good-quality brands have appeared, and with them a range of products, all of which have positive effects both on the tourism offering and in the contexts of local and family economies. Naturally, in the case of food products, there is a consistent regard for the aspects of sustainability, natural ingredients and the characteristics of local environments. Among the more successful brands are Bohinjsko [From Bohinj], OkusiRogle [Flavours of Rogla], DobroteDolenjske [Specialities of Dolenjska], OkusiOsrednjeSlovenije [Flavours of Central Slovenia], SrceSlovenije [Heart of Slovenia], and so on. Individual brands have developed and continue to develop a variety of ways of offering their products within sales networks. These include participation at tourism events, sales via permanent outlets, and a presence at trade fairs and in shops. The development of these brands is also extremely important from a psychological point of view, since their growth and spread offers good economic or financial prospects to the local population. The growth in the number of young producers and suppliers is thus no surprise.

Brands indicating the quality of food and drink products have a role and importance within the context of gastrotourism. The average tourist around the world is most familiar with international, global brands such as Chaîne des Rôtisseurs, Michelin or, in the USA, Zagat. The international brands present in Slovenia include, as well as Chaîne des Rôtisseurs, the association Jeunes Restaurateurs d’Europe. Recent decades have seen a flood of reviews (of varying quality) of restaurants and other establishments, usually in the context of individual newspapers, although these do not have a particular impact on promotion for the needs of tourism. The Slovenia Restaurant Awards, launched in 2016, are the result of an independent selection process by experts and are already taking on the characteristics of the country’s main restaurant awards and playing an important promotional role in the development of gastrotourism.

**Products**

The foundation of the products of gastrotourism is the food and drink offering. We are attempting, through education and publications, to establish a new food and drink philosophy that is not based on copying global solutions, but instead builds on local and regional culinary
heritage and innovative solutions, while at the same time using local products, especially those dictated by nature and the four seasons. In order for Slovenia’s gastronomy to develop a successful and recognizable identity, it needs to be linked to stories about the country’s food and drink, their development over the course of history and the special characteristics of their creation in the present. To achieve these goals, it is not enough merely to have suitably put together menus: good knowledge on the part of serving staff is also necessary. Among all the products covered here, it seems that the food and drink offering is the field in which more efforts will still be needed, up to and including suitably designed education programs and lifelong learning projects.

Since the guidelines of the Gastronomic Strategy of Slovenia were adopted in 2006, a range of culinary or gastronomic tours have begun to appear in the tourism market. Wine tours date from the period before 2006 but, despite the creation of the wine roads system, have not achieved the completeness of a model that was designed to include not only wines but also typical dishes and the landscape of wine regions, with all their other cultural contents and elements of the everyday life and holiday customs of their inhabitants. Ceremonial or ritual contents would be particularly interesting here – either local or regional celebrations or other manifestations of the relationship between wine, cuisine and the ways of life of the local population. Gastronomic/culinary tours can be divided into three main groups: tours involving catering and retail establishments offering food and drink; tours of markets, shops and fairs; and visits to food producers and suppliers. The last of these groups also includes winegrowers and winemakers and visits to their wineries.

Since Slovenia became independent in 1991, it has been developing a system of shopping centers that reflects the global model. I do not intend to digress here into an evaluation of this system or to talk about its consequences. It does, however, become all the more important to think about how to enrich these global centers with alternative content on a human scale. This means allowing people to discover and get to know the full range of gastronomic diversity rather than merely mindlessly satisfying their desire for food. There is clearly a need to introduce alternative culinary content to large shopping centers that will provide shoppers with a range of alternative foods and ways of eating. In Ljubljana, the Slovenian capital, for example, we are currently developing new culinary content at BTC City, a large shopping center, with a range of products that will allow visitors to discover different cuisines from around the world. Such a project will make it possible for local and regional food cultures in Slovenia to take their place alongside others and gain their own importance. Awareness among the local population of this wealth of food and drink, which gains greater validity when placed alongside other products from around the world, is particularly important. Such a concept undoubtedly also has outstanding potential in the tourism field – perhaps even more so than the Italian project that is currently being developed successfully in various locations around the world under the Eataly brand, but which only promotes Italian gastronomy.

Among the most important products for the development of gastrotourism are culinary and gastronomic events. These can be divided into three basic groups: ‘traditional’ culinary or gastronomic events that have survived to the present day while also changing over time; events that are contemporary interpretations of culinary tradition; and events that are distinct innovations based on modern culinary and gastronomic endeavors. As far as the development of gastrotourism is concerned, all three of these groups are of equal value and importance. The number of gastronomic events in Slovenia aimed at tourists began to grow in the early 1990s. They also began to grow in terms of content. Today these events cover a wide range of themes and include events based around a single dish (e.g. the ‘world festival’ dedicated to praženkrompir, i.e., roughly mashed potatoes fried with onion, or Slovenian Potica Day), events that combine
Slovenian and international food and drink (e.g., Open Kitchen in Ljubljana or the Ljubljana Wine Route), and traditional celebrations where cuisine has a notable role and importance (e.g., the large number of St Martin’s Day celebrations marking the end of the grape harvest and the birth of the new wine). These culinary events are not just about visitors/spectators on the one hand and the organizers on the other. Instead, we are seeing a constant growth in culinary content in which visitors are actively involved. This might be a competitive activity (e.g., competitions for the best dishes in various categories) or of an educational nature (e.g., workshops on specific dishes). In recent years, we have seen significant growth in the number of events that combine hiking and cuisine (e.g. a hike around the wineries of the Vipava Valley, a hike from Litija to Čatež), while some events that began as occasions to display certain dishes or products have developed into real culinary festivals (e.g. November Gourmmmet Ljubljana, Sweet Istria in Koper). The characteristics and importance of all culinary events aimed at tourists may be summed up as follows: trying new flavors, acquiring new knowledge, discovering new (food) cultures, and socializing.

Gastrotourism also includes a corresponding range of souvenirs. The Souvenirs Strategy of Slovenia (Bogataj 2006) defines culinary and gastronomic souvenirs as one of the 27 basic groups of souvenirs. Culinary and gastronomic souvenirs include items, products and knowledge that present the special features of the natural environment and the creative diversity of the food and drink that feature in the everyday lives and festivities of the local population. This includes specific elements of cuisine that we discover in museums, natural parks and tourist resorts, at tourist events, and so on. As tourists, we take all these culinary and gastronomic items, products and gifts back to our primary cultural environments, where they serve as a source of new discoveries about the environments and countries we have visited. They allow us to make new food-related discoveries and learn new things, and remind us of pleasant experiences, new flavors, and so on. The range of culinary and gastronomic souvenirs is extremely diverse, just as we human beings are diverse, with our own desires, ideas, values and food goals – which we also set ourselves as tourists. In accordance with the guidelines of the Gastronomic Strategy of Slovenia, we are also developing the field of gastronomic souvenirs, which until the 1990s was a very neglected field in Slovenia. Despite more recent efforts to expand the range, the number one culinary souvenir in Slovenia continues to be good-quality wine from boutique producers. There is also considerable demand for culinary and gastronomic literature and other publications, relatively few of which are translated into other languages. One exception are tourist catalogues and brochures, which are produced in large numbers and with editions in various languages, and which tourists always take first. This is yet more evidence of the weight and importance of gastronomic tourism in the context of other tourism endeavors.

Conclusions

Gastronomic tourism, which is developing and growing in Slovenia, has indicated and continues to indicate the shortest route to sustainable tourism and the discovery of local and regional cultures. Its effects are relatively rapid. Little energy is required for tourists to begin to discover, with the help of cuisine and gastronomy, the way of life of the local population and their place in the relationships between cultural heritage, modern forms of creativity, and the economy. Not only this, but gastronomic tourism enables us to introduce tourists more quickly to the characteristics of local and regional environments. Far more quickly than, for example, with certain other fields of culture, where the interest of tourists is generally directed towards the most famous sights, famous works in museums and galleries, tried and tested musical
works, big names and famous monuments in the field of architecture, and so on. Experiences in Slovenia dating back more than ten years have shown that the development of gastronomic tourism urgently requires a solid system with a strategy that defines the characteristic traits and gastronomic identity of every locality and region and of the country as a whole. Consistent realization of the conditions identified by experts as the foundation for the development of gastronomic tourism products is needed. The importance of gastronomic tourism is summed up very nicely by an old piece of Slovenian folk wisdom that says: *Tell me what and how you eat; and I will know your everyday life and your festivities, your economic endeavors, social relations, and forms of spiritual creativity.*

**References**


Introduction

This chapter analyses the role of gastronomic tourism in rural development using specific case studies from Hungary. Rural development could be defined as a process of improving and protecting the economic and social wellbeing of rural communities. Theories on rural development emphasize the role of local culture and heritage, such as food, crafts, folklore, visual arts, literary references, historical and prehistorical sites, landscapes and associated flora and fauna (Bessière 1998; Ray 1998, 2006; Marsden 2006; Kivitalo, Kumpulainen, and Soin 2015). Rural tourism can ideally contribute to socio-economic diversification, community development, and the enhancement of image. Food has always been an integral part of tourism, but its significance has increased in recent years, especially in a rural context where it can play an important role in rural tourism and appeals to visitors’ desire for authenticity (Sims 2009). Frisvoll, Forbord, and Blekesaune’s (2016) research makes a connection between local food consumption, rural heritage and a ‘rural idyll’. However, these authors also argue that the significance that local food holds in the context of rural tourism is largely unknown due to a lack of empirical research. Although there have been some exceptions (Ray 1998; Miele and Murdoch 2002), there is considerable scope for exploring these issues further. The main question posed is whether gastronomic tourism is an attractive and diverse enough product to become a primary motivation for visitors, or whether it needs to be part of a broader range of products connected to other forms of rural tourism (e.g., agritourism). The empirical case studies in this chapter examine the role of gastronomy in rural and tourism development in Hungary.

The relationship between food, heritage, and tourism

Food, a vital component of human life, is considered to be an essential commodity as well as an integral part of social and cultural heritage (Cavicchi and Ciampi Stancova 2016). Timothy (2015) describes how food’s role in heritage includes its reflection of the cultural norms and values of people, places, and times, as well as elucidating the realities of geography and place. He argues that cuisine is a crucial component of the living culture as well as the heritage of
communities. Berno’s (2015) study on tourism and food traditions shows that tourism can be used as a conduit to rejuvenate traditional foods. Baldacchino (2015) suggests that food serves cultural and political functions, even as an icon of identity (see also Lugosi 2012). Earlier theorists such as Ray (1998) used the example of local food and gastronomy in his culture economy theory to present constructions of rural identity. Ray’s theory is especially important in regions wanting to restructure and diversify. Indeed, rural tourism and gastronomic experiences can be central to processes of rural restructuring where producers use tourism and food to diversify their product base (Frisvoll, Fordbord, and Blekesaune 2016).

Yeoman et al. (2015) suggest that tourism and gastronomic heritage are inseparable. Nevertheless, while some tourists just eat because they need to, for others, food or gastronomy (defined by Scarpato (2003:52) as “enjoyment of the very best in food”) can become a major draw or even a primary motivator for a trip (Corigliano 2002; Henderson 2009; Lin 2009). “Food can form part of the social, cultural, economic and environmental history of destinations and form a marketing ‘hook’ to attract consumers” (Sloan, Legrand, and Hindley 2015: 305). In some cases, food has become a real tourist attraction and can play a central role in the visitor’s experience (Smith and Costello 2009; López-Guzmán and Jesus 2011; Sotiriadis 2015). So-called ‘gastronomic’, ‘culinary’, ‘cuisine’ or ‘gourmet’ tourism has become increasingly popular and tourists are becoming more adventurous and open to new experiences (Henderson 2009). It can include the consumption, preparation, and presentation of food items, cuisines, and eating systems which are different from those of the tourist (Long 2010). Wantanee et al. (2015) use the example of cookery classes in Thailand for tourists as a way to both sustain and spread local food culture. It can also include food festivals, routes and trails.

Corigliano (2002) states that gastronomic tourism allows the visitors to have a taste of the regional culture and thus to enter into contact with its traditions and heritage, as well as with the present lifestyle. Eating local food is a way of ‘tasting a destination’ (Cavicchi and Ciampi Stancova 2016). Kim and Eves (2012) provide an analysis of tourists’ motivation to consume local food, which includes cultural experience, excitement, sensory appeal, interpersonal relations, and health concerns. Tourists are often attracted to rural destinations because of the perceived tradition and authenticity of typical local products and the local community’s lifestyle (Corigliano 2002).

Traditions and local authenticity of a destination represent something new to the traveler, which is different from their home environment and therefore highly attractive for most people (Kauppinen-Räisänen, Gummerus, and Lehtola 2013). This means that local culture is appreciated by tourists due to its perceived authenticity. On the other hand, gastronomy can also contribute to the ‘aestheticisation’ of rural areas through food preparation and consumption processes in restaurants (Miele and Murdoch 2002). Moreover, from the destination marketers’ point of view, local food and tradition help shape a destination identity and differentiate it from the competitors, as well as giving the local communities a sense of pride (Lin 2009; Kesimoğlu 2015).

The role of gastronomy in rural and agritourism

The role of rural areas in the tourism industry has started to change, as those areas are increasingly viewed as places for entertainment, leisure activities, and as an alternative to urban life (Bessière 1998). If it is developed well, tourism can protect the heritage of rural areas and contribute to economic growth and the wellbeing of local communities.
Ideally, tourism should preserve and promote indigenous products, as well as supporting traditional farming and local culture in general (Montanari and Staniscia 2009; Haghiri and Okech 2011).

Several authors have argued that gastronomic tourism is a relatively small niche sector with unpredictable powers of attraction. Baldacchino (2015) questions naive expectations placed on food as a panacea for struggling rural communities. It appears, therefore, that food producers should integrate their products into a broader conceptualization of rural tourism (Sidali, Kastenholz, and Bianchi 2015). Galluzzo (2015) suggests that food, rural traditions, rural territories, and agritourism can be blended into an integrated tourism product. The coexistence and cooperation between agricultural and tourism sectors has resulted in the development of so-called ‘agritourism’ (also ‘agrotourism’ or ‘farm tourism’) (Katsoni and Dionysopoulou 2015; Favaretto 2016). Agritourism can be defined as a niche part of rural tourism which focuses not only on food and food production, but also on rural lifestyles, traditions, and environmental features of landscape. It is closely connected to the idea of the ‘rural idyll’, which combines local food consumption and rural heritage (Frisvoll, Fordbord, and Blekesaune 2016). Visitors can stay in a farmhouse, taste local food and may participate in farming activities, as well as rural tourism activities such as biking, horse riding, trekking, etc. Their main motivations are likely to be contact with nature, enjoyment of the countryside, and a longing for romanticized notions of a ‘rural idyll’ as the perfect antidote to urban living (Bessière 1998; Frisvoll, Fordbord, and Blekesaune 2016). Che (2016:85) suggests that agritourism can satisfy peoples’ need for a slower place of life in “idyllic heritage spaces”. Agritourism offers a chance to enjoy a personalized and authentic experience, usually involving local food (Montanari and Staniscia 2009). As stated by Timothy (2015:9) “nostalgia for an agrarian ideal” can drive the desire to know more about the origins and sources of food.

Agritourism has been recognized as a potential differentiation strategy for many Destination Management Organizations (Sotiriadis 2015). There seems to be a consensus in the research on agritourism that it can be a very effective tool for rural development and strengthening a destination’s image and local identity (Bessière 1998; Haghiri and Okech 2011; Klimek 2013, Yurtseven and Karakas 2013; Che 2016). As stated by Pring et al. (2015:310) “Food represents an emerging theme in destination marketing that is increasingly seen as a core element of a destination’s product offering providing a degree of uniqueness and differentiation.” However, there are still many organizational challenges, including lack of cooperation between stakeholders (Montanari and Staniscia 2009; Klimek 2013), and exclusion of local communities from decision making processes (Fong and Lo 2015).

The role of gastronomic tourism in rural development in Hungary

Rural tourism is regarded as the key driver for local development in Hungarian rural areas. Food and gastronomy in rural tourism services and attractions are a focal point in all regions; however, their roles and position in rural development is very different (Csurgó and Megyesi 2015). Below we present two Hungarian case studies highlighting the development of gastronomic tourism and the roles of gastronomy and food in tourism-based rural development.
Case study 7.1

The Őrség region in Hungary shows gastronomic tourism as a secondary, complementary element of successful rural tourism-based development. This region is one of Hungary’s main domestic rural tourism destinations. It is very rich in natural and cultural heritage and almost the whole region is managed by the Őrség National Park. It is a very popular tourism destination as well as a second home area for the urban middle and upper middle classes who demonstrate a strong demand for a rural ‘idyll’ and authenticity. In the 1980s, urban newcomers started to buy second homes or settle in the region, and they also provided authentic rural accommodation for tourists, mostly for urban visitors.

Őrség National Park was founded in 2002 and became the main driver of rural tourism development. The National Park endeavors to involve the ‘original’ inhabitants and local producers in their tourism development initiatives. In recent years, local food and gastronomy have become more and more important in the sense of place and authenticity, largely driven by visitor demand. Local tourism entrepreneurs, and restaurant and guest house owners started to provide local food and traditional dishes, created relationships with local small-scale producers, and began using traditional recipes. The Őrség National Park also initiated the revitalization of traditional food production and gastronomy as part of an ecologically and culturally sustainable development. Őrség National Park has a local food product brand based on traditional and environmentally friendly methods and expertise. Interestingly, consumers do not value the brand system very highly and are mainly interested in local authenticity perceived through the relationships with local producers and places.

The most traditional local food is pumpkin oil which has the strongest so-called Őrség label/image. Recently, several other local food products including honey, mushrooms, marmalade, pretzels (ring-shaped bread rolls), and fruit brandy have played an increased role. Őrség’s perceived ‘idyllic’ landscape can be experienced and tasted through food and gastronomy provided in local restaurants, gift shops and other local tourism services such as festivals and study trails. More and more open manufacturers and kitchens are in operation (e.g., pumpkin oil manufacturers, strudel kitchens, pretzel kitchens). Local events also increasingly involve and present local food and gastronomic traditions. Local food and gastronomy are interconnected with the landscape, strengthening and enhancing its image as a rural ‘idyll’. Originally, rural tourism in the Őrség region was not specifically gastronomic tourism; instead, it was mainly landscape-based. However, local food and gastronomy have become one of the major services of this region in response to the changing demands of tourists and the aims of the National Park. This case can be seen as a successful example of how tourist demand for authentic gastronomy in a rural tourism destination can lead to development opportunities for the region.
Case study 7.2

This case study of the Derecske-Létavértes region shows gastronomic tourism can play a central role in local rural development. The Derecske-Létavértes micro region is characterized as a suburbanized area (an agglomeration of the city of Debrecen). The region is famous for the cultivation of horseradish, which became a PDO (protected designations of origin) in 2006. The main area of horseradish production inside the micro region is in Létavértes town and its surrounding villages with the center in Bagamér, a village where the main horseradish producing company is located. Horseradish is the most characteristic and unique agricultural product of the region. Eighty per cent of Hungarian horseradish comes from here and it is also one of the largest areas of cultivation for horseradish in Europe.

One of the main horseradish-producing companies proposed including horseradish in local development, especially cultural heritage-based rural development. The main idea was to generate tourism activities through the tradition of horseradish. In 2002, a local civic association, the Horseradish Tourist Route Association was established with the participation of eight local governments, four horseradish producing firms and a local restaurant. The main objectives of the Association are to revitalize local cultural heritage and generate gastronomic tourism with the purpose of local development. A Horseradish Round Table was organized to negotiate roles and opportunities for horseradish in local development with the primary goal of developing gastronomic tourism. This involved revitalizing the horseradish-inspired local gastronomy by collecting old recipes and inviting local restaurants to provide horseradish-based dishes. They also published brochures to present the local horseradish culture and other aspects of the cultural heritage of the joint settlements. Every year, a Horseradish Day and a Horseradish Festival are organized as cultural events involving more and more settlements in the micro-region. A Local Heritage Museum was founded to present the traditional cultivation methods of horseradish and its related heritage. It is important to note that horseradish did not have a cultural meaning before the Association started its activities, it was only regarded as the main economic resource. The Association’s main target group is tourists, but the initiative has not met its original goals. The region is almost unknown as a tourism destination and has not yet gained wider popularity beyond local and regional visitors. However, a local network has been created through the new cultural and symbolic redefinition of horseradish, which resulted in local community building. Meetings were organized to create a space where local people come together to share stories, create networks and learn from each other. Gastronomic tourism based on horseradish is developing very slowly, and its real success is yet to be seen, but initial negotiation and development processes of horseradish-based gastronomic tourism have resulted in a strong and successful place identity planning process, where the cultural meaning of local food has become the driving force for identity creation and community building.

Discussion and conclusions

The case studies of Hungary support previous arguments that gastronomy and local food alone are often not sufficient to create a rural tourism profile. It can be seen that gastronomy and local food can play very different roles in rural tourism and development. In the case of the Őrség region, gastronomy is one of the major rural tourism services, but here the starting point of tourism development was the concept of a rural ‘idyll’ which was closely connected to the
unique landscape. Gastronomy emerged as a complementary service to increase the success of tourism development in the region. In Derecske-Létavértes, the starting point was local food, and the main aim was to develop gastronomic tourism as a driver of local development. However, gastronomic tourism has not yet succeeded. Nevertheless, the process resulted in successful local identity and community building. Other cases in Hungary such as Kalocsa, which is famous for paprika production (the foundation of Hungarian cuisine), did not manage to develop gastronomic tourism. Instead, tourists visit for cultural reasons (e.g., to visit the paprika museum or to admire and buy the paprika-inspired lace) and usually only for one day or a few hours (Smith and Jusztin 2014; Csurgó and Megyesi 2015; Csurgó 2016).

Although gastronomy and food are an important part of local cultural heritage and play a central role in creating a sense of place and identity, this is often not sufficient for tourism development which goes beyond local or regional visitation. On the other hand, unique local food traditions (e.g., the gastronomic heritage of peasantry) can help to transmit the notion of a rural ‘idyll’ which is inextricably linked to landscape. This can attract urban visitors in particular and may lead to the purchasing of second homes or even settlement. Re-populating and re-invigorating rural areas which have often become depleted for economic reasons is an important part of rural development. In addition, the contribution to a local sense of place and identity, as well as community building, may lead to increased attractiveness for tourists in the future.

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References


8

TRANSFORMING THE TERROIR INTO A TOURIST DESTINATION

Rebecca Mackenzie

As defined in our provincial Tourism Strategy and Action Plan (Ontario Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Sport 2010:8), food tourism is defined as:

Any tourism experience in which one learns about, appreciates, and/or consumes food and drink that reflects the local, regional, or national cuisine, heritage, culture, tradition or culinary techniques of that region.

Virtually any visit to a destination can be enriched by food and drink and destinations can raise tourism receipts when they focus on tying their unique terroir into a tourism experience.

Developed properly, gastronomic tourism tells the story of the heritage, the people, and the landscape of a geographic area. It reflects ‘place’, enriches experiences, and can be a valuable tool to boost economic, social, and community development.

According to a journal article published in *Current Issues in Tourism* (University of Guelph Tourism Collaborative 2015), gastronomic tourism involves three main components (du Rand and Heath 2006):

- *Agriculture* (the core product)
- *Culture* (adds history and authenticity to the product)
- *Tourism* (transforms the agricultural product into a tourism product by providing added value)

By increasing demand and providing additional channels for local food and beverages, food tourism can have a significant effect on the long-term sustainability of agricultural producers and the viability of local food systems (Steinmetz 2010). Canadian non-profit organization Local Food Plus estimated that eating local food has a 3:1 impact on the local economy (Ontario Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Sport 2010). For Ontario wine, the number is even more significant – for every 1 litre of Vintners Qualified Alliance wine that is consumed, $12.29 is generated in added value (KPMG 2011). This is especially evident in rural areas that often have a strong agricultural base.
Transforming the terroir into a destination

UNWTO Global Report on Food Tourism (2012)

In 2012, the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) published the Global Report on Food Tourism, underscoring the importance and significant benefits to investing in food tourism. The report recommended that destinations and tourism businesses define and leverage their culinary offerings to “diversify tourism and stimulate local, regional and national economic development” (United Nations World Tourism Organization 2017). Food tourism was also identified as one of the most dynamic tourism sectors, with significant worldwide growth observed in a relatively short time. The report also found stated that over one-third of tourist spending worldwide is devoted to food.

The rise of Food Tourism

Talking about food options and culture in an authentic and conversational manner is as important as the local ingredients themselves. For many DMOs, food and beverage has become a cornerstone of tourism campaigns aimed at Millennials.

(Skift 2015)

The Rise of Food Tourism study, sponsored by the CTA and published by Skift, a travel intelligence brand based in New York, examines how destinations and travel suppliers have developed new strategies, events, and marketing campaigns to attract food tourists and capitalize on the rising demand for local food and authentic culinary travel experiences. The report, which is available as a free download, outlines Best Practice DMOs that have focused on user-generated social media content and integrated culinary experiences into existing cultural events to capture new audiences. The report quotes statistics from the Mandala Research firm, which reported that 77% of the roughly 170 million U.S. leisure travelers can be classified as food tourists. Of these travelers, 51% indicated that they travel to enjoy unique eating and drinking experiences (up from 40% in 2006). The report attributes the increase in food tourism in part due to the proliferation of food images being shared on social media and the growth of the Millennial generation, which gravitates toward local food experiences.

When developing a destination’s food tourism, there are nine factors that must be considered to reach successful outcomes. In our provincial Tourism Strategy and Action Plan (Ontario Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Sport 2010), key indicators of successful food tourism programs were highlighted. Among these best practices, several common themes emerged:

- Leadership
- Market ready or near-market ready culinary products and resources
- Integrated strategy
- Partnership and community-based collaboration
- Financial support and performance measures
- Destinations with good access from key origin markets
- Sufficient market intelligence
- Food tourism resources distinctive to the region
- Destination with multiple food tourism experiences
- Effective destination marketing
- Safe and accessible environment
Additional success factors include:

- Cross-promotion
- Establishing standards to ensure consistent quality
- Targeting niche segments in domestic and international markets
- Using food tourism to expand the tourism season
- Leveraging attractive, unusual and/or unknown cuisine to brand a destination
- Using innovative signage and logos
- Combining food experiences with other tourism elements (e.g., nature, sports, history and/or culture)

Barriers to developing food tourism include:

- Funding
- Poor signage
- Lack of resources
- Seasonality
- Lack of skills, knowledge
- Competition
- Transportation
- Lack of coherent branding

A study in South Africa (du Rand and Heath 2006) identified lack of food promotion, lack of food events, and access to funding as the primary barriers to developing food tourism. Marketing-related issues (e.g., branding, attracting media coverage) were viewed as more important challenges than product-related issues (e.g., quality of foodservice products, availability of tourism experiences).

What does a food tourist look like?

Food tourism is no longer a niche market. Its potential to motivate and attract travelers is significant. All tourists eat, including the more than 142M visitors to Ontario in 2012. (Ontario Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Sport 2015). Of these tourists, 121.5M came from within the province, followed by 11.7M from the U.S. and 2.2M from overseas. For the 42.8 million overnight visitors Ontario welcomed in 2010, 82.9% were domestic (from Canada) visitors. (Statistics Canada 2013). Ontario’s tourism receipts in that same year reached $22B, with Ontario residents accounting for the majority of the economic impact, followed by Americans. (Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Sport 2013). In 2011, over 220,000 jobs in Ontario were in the tourism sector.

The CTA’s research has indicated that there are three distinct segments of the food tourism market:

**High Interest (10%)** These are tourists who deliberately plan trips based on the food experience. They spend twice as much on their tourism experience overall as any other tourist.

**Moderate Interest (80%)** These are tourists who incorporate a food experience in their overall itinerary. While food may not be, the primary motivator attracting travelers to that destination, food is of growing importance to that overall experience. There is great opportunity within this market to develop food tourism products.
Transforming the terroir into a destination

Low Interest (10%) These are tourists who are travelling through an area and make an unplanned stop to eat. These stopover locations present another opportunity to promote local food tourism experiences.

As all tourists eat, each meal at a destination presents an opportunity to create a memorable experience – one that visitors and locals will talk about. A visitor may not self-identify as a ‘food tourist’ but may find themselves traveling or returning to a destination once they’ve had an exceptional, authentic taste while at the destination.

The 2006 Travel Activities and Motivation Survey (TAMS) provides further insight into food tourists in the province and underscores their value (Ontario Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Sport 2006). Ontario food tourists are:

- More likely to be from larger urban areas
- More likely to do extensive research in print and online when trip planning
- More likely to be affluent than other Ontarians
- More positive, energetic attitudes than other Ontarians
- More active than other Ontarians
- Interested in agritourism (31% stated a moderate to high interest)

In a recent report from the Ontario Tourism Marketing Partnership Corporation (OTMPC), the following attitudes towards travel were observed in the near and mid U.S. markets. (Ontario Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Sport 2015):

- 64% like to walk around and do ‘what the locals do’
- 51% love travelling ‘off the beaten path’
- 30% prefer to eat food that is familiar (‘like at home’)

Food tourists are more likely to participate in cultural, historical, agricultural, horticultural and outdoor activities. This suggests that a food tourist may also be a cultural, historical, horticultural, and/or eco-tourist. It is recommended that destinations leverage food tourism by incorporating local food and beverage components into a variety of tourism activities (e.g., at historical sites, music festivals, and waterfront areas) to attract multiple tourist segments.

The 3 T’s of food tourism: taste, tour, take-away

In 2013, the CTA partnered with Ryerson University to perform a study of the motivations of Ontario food tourism. Opportunities for interaction while enjoying culinary activities were highly valued by a majority of the 400 survey respondents. The ability to taste or sample locally sourced products during the activity was important for 81% of respondents, while 43% indicated their looked at the availability of guided tours when choosing a destination. The take-away element was also important – close to two-thirds of respondents said they purchased a culinary souvenir on their most recent trip. Offering value-added, take home items at is an excellent way to encourage visitors to share a business or destination’s local food stories and products with a larger network.

In the survey, respondents were also asked to indicate their average spend (in Canadian dollars) per culinary activity:

$108 – acclaimed restaurants with celebrity chefs
$86 – restaurants serving regional products
$84 – educational activities
$82 – themed routes, trails
$68 – festivals, events with a culinary focus

For respondents who had recently traveled to the province, word of mouth (66%), social media (38%), and social review sites (35%) were the most commonly used information sources. Reliance on social review sites and special interest blogs were rated higher for respondents in the under 40 years of age category. Overwhelmingly, word of mouth (86%) and social media (50%) were selected as the preferred methods for sharing their experiences. Social media was more common for younger respondents, with 59% of respondents under 40 indicating they used at least one of these channels.

In the best tradition of authentic communication, food tourism can breathe to life real examples of how communities take pride in their place and share that with visitors. The world is full of best practices; however, the following three are ones that have resonated with me. I’m sure that if asked next year, new ones may replace these just as they have replaced many before them, but this is simply another indication of how food tourism continues to grow in importance and the professionalism associate with the craft deepens.

Case study 8.1: Prince Edward County Taste Trail

Prince Edward County, located in Southern Ontario on a large irregular headland or littoral at the eastern end of Lake Ontario, just west of the head of the St. Lawrence River. This headland is surrounded on the north and east by the Bay of Quinte. The Murray Canal connects the Bay to Lake Ontario across the only land connection, making it technically an island. Murray Canal is crossed by two swing bridges, the single-lane county road 64 bridge and the two-lane country road 33 bridge. Bay of Quinte is crossed by two 2-lane bridges of about 850m length – one carrying Provincial Highway 62 near Belleville and the other about 24km east carrying Provincial Highway 49 near Deseronto (Wikipedia 2017). The population is approximately 30,000 and experiences a significant increase from May to October with seasonal residents. “The County” as it is fondly referred to by locals, is home to the Sandbanks Provincial Park, the world’s largest freshwater sand bar and dune system. For decades, the park has been attracting half a million visitors primarily during the peak summer season (June, July and August).

Agriculture has played a significant role in Prince Edward County since the early 1800s and has seen many booms and busts. Initially, the main cash crop was wheat exported to Great Britain. The USA became a major customer during the Civil War, and these trade links were retained until near the end of the century. A saying of the times was “wheat bought the farm and barley paid the mortgage”. As many as 30 butter and cheese manufacturing plants operated at one time. By 1902, it is estimated that a third of Canada’s canned fruits and vegetables came from “The Garden County” (Prince Edward County Heritage Committee 1999). After the Second World War, the small factories of the area were old and obsolete. They couldn’t compete with newer factories built elsewhere, imported canned goods, and changes in government regulations that demanded better sanitary conditions and worker benefits. Throughout the 1960s and 70s, the canning factories closed their doors one by one, and the industry that had once meant everything to Prince Edward County was gone for good. (History lives here 2009). The primary agriculture that remained in the...
80s and 90s were cash crops and small family farms. The next boom was to follow in 1996 with the establishment of the County Cider Company & Estate Winery who specialize in hard cider, followed by the first grape winery – Waupoos Estates Winery in 2000.

In 1997, a number of small to medium sized business operators from the tourism and agricultural sectors came together to discuss the precarious endeavor of operating seasonal businesses. Through a collective effort, they managed to access a grant from the Ontario Ministry of Agriculture, Food & Rural Affairs under the Rural Economic Development fund. These funds seeded the development of a not-for-profit destination marketing organization (DMO) Taste the County. The goal of this DMO was to strengthen the relationship between the two sectors to drive spending in economy during the shoulder seasons (winter, spring, and fall).

In 2001, Taste the County initiated the research to develop a food tourism experience that would address challenges of seasonality, encourage pride in place and direct visitors to businesses that met specific criteria to showcase the region’s terroir. Looking to global best practices, including the Isle of Arran, Scotland, and supported by extensive stakeholder engagement, they developed the concept for the Taste Trail. The trail, which highlights market ready farms, artisan producers, specialty food retailers, restaurants, accommodations, wineries, cideries, breweries, and distilleries, has specific criteria for businesses belonging to it which address key factors to drive shoulder season visitation including operational hours, showcasing of local tastes, signage/wayfinding, and amenities. In addition to meeting the required criteria, business operators much pay an annual fee that provides the following marketing benefits:

- Bilingual signage on Ministry of Transportation highways and municipal roadways
- Mobile friendly website
- Annual print publication
- Media and public relations program

Launched in 2003 with funding support from the Corporation of the County of Prince Edward and the Ontario Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Sport, the Taste Trail continues to be one of the most successful food tourism experiences in Ontario. With over 40 wineries, cideries, craft breweries and distilleries, “the County” boasts that is the only Canadian destination on Travel & Leisure Magazine’s list of top 50 places to visit in the world (see Figure 8.1).
In many destinations, the terroir has contributed to a way of life that is long rooted in a culture’s traditions. With the globalization and industrialization of our food ways, many traditions have lost their way and only recently being reinvested in to revitalize and support economic development. An example of this is highlighted in our second case study.

**Case study 8.2: Basque, Spain Cidre**

**Astigarraga, Sagardoetxea – Basque Cider Museum**

As a delegate to the 3rd UNWTO World Forum on Gastronomy Tourism in San Sebastian, Spain in May of 2017, I had the pleasure of participating in a workshop: TXOTX. Tradition, socializing, rediscovering cider and transmitting heritage. “Txotx!” is the cider-maker’s call throughout the cider season, inviting hundreds of thousands of people to gather around the cider barrel to share experiences, reinforcing and creating tradition, and exalting the products yielded by the land (United Nations World Tourism Organization 2017).

Among the reasons for visiting Spain, oenogastronomy is one of the fastest-growing motivations over the past years. Out of 56.7 million international tourists, more than 5 million said that the enjoyment of Spanish food and wine constituted one of their main reasons for choosing Spain as a tourism destination. These visits generated receipts of over 5 billion euros and the visitors rated their satisfaction at 8.3 out of 10. For its part, the food and agriculture sector in Spain represents 7.6% of GDP and employs more than 400,000 people. (United Nations World Tourism Organization 2017).

Our Txotx (pronounced CHO-ch) Tour began with a visit to the Basque Cider Museum in Astigarraga, a town of 5,000 surrounded by 21 sagardotegia, each one being a combination of cider house and restaurant. The Museum has three areas to visit: the apple orchard, the interpretation centre, and the tasting room. This museum offers all three food tourism “t’s” starting with tours teaching the visitor about the variety of apples that are used in cider making, and how they were traditionally harvested and used to produce the cider. Throughout all these steps, the cultural significance of cider in Basque country was reinforced elevating the tasting into a truly unique experience!

An excellent example is the tasting experience itself. Basque tradition finds participants forming a line in front of the massive chestnut keg. Once the tap is opened, a steady stream of cider pours directly into the first waiting glass. As your turn comes up, you approach the stream of cider with your glass held down low by your knees—as if you were preparing to roll a bowling ball. As the cider hits the inside top of your glass, you take a step forward while raising your hand slowly following the stream of cider until you have roughly two fingers worth in your cup. At this point, you step to the side to make way for the next person before walking to the back of the line to start the process all over again. It’s a dance of pure enjoyment!

The ciders are sold seasonally (January through April) and you can take way (third “t”) a taste from their tasting room along with other locally producer artisan foods. Additionally, they have worked with stakeholders (over 100 houses in the region) to create experiences that can be purchased online that include cider and the sea, cider cycling and sagartrekking. Their website it easy to book visits to the cider houses in the region, provides transportation options and is a central clearing house for events that celebrate the cider harvest (Sagardoetxea n.d.).
Conclusion

The opportunity to use gastronomic tourism as a platform to strengthen the export of a destination’s added value foods and beverages is significant and supports the ‘take-away’ concept discussed earlier in this chapter.

A great example is Genoa’s Cristoforo Colombo Airport ‘Il pesto è buono’ (Pesto is good) initiative (Aeroporto di Genova S.p.A. 2016). Genoa is renowned for its production of the condiment that combines basil leaves, parmigiano, local olive oil, and pine nuts together. This program enables tourists with pesto jars of up to 500g obtain a special sticker in exchange for a €0.50 (£0.44; $0.55) charity donation to the Flying Angels, a charity that flies sick children abroad for treatment. The caveat to this program is that the pesto must be Genovese. “Il pesto e buono” launch in June of 2017 saw over 500 stamps sold in the first 3 weeks of implementation.

An additional example of encouraging tourists to take home a taste of place is the Alaska Airlines Idaho Wines Fly Free program that permits Mileage Plan Members to check their first case of Idaho wines at no cost! (Visit Idaho 2017). Idaho has a long history of wine production with the first vineyards in the Pacific Northwest being planted in the 1860s. Prohibition in the United States virtually wiped out the Idaho wine industry in the early twentieth century only to have it resurrected again in the 1970s (Appellation America 2015). The Idaho Wines Fly Free program is a partnership between the Idaho Wine Commission, Lewis-Clark Valley AVA, Visit Idaho, and Alaska Airlines – proof that working in partnership can pay off when it comes to promoting a taste of place takeaway.

We began this chapter looking at transforming a destination by celebrating its terroir and talking about the virtuous circle of connecting visitors back to taste of place. Gastronomic tourism epitomizes the idea of interconnected activities that, when well thought out and managed, strengthen the very system in which they operate. We’ve seen that truly understanding what makes a region’s terroir unique is the starting point. Building a community around this authentic differentiator comes next. Packaging our strength into an experience and sharing it with an attractive audience that values it follows. And, finally facilitating the opportunities for the consumer to share positively with their network closes the loop. Whether it’s a bottle of wine, glass of cider, or even a jar of world-class pesto, it’s not just what’s in the container that moves us, it’s the promise that each genuine taste connects us closer to a region, a history, a culture, and ultimately our world.

References


Introduction

Traditionally, tourism in the Nordic countries has been dominated by nature. In Norway, for instance, the most sought out tourism experiences are the Northern Lights and the fjords (Mei 2014). However, in recent years, nature is simply not enough to provide valuable experiences for tourists of the Nordic regions, as tourists are seeking more unique experiences where the nature is only one element. Thus, the tourism industry has realized that nature alone cannot be competitive anymore, predominantly due to the pricing level in the Nordic countries, and in Norway in particular. Additionally, many tourism reports have indicated that tourists are generally dissatisfied with the quality of food, which does not reflect the price and the overall tourism experiences. As a result, there have been many initiatives to improve the quality of the food by integrating its unique history into experiences in the Nordic countries. In Norway, many food tourism initiatives have been initiated locally, regionally and nationally in order to incorporate unique food experiences as part of tourism experiences (Mei, Lerfald, and Bråtå 2017).

This chapter discusses two specific case studies in the Nordic and Norwegian context. The first case study consists of the pilot project the Taste of National Tourist Routes (TNTR), which has a regional focus. The project required the collaboration between various operators and actors located in several National Tourist Routes (NTR). The actors and operators mainly consisted of the national government, the local governments, representatives from the agricultural and food, and the tourism industries. The collaboration effort among the agriculture and food industries with the tourism industry was a new initiative, which has not been done before in such a scale in a Norwegian food tourism context. The second case study is Atlungstad Distillery (Atlungstad Brenneri) – the history of aquavit and the potato, which has a local focus in the county of Hedmark in Norway. One of the goals of Atlungstad Distillery is to build and promote the identity of the destination, a ‘sense of place’ as well as bringing pride to the local community through the history of the distillery, the food, and storytelling (Merok 2015). These two various initiatives illustrate examples of destinations marketed through gastronomy both at regional and local levels.
Gastronomy tourism in the Nordic region

The increased focus on food as part of the complete tourism experience has certainly trigged the interests of industry operators to integrate food and gastronomic experiences in their overall tourism products. While food has always played a key role in the complete tourism product (Jenkins 1999), recent trends of health concerns as well as the interests for ‘clean’ and local produce, suggest that people are generally more concerned about conscious eating. Tourists are also increasingly becoming more interested in the story behind the food or a certain dish as part of the historical and cultural experiences. Moreover, many tourists are, for instance, traveling for the sole purpose of gastronomic experiences. In Sweden for instance, there is an increasing market of tourists consisting of foodies, who are food lovers and seeking food experiences when traveling. However, it was discovered that foodies in the Sweden context also seek non-food related experiences including hiking and wildlife, experiencing an outdoor concert, and staying at a spa (Vujicic, Getz, and Robinson 2013). While food and gastronomic experiences in the Nordic and Norway context will unlikely be the sole reason why tourists travel to and in the region, food will provide additional value and unique experiences to complement and heighten the current tourism products, which mainly consist of nature.

Food and gastronomy as a way to build identity and sense of place

Local food and drink can be used to build a destination and its “sense of place” and identity through differentiation. Such an initiative is important for the economic development of a region (Haven-Tang and Jones 2005). A sense of place is created by focusing on unique attributes to exploit the various social and cultural characteristics of a region to create valuable experiences for tourists. Districts and regions in the Nordic often lack iconic attractions that major cities have; hence, they need to be more competitive in terms offering exclusive products. A sense of place is often described as a place where identity is strong among locals and tourists. A place that is perceived as authentic, as opposed to places oversize with big store chains, known as “McDonaldization” (Ritzer 2004). A sense of place can consist of the local history, the characteristics of the place that create belongings, legends, the people, as well as the “soul” and the “spirit” of the place, and together they create distinctive memorable qualities that resonate with locals and tourists (Haven-Tang and Jones 2005). Campelo et al. (2013) illustrate the concept of a sense of place, where both the physical environment consisting of location, geography, landscape, and weather, and social environment including the people and history, must be integrated.

For the tourism industry, this can offer unique experiences for tourists, and strengthens a region’s competitiveness, economic development, and value creation. For locals, this can help to enhance the attractiveness and pride of their own region and place. Both are important for a region’s future development.

Distinctive food stories and experiences

While Campelo et al. (2013) did not specifically focus on gastronomy and food, the story and history behind these have become increasingly important for destinations to be distinctive. For instance, some foods and dishes in Norway such as the rakfisk which is made from trout or char, salted and fermented for many months and consumed without cooking, has a unique story behind it as a preservation method. Rakfisk is a food tradition that can be traced back to the Middle Ages and thus has great importance for the Norwegian food culture, and in particu-
lar region of Valdres (MAF 2010a). Another food dish is the pultost, a soft sour milk cheese flavored with caraway seeds with a strong and distinctive smell, which is typically produced in Inland region of Norway. As some of these foods are predominately produced in certain regional areas, making it part of their history and culture, which is inimitable to the identity of that particular destination and its sense of place.

As an increasing number of tourists want to experience something that is authentic, out of the ordinary, they are also willing to pay more for such experiences (Haven-Tang and Jones 2005). Regions and tourism operators can thus organize and create the conditions necessary for tourism offerings to become unique and memorable experiences. Developing a sense of place through improving the quality of food and telling its story as a starting point is therefore fundamentally important. Haven-Tang and Jones (2005) also emphasize that destinations must be selective in what they will include as a basis for developing a sense of place. All tasks, including marketing, branding and product development, must be consistent and coherent (Campelo et al. 2013), which can be challenging in a destination and tourism context. This is even more challenging when collaboration is required, which is further illustrated in the TNTR pilot project.

Case study 9.1: The TNTR pilot project

The Taste of National Tourist Roads (TNTR) project was initiated as a direct response to the negative feedback that tourists provided in regards to the quality of food when they visited some of the National Tourist Roads (NTR) in Norway. There are 18 tourist routes in Norway, which hold the status as NTR. The NTR was developed by the Norwegian Public Road Administration (NPRA) to create tourist routes of international quality and appeal to domestic and international tourists as a way to enhance historical and cultural experiences of Norway. In the pilot project TNTR, five NTR were selected to ‘test’ the idea of involving the entire value chain in the process, including actors and operators of the tourism, agriculture, and food industries, in a collaborative effort to improve the quality of food and gastronomic experiences for visitors. The project was the first of its kind to integrate all three key sectors in the process on a vast geographical area, which includes several regions and counties, as previous similar initiatives tend to limit to single regions (Mei, Lerfald, and Bråtå 2017). Additionally, both the national government including the NPRA and the local governments played crucial roles as facilitator and partial financer.

The aim of the project was to enhance the overall experiences of the tourist routes with a focus on strengthening and developing food quality and tourism initiatives (MAF 2010b). The project developed its core values on the basis New Nordic cuisine’s core value by stating that:

providers of food experiences along the National Tourist Routes are ambassadors for the good meal with consideration for the raw materials, the quality, the history and the good host

(Bråtå, Lerfald, and Mei 2014:41)

The project was, however, initiated as a direct result of an agricultural policy rather than a tourism policy. This led to the absence of the Ministry of Trade, Industry and Fisheries (MTIF), which has the responsibility of managing and developing the Norwegian tourism industry. Unfortunately, such absence also creased some setbacks such as marketing and organizational challenges (Mei, Lerfald, and Bråtå 2017).
The five selected NTR, consisted of (1) Geiranger-Trollstigen, (2) Rondane, (3) GamleStrynnefjellsvegen, (4) Sognefjellet and (5) Valdresflye (see Figure 9.1).

**Main activities**

A wide range of activities has been conducted, such as a study trip to Jämtland in Sweden, company-oriented courses in different parts of the area and with different themes, as well as courses, conferences, and gatherings in Oslo. Courses in collaboration with famous Norwegian chefs were
offered both for tourists as well as actors and operators in the relevant industries in order provide more knowledge, inspiration, and awareness about local produce, the history behind it, and the importance of using local produce. Some of the main activities of the project consisted of facilitating and creating a series of meeting areas and events for relevant operators and actors as meeting points for collaboration. Before the project, some of the neighboring operators and actors were not even aware of each other’s existence. The courses and gatherings facilitated the discussions about the challenges and opportunities of using local versus cheap produce and ingredients imported from overseas, Norwegian food tradition, and food knowledge. Other events include photo exhibitions, food festivals, and workshops in Norway and abroad including Stockholm, Gothenburg, New York, and Berlin (Thorsen 2014).

There have also been a number of marketing activities, both at home and abroad. The magazine, available in several languages, was distributed free of charge to visitors and businesses. The magazine was in 150 pages, featuring recipes and the stories behind selected business operators that are involved in the project, the stories about their food, and the people as hosts. In presenting the food and dishes, photos of local Norwegian sceneries of the nature was also integrated as part of the story. Hence, it served as an important tool to disseminate the history and cultural significance of the food in each region and their relevant NTR.

**Spin-off projects and collaborations**

As a direct result of the pilot project, many spin-off projects and other informal forms of collaboration have been established between operators and actors in the three sectors. Some projects have received additional funding for further development while other informal forms of collaboration may simply consist of actors and operators speaking with each other and helping each other’s business operations. Prior to the pilot project, many relevant operators and actors had already established a genuine conceptual approach and ideology in regards to using local and regional produce that reflected the regional cultural landscape (Bråtå, Lerfald, and Mei 2014). Nevertheless, the project has led to an increased focus on the importance of gastronomic experiences by using more of local and seasonal produce and the need for collaboration with others in order to achieve the common goal of developing unique food tourism experiences for tourists.

**Lessons to be learned**

While there are many success stories, there are also many lessons to be learned. In any project, there are deemed to be positive as well as negative results. Although, many new networks and collaborative efforts were formed, leading to exciting new projects and spin-off projects, there were several organizational challenges due to the number of various actors and operators involved. There were some critical voices in terms of the use of resources. Funding, for instance, was a major challenge in the project, as more than half of the funding was used primarily on marketing activities such as website development, etc., and on the magazine. The large resource use of marketing activities is partly due to the development of its own websites because it was not permitted to use the NPRA’s existing NTR website for promotion, which was firstly assumed (Bråtå, Lerfald, and Mei 2014). It is further argued that the project has been too concentrated on a number of large and more famous companies and has not been so open to including the smaller ones. This was also
a major criticism, namely whether the project became too much focused on well-known operators and actors to ‘carry the weight’, especially from the tourism sector. Thus, it eventually becomes less interesting for smaller business operators, especially primary food producers. Nevertheless, in a large project as such, it may be necessary to have the larger operators to function as locomotives as they often times have more resources and expertise. However, the power struggle will likely be an issue regardless.

The pilot project concluded in December 2013, despite some criticism of the results, the feedback from participants, and the evaluation team as well as government parties strongly recommend that the project should be extended to the remaining 13 NTR as well. While it is still unsure to what extent the project will be carried forward, many of the positive outcomes suggest that such initiatives are important in order to market destinations and regions using gastronomy and food experiences as part of the overall tourism experience. The outcome is not only beneficial for tourists, but also important for the cultural preservation of the local and regional history through food. This further leads to developing a unique sense of place of a destination or region and its identity.

Case study 9.2: The Atlungstad Distillery case study

Atlungstad Distillery is a much smaller case study in comparison to the TNTR project. Nevertheless, it indicates that gastronomic experience initiatives on the local level is important to enhance tourism experiences whilst also serving as a way to boost the area’s identity and pride among the local community.

The history of Atlungstad Distillery

Atlungstad Distillery is a local company located in the municipality of Stange, situated on the southeastern part of Norway in the Hedmark County in the Inland region. The Inland region, for instance, has had many challenges in communicating a clear place identity, which stands out from other destinations, in order to compete nationally and internationally (Mei 2014). With its rich history, Atlungstad Distillery can help to develop the identity of the region and the sense of place. The company is one of very few international branding companies that can display a continuous business for over 160 years, managing a cultural heritage of great national and international importance (Merok 2015). The building itself is considered by the Directorate for Cultural Heritage as one of the 15 industrial heritage sites in Norway of national value (Directorate for Cultural Heritage 2017). It is one of the four remaining distilleries in Norway and the only historical distillery currently still in operation (see Figure 9.2).

The history of the distillery is closely related to the Norwegian alcohol consumption history, the location of the distillery, and the potato itself. The breakthrough of distilled beverages in Norway came in the 17th century when the belief in their medicinal abilities was strong. In the first half of the 1800s, such beverages yielded between 80 and 90% of the alcohol consumption. Atlungstad Distillery was established due to such increased consumption, as well as Stange village’s steadily increasing potato surplus. The distillery has been dissolved, and had several mergers, acquisitions, and name changes over the years (Directorate for Cultural Heritage 2017).
Focusing on gastronomy and food experiences

The operation resumed in 2011 and since then, Atlungstad Distillery has been focusing on developing their product offerings by opening up the distillery for tourists and visitors in terms of aquavit tasting, tours, classes, and various cultural events in the historical buildings. Apart from being a distillery in operation, enhancing gastronomic and tourism experiences by

Figure 9.2  Map of the Inland region.
Source: Adapted from Norgeskart (2017).
integrating the local history, the history of Norway, and the cultural and agricultural history are some of the focus areas of development. Visitors can taste and learn about various types of food and dishes, which can enhance and complement the taste of the aquavit. In collaboration with local farms and the association “Mjøsgården” which consists of 13 different farms around the largest lake in Norway, Lake Mjøsa, an overall experience is provided including accommodation, food, and other activities. Lake Mjøsa and the strategic location of the distillery within the proximity of the lake has played an important role in its historical development, as goods and materials were transported by boats. Thus, all these elements in the physical environment are incorporated with social environment of the local people and the history in order develop a sense of place of the region.

In presenting the history of the distillery and its historical significance, the storytelling starts with the potato, which is the main ingredient in the aquavit. Potatoes are one of the staple foods in Norway and while many locals and tourists have regarded the potato as a boring ingredient, the distillery is attempting to convey the importance of the potato in the aquavit production in order to trigger new appreciation and interest in this humble vegetable. As discussed, it is believed that food quality and experiences can be enriched if there is a story behind a certain ingredient or dish. Hence, “consuming food is also about consuming stories” (de la Barre and Brouder 2013:213).

The future directions of the distillery

The Directorate for Cultural Heritage has provided support and funding for the restoration of the distillery to become a cultural heritage site and a distillery museum. The restoration was completed and celebrated in a major family event on the 30 September 2017 (Atlungstad Brenneri 2017). In the long term, apart from being a distillery in operation, it aims to run the distillery as a center for cultural experience and education. Its current offerings are mainly adapted to locals, domestic tourists, and other Scandinavian tourists due to it still being in the early stages of its development in gastronomy and tourism experiences. Nevertheless, there is an ambition to welcome international tourists as well in the near future. While such initiative is still on the early stage of its development, this may lead to positive effects in terms of developing a strong identity, pride, and sense of place among local visitors and tourists in the Inland region, thus allowing the region to differentiate its product offerings and experiences in comparison to similar destinations.

Conclusion and final comments

Marketing destinations and regions through gastronomy have become increasingly important for many destinations in order to provide valuable tourism experiences. The challenges for many gastronomic and food tourism initiatives is to use local food, culture, and history to develop a sense of place and identity as the prerequisites for creating distinctive and authentic experiences for the tourists and value creation for the relevant regions and destinations. While gastronomic experiences may not be the sole reason why many tourists travel to and within a region in a Nordic context, food is one of the ways to experience the unique history and
Marketing destinations through gastronomy

culture of a destination. Furthermore, through food and its history, a sense of place can be developed which allows a destination or region to differentiate itself from other places with similar offerings. A sense of place can also contribute to the pride, identity, and authenticity of the local community.

The two cases of TNTR and Atlungstad Distillery have provided various approaches to marketing destinations through gastronomy. The question is what can be learned from these two cases? Developing an overall tourism experience and a strong sense of place through food and its history requires the initiatives of many actors and operators involved. In a project such as TNTR, such a collaboration is irrefutable yet difficult due to the numerous parties involved. However, it has been shown that if barriers were broken down, it is possible to initiate dialogues and informal collaborations just by helping each other and knowing each other’s existence.

In the Atlungstad Distillery case, a single company has taken the initiative to develop gastronomy and food tourism experiences by taking advantage of its location to the Lake Mjøsa and the historical importance of the distillery. Nevertheless, it still requires the support of the local community and nearby tourism businesses in order to develop a strong sense of place in the region. As the people in the local communities are important parts in building a sense of place, a sense of place, which is developed through local food, culture, and history, may also contribute to build pride and identity among locals. Hence, marketing destinations through gastronomy may lead to enhanced experiences for tourists, as well as increased pride and identity among locals. All these factors are imperative for the future development of a destination or region.

References


Thorsen, E. Ø. (2014). *Sluttrapport pilotprosjekt Mat langs nasjonale turistveger* [Final report of pilot project Taste of National Tourist Routes]. Lom: TNTR.
EXPLORING ADDITIONAL FOOD AND BEVERAGE ACTIVITIES OF WINE TRAVELERS

Matthew J. Stone, Roberta Garibaldi and Andrea Pozzi

Introduction

Food and wine tourism often go hand in hand. It is easy to think of a vacation that includes visiting wineries during the day, followed by a gourmet dinner. However, there may be many other linkages between travelers enjoying wine experiences and other culinary or gastronomic experiences, including restaurant experiences, food or wine events, and even breweries. When segmenting travelers based on their recent activities while traveling, ‘wine’ travelers often overlap with ‘food’ travelers. A large Canadian study found that almost 65% of wine tourists were also food tourists (Ignatov and Smith 2006), while an American study, sponsored in part by the International Culinary Tourism Association (now World Food Travel Association) and Gourmet magazine, measured this number at 28% (TIA and Edge 2007). While the exact activities defined as ‘food’, ‘beer’, or ‘wine’ tourism differs in the studies, there is evidence that wine travelers also seek other gastronomic activities.

This chapter presents details of food and beverage travel consumption behavior among samples of American and French wine travelers and compares their activities to other leisure travelers, revealing a large overlap between wine activities and other gastronomic activities. In both samples, wine travelers tend to participate in other gastronomic activities more than non-wine travelers. A case study is presented showcasing a destination which has incorporated both food and wine activities into its leisure offering. Finally, conclusions and suggestions for future research are provided.

Literature review

Beginning in the mid-1990s, wine tourism research began to be published in academic journals. Early studies primarily centered on the influence of wine tourism in rural areas and the behavior of the tourists themselves (Getz 2000; Hall et al. 2000). As wine tourism expanded, it has become a wide platform for investigation. Many descriptive or comparative studies have appeared, and the increasing volume and value of wine tourism have been documented in several countries, such as Australia (e.g., Macionis 1997), Canada (e.g., Telfer 2001), France (e.g., Frochot 2000), Italy (e.g., Antonioli Corigliano 2002), New Zealand (e.g., Mitchell and Hall 2003), Spain (e.g., López-Guzmán et al. 2011), and the US (Garibaldi et al. 2017).
However, there is a little consensus within the field on the definition and conceptualization of the term ‘wine tourism’. Although different definitions have been proposed, the most frequently cited definitions are those suggested by Hall et al. (2000) and Getz (2000). Hall et al. (2000:298) defined wine tourism as the “visitation to vineyards, wineries, wine festivals and wine shows for which grape wine tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of a grape wine region are the prime motivating factors for visitors.” This definition focuses on consumer behaviors and recognizes that wine-related activities may be mainly for those whose primary travel motivations are related to wine. Getz (2000:4) provided another view of wine tourism: “travel related to the appeal of wineries and wine country, a form of niche marketing and destination development, and an opportunity for direct sales and marketing on the part of the wine industry.” This provides a more comprehensive concept of this segment, which is recognized simultaneously as a form of consumer behavior, a strategy by which destinations develop and market wine-related attractions and imagery, and a marketing opportunity for wineries.

According to Mitchell and Hall (2006), the main lines of research that can be found in wine tourism literature are the wine tourism product; wine tourism and regional development; the size of the winery visitation market; winery visitor segments; winery visitor behavior; the nature of winery visits; and bio security risks posed by winery visitors. Among these, a number of researchers have explicitly called for investigation on wine tourist preferences and behavior. Although most of studies have covered only visitors in wineries, there is increasing attention on wine tourism potential among wine consumers and also long-distance wine tourists (e.g., Lang Research Inc. 2001; Getz and Brown 2003; TIA and Edge 2007; Stone and Migacz 2016). These provide evidence that those with the most interest in wine were also most likely to participate in food-related, outdoor, and cultural activities, concluding that wine tourists desire a broad travel experience.

Definitions

The terms ‘culinary tourism’ and ‘gastronomy tourism’ are used interchangeably to include both food and beverage activities that someone may participate in while travelling. ‘Beverage tourism’ refers to wine, beer, and spirits/distillery activities while travelling, including wineries, wine trails, wine festivals, breweries, taprooms, beer trails, and beer festivals. The term ‘wine traveler’ is used for someone who has visited a winery, wine trail, or wine festival while traveling in the past two years (following a similar methodology as TIA and Edge 2007).

Method

As part of an international study for the World Food Travel Association, an online survey was distributed to survey panels in the United States and several European countries. Survey questions included past travel behavior, travel motivations, and attitudes toward culinary travel. Respondents were at least 18 years of age and had taken at least one overnight trip (minimum 80 km/50 miles) in the past year. This chapter presents data from a sample of American leisure travelers (N=570) and French leisure travelers (N=155). These two countries were selected because they generate a large number of outbound travelers as well as offering many culinary travel activities.

The American survey was administered online and started by 645 qualified respondents. After removing incomplete and invalid responses, there were 570 valid responses, for a completion rate (not response rate) of 88%. The survey of French travelers (translated into French) was started by 168 qualified respondents, with 155 valid responses, for a completion rate of
Exploring additional food and beverage activities of wine travelers

92%. Respondents were balanced by gender and generation (Boomers, Generation X, and Millennials), with the exception of older individuals, who were underrepresented, as they would be less likely to participate in leisure travel. The primary difference between the two samples is that the American sample had a higher educational level. Table 10.1 shows demographics of respondents.

In the two samples, 31.4% of American respondents were wine travelers, while wine travelers were 28.4% of the French respondents. Data is presented separately for each country, to provide evidence that wine traveler attributes may extend across various cultures. Statistical comparisons are made between wine travelers and non-wine travelers in each sample. The data was analyzed in SPSS.

Table 10.1 Demographics of samples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wine Travelers</th>
<th>United States (N=570)</th>
<th>France (N=155)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>% who have participated in a wine activity while travelling</td>
<td>31.4 %</td>
<td>28.4 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generation</td>
<td>Silent (born pre-1946)</td>
<td>5.5 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Boomers (born 1946-1964)</td>
<td>29.8 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Generation X (born 1965-1980)</td>
<td>30.7 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Millennials (born after 1980)</td>
<td>34.0 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Median</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>45.5 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>54.5 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>College graduates</td>
<td>65.7 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children</td>
<td>Children under 18 at home</td>
<td>39.2 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Excludes no answer/did not say/prefer not to answer (less than 2.1% of respondents)

**Results**

American wine travelers’ participation in culinary activities while travelling

From a list of 14 culinary travel activities, respondents indicated which they had participated in while travelling during the past two years. The most popular activities for American wine travelers were: visiting a winery or wine trail (77.0% had done this); going to a restaurant for a memorable experience (76.5%); eating at a fine dining (gourmet) restaurant (62.0%); and eating or drinking at a famous or landmark restaurant or bar (49.2%). The data also shows that some wine travelers attend a wine festival, others visit a winery or wine trail, but they may not necessarily do both while travelling. From the list of 14 activities, wine travelers had participated in an average of 5.9 different activities (SD=2.9), which was significantly higher when compared to 2.9 (SD=2.1) by non-wine travelers ($p<0.001$, $t=-12.536$).

When considering each activity separately, American wine travelers are more likely to have participated in culinary travel activities than others. For example, in the past two years, 49% of wine travelers ate or drank at a famous or landmark restaurant or bar, compared with only 34% of other leisure travelers. For each different culinary travel activity, there was a significant association between being a wine traveler and participating in culinary travel activities (using a Chi-square test for independence with Yates Continuity Correction) (see Table 10.2).
This provides evidence that wine travelers are often culinary travelers and should not be pursued by destinations simply for wine or gourmet activities. For example, they are likely to enjoy other beverage activities. Fifty percent of leisure travelers who participated in a beer activity also participated in a wine activity. Likewise, 54% of those who visited a distillery or a beverage trail (such as a whiskey trail) also participated in a wine activity.

Wine is often considered an upscale activity enjoyed by more wealthy individuals, and wine marketing has often focused on exposing wine travelers to other high-end culinary experiences. This is supported by the finding that 62% of American wine travelers had eaten at a fine dining (gourmet) restaurant during recent travels. However, 43% of wine travelers had eaten at a food truck, food cart, or food stall, a much less expensive activity. Among American wine travelers, over 20% have eaten at both a gourmet restaurant and a food truck, food cart, or food stall, which is typically considered a more pedestrian activity. This suggests that a subset of wine travelers may be cultural omnivores who enjoy both upscale and downmarket activities (Peterson and Kern 1996), while there may also be a subset of non-gourmet wine travelers.

Aside from budget, one reason that wine travelers may participate in downmarket experiences is that they are seeking local experiences. Using a five-point Likert-type scale, respondents were asked if they drink local wines when they travel. Wine travelers (M=3.92, sd=1.12) rated significantly higher (p<.001) than non-wine travelers (M=2.52, sd=1.29). Using the

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**Table 10.2 American wine travelers’ participation in culinary (gastronomic) activities: compared to non-wine travelers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Percentage of Wine Travelers</th>
<th>Percentage of Non-Wine Travelers</th>
<th>χ²</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Went to a restaurant for a memorable experience</td>
<td>76.5%</td>
<td>66.0%</td>
<td>5.94</td>
<td>.02 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ate at a food truck, food cart, or food stall</td>
<td>43.0%</td>
<td>33.0%</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>.03 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ate at a fine dining (gourmet) restaurant</td>
<td>62.0%</td>
<td>44.5%</td>
<td>14.37</td>
<td>&lt;.001 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ate or drank at a famous or landmark restaurant or bar</td>
<td>49.2%</td>
<td>34.5%</td>
<td>10.44</td>
<td>.001 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Took cooking classes</td>
<td>16.2%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>19.04</td>
<td>&lt;.001 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participated in a food or beverage tour of a destination</td>
<td>27.9%</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
<td>37.30</td>
<td>&lt;.001 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attended a food festival</td>
<td>45.3%</td>
<td>18.7%</td>
<td>42.66</td>
<td>&lt;.001 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attended a beer festival</td>
<td>27.4%</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>15.73</td>
<td>&lt;.001 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visited a brewery, taproom, or beer trail</td>
<td>25.7%</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
<td>19.91</td>
<td>&lt;.001 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Beer festival, brewery, taproom, or beer trail</strong></td>
<td><strong>41.9%</strong></td>
<td><strong>19.2%</strong></td>
<td><strong>31.52</strong></td>
<td>&lt;.001 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attended a wine festival</td>
<td>46.9%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>†</td>
<td>†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visited a winery or wine trail</td>
<td>77.0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>†</td>
<td>†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Wine festival, winery, or wine trail</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>0%</strong></td>
<td>†</td>
<td>†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Went to a distillery or a beverage trail (such as a whiskey trail)</td>
<td>21.2%</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
<td>18.20</td>
<td>&lt;.001 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visited a farmers’ market or agricultural fair</td>
<td>38.5%</td>
<td>22.9%</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>.03 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visited a farm or orchard</td>
<td>27.9%</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
<td>11.70</td>
<td>.001 ***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

χ² comparisons made using Yates Continuity Correction

† No comparison made because wine activities are required to be considered a wine traveler.

* Significant at p ≤ 0.05; ** Significant at p ≤ 0.01; *** Significant at p ≤ .001
same scale, wine travelers (M=3.34, sd=1.35) were also significantly (p<.001) more likely to drink local beers when they travel compared to non-wine travelers (M=2.61, sd=1.46). Thus, marketing of local experiences may be of particular importance to wine travelers.

**French wine travelers’ participation in culinary activities while travelling**

While the data from the United States is instructive, data from a sample of French leisure travelers (N=155) was also analyzed. The most popular experiences for French wine travelers were: attending a wine festival (68.2%); visiting a winery or wine festival (61.4%); going to a restaurant for a memorable experience (56.8%); and visiting a farmers’ market or agricultural fair (50.0%). French wine travelers had participated in an average of 5.4 different activities (SD=2.9), significantly higher than non-wine travelers (M=2.1, SD=1.6) (p<0.001, t=−7.05).

When considering each activity separately, the same pattern occurred as in the American sample. In the French sample, there was again a significant association between being a wine traveler and participation in culinary travel activities (using a Chi-square test for independence with Yates Continuity Correction) (see Table 10.3). Only three of the activities (visiting a brewery, taproom, or beer trail; going to a restaurant for a memorable experience; and visiting a farmers’ market or agricultural fair) showed no significant relationships, although there are possible explanations. Going to a restaurant may be too general to separate travelers. In

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of respondents who have participated in this activity while travelling in the past 2 years</th>
<th>Wine travelers</th>
<th>Non-wine travelers</th>
<th>χ²</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Went to a restaurant for a memorable experience</td>
<td>56.8%</td>
<td>40.5%</td>
<td>2.746</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ate at a food truck, food cart, or food stall</td>
<td>36.4%</td>
<td>18.0%</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>.03 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ate at a fine dining (gourmet) restaurant</td>
<td>45.5%</td>
<td>14.4%</td>
<td>15.33</td>
<td>&lt;.001 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ate or drank at a famous or landmark restaurant or bar</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
<td>12.6%</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>.05 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Took cooking classes</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
<td>#</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participated in a food or beverage tour of a destination</td>
<td>31.8%</td>
<td>13.5%</td>
<td>5.79</td>
<td>.02 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attended a food festival</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>7.2%</td>
<td>7.69</td>
<td>&lt;.01 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attended a beer festival</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
<td>7.20</td>
<td>&lt;.01 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visited a brewery, taproom, or beer trail</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beer festival, brewery, taproom, or beer trail</td>
<td>34.1%</td>
<td>16.2%</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>.03 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attended a wine festival</td>
<td>68.2%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>†</td>
<td>†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visited a winery or wine trail</td>
<td>61.4%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>†</td>
<td>†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wine festival, winery, or wine trail</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>†</td>
<td>†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Went to a distillery or a beverage trail (such as a whiskey trail)</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
<td>9.9%</td>
<td>6.21</td>
<td>.02 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visited a farmers’ market or agricultural fair</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>47.7%</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visited a farm or orchard</td>
<td>45.5%</td>
<td>23.4%</td>
<td>6.31</td>
<td>.01 **</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

χ² comparisons made using Yates Continuity Correction.

* No comparison made because wine activities are required to be considered a wine traveler.

* No χ² calculated because expected count is less than 5.

* Significant at p ≤ 0.05 ** Significant at p ≤ 0.01 *** Significant at p ≤ .001.
France, purchasing food at farmers’ markets is a common activity, so it is probably more likely that a French leisure traveler would encounter a farmers’ market regardless of their gastronomic interests or travel motivations.

About one-third (31%) of French wine travelers who ate at a gourmet restaurant had also eaten at a food truck/cart/stall. However, there was less evidence of cultural omnivores (enjoying gourmet restaurants and food trucks/carts/stalls), which comprised only 7% of the whole French sample (although the number of respondents was rather small). This appears to be one difference between the two samples. However, local experiences were also important among French travelers, just as they were in the American sample. French wine travelers (M=3.93, sd=0.97) were significantly (p<.001) more likely to drink local wines when travelling than non-wine travelers (M=3.00, sd=1.27). Using the same scale, wine travelers (M=3.30, sd=1.17) were also significantly (p<.001) more likely to drink local beers when travelling compared to non-wine travelers (M=2.76, sd=1.42).

Case study 10.1

Many destinations and culinary attractions have realized the connection and are focused on providing more than simply wine activities for wine travelers. In France, Château Smith Haut Lafitte winery, one of the oldest producers of the Bordeaux wine region, is a successful example that has enhanced the traditional winery experience into a more appealing product by developing a comprehensive experience, including winery, tastings, cooking lessons, and memorable fine dining.

To give visitors a first-hand knowledge of how its wines are made and to celebrate the unique connection among terroir, people and wine, the winery has designed discovery activities inside the cellars and in its vineyards, including guided visits, wine-tasting workshops with a vineyard manager or cellarmaster, and individual bike tours.

However, Château Smith Haut Lafitte is not only a production site but also a place to live and experience. For instance, ‘Les Sources de Caudalie’ is a luxury hotel situated inside the vineyards. Exterior and interior designs as well as services and activities offered reflect a strong connection with local wine culture, collectively providing a unique atmosphere and offering a memorable experience to guests. The 47 rooms revolve around the region’s rich, varied culture. Each room, named after local heritage, boasts a unique decor, featuring antiques, collectible furniture, and fine draperies with a view on the vineyards.

The estate also houses two gourmet restaurants, ‘La Grand’Vigne’ and ‘Le Table du Lavoir’, which offer the chance to enjoy creative and traditional local cuisine. ‘La Grand’Vigne’ is a two-starred Michelin restaurant that serves high-class recipes with food from local fishermen, livestock breeders, and market gardeners on the Atlantic coast. For its guests, the chef’s team also organizes personalized cooking lessons inside the restaurant’s kitchen. Participants can learn how to create a meal around a product from the theme chosen with the help of the team’s member. The other restaurant, ‘Le Table du Lavoir’ provides a gourmet experience that offers unusual, bistro-style food with the finest seasonal products.

Château Smith Haut Lafitte is also the location of the world’s first Vinothérapie Spa, a new spa concept that is now available in other high-class locations in Europe and the United States. This place offers exclusive wellbeing treatments that are based on wine and grapes in a unique atmosphere. The treatment rooms and rest areas are made of precious materials and overlook the surrounding vineyards.
Château Smith Haut Lafitte is an example of a winery that has realized that wine travelers also seek other activities – from unique culinary or gastronomic experiences to spa services – and has positioned itself to benefit from these travelers’ desires. Other destinations and attractions could utilize this as an example to create a more appealing visitor experience.

Conclusion and recommendations for future research

This chapter provides evidence that wine travelers frequently have an interest in more culinary activities than just wine consumption. They appear to be engaged gastronomic visitors – more actively participating in both passive (dining) and active (food trails and festivals) activities than non-wine travelers. They also appear to seek unique and local experiences – both food and beverage. Destinations successfully attracting wine travelers also seem likely to generate benefits for a great variety of restaurants and gastronomic attractions. Château Smith Haut Lafitte provides an excellent example of how a wine attraction can expand its offerings to better attract and satisfy gastronomic travelers.

Recommendations for future research

While this chapter does not attempt to classify wine travelers, it provides support that wine travelers may fit into many different continuums (following evidence provided by Lang Research Inc. 2001; Getz and Brown 2003; TIA and Edge 2007; Stone and Migacz 2016). Further research could continue the exploration of wine traveler typologies, which may include gourmet wine travelers, cultural omnivore wine travelers, localist wine travelers, and even budget wine travelers.

Just as there may be many motivations for visiting wine attractions (Johnson 1998), there may be many reasons that a wine traveler may visit other gastronomic attractions – from breweries to gourmet restaurants. This chapter provided evidence of that these travel behaviors exist, but a larger study is recommended to better delineate the characteristics of each traveler. Finally, more investigation of connections between wine traveler motivations and gastronomic activities could also extend wine tourism research from both theoretical (consumer behavior) and destination marketing perspectives.

References


Websites

Introduction
Reductionism as a concept has a largely negative reputation in the ‘soft’ social sciences. It is invoked, usually in an accusative manner, to describe what are believed to be over-simplistic explanations of natural and social phenomena, explanations that, to the critic, deny such phenomena necessary complexity. Yet, reductionism can be a useful methodological heuristic that sometimes allows us to view related discourse more clearly. This is the basis of the discussion here where the assertion is that research into gastronomic tourism can be reduced to two basic premises. The first of these is that gastronomic tourism is important because of the widespread motivations and desires of tourists to try new and different foods when travelling away from home. The second is that gastronomic cultures can, are and, implicitly, should be manipulated and/or exploited and/or created in an effort to enhance the organization and promotion of tourism. It will be argued that each of these premises is seriously flawed and, having demonstrated this, the discussion will move to consider what intellectual strategies are required to provide a more constructive approach to the analysis of gastronomic tourism.

The chapter begins with a brief consideration of some of the main features of current definitions of gastronomic tourism before elaborating upon each of the two premises identified above. Policy ‘applications’ of gastronomic tourism are numerous and supported within the tourism world and beyond by an extensive promotional infrastructure which is also examined in outline form. Following this, the extent to which current conceptions of gastronomic tourism are limited by definitional over-ambition and a susceptibility to fashion are discussed. It is, finally, suggested that the future development of the field would benefit from a wider understanding and application of concepts and theories drawn from research in the social sciences.

Gastronomic tourism: a definitional context
What is gastronomic tourism? The extant literature offers for the most part all-encompassing definitions. As an example, Sormaz et al. (2016: 726) write that:

Although such different terms like ‘culinary tourism’, ‘gastronomy tourism’, ‘gastrotourism’, ‘wine tourism’, ‘food tourism’, and ‘gourmet tourism’ are used in literature
to define it, the widely used term ‘gastronomic tourism’ is defined as ‘being in pursuit of unique experience of eating and drinking.’

A few lines later (2016:727), the same authors move from the uniqueness of experience to arguing that “The industry of gastronomic tourism, which does not consist only of food guides and restaurants, covers any kind of culinary experience” (emphasis added) including “visiting food producers, eating festivals, restaurants and special places related to some special foods”. Similarly, Pearson and Pearson (2017:346) writing on the subject of UNESCO creative cities of gastronomy aver that:

“In this context, gastronomy is used to describe the study of food and culture – that is, knowledge and understanding of what humans eat. This is in contrast to situations where the word refers to refined and elaborate food presentations along the lines of gourmet, haute cuisine, or epicureanism.”

The definition of gastronomy here is perfectly reasonable, yet in the authors’ summary of UNESCO’s guiding characteristics for the award, the language employed – for example in the use of loaded words as ‘traditional’ in the context of chefs, restaurants, cooking, and food markets – points towards a more rarified and even elitist conception of the term.

There is, unquestionably, at least a small – niche or elite – tourism market comprised of those whose principal motivation for engaging in tourism is the pursuit of gastronomic experiences. There is sufficient evidence to suggest that this is so (e.g., Goolaup, Solér, and Nunkoo 2017). Yet there is no need for circumspection in conceding that ‘gastronomy’, ‘gastronomic’ and variants are elite words, dictionary definitions almost universally emphasizing a gastronome as a person (gourmet, connoisseur) with an elevated appreciation of ‘fine’ food and drink. ‘Gastronomy’ itself elicits slightly more varied definitions but most emphasize a concern for ‘good’ food, whatever that might be. This is obviously a limited concept of gastronomic tourism and contrasts with those noted above in its exclusivity. However, it arguably captures a certain realism. For example, the Dutch government-funded Centre for the Promotion of Imports from Developing Countries (CBI) (2016:2) use the term ‘deliberate culinary tourists’ rather than gastronomic tourists and define them in terms of their higher socio-economic background and associated income; a strong interest in both travel and food culture; and a similarly pronounced concern for related social and environmental matters.

These semantic gradations matter, not simply because they suggest tensions at the heart of the study of gastronomic tourism as to its scope and intentions, but because of what, conceptually, flows from such confusion. This can be seen in each of the two premises identified earlier – the idea of the tourist as a gastronomic experimenter and the emergent policy constructions based upon this notion – where scholarly perceptions appear to reflect ‘real world’ practices, but the evidential basis for these practices is weak.

**The tourist as gastronomic experimenter**

All-encompassing definitions of gastronomic tourism are predicated on the notion that local, regional and national foods possess the potential to attract tourists to particular geographical areas. The underlying idea here is that the prospect of eating outside of one’s culturally normal range is attractive to most people. Thus, Sormaz et al. (2016:726) claim both that “Gastronomy is now seen as a determinant factor in attracting tourists while they choose destinations” and “Almost all tourists … prefer to eat outside; and get to know and taste the local dishes belonging to the region”.

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The problem here is that evidence as to the weight attached to food by people in determining their travel choices is, at best, patchy, as is that pertaining to tourists’ experimental dispositions at their destinations. Povey (2011:237), for example, concedes that: “While many tourists purport to want to eat local food, the reality is that the vast majority consume their meals within the perceived safety of an international hotel. Initial research suggested that the only concerns held by tourists reflected practical issues such as health and hygiene in certain destinations”.

Food undoubtedly figures in tourists’ experiences as a signifier of health dangers, both real and imagined. These dangers are well engrained in colloquial English phrases, for example ‘don’t drink the water’. The euphemistic term ‘Delhi belly’ (for the Indian capital city) describes an upset stomach, and usually diarrhea, resulting from eating or drinking something ‘contaminated’. The celebrated BBC British comedy series of the 1960s and 1970s, Monty Python’s Flying Circus, featured a sketch which included a diatribe against that icon of mass tourism, the package holiday to Spain (then, as now, the top destination for Britons travelling overseas: Office for National Statistics 2015) in which UK tourists were satirized for complaining about the inability of ‘foreigners’ to make a cup of tea properly, eating fish and chips or calamari with two vegetables in Majorcan restaurants, and drinking Watney’s Red Barrel (a popular English beer of the time).

Beyond issues of food as a source of danger, another (correct) implication of Povey’s (2011) observation is that many writers on food consumption (including those on gastronomic tourism) significantly underestimate the conservatism of food tastes (Wood 2017, 2018). Even in the twenty-first century, one can walk the streets of many ‘mass tourism’ resorts in Spain encountering numerous restaurants advertising ‘British’ and ‘German’ food (fish and chips, steak and chips, bratwurst), not to mention the ubiquitous ‘Irish’ bars serving a wide range of European beers. This conservatism is deeply rooted at home as well – much academic writing cannot be forgiven for exaggerating the pluralism of UK domestic food tastes – ethnic ‘non-British’ cuisines are significantly less popular than imagined (Wood 2017). In a celebration of UK multiculturalism, the then-British foreign minister averred in 2001 that the Indian chicken tikka masala was the country’s national dish, many commentators metaphorically nodded their heads in agreement. It was not (and still is not). Moreover, the origins of the dish are disputed, some at least believing it is a British creation of a Bangladeshi chef (Grove and Grove 2008).

The policy dimension to gastronomic tourism

Our first premise concerning the gastronomically experimental tourist is embraced by the second, namely the extent to which food cultures can figure in the organization and promotion of tourism. Here, as Kesimoğlu (2015: 75–76) writes:

Research has mostly emphasized the managerial and marketing aspects of the field … [.] More and more articles are written on different regions … to assess the gastronomic potential of destinations and to offer solutions to alleviate their current outlook or to show them the right set of critical success factors [.] Policy-makers often favor this approach as well, as it enables them to carry over success stories and to replicate them in different regions.

Kesimoğlu’s analysis is partially supported by writers like Hollows et al (2014:2; see also Dimitrovski 2016) who note of extant research that it “has tended to focus on food festivals located in rural areas and/or tourist destinations, and to address them in relation to a series of pol-
icy initiatives around the future of rural economies alongside an emergent valorization of local food cultures”. In a rural context, they continue, the focus on food has been in terms of producing a distinctive authenticity in pursuit of economic regeneration. The potential of food tourism in the regeneration of post-industrial cities may be seen as a related development. In their study of the 2010 food and drink festival in Nottingham, an English city, Hollows et al. (2014:5) observe how that event was constructed in a community that has no specific associations with particular foods or dishes, nor any districts associated with a particular community and/or style of eating.

There are two objections to the view that gastronomy can figure, in a generalized sense, as a tourism ‘booster’ in this respect. The first is that if it is indeed the case that tourists’ food tastes are essentially conservative, policies for developing gastronomic tourism emphasizing willing experimentalism are likely to be flawed from the start. Indeed, one of the arguable ‘success factors’ of the Nottingham festival was an emphasis on the variety of places to eat rather than any distinctive local gastronomic traditions.

The second objection is a little more complex. As Kesimoğlu (2015:84) observes, when food within tourism is viewed as a phenomenon to be exploited in gaining competitive advantage, it is necessary for gastronomy to be presented “as a fixed commodity without a dynamic nature” giving rise to consumption experiences characterized by an “insubstantial authenticity”. One interpretation of this view is that in order to ‘sell’ gastronomic tourism experiences, it is first necessary to capture them in both form and time. In so doing, however, processes of local gastronomic change may be both ignored and actively discouraged, what is being ‘sold’ representing little more than a distorted policy construction. In other words, the very idea that gastronomy can be meaningfully used to promote tourism because it reflects local traditions negates itself, because the gastronomic tourism product itself is rarely more than a mere simulacrum, a reified artifice devoid of authenticity. These ‘products’ may be gastronomic in character, but may lack the character of (local) gastronomies.

The gastronomic tourism policy infrastructure

In understanding how the two premises of gastronomic tourism identified here have come to enjoy such force, it is useful to consider the promotional structures underpinning them. We can consider, for example, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization’s (UNESCO) Representative List of the Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity (UNESCO 2017) of which the French gastronomic meal, added in 2010, is a significant inclusion, given the historic role of France in setting standards for global haute cuisine (Mennell 1985; Wood 2018). The UNESCO website entry reads as follows:

The gastronomic meal of the French is a customary social practice … [.] … bringing people together for an occasion to enjoy the art of good eating and drinking [.] Important elements include the careful selection of dishes from a constantly growing repertoire of recipes; the purchase of good, preferably local products whose flavors go well together; the pairing of food with wine; the setting of a beautiful table; and specific actions during consumption, such as smelling and tasting items at the table. The gastronomic meal should respect a fixed structure, commencing with an aperitif (drinks before the meal) and ending with liqueurs, containing in between at least four successive courses, namely a starter, fish and/or meat with vegetables, cheese and dessert [.] The gastronomic meal draws circles of family and friends closer together and … strengthens social ties.

(Intangible Cultural Heritage, n. d.)

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More importantly, designations like this contribute to the legitimization of the ‘importance’ of gastronomy while, as the latter case study shows, failing to illuminate wider – and reasonably well-evidenced truths about the role of food in culture. With this awareness, it becomes evident that what is claimed as important and significant is in fact rather commonplace.

Again with UNESCO, the analysis of creative cities offered by Pearson and Pearson (2017) mentioned earlier in this chapter reminds us that gastronomy is one of the seven possible areas that can lead to this designation – at the very least a combined form of endorsement and promotion of the gastronomic tourism concept. Of 116 UNESCO creative cities, (Creative Cities Network, n. d.) some 18 are designated for gastronomy (see Table 11.1). Not to be left out, the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (2012) has devoted a 68 page report to the topic of food tourism and maintains an advocacy of gastronomic tourism, and there is a World Food Travel Association which makes the somewhat extravagant claim that ‘In 2001 we founded the food tourism industry’ (World Food Travel Association, n. d.)). In the U.K., the devolved Welsh government publishes a toolkit for those aspiring to run food festivals (Welsh Government 2016) and there are numerous websites promoting food festivals (Food Festival Finder, n. d.).

### Table 11.1 List of UNESCO creative cities designated for gastronomy

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>City</th>
<th>Country</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Belém (Brazil)</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Bergen (Norway)</td>
<td>Norway</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Burgos (Spain)</td>
<td>Spain</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Chengdu (China)</td>
<td>China</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Dénia (Spain)</td>
<td>Spain</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Ensenada (Mexico)</td>
<td>Mexico</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Florianopolis (Brazil)</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>Gaziantep (Turkey)</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>Jeonju (Republic of Korea)</td>
<td>Korea</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>Östersund (Sweden)</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>Parma (Italy)</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>Phuket (Thailand)</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>Popayán (Colombia)</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>Rasht (Iran)</td>
<td>Iran</td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Shunde (China)</td>
<td>China</td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Tsuruoka (Japan)</td>
<td>Japan</td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Tucson (United States of America)</td>
<td>United States</td>
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<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Zhalé (Lebanon)</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
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The study and practice of gastronomic tourism: a wider intellectual context?

To summarize thus far, all-encompassing definitions of gastronomic tourism facilitate investigation of a wide range of topics but in so doing render the term ‘gastronomy’ largely meaningless. Indeed, ‘food tourism’ is an arguably more accurate (and less pretentious) term for research in the field, allowing ‘gastronomic tourism’ to be reserved for that niche and essentially elite market of people whose touristic motivations are dominated by connoisseurship in food. Further, a key idea underpinning the study of gastronomic tourism, that of the ‘default’ gastronomically experimental tourist, remains largely un-evidenced. It is, in the sense outlined by McKercher and Prideaux (2014), and in any generalized understanding, an academic myth. The second underlying notion of gastronomic tourism, that food can be exploited to promote touristic activity is, though grounded in the reality of ‘what happens’, flawed in the sense that to be promotionally successful, existing culinary cultures have to be captured and lent a form of stasis that effectively creates a caricature of those cultures. Where these cultures do not exist and have to be created, the result is at best an inauthentic simulacrum and, as Kesimoğlu (2015) reminds us, can be seen as continuing a much wider history of ‘invented traditions’ (Hobsbawm and Ranger 1983).

Kesimoğlu (2015: 72) has noted that: ‘The expansion of food related academic research has mirrored the rise of ‘food as fashion’… in media, business and entertainment’. There is
much to be said for this point of view, although the largely mythological notion of the volatile, eagerly experimental, and fickle food consumer has been a ‘fashionable’ view for a very long time (Wood 2018)! Gastronomic tourism policy initiatives on the present scale are a more recent phenomenon but draw from, and contribute to, the perceived fashionableness of dining out. An emphasis on the quotidian (or what is perceived as quotidian) as represented by the two premises discussed in this chapter arguably limit both the analytical scope and credibility of gastronomic tourism as a field of study. It demonstrates a relative theoretical rootlessness to the subject that can only be overcome (in the process going some way to justifying the label ‘gastronomic’ as opposed to ‘food’ tourism) by establishing linkages to conceptual, theoretical and methodological reference points in other branches of related scholarship (see for example, Chaney and Ryan 2012:309).

Grounding gastronomic tourism in the wider arena of ‘food studies’ is an obvious strategy in this regard. However, ‘food studies’ is itself a controversial area, depicted by traditionalists who prefer the certainties of their disciplinary bases as a somewhat amorphous area. Food studies does, though, possess the virtue of embracing multi-disciplinary approaches to the study of both production and consumption (Belasco 2008). Whatever the case, for the purpose of going some way to valorizing the arguments presented in this chapter, we will consider two examples from, respectively, the sociology and social anthropology, and the politics, of food and eating with a view to demonstrating how the broad range of established scholarship might inform gastronomic tourism research.

The sociology and social anthropology of food and eating

Analyses of meal structure conducted from a structuralist sociological and sociological anthropological perspective alert us to the underlying commonalities of food use and consumption (Douglas 1977; Sturrock 1986). More than this, they lend insights to the ‘moral economy’ of eating and dining, indicating how certain comestibles acquire acceptability within food systems and are perceived as representing ‘good’ taste and positive values. As the accompanying case study shows, phenomena like the UNESCO ‘French gastronomic meal’ far from being an instance of unique and intangible cultural heritage is, when viewed from a structuralist perspective, something of a commonplace.

Structuralist analyses of the meal are complemented by other useful social-historical approaches, for example figurational theory as most notably represented in the work of Mennell (1985) on gastronomy. Insights here include the manner in which values and tastes come to be attached to certain foods and food styles and systems and evolve over time, together with valuable perspectives on the role of elitism and ‘fashion’ in the evolution of gastronomic values. Both theories, and others besides, also inform a more grounded, realistic, perspective on attitudinal dimensions to food choice, challenging notions of the volatile food consumer. For example, to understand why most people prefer to eat familiar foods, even when away from home, it is necessary to understand the role played by those foods not only in culinary taste, but in terms of how they are perceived in wider frameworks of bodily and psychological health (for useful early surveys of these and other perspectives, see Mennell, Murcott and van Otterloo 1992; Wood 1995).
Case study 13.1: What’s so special about the French gastronomic meal?

Dame Mary Douglas (1921–2007) was one of the leading social anthropologists of the twentieth century and a pioneer of the sociological analysis of food, and in particular the structure and aesthetics of meals and dining. One feels she might have been amused by UNESCO’s inclusion of the French gastronomic meal on its Representative List of the Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity (UNESCO 2017, see main text) as many elements included in the definition of that phenomenon are also to be found in her studies of what, in the 1960s and 70s, she labelled the English working class meal, routinely consumed by members of that class (Douglas 1975, 1977, 1982). These elements included: bringing people together; specific actions during consumption; and a fixed structure. The content of the meals studied by Douglas may have been, routinely, more ordinary but exceptions on special occasions – as is the French gastronomic meal presumably – echo further elements in the UNESCO definition. Indeed, perhaps one of the oddest things about that definition is the strong tangible content it embraces (a feature also common to many other members on the list, see Intangible Cultural Heritage List, n. d.) together with a casually subjective and thus largely meaningless use of descriptive words like ‘good’ as in ‘good eating and drinking; and ‘good … local products’ and the objectification of the subjective – as if it were possible to objectively define flavors that go well together or ‘the setting of a beautiful table’.

Douglas’ research inspired further studies in a similar, if often more wide ranging, vein. Murcott (1982) also explored working class meal structures but through the lens of gender differences in food preparation and consumption, a dimension largely ignored by Douglas. Limited analysis of the role of class has shown small variations in meal structure and slightly larger ones in content compared to studies of traditional working-class communities (Wood 1995). Structure in meals and dining experiences appear to be a global phenomenon (Wood 1995, 2018). Research in this field has implications for promoting gastronomic tourism. Beyond any genuine distinction an area or region may have for certain foods, promotion of the same is unlikely to hold much appeal to people for whom the items in question do not integrate to the structures of their own local meal (and wider food) systems. If a region of France is famous for 200 ways of preparing frogs’ legs, this is unlikely to appeal to those for whom the legs of this worthy amphibian do not figure as part of the moral economy of their own food systems. Furthermore, it is very easy to see how the growth of a globalized hotel and restaurant industry predicated on very narrow western concepts of food is promoting particular structures of consumption to the emergent middle classes of many non-western societies with possible implications for public health in the form of dietary diseases such as diabetes.

The politics of food and eating

The politics of food encompasses studies of inequalities in access to food and its consumption; adulteration; the role of agribusiness in food production; food ‘security’; the effect of interactions of different parts of the food systems on health; and, more recently, issues of sustainability. The field arguably came of age with the publication of Susan George’s (1976) seminal book How the Other Half Dies which examined the causes of world hunger in terms of exploitative economic and political relationships in food production and consumption. Since 1976, there has been a considerable reduction in world hunger but in 2014–2016, it was
still estimated that one in nine people suffered from chronic undernourishment (World Hunger and Poverty Facts and Statistics, 2018).

The relevance of political studies of food to gastronomic tourism is most obviously seen in the emphasis it places on the role of food production, the supply chain and intermediate demand from food providers (e.g., hotels and restaurants). Attracting tourists on the basis of diverse gastronomies has implications for local food production. Belisle (1983) in his pioneering study of tourism and food production in the Caribbean showed that when hotels and restaurants import food from outside a region to satisfy consumer needs, local economies can be distorted with a loss of growth and diversification opportunities for local food production industries. If, in promoting localised gastronomic tourisms, it is necessary, as suggested earlier, to ‘freeze’ those gastronomies in form and time, it is reasonable to assume that this has implications for the relevant productive economies. When, as in the instance of the Nottingham case study cited earlier (Hollows et al 2014), events such as food festivals have no local gastronomic traditions on which to rely, or to promote, they simply reinforce current economic and supply chain structures.

Conclusion

The English figure of speech ‘You cannot have your cake and eat it’ (meaning that it is unreasonable to aspire to desiring two or more incompatible things) is a not wholly inaccurate description of certain aspects of gastronomic tourism as an academic pursuit. The desire for an all-encompassing concept of the field is not always consistent with the narrower (and, in this instance, more accurate) conventional definition of ‘gastronomy’ as pertaining to largely elite concerns in food consumption. Bold statements as to the universal appeal and importance of food in tourist experiences are evidentially flawed. ‘Inventing tradition’ as part of policy initiatives to promote food/gastronomic tourism is not easily reconciled with either the impact on the cultural or eco-systems of the communities concerned, or in terms of (potentially) replacing ‘authentic’ tourism experiences with self-defeating simulacra. If the study of gastronomic tourism is to have any value it must draw on wider concepts, theories, and research themes in the social sciences and link these to tourism’s disciplinary concerns. In so doing it will enhance our understanding of the social significance of food more widely.

References

Having your cake and eating it


PART II

Gastronomic tourist behavior
Food, a mean to satisfy our physiological need, is evolving into an art, and becoming an essential element in the tourism industry (Jiménez Beltrán, López-Guzmán, and Santa-Cruz 2016; Ottembacher and Harrington 2013). Several terms are used interchangeably to coin the linkage between food consumption and tourism: gastronomic tourism, food tourism, culinary tourism, gourmet tourism (Lee, Packer, and Scott 2015; Okumus, Okumus, and McKercher 2007). Gastronomy that sets the fundamental element of a tourism destination often involves traditional culinary, authentic local cuisine, and exotic culinary specialties (Guan and Jones 2015; Mykletun and Gyimóthy 2010).

Defining the phenomenon is rather difficult, as the meaning of the terms developed over time (Everett and Slocum 2013), and it includes multidisciplinary yet complex activities (Kivela and Crotts 2006; Gacnik 2012). While gastronomic tourism generally “applies to tourists and visitors who plan their trips partially or totally in order to taste the cuisine of the place or to carry out activities related to gastronomy” (World Tourism Organization 2012:7), it also involves visiting restaurants, food festivals, food exhibitions, and specific locations for which food tasting and experiencing are the primary factors for travel (Hall and Mitchell 2000).

Gastronomic tourism has grown significantly in recent years (Ottembacher and Harrington 2013). Globally, it is estimated that tourists spend an average of between 25 per cent (World Food Travel Association 2017) to 33 per cent (World Tourism Organization 2012) of the total travel budget on food and beverages. In fact, studies have shown that food has a positive effect on tourism expenditure (Serra, Correia, and Rodrigues 2015). Based on the data collected from 12,781 respondents across 13 markets in September 2016, Booking.com (2017) published the top 10 global hotspots for food enthusiasts: Hong Kong, Sao Paulo, Tokyo, Athens, Kuala Lumpur, Melbourne, Bangkok, Granada, Las Vegas, and Buenos Aires.

Motivation to travel for gastronomy is consistently tested to be a valid construct (Antón, Camarero, and Laguna-García 2014; Kivela and Crotts 2006; López-Guzmán et al. 2017; Serra, Correia, and Rodrigues 2015). In fact, gastronomy should be reviewed as a basic necessity and as a pull motivator simultaneously in tourism as both factors are crucial in influencing the overall tourist experience and their intention to revisit. Thus, many destination marketers promoting local and traditional food as a niche market, a cultural heritage, and a gastronomic
identity (Kivela and Crotts 2005; Okumus, Okumus, and McKercher 2007; Ottembacher and Harrington 2013). We will further dwell into the motivation of tourists travelling for gastronomy in this chapter.

**Gastronomic motivation**

Tourists may purposefully travel to a destination to try the food of a Michelin star restaurant, or simply attracted to signature dishes and specialties from an area (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen 2014). As the rise of tourists seeking gastronomic experiences and new flavor sensations becoming more eminent (Gyimóthy and Mykletun 2009), it is worth noting the difference between gastronomic tourists for whom food is the key focus of the visit (Kim, Eves, and Scarles 2009) and others who experience the local cuisine as only along their travel journey, for which food is a somewhat less relevant motivation (Hall and Sharples 2003; Okumus, Okumus, and McKercher 2007).

As researchers are unable to observe tourists’ motivation in particular (Iso-Ahola 1999), they depend on respondents to report their motivation or to make inferences from observations of actual participation. Thus, understanding motivation is inherently difficult, but, it is a crucial element in consumer behavior study and a major determinant of tourists’ behavior (Wong, Musa, and Taha 2017). Several perspectives of motivations have been presented by gastronomic tourism researchers. We will examine each of these perspectives next.

**Motivation categories**

Fields (2002) conceptualizes gastronomic motivation into four categories: physical motivators, cultural motivators, interpersonal motivators, status, and prestige motivators. Gastronomic experiences that enable tourists to recuperate their mental and physical energy are related to physical motivators. On the other hand, cultural motivators enable gastronomic tourists to not only have a unique cultural experience through local cuisines, but also to obtain new cultural knowledge about the destination. The need to socialize with family members, friends, and/or new people along the travel journey activates the interpersonal motivators. Gastronomy is indeed a good element to develop stronger bonding effort with others. The status and prestige motivators are much associated with self-esteem, recognition, and attention seeking. Having a fine dining experience is, perhaps, a way to distinguish oneself from others in terms of social status.

In an attempt to identify the salient factors affecting tourist food consumption, Mak et al. (2012) categorize the gastronomic motivations into five main dimensions: symbolic, obligatory, contrast, extension, and pleasure. Factors that denote the symbolic meanings of food consumption include authentic experience, learning, exploring local culture, and prestige and status. The ‘obligatory’ dimension signifies the necessity of food consumption, such as health concern and the physical need for livelihood. The ‘contrast’ dimension reflects the need to move away from the individuals’ daily routine experience, seeking excitement, and exploring new food. On the other hand, the ‘extension’ dimension requires the individuals to seek gastronomic experiences that extend their core eating behavior and daily routine. Lastly, individuals can be motivated to seek pleasure through gastronomy, and this often involves sensory appeal and the feeling of togetherness.

While some researchers categorize the gastronomic tourism motivators as highlighted above, most studies were presented in a specific dimension format. Thus, we present the motivators through the adoption of push and pull theory in the next section.
Understanding gastronomic motivators: the push and pull theory

Dann (1977) proposes the push and pull motivation theory, and it is widely accepted and applied in the tourism field. The theory assumes that individuals travel as they are being pushed by their internal desire while at the same time being pulled by external forces (Uysal, Li, and Sirakaya-Turk 2008; Wong and Musa 2015). Different push and pull factors will drive tourists to travel and select their gastronomic destinations accordingly. While push motivators drive the tourist to leave his/her home, the pull motivators attract the tourist to travel to a specific destination for gastronomy purpose.

The studies to understand the inner drive (push) among gastronomic tourists are rather scarce, creating an urgent call to further to dwell into the construct. While it is relatively easy to understand the pull motivators from the destination and/or gastronomy attributes perspective, to understand what pushes tourists away from their usual food consumption location requires an in-depth observation of the subject. The inner drive of an individual explains the reason food is not just to address the basic physiological need recognition, but to satisfy the higher order of human needs as well.

Push motivators deduced from recent studies on gastronomic tourism are summarized in Table 12.1. While the list may not be exhausted, the summary provides a fairly good view of push motivation dimensions that have been empirically tested. Moving beyond the physiological need recognition, tourists are driven to travel elsewhere to explore new culture and knowledge through gastronomy (Chang, Kivela, and Mak 2010; Dodd et al. 2006; Fields 2002;...
Hu, Banyai, and Smith 2013; Kim, Eves, and Scarles 2009; Kim and Eves 2012; Mak et al. 2012; Zhang 2012) to achieve self-fulfillment need. Through the experience of local cuisines at a new destination, tourists are also experiencing a new culture and its traditions and lifestyles (Chang, Kivela, and Mak 2010) and having the opportunity to learn about different cultures (Kim and Eves 2012). Thus, enhancing the personal experience and personal growth can motivate gastronomic tourists to try out new destinations.

Curiosity drives gastronomic tourists to seek novelty and authentic gastronomic experience (Chang, Kivela, and Mak 2010; Hu, Banyai, and Smith 2013; Kim, Eves, and Scarles 2009; Mak et al. 2012; Smith, Costello and Muenchen 2010; Zhang 2012). A recent study on effects of authentic concepts on tourist satisfaction in Norway indicates that satisfied novelty seeking tourists bring out greater overall satisfaction (Engeset and Elvekrok 2015). As found among the second home tourists (Wong, Musa, and Taha 2017), gastronomic tourists are also trying to fulfill their dream (Dodd et al. 2006) and escape from their usual gastronomic place in an attempt to experience a change of pace from everyday life, at a new destination (Antón, Camarero, and Laguna-García 2014; Dodd et al. 2006; Kim, Eves, and Scarles 2009).

Gastronomic tourists are also seeking adventure and exciting experiences (Allan 2016; Antón, Camarero, and Laguna-García 2014; Kim, Eves, and Scarles 2009; Mak et al. 2012) to recognize their self-esteem need. The ability to achieve prestige, social status, and identity fulfillment also drive tourists to seek extraordinary gastronomic experience (Antón, Camarero, and Laguna-García 2014; Dodd et al. 2006; Fields 2002; Hu, Banyai, and Smith 2013; Kim, Eves, and Scarles 2009; Mak et al. 2012), such as having a royal dinner or dining at a Michelin 3-star restaurant. The experience can be recognized as a means to reach self-esteem, recognition, and the desire to attract attention from others (Fields 2002).

Social and interpersonal motivators encourage the tourists to meet new people, socialize with family and friends, and/or get away from routine relationships (Allan 2016; Antón, Camarero, and Laguna-García 2014; Fields 2002; Smith, Costello and Muenchen 2010). Affiliation motivator in gastronomy provides the space to recognize the social need and as a means of reproducing social relations (Fields 2002). Common activities and similar preferences on gastronomy along the travel experience enhance bonding between family members and/or friends (Smith, Costello and Muenchen 2010).

The concern for health drives individuals to destinations that offer desirable yet healthy food (Allan 2016; Antón, Camarero, and Laguna-García 2014; Kim, Eves, and Scarles 2009; Mak et al. 2012). Besides, as an individual’s health is much affected by his/her psychological state, it is essential for them to seek opportunities to reduce stress, anxieties, frustrations, and moving away from the daily hectic working life. Physical motivators are, perhaps, a means to refresh an individual’s body and mind. The individuals need an environment where they can rest and relax physically, enjoying leisure activities, and slowing down their pace of life (Antón, Camarero, and Laguna-García 2014; Fields 2002; Mak et al. 2012; Zhang 2012). Gastronomy plays an important role in these needs recognition, as it is closely connected with the opportunity to enjoy and taste new foods.

Similar to most other tourism studies, the research on pull motivators gained more traction than push motivators in the gastronomic tourism field. External factors (pull) appertained to the attributes of gastronomic destination, food product, and/or gastronomic event (see Table 12.2).

Researchers describe food motivators from different aspects including historical value, the traditional way of cooking, cultural value, and culinary heritage (Allan 2016; Antón, Camarero, and Laguna-García 2014; Fields 2002; Hu, Banyai, and Smith 2013; Jiménez Beltrán,
Need recognition and motivation

Table 12.2 Pull motivators in gastronomic tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pull Motivators</th>
<th>Source(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Culinary heritage</td>
<td>Antón, Camarero, and Laguna-García 2014; Fields 2002;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural</td>
<td>Antón, Camarero, and Laguna-García 2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of the food products</td>
<td>Jiménez Beltrán, López-Guzmán, and Santa-Cruz 2016; Sanchez-Cañizares and Castillo-Canalejo 2015; Smith, Costello and Muenchen 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Celebration</td>
<td>Hu, Banyai, and Smith 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>Jiménez Beltrán, López-Guzmán, and Santa-Cruz 2016; Sanchez-Cañizares and Castillo-Canalejo 2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service and hospitality, support</td>
<td>Jiménez Beltrán, López-Guzmán, and Santa-Cruz 2016; Sanchez-Cañizares and Castillo-Canalejo 2015; Smith, Costello and Muenchen 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atmosphere in the establishments</td>
<td>Jiménez Beltrán, López-Guzmán, and Santa-Cruz 2016; Sanchez-Cañizares and Castillo-Canalejo 2015</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

López-Guzmán, and Santa-Cruz 2016; López-Guzmán et al. 2017; Sanchez-Cañizares and Castillo-Canalejo 2015). Jiménez Beltrán, López-Guzmán, and Santa-Cruz (2016) during their research on the motivation of international tourists visit the City of Córdoba, Spain, reported that the ‘traditional gastronomy’ factor was rated the highest among all gastronomy attributes. Based on a total of 392 questionnaires, a similar finding is reported by Sanchez-Cañizares and Castillo-Canalejo (2015) in a comparative study of tourist attitudes towards culinary tourism in Córdoba, Spain and Ljubljana, Slovenia. However, while traditional gastronomy is the most pertinent factor in Córdoba, it is not necessarily the case in Ljubljana.

As health concern escalates, good quality and, to a certain extent, natural food products are essential to attracting gastronomic tourists (Antón, Camarero, and Laguna-García 2014; Jiménez Beltrán, López-Guzmán, and Santa-Cruz 2016; Sanchez-Cañizares and Castillo-Canalejo 2015; Smith, Costello and Muenchen 2010). Food quality appears to be the most important gastronomic motivator among tourists visiting Ljubljana, Slovenia (Sanchez-Cañizares and Castillo-Canalejo 2015). Besides, to cater to the early adopters and serious gastronomic enthusiasts, destination marketers need to provide a variety of dishes with new and innovative flavors (Jiménez Beltrán, López-Guzmán, and Santa-Cruz 2016; López-Guzmán et al. 2017; Sanchez-Cañizares and Castillo-Canalejo 2015; Zhang 2012).
Sensory appeal, appearance, and flavors are pull motivators that emphasize gastronomy as a physical experience through an individual’s sensory perceptions, such as sight, taste, and smell (Allan 2016; Fields 2002; Hu, Banyai, and Smith 2013; Kim, Eves, and Scarles 2009; Mak et al. 2012; Zhang 2012). Using Tobit regression analysis, Hu, Banyai, and Smith (2013) suggested that ‘sensory appeal’ has a positive correlation with total and food-related expenses among food festival visitors at the Hefei Crawfish Festival in China. In Jordan, ‘sensory appeal’ of local food was reported to influence international tourists’ loyalty significantly (Allan 2016). While ‘price’ may not be a major concern for gastronomic enthusiasts, this economic motivator is reported to pull gastronomic tourists to a destination (Jiménez Beltrán, López-Guzmán, and Santa-Cruz 2016; Sanchez-Cañizares and Castillo-Canaléjio 2015).

The gastronomic destination can be a great socialization avenue for many tourists. It is a platform to get together with family and friends (Fields 2002; Hu, Banyai, and Smith 2013; López-Guzmán et al. 2017), harnessing family togetherness and happiness (Hu, Banyai, and Smith 2013; Kim, Eves, and Scarles 2009; Mak et al. 2012), and to participate in a gastronomic event as a celebration and/or entertainment (Hu, Banyai, and Smith 2013). ‘Socialization’ is not only playing a central role in attracting gastronomic tourists, it is also found to have a positive correlation with food-related expenses among the visitors at the Hefei Crawfish Festival in China (Hu, Banyai, and Smith 2013). This indicates the value of social spending is acceptable when the destination/event provides an opportunity for the visitors to enjoy something together and create a feeling of unity with others (e.g., family and friends).

The next pull factor in gastronomic tourism is service and hospitality (including both essential and support services) (Jiménez Beltrán, López-Guzmán, and Santa-Cruz 2016; Sanchez-Cañizares and Castillo-Canaléjio 2015; Smith, Costello and Muenchen 2010; Zhang 2012). This factor is consistently the second most important motivator among the gastronomic tourists in Córdoba, Spain and Ljubljana, Slovenia (Sanchez-Cañizares and Castillo-Canaléjio 2015). Based on 277 samples from the culinary event, WCBC held annually in Memphis, Tennessee, both the essential services and support services are significantly influencing visitors’ overall satisfaction (Smith, Costello and Muenchen 2010).

Good facilities and a functional physical environment (Hu, Banyai, and Smith 2013; Jiménez Beltrán, López-Guzmán, and Santa-Cruz 2016; Kim, Eves, and Scarles 2009; Sanchez-Cañizares and Castillo-Canaléjio 2015) are often able to appear attractive to tourists. Ultimately, the atmosphere that paints the gastronomic tourism landscape plays a relatively important role to lure tourists (Jiménez Beltrán, López-Guzmán, and Santa-Cruz 2016; Sanchez-Cañizares and Castillo-Canaléjio 2015). In fact, in Jiménez Beltrán, López-Guzmán, and Santa-Cruz’s (2016) study of international tourists in Córdoba, Spain, ‘atmosphere in the establishments’ is among the top three most important factors. It is evident that pull motivators are the destination/gastronomic attributes that correspond adequately to the push motivators.
Case study 12.1

Ipoh, the capital city of the Malaysian state of Perak, has been listed as the 6th best place to visit in Asia by Lonely Planet in 2016. Located nearly 200 km north of the country’s capital, Kuala Lumpur, Ipoh began to grow rapidly in the 1880s due to huge deposits of tin. By 1895, it was the second largest town within the Federated Malay States, and later declared a city in 1988. However, the depletion of its tin deposits and the collapse of tin prices in the 1970s has changed the business landscape of the city.

After decades of decline and neglect, Ipoh now is a popular tourist destination, thanks to its well-conserved British colonial-era buildings, natural attractions (i.e., limestone hills and caves), and its signature local eateries. Among the signature Ipoh food and beverages include nga choi gai (steam chicken with crisp bean sprouts), Hainanese chicken rice, dim sum, nasi kandar (steamed rice accompanied by a variety of curry-based meat dishes and vegetables), white coffee, dau fu fa (soybean pudding), etc. In developing Ipoh as a gastronomic heaven, the state tourism agency, Tourism Perak Malaysia (TPM), has created the Ipoh Food Trail project to promote local eateries in Ipoh (Tourism Perak Malaysia 2017). There are 14 restaurants and cafes listed on the TPM’s website, and most of the cafes are serving ‘halal’ food.

The relatively low living cost and affordable food prices in Ipoh ensures its gastronomic tourism attractiveness to both the local and international tourists. The majority of those who visited Ipoh were outstation visitors, as well as Singaporeans (The Star 2015). It is not uncommon to see tourists travel for about 2.5 hours from Kuala Lumpur to Ipoh just to taste white coffee and some signature local eateries. Thus, a day trip is quite popular among visitors to Ipoh for gastronomy purposes. Tour operators report that the traffic jams and unfamiliar faces swarming the city’s popular eateries on weekends and holidays were proof that Ipoh is finally making a name for itself as a gastronomic tourism destination.

In this instance, tourists are fleeing to Ipoh as they are motivated to seek the novelty and authentic experience of Ipoh gastronomy. At the same time, they are driven to escape from the daily working life in the big city, in recognizing their need of self-fulfillment. Social motivators further drive the tourists to travel in groups, and Ipoh is a perfect alternative to satisfy their need to rest and relax.

Mr. Woo, the Managing Director of Ease Tour & Travel said that the food prices in Ipoh are reasonable and the taste is as good as anyone would have read from online reviews or heard through word-of-mouth. He also mentioned that the Ipoh hawker fare or restaurant cuisine are cooked by locals and not foreign workers, hence, the taste, standard, and quality are maintained (The Star 2015). Similar comments are also depicted from TripAdvisor (2017):

We had a pleasant experience in Ipoh with John who drove and guided us around. We started the day at a local eatery serving traditional Ipoh cuisine .. Greatly recommended!!

(Margaret C. from Singapore)

… even took us to a local eatery where the food was cheap and good. We enjoyed ourselves enormously!

(EvaHarlee from Irvington, New York)

To garner gastronomic tourism sustainability in Ipoh, it is therefore essential for the state tourism agency to ensure their pull motivators remain competitive at all time.
Conclusion

Humanistic psychology claims that human is born with no prior problem in their natural mental states. Problems only occur when it deviates from the natural mental assumptions in specific environmental conditions. Thus, recognizing a need deficiency drives and directs human motivation and behavior. Gastronomic tourism changes the way we define food. It is no longer just an element to satisfy the physiological need of an individual, but has a higher order role to achieve self-esteem and self-fulfillment. The understanding of gastronomic tourists’ motivations is pertinent for any local tourism agencies to develop and promote their destination as a gastronomic paradise. Destination marketers need to identify and develop unique gastronomic products and services to cater for different levels of tourist development, as tourist motivations evolve along the level of development. The ability to recognize and address the gastronomic tourists’ needs will ensure the growth and sustainability of the destination.

References


Tourist food consumption

Food is a significant aspect of the tourist’s experience of a destination, driven by the growing trends of authenticity seeking and the need to have a high-quality experience (Yeoman 2008). From the perspective of economic benefits, as a crucial form of tourist consumption, food consumption expenditure can constitute up to one-third of the total tourist expenditure (Telfer and Wall 2000; Hall and Sharples 2003), significantly affecting catering trade, employment, and sustainable competitiveness of a destination directly or indirectly. From socio-cultural point, tourists not only value the hygienic and nutritional values of food to satisfy the fundamental physiological needs, but also appreciate it as a symbol of local culture and tradition, a sign of communion and social linkage, a class marker, and an emblem (Bessière 1998). For example, udon noodles in Kagawa, a regional daily humble food, also functioning as a signifier of local identities, contributes to the regeneration and rejuvenation of the region through food tourism. Udon itself has now become the main attraction for tourists to the region, which results in creating a new tourism trend, the so-called udon tourism (Kim and Ellis 2015). Hence, an increasing number of destinations regard local cuisine and food as indigenous and unique attractions to promote and differentiate themselves from others.

In general, food consumption is recognized as a complex behavior, with cultural, social, psychological, and sensory acceptance factors all playing a role in the process of food preference and choice (Sobal et al. 2006; Köster et al. 2009). A number of researchers pay attention to exploring the factors affecting food consumption and have formed a consensus that these factors can be classified into three categories: the individual, the food, and the environment (Randall and Sanjur 2010). However, tourist food consumption has largely been neglected in the hospitality and tourism literature (Cohen and Avielli 2004). This was due to the conventional notion that eating while travelling is just a ‘supporting consumer experience’ (Quan and Wang 2004), the supplement of tourist attractions and activities. With a growing accentuation of the perception that food consumption in tourism can be interpreted as a ‘peak touristic experience’ (Quan and Wang 2004), there is a surge of research into tourist food consumption in academia, including potential factors affecting food consumption in the context of tourism.
Factors affecting tourist food consumption

By adapting the model of food preferences from Randall and Sanjur (2010), Mak et al. (2012) proposed a model to understand tourist food consumption specifically, which likewise classifies the factors affecting tourist food consumption into three main categories: the tourist, the food in the destination, and the destination environment (see Figure 13.1). As for the tourist, sociocultural, psychological, and physiological factors are widely accepted. Food in the destination includes factors such as sensory attributes, food type, food availability, price and quality (Cohen and Avieli 2004; Chang et al. 2010). The destination environment presents factors such as gastronomic identity, marketing communications, contextual influences, service encounter, and servicescape (Harrington 2006; Chang et al. 2011), whereas, due to the substantial change in both the ‘food’ and the ‘environment’ components, tourists may change the attitude towards food and cuisine experience in a new and unfamiliar destination. In addition, a different set of motivations might influence tourists’ preferences and choices of food, making factors more complex than food consumption in home setting.

Yet, given space limitations, this chapter cannot fully elaborate on the wide-ranging factors under the above three categories, while factors relating to ‘the individual’ are widely agreed to be extremely crucial in explaining the variations in food consumption (Rozin et al. 2006). Therefore, we focus on the factors pertaining to the tourists. Based on previous literature, Mak et al. (2012) attempt to address the potential factors relating to ‘the tourist’ more comprehensively and systematically. These factors can be categorized into five main categories: cultural and religious influences, socio-demographic factors, food-related personality traits, exposure effect, and past experience, and motivational factors (see Figure 13.2).

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**Figure 13.1** Factors affecting food consumption in tourism.
‘Factors influencing tourist food consumption’, Mak et al. (2012).
Cultural and religious influences

Culture and religion have long been considered as vital determinants affecting general food consumption. Culture can be defined as a shared set of characteristics, attitudes, and values that form a framework guiding the behaviors and activities of a particular group in all affairs of life (Goodenough 1971; Mak et al. 2012), including the human ‘footways’ (Mak et al. 2012). Consequently, culture is acknowledged as a determinant affecting what is considered proper to eat and ingest. It determines which food and cuisine is acceptable or appropriate within a particular social community (Atkins and Bowler 2002). This process is also manifested in the existence of culturally specific ‘flavor principles’ (Mak et al. 2012). For instance, due to historical and cultural features, people in the northern part of China prefer the sweet-flavored zongzi (the Chinese rice–pudding), whereas salty ones are accepted as authentic and traditional in the southern part. The regional disparities, ethnic differences, and cultural backgrounds mix together to make tourist food consumption more complex.

A number of tourism studies have focused on the important influence of ‘cultural distance’ (Mckercher and So-Ming 2001) and culturally specific ‘flavor principles’ (Mak et al. 2012) between tourists’ native food culture and the host food culture, and acquired some interesting propositions. For example, tourists from higher ‘uncertainty avoidance index’ countries (Hofstede 2001), where the risk-aversion of national culture dominates, are less willing to try culinary offers in new destinations (Tse and Crotts 2005). Tourists’ culturally specific ‘core eating behavior’ is a pivotal factor affecting their food preferences on holiday. ‘Core’ foods, closely associated with a culture, staples consumed almost every day for example, are extremely difficult to be changed or altered, whereas people show a more permissive attitude to trying ‘secondary’ foods (i.e., foods eaten widely and often, but not daily) and ‘peripheral’ foods (i.e., foods...
eaten rarely) (Kittler and Sucher 2004; Chang et al. 2010). Especially when it involves flavor and methods of preparation and cooking, tourists’ perceptions are highly influenced by their own food culture (Chang et al. 2011). For example, westerners may feel offended by such local customs as scooping rice balls with one’s hand or tucking one’s fingers in a shared dish, which are common and traditional habits in Thailand (Cohen and Avielli 2004).

Religious beliefs regulate and confine types of substances for food, preparation methods, and fasting or feasting practices. This restriction can result in stable and rigid food habits (Khan 1981; Packard and McWilliams 1993), for example, halal for Islam or kosher for Judaism, and thus, affecting food consumption in the context of home setting and tourism. It is obligatory for all Muslims to eat only halal food even when they are away from home and travelling in strange destinations (Bon and Hussain 2010). It is found that more than 80% Muslim tourists would always look for halal food, and nearly half prepare their own meals to avoid lack of availability of halal food when travelling in New Zealand (Hassan and Hall 2003). Alternatively, though many kosher-observant tourists remain being conscious about hygiene and culturally unacceptable food such as dog and reptile meat, they may tend to relax restriction of non-kosher food and try new foods while on tour (Cohen and Avieli 2004).

**Socio-demographic factors**

In general, socio-demographic factors include indicators such as age, gender, marital status, educational background, occupation, and income level, which are significant in explaining variations in food consumption. For instance, the elder tend to consume a narrower range of foods available (Tse and Crotts 2005) and have more concern about health in a destination (Kim et al. 2009) due to diminished taste and olfactory sensitivity (Khan 1981); however, in some cases, they have a strong desire to understand and experience foreign cultures through local food consumption (Kim et al. 2009). People with a higher education level take on greater psychological openness to try various food resources and acquire new food knowledge. Although it is pointed out that some socio-demographic factors are interrelated, they still provide important evidence to identify how socioeconomic and demographic variables influence tourists’ local food consumption.

Social status and cultural capital are also important concepts affecting tourist food consumption. Food also serves as a ‘class marker’ and a sign of power (Bessière 1998; Rozin et al. 2006) which reflects the social status and identifies different groups to a certain extent. Food preferences vary according to social class (Bourdieu 1984; Mak et al. 2012). Furthermore, the cultural capital theory is accepted to be particularly germane in explicating social class differences in food consumption behavior in tourism. Cultural capital refers to “a stock of knowledge and experience people acquire through the course of their lives that enables them to succeed more than someone with less cultural capital” (Bourdieu 1984). The middle class who are rich in cultural capital, tend to be keen to taste exotic foods to maintain distinctiveness and cultivate the ability to appreciate and evaluate foreign foods through acquiring new food knowledge, thus enhancing an individual’s level of sophistication and stature in future social situations in return (Bourdieu 1984; Heldke 2003; Chang et al. 2010).

**Food-related personality traits**

Food-related personality traits, pertaining to psychological variables, refer to “individual characteristics that exert a pervasive influence on a broad range of food related behaviors” (Mak et al. 2012:932). In particular, food neophobia and variety-seeking can be recognized as essen-
tual types of traits. Food neophobia can be conceptualized as “a personality trait involving a relative preference for familiar over novel food” (Pliner and Salvy 2006:76). Humans, as omnivorous animals, will expect various novel foods and seek for variety (neophilic), but also have a natural biological tendency to avoid or suspect new and unfamiliar foods (neophobic). The tension between the neophobic and neophilic tendencies are described as the ‘omnivore’s paradox’, which means the constantly occurrence of oscillation between these two ambivalent choices (Fischler 1988). Therefore, when tourists are more inclined to consume and ingest exotic cuisines in a destination, the novel dining experiences can be an attraction. However, it is more typically suggested that tourists in general prefer familiar foods to which they are accustomed and resist to change (Torres 2002), which means neophobic tendency dominates. As a result, the novel dining experiences turn to be an impediment, rather than an attraction (Cohen and Avieli 2004).

Variety-seeking can be defined as “the tendency of individuals to seek diversity in their choices of services and goods” (Kahn 1995:139). The idea of optimum stimulation level can provide a basis for understanding variety-seeking behavior. Individuals have a tendency to seek additional variety or novel stimulation if the level of stimulation is below the optimum, whereas they tend to avoid novel stimuli when the level is over the optimal point. Accordingly, tourists choose items or foods that have not been consumed recently to achieve optimum stimulation level and relieve boredom (Trijp 1995; Ratner et al. 1999; Mak et al. 2012).

**Exposure effect/past experience**

The mere exposure effect refers to a “positive repetition-effect relationship that results from exposure alone” (Obermiller 1985:18). It means that preference for foods increases with higher familiarity, which increases with repeated exposure (Pliner 1982; Stein et al. 2003; Luckow et al. 2006). It is accepted that owing to heightened globalization, tourists may have an increasing availability of exotic foods in tourists’ home setting (Cohen and Avieli 2004), motivating themselves to be more acquainted with foods, which used to be provided only in the originating region. Though foods can be transformed to adapt to the native environment, increased exposure and familiarity would also affect the consumption of the foreign cuisine in an unfamiliar destination. For example, flavor disparities may stimulate tourists to expect the authentic indigenous foods in the originating country.

Past experience with foods significantly contributes to the development of ‘food memories’ which are associated with the sensory attributes of the food (Barker 1982). Accordingly, in general, past experience and previous visitation can increase the familiarity, thus potentially enhancing tourists’ preference towards the local cuisine in destinations.

**Motivational factors**

Since tourist motivation, which can be defined as the “global integrating network of biological and cultural forces which gives value and direction to travel choices, behavior, and experience” (Pearce et al. 1998:215), prominently affect tourist choice and behavior, thus it can be a significant construct affecting tourist food consumption. For example, a tourist motivated to visit a destination by its custom and cultural factors may have a higher propensity to taste local traditional food, or even experience a Thai meal through finger-feeding in order to explore the host food culture.

Motivations underlying food consumption are accepted as multi-dimensional. It can be categorized into five key dimensions: symbolic, obligatory, contrast, extension, and pleasure. The symbolic
dimension refers to the motivators that signify the symbolic meanings of food consumption to the tourists, such as cultural exploration, authentic-seeking experience, learning/education, prestige and status. The obligatory dimension presents the motivators that concern physiological needs of food consumption, such as health and nutrient sustenance. The contrast dimension reflects the motivators to escape from the daily mundane life and seek contrastive experience, such as exploring new foods which have never been seen and tasted before. The extension dimension indicates the motivators to seek food experiences that extend the tourists’ daily routine, such as core eating behavior and familiar flavor. The pleasure dimension denotes the motivators to seek pleasure from the food experience, such as sensory appeal and togetherness.

The differences between ‘symbolic’ and ‘obligatory’ dimensions largely contribute to whether food in tourism is perceived as an attraction or an impediment. The distinctions between ‘contrast’ and ‘extension’ mainly due to the fact whether tourist food consumption is viewed as the peak touristic experience or supporting consumer experience. The ‘pleasure’ can be an inherent dimension, as a primary benefit for tourism and gastronomy which are often regarded as hedonic products (Mak et al. 2012).

**Conclusion**

The five factors described above, which specifically emphasize the tourists instead of destination or cuisine, cannot incorporate the wide-ranging factors affecting food consumption in tourism. Furthermore, these five factors can be interrelated, and the influence can be reciprocal. Tourists with different cultural or religious backgrounds and socio-demographic characteristic, and with varying food-related personality traits and exposure and past experience may have different motivations towards food consumption in tourism. Nevertheless, they still provide a general framework for future research, with the notion that motivational factors are accepted as salient variables affecting tourist food preference and consumption.

**Case study 13.1**

In order to have a more intuitive understanding of the factors, we cite some findings of the empirical study on tourist food consumption conducted by Liu et al. (2017), which takes Chengdu, the most important birthplace of Szechuan cuisine culture in China, as a case example.

Food and cuisine consumption in Chengdu, renowned for its unique food resources, cooking methods and sensory appeal all around the world, not only acts as supporting consumer behavior or the extension of daily routine life, but also be regarded as prominent part of peak touristic experience. Liu et al. (2017) identify some factors influencing tourist food consumption in Chengdu through questionnaire survey and the method of netnography. Quantitative analysis shows some demographic differences and food consumption tendencies, which coincide with previous research findings to an extent. For example, the female pays more attention to the cultural experience related to food consumption, emphasizing the novelty and uniqueness of food, while the male tourists are affected by the factors of interpersonal relationship. Furthermore, tourists’ perceptions and evaluations towards local foods in Chengdu are analyzed, and some representative views are listed as follows to capture tourists’ in-depth attitude and how it affects food consumption behavior.
Food-related personality traits:

As a foodie, I can’t resist all kinds of novel and unique food. I just wish I had two stomachs, so I could taste more delicious food.

I got a lot of fun tasting delicious local food in Chengdu, but it was a little scary when I saw many rabbit-heads (a famous specialty snack) placed and sold every corner of the street. I felt afraid and really dared not to try.

(Liu et al. 2017:26–27)

Food neophobia means tourists enjoy trying various food sources. It is known that relatively familiar daily life offers ‘ontological security’, which relaxes and comforts tourists even in unfamiliar destinations. Therefore, when tourists feel comfortable and stress relieved, neophilic tendency dominates and tourists have a propensity to search for novel foods. But when it comes to the experience of some foods which are totally unfamiliar or unheard of, a concern for safety or a feeling of fear may arise, thus increasing the emotional insecurity. Tourists feel outside their comfort zone, and in this way, neophobic tendency might turn to become more prominent. Therefore, local food may have a negative influence on the tourist food consumption.

Motivational factors:

Actually eating is secondary, though the Szechuan mochi (the folksy name is three artillery, including ingredients such as glutinous rice, brown sugar, sesame and soybean) is regarded as an indigenous tradition food and really tastes nice. The process to make such a delicious snack is particularly a wonderful performance. When you acknowledge how it was named, it can be more interesting and unforgettable.

(Liu et al. 2017:27)

When food consumption is signified as significant peak touristic experience, the symbolic meanings of food motivate tourists to explore culture and seek authenticity. When making the Szechuan mochi, the glutinous rice balls are thrown to the chopping board with steel plates behind, thus making the sound like a cannon shot. The name and production of the local food can also become the main attraction of tourist consumption, while flavor appeal turns to be secondary factors. Therefore, it implies that the symbolic dimension of food can satisfy tourists’ psychological curiosity and spiritual pleasure of cultural explorations.

References


Factors affecting tourists’ food consumption


Introduction

The travel experience which is composed of accommodation, attractions, and food is exciting for most tourists. From the beginning of pre-travelling preparations to the arrivals to the intended destinations, a large portion of the travel is to figure out what and where to eat. When it comes to food, certain countries are known for their gastronomical experience: e.g., France is famous for its wine and pastries. The appeal to the local foods and beverages may create a strong national character, and become the only reason for tourists to travel again to that particular destinations, thus shaping the return intentions (Kivela and Crotts 2006). The food that the tourists experience may also largely contribute to the overall satisfaction of their travel.

Beverages and especially food are cultural products. Food is the only tourism product that enables tourists to experience local flavour, aroma, texture, and appearance (Mak et al. 2012). It further contributes to the gastronomic image or identity of the destination (Fox 2007). Visual imagery of food is widely used in the marketing communications of destinations. Most destination marketing organizations (DMOs) (usually managed by a state or an agency) use pictures of food in all media, especially its websites, to entice potential tourists. However, with the recent development in social media, the role of promoting food has shifted from DMOs to social media users who are predominantly active on Facebook, YouTube, Instagram, Twitter, and WhatsApp. According to a recent article by the World Economic Forum (Desjardins 2017), Instagram users post about 46,200 in a minute. Most of these are photos (i.e., visual images).

In the recent times, food has become a lifestyle statement and the food fashion is changing rapidly. The foodies’ (i.e., food lovers) expectations are wrought based on multi-layers of opinion (Qazi et al. 2017) and feedback from different mediums be it electronic or printed. Thus, the question of how the expectations are shaped is vital, as it will affect their satisfaction. Thus, the purpose of this article is two-fold. We will first review the literature on visual imagery of gastronomy in tourism marketing and its relationship to perception, expectation, and satisfaction of tourists. Second, we will choose a well-known Malaysian...
local gastronomy attraction (i.e., Nasi Kandar Line Clear) as a case study to illustrate the concepts discussed in earlier section. We conclude this chapter with recommended managerial implications.

Literature review

Images and gastronomy

Visual images of food are used frequently by DMOs to communicate the gastronomic experience that tourists could receive when visiting a particular destination or attraction. The use of images in marketing communication activities may influence attitude toward the advertisement and the brand (Mikhailitchenko et al. 2009), information-processing strategies (Roy and Phau 2014), emotional responses (Peters and Kashima 2015), product inferences (Ilyuk and Block 2016), and food intake (Poor, Duhachek and Krishnan 2013).

Food is pictured as tantalizing and as appealing as possible as it provides cues to influence tourists’ perception, attitudes, and behaviors (Poor, Duhachek and Krishnan 2013). With the exponential growth in social media usage globally, images of even ordinary food are posted continuously. They are shared to tantalize other users, or at least to be attention-worthy (Kozinets, Patterson, and Ashman 2017). Images of food are generally shown either alone or being consumed. Generally, a favourite photographic angle for food is the flat layout in which social media users take picture of food in a 90-degree angle. In other words, the position of the camera is exactly on top of the food. The second favorite angle is close-up images of food in various positions usually with some indication of background images of where the food is consumed, e.g., restaurants. In contrast, images of food with people consuming it are generally overshadowed by the social activities done. These consummatory images are obviously meant to portray the place where the food is consumed, or friends with whom the social media user is spending time.

The extent to which photos is shared in social media is mind-boggling. In a minute in 2017, there are 46,200 posts on Instagram (Desjardins 2017). Besides the typical website or Google searches, tourists can now search for information about a destination, attraction, or food using hashtag (#) searches which are used predominantly by Twitter and Instagram. Images of food are shared publicly in the internet, thus they indirectly form the brand image of the attraction (Kozinets, Patterson, and Ashman 2017). Visual images of food that are posted by social media users can positively influence tourists’ revisit intention (Chew and Jahari 2014). The food image may closely represent the actual destination’s physical attributes (Tasei and Gartner 2007), and lead to an emotional response (Lehto, Douglas, and Park 2008). Undoubtedly, food images are creating expectations of tourists as exemplified by the Malaysian famous local food attraction in the case study.

Expectation, perception and satisfaction

Cuisine refers to “a self-conscious tradition of cooking and eating with set of attitudes about food and its place in the life of a man” (Freeman 1977:142). An individual’s cultural or socio-economic aspects influence food consumption and food preference (Cuevas, de Guia and Demont 2017). Previous studies recorded various reasons that motivate gastronomy tourists to travel to a destination. Among the motivations that drive local food consumption are physiological, cultural, social, psychological factors (Kim and Eves 2012). Gastronomic tourists
Tourists’ perceptions and expectations

can be divided into several types. Boyne and colleagues (2003) propose gastronomic tourists’ typology based on information search behaviors. A Type 1 tourist engages actively in search of information, contrasting with the Type 2 who is more passive, as he or she prefers to assess the received information. Type 3 is rather submissive, while Type 4 does not engage in seeking information about food. Regardless of the classifications, the gastronomic tourists form certain expectations towards a particular cuisine, and the degree of satisfaction is determined based on the gap between expectation and perception (Rust and Oliver 1994). “Ultimately, expectation is used to gauge the satisfaction that could be filled or unfilled, as described by perceived performance, and can be judged by the sentiment words shared in each type of review” (Qazi et al. 2017:450).

Quan and Wang (2004) stress that ‘peak experience’ can be achieved during dining while one is travelling. Authentic taste, unique food, and service may enhance dining experience. However, a foodie will be dissatisfied when the service provider(s) fail to meet the high expectations formed based on the consumer-generated media pertaining to a particular cuisine. The reliance on external information is high when one has inadequate internal information from memory of previous visits of similar gastronomic attractions. In contrast, the company-generated content is not as powerful as e-word of mouth; the latter is viewed as the most reliable as it is independent information from other customers (Charlesworth 2011). In general, consumer-generated media consists of online reviews, videos, blogs, and social media, such as Facebook, Twitter, Instagram etc., which provides relevant information. The cyber-community’s decision-making process is affected by the online reviews, and they form three types of expectations at the pre-purchase stage, namely regular, comparative, and suggestive (Qazi et al. 2014). Finally, the customers express their degree of satisfaction in the post-purchase behavior.

Foodies usually shares their view(s) in terms of quality, taste and texture of food, and the visual media creates curiosity and excitement for others to try the food (Wang 2011). This information shapes the expectations while making them involved in the decision-making, thus increasing the assurance of the decision made based on the number of reviews, photos, star rating, number of comments, likes and shares, discussion, ideas, and opinions (Gretzel and Yoo 2008). Meeting one’s gastronomy experience expectations may translate to intention to revisit (Povey 2011; Jang, Ha and Park 2012) as it forms the destination image (Lu, Chi and Liu 2015). Perception of food shapes the gastronomy experience and be a part of the competitive advantage of service providers to promote cuisine to both existing, and prospective customers. Yet, complaint behavior is also prevalent especially when the customers are dissatisfied (Barlow and Møller 2008). According to Kivela and Crotts (2006), the media exposure affects both foodies, and service providers. It first influences one’s gastronomy travel decision and experience. Second, service providers would want to improve the quality of both cuisine, and the establishment (e.g., servicescape). Third, training of employees is vital as they hugely impact service delivery and gastronomic perception formation.
In Penang, one of the northern states in West Malaysia, nasi kandar i.e., kandar rice is a pure gastronomic experience for both local and international tourist attractions. It originated from hawkers who shouldered a long pole with two large containers of steamed rice, curry and vegetable dishes placed on both ends of the pole. Nowadays, tourists will not able to find these hawkers, but such delicacy is now mostly operated in restaurants. A famous nasi kandar restaurant in Penang is Nasi Kandar Line Clear: a catchy name taken by the owner of the restaurant since tourists and locals will always have to line up sometimes even outside of the restaurant’s premise just to have lunch or dinner.

Instagram – #nasikandarlineclear

In Instagram, hashtag search for #nasikandarlineclear result in 5,023 posts. The immediate related hashtags suggested by Instagram are #malaysiatravel (15,385 posts), #malaysiatourism (20,008 posts), #halaltrip (9,576posts), #malaysiatrip2016 (3,294 posts), and #penangisland (89,358 posts). Out of the nine top posts of the day, five are food images, while four are photos of Instagram users with the background of the signage of the restaurants. These food images are usually tempting and look delicious. With the rise of Instagram lately, food image sharing is no longer exclusive to professionals (e.g., cooks), and other food exhibitionists (Kozinets, Patterson and Ashman 2017). Since the hashtags above are specific to Malaysia, Penang, halal, and a colloquial food type, a more famous food hashtag such as #foodporn result in approximate 134.4 million posts as compared to #halalfood which has 440,747 posts. This may be because of the word ‘porn’, which locals probably associated with negativity.

In line with Poor and colleagues (2013), Instagram posts of #nasikandarlineclear consist of both food and images of consumption. Tourists will make inferences beyond what they see and read from what social media users have posted, and these inferences may impact tourists’ judgments and behaviors (Kardes, Posavac and Cronley 2004; Rottman and Hastie 2014). Images of food indicate physical attributes of the food such as freshness, healthiness, hygiene, and tastiness (Berry et al. 2015; Gvili et al. 2017). Tourists build up anticipatory experience prior to the visit by looking at these food images. This anticipatory or imagination experience is largely influenced by the detailed contextual and visual information of these posted food images (Loken 2006). Such process however depends on the categorization of food type that the tourists have cognitively created. In this case, nasi Kandar is mainly curry dishes, thus inferences about curry dishes gastronomic prior experiences will be recalled. The process may create urges for the tourists to seek out the food to experience pleasure from it (Gard et al. 2006). Part of these urges can be strongly confirmed by the consummatory images of food.

Consummatory images may lead to increased taste perception relative to food images (Poor, Duhacheck, and Krishnan 2013). Images of food with tourists is indicative of the gratification of consuming this food. This is because food images taken with the tourists are inherently rewarding (Quattrone 1985; Chan and Mukhopadhyay 2010). Among the nonverbal communication made by the tourists or locals who visited Nasi Kandar Line Clear is the thumbs up gestures – an indication that the food is good and it as what as they have expected. These images are suggesting favorable
taste perception which in turn may arouse other Instagram users to plan for future gastronomic experience at the similar restaurant (Desai and Ratneshwar 2003). Moreover, such postings are usually made to create a self-presentation to be viewed favorably by other Instagram users, i.e., self-serving motives (Berger 2014). Though people differ greatly to what extent they care about others’ impression of them (Leary and Allen 2011), posting consummatory images particularly on gastronomic experience is an indicator they are up-to-date with the current food trends and places. Thus, these images serve as a social proof for appropriateness and acceptability for the larger Instagram society who loves food (Poor, Duhachek, and Krishnan 2013).

**Facebook**

The search for Restoran Nasi Kandar Line Clear result in two pages, namely Nasi Kandar Line Clear Kampung Baru, Kuala Lumpur, and Penang. The official Facebook page of Nasi Kandar in Penang Road indicates that 1,287 people like the page, 1,300 people follow the page, and 5,835 have visited the restaurant. The restaurant posts images of food, their customers, participation in food festivals or events, and also newspaper links and screenshot related to the restaurant. A few of the employees take selfies and wefies with customers who patronize the restaurant. Other posts are related to acknowledgment from tripadvisor.com as it was voted as one of the best restaurants in George Town Penang, and is highly recommended by the customers. Additionally, there is post about the restaurant being ranked ninth best by the World Street Food Masters list. Despite a family dispute and an issue with cleanliness, the business is doing well, and the restaurant indicates its gratitude to the customers for their support. The announcement on the new branch in Kampung Baru is well-received by its followers, who congratulate the restaurants for its new branch.

The visitors of the page often tag their friends and family, and express their intention to visit the restaurant, while others post live video via Facebook. Some of them used the Facebook emoji icons to express their sentiments (love, haha, wow, sad, and angry) on posts. There are mixed reviews pertaining to the restaurant; the followers share their previous experience(s), favorite food and re-purchase intention when a picture is posted on the wall. Some Penangites (i.e. locals from Penang state) mention that they prefer to visit Deen Maju restaurant (close competitor) instead of Line Clear as the latter is mostly preferred by non-Penangites. Despite the negative reviews, fanatical followers express the opinion that this restaurant is their all-time favourite when it comes to nasi kandar gastronomic experience.

This clearly indicates that the Facebook page is used by both the restaurant, and its followers for different purposes. The former utilises the social media platform to communicate, disseminate information, and advertise to the customers, while the latter express their expectation, experience, satisfaction, and recommendations. Food images here are overwhelmed by comments by users.

**Conclusion**

It is evident that both Facebook and Instagram are important sources of gastronomic experience for both locals and international tourists. An image of food is enough to entice various responses of which will influence the perception, and expectation of a travelling foodie.
The opinion mining on the restaurants enables the foodies to access to information pertaining to the restaurant. Through different platforms, the customers are shaping their expectations in the pre-purchase stage (passive role) and assessing the experience (active role) in the post-purchase stage. Thus, the establishment is subjected to criticism especially when the customers are dissatisfied. The service providers will face difficulties if the customers walk in with very high expectations; a slight blunder will be very costly as the social media platform is widely used to express opinions and this can be detrimental to the business. The service providers can use these platforms to create a better emotional experience by taking into account of their immediate feedback and improving the establishment in order to delight the customer, as merely satisfying them is no longer adequate in order to survive in the competitive environment.

Notes

1 Instagram was assessed on September 20, 2017.
2 Instagram top posts on September 20, 2017 comprised only four food images instead.
3 Facebook was assessed on September 29, 2017.

Reference


Introduction

The competitiveness of the restaurant industry has increased substantially over the years. The growing market saturation, turbulent environmental surroundings, undercapitalization, and increased competition have led restaurants to find unique ways to differentiate themselves from competitors (Enz 2004; Zeithaml 2000). Excellence in service requires the creation and development of a competitive service strategy that is central to maintaining service quality (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Malhotra 2005). In order to sustain a competitive advantage, there should be a clear linkage between service characteristics, service competitive strategy, and service quality (Miles 2013). This requires independent restaurant operators to focus on food production rather than service quality, thus directly affecting their long-term performance (Parsa et al. 2005). Thus, it is important for restaurant managers to integrate the underlying drivers of service strategy. Understanding these strategic drivers allows managers to identify an integrated set of choices that are based on customers’ needs, and position service characteristics (i.e., service quality dimensions) in the creation of a sustainable value restaurant. Importantly, it allows restaurants to determine capabilities that need to be developed and enhanced to fit the overall service concept.

Matching service quality dimensions with competitive strategy

Michael Porter (1980) in his seminal writings suggests three competitive strategies for companies: cost leadership, differentiation and focus. Each strategy requires different approaches to the company’s marketing, financial investments and operations. Lack of focus in resources to achieve a particular strategy will often result in sub-optimized outcomes and market loss. The cost leadership strategy requires the firm to focus its resources towards being the lowest cost service provider. For restaurants, cost leadership is achievable when operational design is efficient, which allows lower costs compared to competitors. It is often adopted when the differences between restaurants are not essential to the customers, and customer satisfaction does not require high quality. Restaurants adopting this strategy often have a big market access to source cheap raw materials, and a wide distribution network that covers a broad customer base.

Differentiation is the act of designing a set of meaningful differences to distinguish the company’s offerings from competitors’ offering (Kotler and Keller 2016). A differentiation strategy
consists of creating differences in the product offerings by creating something that is perceived as unique and valued by customers. When compared to competitive rivalry, a differentiation strategy provides higher profitability by creating brand loyalty and low price sensitivity. Differentiation can take many forms, such as leveraging on prestige or brand image, technology, innovation, features, customer service, and dealer network (Dess, Lumpkin, and Eisner 2008).

Fitzsimons and colleagues (2014) propose a different set of strategic drivers for the two main competitive strategy. For cost leadership, these are the following strategic service drivers:

- Seeking out low-cost customers
- Standardizing a custom service
- Reducing the personal element in service delivery (promote self-service)
- Reducing network costs (hub and spoke)
- Taking service operations off-line

The differentiation strategy uses the following strategic drivers to achieve competitive advantage:

- Making the intangible tangible (memorable)
- Customizing the standard product
- Reducing perceived risk
- Giving attention to personnel training
- Controlling quality

Service quality is a multidimensional concept consists of five quality dimensions: reliability, responsiveness, assurance, empathy, and intangibility (Zhao and Di Benedetto 2013).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service Quality Dimensions</th>
<th>Cost Leadership</th>
<th>Differentiation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td>Standardization of services</td>
<td>Guarantee high level of service quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reducing the personal element in service delivery</td>
<td>Empowerment</td>
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<tr>
<td>Responsiveness</td>
<td>Breaking the services into smaller task, allowing higher responsiveness</td>
<td>Training</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reducing the personal element in service delivery</td>
<td>Empowerment</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Reducing network costs</td>
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<td>Assurance</td>
<td>Seeking out low cost customers</td>
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<td>Standardization of services</td>
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<td>Empathy</td>
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<td>Tangibles</td>
<td>Standardization of services</td>
<td>Making the intangible tangible</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Reducing the personal element in service delivery</td>
<td>Customizing standard product</td>
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Source: Adapted from Fitzsimons, Fitzsimons and Bordoloi (2014).
These service quality dimensions serve as the basis for consumers to measure the quality of the service. From a service provider’s perspective, the matching of the strategic service drivers to the service quality dimensions is essential to enhance the overall service strategy. The following table proposes combinations of strategic service drivers to address the five different service quality dimensions (see Table 15.1).

The concern is to integrate a particular strategy coherently that centers on the suggested service quality dimensions. In order to create a successful service strategy, a company needs to alter the requirements and idiosyncrasies of how to operationalize a particular service strategy in the context of restaurants. The following section outlines the different combinations of drivers to achieve high service quality.

**Service quality and differentiation strategy**

Service Quality (SERVQUAL) has been widely used to measure service quality in the hospitality industry during the last two decades. However, less research has been done in linking these two dimensions, differentiation strategy and service quality, together, especially in gastronomy literature.

**Reliability**

Reliability consists of the ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately. The most unique method that the staff of The Inn at Little Washington employs to provide exceptional customer satisfaction is mood indicator. Each customer is given a mood rating, scaled from 1 to 10, when he or she walks in the door. The mood rating is not a reflection of the service provider, but an assessment of the guest. The smile is important not only to change the mood of the guests’, but also to set the tone for the relationship with the guests. Wildes (2002) concludes that whether it is an indicator of guests’ mood, sharing of outside dining experiences, analysis of a food critic’s style, or capitalizing on individual talents, all underlying training results in teamwork. The processes use dare experiential learning, specifically targeted to enrich the dining experience to go over the top. The success of The Inn at the Little Washington is evident in the plaudits from a happy audience.

Heartland Restaurant Group, a Dunkin Donuts brand specialty restaurant, headquartered in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, is a unique company where career development, and a focus on employee retention inspire an employee’s best effort. Heartland offers the opportunity for people to work their way up the ranks, and the corporate headquarters group. Fun Squad is the driving force behind this fun and enjoyable work experience. With its origins stemming from the Employee of the Month award, the Fun Squad enlists one representative at each restaurant to oversee fun, enjoyment, and open communications at each location. No matter which generation of worker, the Fun Squad makes sure all employees are encouraged to participate and acquire the benefits of working for the company. The philosophy is simple for Heartland – make work glamorous. It is essential trickling down enjoyment from the top management to frontline workers so that every employee will put the company’s best face forward (Ferri-Reed 2010).

**Assurance and Tangible**

From the differentiation perspective, assurance and tangible aspects focus more on customizing standard products. Starbucks’ mission statement is ‘one person, one cup and one
neighborhood at a time’, which sets very high customer expectations, and promises a unique experiences – customers expect to be given high attention, and great customer service. Starbucks continues to promote a highly friendly and interactive relationship with its customers; by launching the Mystarbucks.com website (2013) to show that the level of relationship formed with its customer is same as their partnership level. Customers can provide continuous feedback on products or suggest new products or services. Some of the suggestions are taken into consideration by Starbucks, and the customers can follow its development online.

**Empathy**

Empathy, showing care and individual attention are what the firm provides for customer. By implementing the unique training method – making the intangible tangible, and empowerment, a firm can achieve its goal. Unique training methods help to attract and retain career minded hospitality service professionals at The Inn at Little Washington, one of America’s top-rated inns and restaurants. Wildes (2002) suggests some unique training methods and values shared by the owners and the staff at The Inn at Little Washington. It is part of the job requirement for its staff to communicate what the inn is all about, and have all the necessary knowledge to delight, and ‘blow away’ each and every guest. Nonverbal communication is an integral part of this. For example, server must take three steps backward before they can turn their back on a guest. This practice refers to the etiquette of personal space and distance. Servers are taught to imagine what it is like for the guests as they walked into The Inn at Little Washington, what they would want to experience, and how they would perceive the experience.

**Responsiveness**

Responsiveness is the compliance to help customers and provide prompt service through employee training. Nowinski and colleagues (2010) conducted a study on the implementation of training regimen for hospitality assistants increasing patient satisfaction scores for overall meal experience in Los Angeles, California. Patient satisfaction is an important outcome measurement for most healthcare facilities. A new training program for hospitality associates (food service staff with direct patient contact) was implemented in December 2008. Training time was approximately 5–6 hours over a one-month period with a minimum of 30 minutes/month thereafter. The result showed that courtesy of the server improved from the 50th percentile rank (range 31–68) to the 81st percentile rank (range 69–92). While the greatest improvement was demonstrated in server courtesy, scores improved in all meals area. Therefore, implementation of a formalized training regimen can increase patient satisfaction with overall dining experience in a hospital setting.

**Service quality and cost leadership strategy**

A cost leadership strategy requires the company to create operations that are low in costs (Hilman and Kaliappen 2014). It requires distinctive competencies in efficient and cost saving service designs and process (Lo 2012). For service organizations, cost leadership strategy requires efficient scale facilities, resources, and innovative technology involvement. The low cost structure becomes a defense against competitors because the competitors will suffer lower margin of costs if they are less efficient. Restaurants adopting this strategy use unique combination of cost drivers to achieve the five dimensions of service quality. Cost leadership restaurants integrate various cost drivers to achieve the following service quality dimensions.
Service quality and gastronomy

We further exemplify this using McDonald’s, which is known as one of the restaurants that is able to yield low margins, thus making it difficult for other restaurants to compete using the cost leadership strategy (Ouma 2015).

Reliability and Responsiveness

The reliability dimension refers to consistency and accuracy of the service delivery (Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman 1996). Responsiveness refers to the willingness to provide service and the ability to provide prompt service. For cost leadership strategy, achievement of reliability and responsiveness is dependent on the restaurants ability to achieve fast and consistent order delivery times (Josiah and Nyagara 2015).

One of the main key cost drivers is standardization of the service process which is used to achieve reliability and responsiveness dimensions. Restaurants adopting this strategy often try to limit the range of product, i.e., menu items, to simplify stock control. The limited range allows the restaurant to control for wastage, and develop tight controls over production. The products are designed to match in a variety of ways; for example, in McDonald’s, the bun can be used for almost all burgers in their menu. The variation of the menu consists of combination of various food types that are sold in pre-set meals, e.g. Happy Meals.

The service operation design is also standardized to ensure high level of efficiency in food production. McDonald’s adopts and applies techniques used in manufacturing industry (Levitt 1972). Similar to manufacturing, the ability to reduce work-in-progress, and waste elimination is key towards achieve cost leadership strategy (Blackburn 1991). Productivity is achieved through smooth flow and smaller, repetitive tasks (Schmenner 2004). The design of the food preparation is focused on the repeatability of the task, and systematic procedures that employees can learn in a short period of time. McDonald’s also design standardized fryers and ovens that make it easy for employees to do their tasks. In order to increase efficiency of the service delivery, McDonald’s operators prepare pre-cooked and ready-wrapped food to cater for peak restaurant times. This relates to their ability to increase their responsiveness by having the food ready upon customer’s arrival.

Standardization of the workflow of the food production also gives McDonald’s a competitive advantage over other restaurants. The ability to break the food preparation into smaller tasks also increases the efficiency in food production. Its ability to design food preparation in simple steps allows the restaurant to hire, and train inexperienced employees fast. Furthermore, simple and smaller task structures allow employees to multitask during peak periods, thus increasing the speed of the service.

McDonald’s is also able to increase the reliability dimensions through the reduction of personnel in the service delivery process. Due to high standardization in the food preparation workflow, it relies on fewer managers who earn more wages, thus saving the company money. Ray Kroch started McDonald’s with a design that only requires three to four people by offering a very limited menu. This spreads the labor costs over a larger number of customers.

The reduction of employee interaction with customers also creates smoother workflow (Schmenner 2004). However, customers can affect the timing and efficiency of the service (Miles 2013). Delays and high levels of customer input can slow down the service process. Efficiency and reliability are achieved by moving the majority of the tasks to the back office. Importantly, customers are only required to carry out some of the task themselves. Being reliable and responsive requires restaurants to configure process and resources in a way that allows customers to go through the service process at the promised speed. Short interaction times also means that customer-waiting time is reduced.
Assurance

Assurance dimension refers to the level of knowledge and courtesy the employees have in order to convey trust and confidence (Zeithaml et al. 1996). This dimension includes courtesy, credibility, and competency of the employees. It requires the restaurant to train their employees, and provide the right tools and knowledge that are necessary for them to conduct the service process, and handle customer interactions. This also includes leveraging on brand name and reputation to set customer’s expectations.

Many restaurants like McDonald’s have built a strong reputation among many segments of the US population with its golden arches, a distinctive restaurant symbol that gives the restaurant a unique appeal. The reputation and strong brand name provide assurance to customer on the type of service that they will be receiving. Domino’s pizza also has similar strong branding, and a reputation for providing pizza at lower prices compared to its competitors.

Additionally, cost leadership companies provide assurance of the standardization of the service process, and quality of product. Through strict standardization in food preparation, McDonald’s is able to ensure that it can offer fast service with almost zero waiting time (Obonyo, Ayieko, and Kambona 2012; Ouma and Ololo 2015). In fact, a study reveals that McDonald’s customers are attracted to “clean environment, pleasant ambiance and polite staff. Customers are assured that the quality of the raw materials of the burgers is of certified standards” (Baack and Boggs 2008:134).

Empathy

Empathy refers to how the service provider is caring and providing attention to the customers. In order to attain high customer satisfaction, restaurants must have clear communication with customers. This requires a deep understanding of customers’ needs. One way for cost leadership restaurants to show empathy is through their segmentation strategy. Most cost leadership companies cater for price sensitive consumers who seek for low-price meals.

Specifically, McDonald’s target market is primarily young individuals with young families who are attracted to fast service, and low prices. With the decline in sales for McDonald’s in 1980s and 1990s, this led to the development of value menu packages, improved drive-through services and reduced waiting times in the restaurant. Restaurants like McDonald’s and Domino’s seek low cost customers through the provision of affordable food prices. McDonald’s introduced a no-frills burger at a cost of Rs 12 in India to target younger consumers who cannot afford the regular priced products (Shah 2000). Dominos also reduces the pizza prices in India in which the price of a 12-inch pizza is USD3.47 as compare to USD8.99 in its North America markets.

Tangible

The tangible dimension addresses the importance of physical facilities, equipment, and personnel. For the gastronomy industry, the appearance of the product plays an important role in making the service tangible. The element of the service environment has an impact upon the perceived service quality. Essentially, the dependence on tangibles is higher for restaurants which adopt cost leadership strategy. The ‘Happy Meal’ is designed to keep the children satisfied (Jing 2009). McDonald’s pays close attention to children by building them ‘Happy Land’ and offering novelty toys with the Happy Meals. The use of these tangibles generates a stronger bond between the children, and the brand. Furthermore, the emphasis on the children also encourages the whole family to come to McDonald’s.
Case study 15.1: McDonald’s

The McDonald’s franchise has grown substantially. Over the years, the restaurant has opened restaurants in more than 119 countries (Jing 2009). The restaurant began its business in 1950s, and was one of the pioneers in standardizing its brand image, food production processes, service delivery systems, and restaurant architecture. It is one of the leading restaurants in the ‘fast-food’ industry. The high level of standardization forms the basis of a strong global brand identity.

The golden rule of McDonald’s restaurant is ‘the customer is always first, and will always be’. The principle that represents the company is Quality, Service, Cleanliness, and Value (QSCV). The beef burger has to go through 40 quality checks, and burgers that do not achieve the standard will be discarded. Furthermore, unsold food will also be discarded when it passes a certain period of time (burger 15 minutes and French fries 7 minutes). This level of standardization provides assurance to the customer that every food in the restaurant is of the same quality at any time or place.

Its ability to maintain strict procedure and tight budget control allows the restaurants to compete on low prices. Most research and developments done in McDonald’s are focused towards providing an efficient and lost cost food preparation process. Through the standardization of the process, McDonald’s is able to purchase equipment in bulk. Furthermore, the high volume of customers provides the means to cover for high initial capital expenditure.

Since its launch, McDonald’s has maintained its regular menu of burgers and French fries to its customers. It offers basic fast-food meals at low prices, thus attracting a specific segment of the market. The restaurant targets young adults or young families with lower income levels. It has also customized its products to fit lower income nations. McDonald’s also follows a price-skimming approach where they charge high prices for new products and offers discounts through value meals on existing products to attract customers (Azim and Azim 2012). The restaurant also has different pricing for different countries based on the country’s economic conditions. In India, the price of the burger is significantly less as compared to the prices in the U.K. or the U.S. The company came up with new no-frills burger specifically to target youngsters in India.

In addition to a standardized global menu, McDonald’s also provides customer with highly localised menu based on country culture. For example, McDonald’s in Malaysia offers Bubur Ayam McD (porridge) in its menu. The local versions of the porridge are sold with many varieties of ingredients such as anchovies, salted eggs, chopped vegetables, fried onions, chicken, and meat dishes. In contrast, McDonald’s porridge only comes with a specific combination of ingredients; shredded chicken, added together with chopped vegetables, ginger, and fried onions.

In Singapore, McDonald’s offered Nasi Lemak burger Nasi Lemak burger was inspired by the Malay dish of coconut rice. It was first launched on July 13 but sold out in less than two weeks due to overwhelming demand. McDonald’s said it was one of the chain’s most successful promotions in recent years, with close to 750,000 burgers sold (The Straits Times 2017).

The standardization of the products and the value-meals allows McDonald’s to produce the food more efficiently. They design the food preparation process by breaking down the process into smaller, highly routinized tasks. The clear division of labor allows the restaurant to hire and train inexperienced employees whom are cheaper as compared to experienced and well-trained cooks. Furthermore, standardized workflow reduces the need to have multiple supervisory roles. This reduces the labor cost further.
Conclusion

In sum, a sustainable competitive advantage is achieved when service organizations are able to combine and integrate strategic drivers to achieve the five service quality dimensions. Main cost drivers that enhance reliability and reassurance are standardization of service process and the use of customer service. Standardization of architecture and food presentation enhances empathy, tangibility, and assurance for cost leadership restaurants. For highly differentiated restaurants, reliability, assurance and responsiveness are highly dependent on the employees training and the operational emphasis on quality control. Empathy and tangibility dimensions were addressed through the reduction of the customer’s perceived risk and a high level of customization of service process on corresponding products.

References


Quiz: A foodie is…

a a food lover; one who enjoys cooking and authentic cuisine
b a snob; one who seeks boasting material through good eating and collecting expensive experiences
c a glutton; one who eats too much

Can a foodie be all of the above? This is open to interpretation, based on the perceptions of what foodies do, say, and eat. Many people will proclaim themselves to be foodies, while others shun the term. What is certain is that many, but not all food lovers, are also food tourists who seek everything from fine dining at destination restaurants to unusual, even adventure-some experiences involving finding good produce, cooking, exploring recipes, casual dining, and gaining knowledge about farming or fishing.

In this chapter, the concept of foodies is examined and their relationship with gastronomic tourism is explored. Not all self-defined foodies travel for food experiences, but enough of them are gastronomic tourists to justify substantial marketing efforts to attract them, and to generate enormous quantities of media content. Destinations and cities around the world are competing intensely for their lucrative business. And to be a good food city, a foodie destination, is perceived to be good branding.

Although foodies have been socio-demographically defined (e.g., Getz, Robinson, and Vujicic 2014), we explore the foodie from four perspectives: behavior, self-identification, social identity, and level of involvement. The key point is not to arrive at a firm definition of foodie or food tourist or gastronomic tourist, as that will remain impossible, but to make it clear that the development and marketing of gastronomic tourism, and of all food-and drink-related experiences, must be based on an understanding of the lifestyle, attitudes, motivation, and behavior of those most likely to travel because of their food-related interests.
Who or what are foodies?

According to Getz et al. (2014) in the book *Foodies and Food Tourism*, “A foodie is a food lover; one whose personal and social identity encompasses food quality, cooking, sharing meals and food experiences; foodies incorporate all aspects of food into their lifestyle, which often leads them to travel for new and authentic food experiences”.

It is somewhat unclear where and how the term was introduced, but it was popularized in *The Official Foodie Handbook* by Barr and Levy (1984), who made the claim that foodies consider food to be art. Webster’s dictionary defines a foodie as, “a person having an avid interest in the latest food fads.” That is somewhat derogatory, as it suggests there is no underlying commitment or basis in values. This chapter will demonstrate otherwise.

It can also be debated if there is such a thing as a ‘foodie culture’ as distinct from ‘food culture’ in general. There is little doubt that both food culture and foodie culture has flourished since the advent of social media, which began with personal computers in the 1980s, and has grown exponentially with the rise of smart-phone technology after 2000. If there is a distinctive foodie culture it can be found through netnography, canvassing the internet and popular sharing sites (especially the photos!) for content and direction (cf. Andersson et al. 2016).

The growing discourse on foodies, according to Johnston and Baumann (2007, 2009), is generally split between those who think foodies are being democratic in appreciating food in general, or are acting like snobs. The democratic view suggests they are part of a trend that everyone can enjoy, and that foodies are concerned with all kinds of food, healthy eating, local produce, fair trade, with a preference for organic or ecological produce. Others see only snobs, elitism, and conspicuous consumption, which accords with classical Epicurean and 18th century bourgeois evaluations (consider the French founders of gastronomy, Brillat-Savarin and Grimod). Of course, both views can be partly correct depending on one’s perspective, and gastronomic tourism is definitely a manifestation of consumption by the well-to do.

Johnston and Baumann (2009) observed that media coverage and the ways for foodies to connect with each other and to share their passions have all multiplied, making food-related activities and culinary tourism an important, postmodern consumer phenomenon. Liu et al. (2012) studied foodie communities that were then proliferating online by examining photos on Flickr.com. Cairns, Johnston, and Baumann (2010) proposed that a new culture has evolved wherein a consumer now views food as an essential aspect of their identity. As with any other ‘social worlds’ (Unruh 1980) the ability to interconnect globally (and the appeal of doing so) enables all special-interest groups to grow and flourish. In this way, it is valid to talk about ‘foodie culture’ in the way we might talk about any other leisure or lifestyle-defined sub-culture such as ‘culture vultures’ or ‘artsies’.

But foodie culture has been evolving, as noted by Lee (2013): “By providing insights into the most-involved foodies (aka Core Food Culturists), we aren't trying to stoke the fires of the debate that ebbs and flows about foodies being snobs or just food appreciators; we write this piece only to note that being a foodie today means you're on a continuum of food engagement, a spectrum within which you may stay in the middle or, depending on enthusiasm, you might graduate. Cooking and engagement with food at social levels is a hallmark of those who are most engaged with being a foodie today”.

Being a foodie is a matter of self-identification, something you feel you are. We will look at behavior, personal and social identity and involvement to provide the underlying set of values and preferences that define foodies and send many of them on journeys of food discovery.
Foodie behavior

What marks the foodie to the casual onlooker? Do they have a certain appearance or behavior pattern that is easy to detect? Most obvious would be shopping for the finest, freshest, local produce, which gets the foodie to the market as often as possible. It often starts with a love of cooking, so check out who has the perfect modern kitchen complete with wine cooler and cookbooks from famous chefs as well as different cuisines from around the world. You can see them dining out frequently, with family and friends, and, of course, using Instagram to share the experience as it occurs. One might think the foodie is a big eater, passionate about gastronomic delights, or even a glutton, but those behaviors refer to something else entirely – the term ‘gourmand’ is preferred for that group. One can be a foodie and a ‘gourmet’ (a lover of good food) but not a ‘glutton.’

Food and beverages of all kinds go together, but especially food and wine. That is why wine regions are also home to both fine and casual restaurants appealing to the foodies who like to match wine and food (cf. Robinson and Getz 2014). Great chefs are one attraction, but a good sommelier can also co-curate the perfect meal. Meals and snacks at upmarket wineries attract foodies, but so do visits to out-of-the-way, more authentic farms and vineyards. Fresh seafood is also very appealing to foodies, taking then to coastal areas and fish markets.

Travel for food experiences marks out many foodies. Their motivations have been examined in a number of research projects. The foodie wants something different, special, and a memorable experience that is linked to food.

In their extensive research, the authors of Foodies and Food Tourism found a very strong link between being a food lover and planned events. The most highly involved foodies are a minority of self-proclaimed food lovers but they could readily be identified both by attitudes and their attraction to events (Getz et al. 2015). Most popular with food lovers are food markets, but highly involved foodies also seek out food festivals and hands-on experiences such as tastings, demonstrations, and cooking classes with experts.

Self-identity

Personal or self-identity emerges from what people feel about food, eating, cooking, and its place in lifestyle that defines (in part or the whole) who they are, including their values and attitudes. If I say I am a foodie, I want that to be a positive thing, reflecting my values and aspirations, my preferences and lifestyle. But it also makes sense that many people who appear to be foodies will not call themselves by that term, and might love cooking but shun travel. With a certain inevitable backlash on some peoples’ minds, foodies might be reluctant to even use the term.

Self-identifying as a foodie has internalized meanings, related to values and lifestyle, plus identity associated with a role (Benckendorff and Pearce 2012: 172). Thus foodies will be concerned about how their behavior, such as travel, provides symbolic meaning. To be a foodie means that eating tapas in Barcelona (for example) has meaning – it is something a foodie wants to do because of the meaning it provides, such as experiencing another culture or expanding one’s palate by tasting unique dishes. It is not necessarily about showing off (but it could include that!).

Social identity

It is possible that you could be a lone foodie, without reference to others who share the passion, but that is very unlikely. Most foodies want to share their experiences, invite people
to dinner, go out together, join clubs, tell stories, travel as couples or groups of friends or as families. It is sharing that gives social-world identity. People relate to each other and form or reinforce their identity by being a foodie.

Festinger (1954) theorized that social identity is all about the ways in which individuals perceive and categorize themselves, and this occurs in the context of inter-personal relationships. Identities are shaped by group membership, such as a formal food club or perhaps an informal network of friends and family. Attachment to the group (which helps define social worlds) is key, and this implies that social identity is in part shaped, and reinforced, by one's perceptions of how they are perceived by their reference group.

This discussion of identity explains two important foodie phenomena. First, being a foodie starts with how you feel about yourself, your loves and preferences, and what it is about food, cooking, or travel that has meaning to you. Second, social identity theory helps explain why being a foodie is usually about sharing – with loved ones, a club, a travel group, and, via social media, the whole foodie world.

**Involvement**

Foodies are involved with food, and with the culture (or ‘community’, or ‘social world’) that helps define them – but where and how does it get started, and where does it take them? The concept of involvement in marketing refers to one’s engagement with a brand or product, including the notion of ‘consumer constellations’ of brands and products that collectively satisfy one’s needs (Solomon and Assael 1987). Those highly involved in any leisure, lifestyle, or sporting pursuit also demonstrate the existence of event-travel careers that reflect an evolution of motivation and behavior (Getz and Andersson 2010). This undoubtedly applies to foodies as well.

Robinson and Getz (2016) used factor analysis techniques to isolate four dimensions that are crucial to self-identification as a foodie. Their scale had its origins in leisure involvement research, and theory proposed by Kyle et al. (2007) who determined that leisure involvement embodies the concepts of ‘centrality’, ‘attraction’, ‘social bonding’, ‘identity affirmation’ and ‘identity expression’. The links are clear to personal and social identity theory, and to lifestyle. Attraction refers to the appeal of doing something, like gastronomic tourism, and centrality to the place gastronomic tourism (or being a foodie) plays in one's life. The four dimensions are:

1. **Food-related identity**: it’s about cooking, not eating! First and foremost, foodies love to cook and that fact is often reflected by their state-of-art kitchens, expenditure on food-related equipment, and food tourism that includes learning and doing.
2. **Social bonding**: To foodies, eating with others gives pleasure, so foodies love to entertain others and to join others in unique, food-related travel experiences; they are, in this way, mostly novelty seekers. Sharing stories, photos, and videos provides a lifetime of after-experience enjoyment.
3. **Quality**: Quality is paramount, a fact that means foodies always prefer fresh and local, take a strong interest in the provenance of food (i.e., where it comes from) shop at farmers’ and fish markets, and cook and eat great meals. For many this also includes a passion for healthy eating. Their interest in provenance motivates many to seek out the farms, fishing villages, and manufacturers of the foods and beverages they enjoy.
4. **Conscientiousness**: Foodies can be picky and conscientious – not just about what they buy and eat, but about how they cook, where they travel, and avoiding waste. This trait might be confused with arrogance or snobbishness, but it is based on values.
Choices, choices!

Foodies are definitely not all the same, as their underlying values, preferences, and identities lead them in many directions, including food-motivated travel. Here are some of the options available that lead to different foodie segments.

*Choices in food interests:* a preference for fresh and local, organic, or ecological, and sustainable food-production practices mark some foodies, and they might very well elect to stay very close to home; others are globetrotting ‘gastronauts’ seeking adventure and novel food experiences – they are the segment coveted by cities and countries around the world.

*Choices in cooking:* foodies can buy or build a state-of-the art kitchen or keep it modest and cheap, the food might be just as good either way; some will prefer to dine out as often as possible, sampling all the great chefs, destination restaurants, and famous culinary hotspots abroad.

*Choices in socializing:* private dinner parties appeal to some foodies, whereas others can join local to international social worlds defined by one or more food interests. Linking online and through social media especially provides identification, bonding, and opens foodies to new, exciting ideas; follow the popular food bloggers, or write about your experiences – everyone can be a media star, at least among friends.

*Lifestyle choices:* Many foodies will not have the income to support the best kitchens, cooking classes, fine dining, or food tourism, yet food can still be central to their lifestyles. Someday the young foodies on a tight budget might become international food tourists.

*Travel choices:* Now that almost every city and country want food tourists, foodies have almost unlimited travel choices. Tourist marketers need research and segmentation to reveal the foodie segments most likely to be attracted, for specific experiences including food events. Communication has to be focused.

Segmenting foodies

So, foodies are not all the same. Robinson, Getz, and Dolnicar (2018), undertook a data-driven analysis of a large number of self-declared foodies. They were particularly interested in whether foodies, who declared an interest in travel, would seek out the same food-related products and experiences. Their analyses revealed four behaviorally distinct groups of foodies. Two of these groups were interesting because they seemed to fulfil their foodie desires without travel – shopping for produce at markets, cooking, dinner parties, and so on. This group, like many other special-interest segments, may well have been constrained by lifecycle (cf. Sigala and Robinson, in production, regarding wine tourism), that is, the ability to travel is limited by family, work, and availability of time and discretionary income. A second group declared an interest in everything – probably a desirability bias. Either way, this intelligence is not of much use to marketers, or destinations.

Two other groups, however, emerged and Robinson et al. (2018) used Bourdieu’s (1984) social distinction thesis to explain these groups. Both groups show strong preferences for active food-related experiences, for example, food and cultural festivals and fairs and tastings. However, one group only also showed a preference for more passive food experiences, for instance, dining at expensive restaurants and degustation of multi-course meals with matching wines; this accords with earlier research (Getz and Robinson 2014a) linking involvement
with food with these behavioral preferences. These passive experiences, of course, are quite a financial investment.

What we learn here is confirmation that foodies love to shop for produce, cook, and attend food fairs and festivals where tasting samples are on offer. What we also learn is that a smaller segment enjoy ‘high-brow’ food experiences, those that accumulate social capital – not gluttonous, but gastronomic experiences. This indeed, is useful intelligence for marketers of food-related products and experiences and food destinations.

Implications for experience design
Those in the business of experience design for foodies, such as event producers, destination marketers, tour companies, restaurateurs, and hoteliers, must understand that the foodie wants something different and special, designed for them. Research has shown what the foodie wants and a conceptual model has been developed, leaving the details of design and implementation to the experience designers.

The model, found in Foodies and Food Tourism, and in the article by Getz and Robinson (2014b) suggests that a typical food or wine event is mostly oriented to consumption (i.e., eating, drinking, buying) and hedonism (i.e., entertainment and fun). Nothing wrong with that! But to appeal to foodies a set of separate experience dimensions are absolutely essential. These are:

Learning, and mastery of techniques: These are the elements found in cooking classes, or wine and food pairing, but might also be key ingredients in visits to markets, restaurants, farms, and vineyards. Foodies are always on the lookout for increased comprehension, not mere facts and figures. Personal development through learning and mastery are hallmarks of the highly involved.

Aesthetic appreciation: If food preparation is an art, then aesthetic appreciation is a part of a foodie’s motivation and a key factor affecting their satisfaction with any experience. This principle can apply to the work of a chef (e.g., “the chef demonstrated sheer artistry with a clever …!”), to the way a meal is served and a dish presented, to the cultural landscapes of agriculture and vineyards, or to the magic of story-telling. Creativity is embodied in this principle, and foodies want to be creative – that is part of their self-identity. Being creative can be facilitated through experimentation in the kitchen, planting and picking, designing recipes and menus, photography, and displays.

Cultural experiences: Foodies who travel are cultural tourists, and they seek authentic cultural experiences (for a pertinent discussion of food and authenticity, see Robinson and Clifford (2007, 2012). Gaining an understanding and appreciation of food and its place in local culture is a strong motivator. Often missing in events and tours is in-depth interpretation, and without it, everything tends to become entertainment or fade into the background, and does not contribute to understanding. Celebration and ritual are also part of the cultural experience, and while these are inherent in festivals, they can be part of many other food experiences. When foodies gather there should be engagement and co-creation of experiences, and this can be encouraged through rituals such as achievement awards, formal presentations by experts, presentation of ‘sacred objects’ (meaning items with symbolic value to foodies), or costumes and pageantry.

When foodies gather, there is communitas: the belonging and sharing that helps define a social world or community of interest (Unruh 1980). This too can be facilitated by the experience designer, but it requires understanding of who the foodie is and what they value.
Implications for planning and evaluation

Goals for developing and marketing gastronomic tourism are often driven by what agriculture, the food industry, hospitality and tourism businesses, cities and destinations want to get out of it: income, profit, jobs, image enhancement, brand recognition, and a broadened portfolio of events and attractions. Success on the supply side of the equation will be measured by reference to market share, economic growth, and competitiveness. All that is to be expected, but even more important are plans and evaluation focused on potential customers, the ones who will be motivated only by specific benefits and will generate high yield, not high volume. In this demand-side approach, there are two absolutely vital goals, and for each of these appropriate evaluation methods and measures can be implemented; they will vary with circumstances.

• Provide food-related experiences that will satisfy the food-lovers’ need to develop and reinforce personal and social identity. The more highly involved will be the most demanding.
• Motivate foodies by creating experiences that manifest hands-on learning, mastery, aesthetic appreciation, creativity, and cultural authenticity.
• As learned through extensive international research, planned events are one of the best ways to attract and satisfy food lovers. Compared to other forms of built attraction and contrived experiences that require heavy investment, events are relatively inexpensive and easy to produce. In particular, the facilitation of bottom-up planning of an event portfolio in cities and destinations can be a strategy that rewards business innovation, reinforces local networking within communities, brings the diverse stakeholders together, and manifests sustainability through a commitment to matching the needs of food lovers with the wishes of the communities that provide the experiences.

Conclusion

A common misperception is to view gastronomic tourism as a supply-side phenomenon, based on what the industry and destinations want. For example, Ellis et al (2018:250) argued:

What is food tourism? As a starting point, from a definition perspective … Hall and Sharples [sic] (2003:10) provides an excellent preliminary understanding of food in tourism which is the major motivation, describing food tourism as ‘visitation to primary and secondary food producers, food festivals, restaurants and specific locations for which food tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of specialist food production region are the primary motivating factor for travel’.

But this definition is incomplete. As this chapter has demonstrated, the logical place to start the theoretical discourse and the practical development work of gastronomic tourism is with the potential customer and especially the foodies. What entrepreneurs and destinations do with this phenomenon is important, but not the complete picture. It is much more than tasting, visiting to places or consumption of host culture, it is part of a food culture all of its own.

The foundations of gastronomic tourism lie in the personal and social identity of food lovers, their involvement with food and how this evolves, and their very specific desired experiences that stress learning, creativity and mastery, aesthetic appreciation, and cultural authenticity and celebration. Gastronomic tourism cannot flourish without a deep understanding of these foundations, and continuing research into the evolving world of foodies.
A foodie's perspective on gastronomic tourism

References


Introduction
Since the initial identification of culinary (or gastronomic) tourism as a potential market segment, researchers have attempted to classify culinary travelers. Some of the classifications have been conceptually focused, drawing on previous theories, but much has been focused on market segmentation, from both academic and non-academic researchers. Segmentation has primarily been determined by asking travelers about a variety of attitudes and behaviors, including: participation in gastronomy activities while traveling, motivation to travel for gastronomy, and attitudes toward gastronomy.

This chapter overviews typologies of culinary travelers, including conceptual classifications and typologies based on empirical research. Culinary traveler typologies have typically included both food activities and beverage activities, and Wolf (2014) used the term ‘food tourism’ to include both food and beverage activities. While it is possible to separate food travelers from beverage travelers (e.g., Ignatov and Smith 2006), this chapter considers beverage travelers to be a subset of culinary travelers. To avoid confusion, the term ‘culinary travelers’ is used throughout to incorporate both food and wine travelers. Further, the terms ‘tourists’ and ‘travelers’ have been used interchangeably by researchers, and there is no distinction made between these two terms in this chapter.

Conceptual typologies of culinary travelers
Conceptual typologies often evolved from a sociological approach. For example, Cohen and Avieli (2004) adapted Cohen’s (1979) tourist typologies to a culinary tourism context by considering attractions of food tourism and how people approach new food. They stated that the “relative strength of the tourist’s neophobic as against neophylic tendencies” could create a culinary typology (2004:759). They proposed that recreational (and diversionary) tourists would be neophobic, caring little about authenticity, while experiential (experimental and existential) tourists would seek authentic experiences and foods. Hjalager (2004) used Bordieu’s (1984) model of consumption patterns and symbolic values to propose a conceptual model of culinary tourism ‘lifestyles’, which included: existentialists, experimentalists, recreationalists, and diversionaries. However, she admitted this proposal was only conceptual.
Hjalager (2003) also wrote an article on the ‘typology of gastronomy tourism but she focused on a typology of ‘value added’ instead of segmenting culinary travelers and did not clearly define typologies (contrary to the title).

Other conceptual frameworks are derived from tourist motivation. Fields (2002) adapted McIntosh et al.’s (1995) motivational categories to propose a typology of culinary traveler motivation. Travelers may be motivated by: 1) physical motivations; 2) cultural motivations; 3) inter-personal motivations; and 4) status and prestige motivations. Hall and Sharples (2003) also considered tourist motivation – in particular the importance of food as a travel motivation. Their continuum ranged from high interest culinary tourists (for whom all or nearly all tourist activities are food related) to low/no interest (visiting a restaurant just because you have to eat). Gourmet tourism, gastronomic tourism, and cuisine tourism fit into the high interest category, where food was a primary motivator. Culinary tourism fit into a category where culinary activities were of moderate interest or secondary motivation. Those in the low interest/motivation category did not fit into a culinary typology. While each of these conceptual typologies provide structure, most have not been tested in empirical research, and actual segmentation using these ‘typologies’ may not be possible.

**Culinary traveler typologies derived from empirical data**

*Single question segmentation approach*

Within empirical culinary tourism research, the first challenge has been to define the subset of ‘culinary travelers’ from all leisure travelers. At the most basic, some researchers have used single-question segmentation. For example, in two different surveys, MacLaurin, Blose, and Mack (2007) and Mack, Blose, and MacLaurin (2009) simply asked whether people consider themselves to be culinary tourists. However, the usefulness of this simple question for segmentation purposes can be questioned, as Mack, Blose, and MacLaurin (2009) found “no meaningful differences in the social value structure of the culinary tourist (when compared to the general tourist)” (2009:6) in Australian or American samples, using Kahle and Kennedy’s (1989) list of values. Another weakness in asking respondents to self-identify as culinary travelers is that the term is not widespread. TIA and Edge (2007) found that under a quarter of leisure travelers had heard of the term ‘culinary tourism.’

Some researchers have used a single question to both determine who is a culinary traveler and to determine culinary traveler typologies. McKercher, Okumus, and Okumus (2008) used a single question because “it is adopted commonly in much [special interest] research” (2008:141). They asked Hong Kong tourists on a five-point Likert-type scale if “I would consider myself to be a culinary tourist, someone who travels to different places to try different foods,” resulting in five groups: definite (10.4% of respondents); likely (29.8%); possible (20.7%); unlikely (30.4%); and non (8.7%). Although they found differences between groups, they argued that “more than anything else, differences can always be found between groups of tourists if one looks hard enough” (2008:146). While they downplayed statistical comparisons, their data found significant differences between typologies in behaviors (e.g., trying the local cuisine is an important reason to visit a destination) and attitudes toward eating food as a way to experience the local culture. More recent research has indicated that food tourism is a long-term trend and not simply ‘the latest special interest tourism fad’ as proposed by McKercher, Okumus, and Okumus (2008:137). Culinary activities have become a prevalent travel motivation, and culinary travelers often participate in both food-related and non-food-related travel activities (Stone and Migacz 2016).
Segmentation by participation in culinary activities

Some researchers have defined culinary travelers as travelers who have taken part in culinary travel activities by asking to choose from a list which culinary travel activities they have participated in. Following Canada’s Travel Activities and Motivation Survey (TAMS) (Statistics Canada 2000) and Lang Research (2001), Ignatov and Smith (2006) identified ‘food tourists’ as those who had participated in at least two food travel activities from two lists. They also separated food tourists from both ‘wine tourists’ and ‘food and wine tourists’ (who had participated in both food and wine activities). Several large studies of American leisure travelers used a similar approach (but different lists of activities). Travel Industry Association (TIA & Edge) (2007) found that 17% of American leisure travelers has taken part in at least one culinary travel activity in the past three years, and they identified these as culinary travelers. This study was supported by the International Culinary Tourism Association (now the World Food Travel Association or WFTA), as was a study by Mandala et al. (2013), which used a similar approach. The 2013 study found that 77% of Americans would be considered culinary travelers. However, as more travelers participate in culinary tourism, there is evidence this method may no longer clearly delineate culinary travelers, because nearly every traveler would be considered a culinary traveler.

TIA and Edge (2007) defined the typologies of ‘deliberate’, ‘opportunistic’, and ‘accidental’ culinary travelers, which attempted to divide travelers based on their travel motivations and actual travel behaviors. Those who had taken part in at least one culinary travel activity in the past three years were ‘culinary travelers,’ and tourists were divided by the centrality of food travel in their trips.

For deliberate culinary travelers (4.8% of leisure travelers; 48% of culinary travelers), food activities were a key reason for taking a trip or helped them choose between destinations. Opportunistic culinary travelers (3.0%; 30%) had taken at least one trip where they sought food activities but they did not impact destination choice. Accidental culinary travelers (2.3%; 23%) participated in food activities because they were available. Others (90%) were not considered culinary travelers. Using these questions, Mandala et al. (2013) found that deliberates had increased to 30% of American leisure travelers; opportunistic, 26%; and accidental, 19%. Only 25% were non-culinary travelers.

While the three typologies seem logical, they may not represent a consistent behavior. In other words, as long as a person had taken one trip in the past three years for culinary reasons, they would be considered a deliberate culinary traveler. In analyzing behavioral questions, there were many areas that did not show three significantly different segments. For example, deliberate and opportunistic travelers were statistically more likely to cite many culinary attributes when choosing a destination. This suggests that these two segments may possibly represent a more distinct classification. In fact, TIA and Edge (2007) used the term ‘serious’ culinary travelers for combining deliberate and opportunistic segments together.

Segmentation by motivation to participate in culinary activities

Research from Ontario Ministry of Tourism Culture and Sport (n.d.) also identified three similar segments of culinary tourists. In the top tier, they stated that about 10% of travelers plan trips based on food. Eighty per cent include food in their itinerary but it was not a primary motivator, and about 10% make an unplanned stop to eat. Sánchez-Cañizares and Lopez-Guzmán (2012) considered the role that cuisine played in their decision to visit Cordoba (Spain). It could be: (1) a principal reason; (2) important, but not the first reason; or (3) secondary reason.
In analyzing differences, the first two categories were generally more knowledgeable about local wines than the third segment. Murray (2008) was also a proponent of motivational segmentation; however, he suggested that researchers should focus only on the primary reason for travel, rather than just considering food as one of the reasons to travel.

Complex and advanced approaches to segmentation

In a study for the World Food Travel Association, Stone and Migacz (2016) found that 95% of American leisure travelers had participated in a food travel activity in the past two years, a large increase over previous studies. This provides strong evidence that interest in culinary tourism had increased overwhelmingly, and that the previous approach is no longer appropriate because nearly every traveler would be a culinary traveler. Therefore, they expanded the definition of culinary travelers to be leisure travelers who both “[1] participated in a unique or memorable food and drink experience while travelling” and for whom “[2] food and drink activities are a prime motivator in choosing a destination.” (Stone and Migacz 2016:27). They found 47% of American leisure travelers were culinary travelers, and there were significant differences between culinary travelers and non-culinary travelers in most food travel behaviors and attitudes.

Cluster analysis is a more detailed approach used in culinary traveler segmentation. In an early example, Shenoy (2005) used cluster analysis to separate culinary tourists from experiential tourists, and general tourists, but did not create typologies of culinary tourism. In a sample of Australians interested in food, Getz et al. (2014) used cluster analysis to analyze the data, finding three categories of ‘foodies’. Dynamic foodies (n=350) travel the most and had past participation in food-related events. Active foodies (n=1040) do not travel as much and food is not as important in decision-making and trip satisfaction. Passive foodies (n=1430) may be food lovers, but not particularly food travelers. They determined that dynamic foodies were an obvious target for food tourism, as 80% have travelled for food-related reasons. However, their study considered a broader range of foodie interests and behaviors than just travel activities. While these categories do not directly equate to culinary travelers, this research provided a possible basis for segmentation.

In a Canadian survey, Tourism Research Centre (TRC) (2010) asked 13 questions on participation in culinary activities while traveling and 13 questions on food-related activities as ‘main reason or motivator’ for traveling. Cluster analysis resulted in 4 typologies: 1) deliberate culinary tourists (or foodies) had a high involvement in activities and motivation to travel for food activities (15% of all respondents); 2) opportunistic culinary tourists had a high involvement in activities, but lower motivation to travel for food (39%); 3) accidental culinary tourists (40%) participated in food-related activities by chance and are not motivated by food; and 4) uninterested culinary tourists (6%) who reported no involvement in culinary tourism activities. These typologies were similar to TIA and Edge (2007), but TRC (2010) used multi-items instead of a single item to determine a traveler’s categorization. Yun, Hennessey, and MacDonald (2011) expanded on this dataset. They found differences in the groups, stating that the clusters have “very different levels of participation” in many activities (2011:10). However, they also stated that deliberate and opportunistic tourists “look similar in terms of participation … and can therefore be considered ‘serious’ culinary tourists” (2011:11). Further, they also identified subsets of culinary tourists using cluster analysis: culinary based, culinary-oriented, and familiarity-oriented tourists based on food-related behavior at home and when travelling. These overlapped with the other three categories.

With a sample of visitors to Charleston (SC, U.S.), MacLaurin, Blose, and Mack (2007) used cluster analysis among a self-identified group of culinary tourists and identified three...
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clusters (which they did not name). There were some differences in the clusters, but they concluded that “while these differences may confirm that some separate, market segments exist among culinary tourists, the results really provide no evidence of important, distinguishing characteristics between the segments” (2007:6). However, they did find that there is a group of travelers they named ‘culinary generalists’, who are “particularly enthusiastic about a wide variety of culinary tourism activities” (2007:7). Results showed self-perceived culinary tourists agreed more strongly with food-related questions when compared to the self-perceived non-culinary tourists. These individuals may equate to ‘culinary travelers’ or ‘serious culinary travelers’ from other scales. Culinary generalists tended to be ‘innovators’ based on the domain specific innovativeness scale (Goldsmith and Hofacker 1991, modified for tourism by Litvin, Goh, and Goldsmith 2001). In a related study, Mack, Blose, and MacLaurin (2007) found that dividing the culinary tourism segment into innovators and non-innovators revealed some significant differences on social values between the two categories.

A few research studies have considered behavioral or psychographic segmentation. In 2010, the International Culinary Tourism Association (now the World Food Travel Association) released a report of the results of a survey of over 11,000 travelers worldwide. They identified PsychoCulinary® profiles, which separated travelers based on their behaviors and motivations. Thirteen categories emerged from the data: adventurer, ambiance, authentic, budget, eclectic, gourmet, innovative, localist, novice, organic, social, trendy, and vegetarian (WFTA, n.d.). These categories likely provide the broadest insight into understanding the types of foods, experiences, and activities a traveler would enjoy. However, it is possible that an individual may vary between categories depending on the situation. For example, a cultural omnivore may prefer gourmet experiences, but also seek out adventurous or local experiences on occasion. Another utilization of behavioral segmentation by S. L. Smith and presented in a keynote address of the Perth County Tourism Summit (cited in Getz et al, 2015) was based on the Canadian Tourism Commission’s 2007 TAMS survey. An analysis of food tourists who had taken part in at least three food-related activities in the past two years resulted in the following segmentation: dining (40.2%); celebrating (24.6%); sampling (16.4%); rural experiences (12.9%); and learning (5.7%).

Related typologies

While Ignatov and Smith (2006) separated ‘food and wine tourists’ from ‘food tourists’, many studies (e.g., TIA and Edge 2007; Stone and Migacz 2016) considered beverage tourists to be a subset of culinary travelers. While this article does not review wine traveler typologies in detail, there are some parallels in culinary traveler typologies. Charters and Ali-Knight (2002) segmented Western Australian tourists based on three-dimensions: purpose of visit, general motivation, and relationship to other tourist activities. Within motivation, they created a continuum: hangers-on, wine novices, wine interested, and wine lovers. These can be compared to the categories of culinary travelers, as can the four typologies of ‘gastro-oenological’ visitors identified by Bitsani and Kavoura (2012): the wine-friendly, the beginner, the occasional visitor, and the tourist.

Conclusion and recommendations for future research

At the beginning of the culinary travel phenomenon, it was useful and simple to separate travelers based on past participation in culinary travel activities (e.g., TIA and Edge 2007). However, now that unique culinary activities have become an integral part of nearly every traveler’s experience, it seems that utilization of previous activities to create a typology may
be limited (Stone and Migacz 2016). Thus, to determine who is a culinary traveler likely requires consideration of motivations and attitudes, rather than just activity participation.

Different studies (e.g., TIA and Edge 2007; TRC 2010) have identified three categories of culinary travelers (with a fourth ‘non-culinary traveler’ segment). While the exact definitions and methodologies differed, these can be generally categorized as high-, moderate- or low-interest, and/or participation in culinary travel activities. When analyzing behavioral questions, there have often been significant differences between some segments, yet for many attitudes or behaviors there were not three statistically different segments.

It is possible that a two-category segmentation may be superior, as a simple definition of highly-involved culinary travelers may currently be the best way to separate those with a culinary interest from other leisure travelers. MacLaurin, Blose, and Mack (2007) identified an ‘enthusiastic’ segment who was particularly interested in culinary tourism activities, while Research Resolutions & Consulting (2003) working for the Canadian Tourism Commission used the term ‘wine and culinary enthusiasts’ for high intensity wine/culinary travelers. TIA (2007) and Yun, Hennessey, and MacDonald (2011) combined ‘deliberate’ and ‘opportunistic’ together and labelled them ‘serious’ culinary tourists. Mandala et al (2013) found that deliberate and opportunistic culinary travelers were statistically similar when answering questions about travel motivations.

Stone and Migacz (2016) identified a clear distinction between culinary travelers and others. They found that asking how important the availability of food and drink (or food- and drink-related activities) were as a motivator when selecting a travel destination could separate travelers into ‘culinary’ and ‘non-culinary’ travelers. There were statistical differences between these two groups in many attitudinal and behavioral questions, providing evidence that these were two distinct segments. However, as culinary tourism continues to grow in popularity and as a travel motivation, it is likely that other more detailed segments will evolve. For example, researchers may seek to identify ‘passive’ culinary travelers who prefer dining experiences and ‘active’ culinary travelers who prefer festivals, events, and cooking classes.

Overall, there has been limited application of theoretical concepts (e.g., Cohen and Avieli 2004; Fields 2002) into empirical research on culinary traveler typologies, leaving great potential for future studies. Using a list of general ways to segment markets could be possibly be used to better clarify culinary tourism typologies. Purpose of travel; buyer needs, motivations, and benefits sought; and other behavioral characteristics could potentially be used to identify typologies. Purpose of travel may consider centrality of culinary activities in both the destination decisions (which has been considered), but also daily activities. While some research (e.g., WFTA n.d.) has considered buyer needs and benefits, research could better consider aspects from Cohen and Avieli (2004), Hjalager (2004), and Fields (2002), such as prestige, experiencing novel foods, or social needs. Characteristics of product usage could also consider frequency of participation in food travel activities to develop typologies based on usage rate. This could create grids of travelers (e.g., combining frequency and centrality of culinary travel activities in the trip experience) that would be theoretically driven and practically useful by destination marketers. Research to date has provided a framework for research, but there is still a great opportunity to better categorize culinary travelers.

References

Typologies of gastronomic travelers


The servicescape: conceptual framework

The original conceptual framework developed by Bitner (1992) defines the servicescape as the built environment surrounding the service. According to the original idea, there are three perceived environmental dimensions: the ambient conditions (temperature, odor, noise, music, etc.), the functional space (layout, furnishings, etc.), and the signs, symbols and artifacts (signage, décor, etc.). In this original meaning, people (employees and customers) respond to these stimuli by approaching or avoiding the perceived servicescape.

Bitner (1992) defines restaurants as an elaborate combination of physical objects where takes place a complex system of interpersonal activities, according to individual behaviors and social interactions. The model, however, focuses the attention on the physical environment and its influence on individual and social behaviors.

Wakefield and Blodgett (1996) focus their attention on leisure service settings (like restaurants), establishing some interesting elements to enhance the perceived quality of servicescape: layout accessibility; facility aesthetics; seating comfort; electronic equipment and displays; cleanliness.

Some other authors tried to refine the elements of servicescape to investigate: for example, Lucas (2003) focuses his attention also on ambient conditions, like interior climate, visual graphics, music and lighting level.

Ryu and Jang (2007) coined the word ‘dinescape’ to evaluate the specific servicescape of restaurants; the authors proposed to explore the following physical dimensions: facility aesthetics; lighting; ambience; layout; dining equipment.

Lee et al. (2015) resumed the physical factors that may have influence on the servicescape of restaurants. The first element to consider is the aesthetics: it could encompass several aspects like the architecture, the interior décor, the style followed for themed restaurants, the peculiar display of artifacts and signs; the use of colors. The ambient conditions also play an important role like temperature, aroma, background music, and lighting. Other elements are specific of restaurants like the utilization of space (aisles, seating spaces), the tableware, the seating comfort, and the cleanliness.

To sum up, the originality of the conceptual structure of the servicescape is to propose a holistic and interdependent view of several physical elements that may affect customers’ choices whenever they decide or not to return to a place of consumption.
Some considerations on the elements of servicescape in a restaurant

In the original conceptual framework of servicescape, the first elements that come in evidence are the physical ones; they communicate very different feelings to the restaurant’s guests, so as to transform an anonymous space to a lived place.

Therefore, the first contact with the servicescape is with the five senses: first, the eyesight perceives architectural and décor elements, then the smell for odors and the hearing for noises and music, usually later the touch, often only when seated. Finally, the taste when eating, maybe confirming and enhancing the sensations perceived until that moment from the surrounding environment, or, on the contrary, changing suddenly the idea of the place, if the meal does not correspond to the image conveyed.

The different elements that make up the servicescape are perceived as one, filtered through the lenses of each single guest, who interprets it through his or her own culture and tastes. Some of these elements should be better focused to allow some general considerations.

At first glance, a strategic element of the servicescape is the architecture of the restaurant and of its interior décor. Steadman (2002) points out on the symbolic meanings of a place to generate attachment and satisfaction with an individual or a group.

According to Urry and Larsen (2011), the architecture of a place (and its interior décor) made to attract the tourist (guest in the case of restaurants) gaze could be classified broadly in a ‘consumerist postmodernism’ style or in a (re)discovery of classical and traditional forms. Postmodern consumerism includes some features like space theming, building from juxtaposition of styles, creating malls where the consumer lives in an artificial world. On the other hand, there is an architectural tendency that seeks to retrieve classical and pre-modern styles, strongly characterized by popular and ethnic characteristics.

The debate over the last few years has expanded to include the concept of ‘place branding’ as a complex network of associations in the consumers’ mind based on their feelings and behaviors (Zenker and Braun 2010).

In food experiences, there are different approaches to the environment, ranging from the so-called ‘culinary bubbles’ (Cohen and Avieli 2004), in which customers enjoy a certain degree of familiarity, to the transformation of places into ‘sensescapes’, where many polysensory cues are related to food, meals, and gastronomy (Berg and Sevón 2014), aiming to create a unique experience for the guests.

So, a tendency to reproduce environments in a standardized way (fast foods, restaurant chains, etc.) can create affection in some types of customers (psychocentrics or dependables), while others (allocentrics or venturers) are looking for new original environmental stimuli, new stylistic shapes that can capture their gaze.

Then, having walked into the restaurant, there are several things to consider, such as furnishings, equipment, artifacts, temperature, lighting, music, and scent; obviously, these elements may or may not confirm the first impressions, enhancing the positive experience, or creating negative feelings. The visual impact within the place to eat meals takes on a strategic connotation; the choice of which artifacts, symbols, and signs to convey to customers can immediately affect their perception of the place.

For instance, Rafaeli and Vilnai-Yavetz (2004) point out about the three different impacts of physical artifacts on emotions: instrumentality (hygienic process), aesthetics (sensory process), and symbolism (associative process).

Sobal and Wansink (2007) coined some terms to classify the microscale food environments: kitchenscapes, the rooms with the primary purpose of cooking and eating; tablescape, the furniture from which food is consumed (the authors more generically coined the word
furniturescapes); platescapes, all food and drink containers, table sets and instruments; finally, foodscape, the facade of particular edible things (like size, shape texture, colors, and other qualities of foods).

Another element that affects both consumer and workers is linked to the room density; according to Hanks et al. (2017), the human density (densely or sparsely populated), and the built density (number of seats, distance between tables, etc.) are the parameters to evaluate the density-based perceptions. One of the most interesting suggestions provided by the authors concerns the manipulation of the two parameters by restaurant owners: in family casual restaurants, it is important to have a dense built environment, but sparse in terms of people; in fine dining restaurants and in sports bars, on the contrary, for many different reasons, density is not a significant factor.

About sounds, in an early study, Milliman (1986) highlights that, with a slow-tempo background music, patrons will stay longer and will consume more alcoholic beverages. Caldwell and Hibbert (2002) support the idea that although music tempo may be associated with time spent in service, music preference is a more valid explanation of the relationship between music and behavior. Mattila and Wirtz (2001) hypothesize a link between music and ambient scent, pointing to the necessity that these two environmental stimuli are consistent with each other. Oakes et al. (2013) show that music may elicit positive or negative memories, so to transcend time and space; in addition, a decision to exclude music is not always neutral and may have an impact upon affective and cognitive responses.

Other components of servicescape are relevant for the customer’s experience like odor and scent, lighting, colors, and temperature, but they have so far been less studied in academic literature.

Regarding odors and scents, Gulasand Bloch (1995), in one of the earlier studies on the matter, proposed a model regarding the influence of ambient scent on consumers, highlighting the steps from the objective ambient scent to the perceived one, in which come into play the individual preferences (based on individual characteristics, physiological predispositions and past experience). At this point, there are affective responses by customers so to result in approach or avoidance reactions relevant to the consumption situation.

Spangenberg et al. (1996) show that it is very important the presence of the scent, but the nature of the scent itself appears to be less important; furthermore, the authors state that subjects in the scented condition perceived that they had spent less time in the store than subjects in the no-scent conditions. However, we have to note that Teller and Dennis (2012) point out that scents do not affect any variable considered of consumer behavior, in contradiction with prior studies.

**Moving beyond or enhancing the concept of servicescape**

The original idea, perhaps a bit too aseptic, of the servicescape, has been questioned or even rejected by some authors, especially because it does not take into account the human factor and the peculiarities of the places where it occurs. In this sense, Clark and Schmidt (1995), call into question the concept of ‘servuction’ to highlight the importance of human interaction. Furthermore, they recall the crucial geographical definition of place. In the concluding remarks, the authors state that customers have both an experience based on environmental encounters and service encounters, so it is necessary to generate congruence between the two types of encounter, giving a certain degree of interactivity between them.

Aubert-Gamet and Cova (1999) highlight an even more critical position, affirming that the servicescape is, in its current meaning, a product of the “post-modern mist”, with a relevant
role in changing some places into modern non-places. The authors focus their study on the progressive loss of the linking function of services to the market place as a meeting place, a site of communications and social exchange. The link between service and community could be restored, only understanding that servicescape should be more flexible and less standardized, so the managerial point of view would cope with the social one.

The idea of servicescape as a simple container of certain physical or intangible features begins, therefore, to seem too narrow, lacking in interaction with the surrounding environment. The place where the service is carried out and the community in which it is immersed have a strategic importance to determine successful practices for attracting customers. Relph (1976) points out that for everyone there is a deep association with the places where they have had experiences, so to constitute a vital source of both individual and cultural identity, a starting point to orient themselves in the world. Entrikin (1994) extends this vision by highlighting the role of mental places, either as symbols or metaphors, or as a narrative, generated and superimposed over time. Paasi (2004), discussing the scale of phenomena, emphasizes the fact that the place is perceived as a flexible category to cope with the globalization, and with the construction of subjectivities.

Translating these thoughts into marketing, Warnaby and Medway (2013) underline that marketers often try to limit the variants of their product through standardization, so the place is merely the final product of their work. However, places remain a complex system of competing and interconnected narratives. So, the place product should be regarded as a dynamic concept, composed as much from changing and competing narratives in and over time, as it is from its tangible and material elements. In this sense, marketers should involve a bottom-up approach as opposed to the more usual top-down methodology to place marketing.

According to Walls et al. (2011) the consumer experience is a blend of physical experience, human interaction, individual characteristics, and situational factors; the authors point out that consumers are no longer inert purchasers but rather co-producers who actively build their own consumption experiences through interactions with the environment, sellers, and other consumers.

Two studies of Edwards and Gustafsson (2008a,b) focus their attention on the ‘Five Aspects Meal Model’ (FAMM), a model that enhances the perspective of the servicescape, including the physical, human and technical aspects. According to the authors, the starting point is the room corresponding to the servicescape. The second aspect is the meeting, which encompasses the interaction not only between customers and service staff, but also those between customers and between members of staff. The product aspect consists of the separate and combined foods and beverages that are served. The management comprises several different tasks, such as logistics, business, marketing, work organization, etc. Finally, in this model, the atmosphere plays a strategic role, transforming each different physical place in a particular place where the meal is perceived as an experiential entirety, not a mere sum of its elements.

In attempt to enhance the concept of servicescape, Rosenbaum and Massiah (2011) highlight the four environmental dimensions forming the perceived servicescape: physical, social, socially symbolic and natural. Starting from the physical dimension, the first considered in the servicescape model, the authors expand the framework, including the human interactions, the ethnic signs, symbols and artifacts, and the restorative qualities, which help customers assuage negative symptoms associated with fatigue (stress, burnout, etc.). The authors assert that the last dimension, the natural one, conceptually very innovative, connected directly to customer health, so to assert that service firms may possess natural stimuli that are restorative to human wellbeing, helping people remedy symptoms associated with mental fatigue.
Enlarging the concept of servicescape, new ideas about the necessary link between services, surrounding environment and communities, come from some studies conducted on event tourism. Lee et al. (2008) coined the term ‘festivalscape’ as a playful and unique consumption environment, affecting the hotel industry, attracting international tourist, sometimes a powerful tool to fix aesthetic problems of city image. According to the authors, their study identified seven dimensions representing festivalscape cues: convenience, staff, information, program content, facilities, souvenirs, and food quality. They state that festival planners and managers should develop unique programs with culturally relevant and interesting performances, experiences, and contests; moreover, food quality and facilities are elements of particular relevance. An immaterial feature to consider theoretical findings involves the role of emotion, which determines both patron satisfaction and loyalty.

An interesting case study about festivalscape is the ‘Gola Gola Food and People Festival’ held in Parma; the first version took place in 2016, and having been good success, it would become an annual event in the town.

Parma is a provincial capital in the north of the Emilia Romagna region, with just under 200,000 residents (194,417 inhabitants in 2017), marked by a long and relevant political and economic history, spanning over several centuries. In particular, the food industries denote quality products in the processing of cured meats (Parma ham), cheeses (Parmesan cheese), and pastas, to have the appellative of ‘Food Valley’ (Quintelli 2011).

Strengthening this orientation on food industry, the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA), an agency funded by the European Union, has installed its headquarters in Parma from 2002. Furthermore, since 2015, Parma became a member of the network of creative cities of UNESCO in the field of gastronomy, the first in Italy to join this list.

The city of Parma has a long tradition in organizing events, especially in the field of music (for instance, the Verdi Festival, an annual event dedicated to the famous composer), but also on gastronomic themes (like the yearly Festival del Prosciutto in September). A great gastronomic event seemed to be missing in the review of city events, especially since the success of the town participation at the Expo2015 in Milan with an important partnership between public and private actors and the acquisition of the creative cities label by UNESCO in the same year.

The first edition of ‘Gola Gola Food and People Festival’ in June 2016 for three days saw many different activities spread all around the city of Parma, coordinated by a Promoter Committee. The program included cooking shows, talk shows about food, music events, scientific speeches, and two different kinds of market, one for local products and the other with different Italian specialties from different regions, etc.

Regarding the servicescape, all events took place near the most relevant buildings and squares, with surrounding music (especially classic music), with different places to eat ranging from simple tastings to full meals. In particular, it is important to highlight that there was an area dedicated to street food with about 30 food trucks. In the immediate vicinity, another area, on the sides of the TeatroRegio, was chosen as a location for a gourmet restaurant with high quality of dishes and singing and instrumental performances dedicated to Verdi, recreating a nineteenth-century café-chantant. The main difficulty was therefore to try to recreate different
atmospheres that could capture the attention of different types of visitors by helping with physical, but also immaterial features.

The idea of mixing traditional elements of local gastronomic culture with the opening to different flavors, even radically different, so as to reach a world-leading role in the field of gastronomy has been further developed in 2017 version of ‘Gola Gola Festival’ (also held in June for three days).

The festival gained more space, choosing to have some events also in the popular district, named Oltretorrente (or Parma Vecchia). A square in this district, a much poorer area of the city center needing an urgent urban regeneration, was chosen as the location of a restaurant set up as a traditional tavern, in which a famous chef prepared local recipes using typical products.

The festivalscape has also strengthened the experiences regarding odor, especially with smells coming from two corners, one set up as a bakery and the second as a spice market. The idea of creating a gastronomic festival with different aspects, in which the servicescape has to adapt to the different contexts proposed, can certainly raise doubts. Trying to recreate the typical local atmospheres and mixing them with innovative and cosmopolitan concepts, one might come to the opposite effect, confusing the visitor’s mind and representing only a large temporary leisure amusement park.

Actually, in the two versions of ‘Gola Gola Festival’, according to the official website, there have been 100,000 and 110,000 visitors, respectively in the first and in the second iteration, but in the future festivals, it will be necessary to maintain a certain quality of events and avoid the temptation of crowding too much the program.

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**Some concluding remarks**

The servicescape, as an original concept, an entire system that includes all physical elements, is fundamental to analyze the relationship between environment and customers. There is, however, an increasing necessity to enlarge this idea, including in it also the interactions with the social environment, able to capture the whole of a living idea, not a motionless one.

Therefore, there is a new direction of investigation about servicescape, in which geographical and social determinants should be considered, moving from a ‘staged authenticity’ (MacCannell 1973) to a real tourism experience (Quan and Wang 2004), so customers could plunge themselves into a highly motivating and memorable event, able to restore their happiness away from daily routines.

More studies on servicescape, in this enhanced vision, could help not only to lay a new path for research on the complex relationships between a service and its surrounding environment, but also to strengthen entrepreneurial and managing decisions when structuring their service.

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**References**


Introduction

Gastronomic tourism continues to grow in popularity for both researchers and destinations in the field (Dreyer and Stoeckl 2017). With that said, little has been empirically tested as the key determinants of gastronomic tourism in the context of Malaysia. While cuisine and flavors from Southeast Asia have long been popular around the globe, little evidence has been provided in the literature to date on the importance of gastronomic tourism for travelers to Malaysia as well as whether particular gastronomic attributes can be categorized as satisfiers, dis-satisfiers, or delighters.

Thus, this chapter considers key determinants of gastronomic tourism in the context of Malaysia tourism. Specifically, the chapter provides an overview of Malaysian tourism, Malaysian gastronomic expectations, and addresses the following: How important are various elements of gastronomy as tourism drivers? How do prior expectations impact expectation fulfillment? What gastronomic tourism attributes are drivers for the potential for return visits? And, do gastronomic attributes represent varying attribute categories?

Thus, the chapter used methods and outcomes to assess gastronomic attribute categories as drivers of anticipated satisfiers, dis-satisfiers, and unanticipated delighters (‘wow factors’). This chapter provides an explanation of a conceptual framework outlining these connections and concepts that were tested using Malaysia as the context based on tourists in Kuala Lumpur. The chapter concludes with insights implications, future research, and tools that can be used by both practitioners and scholars in the field.

Background – Malaysian culture, regions, and food

Malaysia is located in Southeast Asia and consists of thirteen states and three federal territories. Malaysia is separated by the South China Sea into two similarly sized regions, Peninsular Malaysia and East Malaysia (Malaysian Borneo), sharing a border with Thailand on the north and maritime borders with Singapore, Vietnam, and Indonesia. East Malaysia shares land and maritime borders with Brunei and Indonesia and a maritime border with the Philippines and Vietnam (Baten 2016).
In 1511, Portugal claimed the Straits of Melaka, bringing Roman Catholicism to the region. Later, the Dutch took over Melaka from the Portuguese in 1641 (McWilliams 2007). The first British territories were known as the Straits Settlements, whose establishment was followed by the Malay kingdoms becoming British protectorates. The territories on Peninsular Malaysia were first unified as the Malayan Union in 1946. Malaya was restructured as the Federation of Malaya in 1948, and achieved independence 1957. Malaya united with North Borneo, Sarawak, and Singapore in 1963 to become Malaysia. Less than two years later in 1965, Singapore was expelled from the federation (Baten 2016).

With a population of over 30 million, its cuisine reflects the multiethnic and multicultural population. The majority of the population is ethnically Malay, with very large minorities of Malaysian Chinese, Malaysian Indians, and indigenous peoples (e.g., Sabah, Sarawak etc.). As a result of its colonization, geographical location, and diversity, Malaysia’s culinary style is a potpourri of Malay, Chinese, Indian, Indonesian, Thai, Portuguese, Dutch, and British cuisine (Bindloss and Bresh 2008).

Malaysia’s gastronomic culture is influenced heavily by its three largest population categories. Population projections in 2017 show that the Malays comprise a total of 68.8%, Chinese 23.2%, and the Indians 7.0% of the total population respectively, and the remaining part of the population consists of these indigenous groups: Orang Asli, Dayaks, Kadazan, and others – known as MCIO (Malay, Chinese, Indian, and Other) (Department of Statistics 2016:40). Of course, MCIO was not such a simple construct, since the Malay, Chinese and Indian peoples were themselves formed from diverse groups and categories (Yoshino 2002).

Beginning in the British colonial period of Malaysian history, many of ethnic inhabitants of Malaysia whose families had migrated from the India, China, and elsewhere began to share their cultural cuisine. During the colonial period, the three main groups were sharply divided into economic sectors, with Malays in the countryside cultivating rice, the Chinese (mostly in the cities) engaged in commerce, industry, and tin-mining, and Indians on the rubber plantations. These groups gave rise to what Furnivall called a “plural society” (Furnival 1967). Malays have been referenced as a hybrid ethnicity (Yoshino 1999). Several sub-groups within Malaysia also have significant influence on the cuisine within the MCIO population. Specifically, the cultural Chinese in Malaysia use the Mandarin, Hokkien, Cantonese, Hakka, and Teochew languages. Although the use of Mandarin and its Northern Chinese roots are a relatively modern phenomenon along with its influence on Malaysian Chinese and cooking, it is increasing accepted amongst Malaysian Chinese as the language of choice. Indians, as well, are divided into groups depending on religion (Hindu, Christian, Muslim, Sikh, etc.) or place of origin (Indian Tamils, Malayalis, Telugus, Sikhs, including Punjabis, Pakistanis, Bangladeshis, Sri Lankan Tamils, and other Sri Lankans). These groups were formed into monolithic categories of Malays, Chinese, and Indians at the time of a census of Malayan Federated States taken in 1911. The population census and the various administrative institutions that were established during the colonial period served to institutionalize and fix in place the Malay, Chinese, and Indian categories (Yoshino 2002).

**Framework for assessing gastronomic tourism relationships**

Figure 19.1 provides an outline of the relationships tested in the chapter in the context of Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. These relationships include the impact of gastronomic tourism attribute importance and prior expectations on level of perceived fulfillment, and the relationship between gastronomic tourism attribute type (satisfier, dis-satisfier, or delighter) with enticement level to revisit Malaysia.
Based on earlier studies and models related to attribute quality-satisfaction relationships, the following hypotheses emerged that assess the impact of gastronomic tourism attributes in Malaysia on expectation fulfillment, the role and interaction with importance, and mediation effects (Brechan 2006; Kano et al. 1984). These hypothesized relationships are provided below and discussed in the sections that follow.

**H1a:** The importance of gastronomic tourism attributes is directly related to attribute expectation fulfillment level.

**H1b:** Prior expectations of gastronomic tourism attributes is directly related to attribute expectation fulfillment level.

**H2:** The interaction of importance and prior expectation levels is associated with expectation fulfillment levels.

**H3:** Prior expectations will mediate the relationship between importance and expectation fulfillment of gastronomic tourism attributes.

**H4:** Specific gastronomic tourism attributes will be perceived as differing in attribute category or type.

**H5:** Gastronomic tourism attributes categorized as satisfiers and delighters will have the strongest impact on enticement to revisit.

### Attribute categories

Several models have been developed to assess relationships between an attribute quality and its impact on consumer behaviors, usually assessed using satisfaction level. Arguably, the most prominent model has been Kano’s quality-satisfaction model of attribute types (Kano et al. 1984). While recent hospitality and tourism studies have used Kano’s model as a basis of analysis and used varying methods to assess the quality-satisfaction relationship, most lack validity (Mikulić and Prebežac 2016) or use inaccurate methods for modeling theorized relationships (Chen 2012; Lin, Yang, Chan and Sheu 2010).

A key chapter purpose was to assess the relationships among gastronomic tourism attribute quality and the effect on enticement for revisits to Malaysia. Rather than using Kano’s model specifically, this chapter builds on earlier work that described the attribute categories as having a hierarchical nature and described as dis-satisfiers, satisfiers, and delighters (Brechan 2006). Second, this chapter uses moderated regression approaches to more closely model these attribute categories based on linear and curvilinear effects (Chen 2012; Lin et al. 2010). This process enhances our understanding of the Malaysian gastronomic tourism experience by identifying drivers of customer outcomes. Based on these objectives, the following methods were used to test the hypotheses.
Methods

Data was collected using a survey instrument in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. Prior to development of the survey and location selection, the authors completed a series of interviews and a literature review. A pre-test using faculty, students, and other participants was performed. The final survey contained 46 items using a 5-point Likert-type scale with sections on the importance of gastronomic attributes as a tourism pull to the region, expectations of various tourism activities, fulfillment of these activities, gastronomic activities with the greatest potential to entice return visits, likelihood of a return visit, and related questions (see Table 19.1).

For this exploratory study, a total of 200 participants were surveyed. Of the total, 49% were male and 51% were female. Participants represented more than 27 countries and included a range of ages, and travel group sizes. Data analysis was performed using SPSS 24 for Windows™.

Data analysis

To test hypotheses 1 to 3, direct, moderating, and mediating relationships were analyzed as diagramed in Figure 19.1. Moderators impact either the direction or strength of the connection between an independent variable and a dependent variable. Mediation exists when an antecedent variable induces an outcome through an intervening variable (Baron and Kenny 1986:1176).

Hypothesis-1–3 results

Table 19.2 provides tests of the direct and moderating effects of prior gastronomic expectations and gastronomic attributes’ importance on level of expectation fulfillment. To test Hypotheses 1 and 2, two hierarchical regression analyses were completed; one with prior gastronomic expectations and gastronomic attributes’ importance entered first (Step 1) followed by the interaction term (Step 2).

Hypothesis 1a received weak support and 1b received strong support. In Step 1, prior expectations and importance accounted for 30% of the variance with level of expectation fulfillment as the dependent variable ($R^2 = .30$, $p < .001$). There was a significant direct relationship between prior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Importance</th>
<th>Prior Expectations</th>
<th>Expectation Fulfillment</th>
<th>Revisit Enticement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Traditional dishes of the region</td>
<td>3.89 (1.14)</td>
<td>3.67 (1.06)</td>
<td>3.68 (1.06)</td>
<td>3.95 (1.08)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine dining</td>
<td>3.06 (1.29)</td>
<td>3.01 (1.06)</td>
<td>3.01 (1.06)</td>
<td>3.09 (1.31)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional wines</td>
<td>2.43 (1.36)</td>
<td>2.57 (1.29)</td>
<td>2.57 (1.29)</td>
<td>2.20 (1.11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authentic food product can be purchased</td>
<td>3.72 (1.09)</td>
<td>3.55 (1.05)</td>
<td>3.56 (1.05)</td>
<td>3.77 (1.07)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authentic food product on the restaurant menu and wine lists</td>
<td>3.92 (1.08)</td>
<td>3.55 (.97)</td>
<td>3.55 (.97)</td>
<td>3.49 (1.11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand mean</td>
<td>3.40 (1.19)</td>
<td>3.27 (1.09)</td>
<td>3.27 (1.09)</td>
<td>3.30 (1.14)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Malaysian gastronomic tourism

Table 19.2  Moderated multiple regression analysis: expectation fulfillment as DV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Step 1</th>
<th>Step 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prior expectations</td>
<td>.53***</td>
<td>.91***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gastronomy importance</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.37*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expectations X Importance</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>-.68+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta R^2$</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta F$</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F$ (df)</td>
<td>41.95***  (2, 197)</td>
<td>29.13+ (3, 196)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p < .001; **p <.01; *p < 0.05; +p < 0.10 (2-tailed). All Betas are standardized.

expectations and expectation fulfillment (β = .53, p < .001). In step 2 with the addition of the interaction term, variance explained was about the same ($R^2 = .31$, $\Delta R^2 = .01$ and $\Delta F = 2.73$, p < .10). In this model, prior expectations was still a highly significant predictor (β = .91, p < .001), gastronomy importance was marginally significant (β = .37 p < .10), and the interaction term was negative and marginally significant (β = -.68 p < .10).

To further understand the implications of the interaction term, Figure 19.2 grouped respondents into low and high levels of importance and prior expectations. Those responding with a mean of less than four were placed in the low importance or prior expectations group and those with a mean of four or higher were placed in the high group. When the low importance group was separated into high or low prior expectations the high prior expectations group had substantially higher expectations fulfillment (3.88 vs. 2.99). For the high importance group, (while a similar relationship) the differences were less extreme between high vs low prior expectations and the resulting expectation fulfillment levels

![Figure 19.2  Interactions of gastronomic importance and prior expectations.](image-url)
Thus, in contrast to expectancy theory, a gastronomic tourist in Malaysia with higher prior expectations also resulted in higher expectation fulfillment. And, this was even a greater separation with gastronomy was of a lower importance. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was somewhat supported. Table 19.3 included the two hierarchical multiple regression analyses to test for mediating effects of prior expectations on the relationship between gastronomy importance and expectation fulfillment. To demonstrate mediation, it must be shown that prior expectation was related to expectation fulfillment when regressed on both gastronomy importance and prior expectations. If prior expectations mediate the relationship between gastronomy importance and expectation fulfillment, the variance explained after gastronomy importance had been held constant would be lower than the variance explained by gastronomy importance alone (Baron and Kenny 1986). To establish a complete mediation relationship, the relationships between gastronomy importance and expectation fulfillment would disappear when prior expectations were held constant (Saks 1995).

The regression results in which expectation fulfillment was regressed on gastronomy importance and prior expectations are shown the bottom section of Table 19.3. As indicated, gastronomy importance was significantly related to expectation fulfillment ($R^2 = .16, \beta = .40, p < .001$). In Step 2, expectation fulfillment was regressed on both gastronomy importance and prior expectations indicating that when gastronomy importance is held constant, prior expectations are the only significant predictor. As indicated in the top section of Table 19.3, prior expectations was significantly related to expectation fulfillment ($R^2 = .30, \beta = .55, p < .001$) when entered alone. In step 2, with prior expectations first, gastronomy importance becomes a non-significant element of expectation fulfillment. Thus, when prior expectations were held constant, the variance in expectation fulfillment explained by gastronomic importance declined to a non-significant level ($\Delta R^2 = .00$). In sum, these results provided support for the mediation hypothesis (Hypothesis 3) with evidence of a complete mediation by prior gastronomy expectations on the relationship between gastronomic importance and gastronomic expectation fulfillment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Step 1</th>
<th>Step 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H3</td>
<td>Prior expectations</td>
<td>.55***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gastronomy importance</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta R^2$</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta F$</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F$ (df)</td>
<td>84.22*** (1, 198)</td>
<td>41.95*** (2, 197)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gastronomy importance</td>
<td>.40***</td>
<td>.53***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prior expectations</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta R^2$</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta F$</td>
<td>38.16***</td>
<td>38.16***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F$ (df)</td>
<td>38.52*** (1, 198)</td>
<td>41.95*** (2, 197)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***$p < .001$; **$p < .01$; *$p < .05$; +$p < .10$ (2-tailed). All Betas are standardized.
**Hypothesis-4 and 5 results: Attribute categories**

To assess the relationships proposed in Figure 19.1 (Test 2) and hypothesized in H4 and H5, we used Lin et al’s (2010) regression method. In this scenario, each gastronomic tourism attribute was used as an independent variable with the level of quality (expectation fulfillment) coded into three levels (1, 2, or 3). This coded relative performance level was used as an interacting term multiplied with the level of attribute quality. The moderated approach assesses the moderating effect of perceived attribute quality level, lessens the misclassification of attributes, simplifies the data collection process, minimizes the effects of biased data (the majority of responses being above average in performance), and includes the average (common) attribute performance level, thus, minimizing skewed results due to excluded responses (Chen 2012; Lin et al. 2010; Mathe-Soulek et al. 2015). When coding the relative performance, the grand mean indicated the middle level of performance ranged from 3 to 4 points on a 5-point scale; therefore, responses less than 3 were coded as 1, 3 to 4 coded as 2, and greater than 4 coded as 3. The dependent variable in this analysis was a measure of the tourists’ intention to return to the region (using a 5-point scale ranging from very low to very high). Thus, this regression scenario addressed the question of the impact of each gastronomic tourism attribute as an enticement to increase the likelihood of return visits.

For attribute category interpretation, the following criteria were used based on Lin et al’s suggestions: 1) Delighters – the change in $R^2$ was significant in step 2 and the interaction term was greater than zero; 2) Satisfiers – the change in $R^2$ was non-significant in step 2, but the direct effect was significant in step 1; 3) Dis-satisfiers – the direct effect in step 1 was negative or the change in $R^2$ was significant and the interaction term was less than zero; and 4) Indifferent – the relationship with revisit intention was non-significant at either stage of analysis. While these characteristics were used as a rule-of-thumb, additional interpretation is provided in the discussion of the results.

**Discussion**

Table 19.4 provides results of the relationship between specific gastronomic attributes of Malaysia and the impact on the tourists’ revisit intentions. While gastronomic attributes are only one of a group of elements in the touristic terroir that may impact return visits for travelers, it is important to identify these relationships to determine how past resource investments are being perceived, or how resources might be better allocated for a destination in the future.

In this case, we considered five gastronomic attributes and found that these represented four attribute categories supporting hypothesis 4. Traditional dishes from the region were categorized as indifferent with no significant impact on revisit intentions. Indifferent attributes are those that do not appear to significantly impact satisfaction or loyalty either positively or negatively. In the case of Malaysia, this finding raises several questions for the destination: Were traditional dishes not adequately available to tourists? Was the fact that these dishes are traditional to the region inadequately communicated (i.e., education, story-telling), or just assumed to be apparent? Were the available traditional dishes not adequately unique or valued in the minds of tourists?

Fine dining was perceived as a ‘satisfier’ for the region. Satisfier attributes are defined as anticipated attributes by visitors and have a direct relationship with consumer outcomes such as satisfaction and loyalty. Also described as performance or linear attributes (Brechan 2006), satisfiers have a linear relationship between perceived quality and positive or negative responses. In this case, fine dining experiences in Malaysia provided a positive impact on
revisit intentions; when higher quality fine dining experiences were received, tourists were more likely to return to the region. From a practical perspective, this indicates the region’s investments in quality fine dining experiences will result in higher likelihood of tourist return visits as well as other consumer behaviors (posting on social media, recommendations, etc.).

Regional wines were interpreted as a dis-satisfier; dis-satisfier attributes are generally perceived as basic or ‘must be’ attributes for consumers (Lin, et al. 2010). These usually have a negative impact on consumer outcomes when not sufficiently present, but do not greatly impact outcomes positively after reaching a sufficient quality level. For the gastronomic tourist, regional wines or other beverages are likely to be basic elements expected as part of the destination experience. In this case, Malaysia is not known for its regional wine experience (as demonstrated in the low mean for prior expectations), but gastronomic tourists appeared to anticipate at least some level of regional wine experience (whether produced locally or having a strong local professional presence for wines and wine quality). Thus, tourists in this study demonstrated a negative relationship between the quality of the wine experience and return intentions.

Finally, two attributes were categorized as delighters; delighters are conceived as unanticipated attributes or of a higher than anticipated level of quality by consumers.

### Table 19.4 Gastronomic tourism attribute categories with intention to return as DV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute Category</th>
<th>Step 1: Model with Attribute</th>
<th>Step 2: With interaction</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>β</td>
<td>S.E</td>
<td>β</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional dishes</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>−.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional dishes X Level</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adj. R²</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔR²</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine dining</td>
<td>.15*</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine dining X Level</td>
<td>.02*</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>−.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adj. R²</td>
<td>.02*</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔR²</td>
<td>.02*</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional wines</td>
<td>−.18**</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>−.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional wines X Level</td>
<td>.03**</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adj. R²</td>
<td>.03**</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔR²</td>
<td>.03**</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authentic food purchase</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>−.46***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authentic Food Purchase X Level</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.18***</td>
<td>.64***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adj. R²</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.17***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔR²</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.18***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authentic food menus</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>−.25**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authentic food menus X Level</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.07***</td>
<td>.40***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adj. R²</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.06***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔR²</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.06***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Malaysian gastronomic tourism

Authentic foods for purchase or on menus were defined as delighters by Malaysian tourists. Both of these authentic food categories were relatively high in expectation fulfillment and as an enticement to return. Attributes in this category are generally described as ‘wow factors’, as the perceived quality or availability is beyond expectations. These generally have the strongest impact on positive consumer behaviors when present and likely to create the most memorable effects for visitors.

In hypothesis 5, we proposed that attributes defined as delighters or satisfiers would be stronger predictors of Malaysian revisit intentions. This was mostly supported based on the $R^2$ for attributes on these categories compared to those falling in the indifferent or dis-satisfier types. The authentic food for purchase attribute explained 18% of the variance in the level of overall revisit intention for tourists ($R^2 = .18, p < .001$). Authentic foods on menus explained 7% of the variance in the level of overall revisit intention ($R^2 = .07, p < .001$) and fine dining explained 2% of the variance. Interestingly, the dis-satisfier attribute (regional wines) explained 3% of the variance, indicating it had a slightly stronger impact on return intentions but in a negative direction ($R^2 = .03, p < .01$). Thus, the delighters had the strongest overall and positive effect, but the dis-satisfier was a slightly more impactful attribute than the satisfier attribute in this particular context.

Conclusions

Malaysia’s tourism industry experienced strong growth during the last decade. With 17.55 million arrivals in 2006, the tourist arrival numbers have increased in 2016 to 26.76 million (Tourism Malaysia 2017). Gastronomic attributes may have significant influence on return visits of tourists and their positive feedback (e.g., TripAdvisor); word-of-mouth is likely to impact the decision of first-time visitors to Malaysia. Thus, it is critical to understand which gastronomic attributes satisfy or delight tourists. This study indicated that fine dining in Malaysia had a positive impact on return visit potential as well as other positive consumer behaviors. Furthermore, authentic foods for purchase or on menus were identified as delighters by Malaysian tourists and, thus can be viewed as ‘wow factors’ because their perceived quality or availability is beyond expectations. Malaysian tourism organizations should, therefore, focus and support the fine dining restaurant scene in Malaysia. In addition, they should stimulate the availability of authentic food for purchase and encourage restaurants to offer authentic food on their menus.

References


Introduction

Gastronomic trails are a growing phenomenon in the context of gastronomic tourism. Gastronomic trails provide guidance for exploring foodscape (Hall and Gössling 2016) or culinary terroirs (Croce and Perri 2010), and are therefore considered effective means for enhancing tourist experiences. With the growth in understandings of gastronomic tourism, trails have also been used as an important tourism development tool (Plummer et al. 2005; Bruwer 2003; Boyne et al. 2002). These trails are typically themed around different types of food or beverages. Examples of such trails include ‘Craft Beer Trails’, ‘Wine Trails’, ‘Chocolate Routes’, or ‘Cheese Trails’.

Gastronomic trails are conceptualized as either itinerary products (Mason and O’Mahony 2007) or networks of regional producers (Brás et al. 2010). Hence, research addressing gastronomic trails has centered on either understanding the involved supplier networks from a management perspective (Hall et al. 2005; Broadway 2017; Prat Forga and Cànoves Valiente 2012; Brás et al. 2010) or understanding the gastronomic tourist (Peter and Hannele, 2014; Mason and O’Mahony, 2007). As the sustainability and longevity of the gastronomic trail depends on the involvement and value creation by and for multiple stakeholders including the producers, regional associations, and tourism authorities, as well as the tourists, these trails should be conceptualized from a service ecosystem perspective. Consequently, this chapter reviews literature to conceptualize gastronomic trails from a service dominant logic perspective (Vargo and Lusch 2004) that allows to portray these trails as a dynamic service ecosystem (Vargo and Lusch 2012), which results in considerations of relevant actors or stakeholders and tourists, resources that actors use to create value and institutional arrangements that guide them.

This ecosystem perspective forwarded by the service dominant logic (Vargo and Lusch 2006) establishes the interplay of different actors that form part of the value co-creation processes on gastronomic trails. The suggested conceptualization of a gastronomic trail not only informs theoretical research but also experience marketing practice and provides direction to enhance value for the gastronomic tourist.
Gastronomic trails

Gastronomic tourism is linked to concepts of local, rural, tradition and history, most often implying a geographic focus in its conceptualization (Getz and Brown 2006). Croce and Perri (2010) discuss the importance of ‘terroir’ which encapsulates milieu (common heritage and collective identity), environment and the landscape. The terroir provides a setting for tourists to interpret and perform leisure activities. The geographic proximity of various food and beverage producers induces both production-based tourism as well as consumption-based tourism (Boyne et al. 2002) whereby tourists enjoy participating or witnessing gastronomic activities along with consuming these products. For the tourist, exploring these food and beverage producing regions allows them to visit several suppliers, savoring a greater diversity of foods/beverages than during a regular touristic experience. Local producer networks or destination marketing bodies can capitalize on the geographical proximity of different agro-alimentary producers along with the tourists’ interests in exploring the ‘terroir’ through the design of trails that guide tourists’ agronomic, physical, social, and cultural understanding of the terroir and movement within it.

Food producers and marketers can align themselves geographically as well as economically and form regional networks by producing a trail. Gastronomic trails are conceptualized as suppliers working together to divide marketing costs, share knowledge and achieve economies of aggregation (Mason and O’Mahony 2007; Broadway 2017). Their collaboration usually culminates in the formation of an association. Apart from maintaining relationships through collaboration events and programs and representing the suppliers vis-à-vis the government, the task of an association is also co-marketing (Hall and Gössling 2016). The association representing the trail and its businesses creates a single marketing strategy for all the member producers in the local geographic region and collects resources towards the collateral required (Bruwer 2003; Brás et al. 2010; Plummer et al. 2005). To be able to promote the various businesses under one umbrella, a theme is selected that helps consumers make sense of the diverse offerings. A specific themed trail is hence envisaged as a strategy for co-marketing various member producers in a specific geographic region. The common theme is used for all promotional efforts; for instance, collateral branded with the theme, such as maps and brochures for the trail, is circulated through visitor information centers, as well as by the producers themselves (Broadway 2017; Hojman and Hunter-Jones 2012).

Mason and O’Mahony (2007) suggest that food and wine trails are more likely to succeed if they offer a meaningful experience to the culinary tourist. Most tourists are looking for food and beverage experiences to form a connection with regional produce, history, and country living (Croce and Perri 2010). Themes can provide the necessary structure and inspiration to make their regional experiences meaningful (Pine and Gilmore 1998). Hence, for the gastronomic tourist, trails are conceived as gastronomic experiences built around a theme that requires them to travel on a particular touring route pertaining to a particular region. This themed movement (MacLeod 2016; Timothy and Boyd 2014) is an important part of how gastronomic experiences are appropriated within a particular region. The interpretation and imagination triggered by the theme as well as the geography of the route helps tourists decide which producers to visit and which direction to take, ultimately influencing the quality of their experience.

According to existing literature, the gastronomic trail is a valuable marketing strategy in two ways. First, it is an important marketing tool connecting the different stakeholders/suppliers/actors, leading to marketing efficiencies. Various studies on wine tourism (Brás et al. 2010; Xu et al. 2016b) and food trails (Broadway 2017) align with the idea that trails allow
suppliers to come together and engage in co-marketing. Second, trail marketing is a way of ordering or structuring a thematic narrative through which tourists can meaningfully interact with space (MacLeod 2016). The gastronomic trail enables tourists to form a connection with the theme of gastronomy by exposing them to the ‘terroir’, sights, sounds, and smells that instigate imaginaries and interpretations of the theme (Mason and O’Mahony 2007; Croce and Perri 2010). Further, trail marketing connects geography and landscape with the gastronomic theme. Figure 20.1 further illustrates this conceptualization of the gastronomic trail as a marketing tool that forges connections between the theme, space and actor.

‘Actors’ describes all actors including suppliers, tourists, and other stakeholders involved in creating or appropriating the trail. ‘Theme’ implies the gastronomy-related topic selected to unite the producers and inspire the consumers and is reflected in all aspects of the trail marketing strategy. ‘Space’ implies the terroir of the gastronomic region including its agro-nomic, physical, social, and cultural characteristics. The gastronomic trail hence can be conceptualized as interplay of actors, theme, and space. Previous conceptualizations of gastronomic trails have concentrated on either individual elements or single connections and have not explained the interdependence of these elements. Studies have either explored the actor-theme connection, such as how tourists perceive the theme of gastronomy (Mason and O’Mahony 2007, López-Guzmán et al. 2014), the actor–actor connection involved in creating the gastronomic trail such as supplier networks and supply chains (Broadway 2017; Hojman and Hunter-Jones 2012; Brás et al. 2010; Anderson and Law 2012), or the actor–space connection through exploration of geographic aspects that define the development of wine routes (Xu et al. 2016b). As each of these connections is important to understanding the workability and future sustainability of the gastronomic trail, it is pertinent to use a framework that studies these elements simultaneously as a systemic whole that reflects interrelationships as well as reciprocation. Hence, the gastronomic trail is conceptualized as a dynamic service ecosystem as forwarded by Vargo and Lusch (2006), a concept that is further explained in the next sections.

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**Figure 20.1** Conceptualization of a gastronomic trail.
The service ecosystem

A service ecosystems perspective views a service system as a network of actors that co-create value with each other using resources during activities and interactions, which is also described as the process of resource integration (Lusch and Vargo 2014). This approach further emphasizes that the dynamism of the service ecosystem comes from institutions or ‘rules of the game’ composed of human actions and interactions that are continuously changing (Giddens 1984). Institutions or institutional logics are described as socially constructed norms, rules, beliefs and assumptions by which individuals structure their activities and that influence resource integration practice (Friedland and Alford 1991).

Such a systemic ‘ecosystem’ perspective facilitates the study of gastronomic trails as firstly, it moves away from the dyadic relationship between the producer and consumer and recognizes the involvement of multiple actors in the value creation process. This conceptualization helps in understanding actor–actor relationships and their impact on value co-creation (Sergio et al. 2017). Secondly, it recognizes the role of institutional context as a factor influencing value co-creation. In case of the gastronomic trail, the institutional context can be studied as not only the socio-cultural context of actors but also ‘rules of the game’, or the understandings of activities and interactions that connect the actors to the theme and space. Hence, the ecosystem perspective also helps in grasping the impacts of space and of the actor–theme–space interplay that happens in the context of a gastronomic trail.

Conceptualizing gastronomic trails as a service ecosystem

Actors

Actors are recognized as all social and economic players that are involved in the system exchange processes (Vargo and Lusch 2011). It brings into view not only focal actors (the firm and the beneficiary, producer and consumer) but also the context – networks of resources and resource providing actors (suppliers, industry associations, customer communities, friends, and family). In case of the gastronomic trails, there would be seven types of actors. First, the producers or actors that are involved in the food and beverage production supply chain. For example, the producers on a wine trail would include the vineyard owners, fermenter, and production machinery owners, wine-branding and bottling companies, grape pickers and crushers, and the cellar door personnel. Second would be the infrastructure providers or institutions and organizations which regulate or provide infrastructure for the movement along the trail. For example, the local councils, the state government and land agencies which decide land sizes, road hierarchies, speed limits, cycle-ways etc.

The third type of actors would be the intermediaries or connectors that support trail tourism such as tour operators, bus operators, limousine hire, cycle-hire companies, tour guides, horse-riding companies, online travel agents etc. These intermediaries are service providers that help in literally bringing tourists to the wineries. A fourth category of actors would be the influencers or people who influence the decision of tourists to get on to the trail such as the marketers or visitor information center, tourism organizations, wine magazine companies, family members through word of mouth etc. The fifth category of actors would involve peripheral or associated actors which work alongside other actors such as accommodation owners, restaurants, and other related businesses, such as antique shops, art galleries etc. These actors benefit from people travelling on the wine trail by providing them with associated services. Sixth, tourists are also considered actors and classify as consumers in the process of value co-creation as they use resources such as previous knowledge, skills of interpretation, and
Gastronomic trails as service ecosystems

their own possessions such as vehicles, camera, sun glasses etc. to appropriate the themed route. They can be further classified as those that belong to the immediate travel party, and therefore likely share resources, and those who are encountered along the trail. Last, another group of actors that has been discussed in detail recently is the residents (Xu et al. 2016a). These actors may or may not be relevant for certain gastronomic trails depending on their proximity and claim to the terroir. A further differentiation can be made between residents who stay permanently in the area such as farmers etc. and temporary residents such as tourists who stay for longer durations, or wine-makers who might come to the region only at the time of harvest. The chart below displays these seven types of actors involved in the process of value creation on a gastronomic trail (see Figure 20.2).

Resources

Resources are described as anything (tangible or intangible) that can be drawn on for support by an actor during activities or interactions. Arnould et al. (2006) describe operand and operant resources that are used by the consumer. Where operand resources are tangible resources that require another actor or resource to act upon them to create value (such as goods, materials), operant resources are by themselves capable of creating value and involve resources such as knowledge, imagination, skills etc. This conceptualization is problematic as it does not consider the agency of materials and spaces in molding the experience. We argue for entertaining and recognizing material agency as discussed in reference to tourist movement, space (Haldrup and Larsen 2006; Ponting and McDonald 2013), and material objects (Epp and Price 2010). In the context of the gastronomic trail, the thematic materials as well as spatial elements such as the road, landscape, and location are conceptualized to be capable of exerting agency over actors. For instance, the location of wineries or vineyards influences tourist movement on the trail. Also, tourists do tend to surrender agency to the road and let the views, landscape, or signage take them to their next stop. Hence materials and space need to be considered as resources that can exert agency; a distinction between operand and operant resources is therefore counterproductive. Figure 20.3 provides examples of different categories of resources relevant in the gastronomic trail context.

Resources include materials, space, socio-cultural resources, and personal resources of actors. Different actors utilize multiple resources during resource integration. In the case of a gastronomic trail, where the tourists need to decide which route to take/producer to go to, they may simply follow the map (material resource), go along the road to see what they find next

![Figure 20.2 Types of actors.](image-url)
(physical resource), use social resources in the form of word of mouth/suggestions of influencers (friends, family, marketers), rely on personal resources (e.g., product knowledge), or use any combination of these resources.

**Resource integration**

The service ecosystems perspective posits all actors as resource-integrators who are guided by the institutional understandings of their context (Edvardsson et al. 2011). Hence, it is assumed that resource integration involves actors’ understandings of the social, cultural and material rules or structures that are embedded in the usage of these resources. Vargo and Lusch (2012, 2016) suggest using a practice-based approach to analyze resource integration, as these notions of meanings, rules and symbolic values associated with interactions and activities are integrated into social practice. A practice approach recognizes activities and interactions as part of a larger integrative social practice based on understandings, procedures, and shared meanings (Warde 2005; Schatzki 1996). The practice approach also lays emphasis on material arrangements that influence practices (Schatzki 2016), which is of particular relevance in the case of gastronomic trails.

Applying the practice-based approach to the gastronomic trail, both consumption and marketing practices need to be considered (Kjellberg and Helgesson 2006). Hence, resource integration on a gastronomic trail can be discussed as involving five types of integrative practices (Schatzki 1996; Warde 2005): ‘theme-oriented’ cultural consumption practices, ‘journeying/movement’ practices, ‘collaboration’ practices, and ‘exchange’ practices, as further described.
Gastronomic trails as service ecosystems

in Figure 20.4. Where theme-oriented practices consider the social, cultural and material associations linked with the gastronomic theme for the consumer, the movement practices define the terroir-focused activities that all actors indulge in. These movement activities are defined by the normative structures of physical geography. The collaboration practices encompass activities and interactions associated with networking amongst organizations, as well as referencing practices which are aimed at controlling business within the trail region. Exchange practices denote the activities involved not only in economic transactions such as purchase of goods and service, but also social exchanges such as small talk with service personnel.

**Institutional logics**

Vargo and Lusch (2017) prioritize institutional logics as a structuring agent, which frames the dynamic service ecosystem. Friedland and Alford (1991) describe institutional logics as socially constructed, historical patterns of cultural symbols, and material practices including assumptions, values, and beliefs by which individuals and organizations provide meaning to their daily activity, organize time, and reproduce their lives and experiences. In other words, the dynamic social and cultural understandings of actors, structures, influences, and guides resource integration practices. The practice approach, elaborating on the role of contextuality of space, suggests the incorporation of teleo-affective structures (Schatzki 2002) into the social and cultural. Teleo-affective structures are a set of acceptable ends, orders, emotions, and uses associated or embedded within a context (differentiated setting) and governing practices (Schatzki 2002). For instance, in a study of brand community practices by Schau et al. (2009), the specific brand community values, myths, and meanings act as teleo-affective structures that provide virtual contextuality to participants (Arasel and Bean 2013). Hence, the institutional logic on the gastronomic trail includes the teleo-affective structures that are introduced by the gastronomic trail settings as well as the social and cultural meanings and values that guide the actors.

Diving into the three institutional structuring agents of the service eco-system – teleo-affective, social, and cultural – all three have some common elements (Figure 20.5). Firstly,
they are all guided by assumptions, which are reflected in rules of engagement. Secondly, they all comprise of meanings for the actors that stem from beliefs and values, and lastly, they all generate imaginaries or aspirations for actors. Hence, in order to understand value co-creation from an ecosystem perspective, it is important to understand the linkages amongst activities or interactions of resource integration and the rules, meanings, and aspirations enforced by the structuring agents.

**Discussion**

This chapter proposes that the gastronomic trail is a marketing tool that establishes connections between multiple actors via a gastronomic theme and within the gastronomic ‘terroir’. It is further argued in this chapter that the interrelationships amongst these elements call for a service ecosystem approach to understand the value of such trails for all the involved actors. This conceptualization initiatives further discussions on three subjects that help understand gastronomic tourism. First, it withdraws from the dyadic relationship between the producer and consumer evident in extant studies and adopts an ecosystem perspective whereby each actor is recognized and identified through interdependencies and involvement in value (co-)creation. This is a departure from current conceptualizations in tourism where only one type of actor–actor connection (tourist–business or business–business) is conceptualized at a time. Investigating and identifying the multiple actors involved in a specific trail service ecosystem is of theoretical importance, but can also greatly inform the management as well as further development of the trail.

Secondly, the service ecosystem perspective accounts for contextual relationships including social, cultural as well as material interdependencies that bring together multiple actors in the process. This is particularly helpful to understand gastronomic tourism where actors are related and co-create value, not only through economic exchanges, but also through spatial and social interactions. Hence, this also triggers thinking about value beyond utility maximization or economic exchanges and therefore opens up important areas for value research.

Another way forward in gastronomic tourism research is through understanding the activities and interactions in the gastronomic service ecosystem using a practice approach.
Conceptualizing resource integration as practices involves distributing agency to human and ‘non-human’ actors that guide the gastronomic experience. Hence, the socio-materiatility of objects (food and beverage products, trail maps, brochures) that form part of the theme and space (socio-cultural understandings of terroir, milieu, landscape, geography) becomes an important area of research. In addition, understanding the different institutional structures governing the practices may positively influence value (co-) creation. Hence, there is a need to further understand resource integration practices in gastronomic trails to create superior trail experiences.

References


Introduction

Food plays a very important part of festivals/fiestas, accounting for one of the biggest tourist expenditures. Hall, Shariples, and Smith (2003) report that between 32 and 66 per cent of tourists either purchase or eat local food during their visit. Aside from food products, potential tourist attractions include gastronomic performances during festivals. They play a distinctive role in the people’s everyday lives and a central part in economic, political, and cultural matters (Adelle and Andrew 2006).

Festivals, also referred to as fiestas in the Philippines, are common events which Falassi (1987) relates to gaiety, conviviality, and cheerfulness. Usually rooted in religious activities, these allow the people to affirm their religious faith (Pieper 1973 in Getz 1991) and reflect over 300 years of Spain’s colonization of the country. These were indigenized by the Filipinos to become part of their culture in a country dominated by Catholics. The latter successfully blended the lavish and religious character of festivals with their local tradition. Thus, almost every fiesta is held in honor of a patron saint from which Catholics draw their strengths and hopes. Oftentimes extravagant festivities, despite financial hardships, they reflect the people’s generally positive outlook in life and provide them a respite from life’s daily grind.

Food is central to Philippine festivals which Fernandez (1994) associates with the festive table as Filipinos spend on food to entertain guests. Economic status can be gleaned from the type and extent of food served on the table. Rich families re-assert their status in the community with their banquet table decked with their best hoards through the years – heirloom linens and silverwares, flowers, and the best finds from the farm, sea, market and grocery (Fernandez 1994). Filipinos’ hospitality however, is not defined by the trappings of the banquet table. Regardless of the economic status in life, these preparations are a demonstration of the host’s goodwill (Fernandez 1994). Thus, festivals/fiestas serve as a class equalizer with everyone, rich or poor, welcomed to partake of the food on the table. What is interesting however, are the varying performativities or rituals that accompany their preparation.

Festivals, like food, are considered folk traditions or cultural events that are reflected by “complex systems of meanings” (Goode 1992: 233). It is auspicious that festivals and food are
intertwined and they promote solidarity among the people in the community. The sharing of special food, during festivals convey a “positive identity and solidarity” (Goode 1992: 238). When people in the community go about their daily routines, they consciously or unconsciously share with each other their customs and values. They also articulate their thoughts, feelings, and perceptions through the rituals of food production and consumption. Thus, the chapter’s discourse also draws heavily from the theory of performance, also labeled performativity or having a performative element which culture also possesses [Turner (1990); Schechner (1997); Butler (1990); Geertz (1973); and Foucault (1972 in Layton, 1997)]. Performativity denotes one’s ability to perform or carry out something in accordance to prescribed rituals and practices. In this study, the latter are the preparation and consumption of festival food in Sariaya. Sariaya is a quaint municipality in Quezon province south of Metro Manila in the Philippines. It holds the distinction of being one of the last towns in the province to host a fast-food chain.

Thus, the study endeavors to determine if Sariaya’s food culture has continuously remained to showcase the true character of its people. What are local folks’ contestations with tradition, modernization, and whatever is commonplace, as shown by the different gastronomic performativities? Specifically, the study aimed to (1) historicize the gastronomic performativities of lowland Sariaya during its two major festivals; (2) illustrate this historicity as the community’s gastronomic performativities of continuous engagements with Christian narratives and other cultures; and (3) locate these festivals’ possible contribution to the sustainability of Sariaya’s gastronomic tourism program. In general, have these gastronomic performativities been able to continue illustrating Sariaya’s food culture despite possible infusions of other cultures through the years?

Literature review

Food and the Christian communities during festivals/fiestas

Festivals/fiestas are occasions for homecoming, social solidarity, elegant creativities, artistic competitions, not to mention food spectacles in Philippine Catholic societies. Joaquin also explains that the celebration usually features expensive and lavish decorations, costumes and events, planning of which may take up to a year. Most Catholic communities celebrate fiestas mostly to celebrate the feast day of a patron saint (Fernandez 1994) which Tiatco (2006) articulates as being honored as a folksman, a part of the community or as a folk hero. Others intersect a seemingly animistic tradition, which is believed to be very pre-colonial – “to square accounts with the spirits or saints performing the necessary rites and ceremonies” (Matienzo 1988:11). Many consider it as the community’s testimonial to the fruits of their labor or as an affirmation to societal bond, a toast to good life and thanksgiving. Alejandro Roces (2010), National Artist for Literature and Journalism, states that “the fiesta is the most beloved institution in the Philippines, the microcosm of everything the Filipino holds dear” (2). Roces (2010) further quotes National Artist for Literary and Theater Nick Joaquin who relates the start of patriotism to local piety, which translates to one’s affection for his town of birth from which he creates his identity. Joaquin posits that this identity is formed by his “town’s legends and traditions, its customs and ceremonies, the cult and fiesta of its patron saint, and even the size and shape of its church” (1). Roces (2010) aptly supports this by describing the fiesta as the living embodiment and a “vital element of our culture” (249).

Food is an indispensable feature of any celebration and plays a pivotal role in the local folks’ concoction of the community’s activities. In this context, we refer to food that is prepared and served to family members, visitors, and relatives. During festivals, the Filipinos’
hospitality is observed through their desire to serve the best food on their tables despite financial hardships. Serving food to visitors provides a deeper meaning to the Filipinos. It connotes the sharing of God’s blessings through the intercession of their patron saint. In sharing, the folks derive happiness and supplication for more blessings.

**Research methodology**

This is a longitudinal study that used the qualitative approach in dissecting the foodways of Sariaya. Spanning three years and conducted in two phases, the study endeavored to produce community-based sustainable tourism opportunities for Sariaya.

The study's main data came from personal observations and participation in the food performativities of Sariaya, from food preparation to consumption, during the celebration of the Lenten Season and the Agawan Festival. These helped describe the locality’s food-lore and to have an emic perspective. The use of ethnography helped study the ways in which local folks construct meanings for themselves in their everyday lives. The stories, oral narratives and/or conversations with informants and the locals as they went about their daily activities also enriched the data. This required a detailed interaction between the authors with the key informants that included bakers, housewives, office workers and students, selected through purposive sampling. The local government of Sariaya and the Sariaya Tourism Council also provided vital information. A local ‘informant’ gave a detailed description of the locality’s food culture. Other informants included a cook and a *lambanog* (a local brew from coconut sap) manufacturer. The former demonstrated old cooking techniques for local food while the latter, the fermentation of coconut sap to produce *lambanog*.

A Focus Group Discussion (FGD) validated the observations. Data analysis involved interpretive method and surfacing embedded meanings, symbols and values in the production and consumption of meals and food products during the celebration of the two festivals.

**Findings**

*Holy Week celebration*

The Holy Week culminates the Lenten Season. It is capped by Good Friday, which is ‘ritual-ized’ as a fish and vegetable day. It serves to commemorate the 40-day abstinence of Jesus in the desert of Jordan. Just like Filipino Catholics in other parts of the country, the local folks refrain from eating meat because as one FGD participant remarked, the Holy Bible prescribes that meat is ‘dirty.’ Another participant considered it as a Church dogma. The young people however, comply as a form of obedience and respect to their elders. Thus, in general, fish and vegetables have been labeled as the ‘appropriate food’ to consume on Good Friday and on all Fridays during the Lenten Season.

Despite the prohibition of eating meat during Good Fridays, Cannel (1999) notes that irregularities in the compliance to this practice happen. This was observed in the folks’ food performativity during the community’s *pabasa ng pasyon* (reading of the Passion), a lyrical narrative of Christ’s Passion that is performed during Holy Week. Unlike in other parts of the Philippines where it is done in a kapilya (chapel), in Sariaya, the folks perform it in a sponsor-family’s house. Food is a very important ‘ritual’ instrument in the *pabasa* performativity. Usually, folks prepare meat-less delicacies such as carbohydrate-rich *merienda* (snacks), *pinagong* (sweet bread shaped like turtle), *pancit habhab* and *pancit chami* (local noodle dishes), *nilupak* (ground banana or cassava in milk, peanuts, and butter), *budin* (sweet grated
cassava cooked in coconut milk), *maruya* (banana fritters), *tamale* (Mexican-influenced cooked ground corn or rice with chicken and salted egg, wrapped with banana leaf), *kakanin* (rice cakes) such as *suman* (glutinous rice cooked in coconut milk) served with mango slices. The thirst-quenching *halo-halo* (literally means, mix-mix) usually serves as a welcome treat since the Holy Week celebration usually falls during summertime. This popular concoction is composed of an assortment of ingredients – cubed boiled *camote* (sweet potato) and *saba* banana; red, white, beans; *gulaman* (native gelatin), *ube halaya* (sweetened grated purple yam) topped with shaved ice, evaporated milk, and sugar (Fernando 1992). These *merienda* fares are usually served during the *pabasa* chanting which is continuously performed between 2:00 and 5:00p.m. Filipinos usually eat snacks at about 3:00p.m. Sometimes, a complete meal is prepared specially by rich sponsoring families. In some *pabasa* however, families disregard the Catholic norm, and serve meat dishes to visitors or relatives from the city, since Holy Week is also an occasion for homecoming, thus a special food like meat (Fernando 1976), is expected to be served. Cannel (1999) considers this practice as a cultural irregularity and irony in the locality’s observance of the Holy Week.

Thus, the food produced and consumed during the *pabasa* serves either as a means of complying with the teachings of the Church, as a homecoming treat or as a show of status/class of the sponsoring family. As Goode (1992) explains, “food items are frequently associated with particular social statuses and are selected accordingly” (236). Some families violate the ‘no meat’ dictum on Fridays by preparing *merienda* dishes with pork or beef. This proves that the influence of the Catholic Church tradition struggles and engages in a negotiation with the local folks’ food traditional notion of what is the right and good food during the Holy Week. It can be argued however that generally, the Church’s tradition supplements the community’s folk tradition on food. In fact, most informants have consensually theorized that the local’s preference for fish and vegetables over meat dishes throughout the year can be due to Sariaya’s character as a fishing and agricultural town. The FGD results supported this.

Regardless of these contestations however, the flurry of activities that usually accompany the preparation and service of food during *pabasa* and the Holy Week in general, is a sight to behold. The *bayahihan* spirit (Filipino’s value of teamwork) can be gleaned from the local folks as they systematically go about the different food preparation rituals in the backyard of the sponsoring family. Their excitement provides a stark contrast to the generally solemn mood of the Holy Week celebration.

**Feast of St. Isidore (Agawan/Bagakay Festival)**

The feast of San Isidro (St. Isidore) Labrador on May 14 is celebrated in the locality with the same energy and *gusto* as the town’s real fiesta celebration every September 14, the feast of Sto. Cristo de Burgos. Roces (1980) theorizes the plow as part of San Isidro’s iconography (135). He further explains that the farmers considered the carabao and plow that the Spaniards introduced to them as gifts of the titular saint, as instrumental in making them depart from a lifestyle of subsistence to surplus. Most of the local folks regard Saint Isidro Labrador as the “naturalized numen of the Filipino farmer” (135), and as one of them in their struggle as an agricultural community. This representation unites them in celebrating May 14 as the Saint’s special day.

In the 1990s, the Agawan Festival became part of the Feast of San Isidro Labrador, which concludes the locality’s May Fiesta. *Agawan* refers to the manner by which the revelers go in a frenzied scramble for the goodies: *kiping* (rice wafers), candies, fruits, vegetables among others, that are hung in the *bagakay* (bamboo poles). *Kiping* are very thin soft rice pastes
Gastronomic performativities during festivals

...galapong... that are spread over talisay (umbrella tree) leaves then cooked over steam. These are separated from the leaf to dry. Kiping is eaten fried and drizzled with syrup.

Thus, the feast day of San Isidro Labrador on May 14 promotes social solidarity, elegant creativities, artistic competitions, and food spectacles that are common in most Philippine Catholic communities. Roces (2010) quotes National Artist for Literature and Journalism Nick Joaquin’s description of fiestas as ultimate expression of Filipino culture with celebration being central to all artistic activities. Joaquin describes the fiesta as a catalyst that enables the Filipinos to show their very best creations. For him, being part of the fiesta revelry enables one to be in the mainstream of Filipino culture.

Fernandez (1994) describes the festive character of a typical fiesta celebration lying on the camaraderie of working together from detailed pre-preparation to preparation. Fiestas also use food, particularly fresh produce, as adornments. An informant of Guevarra, Gatchalian, and Tiatco (2014) claimed that the food offered to guests is not the family’s preparation per se, but their patron saint’s offering to the folks, a notion of most Catholic communities. Guevarra et al (2014) narrate that in Sariaya, most houses are usually decked with the best farm produce, with fences decorated with bunches of banana or coconut, sugar cane stalks, gourds, bitter gourds, string beans and eggplants. Suman are artfully placed on bamboo chandeliers (aranya). Other aranyas are formed by pastillas (milk-based candies wrapped in colorful papel de japon or Japanese paper) or by hard, colored breads molded in various shapes: a boxer, horse, eagle, gun, fish, heart, flower, or guitar. These figures are also believed to represent the locals’ aspirations. The grandest, however, are chandeliers formed from kiping of various colors (E. Dedace 2009, personal communication, 14 May). Rice stalks painstakingly nailed on bamboo chandeliers or on the front walls/facade of homes, are interspersed with fresh vegetables (e.g. string beans, eggplants, coconuts, etc.), walis tingting (broomsticks) and buntal hats (woven hats), among others.

In this manner, town folks are able to show their gratitude, petitions and intentions for (more) bountiful harvests. In homes, kids artistically craft agricultural materials into ornamental objects in deference to San Isidro. “Showing the elegance of the crops harvested is a way of paying homage to the greatness of the patron”, an informant interjected.

Guevarra, et al. (2014) report that rich households’ planning and pre-preparation with hired kusineros (cooks) or food caterers, take almost a week with the house’s mistress usually deciding on the types of food to be served during the whole day festivity. They also explain that members of middle and low-income families, young or old, usually prepare food together during the visperas (eve of the festival). Women and teenagers (and young adults) usually take charge of desserts since women are believed to be more meticulous in handling sweet ingredients. Younger family members prepare sauces in the ‘dirty kitchen’, that part of the house where messy raw food preparations and slow cooking are done. Heavier tasks – deep frying of fish, grilling meat, and fish are relegated to older male members. Younger male members perform lighter tasks like preparing pork and chicken barbecue. Usually, all cooking ingredients are gathered on the festival’s eve. Preparations usually commence around 4 A.M. for households which slaughter animals. Those with hired cooks and a retinue of helpers, usually start preparing at 7 A.M. Being part of the food performativities, Fernando (1976) aptly describes these auxiliary cooks, usually distant relatives, like birds who flock to a house where a celebration was to take place, not to eat, but to help. They sweep the yard and put up makeshift kitchens, help slaughter an animal, clean the intestines of a bovine, fowl or fish, chop firewood, slice the ingredients, clean the pots and pans and endlessly wash the plates that come in and out of the dining area. Early preparations also allow slow-cooking of dishes such as calderetang kambing (stewed beef/goat), a popular dish during festivals whose cooking stretches for many hours, usually over firewood to save on gas or electricity.
Early guests are served with rice cakes, pastries (e.g., broas or lady finger), spaghetti and cakes, soda and juices. Standard lunch and dinner fares include grilled fishes, vegetables and meat dishes, the latter described by locals as *pawersado sa recado* (laden with ingredients). Meat and seafood dishes are special because they are generally expensive. Only affluent families serve seafood extensively (e.g., mudcrabs, shrimps, oysters, mussels, big fishes, and *lechong* baboy (whole pig stuffed with lemongrass or tamarind fruits and tender leaves, garlic and other spices, slowly roasted over live charcoals for four to five hours). The latter is believed to be an indigenized food of Chinese origin. Its high price (US$71.43 to 630.00), force families to hire helpers or require members to cook it on-site, the latter taking turns in rotating the long bamboo pole that dissects the whole pig, to achieve even cooking and a uniform golden brown and crunchy skin. The *lechon* serves as a center piece of the banquet table with the pig’s gaping mouth stuffed with a red apple, a practice that could have started when the Americans introduced the fruit in the Philippines. The lechon is cut into serving pieces until only the head with the apple is left. This will remain on the table until the end of the day as a “status symbol” for the household. *Lechon* is served with *sarsa* (thick, sweet-sour sauce made from the pig’s ground liver and starch). A cheaper version is *lechon kawali* (deep fat fried pork slabs).

A rich family’s catered food was observed to be mostly Western – *galantina* (stuffed whole chicken), mixed vegetables with quail eggs, and Bolognese. Sodas and juices were served to female guests and children, and beer and *lambanog* (local coconut brew) to male guests (Guevarra, et al. 2014). However, in most households, festival food includes a repertoire of slow-cooked dishes which Guevarra and Rodriguez (2015) reported as dominated by what locals call do-do-do dishes: *mechado* (tomato sauce-based beef cubes), *menudo* (tomato-based cubed lean pork and liver), *embutido* (molded stuffed ground pork with raisins, pickles and eggs), and *kari-kari* (chunks of beef tripe and beef). *Pancit habhab* and *pancit chami* complete the repertoire. *Pancit* is a local term for noodles of Chinese influence. *Pancit habhab* is eaten by slurping (habhab) the noodles from the small squares of banana leaves that barely fit the palm.

Desserts include *leche flan* (custard), fruit salad (fruit cocktails), *buko* salad (shredded young coconut or fruit cocktail) and *buko pandan* (shredded young coconut with pandan flavored gelatin, with condensed milk and cream), *budin, pastillas* (soft candy made from condensed milk), *mazapan* (baked dessicated coconut), *yema* (soft candy made from egg-milk mixture), and *ube halaya* (sweetened grated purple yam). *Halaya* requires slow cooking for about an hour with constant stirring. Sariaya festival food in general is therefore, a fusion of indigenous and foreign borrowings – Spanish/Mexican, American and Chinese.

What is apparent, however, is that the gastronomic performativities during the two Sariaya festivals, represent the negotiations between the locals’ socio-economic and cultural values.

**Concluding reflections**

Sariaya’s Holy Week/Lenten Season and the Agawan Festival/Feast of San Isidro Labrador, are rooted on tradition, especially on the locals’ Catholic faith. They are regarded as solemn but happy occasions because of their grand food spectacle.

Food therefore, according to Wenssell Adele and Jones Andrew (2006), posit that “in simultaneously historicizing the everyday and evoking the past, the preparation and consumption of food play an essential role defining identity” (2). The recipes, ingredients, food preparation, and consumption, and other performativities are relational, oftentimes evoking the past and the present, tradition and change. The authors discuss that in Guadalupe, Mexico, food
performances are manifested in the colorful dynamism of the folks’ engagement with the indigenous and immigrant histories and the relationship between the resistance to and accommodation of, the authority of the colonial power. The Philippines (Sariaya) and Mexico (Guadalupe) share the same history, with both countries Hispanized through Catholicism. Perhaps they have not really isolated their pre-colonial pasts, but assimilated the foreign religion and married this with their indigenous beliefs. Thus, their ambiguous performances are neither Hispanic nor exclusively Catholic, and their cultures helped, shaped by their peoples’ long history of migration to other developed countries such as the United States.

Food performances in Sariaya during the Lenten Season present a negotiation of the past and the present. The present constantly negotiates with Sariaya’s tradition, other communities’ traditions and the present-day Catholic tradition. In historicizing the locality’s food culture, imposing an essential food performativity seems improbable. Thus, there is a tentative question of the authenticity of the locality’s food culture during the Lenten Season (Holy Week) and the Agawan festival. These events exemplify Getz’s (1991) argument that festivals come in many shapes and forms, though not all are traditional. Agawan’s gastronomic performativities are a combination of the traditional and the modern, the invented or staged. Regardless of how they are celebrated, however, festivals provide a happy respite and ultimate sensory experience to the locals and the tourists. The elaborate preparations and menu can serve as a point of interest in food tourism. They enable tourists to enjoy the local cuisine and products, as the values and symbolisms they reflect provide a meaningful, sustainable tourism experience for the former.

Sariaya’s two festivals, with the colorful decors, contests, parades, and processions are Getz’s (1991) descriptions of festivals – full of “imagery” and symbolism of local or national values: product, beauty, religion, and politics. Farber (1983 in Getz 1991) describes festivals as mirrors of the locality’s character: symbolic, economic, social, and political character. Guevarra, Gatchalian, and Tiatco (2014) noted the cultural openness in the pista which is rooted in “the mixing and matching of different performance activities, the entanglement of the secular and the sacred, and a welcoming gesture of both the familiar and the stranger as guest” (1).

Being based on tradition, they remained tenable. They have minimal negative impact on the environment. Because they are anchored on the locals’ foodways, they can be used as bases for the development of a sustainable community-based tourism program (Getz 1991). However, to harness them for ‘culturally-based’ sustainable tourism packages, the local homeowners should allow tourists’ interactive visits and maintain the ‘authenticity’ of food rituals/performances. The town’s food performativities, being part of its cultural heritage, can remain sustainable when they are not commodified. Getz (1991) argues that commodification of sacred events happens when they are reduced to regular performances or when rituals are modified as forms of entertainment that are easy to perform or meant to please audiences. Staging food performativities to satisfy tourists’ search for authenticity will divorce them from their cultural meanings. This might also happen if they are removed from their natural setting (Guevarra and Gatchalian 2015:356). The sacredness and/or the ‘naturalness’ of these festivals/fiestas should be preserved.

The sustainability of Sariaya’s tourism can be gauged through its contribution to the locality’s economy without destroying its environment and cultural heritage. Using local materials for fiesta/festival food can help local growers and the town’s economy. Guevarra and Rodriguez (2015) regarded this as an opportunity for the local supply chain in addressing the possible food demands by Sariaya’s homestay guests (2015:42). Food gifts (pasalubong) sold during festivals also generate income and create positive image for Sariaya’s products.
These festivals thus, can be re-invented as a new wave of alternative tourism, which minimizes any negative impact, contributes to sustainable development and fosters better host-guest relations (Getz 1991).

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References


Introduction

In recent decades, researchers’ and practitioners’ interest in gastronomic tourism has grown significantly. This growth represents a shift from the earlier approach where gastronomic experiences of travelers were viewed as supporting the overall tourism experience (e.g., Mossberg 2007) to being the core attraction of a destination, or as stated in the words of Quan and Wang (2004:298) as the “peak tourist experience”. As a result, this has led contemporary tourism research to increasingly emphasize examining tourists’ food consumption behaviors (e.g., Chang, Kivela, and Mak 2010), investigating how tourists interpret the dining or meal experience in the overall tourist experience (e.g., Björk & Kauppinen-Räisäinen 2017; Kivela and Crotts 2009), the tourist’s motivation to visit a destination for its food (e.g., Kim, Eves, and Scarles 2009; Sanchez-Canizares and Lopez-Guzman 2012), as well as the tourists’ willingness to consume food sustainably (e.g., Sims 2009; Sidali, Kastenholz, and Bianchi 2015). Recent research has focused on understanding what makes the food experience memorable or extraordinary (e.g., Goolaup and Mossberg 2017; Stone et al. 2017).

Gastronomic research within the field of tourism and hospitality from a travelers’ perspective is limited (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisäinen 2017). Even though the notion of experience has been central within the field of tourism and hospitality, much focus has been on portraying tourist experience as a social or psychological element. In this chapter, we advance a phenomenological perspective on perception and experience (Merleau-Ponty 1962). Hence, we present an embodied and spatial approach in the studying of tourist experience. Methodologically, a review of the field of gastronomic tourist experience reveals that the majority of studies have embraced quantitative methods. That limits the possibility to study such experience as a lived experience. The lived experience is based on a first-person account of experience considering the bodily, emotional, and cognitive aspect. Such descriptions are based on the experience as it is lived (Kvale 1983). It also follows Husserl’s (1936/1970) conception of experience, which is seen as the interconnectedness between our consciousness and the world as experienced by us. Against this background, the current study aims to expand knowledge on the following: (1) what is a gastronomic tourist experience from a phenomenological perspective; and (2) what method can be used to study the tourist gastronomic experience?
The chapter first provides an overview of how the concept of the tourist experience has been studied using a sociological and psychological perspective. It then advocates embodied and spatial approach using existential phenomenology as a method. Finally, the chapter ends by providing an illustrative example drawing from the tourists’ gastronomic context.

**Concept of ‘experience’ within the food tourism literature**

Experiences are at the very core of any tourism activities. Be it behavioral, cognitive, or emotional, everything that a tourist goes through at a destination is considered as an experience (Oh, Fiore, and Jeuong 2007). The notion of tourists’ experience can be traced as early as 1979 in the seminal work of Erik Cohen. Tourists’ experience was seen as being distinctive from everyday life and comprised of a no-work, no-thrift, and no-care situation (Cohen 1979). Since then, the concept of experience has evolved and has been interpreted from various perspectives. Tourism researchers define ‘tourist experience’ differently. Mossberg (2007), for instance, defines it as a blend of many elements coming together and involving the consumer emotionally, physically, intellectually, and spiritually, while Uriely (2005) portrayed it as an obscure and diverse phenomenon mostly constituted by the individual consumer. Against this background, it is important to distinguish between the ontological connotations of experience, i.e., experience as lived and constituted by meaning, and experience as an activity that tourists are engaged in (e.g., river rafting, mountain climbing). Within the tourism literature, experience is often studied without explicit links to the ontological character of lived experience. In this chapter, we elaborate on how lived tourist experience can be the starting point for insightful research on gastronomic experience. We start by reviewing literature on tourist experience that is predominantly from a mind-focused perspective and suggest how an embodied approach to the study of tourist experience can enrich the ontology of gastronomic tourist experience. Next, we suggest existential-phenomenology as a method and illustrate with some cases.

**Micro-oriented and macro-oriented perspectives on tourist experiences**

Similar to the diverse and numerous definitions, there are also a number of approaches that are used to describe the tourist experience. Using a sociological and psychological perspective, Jensen, Lindberg, and Østergaard (2015), for instance, identified two main perspectives that are used to understand tourists’ experiences; the micro-oriented and macro-oriented framework. However, it is worthwhile to note that the classification does not provide an exhaustive list of how tourist experience has been conceptualized but rather focus on some seminal contributions on tourist experience from a sociological and psychological perspective. Attempts are also made to relate it to studies within the area of gastronomic tourism.

The micro-oriented framework typically follows a cognitive psychology approach in the study of tourist experience. Basically, it is premised on the assumptions that tourist experience takes place through the mind only. Experiences are seen as being formed within the individual by means of psychological processes (Larsen 2007). In the words of Jensen et al. (2015), they are focused on “cognitive predispositions, immediate responses on travel or visitation episodes and on long-term memorizing throughout the tourist experience process” (2015:11). Those cognitive dispositions and processes occur not only during the experience, but also before and after the tourist interaction with the tourism environments. Such a perspective can also be argued to relate to studies on memorable experience since they emphasize memory formation and retention (e.g., Tung and Ritchie 2011; Park and Santos 2017). With reference to the gastronomic tourism literature, majority of the current studies have followed the
micro-oriented framework (e.g., Wijaya et al. 2013; Ji et al. 2016). Within gastronomic tourism research, for instance, such a perspective entails looking at the food experiences occurring at various phases: (1) the pre-consumption experience phase (when the tourists foresee possible events through expectations prior to the actual food experience); (2) the core consumption experience phase (perception of the actual encounters with the food experience) and the remembered consumption experience phase (evaluating the food experience and memories). The various phases also reflect what could be perceived as the holistic food experience of the tourists. Indeed, recent studies on gastronomy have provided a holistic understanding of tourists’ experience by for instance, exploring the pre-phase of the tourists’ food experience by looking at their motivation to consume local food (e.g., Kim, Eves, and Scarles 2009) and the tourist perception of the actual food experience (e.g., Cohen and Avieli 2004). The post-phase has focused on studies evaluating the tourists’ food experience (e.g., Alderighi, Bianchi, and Lorenzini 2016), satisfaction with the food experience and behavioral intention (e.g., Namkung and Jang 2007). From a methodological point-of-view, it has been observed that those studies have followed the micro-oriented framework, which have primarily taken a positivist paradigm and conceptualized experience as being objective and embracing the notion of absolute truth.

On the other hand, the macro-oriented framework postulates a sociological perspective in the study of tourist experience (e.g., Cohen 1979; Uriely 2005). Under this approach, tourists’ experience is seen as being focused on differentiating the ‘ordinary’ from the ‘non-ordinary’. For MacCannell (1976), the urge to go beyond the immediate surroundings and the quest to experience authenticity is the driving force for tourists seeking the ‘non-ordinary’. Basically, the sociocultural frame (e.g., the tourists’ values, identity, and socio-cultural norms) is seen as remaining in the home environment, while the move towards the non-ordinary environment provides some degree of novelty (Smith 1979). This is also in line with Volo’s (2009) conceptualization of tourists’ experiences, since it is seen as being outside of the ‘usual environment’ and the ‘contracted time’. In the words of Uriely (2005), this perspective of tourist experience is representative of the modern era. Indeed, recently, Goolaup and Mossberg (2016) demonstrated how the non-ordinary environment plays an important role in the tourists’ extraordinary food experience. However, this dichotomy of ordinary and non-ordinary has also been contested. As argued by Lash and Urry (1994), there is an increasing interplay between everyday life and tourist experiences and it does not necessarily need to be outside the tourists’ ordinary life but it is accessible in various context of the everyday life. For Uriely, this is representative of the postmodern era involving a process of de-differentiation blurring these distinctions. This change in perspective also moves the focus from an objective to a subjective view. Indeed, as argued by Uriely (2005), the postmodern form of theorizing embraces the tourist’s subjective interpretation of meanings as a determinant of the experience. Within the area of gastronomic tourism, the postmodern form of theorizing has not been widely applied compared to studies following the micro-oriented framework. It is believed that the postmodernism theorization of tourist experience can be useful when looking at the business tourists’ food experience, since those tourists have to deal with the interplay between work/leisure.

The tourist body is missing in both macro and micro-level studies on gastronomic tourism. This is surprising given that food to a large extent is experienced through our bodily senses. We taste, smell, and see food and these bodily experiences of food are sedimented in our bodies. We propose that the gastronomic experience cannot be fully captured from predominant mind-focused perspectives as the macro- and micro-level approaches described above. Instead, we suggest that the embodied tourist gastronomic experience is situated in the body which spatially occurs in a non-ordinary place.
‘Experience’ from an embodied and spatial approach

A phenomenological perspective on gastronomic tourism fully recognizes that macro-level cultures have an impact on micro-level tourist’s perceptions of food through the tourist body (which includes the mind). However, we propose an embodied and spatial approach in the study of tourist experience. Building on the phenomenological view on perception, Yakhlef (2015) argues that what people experience is not only the outcome of what goes into their minds nor solely what the environment affords or makes possible for them. Rather, experience is representative of the ways an individual grasp the world and makes sense of it by engaging both the mind and body (Crouch 2000). Hence, the tourist experience can be viewed as an embodied and spatial experience that is achieved through active engagement with and participation in the given context of tourism and hospitality setting. Such an approach to experience is when perception is linked with the bodily, emotional, and cognitive activity. In principle, how we perceive a phenomenon in the world is linked to a set of acquired cultural and habit-based forms of conduct. This can also be linked with Merleau-Ponty’s (1962) notion of ‘intentional arc’, that describe how the active body acquires skills by responding to different situation in the world. Such ‘embodied habitus’ as Bourdieu (1990), called it, also plays an important role in the tourists’ food experience and reflects what is considered as palatable in a particular group (Hjalager 2003). Thus, from this perspective, it can be argued that the tourist gastronomic experience is the outcome of an interactive dialogue between one’s body and the environment, (Merleau-Ponty 1962; Yakhlef 2015). “The link between tourist and environment, is the body (which includes the mind), is also its perceptual capacities to see, taste, smell, hear and touch, for nothing about human experience remains untouched by human embodiment” (Gallagher 2005:247). Therefore, taste in food reflects not only the tourists’ socio-cultural origins and cultural capital acquired, but it also involves grasping the world multi-sensually (Everett 2012) through the aural, olfactory, visual and haptic senses. Spence and Piqueras-Fiszman’s (2014) study on molecular gastronomy, for instance, demonstrated how restaurants offer their customers a complete sensorial experience by creating dishes engaging all their senses.

Existential phenomenology as methodological consideration

To have an understanding of the tourists’ food experience, we postulate the need to consider the existential phenomenology as a method to provide an understanding of the tourist experience. Existential phenomenology is basically a merger of existentialism as a philosophy and the method of phenomenology (Goulding 2005), aiming for first-person description of the phenomenon under study (Thompson, Locander, and Pollio 1989). Existential phenomenology is useful in exploring the lived experiences of the tourists’ real-complex environment/world by focusing on variations in individual meanings. It is mainly characterized by three central concepts: intentionality (i.e., the meanings a person ascribes to the world of experience); emergent dialogue (i.e., dialogue is set by the participant rather than guided by pre-specified questions); and hermeneutic endeavor (i.e., the iterative back and forth process of relating a part of the text to the whole) (Thompson et al. 1990; Goulding 1999).

As a research technique, phenomenological interviewing is used to obtain a first-person description of the phenomenon under study (Thompson, Locander, and Pollio 1989). ‘Owing to the in-depth nature of the phenomenological approach, each interview begins with an opening question having the aim of make the interviewees describe his/her experience of the phenomenon under study. For instance, if the study is about the tourists’ food experience, the
opening question will be ‘can you describe in as much detail as possible the food experience you had?’ The opening question is usually designed to begin the dialogue in an open-ended manner (Thomson et al. 1990). Further, follow-up descriptive questions, such as ‘What was it like to eat at … ?’, ‘How did you feel when … ’ and other related questions, which allow the interviewer to have a deeper understanding of the phenomenon under study, are used. During the course of the interview, attempt should also be made to avoid asking the ‘why’ questions, since it makes the respondent focus on plausible explanation of his or her actions rather than describing the experience as it is (Thompson, Locander, and Pollio 1989).

To proceed further with the interpretation, the interviews are recorded and transcribed. The analysis started by getting familiar with the transcriptions and the informants. This was done by reading each of the transcriptions closely to get a sense of how for instance the gastronomic tourists conceive their experiences. For each transcript, notes are made of key phrases and patterns of meaning. As suggested by Thompson et al. (1990), after each interview is interpreted, efforts should then be made to grasp thematic similarities, differences and meaning-based linkages among the experiences being described. To ensure that the different themes do not get distorted by the researchers’ subjective view, the process of bracketing is used. Bracketing refers to the attempt made to hold in abeyance the researchers’ prejudices in order to attain a genuine and true understanding of the respondents’ experience (Arnold and Fischer 1994).

Case study 22.1: Illustrative case

Using two different examples from the tourists’ gastronomic context, we used an embodied and spatial perspective to understand their experience. In the first case, we provide an example of food tourists visiting an oyster bar situated on the West Coast of Sweden. With the purpose of understanding the nature of the food tourists’ experience, we asked them to describe in as much detail as possible about the experience they had at the oyster bar. The findings from the study reveals that the tourists relate their experience as being extraordinary since it provides them with a multi-sensual experience. The majority of the respondents for instance, relate to how the sound of the waves and wind, chirping of the seagulls (aural aspect), smell of the sea and oysters (olfactory aspect), and the genuine type of houses decorated in a manner redolent of fisherman life and peripheral location of the place (visual aspect) contribute in making their food experience extraordinary. Therefore, by using an embodied and spatial perspective, it is clear that the tourist experiences the food and the environment through which it is consumed through their various senses such as the aural, olfactory, and visual (multi-sensually). From the illustration, it is also clear that the tourist perceives the gastronomic food experience holistically by engaging both the mind and the body.

In the second case, we used an existential phenomenological approach to understand how food tourists experience the element of surprise in extraordinary food encounters (see Goolaup, Solér, and Nunkoo 2017). Building on the assumption of lived experience as the basis for understanding and describing tourists’ food encounters, we discerned individual variation in the meaning of surprise in such encounters. By conducting a phenomenological analysis of extraordinary food experiences in the tourist context, we were able to distinguish different meanings in first-hand experiences of tourists’ extraordinary food experiences. Then we were able to use the theoretical lens of food cultural capital to link variation in surprise meanings in tourists’ extraordinary food experiences to the formal and informal food cultural resources acquired, and cultural affinities.
The tourists’ gastronomic experience

inherited from the family of origin. Our findings showed that elements of surprise in extraordinary food experiences were linked to tourists’ experiential context – their life-world (Heidegger 1962; Thompson, Locander, and Pollio 1989). In the study (Goolaup, Solér, and Nunkoo 2017), it was found that tourists with high food cultural capital are more likely to be surprised by the simplicity (in terms of place, service, and food) of the food experience compared to those having low cultural capital that are more likely to be surprised by the genuine food experience (in terms of place, service, people, and food). Indeed, by using the embodied and spatial perspective, we were able to capture how the habitus of the tourists frame the way they experience an extraordinary food. The respondents’ food cultural capital in terms of gastronomy-oriented fine food, wine books/magazines, and fancy cooking equipment (e.g., equipment used in fine dining restaurants), shaped and framed their surprising experience of innovative menus and the chic service of fine dining and Michelin star restaurants (see also Hjalager 2003). The food tourists with relatively lower levels of food capital as less gastronomy-oriented objectified food cultural capital, and more informed by home cooking framed their experience of surprise. Our findings, enabled by the existential-phenomenological method, indicates that the surprise experienced by tourists during extraordinary food encounters – as a reflection of their food cultural capital – was conditioned by the social context of specific experiences. Thus, by situating tourist gastronomic experience in the body and using a method that fully recognizes the embodiment of experience we contribute to literature on extraordinary experience and the element of surprise (Arnould and Price 1993; Celsi, Rose, and Leigh 1993; Tumbat and Belk 2011) by enabling attention to how food tourists’ lived gastronomic experience reflect surprise.

Conclusion

An embodied and spatial approach to gastronomic tourist experience adds to current knowledge on such experience investigated from macro and micro level perspectives. It does so by offering a scientific perspective and method that discriminates between different lived experiences and subsequent different perceptions of gastronomic experience. We suggest that the embodied tourist gastronomic experience is situated in the body which spatially occurs in a non-ordinary place.

References


PART III

Sustainability for gastronomic tourism
Sustainable tourism

In accordance with the notion of sustainable development – officially formalized by the United Nations in 1987 in the renowned Brundtland Report – which states that every human activity has to be realized in a way that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to use economic, environmental, and socio-cultural resources to meet their own needs (WCED 1987), the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) defines sustainable tourism as that “tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities” (UNEP and UNWTO 2005: 12). All resources should be managed in ways that ensure the satisfaction of economic, social and esthetic needs, while keeping the integrity of cultures, essential ecological services, biological diversity, and life systems in the areas concerned. The sustainable touristic products are those that act in line with the environment, communities, and local culture, in order to make sure they are the beneficiaries of the touristic development, and not its victims.

The guiding principles of sustainable tourism are applicable to every form of tourism and to every type of destination, including not only the various niche segments, but also mass tourism. In all cases, the touristic practice should be able to: make optimal use of environmental resources that constitute a key element in tourism development, maintaining essential ecological processes and helping to conserve natural resources and biodiversity; respect the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities, conserve their built and living cultural heritage and traditional values, and contribute to inter-cultural understanding and tolerance; ensure viable, long-term economic operations, providing socio-economic benefits to all stakeholders that are fairly distributed, including stable employment, income-earning opportunities, and social services to host communities, and contributing to poverty alleviation (UNWTO 2016).

Sustainable tourism should also provide tourists with a high level of satisfaction, granting them a meaningful and culturally-rich experience and raising their awareness regarding sustainability practices (Corvo 2011). In fact, sustainable tourism requires the informed participation of all involved subjects, and certainly needs strong political guidance securing wide-scale participation and support. To reach such goals, a continuous process has to be implemented,
to constantly monitor impacts and uninterruptedly elaborate on preventive and/or corrective actions (WFTA 2016).

The organizations dealing with sustainable tourism are multiple, and range from political subjects such as the European Union and the United Nations agencies, to NGOs and various private actors, all aiming at spreading the culture of sustainability and putting it into practice in every touristic activity, acting on an international, national, or local scale. Educational and knowledge dissemination centers play a crucial role as well, which is that of providing criteria and methodological guidelines for the comprehension and application of the concept of sustainable tourism, that is acknowledged within high-level institutional fora as one of the possible driving sectors of the coveted green revolution of the economy (Yeoman et al. 2016).

Sustainable tourism requires touristic operators to pay the utmost attention to ensuring that tourism is designed, realized, and managed in such a way that it is not the cause of social and economic inequity, especially to the detriment of host populations, in full respect of principles of corporate social responsibility, gender equality, environmental sustainability, and fair behavior patterns in general. Practicing sustainable tourism implies sharing among all actors (tourists, organizers, and host communities) the awareness of being involved in a peer relationship, where the needs of each cannot prevail over those of others, but indeed everyone is required to personally commit to preserve the functional balance of the destination and allow a healthy, sustainable, and profitable survival of the protagonists of the tourist experience (Sidali, Spiller, and Schulze 2011).

A priority criterion calls for solidarity towards local populations, especially those of the poorest countries, too often crushed by massive influx of inattentive and inconsiderate tourists. A very common practical endeavor in travels of sustainable tourism, in fact, aims at ensuring that the highest possible percentage of the cost of travel remains within the destination; this share today, in the countries of the global south, on average reaches just 30%. It is also common practice to allocate a share of touristic revenues to local development projects in the areas concerned, along with various other measures.

The sustainability of gastronomic tourism

Over the years, the problematic dimensions of sustainability have been emphasized, denoting a risk of ambiguity at a terminological level and a tendency to fail at the stage of its effective empirical implementation. The issue of sustainability is connoted by its social, political and ethical-philosophical values but too often the term ‘sustainable’ is being employed to justify the most diverse proposals and activities, creating a lot of confusion and complicating an already sufficiently articulated subject.

Actually, managing sustainability is a delicate matter because it involves all actors in the local system (operators, authorities, tourists, residents), who usually carry differentiated interests and pursue goals that do not always coincide. Sustainable gastronomic tourism is based on the acceptance of general principles of behavior by consumers, institutions, industry operators, and the local population, but also conveys a series of paradoxes that risk negatively affecting the environmental and community resources that this very form of tourism intends to preserve.

The first paradox regards what’s termed ‘destructive protection’, which happens when territorial areas or resources not yet degraded by tourist flows and human activity (and therefore considered valuable) need to turn into ‘attractions’ to be enjoyed; the transformation of the resource into attraction takes place through the attribution of markers and starts arousing tourists needs’ and desires, so that it may become difficult to keep the fruition to a soft tourism
Sustainable gastronomic tourism

level – defined as a form of tourism which leads to mutual understanding between the local population and their guests and which does not endanger the cultural identity and the environmental integrity of the host region (CIPRA 1984) – and control the flow of visitors and the level of degradation of the site.

A second paradox concerns the effects of tourism on the local community. Not always local communities deem the conservation of the ecosystem and local culture a priority, and frequently prefer to access the short-term economic benefits of tourism without worrying about the future consequences.

A third paradox relates to the ‘globalization of the typical’, which involves the risks of altering the characteristic elements of the local culture to eventually transform them into reality that best fits the needs of consumers: just think about food systems and the quality of food and drink. The presence of tourists activates processes of acculturation that put pressure on almost all the elements that characterize a culture, ultimately determining, influencing, or accelerating the modification of dwellings, clothing, work systems, and rhythms. Thus, the ‘typical’ of the beginning of the touristic development often happens to be different from the ‘typical’ which is actually enjoyed by the tourist, even if such development aimed at having a conservative function.

Lastly, also the ‘economies of scale’ can also embody a paradox, because in some cases the promotion of places and attractions is economically viable only given a significant level of touristic presence, thus inherently endangering the natural, social, and cultural environment – i.e., the very same touristic resources that ought to be protected.

In addition to these paradoxes, it is evident that the diffusion of sustainable food and wine tourism implies the application of mechanism of touristic exclusion, hence posing a series of very delicate and complex issues, on which there are open discussions and debates. The first aspect concerns the objective criteria of exclusion: in a democratic society, there would be a form of tourism not accessible to everyone that would end up decreeing social and cultural differences also from the point of view of the consciousness and the ecological quality of life. Then, the problem of identifying the characteristics of those elected to be sustainable tourists would arise: the richest? The most environmentally and gastronomically aware/skilled? Sustainable tourism would thus constitute an elitist and exclusive practice for people who can behave in an eco-friendly manner without the possibility of involving other strata of less sensitive tourists (Corvo 2015).

There is also a controversy regarding the level of adjustment to the rules of soft gastronomic tourism: a thorough adaptation to the soft tourism model demands a renunciation, at least partially, of the touristic practice, in order to contribute to the conservation of the environment.

Finally, the fundamental dimension of the concept of sustainability, i.e., the awareness of the consequences current choices have on future generations, appears to be questioned and often forgotten – we shall not, however, be surprised at this, considering that scholars of various disciplines have long argued that Western civilization has now folded on itself and that the vision of the future is very frail and short-sighted, with human existence carried within the limits of the absolute present (Bauman 2005).

Having reached this point, one might ask: does it make sense to talk about sustainable gastronomic tourism or would it be better to modify the term and narrow it to certain well-proven and verified experiences? Certainly, the definition of sustainable tourism has now been swallowed down by the touristic market and it has been turning into an excuse for every kind of offer. Within this field, the scientific community can make its contribution to at least ensure that the term does not become a mere label to be glued onto the most diverse experiences,
without controls and without real respect for peoples and cultures, and raise awareness of the
fact that putting sustainability into practice asks for the full involvement of indigenous peoples
in decision-making processes and the inclusion of food and wine tourists in the social life of
the visited communities (Corvo and Matacena 2017).

Table 23.1 lists the ten points that are considered essential to the work of food and wine
operators in order to achieve the dimensions of sustainability, and to improve the quality of
reception. Considering the current situation, it seems evident that there are many gaps to fill
and that training and professional updating activities need to be planned, so as to fill the ranks
of sensitive and well-prepared tourism operators.

It should also be remembered that many agricultural enterprises have become aware of
the strategic role of Corporate Social Responsibility and intend to act in accordance with
the prescriptions of the triple bottom line, thus coupling traditional economic and financial
accounting with endeavors of social and environmental reporting. A single synthetic docu-
ment is therefore issued: it is able to integrate and account for all the dimensions of business
performance and employs the same procedures for registering financial as well as socio-envi-
ronmental outcomes.

**Table 23.1 Decalogue for food and wine operators**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
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<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Continuous updating of the trends of the gastronomy and tourism market and on the motivations behind gastronomic tourists’ choices, in order to grasp the transformations undergoing in society and adapt organizational activities and structures accordingly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>At least one of the operators must know English and possibly another foreign language (referring to the composition of the touristic presence). The menu must be in multiple languages, as well as other useful indications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Alternate between national, local, and ethnic dishes, so as to guarantee food its role as a flexible indicator of the different stories and resources in the area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Collaborate with other gastronomic operators to spur territorial economic development through the common management of certain services (promotion, communication, marketing, booking, etc.), overcoming the traditional rivalry for which the nearby structure is seen only as a competitor and not as a potential ally in the valorization of local resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Collaborate with public institutions at various levels (national, regional, provincial, municipal) for the realization of local territorial development projects, overcoming mutual distrusts with the purpose of local wealth growth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Always keep staff optimally trained and updated by investing time and economic resources for targeted training courses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Involve other professional categories (such as artisans, merchants, educators, etc.) in activities and initiatives, to show care about the territory and be perceived as a beneficial actor within the local context, according to the model of corporate social responsibility.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Get involved in online communication and marketing activity and online social networking, employing this resource to foster customer loyalty and the e-commerce of non-perishable products in a variety of ways. The Internet can also be used to create a virtual community of users of the services offered, within which to exchange information and experiences regarding food and tourism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Don’t speculate on prices, but implement a pricing policy of variability based on the periods of the year and the different types of users, with a ‘slow and low’ mode that can help expand the customer base and more efficiently manage business seasonality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Promote food and taste education initiatives, especially among young people, contributing to spread a food culture that follows quality- and safety-oriented criteria.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Case study 23.1

This paragraph presents two case-studies where the authors conducted their research. The first one focus on Costa Vescovado (AL) and shows how a single economic player can develop a sustainable offer for gastronomic tourism. The second, about Lavagna (GE), highlights how the economic and instructional collaboration among private and public bodies can generate the transition towards sustainability.

The Apennine area in southern Piedmont is among the lowest populated areas in the region. Only few thousand people lived in an area that covers about 1.875 km$^2$ and lies between Cadibona pass in the west, the border with Liguria in the South, the border with Lombardy on the east and the Po and Tanaro rivers valley in the north. All of them experience a radical demographic decline after the Second World War, due to the fast urbanization of the large cities in the region (e.g., Genoa, Milan, and Turin) as well as the towns at the end of the valleys (e.g., Acqui, Alessandria, Novi, and Tortona). Costa Vescovado (AL) is one of those villages. Placed in the high hills that divide the Grue and Ossona valleys, it is a rural community of about 300 people, on the border between Liguria and Piedmont. In the first part of the twentieth century, it had about one thousand inhabitants, but then, between the 1960s and the 1970s, the population dramatically dropped to the present levels. The people of the village remember young people were moving to Alessandria, Genoa, Milan, and Tortona, looking for jobs in the factories or in the offices, abandoning the land and the rural life. As many plots of land were abandoned, agricultural activities contracted and farms were closed. In this context, Valli Unite cooperative (www.valliunite.com/) represented an important exception and innovation.

Valli Unite was founded in 1981, merging together the activities of three original partners. It was one of the earliest enterprises in Piedmont that specialized in organic farming, copying the model from France. The co-op initially focused on cattle breeding, an industry that had been mostly abandoned in the area after the mass-emigration. In particular, they employed the free grazing technique and specialized in the breeding of autochthonous races, such as Piedmontese cattle.

Starting from this initial activity, the coop developed the business, aiming at economic diversification. They expanded the stables, started breeding also milk cows and pigs. This led to the creation of workshops for the manufacture of cheese and salami. Moreover, starting from the original 10 hectares, the farm expanded to encompass about 100 hectares. The land is used for cultivation (grain, legumes, fruits, vegetables), vineyards, pastures, and wood. The substantial production of vegetables and fruits led to establishing workshops for the production of processed food, such as bread, flour, jams, and preserves. The coop also created a winery that has specialized in organic and natural wine. Valli Unite products are sold in direct markets locally, in the farm shop, through purchasing groups, and e-commerce. Moreover, the products are at the basis of the offer of the farm’s 60-seat restaurant. The restaurant has been the core of a touristic offer that further developed in the 2000s, through a 15-bed B&B, and a camping area. Finally, the farm is directly involved in education. Valli Unite has been one of the earliest educational farms in the region. Moreover, it periodically organizes workshops for adults and kids about food cooking and tasting, as well as recreational activities about arts and crafts and hiking.

Valli Unite is an example of community-based agriculture that has followed by many experiences in the past decades (e.g., the ecovillage Lacasarotta in Cherasco, www.lacasarotta.com/) and embodies the principles of circular and integrated economy.
Moving from individual’s action towards territory, the second example addresses the case of Lavagna (GE).

The town of Lavagna is located in the Gulf of Tiguglio, in the Eastern coast of Liguria region. The area includes internationally well-known tourist locations, such as Portofino, Santa Margherita Ligure, and Rapallo. The medieval and early modern history of the town is linked with agriculture along the Entella river and to the extraction industries of stale in the inland. However, from the end of the nineteenth century, and especially from the 1930s, the town became the center of a flourishing seaside tourist industry. In a few decades, tourism turned out to be the main local industry and, starting in the 1950s, the coast was subject to a rapid urbanization. New restaurants, hotels, bathhouses, and second houses spawned along the sea, while local people were leaving their traditional jobs in agriculture in order to get new jobs in the growing tourist industry as well as in the manufacture industry of Genoa.

The touristic offering developed during this period was characterized by scarce attention to the specificities of the area, offering standardized menus, common to the entire region. In the past twenty years, though, a new sensibility towards local, traditional productions has also begun to spread throughout Liguria, also thanks to the key role played by Slow Food and agricultural organizations. In this context, between 2010 and 2012, detailed research was conducted in Lavagna aimed at detailing the local traditional products and recipes (Passano 2014). Its outcomes created the first knowledge base, made available to the community, which was able to trigger a significant process of sustainable local development in the gastronomic sector.

The first result was to lead a new articulation of the local gastronomic offer. A key role in this was played by Bilaia (http://www.labilaia.it/). This activity was created in the 1903 as a small farm, located in the inland of Lavagna. In 2010, one of the main actors of the research started managing the farm and turned it into an agritourism in 2013. In particular, it articulates the offer of the restaurant by recovering and promoting the local products, such as oil and vegetables.

At the same time, with Town Council Resolution No. 44/2012, the municipality of Lavagna approved the regulation for the institution of a municipal designation of origin brand. This brand protects all the food products, which are closely linked to history, culture and local traditions, made and packaged in the municipal territory of Lavagna: branded products include Lavagna olives, preserved vegetables, and Fieschi’s cake.

As the restaurants of the city have become among the main locations where tourists can purchase these products, the menus of the main local restaurants also started including the products, thus promoting them and at the same time better distinguishing the uniqueness of Lavagna touristic offer.

This renewed interest has led also to a stronger demand for local agricultural products and it created a new market for new farms. This tendency can be grasped by a datum: between 2016–17, at least five new farms specialized in traditional productions were established.

The example of Lavagna offers a model of a systemic shift of an entire territory towards a model of tourism interested into small, local productions enacted not by a single player, but by a complex network of economic and institutional actors that together are able to perform a transition towards a sustainable tourism, reducing the environmental impact of the industry and reinforcing local social and cultural capital.
Conclusions

In order to be able to play a positive role in development, every touristic activity must be carried out in accordance with the principles of the fullest environmental, social, and economic sustainability. Applicable, obviously, to all other human activity, the concept of sustainable development together with corporate social responsibility mirror the changes that have been occurring in society, which has finally realized the threat to the survival of the planet caused by its own actions. A focus on socio-environmental issues is now embedded in any kind of development guidelines and increasingly integrated in the policies of public and private actors.

The shift in perception is total and is manifested on the demand and supply sides simultaneously. In the first case, individuals are claiming their role as ‘conscious consumers’, aware of their ability to influence the dynamics of the market through the exercise of their preference, and increasingly willing to aggregate and exchange with their peers, with the support of modern communication technologies. In the second case, firms have realized that reducing their socio-environmental impacts is a condition of long-term economic prosperity, providing benefits both in terms of cost reductions and in terms of strengthening competitiveness, building a positive image, and increasing their ability to respond to customers’ expectations.

The gastronomic tourism industry takes on the burden of championing this new way of doing (and conceiving) enterprise, one of the most fertile lands on which to cultivate a renewed attitude of care towards the planet and the individuals. For this purpose, it is appropriate to establish a synergy between all the stakeholders involved in the tourism process: international agencies, national and local governments, private companies, workers, NGOs, educational institutions, local communities, and tourists are indeed called upon to work jointly, sharing the effort to ensure that every ring of the chain is evaluated, designed, and built under the threefold profile of sustainability (IPK 2017).

Ultimately, in order for this process to find a more and more thorough application in the years to come, and to disengage its role as bearer of peace, tolerance, and harmony, it must be able to make a dent into the individual consciousness. The fundamental task, therefore, is pedagogical. It is only by acting on the education, of the child as much as the established professional, that we can hand down to posterity a more mindful and responsible humanity, equipped with the necessary tools to make itself aware of the effects of its actions.

References


Introduction

Tourism is an important contributor to a destination’s economy (Lee and Kwon 1995). Thus, major inquiries in tourism research have evolved from understanding tourists’ motivations and destination attributes (push and pull factors; Crompton 1979). This is based on the belief that a destination can achieve greater success and increase the volume of tourist influx by supplying their needs and wants. These factors include cultural, historical, scenic attractions, shopping, and nightlife-related facilities (Crompton 1979). In this discourse, one of the important factors that enhances a destination’s cultural characteristics is largely disregarded – food.

Despite its importance, until recently the field lacked empirical evidence on how food can motivate individuals to travel to a destination (Quan and Wang 2004) and how food and dining experiences can determine the quality of overall travel experience (Sengel et al. 2015). Although more recent research outcomes indicate that food is a major contributor to a memorable tourist experience (Kivela and Crotts 2006) and a motivation for travel (Quan and Wang 2004), more salient attention has been given to local food due to its impact on sustainable tourism development (de Jong and Varley 2017). As a result, more inquiries are made to understand how local food can contribute to sustainable tourism development. However, the field lacks the understanding of how local food can help achieve sustainable tourism goals, thus greater attention is required (de Jong and Varley 2017).

Therefore, the first part of this chapter addresses the meaning of local food diversity in tourist experiences. It introduces two different types of travelers, one that prefers risk-averse food options such as standardized food chains (e.g., McDonalds) and a more adventurous group of tourists who are open to different food experiences. It also discusses the importance of local food diversity in the formation of tourist experiences. Then, the second part introduces the various aspects of sustainable tourism. Using Clarke’s (1997) framework of sustainable tourism, it explains how local foods contribute to different segments of sustainable tourism. Those segments encompass cultural, historical, educational, ecological, physical, social, and economic aspects.

Finally, the third part explains how local foods’ contribution to sustainable tourism in all segments can create a sustainable destination identity and strengthen the integrity of food systems in regional areas for local inhabitants. This chapter concludes by providing practical suggestions and implications for industry practitioners and policy makers. This chapter uses tourism in Houston, Texas, as an example.
Local food and sustainable tourism: Evidence from Houston, Texas

For some, traveling is an exciting activity but for others traveling can increase their level of anxiety. Traveling to a different location includes a series of activities that involve high level of uncertainties (Reisinger and Mavondo 2005). In the context of food consumption, travelers can also suffer from anxiety and risk perception (Larsen, Brun, and Ogaard 2009). This is because travelers are not familiar with the types or ingredients of local cuisine and they also do not acquire enough information regarding local food safety regulations. Rather, individuals rely on stereotypical images of destinations’ food depicted in mass media (Tiozzo et al. 2017) and this can raise concerns around food safety issues (e.g., unfamiliar ingredients and allergies, food-borne illness). These traveler tendencies increase the risk perception involved in traveling to a destination and oftentimes eliminate an option where it has too much uncertainty (Larsen et al. 2009).

Therefore, earlier tourism development mainly focused on implementing more standardized foodservice facilities in destinations. Standardization of foodservices can increase efficiency, calculability, predictability, control (Weaver 2005), and ultimately decrease uncertainties involved in food consumption while traveling. This approach brought two distinct results in tourist experiences. First, in the name of globalization, more franchised food companies expanded business opportunities to unfamiliar travel destinations, providing travelers from the company’s origin to reduce their worries about dining out while traveling (Mak et al. 2012). Second, adding more franchised businesses to different destinations resulted in the gentrification of destination authenticity (CNN Travel 2014).

With a new push for sustainable tourism development, there has been a concern for destinations losing their authentic identities due to the standardization of dining facilities. As UNESCO addresses, local gastronomy is a pivotal part of cultural identity and gentrification of the local food can potentially threaten the destination’s identity (Galvez et al. 2017). Another argument is made to find a bridge between conserving local identity while managing globalization and reducing travelers’ worries (Mak et al. 2012). Okumus, Okumus, and McKercher (2007) showed that local cuisine and authenticity can be a strong marketing tool when they are not treated as negative attributes for tourist experiences.

Although there seems to be a silver lining in managing local food diversity, sustainable tourism development, and travelers’ anxiety, removing travelers’ anxiety toward trying local food requires pre-planned strategies and policy support (de Jong and Varley 2017). This leads to the reason for understanding exemplary cases where destinations successfully used local food diversity to enhance their destination identities. This chapter adopts a case from Houston, Texas, USA.

Justification for the case selection

One of the top gastronomy cities in the USA is chosen for this study – Houston, Texas. Texas is located in the Southern part of the US where the state borders domestically with New Mexico, Oklahoma, Arkansas, Louisiana, and internationally with Mexico. The city of Houston is comprised of 667 square miles with a population of 2,303,482 (July 1, 2016 estimated figure: United States Census Bureau 2017). The demonym of Houston is Houstonian and Houstonians are comprised of 44.7% Hispanic, 24.9% Caucasian, 22% African American, and 6.9% Asian (Data USA 2017). The city has many consulates representing 80 countries (Houston Foreign Consulates 2017).
Previously, Houston had a notorious reputation among tourists due to its climate (e.g., heat, humidity), heavy connections to oil industry, and poor zoning and development (Nelson 2015). Therefore, it seems far from the concept of sustainable destination development. However, with a long line of immigration history and multicultural environment, Houston became a birthplace of a wide range of ethnic and fusion cuisine and gained a reputation of the ‘dining-out capital of America’ (Gattis 2010). Over the past decades, Houston tourism endeavored to renew its destination image and infuse more creativity, sustainability, and diversity concepts through its culinary culture (Nelson 2015; Houston First Corporation 2017). Therefore, it is noteworthy to discuss Visit Houston’s efforts in re-establishing Houston’s destination image and how local food diversity and creativity became fuel for sustainable destination development.

Local food diversity and sustainability
Cultural, historical, and educational aspects

As the global tourism market has become more competitive, more tourism research has evolved around memorable tourism. This is based on the belief that when tourists have memorable experiences at a destination, that will motivate them to return to the destination (Kim and Ritchie 2014). Kim (2014) identified that many attributes are associated with the memorable travel experience, but local culture can provide more unique and authentic travel experiences. In his definition, the local culture is rather broad: it conveys cultural, historical, and educational experiences about how local people live and deal with their day-to-day lives (Kim 2014). Understanding local culture not only draws more tourists to a destination, but it is also a fundamental step toward sustainable tourism. UNESCO emphasizes that respecting local customs, cultures, and lifestyles help travelers think about the impact of their presence during their travel (2010). When travelers develop close relationships with local people, it becomes also more memorable, sustainable, and long-term (Raymond and Hall 2008).

Case study 24.1

In the case of city of Houston, first, travelers can learn about its cultural dynamics through experiencing local foods. As aforementioned, Houston is a multi-cultural city where it has a unique immigration history. One of the largest demographic segments consist of Hispanics/Latinos and that became a major engine for developing Tex-Mex or Texas Mexican cuisine. Chef Adan Medrano’s book Truly Texas Mexican: A Native Culinary Heritage in Recipes asserts that Texas Mexican cuisine is a type of Mexican and American cuisine that differs from the mainland Mexico and recipes of Tex-Mex cuisine have evolved by generations forming strong and unique characteristics (e.g., use of wheat flours to thicken sauces and using chilies with cheese). This shows a direct linkage to the people who settled in Southern Texas around the 1500s (Tijerina 2014). Every recipe of Tex-Mex restaurants carries stories, histories, and cultures, and many Tex-Mex restaurants in the greater Houston area have long history embedded in their premises.

Many of the first settlers in Houston had Scottish and English heritage, followed by German. Scottish and English people later moved north including Kentucky and Missouri whereas Germans remained and participated in farming practices (e.g., growing vegetables and producing dairy products). After the Great Flood of 1927, African-American and French migrants from Louisiana
settled in Houston and brought farming and gardening knowledge. Together with them, Louisiana Creole cuisine and soul food were introduced to Houston and spread more rapidly during the post-World War II era (Leftwich 2016). Travelers in Houston can easily find boudin and shrimp creole, crawfish, gumbo, jambalaya, and cornbread.

The next wave was Italians who immigrated via Galveston and moved to Galleria and north of Houston areas. They had established truck farms and heavily participated in restaurant businesses. These became major foodservice businesses in Houston today (e.g., the Carrabba’s, the Mandolas, the Caninos, the Dittas, and the Petronellas; Leftwich 2016). In early 1900s, the eastern part of downtown Houston (old China town) and Bellaire (opened in 1983) formed a Chinese enclave that included other Asian people. Here, travelers can learn about history of Chinese settlers while experiencing authentic Chinese food as well as Taiwan, Korean, Japanese, Vietnamese, Thai, Laos, Indonesian, and Malaysian cuisines. Although Chinese immigrants have a longer history settling in Houston, the largest group of Asian immigrants comprises of Vietnamese (approximately 15,000 in Houston and 31,000 in the greater Houston area). The Vietnamese community expanded rapidly with refugees who escaped from their country during the Vietnam War (Leftwich 2016). Many Vietnamese or Vietnamese fusion restaurants are located in the midtown area of Houston selling pho noodles and summer rolls.

Houston’s cultural diversity and long immigration history are well-reflected in the local food offerings. Moreover, as people of Houston have mingled and lived with other ethnic groups, more fusion cuisines are emerging in this area, providing more unique options for travelers. For example, recently, some restaurants introduced Chinese Israeli fusion food in the home of Jewish community, Meyerland, Houston (Levitt 2017). In Houston’s gastronomy and tourism case, it is almost inevitable that tourists are exposed to multinational and fusion cuisines that they have perhaps never experienced in other travel destinations. Through dining out and going to historical landmark restaurants where it preserves the long immigration history of Houston, travelers can learn and better understand the city’s demographic, cultural, and historical composition.

Physical and ecological aspects

Physical/ecological sustainability in tourism has received significant attention from both industry and academia. However, previous studies recorded that even environmentalist individuals change their behavior when they are traveling – resulting in less conservationist behavior at travel destinations (Baker, Davis, and Weaver 2014). Such behavioral differences in home and travel destinations raise concerns for destination managers because it is a lot harder to persuade travelers to engage in eco-friendly behaviors. However, this paper argues that when the whole destination is putting collaborative efforts (Jamal and Getz 1995) to promote environmentally sustainable tourism, there is a possibility to influence travelers’ eco-friendly behavior.
Case study 24.2

The city of Houston has an office of sustainability that closely monitors climate change, energy efficiency, financing, and education (City of Houston 2017). The office of sustainability has launched green city projects that encompass numerous sub-projects such as bikeways programs, compost bin/rain barrels sale, electric vehicles, farmers market, green and solar power programs, drinking water and water supply program, energy efficiency, and recycling and waste disposal programs (City of Houston 2017).

Among these programs, local foodservice providers and people involved in the food systems (e.g., farmers/suppliers) participate in many initiatives such as recycling, waste disposal, farmers market, energy efficiency, and green power programs. However, this is not because of the government’s reinforcement of destination sustainability. Rather, local restaurant customers have become more environmentally conscious and are more concerned about healthy dining options. Such a push helps restaurant entrepreneurs to reduce food mileage, seeking ways to incorporate hyper-sourcing practices (e.g., implementing hydroponic systems in the restaurant), reduce food waste (e.g., convert fry oil into biofuel), and increase energy efficiency (Houston First Corporation 2017).

In the sustainable tourism development perspective, Houston’s green practices can be a meaningful reminder for travelers. As earlier studies showed, when travelers encounter certain informational cues, it can prompt more in-depth information processing of the cues and cause them to be engaged in relevant behaviors (Sparks, Perkins, and Buckley 2013). In other words, when travelers dine in at any restaurants in Houston or visiting farmers’ markets and can identify environmental cues from restaurants’ green practices, then they themselves are more likely to engage in conserving behaviors.

Economic and social aspects

Finally, travelers’ local gastronomic experiences can help destinations build more sustainable and long-term economic and social development. Recent research outcomes in the tourism field argued that local agri-tourism can bridge conservation, food security, and tourism (Addinsall et al. 2017) and involving local farmers to traveler co-creation process can become a value adding realm while pursuing sustainability (Thomas-Francois, von Massow, and Joppe 2017). Moreover, the tourism revenue generated through involving local farmers and local restaurants can re-distribute the dollars to the local community.

Case study 24.3

Promoting local gastronomy to travelers can benefit the local economy. In Houston, there are 10,000 restaurants representing 70 countries and American regions (Houston First Corporation 2017) – resulting from the cultural diversity of the city. However, locals running restaurants in the Houston area have to face intense competition as the barriers for entry are extremely low for food-service businesses (Gattis 2010). In other words, local restauranteurs should fight hard for market
share or they will die. When tourists come into the destination and are dining in local restaurants, it can increase the size of the overall market and can boost their revenue levels. Unlike dining at a standardized franchised restaurant, the money spent in the local restaurants will remain in the community, especially with residing customers’ push for local sourcing.

Local gastronomy can also provide meaningful social contributions. Despite its prosperous urban images, the east side of Houston is battling with food insecurity issues (e.g., Harris county – 17.5%; Houston Food Bank 2017). Many Houstonian local restaurants, food suppliers, distribution companies, grocery stores, and farmers pair up with Houston Food Bank to alleviate poverty and hunger in the city. Therefore, when the destination promotes its local gastronomy, travelers’ contributions to dining out at local restaurants and food stores can potentially help people who are socially and economically disadvantaged. Moreover, many young entrepreneurs hope to find an opportunity to open their own restaurants and businesses in Houston to achieve their life goals. Travelers’ active involvement in local food experiences can potentially provide these people more opportunities to engage in entrepreneurial activities.

Towards a future of sustainable tourism development and local food

Earlier approaches to destination development and gastronomy were about providing consistency and standardized experiences to customers, because these can reduce travelers’ uncertainties, risk perceptions and anxiety (Mak et al. 2012). However, more recently, researchers understand the benefits of promoting local food to travelers in achieving sustainable tourism development, more studies have explored the risk-benefit perceptions of eating local food including street food (Choi, Lee, and Ok 2013).

From the case study on Houston, this chapter shows how a destination’s local cuisine can contribute to sustainable tourism development, from cultural, historical, educational, physical, ecological, economic, and social perspectives. First, in the analysis of cultural, historical, and educational aspects, this study could show the potential to develop more sustainable tourism by adding more stories to the food they serve locally. Providing food to travelers is not merely an act of reducing their feelings of hunger; rather the experience itself can be re-designed as a storytelling experience. According to Woodside (2010), a storytelling method can assist individuals in remembering their experience more vividly and help them to retrieve relevant information better. Therefore, cultural and historical stories travelers learned during their dining experiences can provide more meaningfulness and involvement to travelers and leave the destination with more memorable experiences (Kim 2014).

Second, in the analysis of physical and ecological perspectives, with changes to general consumer trends (e.g., natural, organic, healthy eating), many local foodservice operations have been adopting more local or hyperlocal sourcing options. Based on marketing research evidence on consumer cue processing, this chapter asserts that when local foodservice businesses consistently reinforce their green initiatives, it might remind travelers how much effort the residents put into the conserving of the destination. This way, travelers might become more participatory toward environmental conservation when they travel.

Lastly, this study examined economic and social aspects of promoting local gastronomy and its impact on sustainable destination development. Economically, travelers using more
locally sourced local restaurants can improve revenue generation in all parties involved in the greater food system (e.g., farm to end users) because tourism revenue can be re-distributed to the local business entities. When the local economy gains its strengths, it promotes the younger generation’s entrepreneurial activities. Also, travelers spending more money on local foodservice businesses can improve business situations and create more local jobs – leading to a decrease in unemployment rate.

In terms of social aspects, not only developing countries but also developed countries such as the USA suffer from various societal issues. In the case of Houston, the major social issue can be found from food insecurity and the poverty rate. For travelers, local gastronomy can give them added experiential values by having more authentic dining options, but locals can achieve greater business success and return the favor to the local communities, especially to those who are socially and economically disadvantaged.

Although many of these contributions through local gastronomy seem easy to achieve, in many destinations the connection between sustainability and local gastronomy is not well-established. As mentioned in the study of Jamal and Getz (1995), sustainable destination development is not merely done by one entity. However, creating gastronomy experience in a destination involves many stakeholders (e.g., policy makers, suppliers, farmers, distributors, restaurateurs, customers, etc.) and without every party’s collaborative work, it is difficult to achieve the sustainability goals. Therefore, as suggested in Byrd (2007), a destination should consider involving all necessary stakeholders.

References


Introduction

This chapter explores gastronomic tourism as a sustainable supply chain issue as articulated in the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (UN 2015). Gastronomy and tourism in economic terms is presumed to valorize regions particularly through indigenous integrated supply chains (Dwyer, et al. 2000). This chapter extends the concept of sustainability to consider not only economic externalities but also the social and environmental benefits of food/gastronomic tourism.

Initially, we define the nature of ‘gastronomic tourism’ and the growing interest of consumers in the authenticity of provenance of food. The chapter, then, suggests that although in principle there is a demand for a gastronomic tourism, the sustainability of such ventures is dependent on the economic and social value delivered and its environmental impact. Thus, the focus of the discussion revolves around the idea that even where economic value is generated by gastronomic tourism, there may be negative consequences for the environment and the community; an aspect particularly apparent where destinations fail to attract the low-volume high-spending gastronomic tourists.

Gastronomic tourism

Hall and Sharples (2003) make the distinction between the gastronomic tourist where the primary motive is to visit an area for the purpose of experiencing the local culinary wares, and culinary tourism where the consumers shows a moderate interest once arrived; these have been conflated under the term ‘food tourism’. Cliff Wolf from the world food tourism association has made a similar distinction in characteristics of consumer of ‘deliberate’ and ‘opportunistic’.

The gastronomic tourist is essentially the modern tourist interested in more overarching experiential sensual mix of which food forms an inseparable element. The so-called ‘Alternative Hedonism’ to which Soper refers (2007), is said to reflect consumers’ backlash against the superficiality or inauthentic nature of modern lifestyles and consumption trends (Soper 2007; Frisvoll 2013). Fulfilling the needs of the tourist thus entails provision of consumption opportunities that convincingly embody a link between the food specialties, the
social, cultural, geographical, and cultural facets of place and the community. Tourists may also seek to consume more ethically, as can be seen in the growth of such initiatives as Slow Food events and Fair Trade towns (Barnett et al. 2005).

Whether hedonistic or ethical consumption, there are a series of factors that can influence the emergence of a sustainable gastronomic tourism product/destination. The development of a sustainable offering requires the recognition of intrinsic relationships between the three pillars of sustainability: economic, environmental, and social. It has been long recognized that tourism can have economic benefits but may be accompanied by negative environmental and social externalities. Whilst gastronomic tourism is held to be of greater economic value due to higher levels of expenditure per visitor, and of environmental value due to lower visitor numbers (Tikkanen 2007), positive economic and social externalities are contingent upon the nature and governance of the supply chain. It is possible that the delivery of an ‘authentic’ gastronomic experience within a food system is challenged by complex often contradictory interrelations between economic, environmental, and social benefits.

**Typology of gastronomic tourism supply chain**

Central to any evaluation of the gastronomic tourism as a positive agent in the delivery of sustainability development goals are the two interconnected concepts of: shortened/alternative supply chains and local food; their interrelationship has received limited consideration (Kneafsey et al. 2013). The economic benefits of the internalization of economic value through localized food business networks are much highlighted (Kneafsey et al. 2013). Yet there is a level of indeterminism in the meaning of ‘local food’ (Eastham 2003, 2013).

As seen in Table 25.1, there are theoretically 15 categories of local supply chains although two are realistically impossible. These are categorized by the ‘nature of localness’ and the length of the supply chain.

‘Local’ food can range from:

1. Protected Designation of Origin (PDO) or Protected Geographical Indication where the supply chain and all tiers within the supply chain are integral to the region, (PGI) (DEFRA 2015)
2. Products sold are grown and processed within the region
3. Products are grown within the region
4. Products are not grown but processed within the region – commodities are sourced from elsewhere
5. Products are externally grown, produced and often marketed – drawing upon traditional products e.g., Cornish pasties (Martinez 2010)

As is evident from Table 25.1, a gastronomic tourism destination e.g., farm shops only sell PDO products or at the other extreme source all (or most) products from sources external to the region.

The provenance of food is seen to have an economic impact, will generate jobs and skills within the region/community, and as we discuss later, has an impact on the environment.

With respect to length of supply chain, as is also illustrated in Table 25.1, we can distinguish three types of supply chains: ‘Face to face transactions’, where transactions take place directly with the primary producer or processor, ‘proximate transactions’, which involve one or more internal intermediaries, and ‘extended supply chains’, where there are a number of intermediaries who are often located in external regions. Again, the length of the supply chain
Sustainable supply chains

and number of intermediaries could potentially impact of the strength of positive externalities in the context of the three pillars of sustainability. These issues are explored in more detail in the next three sections.

**The economic benefits of gastronomic tourism**

In many developed, transitional, and developing countries, tourism is seen to be an important source of employment opportunities and economic growth in both urban and rural areas. Employment, not simply from the increased business activity at the point of sale, but throughout the supply chain and complementary sectors. Despite an increased risk of terror attacks, tourism continues to be one of the fastest growing sectors with an increase of around 4% per year in recent years.

Tourism is held to bring economic value by drawing consumers with disposable income to a destination. Value is delivered directly to tourism providers and ‘flows’ to other tiers of the supply chain; in effect, this represents the internalization of the multiplier effect. Injections of additional revenue from direct sales through catering facilities, holiday camps, holiday cottages, and other related services will have a corresponding injection of revenue into producers of products throughout the supply chain within the region, e.g., food wholesalers, food manufacturers, abattoirs, farmers. Induced effects will emerge in the form of higher level of incomes for businesses within the community, higher levels of family income, job security, and higher levels of disposable income from local residents resulting in higher expenditure on added value products and so forth (Seater 1993; Hjalager 2000; Dwyer et al. 2000).
This suggests that the extent of the multiplier effect associated with face to face transactions could in many cases be limited.

Concerns can also be expressed with respect to extended supply chains and proxemics transactions in that the provenance/ownership of resources and the strength of business linkages will have determine the impact of visitor expenditure on a region (Dwyer et al. 2000). Imported resources in the form of investment/ownership, food (for processing or as processed goods) labor, money, materials, and machines will all result in income leakage and can significantly reduce the economic impact of tourism (Frechtling and Horvarth 1999; Dwyer, Forsyth, and Spurr 2016). Yet in many cases there is the paradox that the development of an effective proxemic transactions or shortened indigenously integrated supply chain will require sufficient investment funds for the development of effective production and distribution systems. In order that food be grown and processed locally, land must be attained, farm inputs paid for, technical skills, processing facilities development, multi-temperature storage, and transport infrastructures constructed, all of which require capital investment. In many developing countries, such investment despite collective action can only be found through international loans or the recruitment of international businesses, with corresponding financial leakage.

A further issue to raise is that economic sustainability cannot necessarily be based solely upon gastronomic tourism. In many areas tourism, by its nature, is seasonal and although seasons may be elongated, periods of slack can seriously undermine economic sustainability, particularly where people are over-reliant on one form of business.

The ecological and environmental sustainability of gastronomic tourism

In the context of the environmental goals of the sustainability agenda, while tourism in general has delivered negative externalities (Palmer and Riera 2003), gastronomic tourism has, on the other hand, been purported to be more ecologically friendly (Everett and Aitchison 2008; Björk and Kauppinen-Rääsänen 2014). Claims are that face-to-face and proxemic local food supply reduce the carbon footprint of tourism (Björk and Kauppinen-Rääsänen 2014; Pratt 2013), although this could to some extent depend on the modes of transport, provenance of the tourists, and the total distances travelled (Eastham 2005).

Furthermore, the strength of these claims is contingent upon the form of measurement (Palmer and Riera 2003). Over the last few decades, various measures of environmental impact have been put forward and these roughly form two camps:

1. Food miles/enhanced food miles
2. Carbon footprints/lifecycle analysis

Food miles materialized in the 1990s to illustrate the distance travelled and the energy used to transport food from farm to plate (Paxton 1994). Research undertaken by researchers suggested that there were both social and environmental consequences in the transportation of food over distance, a rhetoric that was ratified further in the UK, when it was found that the significant movement of animals to distant slaughter houses had exacerbated the spread of Food and Mouth Disease in 2001. This led to a heavy emphasis within UK government’s Sustainable Food and Farming Strategy on ‘food miles’ and ‘enhanced food miles’, a concept that extended the calculation of environmental impact to take account of different transport modes (Van Passel 2013). The concepts of both food miles and extended food miles have been of particular interest in tourism research in the context of the overlapping studies in food tourism (Everett and Aitchison 2008) and local food and gastronomic tourism (Sims 2010).
Indeed, it is apparent that ‘food miles’ sits more comfortably in the environmental justification of food-focused tourism where food is drawn from local sources. The alternative measurement of environmental impact is that of ‘carbon footprint’ and the more holistic concept of ‘lifecycle analysis’. Carbon footprints measure the amount of carbon dioxide released in the atmosphere as a result of specific processes. In gastronomic tourism, greenhouse gases are emitted not from transport alone but also from land clearance, inputs to land, food production, processing, warehousing, and chill chains, retail, and consumption (Wright, Kemp, and Williams 2011). Emissions vary not only according to the type of supply chain, but also the type of farming and climatic conditions, sources of energy for processes, as well as the distances travelled and the form of transport (Saunders, Barber, and Taylor 2006). (2006) found in a study that focused on food grown for U.K. consumer consumption that food grown in the U.K. registered a higher carbon footprint than the equivalent food grown in New Zealand.

Shortened supply chains may prove more environmentally friendly when considered through the lens of “foodmiles”, but where the actual processes of food production, processing etc. are included within the equation as in “lifecycle analysis”, they may not necessarily be so. Furthermore, in certain forms of gastronomic tourism, for instance, farmers’ markets, whilst the distance travelled may be shorter, consumers undertake a greater number of trips, particularly in well-frequented markets (Eastham 2005).

The social theme

In the context of the sustainable development goals, the third pillar relates to the social sustainability and can be summarized into four key subthemes:

- Health and food
- Equality and justice
- Sustainable household income
- Social capital

It is presumed that the development of food tourism, including gastronomic tourism, can contribute to and augment economic value and through the internalization of the multiplier effect have a positive impact on the living standards of local inhabitants. The presence of augmented business activity and often the demand for new skills is seen to be a driver for education and skills development and thus a catalyst for the improvement of health and prosperity of a community. Central to the emergence of an effective supply chain networks/social networks is the concept of social capital, that is, economic and cultural capital where interaction within networks are marked by reciprocity, trust, and cooperation for the common good.

As discussed earlier, food/gastronomic tourism is often presumed to connect diverse economic sectors (Contini, Scarpellini, and Polidori 2009) throughout the supply chain, as well as generating additional and reciprocal business for other associated commercial enterprises. The extent to which this occurs, as discussed earlier, will depend upon the type of supply chain: greater value is normally generated through proxemic local supply chains and the emergence of networks of economic activity of mutual interest can augment social capital.

There are various examples of gastronomic initiatives, which improve the social capital as for example in New Zealand (Hall and Mitchell 2005), the U.K. (Saxena and Ilbery 2008), and Japan (Kim and Ellis 2015). However, the literature has also pointed to negative social externalities associated with food networks and food in the context of tourism (Jamal and Getz 1995). Factors such as the cohesiveness of the network, the extent of leadership, the balance of
power within the supply chain, expectations of potential workers, and the presence and relative importance of other economic activities.

To assure social cohesion and mitigate the potential conflict resultant from diversity in cultural values, disparities in individual social capital, and unbalanced distribution of economic gain, early involvement of the range of stakeholders and joint decision-making is seen to be critical (Jamal and Getz 1995; Cheng et al. 2012). This may be even more critical for gastronomic tourism, which by its nature attracts the more affluent consumer, which, in regions of high financial and food poverty, could result in open or latent hostility to tourists. Furthermore, a lack of involvement with key stakeholders, may result in other negative externalities, in that without appreciating the interconnectivity of different events and economic members of the community take choices which not only negatively affect their income over the long term, but reduce the skills base for society. A classic example of this was observed in Spain, where the workers migrated from the traditional sectors of farming and fishing (yearlong activities) to become seasonal workers in hospitality, with loss of income and skills. This can be depicted as the Dutch disease (Dwyer et al. 2016), where resource development, financial investments, and infrastructure development are focused upon one industry this can be to the detriment of alternatives. The phenomenon can have various impacts. The presence of more lucrative more conducive employment opportunities can denude other sectors of valuable employees resulting in lower productivity rates, loss of skills, and a lack of allure to financial backers.

Case study 25.1: The Caribbean experience

One specific example of a destination that is making a very real attempt to develop food, gastronomic, and culinary tourism is that of the Caribbean. Tourism has been identified as one of the key economic growth drivers across the Caribbean as illustrated by the Caribbean Community and Common Market (CARICOM) in their 2015 to 2019 strategic plan; a position supported by the Caribbean Tourism Organization (CTO), and the Caribbean Hotel and Tourism Association (CHTA).

Tourism took off in this region in the 1970s and is historically associated with mass tourism development predominantly funded through large scale foreign investment. The development of tourism resulted in the neglect other sectors of the economy including agriculture (Rodenburg 1980). The post-slavery Caribbean continued to be dominated by sugar plantations. There had emerged ‘free villages’ established by former slaves based on marginal land. Each village utilized traditional farming methods and products reflecting their own food culture and cultural identity as descendants of slaves from Africa, India, China, and the Caribbean. But tourism offered alternative employment and many agricultural workers left the land (Meyer 2006; Conway and Timms 2010). GDP declined overall from the 1970s, and the proportional respective distribution between agriculture and tourism shifted to 25/75, in essence a classical example of the Dutch disease.

A renewed interest by CARICOM governments in agriculture has emerged post 1994, not least because of the loss of preferential access to European Markets; the main driver a growing concern over malnutrition. Malnutrition in the Caribbean affected 27% of the population in the 1990s, but was reduced to 19.8% by 2015. The problem of food poverty is a consequence of the growth of food imports coupled with the decline in local production. The growth of imports, stimulated by
demand from the larger resort hotels has led to foreign exchange leakages and food price inflations limiting the access of locals to nutritional food.

In addition, tourism facilities also have competed for land resources, taking the more fertile lowland whilst the ‘free villages’ continued to cultivate the more marginal areas. The increase in demand had the effect of inflating land values, which would present a barrier to increasing the area of food production. Not surprisingly, this has stimulated the migration of farmers to tourism activities with the loss of technical land-based skills.

In order to stem income leakage as high as 90%, policymakers in the Bahamas continue to promote connectivity between the two sectors, as has been illustrated by the CWA agro tourism seminars held in 2013 by the Inter-American Institute for Cooperation in Agriculture (IICA). They hold that effective linkage between agriculture and tourism would dramatically reduce the Caribbean’s import bill by hundreds of millions of dollars, while giving agriculture a greater economic stake.

Reconnecting agriculture and tourism

There have been a number of initiatives led by public and private bodies put in place to stimulate the reconnection of agriculture and tourism and initiate the development of gastronomic tourism in the Caribbean.

- Sandals Jamaica launched their ‘Resort Farmers Program’ between 1996 and 2004; sales increased from US$60,000 to US$3.3 million. Other similar initiatives have been found in St Lucia, with a partnership between St Lucia Hotel association, the Ministry of Agriculture, Oxfam, and a vegetable farmers’ cooperative, and in Tobago with a partnership between the Hilton Tobago and Mt St George’s farmers’ association.
- Sandals Montego Bay, Jamaica began a START program offering training positions to young people from the nearby community of Flanker.
- Jamaica Agricultural Society’s (JAS) ‘Eat Jamaican’ campaign, was launched in November 2003 by several Jamaican food businesses and the Jamaica Manufacturers Association (JMA) to promote locally produced goods to residents, visitors and exporters. Other initiatives focus on the promotion of specific brands and traditional productions building upon their rich cultural heritage with for example: Aunt Vita’s Orange Peel Tea, Ma Cell’s Cinnamon Tea, and Mama’s Garlic Tea which are being marketed as ‘A Taste of Jamaica’. Such initiatives have received strong support from Jamaican resorts and hotels.
- Food events including farm and factory visits, food festivals, and agri-tourism have been established. Food festivals are particularly prolific with examples in 2016 of: The Tobago Blue food festival, Portland Jerk festival Jamaica, Arrowroot Jollification in St Martin, and the BVI food festival. These celebrate the richness of food culture of the Caribbean and strengthen rural communities, the tourism product and community-based exports.

At face value the endeavors offer a sustainable way forward on all accounts, but whilst the infrastructure is emerging, one ingredient is not as yet present. Day trippers from cruise ships drop by and partake of Caribbean fare, the ‘opportunistic food tourist’, but the Caribbean is not as yet on the hedonistic track of the ‘gastronomic tourist’. Despite the growing awareness of exotic foods and cuisine by the metropolitan tourist, the Caribbean is not as yet renowned as a destination of choice by the gastronomic tourist (Conway 2004).
Conclusion

The Caribbean offers an interesting example of the difficulties in developing gastronomic tourism. What is clear is that there has been a very real attempt to valorize the region through increased connectivity between agriculture and tourism, with a view to reduce imports and financial leakage, improve health and increase job creation and household income. Supply chains established seem to be largely proxemic local supply chains, particularly those supplying hotels, which would suggest potentially positive environmental externalities as well as economic. Indeed, evidence also suggests that the reduction in malnutrition could indeed be attributable to the proxemic supply chains and the development of public private networks through which these are delivered. Measures in certain cases have been put in place such as the START program to improve the skills base of the young within the region. Furthermore, if measured by food miles/enhanced food miles, the development of agricultural links to tourism allows for a reduced environmental impact, and potentially also a reduced carbon footprint. If we determine gastronomic tourists as those who actively seek a holiday specifically for the food experience, then there is little evidence to suggest that this form of food tourism has emerged. Indeed, there is a suggestion that the majority of consumers seek western food as rather than local dishes (Conway 2004). Consumers seem to show a moderate interest in culinary experiences once they are on holiday but it is still the sun, sea, and sand that is the main attraction. It is believed that only in the attraction of low numbers of more affluent visitors will greater positive environmental, economic, and social externalities be achieved.

References

Sustainable supply chains


Introduction

Farmers’ markets have played an important role in rural community life since ancient times, serving as meeting places for the local community and as local distribution channels for farmers. In recent decades, there has been a resurgence of interest in farmers’ markets, particularly in North America and Europe (Frost et al. 2016; Stanley and Stanley 2015), with markets appearing in both rural and urban areas (Frost et al. 2016). Growing support for farmers’ markets can be attributed to a desire for ‘farm fresh’ food, an interest in helping to preserve heritage food varieties, and a growing recognition of the need to support small-scale, sustainable farming (Frost et al. 2016; Guthrie, Guthrie, Lawson and Cameron 2006; Stanley and Stanley 2015). These benefits have also been leveraged by some regions to attract additional out-of-region consumers, usually in the form of day visitors, but in some areas as overnight tourists.

The role of farmers’ markets as distribution outlets, particularly in rural areas, has also made regional food increasingly visible and accessible as a tourist resource. Allied with a global interest in food as a unique experience, rather than just as a daily necessity, access to regional food has the ability to create new rural tourism experiences and provide new opportunities for economic development. As rural destinations have recognized the ability of food experiences to provide them with a competitive advantage over competing destinations, there has been a growth of interest in supporting farmers’ markets (Frost et al. 2016; Stanley and Stanley 2015). From a tourism perspective, farmers’ markets provide access to authentic food experiences. Farmers’ markets also provide opportunities for tourists to engage with producers and learn about local food cultures (Getz, Robinson, Andersson, and Vujicic 2014) that represent regional identity and sense of place (Silkes 2012; Timothy and Ron 2013). On a broader scale, farmers’ markets represent one element of the broader interest that urban residents have in rural tourism and the opportunities that rural areas have in using tourism as an engine for local economic development.

The evolution of farmers’ markets from community events into tourism experiences presents opportunities and challenges in relation to their ongoing function and role in rural communities. This chapter explores the changing role and function of farmers’ markets using the Barossa Farmers’ Market, South Australia as a case study. The chapter examines the challenges
and opportunities that come with the addition of tourism to the traditional role of farmers’ markets as a local community activity and how this duality can be efficiently managed.

**Farmers’ markets**

Traditionally, the role of farmers’ markets was to provide a direct distribution channel between producers and consumers. This engagement facilitated an exchange of knowledge between producers and consumers about where the produce offered for sale was grown and how it could be prepared and consumed. In this way, farmers’ markets provide a range of socio-economic benefits that support communities through the creation of local supply chains, enhanced customer/producer understanding, and loyalty and increased income for farmers.

The modern farmers’ market movement has sought to retain these traditional functions. The United Kingdom’s National Farmers’ Retails and Markets Association (FARMA) has identified a number of elements that embody the traditional functions of farmers’ markets including participation by local farmers and local producers of value-added products that use locally sourced ingredients (Farma n.d). A similar approach has been adopted in North America where the Farmers’ Market Coalition define farmers’ markets as “farmers selling directly to the public products they have produced” (Cole 2013). The Australian Farmers’ Market Association (n. d.) defines farmers’ market as “a predominantly fresh food market that operates regularly within a community, at a focal public location that provides a suitable environment for farmers and specialty food producers to sell farm-origin and associated value-added specialty foods for human consumption, and plant products directly to customers”. To comply with these definitions, organizers are required to adhere to rules and guidelines that distinguish farmers’ markets from other forms of community markets by maintaining a focus on the sale of locally sourced produce and value-added products.

**Tourism potential of farmers’ markets**

From a tourism perspective, the core function and role of farmers’ markets in connecting farmers, consumers, and local communities is attractive and offers the possibility of an authentic food experience, far removed from the stylized presentation of so called ‘fresh food’ on supermarket shelves. Although farmers’ markets are increasingly being recognized as food tourism activities or events, their tourism potential has not always been recognized by practitioners (Smith and Xiao 2008) or by the academic literature (Getz et al. 2014), although this is beginning to change. Getz et al. (2014) for example, found that food markets, including farmers’ markets, were among the most frequently visited food-related events over a 12-month period. Joliffe (2008), in an examination of the link between farmers and tourism, highlighted the potential for farmers’ markets to evolve into tourist events that either stand alone or complement other regional gastronomic experiences, such as restaurants, festivals, or farming activities.

Farmers’ markets are important to food tourists as they exemplify highly valued aspects such as quality, freshness, from the local area, and cultural authenticity (Getz et al. 2014). According to Zittlau and Gorman (2012), the farmers’ market experience also provides opportunities for tourists to meet people from the local community. Collectively, Getz et al. (2014) and Zittlau and Gorman (2012) highlight that it is the core function and role of farmers’ markets as distribution outlets and community events that underpins their attractiveness to tourists as authentic, cultural experiences.

Many farmers’ markets have recognised the potential for tourism to expand their customer base by offering stall holders the opportunity to increase revenue and experiment with new
products. However, servicing two very different consumer markets can cause tensions between producers and consumers, adding to confusion about the role of farmers’ markets. The potential for tension of this nature highlights the need for farmers’ markets to determine what their function is and, if this includes tourism, how to balance their dual roles as community events and tourist attractions. It is also apparent that if farmers’ markets are to maintain their relevance as community events into the future, there is a need to understand how they may leverage their tourism potential without undermining their core community role and functions.

**Opportunities**

Promoting farmers’ markets as a tourism experience provides a range of opportunities including the ability to sell greater volumes of produce, increase revenue, support new producers, introduce new varieties, and experiment with new value-added products. The expansion of the consumer base also benefits the local community by providing access to a greater range of producers and generating new employment opportunities than would otherwise be the case.

From a tourist perspective, farmers’ markets also offer a mix of the familiar, the unfamiliar, and the unique. The familiar setting of a market provides an easily accessible point of entry for tourists to experience fresh produce and a springboard into the unfamiliar of regional lifestyles. Markets also provide a point of connection with products that may be unique to a particular region. Beyond the physical boundary of a particular market, opportunities exist to combine the familiar, the unfamiliar, and the unique through guided tours, interpretation, cooking schools, and restaurants that focus on regional produce (Getz et al. 2014).

By providing visibility to a region’s agricultural produce, farmers’ markets also provide an opportunity to showcase regional cuisine and assist in the preservation of culinary heritage. Examples of products typically available at farmers’ markets include locally sourced fresh fruits and seasonal vegetables as well as locally made value-added products such as preserves, smoked meats, and baked goods. In many cases, these products embody regional food traditions. The opportunity to engage with local producers adds to the experience, where tourists can learn about the significance of various local produce as well as local food customs. For example, buying fruit preservatives from a local stall holder provides an opportunity for tourists to gain deeper insights into local farming traditions by learning how the fruit used in the preserves is sourced from trees planted by a previous generation of the stallholders’ family and how the preserves are made according to traditional family recipes. As Everett and Aitchison (2008) observed, local food tourism plays an important role in sustaining cultural heritage and strengthening regional identity. By showcasing regional food culture, farmers’ markets can contribute to maintaining the food culture, values, and customs that are expressed through regional cuisine.

According to Timothy and Ron (2013), food is an important marker of regional and ethnic identity. Food is also an embodiment of the relationship between the land, the landscape in which it is located and the agricultural production the land supports. By preserving local food culture and customs, farmers’ markets may also contribute to the strengthening of regional identity. However, as Thompson et al. (2016) noted, regions need to develop activities and experiences that create opportunities for tourists to stop and engage with the agricultural landscape rather than simply gazing upon it or passing through it. By providing engagement opportunities, tourists are able to experience a direct connection to the regional landscape through fresh produce and value-added products, and interactions with local producers. Other researchers (Lin, Pearson, and Cai 2011; van Keken and Go 2011) support this view, remarking that food is representative of a region’s characteristics. As food connects people to a region’s landscape and agricultural system,
Farmers’ markets connect tourists to the agricultural landscape and expose them to a region’s sense of place. As the following case study highlights, the Barossa Farmers’ Market embodies the food traditions and values of the region, where fresh local produce, preserved meats, and baked goods reflect the region’s food values and early settler traditions.

In some regional areas, food is promoted as an iconic experience that represents and encapsulates the uniqueness of its regional food culture (Bessière 1998; Fox 2007). This form of promotion provides farmers’ markets with the opportunity to be promoted as local, authentic events where tourists can engage with the regional community, producers, and agriculture. Farmers’ markets also provide a unique opportunity to showcase a wide variety of local food and food-related experiences in a centralized location. They also provide an opportunity to promote other regional experiences including those that may not be food-related. For example, a tourist information booth established at a farmers’ market can be used to promote other regional food experiences such as local restaurants, wineries and local food trails as well as heritage sites, national parks, and other non-food-related activities. As Hashimoto and Telfer (2011) observed, the promotion of farmers’ markets can also contribute to regional tourism development strategies when they are incorporated into the overall suite of regional tourism experiences.

Challenges

Economic viability is one of the main challenges faced by farmers’ markets. At the local community level, farmers’ markets have to compete with national supermarket chains that trade seven days a week and offer the convenience of a one stop grocery experience and usually carry a greater range of products than is typically available at a local market. Farmers’ markets that are located in the near vicinity of large urban areas also have to compete with other types of community markets for the attention of consumers (Frost et al. 2016). Enticing urban residents to venture into surrounding rural areas requires rural farmers’ markets to develop distinctive product mixes and experiences that enable them to compete with urban-based markets. As a tourist experience, farmers’ markets face the challenge of developing and maintaining distinctive food experiences that are appealing to the urban consumer while continuing to maintain the food characteristics, customs, and culture of the regional areas they represent.

Smith and Xiao’s (2008) identified the need to maintain a diverse range of stall holders to attract new and retain old customers. To remain viable, farmers’ markets need to encourage diversity, attract new customers, and retain repeat patronage by the local community. This may become increasing difficult when markets need to service the needs of local consumers as well as tourists. While farmers’ markets encourage locals to shop regularly for food items such as fresh produce, tourists are more inclined to purchase smaller quantities of value-added products that can be consumed while in the region or taken home. Examples include local preserves, oils or hand-made chocolates.

Methodology

The following case study of the Barossa Farmers’ Market is used to examine the tourism potential of farmers’ markets, and the opportunities and challenges this presents to regions. As the opportunities and challenges surrounding the tourism potential of farmers’ markets are not well identified, an inductive approach was adopted. Qualitative data was collected using semi-structured interviews with representatives of the food, wine, and tourism industries, as well as government agencies in the Barossa. After 14 interviews, the research reached saturation, and transcripts were thematically analyzed using NVivo software to identify key themes.
**Case study 26.1**

The Barossa is a well-known food and wine region located one hour’s drive north of Adelaide, the state capital of South Australia. Encompassing an area of approximately 89,355 hectares, the region has a largely Mediterranean climate and a landscape that supports a variety of agriculture. European settlement commenced in 1842 when free settlers from England and Silesia began arriving in the area. The region has continued to embrace its mixed European cultural and culinary heritage with many of the region’s original values, customs, and traditions passed down to the current generation. The region is suited to a range of agricultural outputs including grains, vines, fruit, cattle, and pigs.

In recent decades, wine production has expanded in line with the growth in global demand for the region’s wines. The expansion of wine has led to a parallel reduction in other agricultural production. Large-scale tourism is a relatively new industry in the region and in terms of overall economic contribution is relatively small compared to wine production. However, tourism does provide an opportunity to preserve the region’s agricultural, viticultural, culinary, and cultural heritage. Food and wine experiences available in the Barossa include cellar doors, restaurants, bakeries, a cheese shop, cooking school, the Butcher, Baker and Winemaker Trail, and, of course, the farmers’ market.

The Barossa Farmers’ Market was established in 2002 by members of the local community concerned about changes in the agricultural landscape caused by the conversion of large areas of land into vineyards. The opening of the farmers’ market coincided with a growing interest in farmers’ markets nationally. The market is volunteer-run, although a market coordinator has since been employed. The market site was donated by local wineries. The market commenced with 12 stall holders and by 2013 had grown to an average of 45 stall holders each market day rising to 60 stall holders for special occasions such as Christmas. The market receives an average of 1,500 visitors every week and is run as an incorporated association. All stall holders are incorporated members and pay annual membership fees. Figure 26.1 highlights the key message the market promotes to its customers.

![Figure 26.1 The key message of the Barossa farmers’ market.](source: Photo courtesy of Bruce Prideaux.)
For producers, the market is an important distribution channel that has created opportunities for farmers to connect with each other and with their customers. As one interviewee stated, “It’s my time to talk to my customer. It’s a PR thing. I get ideas, I give ideas … And I get ideas from that feedback” (BF5). Further, the market has been a catalyst for business growth and development, by connecting producers with chefs and acting as a launch pad for new food businesses that, if successful, may later open their own shopfronts.

For local consumers, the farmers’ market has provided a direct link to producers of local, fresh and in season produce. The importance of this connection was described as “… one of the greatest things about a farmers’ market is you can talk to that person – where did it [the produce] come from, how’s it made, what’s in it” (BF1). The farmers’ market has also played a role in connecting various elements of the community by providing a social network and sense of community for both customers and producers.

Interviewees also acknowledged the role of the market in adding to the experience of the Barossa, describing the market as a place where tourists “can get immersed in the local food culture …” (BF7). Inherent in its portrayal of food culture is the level of authenticity that appeals to tourists, with some considering it amongst its greatest strength. By showcasing the region’s food culture, the market has increased the visibility and accessibility of these experiences, enabling tourists to engage with the region’s food and culinary heritage.

Although never intending to become a tourist attraction, the market recognizes that it has evolved into one. As one interviewee commented: “We never set out to be a tourist destination. We don’t market ourselves as a tourist destination. But we acknowledge that we are because it’s an extraordinary experience, locals are there and it’s amazing” (BF2). While it is generally acknowledged to be an important element of the Barossa’s tourism experience, some stall holders would not consider themselves a part of the tourism industry and prefer that fewer tourists frequent the farmers’ market (BF1).

The market’s management committee is aware of its dual customer base and how this has made a positive economic contribution to the organization and its members. Several strategies have been adopted to strengthen the market’s economic viability and its role as a custodian of the Barossa’s food heritage. The first was the adoption of cultural guidelines in addition to those of the AFMA that require stall holders to only sell local produce and incorporate local ingredients in value-added products (if available). A second strategy has been to accept a small number of stall holders from outside of the region to broaden its produce base and enhance its competitiveness vis-à-vis local supermarkets. As one interviewee explained: “… for the farmers’ market to be a viable alternative to the supermarket so that people can do their shopping, they need to be able to buy everything from an avocado to a lime, to bread to olive oil to meat to cheese to milk. There has to be that breadth of produce at the markets” (BF3).

**Discussion and conclusion**

This chapter examined the tourism potential of farmers’ markets and the opportunities and challenges this presents to regional communities. The duality of farmers’ markets was exemplified using the Barossa Farmers’ Market, which has evolved from a community event into a tourist attraction. By fulfilling its community role of showcasing the region’s cuisine, culinary
heritage, and traditions, the market has emerged as a food event that meets local needs as well as an event that attracts tourists to the region.

As local distribution channels, farmers’ market create direct links between farmers, producers, and local consumers. To move beyond the local consumer base, farmers’ markets need to consider how they can offer an authentic food experience based on regional produce and food culture while retaining their traditional local consumer base. However, while farmers’ markets are able to support small food producers and build regional food tourism capacity, they may also face a number of threats, including the emergence of mixed markets that offer both food and non-food products and predatory supermarkets keen to eliminate potential competitors. Seasonality may also be an issue if local consumers are unable to purchase produce staples that supermarkets are able to import from elsewhere. Other factors that may affect the successful blending of local and tourist customer bases include the distance from major tourism generating regions, marketing strategies, and the level of support given by farmers’ organizations and local authorities.

When promoted as a tourist experience, farmers’ markets are able to make a valuable contribution to destination image including ‘rurality’, provide new customers to support local producers, and act as a platform for experimenting with new value-added products and produce. Moreover, farmers’ markets can be incorporated into the wider promotion of regional food events and attractions, and be used as a marketing vehicle to redirect tourists to other regional food and non-food attractions.

References


Introduction and aims

The main aim of this chapter is to present gastronomic tourism as a tool for local development by focusing on it from the perspective of cultural heritage and the planning of sustainable and responsible tourism.

Poulain (2002) states that the act of eating is one of the essential parts of a trip; it is a daily act that provides us with a first contact with the native culture of the visited place and its people. In recent years, many tourist destination managers have seen food as an element that can help to differentiate the destination and provide authenticity in a context of cuisine becoming increasingly globalized and homogenized (Blakey 2012; Richards 2012).

Cultural heritage allows us to interpret tradition and build a link between history and territory, time and space (Aulet, Mundet, and Vidal-Castellas 2017). Gastronomy is the result of the history of a region or territory; through what we eat, we can understand the life of the local community. ‘We are what we eat’, in the words of a popular saying. The first part of this chapter will therefore explore the relationship between the concepts of gastronomy, heritage, and local communities.

The second part will focus on how gastronomic tourism can help the development of local communities, based on a review of the academic literature. As a resource for tourism, gastronomy allows contact with local culture based on experience and the senses (Grande Ibarra 2001) and opens the door to involving different agents in the tourism sector. Elements that can be incorporated within what gastronomy has to offer can be grouped into three areas (Espeitx 2004): places for interpreting gastronomy (for learning), places for consuming gastronomy (for buying), and places for eating gastronomy (for tasting). The local community should be involved in all three spheres in order to develop sustainable gastronomic tourism.

If planned appropriately, gastronomic tourism can bring significant benefits to the regions where it is developed, “benefitting small farmers and food artisans, with ancient crafts and traditions, recipes and products recovered (or their loss avoided)” (Aulet and Majo 2016:227).

The chapter will finish with a case study based on the development of gastronomic tourism in Catalonia, analysing how it has helped small farmers and producers. Primary sources were used for this case study since the authors actively participated as experts in producing
the gastronomy plan and fieldwork was also conducted to collect information regarding the ‘Benvinguts a Pagès’ initiative.

**Gastronomy as heritage, local communities, and recipes**

The word gastronomy seems to have become fashionable in recent years, appearing in many different media. The number of publications and studies that address this field from different perspectives has also grown. Before looking at the relationship between gastronomy and the heritage of local communities, however, we believe it appropriate to define what is meant by gastronomy in the context of this study.

Etymologically, the word gastronomy originates from the Greek *gastros* (stomach) and *gnomos* (knowledge), referring to a knowledge of what is eaten from different perspectives: cooking, nutritional values, possibilities of combinations between products, etc. However, we must differentiate between the concepts of eating and gastronomy.

Eating consists in obtaining, preparing, and ingesting food. Contemporary society is characterized by having a great interest in food, referring to two clearly differentiated spheres or areas, nutrition on the one hand and food production on the other; that is, health and economics (Contreras 1995).

The biological need for food is expressed socially and also receives a cultural response: “Converted into a need, it transforms the omnivore into a selective being that satisfies this need differently depending on certain sociocultural variables” (Millán 2000:72).

Gastronomy, according to the Academy of the Catalan Language, is “knowledge of all that is related to cooking, the creation and composition of dishes, the art of tasting and appreciating meals and drinks [. ... Gastronomy is] encompassing the enjoyment of excellent food and reflective eating and cooking” (Scarpato 2002:94).

Humans are the only creatures in the world who think and talk about food, the only ones who observe precise rules about what they eat and the way in which they do it, how to prepare food and people and places with whom or where to eat it (Contreras and Gracia 2005). Brillat-Savarin (1994) also emphasizes two ideas:

a) The aim of gastronomy is “to obtain the preservation of man by means of the best possible nourishment”.

b) Its object is “giving guidance, according to certain principles, to all who seek, provide, or prepare substances which may be turned into food” (Brillat-Savarin 1994:52).

At the same time, gastronomy can be understood as a cultural value that is awarded to food or how to prepare it so as to identify it with a territory or social group (Calabuig i Tomas and Minstral i Masgrau 1994). According to Perucho (1999:13), “gastronomy is an art that gives us pleasure; but a lonely pleasure is a sad and boring pleasure, which tells us that we have to share it. We have to share, for the sake of greater satisfaction”. From this we can deduce that gastronomy is also a “social art”; this author adds that “cuisine is a product of the idiosyncrasies of peoples [...] cuisine came with civilization; then it followed its great currents”.

We can therefore state that gastronomy is a social practice. Fischler (1985) posits that the cultural and symbolic dimension of food is accentuated in cuisine; it is not only a question of ingredients but of classifications and rules that bring order and sense. We might say that food is socialized and becomes the bearer of meaning, and linked to this meaning are aspects related to ritual, symbolic, and social functions, which are in turn linked to material and intangible aspects (Schlüter 2003).
The cultural characteristics of food and its rituals generate possibilities for creating heritage. For Contreras (2007), the process of creating heritage extends to the most ignored aspects of everyday life, including cooking and eating.

The concept of cultural heritage can be very broad, it being complex and difficult to define and having changed much over time. Knowledge related to the idea of heritage was first developed during the Ancien Régime, but the need to preserve it was never considered paramount, because it was a family, and therefore private, asset that was inherited. This meant that its owners could freely dispose of it, meaning that throughout history there have been episodes of heritage being destroyed (Bady 1998). In fact, it was not until the 19th century that awareness arose of the need to protect and conserve it, linked to the idea of monumental and tangible heritage.

Discourse relating to heritage is largely based on official and technical documents produced by international organizations such as UNESCO and ICOMOS. By way of example, the 1972 World Heritage Convention set out the foundations for defining cultural and natural heritage and established its basic categories. These official documents selected certain heritage assets considered more relevant than others when considering certain criteria. These criteria or guidelines have also changed, as pointed out by Vecco (2010:324): “the selection criteria of cultural heritage have also changed: while initially the historic and artistic values were the only parameters, other additional ones have now been added: the cultural value, its value of identity and the capacity of the object to interact with memory”.

One of the first mentions of intangible heritage and the need to protect it appeared at the World Conference on Cultural Policies organized by UNESCO in Mexico in 1982. UNESCO understands the cultural heritage of a people to be that which “comprises the works of its artists, its architects, its musicians, its writers, its grandparents, but also those anonymous creations that arise from the soul of the people and the set of values that give meaning to life. It includes material and immaterial works that express the creativity of this people, its languages, rituals, beliefs, places and historical monuments, literature, art, archives and libraries” (UNESCO 1982:3).

From that moment on, many authors have explored the relationships between tangible and intangible heritage as two sides of the same coin. “Intangible heritage permeates every aspect of the life of the individual and is present in all the assets that comprise cultural heritage: monuments, objects, landscapes and places. All these elements, products of human creativity, and therefore cultural facts, are inherited, transmitted, modified and optimized from individual to individual and from generation to generation” (Carrera 2003:1).

A clear demonstration that gastronomy has also entered into this field is the fact that in 2010 French cuisine was included on the list of UNESCO’s intangible heritage, it being the first culinary tradition. This trend continued with the inclusion of the Mediterranean diet and traditional Mexican cuisine, among others. As Aulet, Mundet, and Roca (2016:138) point out, “UNESCO does not include specific recipes; rather, it recognizes the importance of an identifying rite, a group of knowledge, traditions, and symbols related to the act of preparing and eating a food”.

In line with this idea, one could say that a social structure and part of the identity of a group can be identified through its eating habits. Fischler (1995) stated that cuisines tend to have a national and regional dimension that, beyond the basic ingredients, also includes a set of rules, uses, practices, symbolic representations, and social, moral, religious, hygienic, and health values. Authors such as Fieldhouse (1986), Cabrera Serrano (2005), and Laborde and Medina (2005) refer to the concept of national cuisines, meaning those elements related to gastronomy.
and food that are considered to be characteristic of or specific to a particular country or region and that therefore constitute an aspect of its identity as a group.

This is another point of connection with the idea of heritage; that is, heritage helps to build identity and gastronomy is one of its components, a sign of its belonging. Gastronomy is represented through what might be considered rituals (in the production of food and the time and means of its consumption). One of the purposes of rituals is for the human group to express and rediscover its self-defining belonging, whether by marking differences with those outside the group (separation rituals) or by congregating and bringing together the diverse and dispersed members of the same human group (integration rituals) (Maldonado 1983). Social structures develop relationships between their members in order to increase internal social cohesion (Aulet 2007).

Authors such Caplan (1997), Nunes dos Santos (2007), and Cherry, Ellis, and DeSoucey (2011) state that food serves as a marker of belonging. Since time immemorial, gastronomy has been one of the links that has led us to feel part of a particular place, society, or culture. Rebato Ochoa (2009) speaks of the existence of a number of gustatory indicators that delimit the culinary importance of a particular territory and comprise a cuisine’s identity (garlic in Mediterranean cuisine, for example). Thus, we can conclude that how we eat, how we make and obtain products, and how they are prepared and consumed or cooked are all related to local resources, have the characteristics of the physical environment and are linked to a specific socioeconomic context.

Economic globalization has also affected the cultural sphere (Castells 2001; Entrena Duran 2008). In this context, there has been a reclaiming of local identities emphasizing those elements that delimit the cultural identity of a country or region. In the field of gastronomy, this entails highlighting local products. As mentioned by Brillat-Savarin (1994:52) “gastronomy, in fact, is the motive force behind farmers, winegrowers, fishermen, and huntsmen, not to mention the great family of cooks, under whatever title they may disguise their employment as preparers of food”.

Gastronomy, tourism, and local development

One element that has characterized globalization, among others, is the continued growth of the tourism industry (César Dachary and Arnaiz Burne 2004), producing a phenomenon that some authors referred to as the globalization/localization of supply and demand (Carvalho and Moquete Guzmán 2011). In an increasingly global and homogeneous world, tourism enhances the identity of destinations by creating differentiated products and reivindicating the value of the local as authentic (Nash 1992; Wang 1999; Chhabra, Healy, and Sills 2003); some of them also refer to the importance of gastronomy (Cohen and Avieli. N. 2004).

Food heritage has become the focus of tourists’ attention in recent years (Hjalager and Richards 2002), not only because it is a biological necessity for tourists but, above all, because it is an extremely valuable way of accessing the culture and history of the visited country (Poulain 2002). Gastronomy has become a decisive factor in planning and conducting the trip. Fields (2002) pointed out that different motivations can be identified in relation to gastronomy (physical, cultural, interpersonal, and those related to status/prestige). Physical motivations are those which arise out of people’s need to eat; cultural motivations are those that focus on the need to know more about a particular geographical or cultural area; interpersonal motivations are the response to the social function of gastronomy as an element of interrelating with other people; and motivations related to status and prestige are those that derive from seeking social distinction.
Gastronomy products and services are becoming an essential element in the enrichment of tourist destinations, making them one of the main identifying and differentiating elements of a place (Montoya 2003). At the 1st World Forum on Gastronomy Tourism, the WTO pointed out that gastronomic tourism is an element of cultural preservation and must be shaped around the quality and authenticity of the product and the territory (UNWTO 2015).

Gastronomic tourism can be defined as that practiced by people who on their travels carry out activities based on tangible and intangible gastronomic cultural heritage, in places other than those of their habitual environment, for a consecutive period of time of less than one year, with the purpose of consuming and enjoying gastronomic products, services, experiences or inspirations as a priority and in a complementary manner (Hjalager and Richards 2002; Schlüter 2003; Armesto López and Gómez Martín 2004; Montecinos 2012). Henderson (2009) pointed out that gastronomic tourism happens in places where tourists can consume gastronomy, such as restaurants, and that the gastronomic tourism experience can even happen in the context of conventional stores, food festivals, hotel and restaurant schools, and in places that seek to attract visitors through their gastronomy.

This implies that this type of tourism would develop to a greater or lesser degree, depending on the level of connection between the cuisine and the culture of the location (Riley 2005), since the cuisine plays a key role in the tourist’s satisfaction with the experience and as part of the cultural heritage of the destination (Ignatov and Smith 2006).

Gastronomic tourism is a type that reinforces the importance of local ingredients, locals learning about and appreciating their own consumption, and the importance of culinary resources, allowing local economic development through various distribution channels. On the basis of this phenomenon, numerous important actions are being carried out in relation to the recovery, conservation, and valuing of gastronomic heritage. These actions range from the sharing and disseminating of recipes, creating workshops and conserving traditional forms of agriculture to establishing designations of food quality (Armesto López and Gómez Martín 2004).

Gastronomic routes, fairs and events are important tourism products insofar as they are scenarios for establishing relationships and agreements, among other aspects that strengthen territorial ties and shape various special areas of tourism. It is for this reason that the tourism agents and resources of a destination must be articulated. According to Espeix (2004), gastronomic tourism can take place in different interpretation, production and tasting spaces, all complementing one another. What is important is that these spaces are linked to the territory, tradition, and local population and constitute a platform for the promotion of local food products and brands.

The valuing of raw materials and the different elements in the extensive value chain of the gastronomic tourism experience, such as agriculture, fishing, livestock, market culture, and distribution, as well as those linked to traditional cuisine, can all be seen as forming a strategic part of the process. The inclusion of local communities, agricultural and livestock producers, cheese factories, markets, wineries, artisans, territorial interpreters, and all those elements that build the identity of a place enrich the value of destinations and are key to this process (UNWTO 2016, 2017).
Case study 27.1: Catalan gastronomy and its evolution

Catalonia is a region located in northeastern Spain. It has a differentiated identity forged over more than a thousand years and shaped within its own language, culture, social evolution, and gastronomy. It is also included within what is known as the Mediterranean diet.

“Catalan cuisine is Mediterranean, above all, but it is a bridge cuisine from centuries of evolution and influences from peoples and cultures that have settled in the territory: Iberians, Phoenicians, Greeks, and Romans contributed their own particular touches; then Arabs incorporated other spices, products, and recipes. The mixture was further spiced up by new products arriving from 15th-century America. As with any other, Catalan cuisine grew out of the combination of all of these influences. Therefore, today’s Catalan cuisine echoes the history of a country. It is a cuisine that has survived thanks on the one hand to domestic or popular cooking, and on the other to cultured or professional gastronomy” (Aulet, Mundet, and Roca 2016:139).

As we can see, Catalan cuisine is the sum of ingredients and forms of cooking left behind by civilizations and cultures that have passed through the region. It was widely recognized in the Europe of the Middle Ages (Pujol 2009), and since the 1990s has enjoyed unprecedented worldwide recognition thanks to the international projection of chefs such as Ferran Adrià and the Roca brothers.

A further example of the recognition enjoyed by Catalan cuisine is the fact that Catalonia was designated European Region of Gastronomy (CREG) in 2016, highlighting the wealth and quality of its culinary and agri-food heritage. Its candidacy was based on three elements: the local product, the territory, and the cuisine. According to the promoters of the plan, these three ingredients are considered key in promoting the country’s economy and tourism (Generalitat de Catalunya 2016). After the awarding of this distinction, a ‘Gastronomy Plan of Catalonia’ was compiled, aimed at analyzing the current situation and identifying challenges and opportunities in this respect. One of the most important elements of the plan was the Catalan Tourism Agency bringing together the Department of Agriculture, Livestock, Fisheries and Food and the Department of Business and Knowledge to work jointly in this sphere.

The Gastronomy Plan is structured into nine working areas considered strategic in the promotion of Catalan gastronomy. They are: gastronomy as an economic sector; innovation; communication; training; internationalization; local and territorial development; tourism; nutrition, health and education; and identity and heritage. An analysis of the current situation has been carried out for each of these areas, and the main agents and challenges identified in order to draw up lines of action.

The main challenges identified by experts in the field of tourism and gastronomy are:

- Closing the gap between tourists’ expectations and their gastronomic experiences
- Improving tools for differentiating Catalan gastronomy as a tourist destination
- Promoting and marketing quality gastronomic products
- Improving the structures and coordination of gastronomy agents

Various initiatives have been developed in the field of gastronomic tourism in Catalonia, but here we will mention the one that has probably had the greatest impact on local communities: ‘Benvinguts a Pagès’. This initiative consists in organizing a weekend (the first of June) where agri-food farms throughout Catalonia “open their doors to tourists to show off their fields, herds of animals, boats and workshops” (PRODECA. Promotorad’Exportacions Agroalimentàries 2016).
For one weekend, producers in different agri-food fields allow tourists to visit work spaces and facilities, including farms, workshops, fishing boats, etc.

A total of 232 companies from different agri-food sectors participated in the first edition in 2016, the predominant sector being that of drinks (mostly wineries), followed by oil. It is worth noting that these two are the most developed sectors from the point of view of tourism. Catalonia has 11 Denominations of Origin for wine, with a total of 617 registered wineries in July 2016 (Generalitat de Catalunya n.d.). Of these DOs, three are members of Wine Routes in Spain, and virtually all have wine cellars with visits and offer structured tourism products and services.

The same can be said for the oil sector, which has 5 Denominations of Origin in Catalonia, with a total of 97 registered cooperatives. Although oil tourism products and services are now becoming more structured, the industry is still far from reaching the levels of organization of the wine sector.

The other visitable locations were farms, which in many cases had their first contact with the public and had to work to adapt the visit to tourists. The first edition was well received, with farms receiving 12,500 visits in one weekend, mostly from families.

The success of the first edition led to the initiative being continued in 2017, expanding the number of visitable establishments to 292, as shown in Table 27.1. In 2017, the initiative was run alongside Bio Week, which complemented and prolonged the activities of ‘Benvinguts a Pagès’. In addition to visits, some 200 restaurants joined the initiative and offered menus with local products, with discounted rooms offered in some accommodation establishments and more than 150 activities including fairs, markets, and guided tours all linked to the land, the products, and nature. The event received 18,000 visitors and the 2018 edition is now being prepared.

Although few studies were conducted on visitors to the event, most were local or national (meaning Catalans), considering that most of the activities were offered in the Catalan language. The Catalan Tourism Agency is now working to promote the event for members of the public from other regions of Spain and the international public in order to expand the positive impact of the initiative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agri-food sectors</th>
<th>2016</th>
<th>2017</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rice and other cereals</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poultry and eggs</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drinks (wine, cava, and other drinks)</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meat and cold meats</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheeses and dairy products</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fresh fruit</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Driedfruit</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aromatic herbs, honey, and other sweet products</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pulses</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oil and olives</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fish, sea food, and derivatives</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vegetables and wild mushrooms</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>232</strong></td>
<td><strong>292</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Authors’ own work based on PRODECA data.*
Food is one of the main expenses for tourists, including on-site consumption, souvenir shopping, and participation in activities. That is why tourism constitutes an exceptional platform for promoting local products and food and/or culinary brands.

Leal Londoño (2013) concludes that gastronomic tourism evolves in a more structured way and spreads faster among companies, institutions, and associations in those regions that have a more mature and experienced past in other tourism products. This could be one reason why gastronomic tourism displays a high level of dynamism in Catalonia, especially in those coastal and pre-coastal regions where tourism is a mature and consolidated industry.

Gastronomy and experiences based around food have become a basic and fundamental pillar of tourism in Catalonia due to their capacity to seasonalize the industry (the agricultural calendar does not usually coincide with the high tourist season) and diversify tourism expenditure (which is not only concentrated in accommodation, but in other establishments with direct access to local producers).

However, as can be observed from studies carried out during the Year of Gastronomy, despite Catalonia having a great tradition in the field of tourism, there is still a need for greater internal knowledge of gastronomy and to promote the sustainability of rural areas by adapting tourism products and services to new trends and demands. Although there are numerous initiatives that link gastronomic heritage to new activities and initiatives such as those related to the wine or oil sectors, work still needs to be done to achieve greater coordination among the agents involved.

References


Community development through gastronomy


Introduction

Gastronomy focuses on the relationships between food and culture. Furthermore, gastronomy plays a role as a motivating factor for visiting tourist destinations and foodservice establishments. As such, the authenticity of the local food and the service experience is one of the dominant factors that effects customer perceptions (Sims 2009). Experiencing authentic cuisines is the primary goal of ethnic dining and gastronomic tourism. From a managerial perspective, it is imperative that tourism and foodservice operators understand the dining preferences of multicultural markets, because psychological factors play a considerable role in ethnic food selections (Magnini et al. 2011). Gilmore and Pine (2007) argue that authenticity is now the major source of competitive advantage for businesses and that authenticity has overtaken quality as the prevailing purchase criterion. It is therefore important for marketers and operators to consider how customers experience, perceive, and evaluate authenticity based on tangible cues that include the food, servicescape, and people elements (Kim and Baker 2017a).

As authenticity is such a critical factor that influences tourists and customer’s perceptions and behaviors, this chapter seeks to discuss heritage and authenticity in gastronomic tourism. The chapter first discusses the definitions of heritage and authenticity and then heritage and authenticity as they relate to gastronomic tourism. Second, the chapter discusses the role of food in gastronomic tourism, specifically the role of food sources and the role of written information. Third, the chapter discusses the role of the servicescape in authentic gastronomy tourism. Fourth, the chapter discusses the role of the service provider and the other customers as it relates to the social servicescape in gastronomic tourism.

Heritage and authenticity

Heritage and authenticity definitions and types

Heritage tourism keeps expanding to include more aspects and types of cultural heritage. This may include the link between national culture, cultural interest, and the authenticity tourists seek in their experiences (Yi et al. 2016). Many studies confirm that tangible assets such as landscapes and buildings are important resources. In terms of the intangible, heritage tourism emphasizes its connection with tourists’ motivations, perceptions, and behavior (Yi et al. 2016).
Authenticity is typically defined as a reflection of credibility that comes from having the appropriate relationship to an original source (Rudinow 1994). However, various authors provide diverse meanings and types of authenticity based on their different ontological assumptions (Wang and Mattila 2013). While there are diverse definitions and viewpoints of authenticity, the complex nature of authenticity in tourism is most often classified into objective, constructive, existential authenticity, subjective, and type authenticity (Wang 1999).

Objective authenticity refers to authenticity as a feature inherent in an object, which can be measured and proved by absolute external criteria (MacCannell 1979). Objective authenticity implies that an object is genuine and that the authenticity can be judged by an expert (Trilling 1972). Food is considered as objectively authentic if it is prepared by local people. Constructive authenticity rejects the idea of authenticity as reality, and claims that what is seen as authentic is relative, negotiated, and dependent on context which cannot be objectively determined (Ebster and Guist 2004). What customers want might not be objective authenticity, but symbolic authenticity which is derived from social construction (Cohen 1988). Existential authenticity is not directly linked to the objects or attractions themselves, but to the response that a particular experience generates in the customer (Wang 1999). Existential authenticity thus describes the way in which a customer can construct their identity to experience a more authentic sense of self (Wang 1999). Subjective authenticity views authenticity as relative and dependent on context (Jang, Ha, and Park 2012.) Type authenticity refers to a product or service offering that is true to its type, genre, or category (Carroll and Wheaton 2009). Subjective authenticity and type authenticity were frequently applied to examine dining environments and provide support that physical factors influence consumers perceived authenticity and dining experience (Kim and Baker 2017a).

According to the researchers who use subjective authenticity, authenticity in foodservice and gastronomy contexts does not need to be objectively authentic, because customers judge authenticity based on the cultural image created (Lego et al. 2002), and the cultural image is created through various tangible cues (Ebster and Guist 2004). A product or service cue may simultaneously provide evidence about its authenticity and stimulate feelings of authenticity (Wang and Mattila 2013).

Although each different approach of authenticity reflects the process of assessment of authenticity, there is a lack of understanding of which specific dimensions of authenticity the patrons look for when visiting an ethnic establishment or tourism locations. Some customers may view authenticity in a multidirectional way rather than considering it holistically, and prefer certain dimensions of authenticity to others (Kim and Baker 2017a). Sukalakamala and Boyce (2007) reveal that customers are more interested in authenticity of food than that of the overall atmosphere. Food authenticity reflects that the food provided possess the characteristics of a particular region or cultural traditions (Verbeke and Lopez 2005). Cultural authenticity is a significant component of dining experience which represents national cultural characteristics (Tsai and Lu 2012). Furthermore, depending on the stimuli, the aspects customers perceive as authentic may vary. For instance, ethnic restaurants decorated with historical cultural ornaments may enhance perceptions of cultural authenticity, while it may have less effect on food authenticity.

The role of authenticity as the major source of competitive advantage for tourism

Customers prefer products and services that exude and exemplify authenticity (Kovacs, Carroll, and Lehman 2013). Since target customers value authenticity, hospitality and tourism operators are trying to expose their authenticity by emphasizing authentic elements in their
service environment such as food, interior design, decorations, outfits, or music (Ebster and Guist 2004). Hospitality and tourism managers can attempt to enhance consumers’ perceived authenticity directly by optimizing tangible cues (Kim and Baker 2017a) such as the servicescape, employee appearance, and food appearance. Previous research considers perceived authenticity as an important value to the customers and examines the consequences of authenticity, such as the evaluation of the service or behavioral intentions. Yu and Littrell (2003) find that tourists are more likely to buy craft objects when they perceive it as authentic than when they did not consider it as authentic. Similarly, perceived food authenticity and environmental authenticity significantly affects customers’ future behavioral intentions toward a restaurant (Jang, Ha, and Park 2012). Tsai and Lu (2012) reveal that food authenticity is the most influential factor for customers’ repurchase intention. Kim and Baker (2017a) find that employee ethnicity and perceptions of food authenticity significantly affect perceptions of authenticity, as well as customers’ willingness to pay more and intent to revisit.

In other words, for tourists and consumers who seek authentic ethnic cultural experiences, authenticity is a critical driver of customer satisfaction which leads to positive behavioral intentions (Sukalakamala and Boyce 2007; Jang, Liu, and Namkung 2011), therefore food-service operations should focus on ways to heighten consumers’ perceived food and cultural authenticity, as this leads to increased intent to visit and willingness to pay more (Kim and Baker 2017a).

**Heritage and authenticity in tourism gastronomy**

Destinations are more sensitive to shaping gastronomic and tourist experiences and emphasizing the authenticity of the food and its provision in a cultural context (Kim and Eves 2012). Many destinations struggle to promote their authentic cuisine as an attractive tourism product for prospective gastronomy-oriented customers (Ottenbacher and Harrington 2013). The consumption of local food, which is prepared by locals with local ingredients using cooking methods from its own region, is regarded as an authentic experience (Kim, Eves, and Scarles 2009). Specifically, the role of authenticity in the food consumption is examined in two contexts: (i) the authenticity of restaurant experiences (including the non-tourism context), and (ii) the authenticity of gastronomical experiences (especially in a tourism context) (Özdemir and Seyitoglu 2017).

**Food in gastronomic tourism**

A clearly communicated restaurant concept is highly associated with restaurant success (Parsa et al. 2005), and the menu is the most integral communication device for a restaurant. As the menu is the foundation of a foodservice operation, the menu language used is critical to signal ethnicity and boost perceptions of authenticity (Kim and Baker 2017a).

**The role of producer, production techniques, and ingredients**

Tourists’ judgments of authenticity are based on the ethnic origins of the producer, the production techniques, and the materials used (Littrell, Anderson, and Brown 1993). For some tourists and consumers, the perception of authenticity of a dish depends on the use of authentic ingredients (Cohen and Avieli 2004). Another way to increase perceptions of authenticity is for the food from a specific region to be an expression of that place (Youn and Kim 2017). Using the country-of-origin (COO) in marketing messages is a cue to in judging
Heritage & authenticity in gastronomic tourism

The quality of a product from its country of origin. Although most of the country-of-origin (COO) literature focuses on product evaluation, individuals do use country-of-origin attributes in evaluating services (Ferguson, Dadzie, and Johnston 2008). Furthermore, individuals use pre-existing evaluation norms that play a role in deciding from which country they prefer the service to originate. Similarly, it can be assumed that descriptions of originality prescribed in menus may serve consumers as important criteria of authenticity of local food served (Kim and Baker 2017a).

The role of written information on the menu in interpretations of authenticity

Language used in gastronomy is not only important for use in hospitality, tourism, and services marketing, but also important managerially as, in an increasingly global and multilingual world, managers face the challenge of understanding which language consumers prefer to use in different situations (Holmqvist and Grööroos 2012). The menu is an extension of the personality of the restaurant which directly influences customers’ perceptions and evaluations (McCall and Lynn 2008), and furthermore, is considered as an essential influencer of customers’ perceived authenticity. As perceptions of authenticity start at the pre-purchase stage and continue during the consumption experience (Wang and Mattila 2013), the written information on the menu is critical in interpretations of authenticity. Therefore, prior to actual consumption of food, the menu serves as the businesses’ first impression by providing tangible evidence such as languages, pictures, and descriptions (Bowen and Morris 1995).

For instance, in the context of foreign branding, the strategy of spelling or pronouncing a brand name in a foreign language carries positive associations that affect how consumers perceive and evaluate the product (Leclerc, Schmitt, and Dubé 1994). Similarly, in gastronomic tourism, using foreign language which reflects the national and cultural identity may influence the perceptions of the food or overall service that are associated with that specific country or culture. In other words, the menu serves as a culinary geographical map which guides the customer through their experience (Cohen and Avieli 2004). In that map, food-service operators offer the information about the dish by manipulating the language. When the menu item name is written in a foreign or ethnically congruent language, customers perceive the food as more authentic (Kim and Baker 2017a). In this case, the Korean Kimchi may be reclassified as a spicy cabbage salad and Thai tom yum as hot soup. The use of native language can be a strong source of authenticity in designing menus (Kim and Baker 2017a), or in signage (Magnini et al. 2011).

Servicescape in gastronomic tourism

Ethnic servicescapes are under-researched, yet important as they can be ideal environments for observing perceptions, desires, and behaviors of consumers in this increasingly global economy (Elliot, Cherian, and Casakin 2013). More specifically, establishments seek to construct environments that they hope will be perceived as authentic (Wang and Mattila 2015). Patrons of ethnic foodservice establishments seek authenticity in the hopes of not only experiencing food authenticity, but also other aspects of authenticity such as cultural, ambience, or social dimensions (Lu and Fine 1995). Tangible cues such as decoration, furniture, signage, and service providers’ appearance are particularly important in service industry, since the intangibility of service leads customers to rely on tangible cues to evaluate the experience (Wall and Berry 2007). Authentic dining environments provide the appropriate ambience for
a total restaurant experience which enhance the tourists’ sense of authenticity by creating meaningful dining and entertainment experiences, such as interior design, decoration, music, or scent (Beardsworth and Bryman 1999; Cohen and Avieli 2004). As such, it is critical to examine how the elements in the servicescape such as decorations, uniforms, music, lighting, and the physical facility either enhance or detract from the cultural and authentic perceptions of that experience. In other words, firms can strategically use various elements in the physical servicescape such as lighting, colors, and artifacts to associate the service environment with the stereotypes associated with the culture the organization wished to evoke (Wang and Mattila 2015).

**Social servicescape in gastronomic tourism**

The social servicescape refers to the social aspects of the consumption environment (Tombs and McColl-Kennedy 2003). Hall (2007) reveals that authenticity is formed through the connection with people rather than in feeling separation and distance. Service marketers are becoming increasingly concerned with the social facets of the service delivery process and this is even more critical in hospitality and tourism contexts, given the high amount of customer-employee interaction inherent in these contexts (Baker and Magnini, 2016; Kim and Baker 2017b). The presence of ethnic service providers and customers are important cues on which customers base their authenticity assessments (Wang and Mattila 2013). As perceptions of authenticity are not only formed by the physical elements, but also formed through the connection with people, it is therefore important to consider the social servicescape elements with perceptions of authenticity, namely the service provider and the other customers.

**Attributes of service provider**

Consumers of different ethnicities infer the congruity between themselves and a servicescape using environmental cues (Huang et al. 2013). The service provider may play as an important source of perceived authenticity, which represents the employee authenticity (Kim and Baker 2017a). The appearance of service providers in the service setting is an important element of the social servicescape that conveys an organization’s image and core values through close interaction with customers (Baker, Levy, and Grewal 1992). In other words, the appearance of service providers is an important servicescape element that effectively conveys an organization’s image and values (Kim and Baker 2017a).

People draw inferences about personal characteristics of others based on physical appearance, such in the cases of stereotyping based on skin color, age (Ross 1977), or other elements of appearance (Kim and Baker 2017b). The effect of appearance within the social process is researched in psychology literature, and there is a consensus that appearance is one of the important indicators people use to predict and classify others (Lee et al. 2012). The notion of ethnicity is a socially constructed category that reflects a group’s common origin and sense of unique collective solidarity (Gaytan 2008). Customers make information processing judgments, and one important source is the service providers’ ethnicity (Kim and Baker 2017a), as the presence of referent ethnic service providers are cues on which customers base their ethnicity assessments (Wang and Mattila 2013). The findings reveal that customers perceive food, employee, and culture of the ethnic restaurant more authentic when they are served by a service provider whose appearance corresponds with the ethnic background of the restaurant (Kim and Baker 2017a).
Attributes of the other customers

The examination of the social context of the service setting provides a rich extension to the service literature by exploring how the presence of other customers impacts evaluations (Azab and Clark 2017). The appearance of other customers can affect the focal customer’s service evaluations and experience (Kim and Lee 2012). The mere presence of ethnic service providers and other customers in the service setting provides important cues on which customers base their perceptions of authenticity (Wang and Mattila 2013). Imagine going to an ethnic establishment such as a Chinese restaurant. If it is filled with Caucasians as opposed to Chinese customers, how does this affect your perception of the authenticity? It is therefore important to consider the ethnicity and appearance of both the employees and the other customers.

Select a foodservice product or tourism gastronomy experience that you believe is ‘authentic’ and bring in a picture of your example.

1. Why did you choose this example?
2. What specific elements of (a) food authenticity; (b) servicescape authenticity; (c) social servicescape authenticity; lead you to believe the example you chose is authentic? What elements would you pay attention to as a future tourist/consumer?
3. Discuss and evaluate in groups the different examples chosen and how they represent (or do not represent) authentic tourism gastronomy.

Summary

In summary, authenticity is a critical factor that influences tourist and consumer purchasing intentions. This chapter discusses the foundations of authenticity is gastronomic tourism, the influence of food and the written information about food, the importance of the servicescape, and the influence of the social servicescape in affecting tourist and consumers’ perceptions of authenticity.

References


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THE ROLES OF TERROIR, FOOD AND GASTRONOMY IN DESTINATION AUTHENTICITY

Willy Legrand, Philip Sloan, Mirja Fett and Theresa Manten

Introduction

When I travel, I enjoy looking out the train window because every moment is worth seeing, an attraction of some sort. I avoid famous places. I prefer to find out what a region looks like if it does not go to the trouble of making itself beautiful for the tourists. To me this is authenticity.

Someone on a train

In today’s hypercompetitive performance-oriented society, tourism seems to be often understood as a ‘way to escape’. But then travelers often find themselves in overcrowded cities, following the very same travelling guidebook searching for the ‘hotspots’ or ‘untouched, undiscovered locations’. German poet Hans Magnus Enzensberger wrote one sentence that crystalizes the issue with tourism today: “Der Tourismuszerstört das, was ersucht, indem es findet” (Tourism destroys what it seeks by finding it – authors’ translation) (Enzensberger 1958). The euphoria at what ‘global’ can offer is waning and people are returning to local environments for the ‘authentic’ experience (Sloan, Legrand, and Hindley 2015). And so, instead of searching for the tourism centers where well-known global brands are lined up on the high street, a new breed of tourists are interested in exploring the food culture of a region. The exploration of the food and gastronomy of a region often translates to tourists leaving city centers to experience travelling through the country-side, discovering small villages and experiencing authentic, regional gastronomy.

So, “why does honey from the tupelo-lined banks of the Apalachicola River have a kick of cinnamon unlike any other? Why is king salmon from Alaska’s Yukon River the richest in the world? Why do coffee beans from a single estate in Panama sell at auction for ten times the price of any other beans in the world?” According to Rowan Jacobsen, an American locavore and award-winning food writer, the answer is terroir (Jacobsen 2014). The modern day concept of terroir, and the word itself, has its roots in France, it characterizes “the specific taste associated with foods from various regions” (Chakradhar n.d.). Until twenty years ago, the concept of terroir was solely used by wine-enthusiasts and wine connoisseurs when describing the great diversity of grape varieties and wines cultivated in the many different regions of France. And while on one hand there are many famous critics and
consultants working on defining ‘international’ style of wine which goes hand-in-hand with the ever-growing world of multinational wine producers, the same can be found in the world of transformed, manufactured food, borderless, and available to many anywhere, anytime. On the other hand, and this is really the other side of the medal, there are a multitude of small, single estate wineries who have traditionally boasted wines with individual character driven by their terroir.

In recent years, the concept of terroir has become very much the hot term in the hospitality and tourism industries worldwide. Restaurant owners and chefs work with unusual, off-the-grid, ingredients supposedly representing the uniqueness of the region. The discussion around ‘terroir’ is also changing. Napa Valley, once at the forefront of the global wine taste, now boast its ‘unique terroir’. A new generation of buyers are looking at other factors when purchasing food and wines too – local food and local wines are in and so are their organic counterparts. The market for beers is even more interesting to watch: a tremendous increase in micro-breweries along with a deep interest towards strong beers with local flavors. The same changes are taking place in multiple denominations of alcoholic beverages from gin to whisky. In the days and age of rapid communication, global travels, and multicultural identities is may be fair to ask the following: have we suddenly recognized that perhaps ‘terroir’ is so precious because we have ‘lost it’? Thus, the purpose of this chapter is to firstly analyze the different understandings and perspectives of the term terroir, and secondly to discuss the role of terroir in the perception of a destination’s authenticity.

**Consumer interest and terroir renaissance**

One significant reason is the growing interest of consumers in the origin of food, farming practices, food production, and impact on the environment (Thach 2011). Eating according to the seasons, as well as supporting agriculture and farmers, has become a priority for many consumers (Ziraldo 2008). An important section of western society is rediscovering the qualities of sustainable food produced in rural areas and representing a different philosophy to the standardized food products offered in supermarkets (Deloire, Prévost, and Kelly 2008). The conscious consumer today views local food as fresh, healthy, environmentally friendly, and economically sustainable for rural communities. By processing and offering local food products cultivated in unique rural regions, restaurateurs, and chefs are in fact creating a terroir renaissance. Supporting low environmental impact agricultural practices and local rural communities has become of utmost significance for consumers looking for “ethical and responsible consumption” (Ziraldo 2008:11). Moreover, their purchasing priorities give important support to the need for responsible agriculture remaining both profitable and competitive (Ziraldo 2008). In recent years, sustainability conscious consumers striving to combine the eating experience with local knowledge by seeking out local culinary food specialties have led to new branches of tourism and even new vocabulary in the English language. ‘Foodies’ looking for the ultimate gastronomic experience in rural areas often combine visits to specialty food producers and restaurants with cooking classes in what is known as ‘culinary tourism’ and ‘agri-tourism’ (Symmes 2013). This movement to preserve and develop terroir products has given rise to an increasing number of consumers willing to “pay more for quality, for freshness, for artisanal craft and for that undefinable authenticity that is the essence of terroir” (Erlanger 2013). Local food markets, food and wine festivals, food and wine trails, and even academic food and wine conferences have never been more popular (Mendiratta 2013).
The meaning of terroir across cultures

Terroir is a French term that has no equivalent in English nor in other languages. According to Rieutort (2014), it means an area of agricultural use and a rural community. It is a complex and ambiguous expression which cannot be precisely translated nor simply explained (Charters 2010). Terroir originates from the ancient French word *terroir* (Vaudour 2002) which is derived from the ancient Gallo-Roman word *territorium*; historically, a particular area or locality (Barham 2003). The French wine certification system ‘*appellation d’origine contrôlée*’ or AOC designed in 1935 was built on the concept of terroir (Jones 2014). It was originally implemented in order to protect the quality of products by assuring territorial origin as well as the strict production rules that guarantee a products’ specific nature. For instance, Champagne can only come from grapes in the province of Champagne (Barham 2003). In 2011, the term was further refined to be as a combination of “specific soil, topography, climate, landscape characteristics and biodiversity features” (Bonfante, Basile, Langella, Manna, and Terribile 2011:103) that impart in wine its unique and distinctive sensual quality (Teil 2012). Thus, terroir products are unique and distinguishable from any other similar products (Marechal 2010). Within Europe, the meanings of the word terroir differ. The German definition, as stated in Duden, is a combination of both natural and cultural influences and includes nature; vine, soil, climate, etc., and cultural influences that impart to a wine or food product its character (Duden 2013). In Spanish, terroir solely refers to soil and a particular region (Reverso 2014). In contrast, no accurate translation exists in the Russian language. The term terroir is associated with a countryside or land, but emotional associations are missing. Hence, Russians do not see any connection to human practices influencing terroir, nor to cultural or traditional impacts. On the contrary, they believe that every environment or place is terroir, independently from any unique feature that created it (Vinodeli-Online 2014). There is no suitable Arabic equivalent to terroir, but the term can be translated by the word ‘locality’; this is similarly the case in Japanese. Marechal (2010:922–923) concludes that terroir plays also an essential role in both literature and philosophy “usually denoting conservatism and a celebration of rural or traditional wisdom and cultural roots”. Gilles Deleuze, French philosopher, and Felix Guattari, French psychotherapist, considered terroir from a philosophical angle. Hence, the idea of terroir is more than just strolling through landscapes. It rather embodies “an intimate movement within and between terroirs, being alive to changing nuance and detail” (Marechal 2010:923).

In literature, foremost in poems, aspects of terroir are commonly allured to. For example, Johann Wolfgang von Goethe, the German 18th century poet, included its intrinsic elements of sense of place and the beauty of nature in his poem ‘On the Lake’(Goethe 1902). Irish poet and winner of the 1995 Nobel Prize in Literature Seamus Heaney emphatically implies the intrinsic elements of landscape in combination with food, in his poem ‘Blackberry-Picking’ (Heaney 1966). Terroir is also the focus of many great artists. The great impressionists e.g. Renoir, Matisse, Bonnard, and Turner constantly draw the eye to food and its consumption in group gatherings surrounded by natural landscapes echoing local traditions and heritage. Is the Last Supper by Leonardo da Vinci not a depiction of food as a symbol of identity and eternity? In 21st century modern art, in his exhibition ‘The Art of Terroir’, Pulitzer-Prize nominated photographer George Rose captures “the mystical combination of light, water, air and soil” of the Sonoma County vineyards (Sonoma County Museum 2007). Contemporary painter, designer and photographer Matthew Lew paints his pictures with terroir wines that are mixed with acrylic paints. He is fascinated by the concept of terroir since it is a “uniqueness, rooted in a sense of
place” (Daley 2009). For his cityscapes, he uses wines that come from all over the world “to link his work with specific geographical areas” (Daley 2009).

**Terroir, food, and culinary tourism**

And so, even though it was originally used in viticulture terminology, the term terroir “has begun to be applied to foods beyond grapes and wine” (Chakradhar n.d.). The awareness that a place leaves an indelible mark on food products and the tasting experience has evolved in recent years. Food and beverage products such as cheese, chocolate, maple syrup and even coffee exhibit their own distinctive characteristics with regards to their origin. Nowadays this is explained by the terroir from where they come (Chakradhar n.d.). Terroir is becoming increasingly associated with a sense of place which is associated with local landscapes, local culture, and traditions (Marechal 2010). Along with a growing consciousness for local and sustainable products amongst many consumers, the word terroir itself “is spreading to new realms bite by bite” (Denn 2011).

**Food and culinary tourism**

Food not only provides combustion for our bodies, but it generates sensory experiences which in recent years have led to countless new forms of leisure and tourism. Indeed, the spectrum of gastronomical holiday experiences seemingly never ceases to grow. Most existing studies emphasize that food tourism is highly linked to one’s experience and the fact that it indicates an exploration of something new and unfamiliar (Molz 2007; Long 2004; Smith and Xiao 2008; Hall, Sharples, Mitchell, Macionis and Crambourne 2003) This phenomenon can best be comprehended by splitting the related terms into its individual expression: food/culinary and tourism. Firstly, food can simply be characterized as a necessity, or at least something which is not optional (Teil and Hennion 2004). However, Green and Dougherty (2008:150) also define food as “an expression of culture”. Likewise, Hall et al. (2003:331) state that “food is about attachment to place and to the local; it is also tied in with memories, tastes, friends, family and, perhaps, comfort and security”. Furthermore, he believes that it can be “recognized as being expressive of identity and culture and is therefore an important component of cultural and heritage tourism” (Hall et al. 2003:5). Secondly, according to Ignatov and Smith (2006:238), “Culinary, … refers not only to styles of food preparation but with an etymology from the Latin, culina (kitchen), denotes styles of food preparation and consumption as well as the social context in which food is acquired”. In regards to the above-mentioned definitions, “The basis of tourism is a perception of otherness, of something being different from the usual” (Long 2004:1). It can also be seen as “the movement of people outside their normal places of work and residence. As such, it provides participants with novel experiences, often bringing them in contact with unknown places and people” (Xie 2011:1). In order to draw a link between food and tourism, it is first of all important to mention all relevant expressions of the term culinary tourism. Several authors have already discussed and established different characterizations such as “cuisine tourism, gastronomic tourism and culinary tourism” (Ignatov and Smith 2006:238) as well as food tourism or food and wine tourism (Hall et al. 2003; Ignatov and Smith 2006; Long 2004). The term was used by Long stating that someone participating in food tourism should be eating food that “belong[s] to a culinary system not one’s own” (2004:21). Furthermore, Long (2004:20) mentions that “it is about individuals exploring foods new to them as well as using food to explore new cultures and ways of being … and it is about individuals satisfying curiosity”.

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Hall et al. (2003:10) argues that culinary tourism “may be defined as visitation to primary and secondary food producers, food festivals, restaurants and specific locations for which food tasting and/or experiencing … are the primary motivating factor for travel”. Hall et al. (2003) in contrast refer to the consumer’s perception as well as the influence food has on culture and national heritage of a destination. Hence, the authors further clarify food tourism as “the consumption of the local and the consumption and production of place” (Hall et al. 2003:10). Additionally, Hall et al. (2003:48) see culinary tourism as “an added bonus for tourists/visitors … as it can enrich and add interest to their tourism experience” (48). This particular sort of travel is best summarized by “any tourism experience in which one learns about, appreciates, or consumes branded local culinary resources” (Smith and Xiao 2008:289). In conclusion, the combination of both factors – tourism and food – can create “a platform for local economic development, which can be strengthened by the use of food experiences” (OECD 2012:14). Finally, there is an overall view that the “growing interest and importance of culinary tourism … has the potential to offer great variety, quality and value as a tourism experience” (Ignatov and Smith 2006:235).

**Consumer motivation for food tourism and destination authenticity**

Consumers’ interest in food tourism is also explained by tourists increasingly looking for authenticity (Xie 2011). Xie also argues that this phenomenon “can be a powerful marketing tool for tourism as tourists seek real and meaningful experiences in their travels” (2011:1). According to Ignatov and Smith (2006:238), food does not have to be the only decisive factor but rather “the experience that regionally produced food and drink can provide when they are used to tell a story”. Furthermore, motivational factors for food tourism or overall local food consumption were also defined as “exciting experience, escape from routine, health concern, learning knowledge, authentic experience, togetherness, prestige, sensory appeal, and physical environment” (Kim, Eves, and Scarles 2009:9). Through their study, the authors Kim et al. (2009:28) not only discovered that “testing local food and beverages satisfies tourists’ appetite and offers local cultural experiences”, but also suggest that “people in a tourist destination consider local food as not only being a way of appeasing hunger but as one of the unique and original attractions during a holiday” (2009:28). Similar opinions distinguish the fact that the development towards valuable and unique travels have established themselves in the tourism industry (Green and Dougherty 2008; Yun, Hennessey and MacDonald 2011; Fields 2002; Chang, Kivela, and Mak 2011). Consequently, it can be said that “The focus of many tourists has changed from the classic ‘must see’ … , towards a ‘must experience’ imperative to consume intangible expressions of culture, such as atmosphere, creativity and lifestyle” (OECD 2012:14). Moreover, the majority of today’s tourists seek to create their own novel experiences, where they are able to “become involved in the production and preparation of food” (OECD 2012:17) themselves. Thus the development or tourist motivation and expectation is slowly moving away from the traditional way of traveling or serving gastronomy towards a more open, unique, and barrier-free manner of traveling where experience, authenticity and “the trend towards co-creation” (OECD 2012:17) are crucial. Finally, since several authors are convinced of, or support, this aspect of experience-based traveling, this development can be explained as a niche market created out of the interest of tourists offering insights into cultural heritage (Yun, Hennessey, and MacDonald et al. 2011). As indicated best by Long (2004:20), culinary tourism and the motivation behind it “steps outside the normal routine to notice difference and the power of food to represent and negotiate that difference”. 

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**Terroir, food, and gastronomy in destination authenticity**

Food tourism is closely linked to the concept of authenticity (Sloan, Legrand, and Hindley 2015), but also to geography and ancestral skills and traditions as depicted in Figure 29.1. The identity of places, historical roots, and the involvement of host communities are all integrated parts of an authentic experience. This is core to the ‘unforgettable tourist experience’ (Ferrari and Gilli 2015). Authenticity is linked to the identity of places as well as the expression of local identity (see Figure 29.1). Tourists often define those foods as ‘local specialties’. This is the case with the Autumn-pear of the Nature Park Pöllau Valley in South-Eastern Austria. Beyond the dedication of local growers, the savoir-faire of distillers, the Autumn-pear acts as a unique marketing initiative known as ‘the Savory Region’ (Pröbstl-Haider, Hochwarter, and Schrank 2015). Many examples of terroir products were alluded to including wine, tea, cheese, and chocolate. Most authors of the selected research papers connected terroir with ancestral skills and practices. Thus, terroir is referred to as an ecological concept that “links together the actors, their histories, their social organizations, their activities, and, most importantly, their agricultural practices” (Bérard et al. 2005:686, as cited in Demossier 2011). This continuation of traditions creates, for the writers, validation of the keyword authenticity and originality, a seemingly crucial feature of terroir products. In turn, the origin of a product gives rise to the consumer experiencing a “sense of place”. Consuming a malt whisky might well conjure up landscapes of heathland and running streams, true or imagined. What is important is that the image not only enhances the product in the mind of the consumer, but also stimulates the consumer to repeat purchase; thus, an allusion of psychological branding is created. More emotional and sensory triggers are hit when the product is finally held and put in the mouth. The literature reveals the importance of terroir in the ‘experience’. Appearance, aromas, feel, and then texture, and lastly taste when in the mouth make up the ‘gustative appreciation’. The link between ‘sense of place’ and ‘experience’ is not always clear: why is it that smelly French cheese always tastes better when nibbled on the vendor’s stand in the village market place than in the comfort of one’s home? The evidence suggests that the food and drink experience are contextual. Tour operators have been quick to realize that many tourists consciously or

![Figure 29.1](image-url)
inadvertently need gustative sensations of a place to give meaning to their holiday destination, the implications for the hospitality and tourism industries are clear. Indeed, the keyword “wellness” is derived from not just the feeling of getting away from the humdrum of modern living and being pampered in a spa, but is enhanced by the tastes and aromas of local specialties. Some authors refer to this connection between terroir and well-being. When people enjoy being in the landscape and consuming the fresh, pure food that evokes the history and culture of a region, it can delight the soul and mind.

Case study 29.1: Jura Department in France – bridging terroir, food and destination authenticity

France benefits largely from the international tourism boom of the past decade. It is the world’s preferred destination in terms of arrivals with 84 million tourists in 2015 representing earnings of US$46 billion (UNWTO 2016). While the capital, Paris, still remains a magnet for international visitors as a ‘must-see’ destination, many are keen to explore the more rural regions of France. This may include the desire to visit historical sites, unique natural environments, or to discover local cultures through the food, wines, and gastronomic offers. In particular, the region Burgundy-Franche-Comté is valued by the ‘gourmet tourist’ and other ‘travelling foodies’, in part due to the reputation of both wines and local gastronomy along the Saône River in Burgundy. The counterpart of that region is the Franche-Comté. The Franche-Comté is located in eastern France, shares a border with Switzerland, and is composed of various smaller departments: Doubs, Haute-Saône, Belfort Territory, and Jura.

The name ‘Jura’ stems from the Gaulish ‘Jor’ (‘Gaulish’ is a Celtic language spoken by the inhabitants of the Gaul, today’s France), later Latinised into ‘juria’ meaning ‘forest’. The Jura Mountains, along the Swiss border, provide a delimitation between the Rhine and the Rhône rivers. The region had a very active lapidary and spectacle trade throughout the 19th and 20th century with multiple artisan entrepreneurs. The other major trades are forestry and agriculture.

The Jura Department is often forgotten by tourists or considered a best kept secret by connoisseurs, depending on the point of view. The fact is the department ranked 49th most visited of all 96 French departments in 2015 with a growth in that tendency (CDT 2016). Since 2012, the share of international tourists staying in the Jura has also seen a steady increase (CDT 2016). So what makes this region unique, slightly undiscovered but so special?

The Jura is lush with forests and mountainous fields that lend themselves to the production of many local products. Since the concept of terroir is ubiquitous in French cuisine, as discussed above, when one tastes a local product of the Jura, one tastes the soil, the climate, and the know-how. In particular, the region has made a name for itself in the unique cheese and wine it offers. It is a gold mine for those interested in the terroir.

Cheese (Comté, Morbier, Bleu de Gex)

Comté

The Jura is known worldwide for one of the most popular cheeses in France: the Comté. This emblematic cheese is produced with unpasteurized milk from the Montbéliarde cows, recognizable
by their beautiful white coats spotted with brown. Since the Comté is certified by the Appellation d'Origine Contrôlée or AOC ("protected designation of origin"), there are multiple strict guidelines on both the production of the milk as well as the fabrication of the cheese. Those guidelines and regulations include (a selection):

- No more than 1.3 cows per hectare of pasture.
- Fertilization of pasture is limited.
- Cows may only be fed fresh, natural feed, with no silage.
- The milk must be transported to the site of production immediately after milking.
- The milk must be used raw. Only one heating of the milk may occur.
- It may be heated to no more than 40 °C (104 °F).
- Salt may only be applied directly to the surface of the cheese.
- Maturing must continue for at least four months.

*(Comté 2015)*

If any stage of the AOC specifications is not respected, the cheese cannot be sold as Comté. The color of the cheese provides insights into the production season: when cows graze fresh grass and mountain flowers in the summer, the Comté will show a yellow tone. When the cows are fed on hay during the winter months, the cheese is almost white. Accordingly, the taste will show various levels of either nuttiness or fruitiness depending on the season. As a form of micro-terroir, two different Comté wheels will not have the same taste. Each cheese wheel develops unique aromas and flavors depending on the cow, the dairy, the cheesemaker, and the ripening.

*Morbier*

Traditionally, the Morbier cheese, (named after the small village of the same name in the Haut-Jura) was made at the end of milking in the morning or evening. In order to protect the evening production, the cheesemaker would spread ash on top of the cheese batch. The morning batch would then be produced on top of the evening batch, thus creating a black line in the middle of the cheese. Similarly, today, this black line is obtained with vegetable charcoal that does not affect the taste of the cheese. The Morbier obtained the French AOC in 2002 and the European Protected Appellation of Origin (AOP) in 2004 *(Morbier n.d.)*. It is a softer and creamier cheese than the Comté, but with a slightly bitter, at times spicy, aftertaste.

*Bleu de Gex Haut Jura*

This is perhaps one of the best examples of small artisan-like production, rooted in historical know-how and unique mountain terroir giving the cheese its uniqueness. The Bleu de Gex Haut Jura (also known as ‘Bleu du Haut-Jura’, ‘Bleu de Gex’ or ‘Bleu de Septmoncel’) is historically the first cheese with raw cow milk recognized under the French AOC system in 1977. Since 1996, the Bleu de Gex Haut Jura is also AOP cheese. While official recognition and protection is relatively recent, monks at the Abbaye de Saint-Claude were already producing this semi-soft, blue cheese in the 13th century. Today, only four micro-fromagerie (cheese factory) make the cheese with an annual production of about 550 tons. Two of those fromagerie are direct management cooperatives, one is a milk sales cooperative, and the last is a private cheese dairy. Similar to the
Comté, multiple guidelines on both the production of the milk as well as the fabrication of the cheese are to be followed including (a selection):

- The milk must come from Montbéliarde or Simmental cows.
- The feeding of dairy cows, based on pasture grass and hay, excludes all forms of fermented foods.
- Each cow has at least one hectare of grass.
- The milk used for the production may be kept for a maximum of 36 hours.
- Salting is done dry in vats for three to four days.
- The cheese is refined in the zone of origin for three weeks, at least as from the day of manufacture.

(Bleu de Gex n.d.)

The Bleu de Gex Haut Jura has a fine dry, white to white-yellowish crust and a marbled blue-green mold distributed throughout the fairly pale and soft structure of the cheese. The combination of the many factors involved in production of the milk and specific production condition stages allow the manufacture of a cheese with a taste that is slightly sweet and light, but with a hint of salt and low bitterness.

**Wine**

France is known for wine regions such as Bordeaux and Burgundy, the *powerhouses* which have influenced winemakers globally whether in terms of viticulture (grape growing), viniculture (wine making), or marketing. The Jura on the other hand is the smallest wine region of France, but one of the most original, mostly due to its unique terroir characteristics. Wine lovers now flock to the region at the yearly ‘Percée du Vin Jaune’ (*Breakthrough of the Yellow Wine*, authors’ translation), a big annual wine festival celebrating the production of the Vin Jaune (French for *Yellow Wine*), and other Jura wines. The production of wine in the Jura is based mostly on native red grapes such as the Poulsard and Trousseau, but also the more common Chardonnay which is also found in the neighboring Burgundy region. However, the region has made a name for itself with the white Savagnin grape which produces the Vin Jaune.

**Vin Jaune**

The Vin Jaune is a dry white wine made exclusively from the Savagnin grape variety and only four appellations d’origine contrôlée (AOC) are allowed to produce it: Arbois, Côtes du Jura, Château-Chalon, and Etoile. The Vin Jaune owes its uniqueness and typicity to its vineyard location and process of elaboration. The Savagnin grows on the geological folds of the Jurassic period. A soil composed of mostly clay in the lower sections and with more limestone in the higher elevation. The Savagnin grapes are usually harvested in late October when the sugar levels allow obtaining a potential alcohol level of 13–15% for the finished wine. Once harvested, destemmed and fermented, the Vin Jaune is kept for six years and three months in open oak barrels. The process allows for evaporation which is known as the famous ‘part of angels’. A veil of yeast forms on the surface of the wine, preserving it from oxidation. This unique process of elaboration offers this wine its typical aromas. The bottling is also unique to the region in its shape and capacity.
The Clavelin is the only authorized bottle for the Vin Jaune with a capacity of 62cl compared to the regular 75cl for all other wines. The bottle was developed following a request of 18th century winemakers to represent approximately the amount of wine left after more than six years in barrel compared to 1 litre (100cl) at the start of the process (Vin du Jura n.d.). The wine’s bright, limpid golden yellow color is sumptuous. The bouquet shows nutty aromas mixed with dried fruits, spices, white fleshed fruits, and fresh floral notes. On the palate, the nuttiness comes through along with green apple, dried fruits, and, at times, exotic spices such as saffron and ginger. The result of its unique terroir is best appreciated in the glass along with artisan bread and Comté cheese. The rich nutty or fruity flavors of the Comté complement the Vin Jaune. As one New York Times contributor once put it: “Once you have tried it – especially with cheese – you won’t forget it’ (Pfanner 2013). The unique Jura terroir has attracted attention not only by those gourmet tourists searching for an authentic experience but also more recently by expert critics. The Jura wine region arguably still offers this authentic experience because, as a famous British wine critic wrote, “until recently Jura has been an unusually hermetically sealed wine region, with almost no outside investment – which has perhaps helped to retain the very special character of its wines” (Robinson 2015).

The Jura region has been able to harness its offers while remaining true to itself as “tourists want to have unique and authentic experiences related to the culture of the places they visit” (Ferrari and Gilli 2013:322). The Jura is an example of a region that describes the concept of terroir linked to food and gastronomy and destination authenticity represented in the flavors of ingredients sourced and transformed while keeping its distinctive characteristics.

References


The roles of terroir, food and gastronomy


Introduction

How and why should we transfer knowledge? And what kind of knowledge we can transfer for good purposes. These questions only came to my mind when I realized that there were funds available for us to transfer our research outcomes for the benefits of the mass public in Hong Kong. In the government-funded university I am working for, apart from teaching and research funding, Knowledge Transfer (KT) fund is the third major funding for academic activities and is considered an important interactive channel between private and public domains so that mass society can benefit from the research outcomes generated from academic institutes supported by taxpayers. It was widely recognized that scientific research should be publicized for the mass interest, while humanities played a prominent role only in the last decade. Since the 1997 handover, Hong Kong has had more massive protests and public requests upon the government, and the student demonstration as well as the umbrella movement in 2014 was probably an important landmark of Hong Kong’s social movement in the past half century. Even in the everyday life of the mass public, Hong Kong people have become more aware of local traditions in communities, natural resource management, urban redevelopment, rural land use, etc., and have become more concerned about the engagement of stakeholders and the enhancement of local recognition; therefore, heritage-oriented tourism will be considered a good way to disseminate local culture and lifeways in order to promote the understandings of both urban and rural development in Hong Kong society.

Regarding urban redevelopment, many neighborhoods in Hong Kong are in fact rich in historical and cultural features that are worthwhile for local citizens and international tourists to explore. Over the last century, Sheung Wan made Hong Kong a successful and important trading hub, and traditional trade characteristics remain visible there today. Since the mid-19th century, through the network of overseas Chinese in Thailand, a company was established to facilitate the importation of various dried products into Hong Kong, for the purposes of trading with Chinese societies throughout Asia. Therefore, in 2012, I undertook my first knowledge transfer project entitled ‘Learning from neighborhood tourism in Sheung Wan, Hong Kong’, which prioritized data collection over theoretical analyses.
Local knowledge transfer in Hong Kong

By delving into the neighborhood, I flashed back to the trade-development relationships of dried seafood, traditional Chinese medicines, and groceries such as salted fish over the past century. By doing so, I transformed the food-oriented knowledge gained from our community into a tourism resource, and hence an opportunity for local people and overseas visitors to learn and explore through the gastronomic journey. I believe the curiosity required in street observation in ‘modernology’ can be a cornerstone that fosters a mutual interaction between communities and tourism (Cheung and Luo 2016).

Through this project, I aimed at bringing the historical backgrounds and cultural meanings of different kinds of ingredients as well as dried products sold in a specific neighborhood which we consider an unique tourism resource both for domestic and international tourists, not only for shopping but also as channels for cultural understanding in our society, with particular reference to the relationship between one’s gastronomic experiences and domestic tourism; furthermore, with the ‘exotic’ food items in the context of Chinese diets, I believe that touring in Sheung Wan gives a unique experience for inbound tourists and excursionists looking for the culture and history of Hong Kong (also see Hjalager and Richards 2002; Cheung 2005). Besides having been a trading hub as well as a commercial center of Hong Kong for over a century, this kind of Sheung Wan neighborhood visit contributes to local awareness through the interactions between tourists and local communities. Therefore, with my previous research project, I became a little familiar with the history of some traditional settlements, fishing communities, and wetland conservation in the northeastern part of Hong Kong, and it was probably the main reason for me to move forward for the second KT project through the design of a new kind of heritage tourism.

The development of heritage/gastronomic tourism in Hong Kong since the 1990s

Tourism, involving travel and contact between visitors and local cultures, clearly fits into contemporary concerns on globalization and cross-cultural interaction; heritage emphasizes the passing down of knowledge inherited from the previous generations to the next generations, and the recognition of local traditions among the global community of human beings for the sake of ethnic diversity and multiculturalism. Through the Sheung Wan project, I have confirmed that heritage tourism can be a good niche for both domestic and international visitors, even though the majority is still interested in shopping, eating, and theme park visiting in Hong Kong.

Over the past several decades, there were several heritage trails created, many historical monuments renovated, and some local festivals promoted for both domestic and international tourists’ interest; however, there is still debate on how a good management and enhancement scheme should be engaged for tourism development (Cheung 1999, 2003, 2009). Nature-based tourism has been promoted since the late 1990s in order to attract foreign visitors to enjoy natural aspects of Hong Kong, and several relevant projects were carried out. One of the high-profile activities organized by the Agriculture, Fisheries and Conservation Department (AFCD), was ‘Hiking Festival 2000’ including a program of trail walks and guided eco-tours; the aim was to encourage citizens to use countryside resources wisely and to promote hiking as an environmentally friendly, healthy, and pleasurable, but challenging outdoor activity. Nature-based tourism has been considered a potential strategy to support Hong Kong’s inbound tourism industry and help it compete with neighboring cities such as Shenzhen and Macau, and I would like to add that gastronomy and agriculture can in fact further highlight both natural and cultural characters of Hong Kong for its tourism resources. Relevant activities

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are not only limited to visiting rice paddies, vegetable farms, fruit gardens, fishponds, etc., and I suggest making use of Hong Kong’s wetland characters as well as coastal resource for bringing in cultural and historical backgrounds of local villages in the New Territories. In other words, by showing the physical nature or geographical landscape in the New Territories, tourists can realize that there are different cultural traditions between the east and west sides of the hinterland. Divided by a mountain range located almost in the middle of the entire New Territories, the western side is fertile flat land consisting of a few early-settled clans with their lineage network in many parts of the Pearl River delta area. These are important in the cultural history of the New Territories, and should serve as significant cultural attractions for tourists visiting Hong Kong. Some early settled clans claimed that their ancestors came from Jiangxi province, immigrated in the tenth century during the Song dynasty to what is now the New Territories. In 1899, there were already 700–800 villages in the New Territories, and about half of them are abandoned now; the two major dialectic groups were Punti who spoke the Wai-tau language and Hakka who spoke the Hakka language. In order to deepen our tourists’ impression, there are two kinds of dishes are often used for cultural enhancement.

1 *Puhn choi (basin food)* is a festive food commonly prepared in ancestor worship rites and wedding banquets among Punti indigenous inhabitants of Hong Kong’s New Territories. Usually prepared in the kitchen of an ancestral hall, it is the only dish served in the meal. All ingredients are served together in one basin from which everyone at the table eats communally. This dish usually comprises layers of inexpensive local ingredients such as dried pig skin, dried eel, dried squid, radish, tofu skin, mushroom, and pork stewed in soy bean paste. The banquet may occasionally have several side dishes, but the main basin dish is always the focus. Among local villagers in the New Territories, the dish is usually called *sihk puhn* (meaning ‘eat the basin’), and boasts an oral history longer than that of colonial Hong Kong. Most importantly, *sihk puhn*’s contemporary manifestation as *puhn choi* is being similarly promoted in the media (e.g., guidebooks, local TV and travel magazines) through different stories of its so-called origin. Yet, the tradition of eating *puhn choi* in Hong Kong appears to have attracted domestic tourists only after their visits to the region’s traditional village settlements and particularly to heritage sites in the New Territories, visits to the latter being more common since the 1990s.

2 The second type will be localized Hakka dishes prepared by Hakka indigenous inhabitants with ancestors moved into this region in *Kangsi* period of the early Qing dynasty. The localization took place since they moved down to the south (New Territories nowadays), even though, it is almost impossible to find out what kind of dietary habits they had in those days and how their foodways developed over the last 300 years. Most of the existing Hakka villages were founded more than 300 years ago around the time of the Coastal Evacuation 1662–1669. Those villages were grouped together in different regional alliances; however, after the official land registration at the beginning of the British colonial regime, the previous Chinese administrative units/alliances were strongly affected as well as weakened. Again, being divided by the mountain range in the middle of the New Territories, we find the northwestern side of the New Territories is fertile flat land consisting of more Punti clans, while in the eastern and southeastern parts of the New Territories, there are more settlements regionally grouped in multiple lineages/villages together, in which Hakka villages are commonly found. With these highland Hakka people coming to the coastal environment, it is not surprising to see how their dietary practices changed accordingly. Obviously, the emphasis upon freshness while cooking seafood and excessive use of marine dried products is highly noticeable.
Local knowledge transfer in Hong Kong

Coastal aquaculture: fishery and oyster farming

In Hong Kong, fishery is probably the last major primary industry, and commercial freshwater fishponds are mostly located in the northeastern part of New Territories. The yield from these has been declining due to many factors, such as lack of labor force, aging of the local fishing community, pollution, and competition resulting from low-cost fish imported from mainland China. The decline of the industry reflects a serious loss of traditional skills, which were such an important part of the postwar social and economic development of contemporary Hong Kong society. Freshwater fish farming began early in the twentieth century and the historical development of the fishing community reflects significant social change in the northwestern part of the New Territories. With intensive rural development and increasing property values since the late 1970s, land administration in the New Territories of Hong Kong has become vastly more complicated than before. Much of the complication is a result of land usage having shifted from the primary production of agriculture and fishery to industrial and new town development. Inner Deep Bay has its own traditional freshwater fishing industry that probably dates back at least 80 years. Since the mid-1940s, Inner Deep Bay has been the main site for cultivating *gei wai* shrimp, grey mullet, snakehead, and other freshwater fishes; for decades, it has provided the major supply of freshwater fishes in Hong Kong. Inland freshwater pond cultivation was a major industry in the 1970s, when it supplied most of the freshwater fish for the local market. Apart from the local market demand, ‘remainders’ from fish farming were consumed by migratory birds resting in the marsh (see Figure 30.1).

Agriculture is certainly not a major industry in contemporary Hong Kong; however, that does not imply that it should not be understood or maintained for purposes other than its economic contribution to society, especially in wetland conservation and coastal resource management. With less than 300 fishing households, the fishing communities located mostly at the buffer areas of the Mai Po wetland are now facing tremendous changes. Of particular importance is that the fishponds serve not only as a mitigation zone and source of a traditional local food but also function as a major food supplier for migratory birds, thereby raising the conservation value of the Mai Po marshes and Inner Deep Bay in Hong Kong (Cheung 2007, 2008, 2011). Apart from the

![Figure 30.1](https://example.com/image.png)  Migratory birds get their food while fish farmers are harvesting.
emphasis on traditional industries as a kind of cultural heritage among scholars, the debate on heritage conservation has successfully attracted the attention of urbanites, who consider traditional industries an important part of their collective memory of society.

In order to improve the economic return of fish farming industry, during the last several decades, AFCD introduced various kinds of non-local species such as tench (or tinca tinca), Chinese long snout catfish, and jade perch, hoping to increase the returns of the industry. However, they were not very successful because tench is too bony, while long snout catfish’s unpleasant look discouraged local customers from buying it. As for Australian jade perch, AFCD made several unsuccessful attempts at hatching eggs with a view to reducing the cost of imported fish fry; finally, in 2007, AFCD has successfully produced Australian Jade Perch fry, and this has helped local fish farmers secure a stable supply of fish fry at lower costs. However, Australian jade perch can only be engaged in monoculture because of its aggressive eating habits, while most local farmers practice polyculture in freshwater fish farming.

Another important aquaculture in northwestern part of Hong Kong is oyster farming; however, there is not much detailed study about oyster farming in Hong Kong, and the first comprehensive paper about the oyster industry was published by Morton and Wong (1975) in which we were told that: “The warm wet southeasterly monsoon in summer brings heavy rainfall to southern China increasing the discharge of the Pearl River, the Shum Chun River, the Yuen Long Creek and other small streams entering the bay. … The cool saline water in winter and the warm almost fresh water conditions in summer are particularly suitable for the cultivation of the Pacific oyster” (Morton and Wong 1975:141). Oyster farming in Lau Fau Shan can be dated back to 200 years (Morton and Wong 1975), and it has been an important cross-border industry between Hong Kong and Shenzhen, both of them located at the lower basin of Pearl River (Bowler, Yang, and Smith 1984). In the past, oyster seeds were naturally collected and raised in the Lau Fau Shan and mature oyster would be transferred to Shajing a few months before harvesting, given that the rain water collected during the rainy season flows into the lower basin of Pearl River delta will provide a low salinity for the size building in the last stage of cultivation for the Chinese New Year consumption. Due to the political relations between Hong Kong and Shenzhen, the development of oyster farming has gone through a couple of changes since the 1950s when the border between Hong Kong and Mainland was strictly controlled. I was told that contamination was found in the Inner Deep Bay since the 1960s, so most people felt reluctant of eating oyster from the area. In order to get rid of the polluted area, in the 1980s, the Japanese floating barges method was introduced instead of the traditional method, as well as mud level cultivation on the coast.

Oyster eating has interesting cultural significance in Hong Kong as dried oyster has not only been served as a seasonal (winter) delicacy as well as a fortune food for Chinese Lunar New Year, but also plays the unusual role of ‘vegetarian food’ in seasonal traditional event such as The First Day of Lunar New Year and local Taoist events such as Cheung Chau Tai Ping Qing Jiao when animal killing is forbidden during the ritual of purification. There are several legendary explanations for that as well. Back to the daily usage and consumption, oyster sauce is a well-known flavoring widely used in Cantonese cooking and has been developed as a famous brand name in Hong Kong to nationwide as well as worldwide; another important local product is golden oyster – a kind of half-dried oyster fried with honey that is considered a local seasonal gourmet food only available during December and January. Despite all these eating and consumption aspects, I would like to emphasize the fact that oyster farming has a long history in Pearl River Delta area and is one of the traditional aquacultures depending strongly on the natural coastal resource, therefore, apart from the agricultural knowledge inherited through the coastal communities over the centuries, oyster farming is also embedded in the long-term socio-economic relationships among communities involved.
A Four Seasons model with highlights on gastronomy and agriculture

I use the Four Seasons model for the wetland tour in order to give our visitors the seasonal perspectives so that they can conceptualize all the relevant cultural history, agricultural operations, and natural landscape in the lower basin of the Pearl River delta area. I hope this framework is able to enable tourists or other visitors on their own to discover and experience some local history and socio-cultural significance in the context of natural conservation and heritage understanding (Cheung 1999, 2008, 2009, 2014). In particular, the wetland area located at the northeastern part of Hong Kong offers a rich landscape for understanding changing life ways, including such phenomena as an influx of migrants, the formation of fishery villages on the marsh, relationships with traditional villages, like the South Chinese lineage settlements, and communal livelihoods of former fishermen. Such phenomena all demonstrate coastal resource management from local perspectives. Therefore, wetland tourism could serve as an excellent educational device for understanding of the fast-changing modern society with a focus on the transition of wetlands from agriculture to other types of land use. In other words, I use Inner Deep Bay to illustrate and understand the competition between agriculture, fishery heritage management, and environmental conservation, in order to demonstrate the historical development of the co-existing three components in the coastal wetlands.

The model is designed for the knowledge transfer generated by various groups/stakeholders (farmers, bird watchers, conservation groups, and others) to both domestic and international visitors to Inner Deep Bay and the neighboring areas, like Yuen Long, Tai San Wai, through an integrated ecotourism package design from a multi-disciplinary perspective. Based on these research findings, this project aims to attract the general public to coastal development through creating a seasonal model of wetland tourism package. The emphasis on seasonal change in the area serves not only to attract people to make multiple visits, but also enhances the appreciation of the lifecycle in both nature and local rural communities. The seasonal model is based on the following three major categories of attractions in four seasons:

- **Scenery and landscape** – mangroves in Autumn, flowers and plants in different seasons, reeds, migratory birds in Winter, water birds, buffalo, landscape, etc.
- **Foodways** – fish (grey mullet, eel, carp, etc.), oyster, shrimp, crab, wild boar; fruits such as lychee, banana, jack fruit, papaya, star fruit, dragon eyes; seasonal vegetables; festival cuisine such as pun-choi in Spring and Autumn, traditional cakes and Hakka dishes, seasonal delicacies, New Year food, etc.
- **Rural community lifestyles** – catching mullet fish fry in Winter, fishpond drying in Winter, gei wai harvesting in Summer, Tin Hau Festival in Spring, Lunar New Year, ancestral worshipping, fish market operation in midnight, etc.

A Chinese book was published in Hong Kong, in order to enhance the interest in wetland tourism among the mass public as well as to provide visitors/tourists to achieve a holistic understanding of our coastal development from a seasonal and multi-disciplinary perspective (Cheung 2014). This book contains comprehensive information about the seasonal characters of the wetland, with four hiking trails recommended; again, besides giving visitors detailed information of migratory birds passing by the area, it also contains relevant local traditions of the fishing ground and community life in the area. In 2016, the Four Seasons model with the four proposed wetland-oriented walking trails will be reprinted in a local outdoor magazine for a larger group of audiences in Hong Kong (Cheung 2016a, 2016b, 2016c, 2016d). They are
going to be bilingual and published quarterly so that readers of the magazine will be reminded the beauty of our wetland area with its seasonal characters.

**Concluding remarks**

This seasonal model uses cross-cultural, multi-disciplinary, and critical approaches to understand the historical background and coastal traditions of Hong Kong society as a socio-cultural basis for sustainable ecotourism development. Besides being a coastal wetland tourism model in the northwestern side in Hong Kong, via this kind of nature and community visit, it contributes to local awareness through the interactions between visitors/tourists and local communities, and, in particular, relevant food can enhance the cultural experiences. For the long term, the prototype developed in the Inner Deep Bay area may serve as a model so that more coastal natural environments in mainland China would be re-considered for ecotourism development. In this way, communities’ awareness of being promoters for Hong Kong tourism can be enhanced and inbound and domestic tourists can enjoy and benefit from learning how Hong Kong has been developed into a world city from an everyday life perspective. Gastronomy, being a major part of the publicly recognized traditional knowledge of a local community can work well with tourism given that the outsiders’ perspectives of tourists is a major push for the locals to gain respects and be proud of their own traditions. Therefore, in order to get the win-win situation for local agriculture and tourism development, I would emphasize that a clear and simple model is necessary for visitors to appreciate the tour, as it enables both domestic and international visitors to discover, experience, and conceptualize some local history and culture and to organize information and stories for their own interest. Regarding the potential readers of this chapter, I think it will benefit both commercial travel agents, educators, and local environmental or green NGOs interested in gastronomy, agriculture, food production, and local communities.

**Note**


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**Note**

1 A website was developed at: http://cuhk.edu.hk/ant/sheungwan.

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The journey of sustainable food, what happened?
A century ago and beyond, the notion of unsustainable food could only be a fairy tale. In the old Norse stories, Thor’s goats were killed every night to make a feast for heroes and then were magically resurrected every morning to serve as another feast. Food without effort! In the real world, food came from farms and gardens, and was recognized as part of a balanced ecosystem, one which was also part of the ongoing life of the planet. The idea of wasting perfectly edible food, packaging it in a non-biodegradable substance, and shipping it in from the other side of the planet to a place where there was already sufficient food was unimaginable (Reisch, Eberle, and Lorek 2013).

In the modern world we barely think about where food comes from. We buy whatever we want, whenever we want it. Fruits and vegetables are always in season somewhere, so we import. Mangoes in the middle of winter? That’s ok. If you are willing to pay, you can have it.

We have learnt not to consider the impact of these options on the planet. Forgotten the effort required to create our food, resources used, the lives and payment of those involved along the supply chain.

Un-sustainable food
Since the Second World War, an ever-increasing industrial mind-set has meant much of our food resembles something closer to a factory production line than a farm or garden (Bernstein et al. 2016).

It is understandable that in some parts of the world, a sufficient variety of fresh produce is not always available. Frozen ground and minimal sunlight can mean growing crops is a difficult task. For most of us, however, the toughest part of an off-season is going without our favourite fruit or vegetable. Living without a daily banana smoothie or an avocado fix is a part of life we just don’t want to face. This is when supermarket shelves often make up for the deficiency with food from the other side of the world, bringing us imported delicacies rather than encouraging us to buy what is locally in season (Burnett et al. 2014).

Far from being condemned as expensive and pointless, this behavior is encouraged at many levels. Tax incentives create financial opportunities for business to favor exports over selling
what is locally in season. Consumers can’t resist favorite delicacies. It drives up prices of fresh produce for locals and those on the other side of the world, being supplied with foreign food (Smith and McKinnon 2007).

Our planet’s topsoil has been over-processed topsoil and its symbiotic bacteria have been lost, blown away by the wind, increasing the need for synthetic additives (Milman 2015). Agriculture suffers at the hands of the system, monoculture crops of corn, wheat, and soya fill the landscape, harvested by machines powered by petro-chemicals. Crops sprayed with herbicides, pesticides and fertilizers, natural systems left in favor of production (Reisch, Eberle, and Lorek 2013).

Is there any consideration for food animals like chickens and turkeys? Kept in cages no bigger than their waistlines and stacked like cargo without respect or appreciation for what they are giving. Flocks and herds of larger food animals such as dairy cattle pushed to meet demand damaging lands as they seek out sustenance for our growing global ‘need’ for protein.

Nor are the seas immune to our strange, unnecessary food pattern of unsustainable practice. Large longer-lived pelagic species are often favored over quick-breeding small school fish. Small fish are only valued as feed for fish farms’ artificially bred prized species such as salmon (McLachlan 2017).

As we limit trust in natural food systems, we thrust ourselves further into this unsustainable world. This can be due to convenience, laziness, or a general lack of care on the consumers’ part. Perhaps we don’t want to know where the meal we are eating comes from. It certainly didn’t grow in the plastic packet in the supermarket display fridge. Arguably unsustainable food has been forced on us as large supermarket chains with their access to ‘affordable’ delicacies have slowly replaced local markets or small family stores.

We have to think harder. What are we really paying for? That out-of-season banana smoothie may be coming at a higher price than we realize. Can we simplify things and enjoy the ‘fruits’ of our local area, and support local solutions, natural processes, and reduced transport and packaging?

A world of waste

Today food is plentiful in developed countries which ‘benefit’ from this unsustainable bounty where wasted food is a constant. One hundred million tons of food are thrown away every year in Europe alone. Yet there are one billion starving people in the world (Hepker 2014). Edible and compostable leftovers pile up in landfill mixed with the unnatural wrappers, forming anoxic methane sources. In this way, a once-valuable asset of soil re-creation is rendered useless, buried, leaking methane into the atmosphere (Themelis and Ulloa 2007).

This denial of and interference with food’s natural evolution has meant subscribing to a series of damages which collectively add up to such massive interruptions to our planet’s ecosystems. This process can only be called ‘unsustainable’.

Supply

Producers as well as consumers are forced into a cycle of un-sustainability. Farmers are squeezed to lower profit by national grocery chains and pressured into artificial production methods in order to survive. They too have become part of our current failure to understand the systems associated with the food we take for granted. In a time of growing populations and a prospect of further growth, our insatiable appetite for the fast, convenient, nutritionless food option feeds back into unsustainable systems (Reisch, Eberle, and Lorek 2013).
As farming emerged, it sustained itself in line with the natural evolution of our food habits. Traditional farming also recognized how suited the species native to a region were in producing naturally high yields and in their resistance to local pests. As knowledge grows (and is recovered) on chemical free, biodynamic, and permaculture practices, we are learning that there is a higher yield in seasonal multi-crop methods. We are beginning to understand the benefits of intermingling native species with traditional food plants and insect-attracting companion plants in small space, higher production, local supply (Witney 2016).

The past and back to the future

Knowledge about the production and consumption of sustainable food is extensive. It was the way of life for countless generations (see Figure 31.1). While technology makes our current lives easier, can we reap some value from what our ancestors already knew?

If they had it right in the past, can we go back to the way it was? Of course not. The world has changed, people have changed, and knowledge has changed. The volume of people in comparison to the amount of arable land available is far greater.

These ways are not difficult and can not only feed us, they can take us back to what we naturally need as human beings: community, connection to others, food that nourishes us, and the ethics of respecting that food and those who bring it to us as they deserve. In what is becoming a rapidly growing revolution, all over the world people are taking up the challenge of worthy food and greater care for our planet.

Figure 31.1  Local produce market in Sri Lanka (Image – Paul Hellier).
The growing revolution

There is a mood for change environmentally and the sourcing and supply of food has a major role to play. Solutions offer simple ways to return us, at least in part, to reducing waste and to more sustainable systems of production and consumption. Such ways have already begun to appear both globally and at all levels of society, the food sustainability revolution grows with increased partnerships and interaction.

Community partnerships are on the increase, the business of sustainable restaurants and the people willing to travel to find them are working to make it less of a revolution and more a standard.

Is the ‘sustainable food revolution’ real?

Of course, there are always nay-sayers. Despite the popularity of ethical food consumption practices, there are critics who argue that knowing where your food comes from and ensuring it is locally sourced is just another food fad for millennials, and one which from a business perspective simply pushes up the price of food (Gunst 2015).

Nevertheless, shoppers are finding increasing satisfaction in ‘knowing the farmer’, a policy often referred to as ‘Farm to Fork’, and one which sometimes includes information on the methods used on the farm. It is true that cafés and restaurants are joining in for commercial benefit. According to the US National Restaurant Association, ‘four of the top ten trends’ related to Farm to Fork and local food supply (Harvard University 2016).

Businesses would be foolish to ignore such a statistic, as patrons are often willing to pay more for protein which has been ethically raised and naturally fed over cruel factory farming, for example (Hartman Group 2015).

In order to feed growing populations and still enjoy this amazing planet, we must find the motivation and work with or support those leading the way in this field. If you are reading this you will understand the need, and you will also know how simple the solutions are. The food revolution covers such a wide topic area in order to wipe out waste and encourage sustainability, the possibilities are endless.

Case study 31.1

Fair Food Forager (FFF), an Australian food tech start-up consisting of a mobile app and website listing ethical and sustainable food venues. Its existence is continually revealing the extent of the sustainable food revolution as consumers jump on board to list ethical and sustainable food businesses. What’s more, businesses are asking to be assessed as suitable for the FFF register as they strive to meet these standards. Needless to say, as people register, and interact with FFF, they become part of the snowball effect for the whole concept of popularizing sustainable, organic, non-wasteful food. Using location software, conscious travelers can find a venue in an unfamiliar land following their own ethos of sustainable practice.

The following are some points that appear to be important factors in the sustainable food revolution according to the Fair Food Forager team.

An online presence for sustainable restaurants is helping support the movement, with the internet being a useful marketing tool in a time when restaurants are marketing their sustainability credentials. This ease of communication creates a supportive community among the involved
businesses, thus making them more likely to succeed. It also fits easily into the popular trend of beautiful food photography. In addition, the internet has developed at a time when there is an increasing global awareness of the value of sustainable food. And finally, quality, healthy, and sustainable food is increasingly becoming a popular part of life in societies experiencing growing affluence.

Restaurants like Balinese Spice Magic and others on the platform, together with their patrons are experiencing the evolution of the ‘new’ sustainable restaurant revolution and learning from each other. Generations are relearning what their grandparents practiced, and with this shift comes discovery into further sustainable practice. With the help of technology, food sustainability is not hard to achieve or to be found. It can be assessed in terms of sustainability, nutritional value, and ethical production and found with GPS in your pocket.

Advertising and the increasing marketability of sustainable food
Vegan, free-range, and organic food, are increasing in popularity (de Boo 2015), further driving change toward sustainable practice. There is also a change in tone as the movement towards sustainable food consumption expands. Consumers and restaurateurs are educating one other in the benefits and ways of reducing waste and chemicals in food (Harvard University 2016). Business sustainability has now entered an arena which was once inhabited by only a few.

Where a café once saw it as unnecessary to explain the sourcing and supplier policy of free-range organic poultry and dairy to anyone but its most dedicated customers, food businesses now highlight these for marketing reasons and reach a much wider audience.

What was once an act purely for taste, or environmental conscience, or friendship between the restaurateur and supplier, is now utilized to attract a wider category of client: the modern conscious consumer. Restaurants globally are positioning themselves to be listed on the newly emerging ethical food directories as enthusiasm for sustainable food grows.

Additionally, as conscious consumers are often affluent with a tradition of travelling, the directories themselves become more important as they are taken up by tourists moving from country to country and seeking out sustainable food options in unfamiliar places (Hartman Group 2015).

Waste reduction and generational expansion
Waste reduction conversations and the notion of ‘reusability’ were such a large part of our grandparents’ generation. They are now making their return. The generations recently educated at university have learned in the lecture halls to respect notions of food diversity and sustainability. Schoolchildren are educating their parents on the value of reducing waste and composting. As the movement towards sustainable food and restaurants grows there is an encouraging rejection among these generations of ‘efficiency at all costs’ and an increase in the desire to be ‘inconvenienced’; to carry one’s own shopping bags to the supermarket, and to bring one’s own coffee cups and takeaway lunch boxes. There is still a very long way to go, though people are realizing there are real consequences to these simple personal actions. As a result of these movements, awareness of the damage in current practices both spreads and increases the involved community at all levels (Oliver 2017).
Plastics reduction

Plastic reduction is now on the radar at all committed levels from individuals to government. Governments have included single use plastic bans in countries like Kenya. City councils in places such as San Francisco and Paris have banned Styrofoam (Reilly 2016). In the top five plastic polluting countries; China, Indonesia, The Philippines, Thailand, and Vietnam; the cost and availability of plastic is making it difficult to replace (Chow 2015) (see Figure 31.2). However, there are alternatives, and the change is coming.

Groups such as the Plastic Pollution Coalition, 5 Gyres, and Fair Food Forager are working with business and communities to phase out single-use plastic. Their experience tells us that cost effectiveness for those who can’t afford high-priced compostable alternatives is a serious challenge, but it is one they are prepared to face. Groups like The Last Plastic Straw are running successful programs with restaurants to exchange automatic plastic straw ‘hand out’ to ‘ask only’ policies. This is one very simple solution that saves the planet from tons of plastic litter, and reduces running costs for business. Plastic clean-up and awareness groups like Plastic Free Cambodia, Clean and Green Vietnam, and other NGOs are increasing individuals’ awareness with clean-ups of plastic litter. Some are working with Fair Food Forager to highlight plastic free businesses while introducing plastic free pilot programs in small villages as test cases for larger scale change (Huntsdale 2017).

It is arguable that the larger challenge today lies not in alerting populations to the problems of unsustainable, wasteful food practices on this planet of ours, but in making the alternatives readily available and affordable.

Figure 31.2  Pointless packaging of fruit in Vietnam and Thailand (Image – Paul Hellier).
Food waste reduction

Food waste is being addressed as restaurants attract people willing to travel large distances to be a part of closed cycle system. These venues are drawing attention to our wasteful food ways, linking with community gardens to supply scraps or even growing their own produce onsite. Demanding a higher price and an attraction at the same time. Contributors to the Fair Food Forager app have revealed that there are many local restaurants exchanging excess produce in a modern business barter system.

Imperfect looking produce is becoming part of the food dialogue as well, with restaurants seeing opportunities in getting to know suppliers and promoting, not throwing out, imperfect produce. Awareness is growing that the shape of a carrot doesn’t affect its taste. Tossing imperfect produce into the rubbish while some go without now seems so flawed, there are increasing voices making the change.

The sustainable food community

People all over the world are taking matters into their own hands, forming groups, charities, and companies, or even working on their own to challenge food-related environmental damage and climatic change. Consequently, there is a new spirit of community endeavor across the globe as like-minded people come together to deal with and support sustainable food practices. This includes restaurants and the travelers wanting low-impact holidays, supporting local farmers in supply of chemical-free food (Harvard University 2016).

Community gardens and farmers’ markets are springing up all over the globe, utilizing unused community land to grow and sell produce and local, home-made products. These facilities are also acting to reduce waste by taking scraps from local homes and food businesses. Major cities with a shortage of land are even growing food on rooftops and suppling restaurants, a good move environmentally, for the city and for business. Forty-two per cent of North American consumers said they are willing to pay more for sustainable food products (Hartman Group 2015).

Together, these community groups, small farmers, and permaculture advocates are all part of the burgeoning global movement of citizens and business driven by the desire to know where their food comes from and what processes were used to grow it.

The Internet Age – assisting the revolution

The Internet Age is playing an important part in a developing revolution through personal voices, food rating sites, and the online presence of sustainable food restaurants. Everyone is effectively a media outlet: social media channels, and blogs allow voice, opinion, or instantly shared news. Either through celebrating the positive marketing of a business and the look of food on Instagram or the outing of unethical behavior caught on film, people are influencing food practices to highlight the good and the bad (Spence et al. 2015).

Billions of food images are taken each year with the birth of the ‘food porn’ phenomenon; competition is hot for the best-looking food image. Whatever the reason, the outcome is positive for the planet as eco resorts and sustainable restaurants become destinations for travelers. The gastronomic tourist seeks out sites which reveal award-winning food that fits their personal philosophy as an ethical traveler. Even the regular tourist goes about ticking off their dietary check list (Balch 2013), simply directed by Instagram feeds, and of course as is often the case, these ‘two travelers’ co-exist in the one person.
Sustainable restaurant system and gastronomy

It appears that more of our eating habits are following a trend in sustainable practice, both in how we shop and how we eat out. We are witnessing large increases in vegetarian and vegan diets, or at least reduced meat consumption for health and environmental reasons. Global awareness associated with issues caused by excessive single-use plastic in our oceans is growing as movements across the globe look to ban or reduce its use. Chemical free, local, natural, food projects are being started by communities and supported by restaurants in small towns and big cities alike.

Regardless of why this is happening, the fact is it needs to happen. Food systems contribute enormously to our climate and the lives of all humans and animals. Encouragingly the word ‘sustainable restaurant’ appears to be more often on the lips of the gastronomic tourist.

Conclusion

Community grass roots organizations, NGOs, social enterprise, and even governments are turning things around, developing local food directories, community gardens, local food cooperatives, and food swaps. Cities and countries are banning single use plastic, more sustainable seafood and palm oil awareness is on the rise, and technology is making it easier for consumers to learn, find, and support a return to old ways. Ironically, our push for convenience came at the detriment of our food system, and it is potentially a return to the old ways that will return us to better health for us and the planet.

References


MARKETS, FESTIVALS AND SHOWS

Sustainable approaches to gastronomic tourism through collaboration

Ann Hindley and Tony Wall

Introduction

Gastronomy in the context of tourism has been found to deliver positive differentiation of destinations, which combine the dimensions of place, identity, and cuisine, and has been linked to impacts including footfall and economic stimulus in urban and rural areas. Indeed, it has developed into a growing sector in itself. However, the United Nations World Tourism Organization recently found that more work needed to be done to work towards sustainability in the context of gastronomic tourism, specifically in developing a greater understanding and implementation of responsible production and consumption across gastronomic tourism value chains. Such an ambition, which is acknowledged as being practically difficult to achieve in practice, is underpinned by a greater collaborative effort between and amongst the organizations and stakeholders in the value chain. This chapter discusses the role of markets, shows, and festivals in delivering sustainable gastronomic tourism, and draws on examples from the UK to exemplify how collaborative approaches are adopted in practice to realize sustainability outcomes.

Definitions and themes

Gastronomic tourism, culinary tourism and food tourism

There are many overlapping categories and terms for food and drink tourism (Everett 2016), which include gastronomic tourism, culinary tourism, and food tourism (Smith and Costello 2009). The overlaps and the interrelationships between these lead to a variety of definitions that often share meanings and similarities; for example, gastronomy, culinary, and food tourism all identify travel to a destination for food as an important factor (Smith and Costello 2009). This can apply to local, regional, or national levels (Gillespie and Cousins 2001), and can include culinary activities such as food festivals, farmers’ markets, and restaurant dining (Smith and Costello 2009), and visits to primary or secondary food producers, restaurants, and food festivals (Hall and Gössling 2016).
Gastronomic tourism, although difficult to define, has been described as the art and science of good eating (Gillespie and Cousins 2001), which encompasses the culinary elements of food and preparation, as well as wine and other beverages (Kivela and Crotts 2006). A symbiotic relationship exists between gastronomy and the destinations that provide cultural context, recipes, food, and chefs, making it a well-suited product for tourist consumption (Kivela and Crotts 2006). Three archetypal tourists include: (1) the ‘experimental’ gastronomy tourist keeps up-to-date with recipes and ingredients for food and beverages that are in trend or fashionable, and which potentially symbolizes their lifestyle, (2) the ‘existential’ gastronomy tourist seeks to learn about the local food and beverages by eating where the locals do, and (3) the ‘recreational’ gastronomy tourist seeks the familiar (Kivela and Crotts 2006).

Food tourism also embraces lifestyle factors and allows tourists to relax, escape, and be educated in how to cook (Frochot 2003), whilst also tasting and experiencing specialist food production attributes (Hall and Gössling 2016). ‘Foodies’ seek the authentic and unique (Morgan, Watson, and Hemmington 2008), and as described by Britain’s tourism board (Visit Britain 2015), this includes:

- Michelin starred restaurants,
- high quality cookery schools,
- food trails and farmers’ markets,
- food festivals,
- gastropubs,
- Slow Food UK and—yes—fish and chips all contribute to Britain’s growing reputation as a destination for foodies.

However, if the primary motivating factor of the foodie is to travel for tasting and experiencing regional specialties (Hall and Gössling 2016), they could be considered a culinary tourist. Culinary tourism is any experience of food other than one’s own and where unique experiences are constructed through the preparation and presentation of food (Long 2004). Here, memorable culinary experiences are achieved by (1) exploring and enjoying food; (2) by purchasing or consuming local foods; and (3) by observing or researching food production in agriculture or cookery schools (Ignatov and Smith 2006).

**Farmers’ markets, food festivals, and county shows**

Markets, festivals, and shows are now typical across the UK. For example, in Cheshire, England, annual events including the Foodies Festival Tatton Park (circa 33,000 visitors in 2016), The Royal Cheshire County Show (circa 80,000 visitors in 2017), The Nantwich Food Festival (circa 40,000 visitors in 2017), and the monthly Rode Hall Farmers’ Market (circa 8,500 visitors in 2017). Farmers’ markets are seen as a ‘grassroots’ event that can highlight the features and creativity of a place (Hede and Stokes 2009:659). However, confusion and vagueness exists in defining a farmers’ market, particularly as some so-called farmers’ markets may not be one (Pyle 1971).

For example, under the heading of ‘Farmers Markets in Cheshire’ are the ‘makers’ markets’ (Visit Cheshire n.d.). These operate independently, jointly with or in place of farmers’ markets, and consist of “unique creative, creators, makers, designers, producers, bakers, musicians and artists” (Makers Market n.d.). The National Farmers Retail and Markets Association (FARMA) indicate there should be real life farmers trading at a farmers’ market and, if not a farm product, the producer (such as baker or curer) should be there (FARMA n.d.). FARMA also believes that the produce should be local, but does accept that sometimes it may be from further afield if products cannot be sourced locally. A farmers’ market can be considered a small-scale food festival (Silkes 2012), which is food-based or with a food-themed activities program (Lee and Arcodia 2011).
The close links between food and daily life allow food festivals to have an entertaining feature, which appeal to visitors of all ages (Wan and Chan 2013). Regional food festivals can be used as a place marketing tool and have a role in economic and regional tourism development (Lee and Arcodia 2011). As major tourist attractions, they communicate traditions and culture, while providing opportunities to socialize, engage, and taste unfamiliar food (Wan and Chan 2013). They allow large and small towns to express their unique character and identity, while adding value to the existing product (Lee and Arcodia 2011). For example, The Nantwich Food Festival is one of few UK food festivals based within a town (www.nantwichfoodfestival.co.uk). A further extension to the food festival is the foodies’ festival, which appeal to ‘foodies’ who consider food an art and something to be salivated over (Getz, Robinson, Andersson, and Vujici 2014). The ‘Foodies Festival’ at Tatton Park, in Cheshire, offers a Chef’s Theatre, Drink’s Theatre, Tasting Theatre, BBQ Arena, live entertainment stage, and a Children’s Cookery Theatre (Foodies Festival n.d.).

According to the Association of Show and Agricultural Organizations (ASAO) over 6 million visitors attend agricultural and county shows each year in the U.K. (ASAO n.d.). The ASAO aims to promote agriculture, horticulture, and the countryside, while encouraging education and the sharing of best practice. For over 100 years, the mission statement of The Royal Cheshire County Show has been “To promote agriculture and encourage the industrious and moral habits of the labouring portion of the community” (The Royal Cheshire County Show n.d.). As an agricultural summertime event, the show celebrates rural life through the display of livestock, modern farming equipment, competitions, and food and drink. In 2017, celebrity chefs made special guest appearances in the live theatre.

**Experiential themes**

The experiential dimensions, as outlined above, are particularly important in the context of markets, festivals and shows. Although developed in the context of US farmers’ markets, McGrath, Sherry, and Heisley (1993:308) identified four themes which are important in the broader context of markets, festivals and shows: ambience, authenticity, activism and artificiality. **Ambience** is being swept up in the experience and pleasure of retail theatre, and is common in all of the events outlined above, through the use of color, displays, demonstrations, tastings, aromas, and music (live or recorded). Closely linked to this is **authenticity**, which is about recreating a more wholesome era, and is reflected in the historic farming roots of The Royal Cheshire County Show, and the Vintage Tea Tent at the Foodies Festival Tatton Park. At the same time, **artificiality** is about a sanitized rural environment in an urban setting, illustrated in the Rode Hall Farmers’ Market and The Royal Cheshire County Show. However, **activism**, which has become increasingly prominent in the context of markets, festivals, and shows, is a desire for the healthy, pure, or natural counter-response to supermarkets. This includes an increasing prominence of local producers and gluten-free or vegan food choices, and is illustrated through the Rode Hall Farmers’ Market which sells fresh and locally produced fruit, vegetables, meat, and cheese.

**Trends towards sustainable consumption and production**

**Responsible value chains and collaboration**

An increasing interest in ethical and sustainable foods (Hindley and Font 2017) finds consumers variously seeking those which are “spray-free, organic, non-genetically modified,
ecological with low food miles, ethically produced and/or fair trade, and traceable” (Hall 2013:99). In addition, since the start of the millennium, there has been an increasing interest in the provenance of food (Hall and Sharples 2008), with transparency, traceability, and tagging increasingly important in mapping particular food histories (Albala 2015). National food scares including mad cow disease (BSE), salmonella, avian flu, swine flu, and the horsemeat scandal, have been an important part of accelerating the interest in the food supply chain (Food Standards Agency n.d.). Food supply chains often stretch across multiple businesses and borders (Gössling and Hall 2013:11) and traceability approaches such as farm-to-fork, farm-to-plate, and farm-to-table span the food chain from primary producer to consumer (Aung and Chang 2014).

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO 2017a) considers a shared commitment of the gastronomic tourism value chain to sustainable foods and links with local producers, and involves public organizations, private organizations, producers, businesses, professional bodies, and travel institutions. In terms of quality assured produce, local communities and tourists may perceive a local business as more trustworthy and knowledgeable. For example, farmers’ markets such as the Rode Hall Farmers’ Market, provide a viable route for smaller local businesses to sell their locally grown, reared, brewed, baked, pickled, smoked, caught, and processed produce (www.rodehallfarmersmarket.co.uk). Not only does the Rode Hall Farmers’ Market reduce the food miles travelled (as produce comes from the counties of Cheshire, Derbyshire, Staffordshire and Lancashire), they are also keen to promote product traceability (see Figure 32.1).

However, although animal welfare is important to consumers (such as free-range meats and poultry), there remains an attitude-behavior gap (Pettersson, Weeks, Wilson, and Nicol 2016; Hindley and Wall 2018). Specifically, consumers consider animal welfare, environmental friendliness, and fair trade as secondary concerns to quality, health, and the safety of food (Vanhonacker, Van Poucke, Tuyttens, and Verbeke 2010; Wall, Clough, Österlind, and Hindley 2019).

**Healthy consumption**

One dimension that has emerged in relation to healthy consumption is the management and control of allergens and intolerances. There are 14 allergens outlined in the EU Food
Information for Consumers Regulation No. 1169/2011, which require food businesses (such as restaurants and bakeries selling unpackaged food) to provide allergy information (Food Standards Agency n.d.). However, a second trend that has emerged is the ‘health halo’ effect which appears to be separate from allergy or intolerance avoidance (Mintel 2016). In the UK, the ‘free-from’ market is an example of such a trend and includes gluten-free, wheat-free, lactose-free, nut-free, soya-free, and dairy-free products.

Innovation in food manufacturing has made ‘free-from’ product options more accessible and the market is expected to reach £673-million in 2020 (Mintel 2016). This health-halo is extending into markets, festivals, and shows. For example, stallholders at the Rode Hall Farmers’ Market actively promote the ‘free-from’ aspects of their products, ranging from gluten-free beer to dairy-free, gluten-free and soya-free banana-based ice cream. Other products typically include refined-sugar-free, a counter-response to inter/national trends in obesity and diabetes.

Collaborating with celebrity chef-activists

In line with a movement towards activism (McGrath, Sherry, and Heisley 1993), and with such a high profile, celebrity chefs are emerging as campaigners to change opinions or habits in relation to ethical and health issues. For example, Jamie Oliver campaigns on childhood obesity (www.jamiesfoodrevolution.org) and Hugh Fearnley-Whittingstall campaigns to end fish discards (www.fishfight.net). However, celebrity chefs are also using the media of TV and film to help extend the tourist season and can be effective in increasing visitor numbers to destinations (Busby, Huang, and Jarman 2013). This, however, reflects a wider movement amongst many of Britain’s chefs who now actively champion small-scale producers and their sustainably produced, local, quality food (UNWTO 2012). As such, these chefs, together with small-scale producers, are constructing the identity and added-value of destinations (UNWTO 2017b).

A more contemporary trend relates to markets, shows and festivals parenting with ‘proto-celebrities’ (Deller 2016), from reality TV cooking programs such as such as The Great British Bake Off (GBBO) and Masterchef, to promote responsibility and sustainability. Three examples include (1) The Royal Cheshire County Show 2017 had special appearances by Michelin starred celebrity chef Jean-Christophe Novelli and GBBO finalist Luis Troyano, (2) The Nantwich Food Festival 2017 had appearances from celebrity chef Nigel Brown and GBBO winner 2016, Candice Brown, and (3) The three-day Foodies Festival Tatton Park commanded a more extensive list of celebrity and ‘proto-celebrity’ chefs (see Figure 32.2).

Local collaboration

Reflecting wider trends towards responsible consumption, healthy consumption, and collaborations with celebrity-chef-activists, approaches to sustainable approaches to gastronomic tourism take a collaborative approach. In the case study below, it can be seen that markets, festivals, and shows were a counter-response to wider problematic economic conditions and, specifically, the sustainability of local communities. Importantly, such events were initiated and maintained by a wide range of local stakeholders, beyond the immediate gastronomy value chain. As such, the collaborative approach to gastronomic tourism was oriented around the local destination in order to achieve a multitude of consumers’ considerations including quality, health, and the safety of food in addition to animal welfare, environmental friendliness, and fair trade (Vanhonacker, Van Poucke, Tuyttens, and Verbeke 2010).
Case study 32.1: The Nantwich Food Festival


The medieval market town of Nantwich is located in East Cheshire. Nantwich town has a population of approximately 14,000 residents. It is a popular destination for short breaks and canal holidays. Historically, a major activity was salt production, often used in the preservation of food and in products such as Cheshire Cheese, which was made on the farms around Nantwich.

Regular markets have taken place in Nantwich since 1720, including a weekly cheese market and a monthly farmers’ market. The farmers’ market attracts farmers, growers, and producers from across Cheshire, and was born out of the economic necessity to deal with low commodity prices in farming.

The Nantwich Food Festival grew out of the efforts to support local farmers and the town community in the wake of the 2001 foot-and-mouth disease outbreak. Set within the town-center, the annual Nantwich Food Festival is a three-day September event. It draws around 40,000 visitors and provides an estimated £2m boost to the local economy.

During the first three years of operation, the initiative was supported by the local council, after which a volunteer committee was set up. Local volunteers run the not-for-profit organization and a collaborative effort is undertaken between the organization and stakeholders in the value chain.

The volunteers undertake roles such as working with local shopkeepers, managing the chef demonstration marquee, supporting the traders, and meeting the general public. Local organizations supporting the festival include hospitality providers, radio stations, and consultants, and Mornflake, Britain’s fourth oldest family-owned company which has been milling in Cheshire since 1675.
Catering for both ‘foodie’ and family, the festival celebrates local produce and introduces international cuisine. There are street food-stalls and marquees with food and drink artisans from across Cheshire, the wider U.K., and the world.

Local food ‘heroes’ are commended in the Nantwich Food Awards, with the public voting for excellence in customer service and the best of the following: restaurant; pub with food; café or coffee shop; beer champion; newcomer; local producer.

The 2017 AGA/Bentley Food Theatre hosted cookery demonstrations from celebrity chef James Sherwin and TV presenter Katie Ashworth – noted for the flagship TV series ‘I Can Cook’, aimed at encouraging children under six years to cook and learn where their food comes from. An added attraction was created by former reality TV cooking contestants Candice Brown (BBC’s Great British Bake Off winner 2016) and Penny Zako (winner of ITV’s Britain’s best dish 2011).

**Conclusion**

Although markets, shows, and festivals may grow from wider economic events or problematic conditions, they have metamorphosed into places where gastronomy is central to the product proposition and where responsible value chains, healthy consumption, and collaboration are an integral part of the destination. The collaborative efforts which bring markets, shows and festivals to a wider range of tourists promote viable routes for producers to sell their products to local communities and raise awareness of the broader social and environmental dimensions of sustainability amongst local stakeholders. As a multi-stakeholder phenomenon, gastronomy tourism through markets, shows, and festivals are able to contribute economically and environmentally as well as socially to enrich a number of experiential elements, including ambience and authenticity. Importantly, they also have an activist role to further challenge the wider national systems of consumption which have a role in unhealthy and unsustainable futures. Gastronomy at markets, shows and festivals is well-placed to develop consumer demand from ‘foodies’, the ethically committed, the health conscious, and those with food intolerances.

**References**


Markets, festivals and shows


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PART IV

Gastronomic tourism in the digital arena
33

TOURISTS’ LIFESTYLE AND FOODSERVICE TENDENCIES IN SOCIAL MEDIA

Sandra Maria Correia Loureiro and Eduardo Moraes Sarmento

Introduction

All over the world, international tourism flows and receipts have been consolidating their growing tendencies, as well as becoming a major category of international trade in services and therefore providing a high relevance in stimulating economic growth (UNWTO 2016). The World Food Travel Association (2014) estimates that 25% of global tourist spending is on food and drink. This study seeks to understand the influence of lifestyle changes and the effect that Web 2.0 had on gastronomic tourism.

This chapter is structured as follows: Section 2 reviews the recent literature on gastronomy tourism. Section 3 provides an overview of the most important characteristic features of the fieldwork methodology. Section 4 describes the most salient results while section 5 list draw the main conclusions.

Theoretical background

Culinary tourism: influence on the travel experience and types of tourists

Although the literature proposes a link between tourism and gastronomy, there is still a need to deepen the understanding of the perspective and opinion of tourists as end users of activities related to culinary tourism (Okumus et al. 2013). Mak, Lumbergs, and Eves (2012) propose two different approaches towards tourists’ relationship with food: (i) food is an attraction; (ii) food may be an impediment since many tourists may require some familiarity with the cuisine when visiting different countries.

Regardless of this, the relationship between gastronomy and the way tourists experience the trip, a key element is the tourists’ perception of the authenticity of the local food (Mason and Paggiaro 2012). This will provide them greater knowledge, more loyalty, better emotional connection, more involvement, as well as brand differentiation. Sparks (2007) argue that typical local food introduces tourists to new flavors and brings them in closer contact with local traditions, thus benefiting not only the local economy, but also providing better wages and social justice to some parts of the population (Schneider 2008).

In terms of tourist profile towards their approach to food, Cohen and Avieli (2004) distinguish different profiles: (i) ‘Recreational tourists’, who seek to relax and enjoy themselves,
do not care about authenticity and will look for familiar foods; (ii) ‘Experiential tourists’ who
seek to experience the authentic life of local residents and will look for local dishes and food
habits. Thus, we can claim that food and drinks may not be the primary motivation or purpose
to start a trip, but it will make the tourist value the destination image and give benefits to the
travel experience (Okumus et al. 2013). Indeed, consumers’ patterns have been changing and
they have progressively become more involved in their consumption experiences, as well as
consumption patterns. Under this context, the messages and symbolic meanings connected to
products and the relationships established through them have become vital to attract consum-
ers (Loureiro, Pires, and Cayola 2014).

Trends in culinary tourism

From our investigation, we can list some of the most important issues from 2015 to 2017. In
2015: (i) increase in importance of food design for social media since Instagram and Twitter
are revolutionizing word-of-mouth and proving to be a make-or-break platform. Hence, res-

taurants changed the dish presentations to satisfy the Instagram-hungry generation (Shaw
2015); (ii) the increasing concerns about health and obesity have diminished the portions
and plate sizes. Dining rooms have also become smaller and more efficient to reduce energy
usage and overhead costs, encourage intimacy and reduce staff that in some cases have been
replaced by new technology (Sonnenshein 2015); (iii) remodeling of the traditional foodser-
vice market by offering alternative forms of foodservice; (iv) growing importance of bever-
ages as a way to capture new clients and more revenues; (v) the increase of peasant dishes,
ethnic street foods, and foods from the former Soviet Union’s Asian satellite countries (Taylor
2014a, b); (vi) due to looking for healthier menus, nutritional labeling and food-transparency,
restaurants are customizing meals for diabetics, vegetarians, and people on gluten-free, dairy-
free, and other special diets; (vii) the importance of local food has increased and many chain
restaurants struggle to convince their clients that their products are sustainable and environ-
mentally friendly (Taylor 2014c); (viii) restaurants have become more socially responsible
and care more about the origin of their food, how it is grown, how employees are treated by
suppliers, and animal rights (Taylor 2014d); (ix) restaurants have been focusing in grabbing
the attention of Millennials (Taylor 2014e) through social media. However, they have to start
appealing to Generation Z (those born between 1995 and 2012) (Taylor 2014a); (x) although
snacking is rising among all ages and genders, snacking among consumers over the age of 65
contributes to additional years with a higher quality of life (Zizza 2014); (xi) online grocery
shopping and delivery is becoming more and more used by consumers (ConAgra Foods 2015);
(xii) the demand for smoked food has risen as chefs keep applying smoking and grilling to add
some sizzle and impart new flavor to other proteins and alternatives like vegetables, butters,
and even beverages (ConAgra Foods 2015); (xiii) the rise in popularity of fermented foods
(ConAgra Foods 2015); (xiv) Generation Z’s attitude towards food, since they have a great
passion for food (ConAgra Foods 2015); (xv) in-house usage of craft foods (ConAgra Foods
2015); (xvi) consumers are more and more worried about their health and they demand more
information about their food, and several apps were created, such as Fooducate, ScanAvert
and ShopWell (Meijers 2013). They all help demystify food labels and enable people to make
better and healthier food choices; (xvi) supermarkets are positioning themselves as direct com-
petitors with chain and local restaurants by offering cooking classes and special events inside
their installations (ConAgra Foods 2015).

In 2016 and 2017, the most important tendencies were: (i) the smartphone revolution that
may endanger restaurants because they may lose marketing control of their own businesses
(Whiteman 2016); (ii) ‘healthification’ of fast and fast-casual food (Tristano 2015); (iii) in the last five years, pasta sales have decreased 8% in Australia, 13% in Europe (with Italy having a 25% drop), and 6% in America (Whiteman 2016) since this ingredient has been substituted by quinoa, chickpeas, and lentils, among others; (iv) vegetables as the main ingredient; (v) the anti-tipping movement, since it is believed that the growth of the restaurant industry for the past five decades has been sustained by the artificially low prices made possible through underpaid labor (Whiteman 2016); (vi) the poke trend (a Hawaiian mainstay - bowl of chopped or cubed raw fish, mainly ahi tuna, over seaweed-seasoned rice). Restaurants specializing in this dish are growing strong and adapting the recipe to other kinds of fish, like scallops, salmon, and octopus (Whiteman 2016); (vii) modernization of traditional cuisine; (viii) the rise of acai bowls (smoothie made with frozen pulp from this Brazilian fruit, milk, various other fruits, ice, and toppings, like chocolate, chia seeds, granola, or peanut butter); (ix) fried chicken’s sandwiches are coming back; (x) aromatic heat; (xi) retailers have been luring shoppers into their stores with snacks and meals. The idea is that the longer a customer is inside the premises, the more he will buy per hour of stay; (xii) the impact of snacks. The fast-paced world of today is taking a toll in the alimentary habits of consumers. People used to have three meals per day, but they are now switching them for snacks, completely obliterating meals. This trend that could seem to be only for millennials is actually affecting everyone. In the US, snacking increased 47% from 2010 to 2014 (Whiteman 2016).

Methodology

Developed in 1995, due to the innovations in online social interactions, the novelty about netnography approach lies in the realization that the online space is a social and cultural world, and that scientists would only gain from understanding online interactions using a cultural frame of reference (Kozinets 2012). Thus, a netnographic analysis requires to follow five steps. (i) research planning: it was planned to analyze public forums that delve into the subjects studied. Therefore, restaurant opinion websites, public blogs, and app websites were taken into consideration to understand the consumers’ needs and wants; (ii) the observational approach. Websites specializing in restaurant opinions (i.e., Zomato and Yelp), public blogs, and app websites (i.e., Google Play and iTunes) were screened, to find consumers’ opinions on the found foodservice trends. No participation with the online members was taken – in order to not disrupt them – since a direct participation could change the natural flow of conversation; (iii) data collection and interpretation: a netnographic table was created to hold the most relevant opinions found and then, analyzing the consumers’ perspective, those opinions were interpreted and related to the foodservice trends of the years 2015 and 2016 and to the consumption motivations that members had when partaking in their activities; (iv) ensuring ethical standards: there was a serious concern about not disrespecting the privacy of online members. All information used is public and referenced; (v) research representation: netnography results were compared to the foodservice trends in the data analysis section.

Data analysis

Foodservice trends and netnographic analysis

Most of the sample showed had a huge concern with health in several ways, confirming the tendencies related to this. Dietary concerns have made restaurants change their policy of a full
plate, incentivizing smaller and healthier quantities of food. Consumers have been jumping on this trend, finding it incredibly positive.

The cafe is a serious healthy hipster’s dream with loads of yoghurt based sweet and savory dishes on the menu even though prices are astronomical.

(Zomato 2016c)

This trend may affect restaurant spaces since the tendency is to replace big places by smaller spaces as a way of controlling costs.

It’s a little small and seating is limited. It does get crowded and busy during peak hours so watch out for that. I’ve even heard that the line goes out the door sometimes. [ … ]” (Yelp 2016b) “[ … ] Apparently, it’s recommended you make a reservation, but we walked in anyway and moved when the couple arrived.

(Zomato 2016a)

Recent consumers would rather appreciate restaurant and food markets with custom dining options for health. As it was mentioned earlier, entrepreneurs claim that the best way to make restaurants work for customers is to display pick-and-choose options, in order to stay current as nutrition buzzwords come and go (Taylor 2014a).

Great Whole Foods locale and the choices for eating in store are rather enormous ... a good thing. Reminds me of a place in another country. The Asian counter with sit down area and noodle bowls along with other items is very inviting.

Pierre Le Beach (Zomato 2016b)

Other important issues are related to specific diets, due to health issues. One anonymous online member refers this in its Zomato review about a yoghurt cafe.

Good concept with a yogurt menu of sweet (imagine toasted coconut and pineapple) and savory concoctions like mango and avocado. As it opens early in the morning, one can have breakfast foods laced with labne and go on to soups and healthy salads for lunch and assorted yogurt products.

(Zomato 2016c)

This health worries affect not only the older generations, but also Generation Z. This generation has been confronted with more flavors at a younger age than any other before them (ConAgra Foods 2015). They have a simple position in life.

Sure, it can have a lot of calories. Or it could have 300 like the bowl I had today. It’s mostly all fruit. I’d rather have calories and sugar from fruit than from a doughnut.

Jade Keys, on Acai Bowls (Thomson 2014)

As a consequence of the ‘healthification movement’, restaurants have been adapting their menus. On the other side, this new lifestyle brought a great number of new trends, like Acai Bowls or the rise of Poke, which can be seen to be incredibly appreciated by consumers in the Netnographic Table.
This stuff is great. I eat for snacks; keeps me away from carbs. Has a nice, smoky BBQ flavor without being syrupy or overbearing. You don’t get a lot for what you pay.

David P. Gonzalez (Amazon.com 2016b)

This quest for health also affected social media and technology. Apps with healthy food are becoming popular in several homes and in restaurants.

For a busy working family this program reduces eating out and eating better. […] As a busy mom of three kids (9,10,13) … the benefit of Blue Apron is that we know we have go-to meals that are ready in about 30 minutes.

(App Store 2016)

In terms of flavors, we found out that consumers are looking at different traditional cuisines that were modernised to include Asian ingredients or spices from common dishes as happened in a French cuisine restaurant, with Japanese influences.

Recommendations: uni consomme gelee, lobster linguine, foie gras croquettes, kamo-duck, anago rice. Cocktails are delish too. Bottomline: this place is Momma Moto (my mother) approved. A true rarity.

(Yelp 2016a)

Consumers are always looking for new flavors and are willing to try new things, like smoked foods and craft foods, both at the restaurant or at their own homes as well.

When I bought these, I really didn’t expect I would be able to tell any difference from regular Hunt’s diced tomatoes. […] I am familiar with delicious, fresh, firm bread. The only thing can make it better is extra hot chicken drippings on that bread, and a cold beer to wash the heat down, talk about good eats.

TravelerLloyd (Zomato 2016c)

In terms of social media, we found out that restaurants and retailers have adapted to the new technological platforms in various ways. They try to be faster in service providing as well as the app using. We found out that there was been a growth of online grocery shopping with same-day delivery. For example, Blue Apron is an app that shares recipes and delivers the right amount of ingredients to accomplish recipes, in accordance to customers’ needs.

I work 12-hour nights as a nurse and not having to go grocery shopping right after my shift is great. Plus, there’s no way I could pick up 3 full meals from the grocery store for only $60 […] [ … ] The food and service are not lacking in any way, but the app is a little too simple [ … ].” Sparkle_lite on Blue Apron (App Store, 2016) “[ … ]. You pick your preferences. Easy to use. I would give app a try and if you don’t like it there is always uninstall.

(Play.google.com 2016)

Restaurants have been improving their food design in order to satisfy the needs of social media platforms, like Instagram or blogs, since their impact on businesses may be dramatic and it is
often difficult to control. Consumers are used to publishing their meal photos, and restaurants must be prepared to anticipate possible problems and face bad filtering.

During my visit, which I’ve covered in more detail on my blog, I had sunchoke cha-wanmushi that was just amazing.

\textit{VeggieBuzz (Zomato 2015)}

Taking into account the market transformations, the foodservice market has adopted a more \textit{social responsibility and accountability} in their daily procedures. One of the main measures that is being taken by several restaurants is related to the abolition of the traditional \textit{tipping policy}. As a consequence, they have chosen to increase their prices so that they can fulfil their fiscal obligations and contractual terms with staff wages for example.

\begin{quote}
This restaurant had a no tipping policy, but they do add 20% for an administrative fee.
\textit{TheDude1974 (Zomato 2016a)}
\end{quote}

Finally, as expected, the traditional foodservice market has been changing. For example, \textit{retailers have been stepping into the foodservice market} with great success, since they try to answer the needs of a new generation that is constantly moving and experiencing new novelties about what they eat.

\begin{quote}
This is an unexpected surprise! I got this for the health benefits, but I didn’t really expect it to taste good! I learned that: Turmeric is a spice that comes from the turmeric plant. It is commonly used in Asian food.
\textit{MVO, (Amazon.com 2016a)}
\end{quote}

\textbf{Consumption, consumerism, and anti-consumption and netnographic analysis}

If we take the previous section as a reference, we can conclude that health and environmental sustainability were major motivations for the consumers. From the 32 opinions collected, 8 fell into the category of \textit{green consumers} and \textit{ethical motivations}. As it was previously explained, they refuse to acquire products that are environmentally undesirable.

\begin{quote}
We value organic products, so this was a great choice–buying in bulk is the way to go to get organic, healthy options at a reduced cost and with reduced environmental packaging waste!
\textit{M. Harris (Amazon.com 2016a)}
\end{quote}

Complementary to this motivation, 8 out of 32 consumers choose their consumptions habits in accordance to their \textit{personal motivations}. They have taken their buying option based on instant personal benefit they may achieve through alternative consumption experiences.

\begin{quote}
Sure it can have a lot of calories. Or it could have 300 like the bowl I had today. It’s mostly all fruit. I’d rather have calories and sugar from fruit than from a doughnut.
\textit{Jade Keys, on Acai Bowls (Thomson 2014)}
\end{quote}

We also claim that \textit{alternative consumption} was an important motivation to study. Easily related in this day and age, due to the rise of the ‘hipster’ movement, were the \textit{identificatory
**motivations** (they occur when consumers adapt their behaviors so that they can match to their beliefs and their peers as happens with the search for vegan food) and the *hip consumerism* (understood as the consumers who choose to go against typical trends and consumption motivations, and also seek the new and best tendencies).

It seems like a hot new vegetarian/vegan restaurant is opening every couple weeks in New York. But *Dirt Candy* is the original gangster of the gourmet greens movement and still the one to beat.

*(The Dishelin Guide 2016)*

Finally, *consumerism* is understood as a set of beliefs and values that secure happiness through consumption, possessions, and materialism (Loureiro, Pires, and Cayola 2014) was also a relevant motivation.

Great Whole Foods locale and the choices for eating in store are rather enormous … a good thing. […] Went twice in two days and will stop in again soon for a quick, delish meal.

*Pierre Le Beach (Zomato 2016b)*

**Research conclusions**

This study analyses the change of lifestyle in the last years and its influence on tourism food trends. Who creates the tendencies? Why and how are restaurants and food distributors adapting to the new needs of the market? Thus, four main facets are found based on literature and the netnographic analysis. The diagram of Figure 33.1 shows an overview of the main gastronomic tourism trends:

- **Health food.** The fight against obesity, the new diet plans, based on allergies and intolerance to certain foods, the combat against food with unnatural components, and the will to have healthier lifestyles were the main concerns of consumers. This gave strength to the vegan movement, with restaurants using vegetables as their main ingredient. Restaurants also began reducing their food portions, in order to combat obesity, providing custom dining options for health, and taking the origin of their ingredients more into account, to respect customers’ concerns.

![Gastronomic tourism: new trends](image)

*Figure 33.1* Gastronomic tourism: new trends.
In sum, this concern is so big that companies even began developing mobile apps that provided nutritional analysis of food and meals.

Asian Influence. The foodservice market has been suffering a strong impact from Asian food. There has been a modernization of traditional cuisine, like the French cuisine, adapting the typical meals and adding Asian ingredients or flavors. There is an on-growing growth of this type of cuisine.

Additionally, consumers have changed their preferences of spices, preferring heat with flavor. Instead of just spicy, they are requesting the usage of aromas and flavors to provide a better experience for the palate. This evidences the impact that Sriracha had in these years. Finally, bitter and smoked flavors are also in vogue. Restaurants and retailers are providing meals and ingredients with the traditional smoked flavor, where it was least expected.

Social Media. Social media has stepped into this market and is now a force to be reckoned with. Restaurants and food retailers had to jump on board this trend and adapt to the obstacles and opportunities it provided. Firstly, there was the need to adapt food design to combat the backlash that restaurants may get from bad photos that are posted in social media platforms, like Instagram and Facebook. Even Martha Stewart was criticized on Twitter, due to bad pictures of her recipes. Secondly, restaurants began adapting their marketing strategies to target younger generations. Louder music, the bigger presence on social media and digital strategies have been seen throughout the industry. One specific example provided by one customer was the providing of the menu after the meal, by e-mail. Thirdly, retailers had to respond to customers’ demands quickly. Actually, consumers have now access to online grocery shopping with same-day delivery. Finally, Generation Z’s attitude towards food is, and will continue, shaping the industry. They demand health and simplicity for their meals, putting aside the microwave-prepared food. The usage of Spiralizers, craft foods, and informational mobile apps with recipe-sharing and nutritional analysis are examples of what the market may analyze.

Organic and sustainable food. This last major trend is due to the social responsibility and environmental sustainability that both consumers and retailers are diving into. A great number of food consumers are decreasing their consumption of meat due to the negative effects it has on the environment and on the animals. Additionally, they are more attentive to organic foods and to brands and companies who are eco-responsible. As a reply to this, restaurants have been using local and fresh foods that are free of GMOs and artificial flavors and colors, increasing their vegan menus, and using smaller spaces of business, in order to use less energy and to pollute less. However, restaurants also take into account their responsibility with society. Thus, measures have been taken to support their peers. One great example is the adoption of no-tipping policies in restaurants and the increase of the minimum wage.

Finally, in what concerns the main consumption motivations for consumers from 2015 to 2017 were: green and ethical, personal, alternative, hip consumerism, identificatory, and consumerism. Consumers have increased their concern with their own health and with the environment. Thus, a lot of their decisions were based on eco-friendly consumption. There was a rise of vegetable usage, the support of environmentally friendly brands, and the adoption of consumption habits that increased their health. Yet a great number of people still had personal motivations. Their consumption habits were based on personal preferences and instant satisfaction. Along with this were the alternative motivations. Consumers would also adapt their habits in preference of certain products against others, like cooking at home instead of going out for dinner.

Another kind of motivation was the hip consumerism, which shows that consumers would go against typical trends almost as defiance against standards. This led to the rise of vegan restaurants. Identificatory motivations of consumers who wanted to go in accordance with their
own beliefs and those of their peers were strong. Finally, consumers who would just look for happiness through consumption were not out of place. There are still a number of people who just want to buy food and go to restaurants because it makes them feel satisfied and pleased.

Managerial implications

Destination managers should be aware of these tendencies to promote the changes. They may organize meetings with local restaurants, hotels, and other places where food is sold to discuss the trends and propose new approaches. Tourists want to have new food experiences, local food, and traditions, but, at the same time, they need to know what is healthy or less healthy. The new chief plates should be able to select organic products, new textures, and flavors. The symbiosis between east and west is also welcome for new plates. Yet, it is not possible forget that tourists also search for nostalgic moments, rural environments, and rustic places that seems to be down-to-earth, original, authentic, and with lot of tradition.

The organization of gastronomic tours with different characteristics (some more sophisticated and others more rustic) are recommended. These tours should be organized among the food providers and promoted on social media in a comprehensive and coherent online message. Other tools of communication (e.g., flyers, outdoors, TV) could also be use but the core essence of the message should be the same.

Finally, destination managers may create prizes to encourage the development of this kind of tourism. These prizes may be categorized depending on the gastronomic offer of the destination. Therefore, prizes for traditional food and others from new wave food could be implemented.

Further research

Although the current study has been developed with caution, any research has limitations that could be avenues for future research. Thus, we recommend the use of other approaches to complement the information from literature review and netnography. We may conduct focus groups with experts in nutrition and healthcare. Other focus groups with local food providers and cuisine chiefs.

We may also deep explore the content in social media using text minding to analyze the reviews. Finally, the interviews with tourists may also contribute and go deeper in understand their motivations and interests.

References


Introduction

Numerous business reports and experts agree that changes in tourist consumer behavior and travel technology are the global trends considerably effecting tourism business environment (see, for instance, Euromonitor International 2014; World Travel Market 2016). Travel technology and digitization is about to transform the tourism experience to make it richer and more enjoyable based on tourists’ personal preferences. Additionally, the advent of well-informed and experienced tourists having their aspirations and requirements is of crucial importance (Morrison 2013). Consumers have access to increasing amounts of information in real time, take more control, and seek personal interactions. These trends are very influential to the development of collaborative consumption (CC). The emergence of profit-based online platforms for the Peer-to-Peer (P2P) sharing of goods and services provides new ways for consumers to generate income from their possessions.

Nowadays, technology is enabling alternatives that aim to change the tourism industry. In 2011, sharing economy (SE) was named one of TIME Magazine’s 10 ideas that will change the world (TIME 2011). Nowadays, six years later, the digital platforms that have emerged in the tourism marketplace and businesses based on CC continue to grow at a phenomenal rate. The main benefits of CC/SE include (BSR 2016): (i) providing people with access to goods and services who cannot afford to buy them or have no interest in long-term usage, and (ii) increased independence, flexibility, and self-reliance.

The CC is mainly revolutionizing two tourism-related industries: accommodation and in-destination activities (dining, entertainment, and organized excursions and tours). The present chapter takes a provider/supply perspective to present and analyze the topic of collaborative gastronomy on digital platforms. Its specific objectives are: (i) to provide a definition of SE/CC and briefly present the factors positively influencing its growth; and (ii) to discuss the business models for tourism services in the context of digital platforms. It presents and discusses the example of VizEat, the global online marketplace, which is the leader in the field of collaborative gastronomy. The chapter then moves to present a case study on P2P platform providing collaborative culinary experiences and carries out a comparative analysis of the two platforms.
Collaborative consumption/sharing economy

Defining collaborative consumption

The CC or SE are phenomena born of the Internet age (Botsman 2014). Internet services based on user-generated content such as Social Networks Sites (SNSs) encourage individuals to share in various ways. CC is also known as P2P and ‘Access economy’ (Harvard Business School Club of New York 2011). We believe that the term CC is more appropriate and is adopted for the purposes of this chapter.

Airbnb stands as the most recognized CC company in the accommodation industry, but there are many others. ‘Local tour guides’ and ‘Local hosts’ offer a platform that allows tourists to search for experiences in their destination while enabling local residents to earn money as tour guides in their hometown. EatWithaLocal, Meal Sharing, and Surfing Dinner help individuals to organize culinary experiences in which people pay to dine in private homes.

The term ‘sharing economy’ has been added to the Oxford Dictionaries in 2015. The Oxford Dictionary defines the SE as “an economic system in which assets or services are shared between private individuals, either for free or for a fee, typically by means of the Internet” (cited in Heo 2016). CC is defined as “an economic model based on sharing, swapping, trading, or renting products and services in a way that enables access over ownership. This can include business-to-consumer, business-to-business, and/or peer-to-peer transactions” (Botsman 2015 cited in BSR 2016:3). In what is called the CC, individuals participate in sharing activities by renting, lending, trading, bartering, or swapping goods or services.

The above-mentioned definitions are very general and describe the general context of economic activities in the marketplace. A more operational and functional definition of these forms of exchange is suggested by Benoit et al. (2017). CC is a triadic exchange (between a platform provider, a peer service provider, and a customer); there is no ownership transfer, shorter periods of agreed consumption time of underutilized assets from the peer service provider, in sequential use (this is the nature of exchange); and the exchange is mediated through market mechanisms.

A key differentiator from traditional forms of exchange is that due to the number and type of actors involved; CC can be characterized as triadic rather than dyadic. Specifically, there are three actors involved: (i) a platform provider enables exchange (e.g., VizEat); (ii) a customer seeks access to assets (e.g. tourist visiting a destination); and (iii) a peer service provider grants this access (host, owner of the place, and providing gastronomic or other tourist services).

In other words, two different service providers serve customers in CC: the platform provider and a peer service provider. Therefore, CC can be defined as “an activity whereby a platform provider links a consumer that aims to temporarily utilize assets with a peer service provider who grants access to these assets and with this delivers the core service.” (Benoit et al. 2017: 220).

Main determining factors

The key determining forces behind the rise of online marketplaces include (Botsman 2014; Hamari, Sjöklint, and Ukkonen 2015; Ertz, Durif, and Arcand 2016; Puschmann and Alt 2016):

- Technological advancements and mobile technology: Advances in technology account for the strongest factor of the sharing and trading of private assets, since SNSs and
electronic markets more easily link consumers. A host of enabling technologies – open data, low-cost of mobile phones, and SNSs – render easier and faster the direct transactions for networks of individuals and organizations. Furthermore, mobile devices, such as tablets and smartphones, and electronic services make the use of shared goods and services more convenient and efficient.

- Global economic crisis: This has given rise to a consumers’ desire to utilize existing resources more effectively and a greater interest among consumers towards developing new sources of income.
- Changes in consumer behavior: with two main trends/features:
  - A cultural shift towards sharing; that is a preference for sharing over ownership of many goods and services.
  - The extensive spread and adoption of the Internet and strong demand for online transactions; and consumers comfortable with the efficiency and safety of purchasing goods and services online.

The above are interrelated factors forming a very favorable environment and context for digital platforms and CC.

**Why is CC so relevant to tourism?**

Tourism activity has been, is, and will always be about access to services. The tourism industry is well-suited to embracing the CC with opportunities in all segments of related business. The online markets/digital platforms became real stakeholders who are changing all elements of trip planning: accommodation, travel experiences, travel advising, and meals (Euromonitor International 2014). A common premise is that when information about goods is shared (via an online marketplace), the value of those goods may increase for the business, for individuals, for the community and for society in general (Botsman and Rogers 2011; BSR 2016).

The main challenges that tourism businesses are facing and have to address include the offering of high-quality experiences and competition in the digital arena (ReportLinker Insight 2016). Customer satisfaction is challenging, as businesses need to provide unique experiences to satisfy tourists. The latter demand a wider variety of experience opportunities, so developing and providing unique services, such as cultural heritage, gastronomy, sport, and wellness tourism, is becoming strategic for the industry. Furthermore, new online companies and services are new game players putting pressure on the traditional tourism business. Increasing competition, with new CC companies like HomeAway and VizEat, means that differentiation is key issue.

It is important to understand that CC constitutes a business activity built on trust. It relies on the willing of the users to share, but in order to make some exchange, users have to be trustworthy. CC companies claim they are committed to building and validating trusted relationships between all parties involved, including producers, suppliers, customers, or participants (Matzler and Kathan 2015). The use of SNSs has enabled individuals to grow and maintain a network of trusted contacts. CC platforms have connected users and providers and built trust among strangers. Obviously, cost-savings and convenience are beacons, but what ultimately keeps CC spinning and growing is trust (PWC 2015). Providers and intermediaries can benefit from new business models and new services. They can either position themselves as platforms where consumers share goods and services or provide additional value-added services (Hamari, Sjöklint, and Ukkonen 2015).
Business models of collaborative consumption in online marketplaces

As a model, the CC differs from the ‘traditional economy’ by the four core pillars briefly presented below (PWC 2015: 15).

- **Digital platforms**: CC business models are hosted through digital platforms having the ability to dynamically connect the offered services or goods with end-users.
- **Transactions that offer access over ownership (mitigating the costs associated with ownership)**: Access can come in a number of forms, such as renting, lending, subscribing, reselling, and swapping.
- **More collaborative forms of consumption**: consumers are often more comfortable with transactions that involve deeper social interactions than traditional methods of exchange.
- **Branded experiences that drive emotional connection**: experience design is critical to engendering emotional connections. By providing consumers with ease of use and confidence in decision-making, a company moves beyond a purely transaction-based relationship to become a platform for an experience.

In theory and practice, the term ‘business model’ is used for a broad range of informal and formal descriptions to represent core aspects of a business. A business model describes the rationale of how an organization creates, delivers, and captures value in economic, social, cultural or other contexts (George and Bock 2011). Al-Debei and Avison (2010) define a business model as an abstract representation of an organization. This may be conceptual, textual, and/or graphical, of all core interrelated architectural, co-operational, and financial arrangements designed and developed by an organization presently and in the future, as well as all core products and/or services the organization offers, or will offer, based on the arrangements that are needed to achieve its strategic goals and objectives. This definition indicates that value proposition, value architecture (the organizational infrastructure and technological architecture that allows the movement of products, services, and information), value finance (pricing methods and revenue structure), and value network articulate the primary constructs or dimensions of business models.

In simple terms, business models describe the process by which a company extracts value from its business. If we consider this issue from the business perspective regarding the providers, the transactions, and the interaction types, we may identify three broad models (Puschmann and Alt 2016: 94):

- **Consumer-to-Consumer (C2C) or Peer-to-Peer (P2P)**. This model considers the simultaneous role of service producers and consumers. Single individuals and single organizations often participate in both roles as well as moving between them. This is precisely CC, which focuses on the P2P consumption of services without involving any intermediary (e.g., HomeExchange, Surfing Dinner and Toursbylocals).
- **Business-to-Consumer (B2C)**. Although the CC concentrates on the exchange of goods and services among consumers, the access to these resources is also disintermediated by companies providing value-added services for consumers (Eckhardt and Bardhi 2015). A primary reason for this is lack of trust among individuals, such as owner’s concern about damage of a shared item; therefore, there is a need for an intermediary (e.g., Airbnb and Onefinestay).
- **Business-to-Business (B2B)**. Offering the opportunity for sharing assets between businesses. Sharing resources streamlines companies, enabling them to operate faster, to react
quickly to market changes in a less expensive and more efficient manner. Additionally, companies only have to pay for what they need, which facilitates greater efficiency and drives a higher bottom line. For the B2B model, the currency is not directly contingent upon trust, but the quality and user experience. Quality can mean increased convenience, speed, user experience, or the satisfaction rate of the final deliverable. The B2B model is fundamentally moving business from ownership to access, companies select what they want in their assembly line and pay accordingly. Examples: co-working spaces (e.g., WeWork and Liquid Space), and consulting (e.g., HourlyNerd offering on-demand consulting).

One of the main activities that is often wonderful or disappointing when on a trip or holidays is dining and tasting local cuisine and flavors. People are always talking about their best tourist memories, and usually these memories are all around meeting people and sharing a meal and a drink. Sharing a diner with locals is always a rich experience.

The gastronomic services offer a potential for business activities (for providers) and experience opportunities (for consumers/tourists) in destinations. The next section is dealing with the topic of CC in the specific field of gastronomic experiences by presenting an example.

**Collaborative gastronomy on digital platforms: the example of VizEat**

This section analyzes an example of digital platform providing shared culinary experiences. The choice of VizEat was made based on four criteria, namely (i) the reputation – it is the leading online market in this field; (ii) the approach to and concept of gastronomic experiences; (iii) its vision and business model; and (iv) the availability of online information, because no other related studies have been performed so far.

VizEat is a European start-up that operates a global digital platform for ‘social dining’ to enable tourists to dine in a local’s home (www.vizeat.com). Founded in Paris in July 2014, VizEat has built a platform that connects a global network of hosts who wish to cook for visitors in their homes and prospective diners who want to eat with locals when abroad, or experience meal sharing in their own country. The dining experiences include meals, cooking classes, and food tours with locals. From a host in Crete who has guests help her pick vegetables from an organic garden and make Greek bread in an outdoor oven, to a honey tasting on a terrace in Paris, and a host in Louisiana who makes fried chicken with real bourbon, VizEat is all about authentic cooking.

Jean-Michel Petit, co-founder and CEO of VizEat, is seeing the platform being used not only by tourists who want to sample local life and food, but also local residents in multicultural cities who have begun taking to VizEat’s ‘immersive food experience’ (O’Hear 2016).

The company’s headquarters are in Paris, and it also has offices in Rome, London, Paris, Barcelona, Berlin, and in an experiential shop in Lisbon. The company claims more than 25,000 hosts across 130 countries, with localized versions of its app available in English, French, German, Italian, Spanish, and Chinese. This platform enables its 80,000 users to ‘eat like a local’ by booking meals, cooking classes, or food tours hosted by approved VizEat hosts all over the world (VizEat 2017). In September 2016, the start-up company raised €3.8 million in a funding round led by various investors (O’Hear 2016).

The VizEat’s CEO recognizes that the company VizEat has potentially benefited from ‘last mover advantage’ and that for others, such as Cookening, a French early pioneer in the space that VizEat acquired in 2015, the timing probably wasn’t quite right. He believes that VizEat’s model taps into a behavioral shift that is seeing tourists seek bespoke experiences and are moving away
from off-the-shelf and all-inclusive holidays (O’Hear 2016). For many holidaymakers, a VizEat food experience with locals is often the highlight of any trip. Because tourists do not have to radically change their consumption habits to enjoy these great experiences, VizEat has collaborated with a range of hospitality providers, harmoniously aligning itself with the tourism industry. The new round of funding will allow the company to boost their growth plans (O’Hear 2016).

Signing up on VizEat is free of charge, whether a person registers as a host or as a guest. VizEat charges the guests service fees for the use of their online platform and provides a guarantee, or insurance (insures guests and hosts for up to 300,000 euros), throughout the experience, protecting against food poisoning or damage. Hosts range from friendly amateurs to professional chefs. The host adds a photo and information about themselves and their meal, as well as which languages they speak. Potential guests may search their chosen town and meal preferences. A guest will pay a fee set by the host on their profile.

The latest development is the acquisition of EatWith (a competitor US-based digital platform) by VizEat. The latter took over EatWith as an entire entity (including website and current ongoing activity) to expand its global offering of food experiences with locals. EatWith hosts will also be given access to the wider offering for the group’s global partners with the tourism industry, both online and traditional (O’Hear 2017). The acquisition of EatWith makes VizEat the leader for enabling social eating experiences with locals.

Case study 34.1: A P2P gastronomy platform and comparison of two digital platforms

This section presents a case study, analysis of a different approach, and a business model of collaborative gastronomy. It then carries out a comparative analysis aiming at identifying and highlighting the differences in operating CC digital platforms.

Surfing Dinner: a Swiss P2P platform

Surfing Dinner is a start-up platform launched in Lausanne, Switzerland in 2013 by two young persons, Bernat Palou and Cleo Moulin, a team of motivated young entrepreneurs. As an association, they work in their spare time to offer this P2P culinary experience, selecting the best hosts and creating a user-friendly website (Surfing Dinner 2017). It is an online platform for collaborative gastronomic opportunities to explore a new place, as resident in the same city or while traveling. It allows individuals/cooking lovers to share their passion while meeting new people.

Their mission is ‘to give people the opportunity to share unique social and culinary experiences around a home cooked meal.’ The values are passion for new culinary discoveries; sharing knowledge by providing people a platform to teach and learn new ways to cook; sharing a social experience thanks to an authentic moment around a table; collaboration directly between cooks and foodies from all over the world (Surfing Dinner 2017)

Surfing Dinner is a digital platform to find and propose homemade culinary experiences. Its dining concept enables talented cooks to meet appreciative diners and share a memorable evening together within a friendly, homely atmosphere. This platform aims to offer everybody the possibility to participate in culinary events. Anyone interested in cooking a special meal at his or her home is invited to propose a menu on the Surfing Dinner website (Know it all 2016). Participants are
invited to register as a cooking in team, in pairs, at least five days before the event. Three days before the event, they will receive a geo-optimized route map of their itinerary for the evening, during which they are expected to prepare either an aperitif and starter, a main dish, or a dessert and cocktail.

Individuals can propose/find a full culinary workshop or just a simple meal, as the platform is adapted to personal needs. Either as a host (amateur chef) or as a guest, individuals can sign in to participate in an authentic meal shared in the host’s home, transforming it into an authentic and social experience. As a host, individuals have the opportunity to reveal their secret and original recipes. The meal can be at any time, so could be in the form of brunch, lunch, or dinner. A simple list of ingredients should be included with the listing/proposal so that potential guests have an idea of what to expect, along with the drinks proposed and languages spoken by the host. Hosts must mention the availability at their table, the dinner price, and the scheduled day and time. Potential diners, on the other hand, simply have to browse the meal options on the website and register their interest for a particular meal via the booking form. As guests, individuals can choose to either cook/learn with their host in a workshop or come directly to enjoy their food. It is noted that this platform is entirely free.

The ‘dining events’ on offer range from breakfast, lunch, and dinner (Surfing Dinner 2017). Also listed on the platform is a ‘Special Event’, which takes place every few months in Lausanne. These special events provide a great opportunity to meet many new people, and sample many different dishes at various locations throughout Lausanne. Since the original idea for Surfing Dinner was created in Lausanne, many of the current meal options proposed on the platform are in the Lausanne area. However, the platform’s organizers are particularly keen to expand their service within the other Swiss cities, including Geneva, Neuchâtel, and Zurich.

**A comparative analysis**

The analysis is carried out based on six elements, namely: business model, core services offered, value proposition to consumers, target market (users), revenue scheme/structure, and networks (partnership with other providers).

The two above presented digital platforms (the example of a global brand and the P2P platform) for gastronomic experiences were analyzed for comparison purposes. Table 34.1 summarizes the findings of this comparative analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elements/criteria</th>
<th>VizEat</th>
<th>Surfing Dinner</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business model</td>
<td>Hybrid business model, at the same time P2P (hosts are simultaneously providers and consumers) and B2C (businesses/professionals, e.g. event organizers providing services). The platform is the mediating mechanism connecting providers and consumers.</td>
<td>The business model is P2P, digital platform connecting peers that act simultaneously as hosts and guests. The platform is the mediating mechanism connecting participants (hosts and guests).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Core services offered | Variety of gastronomic experience opportunities, such as:  
|                       | • Homemade and other meals  
|                       | • Cooking classes or tastings  
|                       | • Food tours to discover local food and local producers |
| Value proposition to consumers | Food experiences with locals Authentic gastronomic experiences, combined with a social encounter with local people.  
| Target market (users) | International tourists, domestic tourists and local residents.  
| Revenue scheme/structure | It is free to make a listing, to be a host and post meals on VizEat. The host is free to determine the price of a meal; the entire fee that is to be paid the day after the event takes place. VizEat charges consumers a transaction fees (service fees for the use of platform), takes a 15% commission on top of the set rate, paid by the guests.  
| Networks (partnership with other providers) | Partnership with various tourism organizations, such as: The Travel Corporation (TTC), and TripAdvisor, section ‘Dine with a Local Chef’.  

Source: Retrieved from the two digital platforms.

Concluding remarks: a synthesis and some suggestions

The chapter presents collaborative consumption as an alternative value creation means in gastronomic experiences from a supply perspective. A discussion deliberates on the concept of collaborative consumption and the factors driving this phenomenon in the tourism industry. Collaborative business models often equated with disruptive commercial endeavors are growing and can extract value from idle capacity and assets. In order to illustrate operational means
of a gastronomic digital platform, two case studies (digital platforms) were analyzed using six elements, namely: business model, core services offered, value proposition to consumers, target market (users), revenue scheme/structure, and networks (partnership with other providers).

The first platform (VizEat) is a global, profit-based online market/platform that is not actually about collaborative gastronomy; it is connecting people aiming at doing business. It is a market exchange for value and profit.

The second one (Surfing Dinner) connects individuals/peers through culinary experiences, individuals opening their homes and hosting peers to offer homemade meals and workshops. It is likely the main aim is social dimension and interaction; the profit is not the prevailing motivation. It is believed that the second platform is actually collaborative consumption; the first has nothing to do with the sharing economy, it is a profit-based platform.

These digital platforms enable an exchange between hosts and consumers, therefore providing unique business model to suppliers and experiences to consumers. As illustrated in the VizEats example, the digital platforms’ business models allow suppliers an opportunity to tap into markets they would have not been able to in a traditional business model. Therefore, collaborative gastronomy strategically opens up a market for the hosts: providing an opportunity to target global market while rooted in the local economy. It is also an information spillover effect (to consumers) and any consumer can participate, thus offering accessibility to an array of gastronomic experiences. We can conclude by emphasizing that collaboration is the new way of ensuring business sustainability and provide consumers with immediate information in order to make informed decisions and partaking in experiences that fulfills their desires.

References


Introduction
The rise of the Internet and social media has fundamentally changed individual decision-making and shopping behavior, from how customers communicate, and learn about different products and services, to how they shop (Darley, Blankson, and Luethge 2010; Kim and Lennon 2008). Recently a more sophisticated view of the way customers engaged with brands has emerged. User-generated content and consultation with social media friends about the product and purchase are the main factors influencing customer buying behavior compared to the past when shopping was based on the comparison between the products and brand. This forced the companies to change their marketing strategy to account for the effect of current customer opinions and comments. This chapter will discuss about the marketing decision on the usage of online customer review in gastronomic tourism.

Gastronomic tourism
Gastronomic tourism includes visiting food producers, eating festivals, restaurants and special places associated with some special food alongside tasting a special dish, observing its production and preparation processes or eating a special dish from the hands of a very known chef also as seeing how a particular dish is being ready (Hall et al. 2003; Hall and Mitchell 2005). Additionally, rather than preparations of food at restaurants and hotels for tourists, it is about tourists’ travel in pursuit of getting expertise relating to local food and beverages (Birdir and Akgöl 2015). In fact, the trade of gastronomic tourism does not consist solely of food guides and restaurants, but also any kind of culinary experience(s). A crucial purpose for the event of gastronomic tourism could be a protected native product belonging to its region.

Culture, as part of gastronomic tourism, is usually expressed with an inner willingness of individual’s urge to know completely different cultures (Birdir and Akgöl 2015; Kozak, Akoğlan, and Kozak 2000). Besides gastronomic tourism being the interest of tourism, through the existence of cultural characteristics of the host destination, gastronomic tourists are also being cultural tourists at a similar time (Birdir and Akgöl 2015). Gastronomic tours that were organised to introduce a region’s dishes and food culture will often feature a country (e.g., France, Australia, South Africa, Italy, America, and England). In many cases, several
sub-gastronomic tourism themes will be developed, such as wine (e.g., in France, Italy, Chile, USA, South Africa, and Australia), beer (e.g., in Germany, Canada), tea (e.g., in England, China, Japan), pasta and pizza (in Italy), and exotic food (e.g., in Thailand, China, Malaysia, India). Gastronomy, a new branch in the tourism sector, does not solely relate to eating and drinking, however, it is additionally interconnected with several different branches of science and art (Sahin 2015).

**Tri-reference point (TRP) decision making theory**

Developing effective marketing strategies in the gastronomic tourism field require capabilities in understanding the multiple facets of tourists’ needs, wants, and behaviors. Essentially, a single composite point is required for the marketers to make marketing decisions and the composite point can be built from multiple reference points (Ordóñez, Connolly and Coughlan 2000). As human beings are capable of processing multiple reference points simultaneously (Koop and Johnson 2012), the application of tri-reference point (TRP) theory for gastronomic tourism marketers in making marketing decisions is deemed relevant.

Wang and Johnson (Wang and Johnson 2012) indicated TRP as the influence of the status quo (SQ), goal and aspiration (G), and minimum requirement (MR) on an individual’s risky decision making. They suggested four possible risk perceptions and outcomes (x): success (x ≥ G), gain (SQ < x < G), loss (MR ≤ x < SQ), and failure (x < MR). However, Wong and Musa (2015) in their study on international second home tourists in Malaysia argued that risky decisions can also be made even when SQ is just on par level. Thus, an additional outcome, ‘potentially gain’ can be obtained when SQ ≤ x < G. In another word, an individual will stay above the MR, and achieve or exceed G and SQ simultaneously. Mathematically, the assumption would be MR > G > SQ where SQ is commonly perceived as the zero point when measuring distributions of alternative options.

Gastronomic tourism marketers need to make decisions that enable them to sustain or improve the tourism destination status quo (e.g., reputation, destination performance ranking, positive word of mouth, etc.). In every marketing decision made, it shall be guided by the objective(s) of the required decision, and in general, the objective(s) shall not be against improving status quo. Thus, it is logical for the marketer to make marketing decisions that enable them to achieve their goal(s), while to ensure sustainability of the gastronomic tourism destination, it is essential to stay above its minimum business requirement(s). To do so from the market perspective, it is paramount for the marketer to meet or exceed gastronomic tourists’ expectations.

It is worth noting that managing all three reference points is relatively difficult, especially when the reference point is uncertain and the destination marketer tends to switch between risk aversion and risk seeking. Thus, in most cases, the decision maker may need to adapt to different strategies in different conditions (e.g., economic, tourists’ behavior, technology, trend changes, etc.). When the reference point is perceived as irrelevant or unmanageable, the three reference points may be reduced to two or even a single reference point, leaving fewer options to the destination marketer. This chapter focuses on online customers’ review via social media as the means to understand its effect on marketing decision in the gastronomic tourism context.

**Social media and online review**

The 21st century has seen a huge impact of social media on buyer behavior that is influencing familiarity with products, feelings, and assessment of the products (Mangold and Faulds 2009). Social media creates the effective platform for organizations to interact with
customers on an overall scale. It also empowers customers to share their purchasing experiences through electronic word of mouth (eWOM) which makes a reliable source for future customers (Gunden 2017; Tran 2015). It is assessed that 60% of consumers are depending on online reviews and appraisals when settling on purchase choices (Smith 2013).

Online reviews have turned out to be handy for some categories of services including hotels and restaurants, which connects potential purchasers with numerous different customers (Zhang et al. 2010). The online reviews have modified the style of consumers buying behavior within the restaurant and tourism industries, and plenty of scholars have studied the implication of online reviews in these industries (Taylor and Aday 2016; Yan, Wang, and Chau 2015). eWOM enables potential clients to discover eateries in a spontaneous way (Fox 2013), while online customer reviews are a type of eWOM in the restaurant choice process (e.g., searching for the food). This has helped both the marketers and customers to gain detailed information with reliability and believability rather than just relying on business data, which may be seen with disbelief and possible skepticism (Park and Nicolau 2015).

Gastronomic tourists are frequently using review sites and looking forward to online reviews to form their dining decisions. By reading restaurant reviews, customers will get a lot of information regarding previous consumers’ overall eating experiences, such as the standard of the food and service (Parikh et al. 2014). Additionally, online restaurant reviews yield potential customers to make a reference for other users, and that they are able to pick a restaurant that suits their selection criteria for food (Parikh et al. 2017). Implementation of rating systems has been examined by Pantelidis (2010) who suggests that restaurant management should use a star rating system to trace overall ratings over the long term. Gan et al. (2017) indicate that overall ratings are also influenced by food quality, service quality, and atmosphere.

Moreover, online reviews are often utilized by restaurant customers as an extra source of information when they are new to an eatery, and these reviews incorporate both exceptional and poor customers’ encounters (Parikh et al. 2014). Yelp is an example of an online restaurant review website which incorporates a short illustration of the restaurant, address, and the general assessment of its food and service quality by the reviewer (Yang et al. 2017; Zhang et al. 2010; Zhang, Zhang, and Law 2014). It also allows the potential customers to know about the strengths and weaknesses of a restaurant. Dianping.com is another example of a restaurant review site that was established in 2003 following the model of the Zagat survey in USA. By 2013, Dianping.com had recorded over 15 million restaurants in 2,300 cities in China, with 48 million active users. Dianping.com provides a rating system for consumers to measure restaurants from three aspects (food, service, and decoration). Higher rating scores reflects higher consumer satisfaction and higher quality among the general public (Park and Nicolau 2015).

The online reviews are related to different aspects of the restaurant operation including food quality, service quality, and environment. Previous studies concluded that food, service, price, location, and environment were the key approaches in restaurant selection (Zhang et al. 2010; Zhang et al. 2014). Based on the tweets by the consumers from a specific area and restaurant, the mainstream food destinations can be recognized around urban functional units like scenic spot (Zhai et al. 2015); which may likewise affect the tourist destination. Through these online reviews and analyzes, gastronomic tourism marketer will be able to determine the minimum requirement(s) and goal(s) of their marketing decision.

**Social media usage**

The use of social media in the gastronomic tourism field progresses significantly in the recent decade (Maria Munar, Gyimóthy, and Cai 2013). Cases of such media include Tripadvisor.
com, VirtualTourist.com, CruiseCritic, Thorntree, Yelp, and so on. The intuitive limit of these sites empower customers to take part in a scope of open reviews, for example, information search, products and services rating, and starting and taking an interest in tourism-related talks (Litvin, Goldsmith, and Pan 2008; O’Connor 2010).

For tourists, social media has become an essential information source (Zeng and Gerritsen 2014). That is apprehensible since tourism products are sometimes considered as extremely risky purchases (Kim, Ng, and Kim 2009) since they cannot be evaluated before consumption (Schmallegger and Carson 2008). Therefore, new and rising sources of information (i.e., social media) are accustomed to minimize risks of making wrong travel selections (Leung, Schuckert, and Yeung 2013). Social media is a vital word of mouth platform that influences alternative tourists’ selections (Hudson et al. 2015; Litvin, Goldsmith, and Pan 2008; Luo and Zhong 2015).

**Gastronomical blogs**

Gastronomic blogs are a brand new tool to promote this sector of tourism and enhance the author’s preferences of taste, environment, and location for his/her food of choice (Wang 2011). A gastronomic blog typically contains the description of the author’s gourmet experiences and reviews, relevant to native food and beverage tasting. Native food and beverages refer to regionally grown produce, and food that demands staples from outside the realm but is processed regionally (Nummedal and Hall 2006). Blogs are an effective tool in spreading eWOM (Kaikati and Kaikati 2004), which give tourism marketers a different approach to promoting products, and has massive potential to make a huge impact on tourism promotion (Lin and Huang 2006; Litvin et al. 2008). Gastronomic blogs usually present lots of images or videos related to the author’s culinary journey. Photos and videos give unquestionable proof that the culinary journey was created, that the course was attended, and that fun was had (Sontag 1977). Previous studies have recommended that photos or movies that may facilitate feeling the charm of landscapes, and cause a high level of interest and sympathy with characters in a drama that would produce a positive result on individual intention to possess direct experience (Kim, Lee, and Yoo 2006; Lin and Huang 2006). A study conducted by Yim, Lee, and Kim (2014) showed that a number of blogger reviews powerfully influenced restaurants’ average meal costs.

**Organizational perspective**

In developing marketing strategies and policies to engage with gastronomic customers, many organizations have changed their promotion methodologies to exploit these new open doors. Restaurateurs have begun paying attention to the present complications concerning operations using social media and are attentive to how sensible or bad consumers’ dining experience may probably impact the adaptation of social media (Pantelidis 2010). Therefore, an impression of online reviews on restaurant selection has been studied by various researchers (e.g., Cheung and Lee 2012; Fox 2013; Parikh et al. 2014; Yang et al. 2017). In line with the study disclosed by Ipsos MediaCT and also the National Restaurant Association (NRA) in the USA, social media is found as the most used promotional tactic in the restaurant business. In fact, 80% of restaurant use social media to form marketing strategies (eMarketer 2013). Similarly, online reviews facilitate other users to gauge whether or not not the restaurants are worth visiting (Cheung and Lee 2012). Business organizations like restaurants may acknowledge any negative reviews or issues, which might provide the chance to restaurant proprietors to make or maintain its reputation (Pantelidis 2010). Additionally, a proactive strategy could
justify and demonstrate at an equivalent time to rectify any service failure (Pantelidis 2010). TripAdvisor, an online travel network website, is an example which forged user reviews of the many researched tourism and hospitality organizations (O’Connor 2010).

**Case study 35.1: Power of social media**

In Bangladesh, the integrity of online review is found to be questionable too. One of the leading food reviewing websites in Bangladesh was deemed to be exploiters in this business in Bangladesh. Annually, the website arranges different food festivals for its thousands of followers in the capital city of Dhaka in Bangladesh. A restaurant owner claimed that he was intimidated by the review website owner to participate in the food festivals and serve food in lower costs than usual or else negative reviews are going to be printed. As the restaurant owner was incorporating a new business and he felt the necessity of good reviews, he participated and conjointly gave a particular amount of donation to the review website owner. Later, he used social media to express his feelings and was once more threatened by the review website owners. As Mr. Chandra explained, “No one ever questioned the power of the internet. It has made restaurants and affected them badly, as well. Restaurants are vulnerable, and soft targets whether rightly or wrongly so is another matter.” Therefore the people concerned in this industry should be careful in this aspect.

(Source: http://www.firstpost.com/living/the-online-backlash-against-lemp-can-twitter-ruin-a-restaurant-865197.html; Facebook Discussion in various food groups of Bangladeshi Consumers)

**Case study 35.2: Ecuadorian identity through gastronomy**

In Ecuador, the government has propelled a specific activity to offer an incentive to customary and creative dishes. It advances gastronomy through competitions among nearby culinary experts and around four specific dishes: the encebollado; the hornado; the colada morada, and the fanesca. Rodriguez-Fernández et al. (2017) inquired about these dishes through Google Trend, Facebook, and YouTube to ensure the assessment and impact of these dishes in gastronomy business. In line with the forecasted trends in 2017, the encebollado is expected to be the most searched dish, while the colada morada will be in second position. As indicated by Google Trends, Facebook and YouTube appearances demonstrate that the encebollado is the most viewed dish. On the other hand, colada morada and the fanesca are seasonal items, thus their advantage is restricted to particular dates (i.e., the Day of the Dead and Easter). On YouTube, videos related to the encebollado are the most well-known, rather than the hornado, which is far less searched. As these four dishes are distinguished as a delegate of the gastronomical personality of Ecuador, the social media presence of the dishes ought to be expanded and watched as needed. With a specific goal to enhance the situation of the Ecuadorian gastronomy – especially the four compound dishes, it is prescribed to create specific sites for every dish, containing connections to social organizations – Facebook, YouTube, and Twitter, and giving information on occasions, items, gourmet experts, and items by the researches.

(Source: Rodríguez-Fernández et al. 2017)
Conclusion

Considering the growing number of gastronomic tourists and food lovers, gastronomic marketers ought to think about disseminating information and implementing a customer incentive system that might encourage customers to share their feelings and dining experiences on leading social media sites. Business organizations like restaurants ought to have a watch on the social media activities and reviews like, users’ comments, posting to social networking sites and blogs, and not simply remaining as passive observers of different users’ social media uses (Thackeray, Neiger, and Keller 2012). In every marketing decision made, it can be guided by the tri-reference point (TRP) theory, where the objective(s) of the required decision is to meet or go beyond the existing status quo and goal, and to stay above its minimum business requirement(s). Proper handling of those interactions in a very satisfactory manner may result in high progressive gastronomic tourism achievement.

References


Travelers use a wide variety of information sources to help them in making food and drink choices when planning a trip, selecting a place to consume a meal, or to experience the food of a specific area or region. In contrast, tour operators need tools to assist them in selecting the most appropriate tourism products and services when planning and marketing specific products, places and experiences. Various activities, experiences and products have already been developed such as tours, trails, working farms, and even support packages. The goal is to create local ambassadors who can facilitate best practice models that assist future stakeholders in providing culinary tourism products and experiences. Culinary mapping is a tool that can be used to develop a proposed culinary route/itinerary based on information synthesized from various sources to identify authentic food experiences as a niche tourism product.

Culinary mapping

Culinary mapping can be used as a tool by the local inhabitants and tour operators to market and showcase products, places and people (Ecovue 2011; Lubbe 2003; Du Rand 2014; Du Rand, Booysen, and Atkinson 2016; van der Waal 2016). It involves a process of collecting, recording, analyzing, synthesizing, and visualizing information to describe the culinary resources, networks, and usage patterns of a specific group in a specific area (Varju, Suvak, and Dombi 2014). Culinary mapping has been used to identify and promote culinary cultures in countries as diverse as the United States, Spain, Thailand, Peru, Japan, Malaysia, and Korea (Zhang 2015). On an interactive food map, restaurants can be combined with other attractions and activities, thereby stimulating local tourism holistically. Cultural mapping can also be combined with culinary mapping (Lubbe 2003), as has been done by municipalities in Ontario (Ecovue 2011).

A systematic approach is applied in culinary mapping when identifying and recording culinary resources, using Geographic Information Systems (GIS), to support a more rigorous evidence-based approach to planning culinary tourism. The authors have developed a culinary mapping database, FOODPAT (Du Rand 2006a). FOODPAT is a GIS-based inven-
Culinary mapping

tory focused specifically on gastronomic tourism data (including food products, food and wine attractions, events and facilities). In the FOODPAT database, food attractions include places of food interest for tourists, such as factories, wine estates, breweries, food stores, farm stalls, restaurants, and culinary heritage. Food events include activities based on existing resources and food attractions such as wine routes and food festivals. Culinary heritage is collated by a review of heritage and historical books, recipe books, and information on local websites of specific areas. This data is integrated with culinary heritage and culture (cuisine) and other tourism infrastructure, attractions, and routes. The database is uploaded to a GIS platform which allows the mapping, searching, and selecting of specific assets. FOODPAT draws on key sources, including the tourism magazine Explore (www.explore-online.co.za), material collected at the annual Indaba Tourism Expo, the VEZA tourism information portal (www.southafrica.net), and available websites of tourism regions within South Africa. This data provides an indication of what is available at a specific destination, enabling tour operators to determine the regional culinary identity (Du Rand 2006a). Importantly, FOODPAT reflects the information from a tourism attraction perspective and does not purport to include all available information regarding the processing and distribution of food. Different regions provide culinary distinctiveness, such as Franschhoek in the Western Cape where food and wine have become a major destination attraction (Du Rand 2006b). The Franschhoek region, the case study for this chapter, was selected as it is the only member in the Southern hemisphere (since October 2014) of the international Delice Network of Good Food Cities of the World and boasts six internationally-renowned chefs (https://franschhoek.org.za).

A culinary route or itinerary can be created for gastronomic tourism as a niche attraction in a region through the process of culinary mapping. Culinary assets are categorized to highlight key local cuisine styles and to facilitate comparison with other regions and tourism destinations. A culinary map is a living tool that sets the framework for additions and revisions over time. Typically, four categories of a region’s culinary assets can be identified, viz., geography, food, culture, and tourism. The culinary resource framework presented in Figure 36.1 combines these four categories with the two dimensions of culinary mapping – resource mapping and regional culinary identity mapping.

Figure 36.1 portrays two dimensions of culinary mapping:

- **Resource mapping** – identifying and recording tangible culinary resources using GIS tools. The mapping of tangible assets is a systematic approach to classifying a region’s or destination’s culinary resources. To visualize and map the culinary information, locational information is matched to each asset.

- **Regional culinary identity mapping** – exploring the five factors that need to be present to portray what a local food identity typically requires (Sackett and Haynes 2012): the characteristics of the land (geography); the food culture of the indigenous people; the food culture of the first settlers; foods and cooking techniques brought by later immigrants; and economic viability and evidence of a regional cuisine.

The knowledge obtained from culinary mapping has various benefits: it provides the empirical data necessary for a region to make better-informed planning and policy decisions; it becomes a tool for regional development and tourism; and it has the potential to engage the communities in promoting the culinary resources and experiences.
The process of culinary mapping consists of five steps:

1. **Collecting the data**
   The priority of the first step in culinary mapping is to capture the breadth of culinary resources in a specific region. This provides a snapshot of culinary experiences and resources, but is not a complete list of every culinary asset. It provides a solid baseline of culinary information and sets the framework for further additions and revisions to the inventory. The task of compiling a database of culinary assets begins by accumulating existing sources of information, namely FOODPAT and other tourism information. The database contains an extensive listing of towns in a specific region. In this chapter, Franschhoek, a town located in the Cape Winelands District Municipality, provides a useful case study. Information includes the municipal district, address, GPS coordinates, website, events, main products, activity, food attraction/event, and additional notes regarding the event or activity in the specific town. Additional data sources include various web and print sources such as community and business directories; tourism listings; print media; and organization and business websites. Culinary heritage is sourced through a review of heritage and historical books, recipe books, and information on local websites of specific towns in the region.

2. **Recording the data**
   Data of the culinary identity and gastronomic tourism status is recorded by means of data mining from existing databases containing relevant information. Data extrapolating the culinary identity of the region is collated from existing literature and the factors determining the regional cuisine of the region are presented. The gastronomic tourism status of the specific region is determined by means of data and food-related information extracted from the FOODPAT database. The relevant data is updated for the specific
region; additional data is collated by searching for relevant gastronomic tourism information in lifestyle and tourism magazines; existing tourism routes are identified; and hospitality and tourism enterprises are identified by searching the web pages of relevant towns. The data gathered on culinary assets and culinary identity is collated to provide evidence of the existence of a local food identity that can be promoted as a niche tourism product in a specific region.

3 Analyzing the data

An analysis of the data comprises defining and determining the scope of the assets included on the culinary map and is based on the four main categories presented in the culinary resource framework (see Figure 36.1). This framework summarizes a region’s tangible culinary assets and includes the culinary identity factors required for a local food identity. The two steps, resource mapping, and regional culinary identity mapping, are then executed.

Step 1: Resource mapping

The tangible culinary resources are identified, recorded and classified on the culinary food database FOODPAT using the resource mapping step applying GIS tools and platforms. Data from FOODPAT is used as the source of information plus additional data collected from a 10-year review of the lifestyle journal, Country Life (www.countrylife.co.za), websites and other local food-related magazines. Information about the town, place, stakeholder, web address, main product, and main activity are recorded. Products and activities include categories such as cookery classes, farm stalls, homemade produce, restaurant/eating place, tours, accommodation, factory/working farms, and farmers’ market. Tangible culinary resources present in the Cape Winelands District Municipality, specifically Franschhoek, are reflected in Figure 36.2. This figure provides a graphic summary of the culinary resources and assets of the selected geographical area. The analysis step provides evidence of the existence of culinary tourism as a niche tourism product in a selected area. The spread of the culinary activities is visualized in the final step of the culinary mapping process, step 5, and represents the culinary activities contextualized within the existing tourism infrastructure and geography as extracted from the FOODPAT database and additional information sources.

Step 2: Culinary identity mapping – regional cuisine

The regional culinary identity mapping is performed by exploring the four factors required for a regional cuisine (see Figure 36.1) namely the characteristics of the land (geography); the food culture of the indigenous people; the food culture of the first settlers, foods and cooking techniques brought by immigrants (homogeneous food culture), and economic viability, and integrating the existing data available to provide evidence of a regional cuisine.

The identity mapping sources data through a review of existing literature, websites, and census data of the region. The themes and ideas that emerge from this sourcing process provide an overview of the culinary identity of the region. Resources include recipe books, historical books, census data by StatsSA (tourism, demographic, and agricultural data), tourism policy documents, tourism websites (events, festivals, books, accommodation, products, farm stays, cultural information, and activities), the tourism offices in the Winelands region, tourism routes, and the festivals and events guide for 2017.
Requirements of a regional cuisine

The four factors that provide the evidence of a specific region’s cuisine are:

*The characteristics of the land – geography.* The characteristics of the land are paramount in contributing to the success of agriculture and the source of most food. Land characteristics determine what is produced in the region. The four characteristics (Sackett and Haynes 2012) that determine food production in an area and the local product availability are: (i) soil – properly managed soil is conducive to large-scale agriculture; (ii) climate determines which food plants and animals will grow in a particular area; (iii) topography affects climate and the use of farm machinery, and affects agricultural success; (iv) proximity to other regions affects the exchange of ingredients and culinary ideas.

*Homogenous food culture.* The cuisine of a region reflects the cultural influences required for the formation of a regional cuisine and reveals the blending of the food culture of the indigenous people, first settlers, and foods and cooking techniques brought by immigrants. Positive interaction between indigenous groups and first settlers typically leads to a blending of cuisines resulting in a new cooking style, or hybrid cuisine. Ingredients and cooking methods introduced by immigrants are often more exciting and complex than those of the existing regional cuisine (Sackett and Haynes 2012). The culinary impact of immigrants often changes the destiny of a region’s cuisine.

*Defining dishes.* A regional defining dish represents a particular culinary region and is singular enough to be readily distinguished from the dishes of all other regions (Sackett and Haynes 2012). Published recipe books reflect a variety of defining dishes, the use of local produce and provide the typical ingredients, cooking methods, seasoning, and flavoring. A regional cuisine is a unified style of cooking common to most people living in a culinary region. It also reflects the attitudes about the food and eating etiquette of the people in the region. The most prominent defining dishes identified as authentic and reflecting the regional cuisine are the dishes using traditional and local produce. The proximity of neighboring regions influences the dishes in traditional favorite foods and also reflects the culinary heritage and cuisine of the region. Modern recipes found in books published in the last decade reflect the original identity of food from a specific region. These recipes also portray the cultural tradition of the region observed in contemporary local cuisine. Easier access to amenities and ingredients may bring about a modern influence to food, while still remaining regional and the basic recipe elements remaining the same.

*Economic viability.* Economic viability of a regional cuisine is the point at which a region can support its population with revenues from its goods and services. According to Sackett and Haynes (2012), it is where the population has moved from subsistence to a more affluent lifestyle. Where higher income groups have more disposable income to spend on dining, and home cooks prepare dishes that are more complex. Chefs are also paid higher salaries and can create culinary masterpieces. Diners are experienced and better educated and can afford restaurants that are more expensive. Economic viability in a region is evident when local cuisine is represented in books, festivals, recipes and restaurants and when chefs in the region are creating culinary masterpieces.

1 *Synthesizing the data*

Firstly, the culinary tourism products throughout a region are presented and illustrated through the compilation of data from various sources, then an updated culinary database is created. Secondly, the five factors required for the identification of a regional cuisine are presented and evidence is provided of the existence of the local food identity of the
Culinary mapping

selected region. Thirdly, a culinary map is created by the visualization of the data from the updated culinary database exhibiting the distribution of the culinary assets within the selected region integrated with the existing infrastructure. This information is synthesized to finally create a culinary route/itinerary of a selected area within the selected region. The proposed route selected takes the traveler from point A to point B within the selected area while introducing the traveler to a variety of regional offerings, namely the topography, heritage, and culture. The integration of the culinary assets and the culinary identity is thus realized, exhibiting the application of culinary mapping as a tool for planning culinary tourism.

2 Visualizing the data

Visualization of the culinary information is achieved by matching the local information to each asset and uploading it to a GIS platform, FOODPAT, the culinary database, and creating the culinary map (see Figure 36.7). The various culinary assets in a region are displayed on the map in Figure 36.3.

A culinary map of the selected area can be constructed, where various activities are indicated interspersed with the landscape, geography, culture, architecture, and production. The proposed culinary route leads the traveler from point A to point B, introducing a variety of offerings in the region. A further visualization is possible where a more detailed positioning of the restaurants providing an authentic eating experience in the selected region is shown. Existing nature and other tourism attractions, routes, and activities can also be indicated on the map. Accommodation providing an authentic cultural and culinary experience can be included in the visualization of the culinary assets and activities, providing a complete tourism experience.

The following case study illustrates the process of culinary mapping.

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**Case study 36.1**

Franschhoek, the food and wine heartland of South Africa (https://franschhoek.org.za) and one of the oldest towns (1688) in the Cape Winelands District Municipality was purposefully selected as a case study to illustrate the process of using culinary mapping as a gastronomic tourism planning tool. According to a WESGRO report on wine and gastronomic tourism in the Western Cape (van der Waal 2016), limited information is presently available of the wine and gastronomic tourism sector. A database of tourist needs and behavior based on food and wine activities is desperately needed. The report indicates that there is an increase in interest in activities around food and wine in South Africa, with a specific need for fine dining restaurants, food and wine pairing and experiencing local cuisine. Gastronomic tourism does not top the list of reasons to visit the Western Cape, as wine tourism is the number one activity (see Figure 36.3). However, piggybacking food on wine tourism will add to the success and growth of the industry, as the Cape Winelands region already has the activities and resources to offer world-class gastronomic tourism experiences.

The demand for knowledgeable guides that are able to provide customized wine and food experiences is increasing (van der Waal 2016) as there is a desire by tourists to experience more than just food and wine. A total tourism experience is needed, which incorporates related tourism activities. This is possible using culinary mapping combined with cultural mapping.
The Cape Winelands Municipal District culinary map with specific focus on the town Franschhoek

The main aim of this chapter is to illustrate how culinary mapping can be used as a tool to plan gastronomic tourism in a specific region. The initial steps of capturing the culinary resources existing in the Cape Winelands were executed. At this stage, it is not a complete list, but it does provide a solid baseline of culinary information and sets the framework to extend the inventory in the future. The tangible culinary resources and assets were identified, recorded and classified on the culinary food database FOODPAT, using existing data from FOODPAT plus data from the lifestyle journal, *Country Life* (www.countrylife.co.za), EATOUT guide (www.eatout.co.za), Capetownetc (www.capetownetc.com) and the Franschhoek tourism office website (www.Franschhoek.org.za). Culinary heritage was obtained by a review of historical books, recipe books, and information from local websites of towns in the Cape Winelands. Analysis of the data comprised defining and determining the scope of the activities and assets on the culinary map (see Figure 36.7) based on the four main categories presented in the culinary resource framework.

The two steps (resource mapping and culinary identity mapping) were then used to assess and plot the culinary resources in the Franschhoek.

**Step 1: Resource mapping**

The tangible culinary resources and related activities present in the Cape Winelands District Municipality focusing on Franschhoek are reflected in Figure 36.3. This figure provides a graphic
Culinary mapping

Summary of the culinary resources and assets of the selected geographical area. A total of 327 culinary resources and 248 culinary-related activities were found. Restaurants reflected the highest value (77) of the culinary resources. A further distinction in the ambience and the type of attributes of restaurants are presented in Figure 36.4. The presence of fine-dining (18) and classic and elegant dining (18) in the Franschhoek area are a reflection of the type of ambience and cuisine that food tourists want (van der Waal 2016). While on-wine estates (38) reflect the provision of local and often authentic cuisine of the region. As Franschhoek has also been named the ‘Culinary Capital’ of South Africa (www.Franschhoek.org.za), the presence of casual and comfortable restaurants (37) and those that also provide accommodation (23), meet the needs of the tourists visiting the area.

The spread of the restaurants within the Cape Winelands region, highlighting Franschhoek, are illustrated in Figure 36.5. The distribution of the restaurants is concentrated in the Winelands and Franschhoek area with a high representation of fine dining specifically in Franschhoek. Evidence of culinary activity exists in smaller clusters within the Cape Winelands Municipal District.

Step 2: Culinary identity mapping

The culinary identity mapping exhibits the characteristics of the land (geography), the food culture, and the economic viability of the tourism industry in the region. The data was sourced from a review of information in existing literature, book, websites, census data, and the Franschhoek tourism office.

Geography – Cape Winelands District Municipality

The Cape Winelands District Municipality in the Western Cape (see Figure 36.5) is bordered by the Witzenberg to the north, the Hex River and Riviersonderend mountains to the southeast, and the Hottentots Holland mountains in the southwest. These mountains are part of the Cape Fold
Figure 36.4 Type and ambience of restaurants in Cape Winelands and Franschhoek.
Mountains and create a physical and cultural individuality and a distinct region in terms of its terrain (fold mountains up to 1500 m asl), climate (only winter rainfall region in South Africa), indigenous vegetation (fynbos), human settlement, past history, and present agricultural economy.

Geographically the Cape Winelands District Municipality covers 21,473 square kilometers (16.6% of the Western Cape Province and 1.75% of South Africa) (see Figure 36.6). There are five local municipalities within this district namely Witzenberg, Drakenstein, Stellenbosch, Breede Valley, and Langeberg. This is a reflection of the proximity to the other regions in the area.

According to Census 2011 (www.statssa.gov.za), the Cape Winelands region has a total population of 866,223 with 236,006 households and a youth proportion (15–34 years) of 36.8%. The Stellenbosch Local Municipality (in which Stellenbosch and Franschhoek lie), has a youth proportion of 42.3%, the highest of the five local municipalities in the Cape Winelands.

The Stellenbosch Local Municipality’s land use in which Franschhoek is situated is presented in Table 36.1. The characteristics of the land contribute to the agriculture and the production of local food. From the table, it can be deduced that wine production and other cultivation constitutes viable production of local food products.

**Homogenous food culture**

The region bears the imprint of more than three centuries of European settlement and the birth of a unique people comprising Dutch, Huguenot, Khoi-San, and Malay. It also has a unique culinary
Table 36.1  Land cover and land use of Stellenbosch Local Municipality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>% Proportion of 831 sq km</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>24.96 Shrubland fynbos (H,M,L and riparian)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.72 Cultivated vines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.62 Thicket/dense bush (including riparian)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.56 Bare mountain fynbos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.76 Cultivation (other)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.66 Plantations (woodlots – all)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.36 Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.08 Grassland (including riparian)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.89 Wetland areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.38 Woodland/open bush (including riparian)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.31 Water areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.74 Transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.96 Low shrubland (H,L,M and riparian)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.90 All buildings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.53 Wooded grassland (including riparian)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.49 Bare mountain rock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.04 Other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.03 Mines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.00 Indigenous forest (including riparian)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Figure 36.6  Map of the Cape Winelands District Municipality.
tradition based on viticulture, fruit-, wheat- and olive-farming, with cattle- and wool-farming to the North of the Cape Winelands region.

**Defining dishes**

Franschhoek is a very historic town, dating from 1688. It is known as the culinary heartland of South Africa and is acknowledged for its world-class cuisines and fine wines. The French Huguenots settled in this valley over 300 years ago and brought with them their culinary traditions and knowledge of winemaking. Authentic cuisine that is French-inspired and local dishes and produce are served in numerous restaurants, reflecting the culinary heritage of the region.

**Economic viability**

Evidence of economic vibrancy is very obvious in Franschhoek as the local cuisine and the talented chefs of this area have received the highest national and international culinary awards.

**The culinary map: The case of Franschhoek**

Franschhoek can be regarded as a standalone culinary destination in its own right. A proposed culinary map and two-day route of the area, with various activities interspersed across the landscape, geography, culture, heritage, architecture, and agricultural production is shown in Figure 36.7. Many other attractions can be added to this culinary map.

![Map of a proposed culinary route in Franschhoek indicating the culinary attractions and assets.](image-url)
Ingrid Booysen and Gerrie E. du Rand

Franschhoek proposed culinary route (3 nights equals 2 days)
NOTE: Numbers correspond to numbers on the Franschhoek Map (see Figure 36.7)

DAY 1
[1] Sleepover at Le Quartier Francais in the centre of Franschhoek village, eat breakfast there in the al fresco courtyard with a real French atmosphere.
[2] Stroll to the Huguenot Monument and visit the Museum (French settlers’ history in South Africa) next door.
[3] Walk down the main road (Huguenot Road) in a westerly direction – many art galleries and little shops on the way to the Dutch Reformed Church and churchyard.
[4] Visit the Cape Dutch-style Town Hall adjacent to it.
[5] After approximately 1.5 kilometers in the same direction down the main street, find the Franschhoek Cellar where a light lunch is served. Franschhoek Cellar is part of the ‘Cap Classique’ group in the Franschhoek Valley where both wine and sparkling wine can be tasted.
[6] On the way back to Le Quartier Francais, visit the De Villiers Chocolate Café across the street – on the Heritage Square in Huguenot Road, an artisanal ‘Bean to Bar’ chocolate factory.
[7] Later that afternoon, drive up the Middagskransberg on the eastern side of the town for the best view of Franschhoek in the valley and spectacular sunset views from the lookout point, a must for photographers.
[8] Upon return to Franschhoek down the pass, drive up the Robertsvlei Road to enjoy the architecture and wine farms. Turn around on the highest point. On the way down the same road, enjoy a different view of Franschhoek and the mountains surrounding it. Experience a food and wine pairing dinner at Le Quartier Francais [1].

DAY 2
[9] The programme for DAY 2 includes three wine estates. A visit to La Motte Wine Estate along the R45 to Stellenbosch and Paarl; after approximately 9 kilometres La Motte will be on the right-hand side. La Motte houses the famous Pierneef Restaurant where a good gourmet meal can be enjoyed; a farm shop for souvenirs, and freshly baked bread and other food and drinks are also served in the garden. La Motte has a permanent exhibition structure with rotating exhibits of the Dutch artist J. H. Pierneef and the Rupert family. A historical tour of all the buildings on site is also offered.
[10] In the afternoon use the Franschhoek hop-on hop-off wine tram/bus to visit at least four further-afield wine farms, or alternatively visit Grande Provence, a 300-year-old heritage wine estate, 5 kilometres from Le Quartier Francais on the right. In addition to a restaurant and wine tasting, it also offers an art gallery, gift shop, jungle gym, wine blending, and picnics (to be pre-booked).
[11] Further east along towards the mountains, the wine estate, La Bri (established in 1694), offers interesting culinary experiences, i.e., chocolate pairing, Turkish delight pairing, a biltong experience, cheese platters, and picnics.
[12] A choice of activities are possible by either driving (5 minutes), walking (45 minutes), or cycling (20 minutes) up the road (south of town) to the Berg River Dam with new views up the mountain.

Franschhoek as the ‘culinary capital of South Africa’ also boasts a Beer Route (Tuk-Tuk Brewery), a ‘Cap Classique’ route and visits to several exclusive wine farms in the area. Various annual festivals are held in the Franschhoek area, i.e., ‘Franschhoek Uncorked’, Cap Classique & Champagne Festival, Art Festival, Summer Wine Festival, Harvest Festival, Literacy Festival, Shiraz and Charcuterie Festival, Classic Music Festival, and the Bastille Festival.

Compiled by Ingrid Booysen 12 October 2017
Culinary mapping

Conclusion

According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC 2015), the direct contribution of the travel and tourism sector to the South African economy was R127.9 billion. This accounts for 3% of the country’s GDP which is expected to increase by 2.7% in 2017. The importance of food and wine tourism in South Africa is growing. The influence of social media and word of mouth will play an integral role in placing South Africa on the map as a culinary destination – as tourists take pictures of food when they travel and share these experiences. The World Food Tourism Association (www.worldfoodtravel.org/cpages/what-is-food-tourism) reports that travelers spend more money on food and drinks when travelling than when at home, with culinary tourists spending even more.

Tourism based on regional food, drink, agricultural experiences, and the way of life offers a range of opportunities for local communities. The challenge of the tourism industry is to promote a region’s offerings, while ensuring that visitors’ expectations are met. Destination marketing offices and tourism information centers can help to keep data updated and accurate while district councils and municipalities can use the existing tourism database to enhance collaboration. Regional culinary maps can assist visitors in locating local offerings and contribute to ensuring consistency, authenticity and quality of experiences. It reflects ‘place’, enriches experiences, and can be a valuable tool to boost economic, social and community development. A well-developed culinary tourism product imparts the story of heritage, the people, and the landscape of a geographic area. Culinary tourism is often labeled as a niche market, but its potential to motivate and attract travelers is already there, as all tourists eat when they travel (World Tourism Organization 2012).

The chapter illustrates how culinary mapping can be used as a tool when planning gastronomic tourism. Similar maps can be created at regional and local scales. The culinary mapping tool can be enhanced by additional research to uncover other assets and display them visually. A culinary map integrating the different components of agriculture, culture and tourism based on the topography, homogenous food culture, defining dishes, and economic viability will assist tourism planners in arranging culinary journeys using a well-researched tool.

References


Van der Waal, C. (2016). *Wine and Food Tourism in the Western Cape*. WESGRO.


Introduction

Gastronomy is one of the main aspects of tourism which drives people to travel to particular destinations (Ryu and Jang 2006; Seo, Yun, and Kim 2017) to seek uncommon or extraordinary gastronomic experience. Gastronomy is perceived as a representative of territories and culture in tourism. Gastronomic tourism not only adds value in terms of destination image, preserving the local culture and heritage, but also contributes to the economy of a destination. Every country wants to preserve its food legacy through different gastronomic activities (Chong 2012). The cultural appreciation and authenticity have become the trend of gastronomy. The development of gastronomy and tourism reflects the culinary dishes, lifestyle, and reputation of a geographic area (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen 2016). “The concept of gastronomic tourism has evolved to encompass cultural practices and include in its discourse the ethical and sustainable values of the territory, the landscape, the sea, local history, values and culture heritage” (UNWTO 2017:14).

In Malaysia, tourism is one of the biggest contributors to the country’s economy (Ismail and Lai 2015) and it is forecast that the industry will contribute MYR 103.6 billion in Gross National Income (GNI) by 2020 (Pemandu 2013). The government has announced that tourism is one of the key national key economic areas (NKEA) which includes food and beverage sub-sector (Pemandu 2013) in line with the increase in the influx of tourists. In 2016, Malaysia recorded 26.8 million tourist arrivals with the total receipt of MYR 82.1 billion (Tourism Malaysia 2017). The total gross value added of tourism industry in 2015 is MYR 166 billion of which the food and beverages contributed 15.7% and 15.4% for both international and domestic tourism respectively (Department of Statistics Malaysia 2015). Mak, Lumbers, and Eves (2012) recorded that half of the tourism revenues is generated from gastronomic tourism. Previous studies examined the perception of Malaysian cuisines (Roozbeh, Ng, and Boo 2013; Chi, Chua, Othman, and Karim 2013), promoting local cuisines (Jalis, Che, and Markwell 2014), gastronomic routes tourists (Zainal, Zali, and Kassim 2010), sustainability of traditional food (Omar et al. 2011) and heritage food (Omar, Ab Karim, Bakar, and Omar 2015). Nevertheless, Jalis, Che, and Markwell (2014) raised a
pertinent question with regards to authenticity and identity of the local cuisine as tourists are not familiar with the local food.

Malaysia is known as ‘Halal Hub’ (Islamic Tourism Centre of Malaysia 2017); however, the gastronomic tourism is underrated, though the Malaysian government is making an effort to promote the local cuisine via various food carnival, food trail, food fair, etc. Malaysia embarked on a ‘gastrodipomacy’ campaign to promote the country as food paradise. Fabulous Food 1 Malaysia campaign was launched in 2009 to promote the local cuisines, gourmet cuisines in premium restaurants besides acknowledging the hawker and street food (Tourism Malaysia 2009). In the last couple of years, Malaysia is known as a renowned gastronomy destination, as it was ranked 6th best food destination in 2015 (CNN 2015), while Penang was recognised as the world’s top food destinations in 2017 (Bernama 2016). In line with Jalis (2017) and Tikkanen (2007) who stated that local cuisine is an essential tourism product that should be promoted in a wide scale, the government promotes shopping extensively together with gastronomy elements (Tourism Malaysia 2015) to enhance the tourists’ overall experience.

Malaysia comprises of 13 states and 3 federal territories (Musa and Thirumoorthi 2017) thus the dialect, tradition, and local cuisines differs based on the geographical area. Some states such as Penang, Melaka, Sabah, Perak, and Sarawak are more prominent for gastro-tourists (Zainal, Zali, and Kassim 2010). Tourists visit a destination based on the push and pull factors (Nikjoo and Ketabi 2015; Singapore Tourism Board 2008). Thus, efforts can be taken to position Malaysia as a gastronomy destination by promoting the local cuisine offered by each state. According to UNWTO (2017:12), “repositioning the element of gastronomy within the tourism sector cannot be done individually, regardless of how powerful the agent involved is. The complexity of managing a product of this nature requires synergy among a large number of agents within a region”. This implies that the Ministry of Tourism and Culture (MOTAC) has to collaborate with the state government to promote gastronomic tourism in Malaysia for both domestic and international tourists. Availability of relevant information (Karim, Chua, and Salleh 2010) is vital, as it influences the gastro-tourists’ decision making on the selection of destination. Therefore, this study intends to examine how gastronomy is promoted in Malaysia, particularly by Tourism Malaysia, and also the states via social media. This chapter will provide an overview of whether the promotional activities through social media is parallel with the objective of establishing Malaysia as a gastronomy destination. The chapter illustrates the types of information available on the government official websites through the case study, which is presented in the end of the chapter.

Gastronomic tourism in Malaysia

The multi-ethnic composition of the Malaysian population contributes to diversified Malaysian cuisine which has strong influence of Indonesia, China, India, Thailand, and past colonization. One can find Malay, Chinese, Baba and Nyonya, North and South Indian, Korean, Japanese, and western dishes in Malaysia. Some of the cuisines are result of acculturation and assimilation of the local culture. Among the famous Malaysian food include nasi lemak, roti canai, chicken rice, asam laksa, briyani, fried rice, noodles, nasi kerabu, char kuey teow, satay, etc. International fast food chains are available along with hundreds of local restaurants, stalls, food bazaars, night markets, and food trucks.

Views and images about local food and cuisine are rooted in the destination marketing. Local food has been observed to be a vital component of the tourist encounter which
Digital marketing and gastronomic tourism

increases the value of a destination (Quan and Wang 2004). Genuine consideration has been
given by advertisers and governments to the introduction of images and textual portrayal
of local cuisine in advertising materials (illustration travel aides, leaflets, and sites) (Mak,
Lumbers, and Eves 2012). Lately, cooking shows, television slots (Asian Food Channel),
and traditional food related projects are on the rise. A traditional meal portrays the cultural
and lifestyle of a community (Viassone and Grimmer 2015). Some tourists prefer to try
the local or traditional cuisine as they want to learn about the local culture. Unique and
authentic cuisine will shape the image of the destination as more people tend visit a par-
ticular destination for the experience (Sengel et al. 2015). It is irrefutable that food is an
integral part of travelling experience (Zahari, Jalis, Zulfifly, Radzi, and Othman 2009). As
mentioned earlier, Malaysia faces an identity crisis with regard to some of the cuisine, due
to the cultural proximity with the neighboring countries. In the past, there was an uproar
among the Indonesians over the ownership of heritage food such as spring roll and rendang
(TheStarOnline 2015). The government plays a vital role in promoting the heritage and
traditional cuisine; however, it has to be cautious of the identity of the food as it may cause
conflict with other countries.

Digital marketing in gastronomy tourism

Digital and social media are the results of technological advancement and the impact of the
rapid expansion is clearly evident in both consumers’ lives and in those of service provid-
ers’. It is used for various purposes such as information searching, evaluating alternatives,
accessing the consumer generated media, and to market and advertise the product/services
to the consumers. This led to a shift in the way marketers communicate (Stephen 2016) with
their consumers, particularly via digital platforms. Studies have recorded the use of social
and digital marketing in various contexts such as destination marketing (Li, Robinson, and
Oriade 2017; Kotoua and Ilkan 2017), touch points in marketing (Kannan and Li 2017),
mobile social media (Hew, Tan, Lin, and Ooi 2017) etc. Digital marketing tools are websites,
online video, e-mail, blogs, social media, mobile ads and apps, and other digital platforms
to directly engage consumers anywhere, anytime via their computers, smartphones, tablets,
Internet ready TVs, and other digital devices (Kotler and Armstrong 2016: 538). This study
will only focus on the websites used to promote gastronomic tourism in Malaysia. The
website is widely used for seeking pre-travel information related to the destination, tourism
products and services, and online procurement (Pan and Fesenmaier 2006) which shapes the
perception of gastro tourists (Shiu et al. 2015). No and Kim (2015) stated that it is difficult
to provide customized information on a public website which is created by the local, state,
or national organization (Sørum, Andersen, and Vatrapu 2012). The case study provides
an overview of the extent to which information on food is available on the official tourism
board and state websites.
Case study 37.1: Analysis of websites on gastronomic tourism in Malaysia

The official tourism website of Malaysia is www.tourism.gov.my/ which is managed by Tourism Malaysia. In addition, it also maintains YouTube channel, Facebook, and Twitter account. Tourism Malaysia stated that Malaysia is a food paradise, thus this case study focuses on how Malaysia has been promoted as a gastronomy destination via the official website of both promotional board and the state websites.

For the purpose of the analysis, the websites of Tourism Malaysia, Singapore Tourism, and five Malaysian states were analyzed. The official website of Singapore Tourism Board is used as a benchmark and nine inventory of items was generated for the content analysis: (1) links that promote local food on the first page; (2) links to the states (restaurant) that promote local food (dining by states); (3) local dishes; (4) images of cuisines; (5) list of restaurants; (6) videos; (7) dining recommendation/testimonials by food bloggers, celebrities, artists, reviews; (8) food festival/exhibition; (9) food tour. The websites were evaluated based on the presence (1) or absence (0) of the items listed on the coding sheet and calculated each website’s sum total and percentage (see Table 37.1).

Table 37.1 Results of the website analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Websites/Criteria</th>
<th>Singapore</th>
<th>Tourism Malaysia</th>
<th>Penang</th>
<th>KL</th>
<th>Perak</th>
<th>Johor</th>
<th>Sarawak</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Links that promote local food on the first page</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Links to the states (restaurant) that promote local food (dining by states)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local dishes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Images of cuisines</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of restaurants</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Videos</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dining recommendation/testimonials by food bloggers, celebrities, artists, review</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food festival/exhibition</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food tour</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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Generally, the Penang state website (88.9%) fared better than Kuala Lumpur and Johor which represent 66.7% respectively, followed by Perak (55.6%) and Sarawak (44.4%). Tourism Malaysia only scored 33.3% in terms of promoting gastronomic tourism.
**Singapore**

On the main page of the website, there is a tab for ‘Eat and Drink’ with a tagline ‘Taste Something Different, in New Atmosphere, and in New Ways’. The visitor will be able to obtain more information pertaining to local dishes, dining out, a Halal guide, and nightlife in the city. The website contains information on Michelin-starred chefs, information and pictures on types of food, testimonials, and dining recommendations. The dining recommendation was categorized based on the neighborhood and those with Halal certification. In addition, the nightlife section provides information on entertainment and dining including night festivals, club, and bars. Based on the website, it can be concluded that gastronomy tourism is one of Singapore’s tourism products offered to tourists. The website is complete with all the information and the interactive features make it user friendly.

**Tourism Malaysia (www.malaysia.travel/en/my)**

There are two tabs on Tourism Malaysia website, namely ‘Corporate’ and ‘Holiday in Malaysia’. The former does not contain any information on gastronomic tourism except for pictures of food and food blogs, while the latter has a link to the state tourism sites. Horng and Tsai (2010) reported that the content of government tourism websites is very important for promoting a tourist destination’s exciting cuisine and food culture. Gastronomy was not even listed as one of the niche tourism products by Tourism Malaysia. It is interesting to note the Singapore Tourism Board’s emphasis on restaurants with Halal certification which has been disregarded by Tourism Malaysia, despite being the global Halal hub.

**Penang (www.visitpenang.gov.my/portal3/home.html)**

Penang state website is very engaging and the visitors will be able to find information pertaining to the local food, list of restaurants, food festivals (e.g., Penang International Food Festival) etc. recommended by food bloggers. It is a very comprehensive website and it is easy to navigate. One can decide whether to visit Penang for food based on the information available on the website. The state which is known for ‘hawker food’ met all the requirements, except for food tour.


Kuala Lumpur’s tagline ‘The City of Contrast and Diversity’ does not only reflect the people, but also the food. Cuisine and dining have been listed on the things to do in Kuala Lumpur and it was categorized into homgrown, local cuisine, Asian, international, street food, and indoor food court. However, there is no recommendation from celebrities and bloggers, unlike on the Penang website. The food trail provides detailed information pertaining to dining experience in selected areas such as Brickfields, Jalan Alor, Kampung Baru, and Old Kuala Lumpur which is the center for Indian, Chinese, Malay, and fusion cuisines. The Malaysia Halal Guide link is broken, thus the visitor will not able obtain the list of Halal restaurants in Kuala Lumpur.
Perak (http://tourismperakmalaysia.com/)

Ipoh, the capital of Perak and known as Hipster Town was ranked 6th best in the Asia is home for local dishes such as Nga choy kay (beansprout chicken), Ipoh curry mee, Hakka mee, Sar kok liew, Hainanese chicken, Nasi Kandar, Ipoh White Coffee, Soybean Milk and Tau Fu Fah, etc. The cafes and restaurants was listed under The Ipoh Food Trail Project provides information on the types of food and the location of the restaurants. However, there were no videos and testimonials by others. It is clearly evident that Ipoh is promoted as the main gastronomy town in Perak as the website does not contain information on other town or cities in Perak with regards to food.

Johor (http://tourism.johor.my/)

On the main tourism website, the visitors can access the information on food and beverages in each city (Batu Pahat, Johor Bahru, Kluang, Kota Tinggi, Kulai, Mersing, Muar, Pontian, Segamat, and Tangkak). The categorization of tourism elements (accommodation, agro-tourism, history and culture, island and beaches, leisure and entertainment etc.) based on each destination will be convenient for the visitors to plan their trip. Only photos of the restaurants and local cuisines are available; there is no video.

Sarawak (https://sarawaktourism.com/)

Food and nightlife were listed as one of the tourism products offered in Sarawak. Similar to Johor’s website, the local delicacies and cuisines were presented based on each city/town. For instance, the Kuching food trail listed the different types of local dishes and the location of the restaurants. The information on the Pineapple Festival was included in the events category. In addition, the website also provides information on international cuisines while the photo gallery presents the Sarawak local delicacies. There were no blogs on food as the main focus was on the places of attraction.

Conclusion

Singapore has a comprehensive website which reflects that the Tourism Board has successfully positioned the gastronomy experience utilizing digital marketing, particularly the website. It is clearly evident that even though some of states in Malaysia focus on the gastronomic tourism, there is a lack of overall promotional strategy under the big umbrella of Tourism Malaysia. Merely providing the links of each state in the Tourism Malaysia’s website is not sufficient to attract gastro-tourists’ attention. It is high time for the board to consider gastronomic tourism as one of the tourism products as Malaysia is known for the variety of local cuisines that represents the multi-ethnic society. This should be one of the unique selling points in promoting Malaysia. As stated earlier, Tourism Malaysia should streamline the overall strategies with all the states, even though each state has its own tourism board. Standardization in terms of the website would be convenient to the visitors as
some state offer more detailed information than others. Collaboration with the tour operators, tour agents, hospitality industry, food bloggers, airlines, and other relevant parties will boost the gastronomic tourism besides crafting the local cuisine which can be the competitive advantage. However, without the right marketing strategy, this cannot be achieved. The value must be clearly and consistently communicated in order to position the gastronomy product in the mind of the visitors/tourists.

References


38
MOBILE APPLICATIONS TO PROMOTE GASTRONOMIC TOURISM

Dayna Ortner

Tech development and food

Why tech?

Technology has always affected society on a primal level. For centuries, our innovation has centered around the most essential ingredient for survival – food. We have developed weapons for hunting. The mortar and pestle transformed wheat into flour. Kitchen appliances such as mixers, blenders, and food processors are making things faster and more efficient. Technology has fueled gastronomic developments until we reached the heights of fluffy sponge cake.

We are driven to make the act of sourcing food as efficient as possible. Celebrity chefs with television series boast meal creation in less than 30 minutes. The lynchpin is the electric gadgets that make this kind of meal preparation possible. Technology has a perpetual influence how we eat. However, nowadays the hunt for food has you reaching for your smartphone rather than the mortar and pestle. This chapter investigates how technology is changing our eating habits, and explores whether it can help us to eat more sustainably.

From web to mobile

The speed of technological advancement causes many of us feel to older than our time when we refer to the days of floppy disks, never mind that it was a mere 30 years ago they made an appearance. They were soon replaced by USB sticks, and nowadays cloud software. “The adoption of technology is a global phenomenon, and the intensity of its usage is particularly impressive in emerging markets” (Bughin, Chui, and Manyika 2010).

In the same manner, once we have just adjusted to the idea of researching things on the World Wide Web, then enters a new shift in information technology. In an increasing number of countries, sales of mobile devices are overtaking PCs (Titcomb 2016). As a result, we see a growing number of mobile applications on the market. The move to mobile-first was a challenge, even for the big tech companies in Silicon Valley, such as Facebook (Hoffman 2017). Nowadays, it is the norm.

Compared with mobile apps, searching using a computer platform is slow and inefficient. Apps often function as a tailored search engine with a simplified interface, making the search process concise and speedy. Design constraints of size “enforce a rigor and elegance that often
Mobile applications in gastronomic tourism

improve overall usability” (Walters 2012:6). However, there are many people who still prefer the workspace of personal computers and websites, particularly for tasks which require a larger screen. Therefore, the multi-platform approach is ideal (Cerff 2014).

Mobile site vs mobile application

Now, there is debate whether apps will dominate or mobile sites (Nielson 2012). However, Walters (2012) argues that there is not much use in defining which ‘channel’ is best, but rather the emphasis is accessibility of services wherever users are. It is more about mobility than the channel through which is comes – mobile site or mobile application (Chaffey 2017). “In terms of a comprehensive customer experience, in other words, it is folly to shift too much attention to the mobile channel at the expense of other touchpoints.” (Walters 2012:8).

The future is now – The ‘Internet of Things’

The future of tech is already upon us with what has been coined the ‘Internet of Things’. This refers to objects being implanted with sensors and networked together (Buck 2014). Instead of data being generated solely by people, these objects contribute their data to the web in real-time (Rohling 2014). The beginning of this shift can be seen in the transportation industry. Many vehicles are interconnected, so internet access no longer drops out when going through tunnels (Meola 2016). It is also possible to track real-time information about bus services (UK Bus Checker 2017).

In the food industry this looks like ‘smart packaging’, whereby wireless sensors transmit information to retailers and consumers about the conditions of the product, and dates it ought to be consumed (Rohling 2014; Wittet 2017).

In the future, the physical world will have a kind of embedded intelligence. Without delving further into the subject and discussing artificial intelligence, it is easy to see that the implications of this development are countless. The likelihood of it affecting numerous industries is undoubted, changing the way we view and interact with the world.

What’s so snappy about apps?

User interaction

The information pathways of tech are no longer one-way roads whereby companies deliver information to users. These days, the information flows both ways, with some sites and applications being populated by mostly content from the public. If you take away the user generated content, most social media networks are simply a framework and advertising. Some tech companies have found ways to capitalize on this shift, by utilizing user content to build and market their product. The approach has been coined as co-creation (Bughin, Chui, and Manyika 2010).

A prime example of this is the translation of Facebook into other languages. The development of this was care of users’ contributions and artificial intelligence, with translation into the French language only taking one day (Constine 2016; Bughin, Chui, and Manyika 2010). Some apps utilize users as the marketing team. For example, Okazaki (2009) cites how one company engaged young consumers in a mobile-based word-of-mouth campaign, whereby the users of the product were promoting a brand through social media posts, and making referrals.

Another recent example is the Oktoberfest application (Oktoberfest.de 2017) where users can watermark their photographs with the ‘Oktoberfest.de’ logo and share on social media channels.
The users become the marketing representatives of the brand, and responsible for generating content. In such a way, a brand is defined by the users, as much as the company itself.

**People power**

The increase of user contribution to the online world brings with it a measure of power. Social media channels provide a forum for building a collective voice on issues, freedom of speech, and civic engagement. This was demonstrated in the uprisings in the Arab Spring (Brown, Guskin, and Mitchell 2012)

In terms of business, the consumer now holds the power. “Consumers have more choices than ever because of the availability of products and information online, and this vast increase in choices has given them leverage over the big corporations” says Bhasin (2012:1).

This creates a more competitive environment for businesses. Many of the online applications, particularly in the travel and services industry, have capacity for users to leave ratings and reviews. These in turn aids in informing the decisions of other users. Businesses are therefore subject to scrutiny in a public forum, and are compared directly with competitors. The consequences of bad reviews can be dire for business.

**Location-based services**

The location-based services of mobile devices are one of the key defining factors which sets them apart from personal computers. Using satellite information, mobile applications can pinpoint where a user is geographically and offer services according to this information (Techopedia n.d.). This has multiple facets of function; tracking, social, information, and navigation (Agrawal, 2009). One can find where they are on a map, they can ‘check in’ or send location links to friends, find information in the direct surroundings, and navigate to a selected place (Goodrich 2013). No location is foreign, and getting lost is near impossible. For business, this offers the opportunity to provide location specific marketing and advertisement (Goodrich 2013).

**Data**

This type of technology also gives businesses to get a clearer picture of their target audience. The use of data for informing business is not a new idea. However, using mobile applications enables businesses to utilize vast amounts of user information. “Mobile apps provide developers with a great deal of context about users that the web isn’t able to offer” (Alocer 2015). This then enables more targeted marketing campaigns. In a short space of time, businesses can respond to user data, and make decisions regarding pricing, promotions, and shelf allocation of stock (Bughin, Chui, and Manyika 2010).

Businesses can also use reactions on social networks to gauge consumer sentiment (Bughin, Chui, and Manyika 2010). This information enables them to tailor their brand to their users, and create a product which is characteristically perfect for a niche market.

Abundance, overindulging, and tech

**Welcome to the buffet**

The emergence of new technology has had a startling influence on the way we engage with food. Online ordering food services is a booming industry. There is a broad range of information, as
Mobile applications in gastronomic tourism

well as incredible detail about the food on offer. One can virtually visit a restaurant without stepping out the door. Users can view the menu and images of the food – both promotional and user generated – and read reviews and rating, before deciding where to go.

Compared with standing on the street in a new town, when using a mobile application one can gather an extraordinary amount of information in a few clicks. This brings cities to life, with hidden gems and gastronomic delights. The idea of ‘eating like a local’ becomes more feasible.

Mobile applications and food tourism

There are a range of applications in the field of food and tourism. There are those which function as directories, whilst also enabling users to order and pay for food. Some of these directory services are focusing on niche audiences. Providing information for consumers looking for vegan, vegetarian, halal (Henderson 2016), and gluten-free eateries.

Then there is the digitization of food and travel magazines. Here we see some crossover, as blogs and other online mediums for writing on food are transitioning to mobile, such as The Culture Trip (2017).

However, there are also the more comprehensive travel applications, which function as digital guidebook. As well as being more compact, portable, and user-friendly, they have the added enhancement of allowing users to make bookings and payments through the app. In these applications, we see more user-generated content, whereby users leave reviews of accommodation or restaurants. Users are able to plan their travel experience utilizing user reviews and location-based information, with the added convenience of payments and information stored within the app.

There are also event-specific apps for events (Oktoberfest.de 2017) where we see a combination of features: location-based navigation, maps, user-generated photo-sharing, online shopping for merchandise, a lexicon, a quiz, and a webcam feed.

Some of these applications are designed as app-only. Whereas others function on multiple platforms. The multi-platform approach is useful for travelers, as they can research and plan their trip on a PC, which has a larger screen, images, and maps can be viewed in detail. The information is hosted externally, rather than on a user’s PC, and synchronized across the multiple platforms. Therefore, they have the convenience of accessing their trip details when mobile. In this way a well-designed multi-platform service is ideally suited to the tourism industry.

Off the beaten track

One of the most essential components of tourism is the exploration of something beyond one’s norm. Mobile applications enable travelers to do this with a greater level of confidence.

Travel is about the experience, and the experience is about what is unique to that location. Sometimes it’s a challenge in a new city, to find restaurants that aren’t franchised – certain establishments seem to make their way into almost every city in the world. But now we have a way to find unique independent eateries. We can find high quality food, and with it comes the novelty and delight of a local dish.

Having an app can help travelers tap into the local experience with confidence. Most applications have content generated by users allowing them to review establishments, post images, and use ranking systems. There is an increased level of trust in one’s decision about where to eat. It is possible to find the best in that location. So the travel experience is likely to be of a higher quality, more authentic, and also place value on the surrounding community by supporting the local economy.
**Gorged and disconnected**

We have entered an age when we are more connected than ever. Communicating across the globe no longer requires weeks by air mail, but rather a good Wi-Fi connection and a phone. Despite advancements in technology, it seems we have not yet harnessed it in a way which enables us to eat better. The food system is said to be contributing to a number of global issues including climate change, water scarcity, biodiversity loss, animal welfare, and health inequalities (Food Ethics Council 2011). Consumer culture leads to high speed consumption of products, including food. It is more accessible, yet comes to us in plastic via machines.

We are increasingly disconnected from our environment and our origins, no longer sure where food originated or how it gets to us. Sustenance is becoming space age. This problem is set to accelerate, given that an alarming number of children in the developed world have misconceptions about where their food originates (British Nutrition Foundation 2013; Hunjan 2016).

We have developed industry to mass produce food. However, often it is highly processed and lacks nutritional value. Therefore, we have a predicament, whereby the some of the most accessible food, in terms of price and immediate availability, is lacking in nutritional value. Many of the chain food outlets in less affluent parts of town are supplying food that are high in fats and sugars, and highly processed (Slawson 2017). In the U.K., people on low incomes are eating significantly less fruit and vegetables compared to the general population, a factor which is contributing to an increased mortality rate (Strategy Unit 2008; Defra 2010). Eating healthy nutritious food should not be about social status, because we have the resources for everyone to eat well.

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**Case study 38.1: “Good has the power to change everything” Hesterman 2017**

Surely with greater information and search capabilities we can do better. The power of the consumer in the technological age has the power to drive us towards a more ethical and sustainable food system. Can we use smart technology to reconnect with food?

**Fair Food Forager**

To date, most mobile applications promoting gastronomy have focused on imagery and reviews. However, there is an application which delves deeper into what makes a business tick. Fair Food Forager (2017) is a location-based, multi-platform food directory, with an added tier of information on their search platform. The app enables consumers around the world to find and suggest food venues based on the merit of their ethics and sustainability. It addresses 13 categories, which cover where food originates, how it is produced and processed, and its impact on the environment and local community. The contemporary design of the brand aims to appeal to a new generation of food lovers with an eco-conscience and smartphone technology (see Figure 38.1).

The aim of the business is to ‘change the way the world eats by making ethical easy’. Unlike other applications which focus on singular sustainability issues, Fair Food Forager takes a comprehensive approach by addressing multiple issues within one application. Much of the ethos underpinning the movement is directly in line with the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (2015).

The app assists consumers to move away from the perceived convenience of factory food, and leads them into small towns where the local proprietor creates magic in a close-knit community.
Utilizing the ever-growing popularity and convenience of mobile technology, with users having the search tool accessible wherever they are (see Figure 38.2). A restaurant using local in-season produce, without plastic packaging or chemicals can be listed and shared instantly for the next traveler. “It’s about making those values such as ethical eating an easy decision to make. So users can quickly find the nearest place, support a business that is trying to be better, and then have an impact with where they spend their money” says Founder, Paul Hellier (Chidwick 2017). This crowd-based power has the ability to change the marketplace (Labrecque et al. 2013), and in turn can create a business reason for more sustainable practice.

Since its launch in October 2015, the app has grown to 1,200 listings in eight countries, and is rapidly increasing. The growing popularity of the application demonstrates that consumers do care about how their food is sourced, packaged, and transported. They want to know what is going into
their bodies, where it came from, and what happens to it if they cannot finish (Hesterman 2017). Hesterman (2017) also identifies that in the United States, the demand for local food produce is growing, with investment and business opportunities increasing in this field.

People willing to spend their hard-earned money travelling for food want to be supporting the businesses that match their values and deserve their patronage. Mobile applications like Fair Food Forager have the potential to take complex issues such as sustainability and simplify them for consumers. In turn, consumers then have the opportunity to engage with sustainability issues in a way which feels constructive, uplifting, and easy. Figure 38.3 demonstrates how Fair Food Forager is working to create a food system based on these ethical values. The app utilizes modern technology to encourage the consumption of food which has a gentler impact on the planet.

**Can the future connect us with our roots again?**

**How we really want to eat**

In the 21st century, it is foreign to think of a time without microwaves or toasters. In the same way, millennials and iGen generation with think of mobile applications on their smartphone.
“The pace of technology and business change will only accelerate, and the impact of the trends above will broaden and deepen” (Bughin, Chui, and Manyika 2010). Mobile applications are a part of our world, and this world is being increasingly digitized with the implementation of the ‘Internet of Things’.

The progression will continue to impact the gastronomic tourism industry. Bughin, Chui, and Manyika (2010) note that in order to remain competitive in a highly innovative time, organizations must engage with new developments and think creatively about how they do business.

It is the technology which has the capacity to positively influence our food system on a grand scale in cases such as the Fair Food Forager application (2017). As a tool in the hands of consumers, they have the power to build stronger local economies. Together, we can create a food system with greater equality and lighter impact on the planet. The future of this could bring people together and strongly connect us to the simpler food systems of the past. Perhaps it can lead us to how we really want to eat.

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Introduction

Place reputation refers to the ideas and impressions held by external audiences (Parjanen, Hamaakorpi, and Kari 2011). In recent years, scholars have supported the use of this concept in tourism studies (Morgan, Pritchard, and Pride 2011). Place reputation particularly holds value in the case of gastronomic tourism. Consider the difference between place brand and place reputation. Some destinations are able to establish a brand identity and create a strong brand image based on a specific product or type of cuisine. For example, Napa Valley, California is intimately associated with grapes and wine. However, for the countless destinations around the world that are seeking to develop gastronomic tourism, this type of narrowly defined brand may not be appropriate. It may be more fitting for these destinations to cultivate a reputation for gastronomy.

Creating or changing a reputation is not simply a matter of finding the right slogan or graphic. According to Anholt (2011:26), an improved reputation must be based on “profound, widespread, consistent, and sustained changes” in patterns or behavior at a place. This reputation can then be communicated to target audiences. Destination marketing organizations (DMOs) have an important role to play in this process, but especially in today’s online environment, DMOs are only one source of information about a place. Thus, in the process of place reputation management, DMOs must find new ways of engaging audiences and stimulating conversations that will maintain or enhance place reputation both on the destination website and on social media.

This chapter discusses the need for, and efforts by, DMOs to manage places’ reputations for food and gastronomy. The first section provides an overview of place reputation and place reputation management, giving particular attention to the trend toward the ‘soft’ factors of place, including a gastronomic scene. The second section considers some of the challenges to place reputation management in the present online environment. The third and fourth sections offer a brief look at two case studies – Houston, Texas, and Cleveland, Ohio – and the diverse approaches their respective convention and visitors’ bureaus use in online media to support the cities’ growing reputations for gastronomy. Finally, the last section in this chapter reflects on the relationship between gastronomic tourism and place reputation management.
Place reputation management

Nearly two decades ago, Anholt (1998) first used the phrase ‘nation branding’. Yet, he later sought to clarify this terminology. In the introduction to *Places: Identity, Image and Reputation*, he argues that places have ‘brands’ in the sense that they have reputations (Anholt 2009). Reputations are the composite of ideas and impressions about the place held by external audiences (Parjanen, Hamaakorpi, and Kari 2011). These reputations play an important role in the development and success of the place. As a result, places all over the world have sought to improve their reputation as they compete to attract businesses, residents, and tourists (Anholt 2011; Morgan and Huertas 2011; Morgan, Pritchard, and Pride 2011). Once a reputation is established, however, it can be difficult and time-consuming to change peoples’ minds (Morgan, Pritchard, and Pride 2011).

Reputations may be considered cultural phenomena in that they cannot be entirely controlled by stakeholders (Anholt 2009). Nonetheless, stakeholders can have a vision for what ideas they would like people to have about the place, and reputation management encompasses the strategies they will use to work toward that vision (Morgan, Pritchard and Pride 2011). Put simply: “A place’s reputation reflects how *others see it* and how *it sees itself*; its management moves its reputation forward to where it *wants to be seen*” (Morgan, Pritchard, and Pride 2011: 17, emphasis in original). For place reputation management to be effective, stakeholders must have a clear understanding of how the place is perceived as well as what the place is (Anholt 2011). Management efforts must appropriately reflect the reality of the place (Vitiello and Wilcocks 2011). Changing the reputation may depend on changing this reality.

Anholt (2011) argues that places seeking to become more ‘famous’ through branding and marketing should, in fact, seek to become more relevant by making contributions in the areas that are important to people today. Similarly, Pritchard, Morgan, and Pride (2011) contend that stakeholders should pursue a holistic approach to place reputation management. In this approach, the idea of place conveyed to audiences is that of a place that is attractive to live and work as well as to visit. Creativity is regarded a key factor in this idea, especially with respect to urban areas (Parjanen, Hamaakorpi, and Kari 2011). The standardization and placelessness of shopping malls and chain restaurants has long been regarded as a problem in tourism (Smith 2007b). With an increasingly discerning tourist market, tourists are more likely to be interested in visiting places that have a unique character (Smith 2007a).

The development of creative clusters, or ‘hot spots’ of creative industries, increases the attractiveness of places (Richards 2011). These creative clusters enhance places’ ‘soft’ factors, which include people, culture, and experiences (Morgan, Pritchard, and Pride 2011). This development of creative clusters precipitates not only a change in the physical landscape of the place, but also the human landscape as well, as the area draws in new residents. The development of a particular creative cluster can help establish a ‘theme’ for the place (Richards and Wilson 2007). For example, the emergence of an exciting and high-quality gastronomic scene has the potential to become an important theme for a place (Nelson 2015). Gastronomy is recognized as a creative tourism experience (Rogerson 2006), but it also has the potential to reflect what the place is and what it means for the people who live there.

These developments in a place have significant implications for place reputation. For Richards (2011:1240), “Creativity becomes a backdrop for ‘cool’ places”. Likewise, Anholt (2011:25) argues, “The place produces a buzz; people start to pay attention and prepare themselves to change their minds”. With the rise in popularity of food in the media and the culture
of celebrity chefs (Gyimóthy and Mykletun 2009; Hall and Mitchell 2000; Henderson 2009),
gastronomy holds significant potential to generate this ‘buzz’. This can be seen in the prolif-
eration of articles and rankings of ‘best’ or ‘hottest’ food cities (e.g., Travel + Leisure’s Best
Cities for Food in the United States, U.S. News’s Best Foodie Cities in the USA, Zagat’s
Hottest Food Cities, etc.).

Food, drink, and eating experiences can provide a key resource for many destinations, yet
these destinations will not necessarily be considered substitutable. Ingredients, products, or
experiences may be tied to the place’s environment (e.g., what can be produced there) and/
or its people (e.g., cultural traditions or fusions). Thus, any given place has the potential to
offer a unique gastronomic experience. Additionally, a reputation for gastronomic tourism
has the potential to encourage a greater place loyalty than is generally seen among urban
destinations. Tourists are less likely to return to a city with specific attractions once they
have had the experience (Ashworth and Page 2011). However, tourists will be unable to
experience all that a gastronomic destination has to offer in a single visit. Provided the des-
tination lives up to its reputation, tourists may wish to return for more gastronomic experi-
ences (Nelson 2015).

The online challenge to reputation management

The development of interesting and high-quality products and experiences provide the basis
on which a reputation for gastronomic tourism is based. Tourism marketing is at the forefront
of shaping and managing the ideas that are communicated to audiences to foster this reputation
(Morgan, Pritchard, and Pride 2011). However, DMOs represent only one source of informa-
tion and images that comprise reputations (Morgan and Huertas 2011). Moreover, today’s
online environment has created many new challenges to reputation management.

Traditional destination websites have become less important as a source of information.
These websites were based on longstanding marketing concepts that presented positive images
of the places and ideas that would create a sense of differentiation from other destinations
(Amersdorffer, Bauhuber and Oellrich 2012; Lim, Chung and Weaver 2012). In recent years,
such sites have been criticized as providing limited and mainstream information without
offering diverse views or insight into varied aspects of the destination (Munro and Richards
2011). Perhaps more significantly, these websites have been viewed as a one-way conver-
sation with consumers (Lim, Chung, and Weaver 2012). In modern online communication,
Jones, Temperley, and Lima (2009) argue that this type of monologue is no longer effective
or appropriate.

News and popular media have been influential in shaping peoples’ perceptions of places
(Kotler and Gertner 2011), but online communication now represents a vital media in shap-
ing reputation (Marchiori and Cantoni 2011). This media includes corporate and personal
blogs, microblogs, photo and video sharing sites, social networking sites, online com-
munities, and review sites. Consumers are increasingly seeking information from these
sources (Dijkmans, Kerfhof, and Beukboom 2015). For example, Hays, Page, and Buhalis
(2013) report that, in 2010, VisitBritain’s Facebook page received 53 million views. By
way of comparison, VisitBritain’s destination website received 18 million views. While
traditional media sources may or may not have supported the messages communicated
by destination stakeholders, social media represents “uncontrolled arenas for participa-
tion” (Dijkmans, Kerfhof, and Beukboom 2015:59). This content is beyond the control of
destination stakeholders and presents a potential risk to place reputation (Marchiori and Cantoni 2011).

As stated by Morgan, Pritchard, and Pride (2011:6), “The DMO never controlled the product. Today, they can’t even control the message”. Nonetheless, as DMOs seek to manage place reputation, they must continue to work to find new and diverse ways of reaching audiences and new ways of incorporating other voices. In this process, DMOs must reinvent the destination website (Munro and Richards 2011). For example, stakeholders might provide spaces for users to comment on website content, add a destination blog, or create an online community. DMOs must also establish a social media presence (see Chapters 33 and 34). Social media represents an opportunity to engage consumers in online conversations rather than simply replicating the same imagery and promotional strategies used on the website (Nelson 2017). For instance, stakeholders might encourage the use of a hashtag that will allow user content to tell the destination’s story. In addition to participating in these discussions, DMOs should monitor them (Dijkmans, Kerfof, and Beukboom 2015; Jones, Temperley, and Lima 2009). This will contribute to a better understanding of how the destination is perceived, which is a vital foundation for developing strategies to manage place reputation (Anholt 2011).

Thus, DMOs seeking to manage a reputation for gastronomic tourism must be aware of what audiences think about the destination’s gastronomic scene, and they must find innovative ways to engage audiences in conversations about food and eating in that place. For the most part, DMOs are responsible for ‘the big picture’; while it may highlight specific products, dishes, cuisines, or experiences in marketing materials, the organization is primarily concerned with the overall interest in gastronomy at the destination. In this regard, DMOs have an advantage over tourism businesses in navigating online challenges. For a business, reputation is closely associated with the perception of the quality of its products or experiences (Marchiori and Cantoni 2011). Negative user-generated content (UGC) in personal blogs, on social networking sites, or on review sites can be very damaging to the business’s reputation. For the DMO seeking to stimulate online conversations about gastronomy, even negative responses can work to that aim. For example, the DMO posts a picture of a particular food or dish on a social networking site and a follower has an adverse reaction. The negative feedback about that item is unlikely to have a significant impact on the overall reputation of the destination. However, other followers may respond to his or her comment, which keeps the conversation going and the topic in users’ newsfeeds.

Specific online reputation management strategies will vary depending on the destination’s gastronomic resources, the extent to which its gastronomic scene is developed, and its present reputation for gastronomic tourism. This chapter considers two possible scenarios in the cases of Houston, Texas and Cleveland, Ohio. After struggling with unfavorable reputations, both American cities have benefitted from a growing reputation for gastronomic tourism. The following sections examine the efforts of the Greater Houston Convention and Visitors Bureau (GHCVB) and Destination Cleveland (DC) in managing these reputations in online media.
Case study 39.1: Houston, Texas

Although Houston, Texas, is the fourth largest city in the United States of America, it has long suffered from a poorly defined reputation at best and a negative reputation based on stereotypes at worst. Many popular and travel media features on the city reflect on this reputation. In just one example, the author of an article titled ‘The new Houston: It’s not what you think’ wrote, “This was not the Houston of the cattle drives, oil tycoons, or petrochemical industry, which is what most people think about when this city comes to mind, if they think of it at all” (Barnett 2009:115). In recent years, however, the city has experienced a changing reputation lead by ‘soft’ factors, such as creativity and diversity. The rise of a vibrant local gastronomic scene in the city has, in particular, been a key part of this. Unique, high-quality, and affordable eating and drinking experiences have provided a distinct attraction for tourism and a significant opportunity in place reputation management.

‘Restaurants’ is one of the primary categories on Visit Houston, the official visitors’ website. The opening restaurant page sets the tone for Houston as a well-developed and diverse gastronomic destination:

With 10,000 restaurants representing cuisine from more than 70 countries and American regions, Houston’s restaurant scene is as ethnically diverse as its more than 6-million residents. With so many options, it’s not surprising that visitors leave the city with plenty of good things to say about dining in Houston.”

This page includes a brief video introducing Houston as a gastronomic destination and featured articles. These articles reflect those foods typically associated with Texas, like the best steak-houses and barbecue restaurants, as well as the diverse international cuisines highlighted in the quote above. The latter is particularly emphasized, as cultural diversity has been an important part of Houston’s changing reputation. This section also contains an extensive list of local restaurants and chefs that have received awards or other distinctions. This information serves as external certification of the quality of the experience for readers.

This opening page also includes teasers (i.e., a brief statement) and links to restaurant review-style descriptions of 974 local restaurants. In recognition of the importance of user reviews among today’s audiences, this part of the site also includes information on TripAdvisor ratings for those restaurants that have a sufficient number of reviews (i.e., 40 or more) and a link to the restaurant page on the review site. Overall, this portion of the Visit Houston website provides audiences with comprehensive information about food and eating at the destination, but it does not represent a significant departure from traditional information dissemination and marketing strategies.

The Visit Houston website now also offers other perspectives and voices. The ‘Houston in the News’ section offers teasers and links to articles on the city featured in a variety of news, popular, and travel media sources. The most recent article posted at the time of writing is titled ‘Why Houston’s Food Scene Deserves the Hype’ (Tesauro 2017). The teaser reads, “Houston is like New York City with its density of mom and pop ethnic restaurants.” This puts Houston on par with a place with a far more powerful reputation, and it is likely to be viewed as more credible because it is coming from a source other than the DMO. Collectively, the articles make a powerful impression. In just the teasers for the articles, 44 per cent reference
food, drink and/or dining. Additionally, the Houston Blog includes 79 posts in the ‘Dining’ category written by different authors on events, trends, and insider perspectives on the city’s gastronomy. While these posts will not be viewed as unbiased, they offer alternatives to promotional information and an opportunity to participate in the conversation through the comments section.

*Visit Houston* can also be found on Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, Pinterest, and Instagram. In some instances, posts on social media sites direct users back to the *Visit Houston* website to view specific content. For example, a post on the *Visit Houston* Facebook page on July 15, 2017 reads, “Just looking at a picture of BBQ made me hungry. Cure your hunger with delicious meats from these #Houston locations”. The post included a photograph of assorted barbecued meats and a link to the *Visit Houston* article ‘20 awesome BBQ spots in Houston’. This particular post was liked 285 times, shared 84 times, and received 18 comments. Posts also cross-reference social media sites. In another post on the *Visit Houston* Facebook page (July 30, 2017), users are encouraged to check out a list of Houston’s 10 most ‘Instagrammed’ restaurants.

Social media also creates opportunities for conversations both between users and between users and the DMO. On ‘National Fried Chicken Day’ (July 6, 2017), *Visit Houston* posted a list of the city’s ‘9 Must-Try Fried Chicken Spots’. Several users tagged friends in comments, which then generated discussion between users about restaurants on the list or featured foods. In such cases, users perpetuate the conversation independent of the DMO. One user lamented that none of the restaurants on the list were in her area. A member of the *Visit Houston* marketing and communications department responded by asking the user where she lived and offering to make suggestions more specific to that area. This quick and friendly response helps foster goodwill among users and encourages others to ask questions that will yield more personalized recommendations. Not all comments were positive. For example, some users complained that their favorite restaurant did not make the list. However, this does not necessarily diminish the destination’s reputation for gastronomy; in fact, it could lend support to the DMO’s claims to its extensive local restaurant options.

Hashtags also help keep the conversation going. The *Visit Houston* social media sites include a ‘photo of the day’, which is frequently a photo shared by users with the hashtag #MyHouston. While this is not restricted to food and drink, it contributes to the city’s reputation for gastronomy when these items are featured in such posts. Other frequently used hashtags include #houstoneats (included in over 117,000 Instagram posts), #houstonfood (included in over 129,000 Instagram posts), and #houstonfoodie (included in over 89,000 Instagram posts).
Case study 39.2: Cleveland, Ohio

In the first half of the twentieth century, Cleveland, Ohio, was a thriving industrial city, but industrial waste led to extreme pollution. In 1969, an oil slick on the Cuyahoga River caught fire, and the city became a symbol of environmental degradation. Like Houston, the media continues to reflect on this reputation. In an article titled ‘Cleveland, once called the mistake on the lake, is on the cusp of cool’, the author wrote,

I am sitting on the deck of a once-derelict building that is now the city’s trendiest micro-brewery, watching the sun set over old smokestacks, the arches of early 20th century bridges and a river that once burned, and I am thinking that something intriguing is happening in Cleveland.

(Golden 2017)

As indicated in this quotation, the city’s reputation is starting to change. This is partially attributed to ‘hard’ factors, including improved environmental quality and redevelopment of the industrial infrastructure. However, it is also partially attributed to ‘soft’ factors similar to those seen in Houston. From Cleveland’s industrial heritage, the city has strong ethnic traditions that have traditionally influenced its gastronomic scene. Additionally, the rise of local celebrity chefs has been instrumental in bringing new attention to the city. Gastronomy has become a key part of Cleveland’s tourism and instrumental in place reputation management.

Gastronomy on Destination Cleveland’s This is Cleveland website is similar to that of the Visit Houston site. ‘Restaurants’ is a principal category, and the introduction on that page reads: “We don’t have to brag about our restaurants. The food networks and James Beard Foundation have been doing it for years. Make sure to pack your appetite.” The restaurant page also includes feature articles (e.g., an article on one of Cleveland’s well-known historic restaurants) and links to learn more about specific experiences (e.g., breweries). The ‘Find Restaurants’ section offers a list of 198 restaurants, bars, and breweries, a brief description of each, location information, and links to the business’s website and any social media pages.

While each of these sections provides practical information for visitors about eating and drinking in Cleveland, they also create opportunities to talk about the city in ways that embrace its past as well as emphasize its changes. For example, one link features Cleveland chefs. The teaser on the restaurant page reads: “Clevelanders know these top chefs by their first names. And, by the time you leave Cleveland, you’ll know them too …”. Several chef biographies are linked to rock and roll in reference to one of the city’s biggest attractions, the Rock and Roll Hall of Fame. Others highlight sustainable practices to illustrate how far the city has come from the 1960s. Another link highlights 24 local breweries. The teaser reads: “Our blue-collared past combined with the city’s entrepreneurial spirit means craft beer runs like water around these parts.” For a place that is still working to change its reputation, food and drink is both a part of the new reputation and an important means of communicating a new reputation.

Thus, the website has a role to play in place reputation management. As with Visit Houston, the website generally represents traditional communication. Although articles include a comments section, few have any responses. In recognition of the importance of social media, however, This is Cleveland also offers a ‘social hub’ that allows viewers to see tweets or Instagram photos on specific themes (e.g., Eat + Drink) directly from the website. This section also includes
the Clevelander’s Blog. Rather than the typical online journal style, though, the destination blog primarily informs viewers of upcoming events (e.g., the Taste of Tremont)

This is Cleveland also has accounts on Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, Pinterest, and Instagram. Beverages, typically beer, appear slightly more frequently in Facebook posts and tweets than food items. Nonetheless, food is used to stimulate conversation. For example, a post from July 10, 2017 includes a link to an Eater article titled ‘Why Cleveland takes brown mustard so very seriously: How the vinegar-based condiment sparked a decades-long rivalry’. This generated 219 reactions, 90 shares, and 24 comments and responses regarding individual preferences.

On Pinterest, the introduction to the Food board reads, “Nationally recognized as a foodie paradise, Cleveland is home to a 100-year-old public market, the likes of a true ‘Iron’ Chef, several James Beard Foundation Award winners and more than 117 ethnicities represented throughout the culinary scene.” Seventy-six pins take users to This is Cleveland articles, other media articles, and featured local business websites. The most frequently pinned item – pinned over 9,800 times – is a picture captioned “Pierogi is a CLE staple”. A separate board features beer, wine, spirits, and cocktails featuring local microbreweries or wineries.

Destination Cleveland actively encourages the use of #ThisisCLE on social media. The website includes a call for locals to “amplify the message” by posting photographs of people and places that represent the city with the hashtag. The hashtag includes over 580,000 posts on Instagram, including but not restricted to, food and drink. Other frequently used hashtags include #clefood and #cleeats (both included in over 21,000 Instagram posts) as well as #clefoodie and #clefoodies (included in over 14,000 Instagram posts).

Conclusion

Both Houston and Cleveland have suffered from unfavorable reputations. The former has had a slight advantage: it is larger and more economically significant and its image has often been vague and poorly defined. This provided an opportunity to create a new identity and promote a new image. The city’s high level of ethnic diversity helped lay the foundation for a distinctive local gastronomic scene, which has become an integral part of Houston’s changing reputation. Cleveland has struggled with depopulation, economic diversification, and a strongly negative image. This city is working hard to change this image, and food and drink has played an important role getting people to think about it in new ways.

The respective DMOs are at the forefront of place reputation management efforts. Their official visitor websites tell the destinations’ stories to those who are interested, but they are also experimenting with new ways to attract attention. The article and blog formats allow information to be easily accessible from various social media platforms (e.g., a tweet “daring” followers to check out a Houston blog post on chili in the city). In addition, both have found ways to integrate social media into their sites.

In the context of today’s online environment, DMOs cannot control place reputation. Thus, much of place reputation management involves facilitating the conversation on social media. DMOs must work to get people talking about desired aspects of place – in this case food, drink, and gastronomic experiences. Posting or tweeting provocative images or statements on social media serves this purpose, especially if it stimulates debate in which users seek to draw other friends or contacts into the conversation. Finally, encouraging the use of hashtags helps harness the ‘talking’ that people are already doing about gastronomy at the destination.
References


Introduction

Consumer-generated content is a topic of high relevance in the hospitality industry, particularly from the practice side. The knowledge and experience the service suppliers shared through the different electronic word of mouth (eWOM) channels can have a great impact on driving the demand. From the academic point of view, there are deep analyses in the area of consumer’s behavior, as well as in the hospitality sector, though there are only a few studies with a particular focus on gastronomy and service suppliers in the point. The main objective of the chapter is to give an overview of the theoretical background of eWOM on consumers’ behavior in general and lay the focus on the gastronomy industry by introducing the main research in the area with a special focus on gastronomy blogs, as emerging and popular tools nowadays. Finally, the most important topics will be crystallized for further research, and we are also going to determine the most important factors affecting consumers who follow the user-generated content.

In the first part of this chapter, the basic theories will be presented, which are related to the gastronomic tourists’ behavior. Thereafter the importance of eWOM on the side of user-generated content will be introduced. The appearance of the Internet resulted in the existence of electronic word of mouth, which has a prominent influence on information transmission. Users have been provided with extensive opportunities to share their experiences: they could give pieces of advice and also evaluate products and services through different platforms like Facebook, TripAdvisor, or Instagram. Beside these platforms, bloggers and vloggers also have a major impact on the consumers’ decision-making process, because gastronomic blogs and vlogs have become a new information source for the self-conscious consumer.

The web-based opinion platforms hold valuable sources for making a consumer decision on an intangible, and nowadays more and more with experience-focused products like gastronomy, according to several authors (Zhang et al 2010; Jeong et al. 2011; Wang 2011; Ganzaroli 2017). On the other hand, there is a lack of research in the area. The research on the topic focus on mainly on content analysis of reviews of TripAdvisor to see how different dimensions (like food quality, environment, service quality, price, or the design of the food) have an impact on the online turnover of the service suppliers.
Every researcher highlighted the fact that the relationship between blogs and gastronomy is under-researched. Most of these studies are related to the culture or travel blogs. This is the reason why our case study will introduce a special case in Hungary where a gastro-blogger works on developing a touristic region with a special focus on gastronomy. Our research method tool is the content analysis of the blog and also the user-generated content (comments or reviews) on Instagram and Facebook. The findings of this study are to provide insights on the perceptions of consumers and the influence of the gastronomy on the consumer.

The connection between the eWOM and the consumer decision-making process

Word-of-mouth communication has a prominent role in shaping consumers’ attitudes and behaviors which is widely accepted in the field of consumer decision-making processes by the researchers (Brown and Reingen 1987; Harrison-Walker 2001). According to Harrison-Walker (2001), WOM has a greater influence than advertising in newspapers, magazines and radio, or personal selling. In the traditional WOM, consumers collect their information from close friends, family, or relatives. The appearance of the internet allowed the development of electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM), where the consumers share their experience with each other through the Internet (Duhan et al. 1997). According to Westbrook (1987), eWOM means an internet-based informal communication that is related to an exact product, service, or their sellers directed at consumers. Litvin, Goldsmith, and Pan (2008) supplemented this definition with the aspect of the communication between producers and consumers and between consumers themselves. To understand the relevance of eWOM, we have to introduce the differences between WOM and eWOM:

1. WOM is a face to face verbal communication, eWOM is in written form in cyberspace; its influence lasts longer
2. WOM is a form of communication between familiar people, eWOM is impersonal
3. eWOM disrupts the limits of time and location
4. marketing professionals can manipulate online information and the user-generated content through the eWOM (Wang 2011).

When consumer decision-making is examined, eWOM becomes important as a communication tool and it also becomes an important information resource on this field, so we have to introduce the connection between these two notions.

Decision making is a process of making a choice from a number of alternatives to achieve a desired result.

(Lunenburg 2010:2)

This definition has three important elements. First, there are number of opportunities in the process of decision-making. Second, these opportunities mean more than simply a final choice from alternatives. Finally, the desired result means a point when the decision-maker engages to reach the final decision. After identifying the problem, consumers collect the alternative solutions to the problem, which are carefully evaluated. After that, consumers select the best alternative (Lunenburg 2010).

Consumer behavior contains decisions, experiences, activities, and ideas that gratify consumers’ needs (Cohen, Prayag, and Moital 2014). The consumer needs mean a longer or shorter period in the decision-making process to purchase a specific product or service. The extent of
decision-making process time is influenced by several factors like the stages of the consumers’ purchase decision-making process. These stages are: problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, purchase and post-purchase behavior (see Figure 40.1.) (Hofmeister-Tóth 2014; Kotler et al. 2005; Lunenburg 2010). When the consumers make routine purchases, they usually leave some of these stages, although they use the model when they should make a new and complex purchase decision.

In this model, eWOM appears in the stages of information research and post-purchase behavior. The information searching process can be external and internal, active or passive. Searching on the web is an active external searching form when the consumers seek for information about a particular product or service on websites, blogs, or vlogs. In the phase of post-purchase behavior, consumers will have the opportunity to express their opinion about the product or service, its price, or the quality of service, thereby helping the prospective consumer (Hofmeister-Tóth 2014).

This chapter requires the introduction of consumers’ reviews and the consumers as well. Consumers’ reviews help to create a general image of the product and they also help to decrease the pre-purchase uncertainty and the post-purchase compunction. Collectively, the eWOM is equal to the faceless reviewers in the electronic world (Litvin, Goldsmith, and Pan 2008).

Internet users encourage each other to rate and write reviews of services and products – these reviews are called eWOM. This opportunity offers greater anonymity (Bronner and de Hoog 2010). Other key factors in the field of consumer behavior and electric word-of-mouth is the credibility. The source credibility has enormous influence on defining the use of information sources. Virtual communities have greater influence on tourism because consumers would rather trust their peers than marketing specialists and their messages (Buhalis and Law 2008).

Consumers are critics and evaluators and can have prejudices nowadays. We could call them ‘enlightened consumers’, so companies can be happy if their customers do not criticize them. These days the enlightened consumers are collecting the information through social media. Producers have to be thankful that the consumers choose the company; consumers may also expect to receive discounts or gifts in return, otherwise consumers will not recommend the company (Töröcsik 2014).

We also have to investigate the connection between eWOM and consumer behavior from the side of tourism before we move on to the topic of gastronomy. Consumer behavior is one of the most researched areas in the marketing field, which is closely related to the tourism field, with terms like travel behavior or tourist behavior, typically used to define the interest of this area (Cohen, Prayag, and Moital 2014). In the research field of consumer behavior, the literature is more advanced and wider in the marketing area than in the field of tourism. Based on Cohen, Prayag, and Moital’s (2014) study, consumer behavior can be understood in the field of tourism by studying tourism consumption from the side of the unique, hedonic, and emotive aspects, and how they are bound in daily and quality life in general. Tourism consumption and decision-making processes are usually emotional and personal, but consumer

Figure 40.1 Consumers’ purchase decision-making process model.
behavior research in tourism is mostly based on rationality, without taking into consideration the hedonic and emotional aspects of tourism consumption (Decrop and Snelders 2004).

Litvin, Goldsmith, and Pan (2008) also state that emotion is an important aspect of the decision-making process in tourism and his opinion is that hospitality and tourism products are highly risky due to this emotional viewpoint (Lewis and Chambers 2000). eWOM can be a solution to reduce this high-risk of the process of decision-making. There are positive and negative effects of WOM/eWOM in the literature review: Litvin, Goldsmith, and Pan (2008) have reported New Zealand based research where the negative WOM affected the destination’s image in a wrong way. According to O’Neill, Palmer, and Charters (2002), the positive WOM increased the demand for wine tourism in Australia; 67 per cent of US travelers have used the Internet to seek information on a destination based on the data of Travel Industry Association of America (2005).

Hospitality and tourism companies started to apply popular bloggers and vloggers to attract the consumers to their places. These steps from the side of providers are especially important because thereby they could reach expressly the target group of the company and they might build an engaged consumer community (Litvin, Goldsmith, and Pan 2008). Specific blogging themes are fashion, sports, culture, and tourism, which provide up-to-date and detailed information. According to Magno’s (2017) study, blogs are more dependable and dynamic than the other media sources and the traditional online sources. Bloggers, like opinion leaders, use a two-step flow theory (Katz and Lazarsfeld 1955), which is about mediating the transmission of information and increasing its influence. Magno (2017) highlights that blogs have an outstanding influence on the decision-making process in the field of tourism like purchasing wine.

**The importance of eWOM in the field of restaurants**

Web 2.0 held great changes as well as challenges for the hospitality industry. By empowering the visitors, the consumer’s reviews became one of the main drivers of the turnover (Garcia et al. 2017; Scott and Orlikowski 2009). The so-called eWOM plays an important role in the market of restaurants as well, and the particular reason for this from the consumer’s point of view is to reduce the risk of intangibility (Jeong et al. 2011; Park et al. 2015).

The main areas of research analyze the different motivations and impact of review sites of restaurants. According to Zhang et al. (2010), web-based reviews play a key role in consumers’ decision-making process, particularly in the step of collecting information on websites. The research question analyzed by them was to see what kind of reviews motivate the potential guests to visit the website of the reviewed restaurant. Using the popular review sites of Dianping.com, they concluded that reviews about good food quality, environment, and service are in correlation with a visit to the website of the particular restaurant while there is no connection with the information about the prices.

Regarding the main motivations of posting on review sites, the basic reasons are 1. concern for others; 2. expressing positive feelings; 3. helping company. Based on their quantitative results, Jeong et al. (2011) found that people who experienced good food quality post their positive reviews so as to help the restaurants. While sharing positive opinions of service quality is motivated by expressing the positive feelings, price fairness was not a motivation to write online reviews.

TripAdvisor serves popular platforms for analyzing eWOM activities toward restaurants, particularly in popular destinations like Venice, London, or New York. Ganzaroli (2017) researched the reviews and the turnover of restaurants in Venice, and concluded that the distribution of the ratings is determined by the network effect, which is primarily connected to the
locations of the restaurants: the best located restaurants are rated on the highest level, firstly, because of the central location, secondly, because of the staff in the street driving guests to the restaurant. Based on these views, we can say that in the case of Venice’s central restaurants, the ratings are not reliable.

Further popular review site – mainly in the Anglo-Saxon countries – is Yelp, assuring a platform for further research, particularly in the area of analyzing the usefulness as well as the enjoyment assured by certain reviews of restaurants. According to Park et al. (2015), the extreme ratings are regarded as most useful by the latest reviewers, while reviews with photos and expertise seems to be the most entertaining on Yelp.

There is a lack of research considering social media platforms like Facebook. Kang et al.’s (2014) main objective was to see what kind of benefits fans gain on the Facebook fan page of restaurants. The research showed that social-psychological impact of being part of a community was one of the most important benefits, as well as gaining reliable information on certain restaurants.

Analyzing photos is a new area of researching eWOM connected to restaurants. Holmberg et al. (2016) focused on young people posting food photos to Instagram. According to the research, on the one hand, most of the photos were of food with high calories and only 20 per cent of the images contained fruit or vegetables, on the other, situations, like the place of the consumption and the people around got an important role in the photos as well.

As a summary, it can be said that review sites serve as great platforms for analyzing eWOM of restaurants, particularly with the method of qualitative research. Further important direction is to analyze what kind of experience makes people share content about their consumption, as well as to see the impact of peer-to-peer contacts in the case of restaurants’ Facebook sites. The topic can be analyzed from a further point of view by answering the questions regarding what kind of reviews, photos, and content can make people choose one service supplier instead of another followed by visiting the restaurant, which channel is the most important nowadays, or how online trust works in the area, what are the impacts and motivations of posting photos about experience in restaurants to Instagram.

Gastronomy and the gastronomic bloggers’ influence

Based on Kivela and Crotts (2006), gastronomy in the scientific way means the art of cooking and good eating; it also studies the relationship between culture and food. They define the meaning of gastronomy, which consists of several inter-related branches, as art and science that has a direct relation with chemistry, literature, biology, geology, history, music, philosophy, psychology, sociology, medicine, nutrition, and agriculture. Gastronomic tourism is a prominent segment in tourism in the viewpoints of culture and destination.

Several synonyms of gastronomic tourism exist, like culinary tourism, cuisine tourism, food tourism, gourmet tourism, or street food tourism. Summarizing the definitions of gastronomy tourism, all definitions mentioned the importance of local food and food-related experiences. It is also a learning procedure to understand and discover other cultures and destinations. However, the authentic experience is also a significant viewpoint for today’s travelers. In conclusion, we could mention that gastronomy is a niche segment in tourism, which is capable of offering authentic experience to travelers (FAO 2008; Privitera and Nesci 2015; Hall and Sharples 2008; Long 1998; Hall and Sharples 2003; Kivela and Crotts 2005; Ontario Culinary Tourism Alliance 2014; UNESCO 2012).
Gastronomic tourists are significantly involved in gastronomy like tasting, preparing, experiencing, experimenting, researching, discovering, understanding, and writing about food and beverages (Kivela and Crotts 2005). Gastronomy is one of the main components of tourism. Destinations use gastronomy as a marketing tool to promote their culture, and tourism is the connection to link them and create supply for the consumers (Gyimóthy 1999). The foodie bloggers and vloggers also have a major impact on a destination; they have a positive influence on visiting a tourism destination according to Chen, Shang, and Li (2014).

Gastronomy blogs are gastronomic journals of the Internet usually in diary form. Gastronomy blogs include the writer’s experiences and reviews referring to local food and beverages tasting. In recent years, there have appeared more gastronomy blogs which are becoming an important channel for eWOM, also a popular source of reading material for gastronomic fans, but only a few studies present the influence of blogs on the readers. Most of the studies are connected to cultural and travel blogs (Wang 2011; Magno 2017), and according to Fields (2002), these studies focus on the habits and geographies of taste and there are only a few studies about the demands of gastronomic tourism. Fields (2002) noted that motivation is the center of the desire travelers have to visit different destinations and experience their gastronomy. Based on Wang’s (2011) study, there are three categories which help to understand the influence of gastronomy blogs on tasting local food and beverage: inspiring taste desire, forming taste awareness, facilitating interpersonal interaction. These categories can affect the blog readers’ behavior to taste different cultures’ gastronomy. Gastronomy blogs can help to rebuild the reputation of a gastronomic location, including the food quality, service quality, or eating environment (Cohen and Avieli 2004). Nevertheless, people share their experiences, feelings, photos, and information on blogs. It means that gastronomy blog readers and writers can generate cyber-social environment, which did not exist before. Ranking of different blogging topics represent that food, beverage, and food-related topics are in the 3rd place among the top topics on blogging according to Wang (2011).

Gastronomy bloggers focus on food, so we can call them food bloggers as well. They make notes on restaurants, recipes, food styling, or food ethics. The community of food blog lovers has expanded and more people have the opportunity to get in touch with food-related experiences directly on the Internet and share them with their own friends and family (Lofgren 2013). The findings of blogs are very useful data sources, but also underutilized. Researchers can find consumer-centric perspectives in them on tourism experiences which could influence the management and marketing and shape other consumers’ expectations who use user-generated content on the Internet for reading reviews of the offer of destinations (Zehrer, Crotts, and Magnini, 2011). Bosangit, Hibbert, and McCabe’s (2015) study introduce the relevance of travel blogs where consumers could see an image of a destination, an evaluation of that destination, and the tourist behavior. More specifically, this includes the climate, transport, attractions of the destinations, regional specific stereotypes, culture, and the cuisine as well. Blogs have an under-research factor, a self-expressive function, which means that bloggers tell their stories and use their own words. The travel blogs could help to create the conceptualization of tourist experiences (Bosangit, Hibbert and McCabe 2015).
Case study 40.1: The positive influence of eWOM through a specific gastronomy blog

In our case study, we introduce a Hungarian gastro-blogger who works on developing a specific touristic region, the Lake Balaton and its surroundings with a specific focus on gastronomy. Lake Balaton is the largest lake in Central Eastern Europe and also the most popular travelling destination in Hungary after the capital. The consumer community is not therefore centered at one specific municipality but is shared across the area of Lake Balaton (Michalkó 2004). It is important to emphasize that ‘the Hungarian sea’ is characterized by passive tourism and also seasonality appears relevant, in spite of the richness of natural attractions like birdlife, thermal baths, caves, and spring cave. Nevertheless, Lake Balaton is also famous for its wine region and gastronomy, which is proven by the many new-wave restaurants that have been opened over the years, and which have been observed by the blogger of the blog called ‘Gasztro PR’. Balaton is also rich on the historical and cultural side. If we observe the ten most interesting attractions on TripAdvisor, it reflects this kind of economy where gastronomy appears, such as Festetics Castle, Szigliget Fortress, the Benedictine Abbey and Museum of Tihany, Tapolca Lake Cave, and Laposa Borbító (Winery) (TripAdvisor 2017). The reduction of seasonality and the appearance of passive tourism can be replaced by these values and the effects of bloggers.

Gasztro PR’s specialty is extensive and includes more services like communication advisory, making creative content, communication strategy, press contacts, brand building, events organization. Her blogs and vlogs are based on these activities and she also has followers on Facebook and Instagram. Gasztro PR has created the gastronomic map of Balaton where travelers could explore 66 gastronomic places around the lake. Instead of her own platforms, she generated platforms especially for Lake Balaton. Analyzing the activities on the surface of the cyber-community regarding Lake Balaton, we have determined that there are different needs on different platforms. The community of Facebook is more interested in gastronomical vlogs and most of these have more than five thousand viewers. The gastronomic map of Balaton has more than twelve thousand followers on Facebook, but the community is not so active when liking and sharing posts. Against that, on Instagram there are more than 8500 followers with around 200 likes per posts. The most popular posts present producer sites in Balaton like vineyards and the sites of restaurants; these get around 500 likes per posts. The analysis shows that design images get less interest than the images which show the real atmosphere of the restaurants.

Our case study also supports the theoretical background and what can be seen is that more and more companies and restaurants have started to cooperate with bloggers and vloggers to promote their enterprises. This is the reason why researchers have to show higher interest in this topic so that the scientific community can get a deeper insight into the advantages and disadvantages of this area.

Conclusion

Finally, we can state that gastronomy has a convergent power, which brings together the costumers and at the same time it creates a community for people having the same interests irrespective of age and gender. This positive effect is intensified by eWOM where bloggers and vloggers play a leading role and thereby provide a guideline for the consumers.
At the same time bloggers and vloggers can help the participants of tourism as well, so that they could keep up with the development of the constantly changing requirements as this new phenomenon challenges the representatives of the profession. In our study, we have highlighted the fact that through the consumer-generated content and consumer decision-making in gastronomy, it is the bloggers, vloggers, and eWOM who play a key role, which is reflected in our case study.

References

Orsolya Szakály and Ivett Sziva


PART V

Contemporary forms of gastronomic tourism
Overview

History of Slow Food

The Slow Food movement started in a small town of Bra, Italy, where the founder Carlo Petrini was born and raised. The Slow Food movement attracted global attention with the protest in response to the opening of a McDonald’s restaurant in the Piazza di Spagna in Rome in 1986. On December 1989, the Slow Food movement was officially established as the International Slow Food Movement for the Defence of and the Right to Pleasure at the Opera Comique in Paris. Representatives from 15 countries signed the initial Founding Protocol Manifesto (see Table 41.1).

The history of Slow Food is politically related to the Italian left, and the Slow Food organization is dedicated to cultural politics. The movement is set within Italian post-war culture and politics. Arcigola, Slow Food’s first incarnation emerged in Arci, which was the entertaining and cultural organization of the Italian Communist Party. Arcigola which means ‘arch-tester’, was conceived as an eco-gastronomical wing of Arci in 1983, and was formally established in 1986 after Petrini and Arcigola protested the opening of the fast food restaurant McDonald’s by circulating the English phrase ‘slow food’. The phrase became so popular that it now constitutes the name of the movement.

While the name of the Slow Food movement explicitly refers to food, implicit within this name is the idea that memory and senses are intertwined, and through the usage of senses one discovers taste memories from the past. In some circumstances, slowness is connected to pleasure, conviviality, and embodied memory. However, according to founder Carlo Petrini, “Slow Life is not just Slow Food” (Petrini 2003). For many others, the philosophy of this movement is related to the concept of eco-gastronomy, that everyone has the right to pleasure and both plate and planet are linked together.

Good, clean, and fair

Slow Food is a philosophy of life, with members sharing the same values and convictions toward the food lifestyle. Carlo Petrini describes Slow Food in three words: “good, clean and fair”. The first word: “good” food is tasty and diverse and is produced in such a way as to
maximise its flavour and connections to a geographic and cultural region. The second word: “clean” food is sustainable, and helps to preserve rather than destroy the environment. And finally, “fair” food is produced in socially sustainable ways, with an emphasis on social justice and fair wages (Schneider 2008).

Petrini listed in his book Slow Food Nation (2007) some action steps that each person can do to improve the food community to which he/she belongs. These actions include: join a local Slow Food convivium; trace your food sources; shop at a local farmers’ market; join a CSA (Community Supported Agriculture); invite a friend over to share a meal; visit a farm in your area; create a new food memory by planting seeds; start a kitchen garden; and learn your local food history.

According to the Social Report published by Slow Food in 2015, the organization is an international eco-gastronomic organization that recognizes the significance of pleasure connected to food. Slow Food values the knowledge of local producers and diversity of places where food is manufactured using local recipes and flavors. Slow Food respects the rhythms of the seasons. As an organization, Slow Food has been very active in organizing different activities, events, and long-term projects, including editorials and publications of magazines and the foundation of a University in Italy. Slow Food members pay an application fee depending on which country their membership is in. A member will receive Slow Food publications, the joint convivia newsletter, and the opportunity to participate in convivia events and projects. Slow Food members can be found in more than 150 countries around the world. There are about 100,000 members in the world associated in 1500 convivia.

Activities in Slow Food

Slow Food has been organizing many activities through each convivium located in different countries/regions. Some activities are explained below.
Slow food movement

Convivium/Covivia

A local chapter of Slow Food is called a convivium. Through convivia, members share the everyday joys of food has to offer and participate in events organized by the convivium. The plural of convivium is convivia.

Slow Food Foundation for Biodiversity

The Slow Food Foundation for Biodiversity is a non-profit foundation established in 2003 as a response to the necessity to organize and finance Presidia and other Slow Food projects to defend food biodiversity in a translucent way. Through the Slow Food Foundation for Biodiversity, Slow Food organizes and assists projects in the maintenance of small producers – Presidia, Earth Market, The Ark of Taste – and helps to increase recognition of the cultures and traditional knowledge of local people.

The Ark of Taste

The Ark of Taste catalogues and selects quality food products from around the world that are at risk of extinction. There are more than 3,000 products from 140 countries recorded. In order to stimulate and defend these products, Presidia are settled at local level. Presidium projects are established to promote contact between producers and consumers, to create new facilities for food production, or technologically revitalizing local production and preparation procedures.

Presidia

The Presidium project started in Italy in 1999, as an operational stage to follow the work done in Ark of Taste. The Ark had catalogued hundreds of products in extinction: the Presidia were the next step forward, enabling Slow Food to enter the practical world of production, to meet with local producers, and to promote their products and knowledge. There are 450 Presidia in 60 countries around the world, with more than 200 Presidia located in Italy, protecting products from Burlina Cow to Garfagnana Potato Bread. The Slow Food Foundation has helped to improve production techniques, train producers, and boost the local and international market for the products.

Slow Food Chefs’ Alliance

Over 500 chefs from different countries (mainly from The Netherlands, Albania, Canada, Italy, Morocco, and Mexico) are united in this solidarity network to promote Slow Food values by using Presidium and Food Community ingredients.

Earth markets

Slow Food aimed to create an international network of farmers’ markets where consumers and producers could be brought closer together. An Earth Market only permits small producers and they only sell their own produce. The Slow Food Foundation provides technical assistance for all stages of the project – from drawing up production rules to the legal constitution of new markets. Until May 2010, there are 11 Earth Markets in Italy, Lebanon, Romania, and Israel.

10,000 Gardens in Africa

This project was launched in 2011 in Kenya, Uganda, and Ivory Coast with the objective to encourage sustainable agriculture using less harmful mechanisms to the environment. Up to 2015, there are over 40,000 people involved reaching to 2,092 gardens in 35 countries in Africa.
Salone del Gusto

Salone del Gusto is a biannual fair that displays products prepared by local artisans. During this event, consumers can taste and buy products as well as acquiring a consciousness of what certain areas produce and how it tastes. The Salone takes place in Turin, Italy and it is economically and politically sustained by the Regional Authority of Piedmont in Italy. The first Salone was held in 1998.

Terra Madre

Terra Madre was established to bring together different parties involved in food production, from small-scale artisan farmers and food producers, chefs, and academics enabling these parties to share experiences and pursue more sustainable agriculture. Terra Madre is Slow Food’s political vision. It is held every two years at the same time and place as Salone del Gusto; the first Terra Madre was held in 2004.

The University

The University of Gastronomic Sciences (UNISG) was opened in 2004 by Slow Food in cooperation with the Italian regions of Piedmont and Emilia-Romagna. The main campus is located in Pollenzo, Italy. The university is the representation of the highest point reached in the educational strategy of Slow Food. The university has the aim to produce gastronomes and food industry professionals proficient in protecting and promoting excellent food that is good, clean, and fair. Different programs are offered combined with humanities, science, and sensory training of food production: three-year undergraduate degrees, two-year graduate degrees, and Master’s degree programs in Gastronomy, Food Culture, Wine Culture, and Food, Law, and Finance. More than 2,000 students had studied or were studying in UNISG up to 2016.

Slow Food education activities

Other Slow Food activities include Taste Workshops, Dinners Dates, and Master of Food courses; these activities are organized by each Slow Food chapter in local bases. Other international events are Slow Fish and Slow Cheese hosted in Bra and Genoa, Italy respectively. Many countries have planned their own national events such as A Taste of Slow, Food with Latitude, Terra Australis in Australia, and Terra Madre Brazil.

Other movements related to Slow Food

Slow City

Slow City (CittàSlow in Italian) is a movement founded in 1999 by Paolo Saturnini, former Mayor of Greve in Chianti, small town of Tuscany. Other Mayors of towns in Italy, the former Mayor of Bra, Orvieto and Positano rapidly seconded this new idea of Slow City. The main goal of Slow City is to enlarge the philosophy of Slow Food to local communities and governments of towns, applying the concepts of eco-gastronomy in the practice of everyday life, while rejecting urbanization. Slow City is a community program with the aim to maintain the identity and uniqueness of a region while improving the life quality of the residents in that region. For a destination to become a Slow City, there are...
two criteria that the destination should fulfil: (1) there should be traditional industries, slow food, and beautiful scenery without the presence of major companies, with a population lower than 50,000; (2) there should be universal products or cultures suitable for the global network in the destination. Up to mid-2017, the international network of Slow City included 236 towns spread out over 30 countries around the world and 20 national and city networks in Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, China, the Netherlands, France, Germany, Italy, Norway, North Cyprus, Poland, Portugal, South Korea, Spain, Turkey, and United Kingdom.

**Slow Travel and Slow Tourism**

The relationship between slow travel and slow tourism is often misinterpreted. Slow travel refers to a mode of transport other than air or car that people choose in order to travel to a destination, manifesting in people travelling slowly overland, staying longer, and travelling less. It responds to the needs to lower carbon input, and to travel less but establish deeper interaction with destinations, thus enhancing life quality and enabling more engagement with local people and places. Slow tourism has five characteristics: (1) being healthy, which involves walking and the enjoyment of Slow Food; (2) involves at least one overnight stay; (3) features opportunities for self-realization; (4) involves limited use of cars or other motor transport; and (5) in some sense involves being ‘green’ or ecologically-minded.

The emergence of slow tourism and slow travel could be a manifestation that people are trying to express in this modern society, the pressure that people are facing in today’s life are released in pursuing for ‘slow’ ways to travel and to enact tourism. Through embracing slow travel and tourism, people are chasing a slower pace of life. Sugiyama and Nobuoka (2007) define slow tourism as “type of trip that enables self-realisation through doing or being slow, enabling close observation rather than simply sightseeing”. Caffyn (2012) and Conway and Timms (2012) view slow travel and tourism from the perspective of achieving environmental sustainability and benefits; through slow tourism, people may travel less to reach a destination and, once there, use more sustainable methods of travel. Usually, in slow tourism, people are chasing valuable experiences in the destination rather than efficient and standardized travel patterns. More differences between fast and slow tourism can be found in Table 41.2.

There is evidence in past research that show Slow Food members extend Slow Food core values into other consumption behaviors such as transportation, travel, and vacation. Lee, Scott, and Packer (2014) finds that members carry these core values and manifest them in their daily lives wherever they go. The association between the Slow Food movement and slow travel and tourism can be demonstrated in the way people perform and consume in their travel destinations. The movement is linked to conscious or ethical consumption, re-localization of consumption, local food systems or food sheds, and awareness of food miles and the carbon footprint of food.

The central value of Slow Food, then, can be assimilated with the construct known as ‘beta structure’, where small is beautiful. Beta structure tries to restore the old system that food be grown within the horizon, thus ensuring local autarchy, local preservation, and local storage. Van Bommel and Spicer (2011) analyze UK media discourse of Slow Food and noticed that after the year 2000, Slow Food as an organization evolved from a movement championing *gastronomy* to become a widely based movement promoting *eco-gastronomy*.
Singapore is a country with only 719 km² and over 5.5 million inhabitants mainly from four different ethnic groups: Chinese, Malay, Hindu, and others (including Eurasian), with Chinese descendants occupying 75% of the total population. Among all the dishes that Singaporeans shared, one of the dishes is kueh. Kueh in Chinese (or kuihin in Malay) represents snack or dessert food. This special bite-sized colorful snack originated in Asia, and specifically can be found in China, Malaysia, Indonesia, Brunei, and Singapore. They are typically made by rice and have different kinds of varieties, for example, ‘angkookueh’ is a small red color oval shaped pastry originated from China made by glutinous rice usually wrapped around a sweet filling in the center.

Slow Food Singapore started running in 2013; the founding president of the convivium is Daniel Chia who spent two years studying in the University of Gastronomic Sciences in Pollenzo, Italy. After returning to Singapore, he introduced with a few friends the first Slow Food initiative in 2014: Heritage Hero Awards Program. The program awards food businesses in Singapore that preserve traditional cuisine and dishes. Each year the Heritage Hero Awards Program recognizes local bakeries and confectionaries that produce traditional cakes, pastries, and local kueh as well as restaurants that represent different cultural and ethnic group in Singapore. The first Heritage Heroes Award in 2014 recognized 34 heritage bakeries and confectionaries. A new category was introduced in 2016 to recognize Heritage Hero Restaurants serving traditional local cuisine with over 30 years in business. Fifty-five restaurants are recognized as Heritage Hero Restaurants in Singapore.

### Table 41.2 Features of fast tourism vs. slow tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Fast tourism</th>
<th>Slow tourism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relationship</td>
<td>Instant</td>
<td>Harmonious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ownership</td>
<td>Outside capital</td>
<td>Locally owned, individual/cooperative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local people</td>
<td>Marginalized</td>
<td>Main actors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scale</td>
<td>Often larger</td>
<td>Mainly smaller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size</td>
<td>Accommodate larger groups</td>
<td>Mainly individuals, families or small friendship groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>Hoping/passive</td>
<td>Doing/active/being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Efficiency, quantity</td>
<td>Valued experiences, quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pattern</td>
<td>Standardized</td>
<td>Flexible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process</td>
<td>Tourism industry led</td>
<td>Bottom up/co-constructed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inhabitation</td>
<td>Not possible</td>
<td>Possible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Options</td>
<td>Many places</td>
<td>Selected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentality</td>
<td>Taking</td>
<td>Absorbing, deep appreciation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spirituality</td>
<td>Consumerist, materialistic</td>
<td>Fulfilment, purifying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>Few larger businesses</td>
<td>Wider community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local economic leakage</td>
<td>More leakage</td>
<td>Minimized leakage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length</td>
<td>Short stay</td>
<td>Longer stay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainability examples</td>
<td>Unsustainable</td>
<td>Sustainable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group package tours, day visits</td>
<td>Ecotourism, green tourism, agri-tourism, health tourism, food tourism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Murayama and Parker (2012: 175).

**Case study 41.1: Slow Food Singapore**

Singapore is a country with only 719 km² and over 5.5 million inhabitants mainly from four different ethnic groups: Chinese, Malay, Hindu, and others (including Eurasian), with Chinese descendants occupying 75% of the total population. Among all the dishes that Singaporeans shared, one of the dishes is kueh. Kueh in Chinese (or kuihin in Malay) represents snack or dessert food. This special bite-sized colorful snack originated in Asia, and specifically can be found in China, Malaysia, Indonesia, Brunei, and Singapore. They are typically made by rice and have different kinds of varieties, for example, ‘angkookueh’ is a small red color oval shaped pastry originated from China made by glutinous rice usually wrapped around a sweet filling in the center.

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Nominations for Heritage Heroes are made through an online page and each of the winning outlets selected as a Heritage Hero is identified with the Slow Food (Singapore) Heritage Hero Label that can be displayed at the outlet.

In 2015, Slow Food Singapore collaborated with Singapore Food Festival. Singapore Food Festival is an organized annually by Singapore Tourism Board that run from June to July with culinary workshops, competitions, and theme celebrations across the island. Slow Food Singapore inaugurated the Kueh Appreciation Day that celebrate annually this specific dessert ‘kueh’.

The third consecutive Kueh Appreciation Day in 2017 was celebrated on July 23 with nine traditional kueh vendors joining the event and three live kueh preparation demos. There were cooking demos of Hakka, Hainan, and Nonyakueh run by professional chefs. For example, one live demo was The Hakka Xi Ban presented by Chef Then who is a pastry chef and chocolatier. Xi Ban means steamed buns made from rice flour. Chef Then presented a traditional version of Xi Ban Dough and a modern version of Xi Ban in macaron. The place was full of visitors and participants joining culinary demo events throughout the day (see Figure 41.1a).

**Acknowledgment**

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**References**


THE “WORLDS APPROACH”
TO GASTRONOMIC TOURISM: THE CASE OF WINE TOURISM IN JAPAN

Chuanfei Wang

Find great places to visit and learn more about wine on your travels: Where to go: Australia, France, Italy, North America and Canada, Rest of Europe, South Africa, South America, Spain and Portugal, United Kingdom.

(Decanter Magazine [August 20, 2017])

This is the opening remark of a column appearing in Decanter, an online wine magazine. It points to the fact that wine tourism has become a global trend integral to participation in ‘the global wine world.’ However, countries in Asia, including Japan are not even on this ‘global wine map,’ though they actually are new centers of wine production and even wine tourism. This boom in wine tourism has increasingly drawn the attention of academics. However, most of the current research is confined to the disciplines of business, marketing and consumer motivations (Carmichael 2005; Getz and Brown 2006; Oksana, Jill, and Samuel 2013). These approaches treat wine tourism as a commercial product and focus on how it is effectively organized, operated, branded, and can be sustainably consumed. Surprisingly, even the findings from these studies show that wine tourism is not simply a commercial product, but, to a great extent, a cultural practice. This is clearly reflected in consumer studies on tourists’ motivations for engaging in wine tourism. Moreover, most of the research has focused on the developed destinations such as the ones singled out in the quote above, at the expense of overlooking developing destinations in the global wine world. This chapter, thus, aims to contribute to the existing literature by examining wine tourism as a cultural practice in Japan, a context without an established tradition of wine culture. It shows that wine tourism is constructed in Japan by local actors who actively adopt concepts and practices from the global wine world to their local contexts to address the needs of the local society.

The ‘Worlds Approach’

To study wine tourism as a cultural practice, I employ the sociological notion of the ‘worlds approach,’ which sociologist Howard Becker (1982) developed to articulate ‘art worlds.’
The ‘worlds approach’ focuses on the networks through which various actors interact to create a cultural practice and imbue it with shared meanings (see Figure 42.1). This approach illustrates how an immersive experience in a ‘wine world’ is the goal of wine tourism. A ‘wine world’ is an interpretative community consisting of various actors including, but not limited to, national and regional governments, wine producers, consumers, entrepreneurs, critics, sommeliers, and chefs. All of these actors participate together in the creation of shared cultural meanings associated with wine. In recent decades, the wine world has become a global network, with major actors beginning to interact with one another regularly on a global level. Wine tourism allows the tourist an experience of participating in this larger cultural world, as well as the wine culture in a particular place.

However, the global wine world is not a flat network, but rather it is stratified. This stratification can be understood as center–peripheral relations. This is well reflected in the case of Japan’s wine world, in which the Japanese view themselves as being either peripheral to, or subjected to a less central position, in the global wine world (Wang 2017). Following Edward Shils (1961), I argue this center–periphery relationship can be understood as cultural. Some people in the periphery can be more sensitive than others regarding their position, to the extent that they align their behaviors with those belonging to the center. Japan is such a case.
Wine tourism in Japan

Japan, as a consumer of wine, is not insignificant. It is one of the top ten consumption countries in the world wine markets (OIV 2016). Japan has produced wine since the nineteenth century, however, Japan remains relatively unknown as a producer. The total volume of wine that Japan produces is not large when compared with the world’s major wine producers. For instance, in 2014, Japan produced only 0.95 million hectoliters (Japan’s National Tax Agency 2016), whereas France had an output of 46.5 million hectoliters (OIV 2016). Moreover, the quality of domestic products is regarded by the Japanese as far from the standards of the global wine world.

Wine tourism has only recently emerged in Japan.

Not only Yamanashi, discussed in the next section, but also Nagano, Hokkaido, and Yamagata are developing wine tourism. In Nagano, the Shinshu Wine Valley is under construction as a wine region, including wine tourism. In Hokkaido, a local NPO organizes small-scale wine tourism attracting domestic tourists.

The development of wine tourism is by no means an isolated phenomenon. It is a measure that local actors take to cope with social changes in rural Japan. This is clearly revealed in the case of Nanyō City of Yamagata Prefecture. The local government has been promoting the increase of wine grape growing starting in 2017. The city has a 300-year long history of growing grapes. However, 80 per cent of the grapes grown have been table grapes. Due to the nationwide demand of wine grapes, the local government encourages local farmers to grow wine grapes and recognizes that vineyards could become an important part of the landscape in the future. The promotion of wine grapes rather than table grapes is also thought to be a strategy to attract individuals and companies to the region to become involved in wine agriculture (Kawakita Newspaper 2017). The local government hopes that wine grape growing can ease the labor shortage caused by out-migration of the working population and low birth rates. The local government also plans to make policies friendly to people willing to open small-scale wineries. The landscape surrounded by wine grape vineyards and wineries is also expected to be a potential tourist destination.

Case study 42.1: A portrait of Japan’s wine tourism: ‘Wine Tourism Yamanashi’

Yamanashi, located to the west Tokyo, is reachable by a 90-minute ride from the center of Tokyo on the National Railway of East Japan. The prefecture is well known in Japan for producing a wide variety of fruits, especially grapes. It is also where Japan’s modern wine making industry started in 1877. Within Japan, Yamanashi has the most developed culture of both wine production and tourism.

Wine Tourism Yamanashi is the first wine tourism in Japan with a registered trademark. On its website, one can find a description of the tourism (Wine Tourism Yamanashi n.d.):

Wine Tourism Yamanashi is an event in which tourists take a tour of the wine producing area and enjoy the whole region. The event is a regional experiment involving grape growers, wineries, restaurants, shops, morning markets, a NPO and the local government. During the event, circulation buses are provided to help tourists easily visit wineries. After application to the event, tourists receive winery information, a map and bus timetable, as well as tickets. Using the provided information, tourists arrange their travel plans beforehand, deciding which wineries and places to visit, where to eat, and so on. Then, tourists...
enjoy the grape growing and wine producing region according to the travel plans they made on their own.

Wine Tourism Yamanashi is organized twice annually, in the spring and autumn. Various it is either one day or two days. In May 2017, a one-day tour in Koshu City was held. The event started at Katsunuma Budōgoro Station. Outside of the platform, it was a one-minute walk to the reception tent where tourists exchanged their pre-purchased tickets for a participant badge and wine glass. The train platform and reception tent were located halfway up a slope belonging to Japan’s South Alps Mountains, from which a panoramic view of the entire mountain could be seen. At the foot of the mountain, there was a bus station, where tourists could ride the buses by showing their badges.

The tour route in this area centered on the Miyakōen Museum. There are several historical wineries, cellars, and other wine museums surrounding Miyakōen, which is named after its founder Miyazaki Kōtarō, a figure belonging to Japan’s first generation of wine makers. Miyakoen used to be a winery, established in 1886. It operated for several decades. Today, however, it functions exclusively as a museum relaying the history of wine production in modern Japan. Miyakōen consists of a garden and a row of houses. The garden is a classic Japanese design, composed of trees and stones. The house in the center displays wine bottles, labels, business documents, and photos, telling the history of the winery. The houses surrounding it used to be white and red wine cellars; now they display the barrels actually used at the time.

Next to Miyakōen is the Mercian Wine Museum, owned by Suntory, one of Japan’s major beer companies. The property used to be part of Miyazaki Kōtarō’s winery. Like Miyakōen, it also displays the wine making tools used in the early Meiji period (1868–1912). However, it differs from Miyakōen, in that it focuses mainly on the story of Japan’s first wine company, The Great Japan Yamanashi Wine Company, which was established before Miyakōen.

On the opposite side of the road from where Miyakōen is located, one can visit the Yamanashi Grape Culture Center, which is also a museum. It informs visitors not only about wine production but also the grape growing culture of the entire prefecture. Unlike Miyakōen and Mercian Wine Museum, it tells the stories by displaying historical scenes using miniatures.

The Miyakōen Museum, the Mercian Wine Museum, and the Yamanashi Grape Culture Center are the only museums in the area. They serve as educational sites for tourists interested in the history of wine making in Yamanashi.

Besides museums, about thirty wineries are scattered around the area. All of them offered tour participants visiting hours and tastings, which is part of the tour package. Some of them provided special tours of their wineries for tourists willing to pay extra. Kurambon Winery is a hundred meters away from Miyakōen. A wine tour of its winery and vineyard was given in the afternoon. About twenty people participated. It started with a lecture in the vineyard presented by the owner of the winery. He talked about the grape varieties, how each of them was grown, tended, and harvested, while also sharing some related technical knowledge about the relationship between the quality of grapes and the quality of wine. Another lecture was then given in the wine cellar regarding wine barrels and the winery’s history. Finally, there was a tasting session held in a traditional Japanese tatami room, where the owner introduced the flavor characteristics of their wines. The lecture content offered in this special tour was, essentially, beginner-level knowledge of grape-growing and wine-making to help participants understand the process and learn what distinguished their products from other wines. Much of this introductory knowledge would be
common to any wine region around the world. However, the particulars such as certain varietals and local histories pertained to this region in Japan.

Besides the museums, vineyards, and wineries on the route, temporary tents of varying sizes could be seen around almost every bus stop. Staff in the tents provided information and other assistance for the tourists. Seen in all of these efforts, ‘Wine Tourism Yamanashi’ was a collective project of the entire Koshu City, constructed by various actors in the community. For wine tourists, nearly all of whom were Japanese, this was an opportunity to participate in and experience the globalized culture of wine, as well as a chance to associate these activities and ideas with traditional places in Japan, instead of Europe. Wine tourism in Japan, thus, simultaneously involves global and local features.

The actors constructing Wine Tourism Yamanashi

Wine Tourism Yamanashi was initiated by two young men, Ooki Takayuki and Yomoto Takayuki, who grew up in the region. The two men, sharing the same first name, did not know each other before they started working together. Oki worked in a café in Tokyo’s Harajuku district after graduating from university. At the end of 2000, he came back to Yamanashi with his wife and opened their own café. In order for his business to succeed, he tried many things to create a distinctive character for his shop. He produced quality western food modeled on popular dishes from New York, Italy, and Spain at a reasonable price. He also organized beer festivals. All of these strategies helped his café gain popularity. After serving foreign food and beverages for several years, he turned his eye to local products, especially wine. However, he did not offer Yamanashi’s wine in the beginning, but provided instead products from well-known wine countries. He explained in an interview that this was part of his long-term strategy with the goal of eventually creating a space for selling local wines (Ogino 2011):

France, Italy, Spain, California … I researched wines from the world’s top tiered producing regions using the internet. And then, I bought those wines at discount stores. They were all wines that anybody would enjoy. Their flavors were easy to understand. I sold those wines at a surprisingly low price. So gradually people knew my place had good wines and they would come. At the same time, customers helped boost the shop’s reputation. In this way, I thought someday customers would switch to wines made in Yamanashi.

After he replaced the foreign products in his cafe with local wines, he decided to include ones made only with wine grapes grown in the region. He reasoned this was essential (Ogino 2011:3).

You can say this wine is made with grapes grown in California, but bottled in Katsunuma, so it has a fruity aroma that wine made with grapes grown in Yamanashi does not have. It is a pervasive practice, but not one that attracts the interest of customers. If wines are locally made with locally grown grapes, you can tell customers how far the winery is from here, what kind of people the owners are, and what they do with their vineyard, etc.
Chuanfei Wang

Yomoto has a similar background. He also worked in Tokyo after graduating from university. Unlike Ooki, however, he came back to Yamanashi to take over his family’s metal sheet painting company. Through managing the company, he learned how local industries relied heavily on financial support from the prefecture government. However, he was skeptical, viewing businesses as being overly dependent on the government and fearing negative impacts down the road. Aiming to change this, in 2003, he created a group called KOFU Pride, aiming to find specific solutions for making Kofu City more independent from the local government. With this goal in mind, the group held monthly meetings to discuss the uniqueness of Yamanashi. When Yomoto read an article on the winery called KiyamaYōshu Kōgyō (Kiyama Western Alcohol Making Factory), he discovered it used only Yamanashi grapes to make wine; this practice struck him as embodying the uniqueness he was seeking. Later he visited the winery and talked with its owner, Tsuchiya Sachiyama. Yomoto thought the time he spent with Tsuchiya was special, because he could drink and talk with the person who made the wine. He believed this was a distinct experience, difficult to find in Tokyo, but characteristic of Yamanashi (Ogino 2011).

Yomoto heard about Ooki’s café and believed that the conceptual basis of its operation resonated with his own views. He visited Ooki and confirmed they shared similar ideas. The two formed a partnership. The monthly KOFU Pride meeting was held at Ooki’s café. Neither of them had ever heard the term ‘wine tourism’. They learned it from Tsuchiya, who had studied winemaking in Australia and told them what he knew about Australian wine tourism. This inspired them to do something similar in Yamanashi.

However, Wine Tourism Yamanashi is not simply an imitation of the wine tourism trends occurring in the global wine world. The founders see the potential for contributing to the development of local communities. Ooki explained (Nikkei Style 2015):

We are doing this not only to support wineries in the region. We are also thinking how we can survive. If we don’t create a market in the region, we cannot survive. Japanese people start to drink wine when they are 20 years old; we can’t wait that many years. So, we thought about what would be the best strategy to attract more people around the nation and increase the number of tourists. To do this, we considered using wine. Yamanashi has wineries trying to improve the quality of grapes to make good wine. But good quality doesn’t guarantee a good market. So, a space where consumers could access those wines was needed. Here is the bottleneck of all of Japan. If more and more wine lovers come, the number of tourists will increase. They drink alcohol, so some of them want to stay for a night. Then, they open a market for the hotel industry. By doing this, we think the region can survive. Wine tourism, in fact, is a strategy for solving our daily problems.

Wine Tourism Yamanashi started in 2008. In the beginning, only wineries from Koshu City’s Katsunuma area participated, and it was a one-day event. In 2012, it changed to a two-day event. The number of participating tourists nearly doubled from 1,284 in 2008 to 2,500 in 2015. More than half of the visitors are urbanites from the Greater Tokyo Area including Tokyo, Kanagawa, Chiba, and Saitama. Sixty-four per cent of the tourists are in their thirties and forties. An evaluative survey of the event was conducted in 2010 (Fujino and Ooyama 2011). The results show that it had a significant influence on the wine industry as well as regional community development. Regarding the economic effects, the study showed that the profit from the consumption of each participant averaged about 20,700 yen, which was almost four times higher than the average of the total expense per person overhead. Surveyed
consumption included lodging and purchasing wines. Urban people often make day trips to Yamanashi, since it is near the cities. However, unlike tourists coming to Yamanashi for other purposes, more than half of the event participants stayed a night.

Wine Tourism Yamanashi won the national Good Design Award in 2013. As a successful example, the event is now seen as the model for other local wine producing regions demonstrating a potential for developing wine tourism, particularly in areas such as Hokkaido and Nagano.

Ooki and Yomoto have been playing the key roles as initiators and designers in the organization of the related resources involved in constructing Wine Tourism Yamanashi. However, guided by the ‘worlds approach’ that I have proposed at the beginning of this chapter, it should be noted that the event would be impossible to keep running without several other important actors. The most significant actors are grape-growers and wine-makers, who make the products and landscapes of wine; others too play prominent roles, including, for example, museum guides, bus drivers, and volunteers. As described on their website (Wine Tourism Yamanashi n.d.), ‘[t]he event is an experiment in the wine producing region operated with the cooperation of grape growers, wineries, restaurants, shops, morning markets, NPOs and the local government.’ More importantly, besides the actors on the production side, consumers are also involved in shaping Wine Tourism Yamanashi.

Conclusion: The meanings of gastronomic tourism

This chapter has used the ‘worlds approach’ as a conceptual tool to understand gastronomic tourism, focusing on a specific case of wine tourism in Japan. In the ‘worlds approach’, wine tourism is regarded as a cultural practice constructed by a network of various actors: entrepreneurs, wine-makers, grape-growers, the regional government, NPOs, and consumers who actively adopt concepts and practices commonly seen in wine tourism around the world to its local context. These include the centrality of tasting as well as the emphasis on the consumption of local wines, individually defined experiences, education about local wine products and culture, and the interaction between local professionals and visiting tourists.

Japan’s case shows that wine tourism can bring together the spheres of both production and consumption of wine and facilitate the constructing and cultivating of wine culture in a context without a tradition of wine culture. For the wine industry, wine tourism enhances Japan’s wine culture and elevates their nation’s status as a wine producer in the global wine world in which it still occupies a marginal position. For the tourists, especially when the majority of them are domestic, wine tourism is simultaneously an experience of a global wine culture and of a local region with its own viticultural traditions. Wine tourism is a way to participate in the global wine world, by being exposed to a set of meanings associated with gastronomic tourism and cosmopolitan cultural activities usually associated with western countries.

Moreover, Japan’s case also demonstrates that gastronomy can be employed as a resource for boosting the tourism industry, even in peripheral wine regions. Gastronomic tourism is looked to as a strategy for rural regions to address the shrinking economy and rural population, caused by aging and migration to cities, with the goal of revitalizing rural communities.

Note

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References


Food routes, trails, and tours offer a unique experience for tourists to sample the best regional specialities and local cuisine in a single journey. As the popularity of gastronomy and ‘foodie’ culture has grown in recent years, so too has the scope of these journeys and the way in which they are planned. Currently, ‘food-based touring routes’ (referred to from here onwards as FTRs) are created to suit any location, appetite, budget, and time-frame (Intrepid Group 2017). As emphasized in the quotation above, FTRs focus on delivering an experience of food characterized by what is consumed within locations across a set distance. Specifically, FTRs refer to any initiative that brings together several food-themed activities and attractions for a tourist (definition adapted from Greffe 1994). Globally, FTRs can include: ‘routes’, ‘trails’, and ‘tours’, typically focused on agriculture, heritage, or cultural delicacies of a particular area; and they can vary considerably in length and scale (see: Meyer 2004; Lourens 2007; Timothy and Boyd 2014; and Wall 2015). While FTRs have commonly been the success of private travel and tourism companies, the growth of online resources has provided the ability for tourists to plan and manage their own FTR experiences.

This chapter will focus on how existing and future FTR planning procedures could benefit from utilizing geospatial technology to promote better experiences and foster local sustainable development. FTRs are a market-driven approach to promoting rural tourism and fostering development of an area (Meyer 2004; Lourens 2007). Through FTRs, policy-makers have a unique opportunity to collaborate with local business owners and the private tourism industry to plan and control the distribution of tourists and gastronomic attractions within their authority. Greater adoption of modern geospatial technologies could promote personalized FTR experiences that apply more holistic and sustainable planning approach to gastronomic tourism. A focus will be placed on the use of a Geographic Information Systems (GIS) supported sustainable tourism infrastructure planning (STIP) framework, and this will be discussed with
the use of a case study example of an organization enacting STIP for gastronomic tourism. Lastly, wider uptake of this approach will be explored as an approach to ensure continued growth of local and regional food production systems, while also preserving cultural and environmental values, and improving consumer satisfaction on a global scale.

Understanding and planning route tourism

FTRs are a form of ‘themed route tourism’. Route tourism encourages a variety of visitors, ranging from domestic to international tourists, to travel to multiple locations on a set route. FTRs can feature locations with food-based attractions of a certain local cultural ethnicity, such as: Italian, Japanese, or Mexican cuisine; or themed around particular beverages, including: beer, wine, or whiskey (Wall 2015). Although primarily food-based, FTRs usually involve several other services and amenities (see: Croce and Perri 2017). For example, Xu, Leung, and Barbieri (2016) noted 14 extra activities that food and wine trails usually provide. These included: farm-related and outdoor recreation, public and private events (including festivals, concerts, and rodeos), gift shops, education, accommodation, heritage sites, and art-related activities (Xu, Leung, and Barbieri 2016). Globally, FTRs can be described by a variety of terms. A food ‘tour’ typically refers to a guided trip, led by an instructor or guidebook (for example, see: Abel 2017). A food ‘trail’ usually refers to a shorter distance, such as those walked on foot (Lourens 2007), or as a self-guided, unplanned cultural or area-specific journey (for example, see: MacLeod and Hayes 2013, and Campbell Town City Council 2017). Lonely Planet Publications (2016) describe a food trail as an itinerary detailing when and where to indulge in: “food markets, must-visit restaurants and shops or opportunities to meet food makers or providers.” In this example, Lonely Planet guidebooks act as potential itineraries, which provide the user with directions to create their own route. A food ‘route’ generally either refers to a long-distance, self-driven, or self-planned trip. It can also be referred to as an encompassing term for both tours and trails. In this chapter, ‘FTR’ will be used synonymously to refer to all three terms: ‘tour’, ‘trail’, and ‘route’.

FTR planning is an inherently geospatial management and design task. By definition, route planning is a method to connect tourists to locations within a given area along a network. A network refers to a connected set of points or lines, linking locations of interest (ESRI 2017a). Traditionally, route planning has been the domain of network analysis inside a GIS. This has involved algorithms to find a path between the destinations that either minimizes distance, time, or transport cost (Sadeghi-Niaraki et al. 2011). Classically, this is known as the ‘traveling salesman problem’ (see: Fischer 2004; Hoffman, Padberg, and Rinaldi 2013), which aims to find the shortest or most efficient route that visits each venue once, and then returns to its origin. However, the issue with applying a travelling salesman approach to tourism is the focus on optimization. For instance, tourists may be interested in taking a longer, less ‘optimized’ route, if there is more scenic or adventurous path available. Thus, planning an FTR requires knowledge of tourist preferences and contextual information about the network used to plan a proposed route. As a result, three main ‘routing’ variables must be taken into consideration. These were described by van der Knaap (1999) as: space, time, and context. For planning FTRs, these variables can be expressed in the following Equation 1.1 (adapted from Liu and Zhu 2004, and Huang, Yao, and Raguraman 2006):

\[ R_p = \sum d_j \left( W_j \left( O_j - D_j \right) \right) \]

where route \((R)\) taken by tourist/s \((p)\) is equal to the sum of distances \((d)\) between the origin of the tourist \((O)\), the subsequent destinations \((D)\) of a certain number \((j)\), which are constrained by
impedances (I) and attracted by weighted criteria (W) for each origin, destination, and the path between them. A schematic representation of an FTR in a GIS can been seen in Figure 43.1, with highlighted origin, destination, and distance variables. Variables for impedances and weighted criteria may vary depending on the planner’s knowledge of the destinations and the network. This may involve information on: quality of food, and reputation of the destinations, method of transportation, network type (such as roads, bicycle paths, or canals), and condition of the network. It is important that this information is also stored within the GIS, or connected through a related table. In the modern day, web-based GIS is an essential tool for planning and marketing FTRs. Well established GIS platforms, such as ESRI’s ArcGIS, contain the necessary tools to model FTRs and deliver a personalized interface for custom route planning. For example, ArcGIS Online includes tools to create a network dataset by connecting points of origins to destinations, and measuring the amount of time or distance between them (see: ESRI 2017b). In addition, cloud-hosted services, such as the World Traffic Service (developed by HERE Inc 2017), can be used inside the web-GIS environment to predict more realistic, time-sensitive routes. ArcGIS Online also includes tools to find the nearest features around a destination, and even plan a route by determining how many destinations can be reached in the least amount of time (see: ESRI 2017c). The resulting vector datasets can then be shared privately or to the public through either URLs to dynamic and interactive web maps, or a custom-built online interface called a web application. The information can also be shared and configured through a mobile application. This functionality allows users to plan a route with their own origins, destinations, and personalized contextual information on their preferences (van der Merwe, Ferreira, and Van Niekerk 2013). This is an important functionality because it embraces a multi-objective route planning approach, allowing the user to design a ‘scenic’ rather than optimized or highly efficient route, and plan routes ‘on-the-fly’ while in transit. In an environment where the average tourist owns a smartphone, this functionality creates a user-centric system that is more likely to satisfy user demands and custom requirements (for example, see: Niaraki and Kim 2009). Nonetheless, web-based interfaces for FTR are currently in their infancy, and require further implementation by policy-makers and private businesses to see an increase in consumer use. **Sustainable FTRs**

Existing and future FTR planning procedures could benefit from utilizing geospatial technology to foster local sustainable development. As discussed in previous chapters, sustainability
can be broken down into four themes, known as ‘pillars’. These include: social, economic, environmental, and cultural pillars (including variables of governance, finance, infrastructure, and neighbourhoods; see: Kennedy et al. 2005). Sustainable FTRs require the ability to model these pillars as contextual variables in the route planning process. The contextual variables should be multi-dimensional, encompassing changes over distance and time, and include qualitative and quantitative criteria. A list of possible contextual variables to consider in FTR planning are outlined in Figure 43.2. As an example, implementation of intelligent GIS for FTR planning can increase the environmental efficiency and cost of a route, while preserving social and cultural values by supporting local food businesses. One method to include these variables in a GIS for FTR planning is through the sustainable tourism infrastructure planning (STIP) framework. This framework will be explored in more detail in the following paragraph.

For best practice, future FTR planning should involve an STIP framework. The STIP framework proposed by Boers and Cottrell (2005, 2007): “… aims to integrate a set of sustainability criteria (i.e., development objectives, visitor experience preferences, carrying capacity standards, and resource impacts) into infrastructure planning via GIS.” Although originally designed for protected area management, this three-step approach to route planning provides insights into the most sustainable destinations and network paths. STIP involves three phases:

1. Visitor segmentation
2. Zoning
3. Transportation network planning

Undertaking the first phase for FTR planning would involve collecting information on destinations and other contextual variables chosen to be taken into consideration in the proposed route. This may include gathering feedback from past visitors on their experiences,
and knowledge of sustainability of each destination based on capacity and resource impact from their produce, products, and practices. This may also include information collected from local government policy-makers, town planners, and private businesses. Statistical analysis (such as a cluster analysis) can be run on these variables to determine visitor segmentation, or similar divisions in the tourist market for marketing the proposed route. The original authors noted that the first stage is not supported in a GIS, and should be conducted in a statistical software package. However, recent advances in technology have led to the ability to run more advanced statistical analysis inside of GIS programs. One such example is ESRI’s ArcGIS using a bridge to an external program, such as the R-ArcGIS bridge for a connection to open source programming in R (for more information see: The R Foundation 2017). In a web-based GIS application, this information could be stored in a related table, or collected as input variables from the user. Undertaking the second phase would include creating a dataset that encompasses all the sustainability variables collected in the first phase. This holistic layer could be created through a weighted overlay process and applied to either the destinations, or the network dataset as impedance or attractiveness variables along each link connecting the destinations. The last phase would require computing the proposed route using transportation and network linkage information of the most preferred destinations, as outlined in phase two. Options for computing a route in an established GIS were outlined in the previous section.

**Case study 43.1**

The Fair Food Forager Pty Ltd (FFF 2017) is an example of a profit-for-purpose organization enacting a GIS-supported STIP mobile application, which could be used for planning sustainable FTRs. The organization was established in Australia, but now has a global reach, connecting tourists to businesses and passionate volunteers around the world. The FFF searches out and promotes ethical and sustainable businesses through their search-engine based platform, hosted online as a web portal and in a mobile application. Their platform is designed to supply tourists with knowledge about the sustainability of any food-based venues and outlets at a given location, and includes a mapping interface for spatial visualization of locations. In addition, the FFF designed a holistic mechanism to audit businesses’ level of ‘sustainability’. The mechanism rates a business’s products and produce by fulfilling any of the following thirteen icons: reduced plastic, cruelty free/vegan food, chemical free/organic, no food waste, fair trade, ethically produced, sustainable seafood, vegetarian, homemade, charity, local produce, fair work, and gluten free. Further explanation of each of the icons can be seen in Figure 43.3 (FFF 2017).

The FFF’s mobile application is a web-based personalized approach to route planning. A GIS interface is available for the user to find venues based on the GPS location, and then plan their own routes to the venues. The online platform encourages users to participate by ranking each venue’s listing and commenting on their experiences. Users can also nominate businesses for listing on the site, and sign up to be a volunteer to write blog posts about their favorite destinations and experiences travelling to businesses listed on the site. Caroline, owner of the Red Kitchen (in personal contact with Paul Hellier, founder of the FFF) stated: “I am so happy that Fair Food Forager is now here to share our story and recognize that businesses like us already exist, and to show others that it is possible to impact less”. The FFF application acts as both a self-planning mechanism, and a marketing tool for businesses looking to add value to their products with social and environmental significance.
The FFF’s platform utilizes the STIP framework by following the three phases outlined in the previous section. Firstly, the FFF enacts the first phase by collecting information from the community and its volunteers on the sustainability of food venues, using thirteen sustainability icons (see Figure 43.3). Secondly, this information is shared through their platform on both the website and the mobile application. Users of the platform can select on a location or destination of choice and visualize it through a mapping interface. Users can then use this information to self-plan a route, either by hand or through a GIS program with network analysis such as Google Maps or ESRI’s ArcGIS Online to plan their trip along a network. The FFF could improve how the user experiences the final phase of the STIP framework by integrating network routing functionality into their application. However, the platform is an innovative example of using a web-based GIS-enabled application to measure a set of holistic criteria for use in an FTR.

Final remarks

Utilization of web-GIS is an important step to improving the sustainability of FTRs. This was examined in this chapter through an introduction to understanding and planning sustainable FTRs, and a framework to implementing web-GIS route planning as highlighted by a case study on the Fair Food Forager Pty Ltd. It is important to note that Web-GIS will not only provide sound online and application-based interfaces for personalized, dynamic, and holistic route planning, but also scalability through mobile and web applications. GIS-enabled FTRs...
provide planners and tourists the ability to apply a wide range of tools and techniques for any given local environment. As Bahaire and Elliott-White (1999) claimed:

Geographical Information Systems (GIS) can be regarded as providing a tool box of techniques and technologies of wide applicability to the achievement of sustainable tourism development.

Enabling GIS analysis for existing FTRs can provide improvements to the shape, length, area, and direction of routes. In addition, the use of shared web-based GIS interfaces for FTRs can encourage communication and co-operation between town planners, policy makers, and producers and consumers in the local private market (see: Meyer-Czech 2004). This is particularly important for regional and global FTRs that cross political and geographic boundaries. In addition, these connections can see further improvements to the development of local infrastructure and transport options, which can boost tourist trip satisfaction, business patronage, and economic activity. Finally, spatial literacy can transcend language barriers. This can be achieved through visual map-based interfaces for route planning and online translation services. Looking to the future, further use of the STIP framework for FTR development will provide better experiences for all involved, and will continue to improve with technological advancements in GIS science and programming.

References


Introduction
The rapid increase of environmental pollution and related health problems has been leading to the wide application of environmental protection programs and sustainable approaches in many industries. In parallel with these eco-protection developments, consumers started to show interest in healthy and sustainable consumption. As a result, environmental sustainability has gained importance in both supply and demand sides where eco-friendly and healthy products and services are produced, introduced, and delivered to ecologically sensitive consumers. One of these services appears as organic restaurants which deliver healthy and nutritious meals to satisfy the needs for organic food consumption in gastronomic tourism industry.

Organic agriculture and organic foods
Organic agriculture has been rapidly increasing in the world since the 1990s, and in parallel, organic food consumption is one of the rising related trends (Kristiansen, Taji, and Reganold 2006; Padel and Foster 2005). For the last 15 years, the organic food market has been constantly expanding (Boran 2015). “The organic food sales in the United States jumped from approximately US$11 billion in 2004 to US$27 billion which is 44% of the world market in 2012” (Dias et al. 2015:155). Interestingly enough, among the 2.4 million global organic food producers, more than 75% come from developing countries whereas the 91% of consumption comes from developed countries like the U.S., Canada, Europe, Japan and Australia (Boran 2015; Willer and Lernoud 2016). The facts and detailed statistics on organic agriculture are summarized in the Table 44.1. below.

There exists a variety of definitions for organic agriculture where organic farming or organic food productions are used interchangeably. ‘Organic’ is defined by the USDA (United States Department of Agriculture) as food produced by farmers emphasizing renewable resources and soil/water conservation to enhance environmental quality for future generations (Ugurlu 2014:72). Organic agriculture is certified for meeting specified standards and controllable processes where no harmful chemicals and pesticides are used in food production (Atli 2006).
There are four main groups of principles of organic agriculture as being healthy, being ecological, being legally secure and being sustainably responsible. The details of principles are (Vogl, Kilcher, and Schmidt 2005; Boran 2015; Kurgun 2017);

- Maximizing the usage of renewable energy resources in food production.
- Using seeds that are not genetically modified.
- Optimizing organic agriculture’s positive impacts on social and ecological environments.
- Increasing biodiversity.
- Improving the water quality and capacity.
- Protecting the environment and rare species.
- Aiding the fight against global warming.
- Minimizing the sources of pollution.
- Being transparent in all production stages.
- Not using any chemical fertilizers that are harmful to soil.
- Producing and collecting the food in accordance with organic agriculture.
- Extending the procedure to ecological packaging, eco-labelling, green storing, green transporting, green marketing, and controlling for certification.

Organic agriculture is rapidly increasing in recent years due to the benefits (Atli 2006; Adanacioglu, Cosar, and Engindeniz 2012):

- Promotes eco-tourism, organic and sustainable gastronomic tourism.
- Improves the quality of life of consumers yet improves the economic conditions of local organic food producers.
- Helps fair trade.
- Helps environmental protection efforts.
- Aids sustainable operations.
- Provides a healthy option for customers and gastronomy tourists.
- Improves the managerial skills of the local farmers by giving them the opportunity to control their own resources.

### Table 44.1 Summarized facts and statistics on organic agriculture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Related statistics</th>
<th>Global Leaders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Certification for organic agriculture</td>
<td>2015: 179 countries</td>
<td>Australia (22.7 million hectares)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1999: 11 million hectares)</td>
<td>Argentina (3.1 million hectares)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share in total agricultural land</td>
<td>2015: 1.1%</td>
<td>Liechtenstein (30.2%) Austria (21.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organic food producers</td>
<td>2015: 2.3 million producers</td>
<td>India (585.200) Ethiopia (203.602)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1999: 200,000 producers)</td>
<td>Mexico (200.039)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global organic market size &amp; value</td>
<td>2015: 81.6 billion US $</td>
<td>US (39.7 billion US $)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1999: 15.2 billion US $)</td>
<td>Germany (9.5 billion US $)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application of organic regulations</td>
<td>2016: 87 countries</td>
<td>Sweden (16.9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Celik, Erdal and Etoz (2017); Somasundram, Rezali and Santhirasegaram (2016); Willer and Lernoud (2017).
• Uses more human power and positively impacts employment levels.
• Decreases the problems associated with poor food products whilst improving the marketing opportunities.
• Improves healthy environments.
• Follows an ecological approach where the natural resources’ effectiveness and ecosystem’s integrity becomes sustainable.
• Promotes the usage of local seed and natural landscape protection
• Leads to soil improvement.
• Improves the working conditions of farmers.
• Focuses on information exchange among the local farmers.
• Supports local economies, slow movement and creates the social capital of agricultural areas.

Customer motivations for organic food consumption

Good Agricultural Practices (GAP) aims environmental protection, human and animal health, sustainability, protection of natural resources and food security management. Organic agriculture is a more advanced comprehensive and sophisticated form of GAP. Since the food products are more nutritious, healthy, eco-friendly, and positively impact employment levels and quality of life standards of local residents, many customers prefer organic foods though they are usually costlier (Kurt 2016). These customer motivations play an important role in the organic food market development (Zander and Hamm 2010). As Lu and Gursoy (2017: 73) states “Spurred by the belief in a healthier and sustainable lifestyle, eating healthier food has started playing a critical role in consumer dining choices in recent years. Today the consumption of sustainable food (e.g., organic and local produce) has been gaining exponential attention from the public”. According to Basha et al. (2015:445) “attitude towards the behavior influences consumer’s intention to purchase the product and determines final decisions in the consumers buying behavior. Their model of proposed framework indicates that “consumer attitude towards purchasing organic food products are strongly influenced by three variables namely environmental concern, health consciousness and lifestyle, product quality and subjective norms”.

There are different customer motivations and intentions in purchasing and consuming organic foods and visiting organic restaurants. Some of them are: being more appealing, being healthier, better flavor, sustainability, environmental protection, fresher produce, avoidance of synthetic and chemical pesticides, food safety, supporting local economy, animal welfare, soil improvement, and other ethical concerns (Bruschi et al. 2015; Magnusson et al. 2001; Makatouni 2002; Nasir and Karakaya 2013; Tarkiainen and Sundqvist 2005). Among these motivations, health, and health-related factors seem to be the main motivation for the organic food purchase (Makatouni 2002). Besides the health issue, taste is another important motivation since it is suggested that “taste attracts people to eat organically, because the taste of organic food is considered by some to be superior to that of conventional food” (Poulston and Yiu 2011:185).

Gathering the findings (Gagić, Mikšić, and Petrović 2015; Karabas and Gurler 2012), the motivations and purchase intentions leading to the attitude of purchase of organic food consumers may be grouped under four categories as shown in Figure 44.1. These motivations and intentions leading to organic food purchase attitude are usually divided into two general categories, one consisting about the individual needs/personal well-being and the other as collectivist needs/social well-being (Michaelidou and Hassan 2008:163; Padel and Foster 2005; Schrank and Running 2016).
The organic food consumers are usually very sensitive to environmental protection and ecological sustainability. Yet, their motives and purchase intentions towards the organic food consumption may be grouped under four categories as indicated in Figure 44.1. Responsibility about environmental protection, trust in the producer, health, and nutrition benefits of the organic foods seem to be important customer motivations (Gagić, Mikšić, and Petrović 2015; Karabas and Gurler 2012). Having eco-packages, having certification, and having no harmful ingredients are also vital properties to consumers. Some fanatically devoted ‘green’ consumers (Fotopoulos and Krystallis 2002) are even concerned about the eco-labelling, green marketing applications, and green transportation information related to the products they consume (Grankvist, Dahlstrand, and Biel 2004).

Organic foods and gastronomic tourism

The “organic foods movement began as a reaction to conventional agricultural methods that are heavily dependent on chemical pesticides, fertilizers, antibiotics and growth hormones assumed to be harmful for human health as well as the environment” (Nasir and Karakaya 2013:290) Though being a growing trend, organic food production and consumption is still a niche segment globally. The production and consumption of organic food is common in developed countries, whereas mainly production is common in developing countries (Somasundram, Razali, and Santhirasegaram 2016).

Gastronomic tourism is a kind of tourism where the motivation of the tourist is focused on food, special cuisines, specialty meals, local dishes, unique tastes, and famous chefs (Zengin, Uyar, and Erkol 2014). The suppliers consist of food producers, F&B establishments, restaurants, and food producing businesses. There are interactions between tourism and gastronomy since gastronomy is part of the tourism experience, its destination is one of the most important touristic attractions and elements of gastronomy like local food and local culinary culture are quite important within the tourism experience offered (Caliskan 2013; Madaleno, Eusébio, and Varum 2018). The consumption of food a minimum of three times daily makes gastronomy a vital part of any tourism experience which provides an interaction with local culture.
consisting of one-third of the general travel expenditures in general (Kim, Eves, and Scarles 2009; Nergis 2017). Thus, this figure increases for tourism products like the slow food movement and gastronomic tourism where the experience is mainly focused on foods.

According to TURSAB gastronomic tourism report 88, 2% of global tourists indicate that food is a major concern when choosing the destination (TURSAB 2015). Thus, global demand for gastronomic tourism is rapidly increasing and gastronomy is becoming an important tool for product diversification and one of the main motivations and destination attraction factors (Cimen 2016; Yilmaz 2017). Important components of gastronomic tourism are as follows (Acar 2016; Yilmaz 2017; Madaleno, Eusébio, and Varum 2018):

- Special restaurants
- Locally produced food items
- Special food production systems
- Food festivals
- Special food events and organizations
- Organic agriculture
- Local food production
- Conventional food production
- Local alcoholic/non-alcoholic beverage production
- Local cultural offerings of the destinations
- Regional culinary culture
- Regional/local food diversity

Local and regional food production systems are becoming crucial destination attraction factors in gastronomic tourism (Sercek and Sercek 2015). Within the gastronomic tourism, the demand for local cuisine, organic food consumption, and slow food is increasing (Larsson 2015). Due to this trend, popular local dishes, slow food, and organic food movements, sustainable restaurants and green restaurants result in repeat purchases and loyal customers for a destination (Henderson 2009; Kurnaz and Ozdogan 2017). The global organic food movement and the slow food movement are still niche segments with their comparatively small numbers compared to conventional food markets, yet they occupy a special place in gastronomic tourism with their huge growth potential and the high spending habits of these gastronomic tourists (Myers and Sbicca 2015; Sage 2014).

“Increasing interest in organic food reflects a shift in consciousness, and has accelerated the movement of conscious and responsible cuisine, which introduces a kind of conscience dimension to the culinary experience” (Poulston and Yiu 2011:185). A study conducted in Ardahan, Turkey, indicates that the plants collected from nature for cooking local meals were found quite valuable by the tourists since they were rare and organic (Cimen 2016). The studies on organic agriculture, environmental protection, and eco-tourism indicates that there is a positive relationship among them (Atabey, Gurdogan, and Yokas 2016). Thus, within this relationship, organic food consumption and organic restaurants are significant components of the gastronomic tourism with three dimensions of sustainability as being ecologic, economic, and socially ethical (Pirnar 2015; Scarpato 2002).

**Management and marketing of organic restaurants**

More and more people are looking for healthy food products in the market and have positive attitudes to organic foods due to individualistic and collectivist motivations like health,
nutrition, better taste, better quality, and secure food concepts (Lee and Yun 2015:265). In order to meet the needs of this new trend, restaurants started to make changes in their menus by adding healthy food items and nutritional information of the meals (Pirnar 2015). Yet to optimize the benefits of this rising trend, organic restaurants which serve only or mostly certified organic foods appeared in the restaurant industry (Albayrak 2017). The most important managerial aspects of organic food market and organic restaurants are quality and hygiene, whereas price is not considered that significant (Atli 2006). Besides quality and hygiene, successful branding and keeping promises are also vital issues for organic restaurant marketing. Proper positioning according to green and ecological image is also vital so that from menus to design, from napkins to kitchen utensils, everything should be ecological (Budiani, Suastuti, and Massenga 2016).

The topics of sustainability in organic restaurants may be grouped under five categories (Sunnetcioglu and Yilmaz 2015; Kurnaz and Ozdogan 2017):

- Sustainable food and beverage, usage of organic foods and organic ingredients
- Sustainable building and design
- Sustainable furniture, tableware, and utensils
- Water usage, renewable energy usage, and recycling
- Corporate social responsibility

It is understood that the motivations and intentions leading to organic food purchase are divided into two categories: one about the personal wellbeing and individual health (egoistic) needs, and the other as social well-being as environmental protection and collectivist needs (Schrank and Running 2016). Therefore, the promotion mix of organic restaurants should emphasize on creating consumer awareness in health and associated benefits provided by organic foods and also aim to decrease consumers’ risk perceptions by communicating credence attributes like certification and nutritional information. “Advertising messages could be more successful if they emphasized the promise of personal benefits (e.g., health and nutrition) and societal benefits (e.g., environmentally friendly) in order to shape consumers’ beliefs and credence in organic foods” (Lee and Yun 2015:265).

Sustainable Restaurant Association (SRA) is a restaurant network formed in England and Ireland aiming to improve food product quality and minimize food waste and resource usage (Kurnaz and Ozdogan 2017). According to the SRA, ecological green restaurants should focus on sustainable and eco-friendly managerial set of activities which are good for local life improvement (Pirnar 2015).

Since organic restaurant consumers are sensitive to ecological wellbeing besides the health and nutrition provided by organic foods, it is crucial that the restaurants should emphasize the concept of sustainability to its customers with all the servicescape factors. The usage of renewable energy, separation of pollutants from restaurant wastewater (Chen, Chen, and Yue 2000), using ecological table ware, ecological packaging, minimizing or restricting plastic usage, and the application of valid effective recycling systems are some examples of application areas for improved sustainable restaurant image. Application of green marketing principles also adds to the restaurant’s eco-friendly image.

### Sustainability in F&B: Organic food and the slow food movement

The term sustainability is first used in 1712 by Hans Carl von Carlowitz in his book “Sylvicultura Oeconomica” (Sunnetcioglu and Yilmaz 2015) and applications of the concept of sustainable
Organic foods and gastronomic tourism

development started in the 1980s. Sustainability is about being ecological, being economic, and being ethical and has been gaining importance ever since (Schrank and Running 2016). It is important for restaurants also, due to long term benefits it provides to both customers and restaurant managers. For restaurants, sustainability had an impact with two main movements: the organic food movement and slow food movement. Carlo Petrini started the slow food movement in 1986 at Langhe-Cuneo’dad as a protest and reaction to the fast food restaurant McDonald’s opening up in Piazza di Spagna, Rome (Jones et al. 2003).

The slow food movement looks for quality in three dimensions as being good, clean, and fair (Yurtseven and Kaya 2010). Good quality stands for the real taste, nutrition, and appeal of the food. Cleanliness stands for food security, ecologic biodiversity, and being pesticide/chemical free, providing healthier and safer foods for the customers. Lastly, the fairness dimension is about being ethical, where workers receive fair treatment and fair working conditions. Fairness also stands for fair pricing for both sides as customers and producers (Tayfun and Acuner 2014).

Case study 44.1: Seferihisar destination and organic/semi-organic restaurants

Slow city (cittàslow) is a union of towns and a social sustainable network supporting local development, the slow food movement, and local quality of life focusing on protection of culture and sustainability (Tayfun and Acuner 2014). The criteria of the slow food movement may be summarized as follows (Yucel and Karabag 2015; Ozmen, Birsen, and Birsen 2016; Unal 2016);

- To prepare and apply eco-friendly sustainable projects
- To provide the substructure for ecologic soil usage
- To use environmentally friendly technologies
- To support local production and sustainable consumption
- To support the organic food production and consumption
- To build sound relationships among the local producers and consumers
- To protect and support the traditional food products
- To promote the local food and traditional local dishes
- To research the history of the local food and famous dishes

Seferihisar is Turkey’s first (the world’s 129th) slow city (cittàslow) which is famous for its’ slow food movement and organic food production (Erguven 2011; Unal 2016). It is a town located in Izmir in the Aegean and is famous for its organic restaurants and organic markets. Some of the measurements, policies, and programs applied for organic agricultural development and organic restaurant management improvement are:

- “Seferihisar Municipality cooperated with Ege University faculty of agriculture and Izmir development agency on the ‘From the fields to the table’ project which aimed to improve organic agriculture and provide training on the best practices of agriculture” (Gunlu and Pirnar 2016:25).
- “A Village Market and Sığacık Market have been established to bring together producers and consumers to help protect local and/or organic food production and make sure that restaurants and cafeterias use vegetables, fruits, and cereal crops organically produced by the
locals. Sefertası Restaurants, which prepare local delicacies, have opened at various points in Seferihisar to protect and spread the local dishes that are on the verge of being forgotten” (Gunlu and Pirnar 2016:25).

- The municipality supports the activities on promoting the local traditional meals and gastronomic slow food products (Yucel and Karabag 2015). It also supports local gastronomic festivals and events and promotes the organic restaurants while keeping the local traditions.

In Seferihisar, it was found that there is a direct relationship with the organic food movement, organic/semi-organic restaurants in the area and its’ popularity in domestic tourism. Municipality-supported projects on organic agriculture, local agriculture, and slow food movement have resulted in many organic and semi-organic restaurants impacting Seferihisar’s competitiveness positively (Ozmen, Birsen, and Birsen 2016) by making it a popular gastronomic tourism destination.

### Figure 44.2  The Important managerial activities for green and sustainable restaurants. (Pirnar 2015; Kurnaz and Ozdogan 2017).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities related to local society and local well being</th>
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<tr>
<td>• Being fare and treating everyone equal</td>
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<td>• Social participation</td>
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<td>• Increase in local employment</td>
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<td>• Local QOL improvement</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Healthy food usage</td>
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<td>• Responsible management</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Emphasizing local production and local consumption</td>
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<th>Activities related to ecology and environmental protection</th>
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<tr>
<td>• Efficient water usage</td>
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<td>• Using ecologic tableware and kitchen utensils</td>
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<td>• Minimizing plastic usage</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Sustainable value chain</td>
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<td>• Green supply chain</td>
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<td>• Green marketing</td>
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<td>• Waste management</td>
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<td>• Recycling</td>
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<td>• Using renewable energy</td>
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<tr>
<th>Activities related to sustainable resource usage</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Using local, seasonal and organic foods</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Ethical meat consumption</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Sustainable fish and sea food usage</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Emphasis on local and organic agriculture</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Efficient use of business resources</td>
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<td>• Fair trade applications</td>
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### Conclusion

One of the main trends in the food and agriculture world is organic farming. Organic food consumption has been rapidly increasing due to its’ benefits like health, nutrition, environmental protection, sustainability, soil protection, animal wellbeing, and biodiversity. Related consumer motivations are divided into two groups as individual needs/personal wellbeing and collectivist needs/social wellbeing. Thus, collectivist needs and social wellbeing motivations may be stated as an ethical identity, and as being part of the ecological responsibility, helping sustainability, environmental protection, animal welfare, and other ecological value for the consumers like green labelling, green marketing, and applications associated with organic food consumption. Individual needs and personal wellbeing motivators are; certification, food safety, food security, trust, reliability of the food product, health, nutrition, avoidance of synthetic/chemical pesticides and taste benefits to the customer.

The global organic food movement and the slow food movement are still niche segments with their comparatively small numbers to conventional food markets, yet they occupy a special place in gastronomic tourism with their huge growth potential and the high spending habits of these gastronomy tourists. Thus, organic restaurants are part of the ecological gas-
tronomy tourism and they are becoming one of the vital components of sustainable tourism. As the Seferihisar case indicates, the existence of organic restaurants promotes gastronomic tourism in a destination while positively impacting the competitiveness level.

References


Introduction
As world populations increase, issues arise with sustainable protein development. Current protein production has high land use, water use, methane gas emissions, and feed. As such, the United Nations has urged for the promotion and adoption of a more sustainable protein for human consumption: edible insects. Crickets, for example, are 20x more efficient as a source of protein than beef, produce 20x less methane gas, and need 6x less feed. The practice of eating insects is known as entomophagy and has been practiced by people throughout the world for thousands of years. Insects can be harvested from forests, freshwater ecosystems, deserts, agricultural fields, and farms (van Huis et al. 2013). The global edible insect food and feed market (the U.S., Belgium, France, the U.K., the Netherlands, China, Thailand, Vietnam, Brazil, and Mexico) totaled USD $33 million (flour, bars, snacks, and animal feed markets combined) in 2015, and it is expected to exceed USD $522 million by 2023 (Global Market Insights Inc. 2016). The science and art of cooking, preparing, and eating insects is a fashionable alternative to everyday cuisine in many cultures (Lilholt 2016). Edible insects, with their plethora of taste, aromatic, textural, and visual characteristics, is an example of an area of nature that requires further gastronomic exploration (Halloran et al. 2015).

Therefore, based on its future importance in sustainable food production and the current practices used across the globe by a myriad of cultures, this chapter discusses edible insect gastronomy. First, it discusses the health and sustainability benefits of entomophagy. Second, it discusses insect gastronomy from a cultural and anthropological perspective. Third, the chapter discusses entomophagy from a global perspective. Finally, the chapter presents edible insect examples across the globe in terms of special events, packaged foods, casual establishments, and high-end gastronomic operations.

Benefits of edible insects for the global population
Insects already form a traditional part of many regional and national diets (van Huis et al. 2013). Research finds that insects are a healthy and sustainable food source and that customers’ negative perceptions are derived from a lack of research in this field (Baker, Shin, and Kim 2016).
Edible insect gastronomy

Health

Insects are a rich source of protein and contain good fats, high calcium, iron and zinc (van Huis et al. 2013). Nutritionally, insects are comparable to conventional animal protein sources such as beef, fish (Halloran et al. 2014), chicken, and pork (van Huis et al. 2013). In addition, the efficiencies to produce crickets, for example, are far greater than those of conventional proteins. Specifically, 80% of crickets are edible, compared to 55% of poultry and pork, and 40% for beef (van Huis et al. 2013). Furthermore, protein and other nutritional deficiencies are typically more widespread in developing countries and thus edible insects can serve to offer a nutritious food source (van Huis et al. 2013).

Sustainability

Eating insects has incredible environmental benefits across the globe. In order to sustain the world’s growing population, the world needs to increase its food production by 60% (Baker, Shin, and Kim 2016). However, current protein and livestock farming requires a significant amount of land, feed, and water use. Livestock production occupies 70% of agricultural land (amounting to 30% of the Earth’s land surface), either for direct grazing or for growing feed (Steinfeld et al. 2006). Raising livestock is notoriously harmful to the environment. If humans simply increase current production techniques, it will result in a lack of drinking water, living space, increase methane gas, and ultimately lead to human deaths (Baker, Shin, and Kim 2016). Insects are highly valued as food in many cultures but have only recently gained interest in the U.S. as a sustainable protein alternative to reduce the environmental impact of traditional meat production (Tan et al. 2015). Specifically, insects promoted as food emit far fewer greenhouse gases than most other livestock (van Huis et al. 2013). Because they are cold blooded, insects are very efficient at converting feed into protein (van Huis et al. 2013). In addition, insects thrive in crowded, dark environments and thus require less land for rearing compared to other proteins.

Edible insects in the current global world from a culture perspective

Insects are part of the traditional diets of approximately two billion people worldwide (Halloran et al. 2014). Over 2,000 species of insects are consumed worldwide by humans and most popularly include beetles, caterpillars, wasps, bees, ants, crickets, grasshoppers, and bugs (van Huis 2016). Entomophagy has always formed part of the human diet, although the topic has only recently started to capture worldwide attention (Coleman 2016). Culture, anthropology, history, and geography all play a role in the way different regions perceive food and gastronomy products and offerings (Baker, Shin, and Kim 2016).

Entomophagy from an anthropological perspective

The word entomophagy, which describes the practice of eating insects, is primarily an anthropological term, and is associated with observations of humans eating insects across the globe (Evans et al. 2015). Many parts of the world consume insects, neither as a novelty or as a fallback famine food (Van Huis et al. 2013). However, from an anthropological perspective, many do not consider eating insects because it does not align with Western ideals. Familiarity with the idea of eating insects increases both the intent to consume and actual consumption (Verbeke 2015). Familiarity, or unfamiliarity is an important driver of food choice and a
significant determinant of the decision to replace meat by meat substitutes (Hoek et al. 2011). In the U.S. consuming insects is not embedded in the traditional diet. However, food choices change over time and are pushed by socio-economics, culinary innovation, and advances in agro-food business and technology, through chefs, trendy cuisine magazines and TV shows, slow food concepts, health and/or environmental/social concerns (Halloran et al. 2014). It is therefore critical to acknowledge changing gastronomic patterns and options as the world becomes more globalized.

Entomophagy from a cultural perspective

Human insect eating is common to cultures in 80% of the world including North, Central and South America, Africa, Asia, Australia, and New Zealand (Lilholt 2016). As previously noted, insects form a part of the traditional diets of at least two billion people, and there are more than 2,000 species that are used as food (Van Huis et al. 2013). However, one of the largest factors barring the widespread acceptance of insects as food is culture (Halloran et al. 2014). Cuisines, as systems of selecting and preparing food, emerge out of geography, climate, culture, disposition, and other factors, and can also change through social needs and advances in technology (Rozin 2002).

There are many cultures, especially Westernized cultures, that view human edible insect consumption as disgusting (Baker, Shin, and Kim 2017). Disgusting foods gain their disagreeable status from their origin, their social history, and culture (Fallon and Rozin 1983). In Westernized countries, insects eating is often seen as disgusting and dirty (Baker, Shin, and Kim 2016), while in reality, many insects are much cleaner and more nutritious than other foods human regularly consume such as the scavenging pig, live oysters, and lobsters (Coleman 2016). At the moment, many cultural and psychological barriers stand in the way of consumer acceptance of insects as food in Western cultures (Looy et al. 2014). However, cultural exposure can act as a primary factor in influencing consumer’s food choice acceptance or rejection (Dermody and Chatterjee 2016).

Role edible insects play in gastronomy across sections of the globe

Developing broader culinary roles for insects is one way to change the disgust that many Westerners commonly associate with them. Gastronomy involves discovering, tasting, experiencing, researching, understanding, and writing about food preparation, and the sensory qualities of food (Lilholt 2016). Chefs and other gastronomic leaders thus play an integral role in broadening the perception of what is edible and (re-)introducing ingredients, like insects, into delicious foods (Halloran et al. 2015). From the termites and caterpillars enjoyed by African tribes to the deep-fried locusts and beetles consumed by the Thai, many cultures enthusiastically eat insects, which are firmly part of their local gastronomic traditions (DeFoliart 1999). Furthermore, the past few years have experienced a boom in startups specializing in insect-based foods. This trend has been seen at its strongest in France, the Netherlands, and the U.S. (Halloran et al. 2014).

Developing insect cuisine is done by the Nordic FoodLab (NFL Copenhagen, Denmark) through their gastronomic innovation with ants, crickets, and bees, based on the point that taste is the most important component of food (Halloran et al. 2014). In addition, the Korean Edible Insect Laboratory is at the forefront of innovative food production making products such as gourmet cookies, soups, and rice, as well as having a full-service restaurant that serves edible insect gastronomy (Shin, Baker, and Kim 2018). There are also a host
of websites that provide information on edible insect gastronomy. One example is Bug Vivant, which is a website touted as the online culinary hub for edible insect recipes, product reviews, and events with the goal of making gourmet edible insects more accessible to the world (Curry 2017).

**Current examples and the future of edible insect gastronomy**

In the last few years, entomophagy is gaining ever-increasing interest across the globe, catching the attention of media, research institutions, the food industry, and policymakers, suggesting that edible insects are a valuable niche market for gastronomy (Menozzi et al. 2017).

**Edible insect gastronomy as tourism destinations**

The rise in adventurous eating and eaters is a viable target market. Insect eating can be positioned as a global or adventurous experience (Taylor 2015). With the projection of dramatic near-term growth for the market, and the potential for significant, continued growth in the coming decades, entrepreneurs from all around the world have been launching businesses focused on edible insects as their major product (Han et al. 2017). Entomophagy is increasingly seen as an important destination pull factor for tourism (Baker, Shin, and Kim 2016).

For example, the Korean Edible Insect Laboratory (KEIL) is responsible for insect food materials development, product innovation, commercialization, promotion, and marketing research (Shin, Baker, and Kim 2018). Crickets are a popular street food in Thailand, as well as a component of other traditional dishes. (Halloran et al. 2014). In Japan, there are many insect-based dishes such as hacki-no-ko (boiled wasp larvae), inago (fried rice-field grasshoppers), and semi (fried cicada) (Pemberton 1995). In Italy, many tourists seek to consume casu marzu, a fermented Sardinian sheep milk cheese that contains the live insect larvae of maggots (Baker, Shin, and Kim 2016). This cheese is only available in Sardinia, and thus adventurous tourists must travel there to consume it.

**Edible insect gastronomy in special events**

Complementing the scholarly interest, edible insects are increasingly being featured in various public events and exhibitions hosted by zoos, nature centers, museums, fairs, and other organizations, as well as on ethnic menus in Western countries (DeFoliart 1999; Van Huis et al. 2013). Events that promote entomophagy can enhance gastronomic acculturation to a small extent (Looy et al. 2014). One successful strategy is for experimental tasting events that allow consumers to see, feel, and taste insects in new ways in order to familiarize them with insects as food and increase acceptance (Stock et al. 2016). For example, in 2016, the first edible insect conference was held in the U.S. This conference hosted numerous vendors such as Exo, Chapul, Chirps, and the Korean Edible Insect Laboratory (Baker, Shin, and Kim 2017). The food expo allowed consumers to try different food products and was deemed a major success by the media (Eating Insect Detroit 2016). In 2012, Museum Victoria hosted a ‘bugs for Brunch’ event for children and parents as part of the Melbourne Food and Wine Festival. The gastronomic experiment was designed to see if children could be induced to unlearn their disgust at eating bugs, and found that many of the children accepted that the insects were not only tasty, but nutritious too (Coleman 2016).
**Novel experiences**

Eating insects can also be seen as a novel, unique experience (Baker, Shin, and Kim 2017). Foodservice establishments serving insect meals are enticing consumers to try these more inventive meal offerings as it resonates with the risky and adventurous self (Dermody and Chatterjee 2016). In both hospitality and tourism sectors, customers are increasingly looking for unique experiences and targeting these customers is increasingly occurring in the industry (Baker, Shin, and Kim 2017). There is New Zealand’s huhu grub, which is supposed to taste like peanut butter; South America’s spicy red agave worms and apple-flavored stinkbugs; Japan’s silkworm pupae, available ten to a skewer in restaurants; and Thailand’s nutty crickets and palm weevils with a hint of bacon flavor (Coleman 2016). Denmark’s Nordic Food Lab, established in 2008, offers a ‘Pestival menu’ with gastronomic recipes such as Roast Locusts and Moth Mousse, and boasts that it crosses the disciplinary divide of cultures by combining a humanities-focused interest in geographical place with the scientific interest in taste, gastronomy, and nutrition (Coleman 2016).

**Cookbooks**

Popular interest books have been published about insect consumption, while cookbooks like *Entertaining with Insects*, *Eat-a-Bug-Cookbook: 33 Ways to Cook Grasshoppers, Ants, Water Bugs, Spiders, Centipedes, and Their Kin*, and *Creepy Crawly Cuisine: The Gourmet Guide to Edible Insects* are available for intrigued Westerners (DeFoliart 1999; Van Huis et al. 2013). The pioneer of the edible insect cookbook is David George Gordon, who has shared his edible insect cuisine on TV shows such as The View and Conan O’Brien.

**Packaged products available at retail and grocery stores**

Because of their high protein content, some companies in the West (France, the U.K., and the U.S.) are selling energy bars enriched with cricket powder (Halloran et al. 2014). Some of the most prominent edible insect companies and products selling in the U.S. include Exo (cricket energy bars), Chapul (cricket energy bars), Chirps (chops made with cricket flour), and Bitty (cricket-baked flour goods). In the U.S., the most commonly used insect for food products is cricket flour (Baker, Shin, and Kim 2017), while other parts of the world are also harvesting mealworm flour (Shin, Baker, and Kim 2018). As far as the geographical distribution of these niche markets is concerned, it appears that the United States are increasingly served by many food start-ups which have developed familiar products (snacks, energy bars, chips) using insect flour (mainly cricket) as an ingredient (Vantomme 2015).

**Casual establishments**

Some restaurants are serving insect dishes and a number of customers are intrigued by the inventive and interesting meal offerings, as it resonates with a risky and adventurous sense of self (Dermody and Chatterjee 2016). Don Bugito Prehispanic Snackeria in San Francisco attracts lines of curious market-goers excited to sample wax-moth larvae tacos and mealworm ice cream (Van Huis et al. 2013). Edible insects are also being served to college students in the form of roasted crickets at the University of Connecticut (Diluna 2015).
Edible insect gastronomy

High-end gastronomy

Perhaps some of the largest adopters of the edible insect movement are high-end gastronomic restaurants and chefs. Insects are increasingly an addition to fine dining menus, as well as a solution to feeding the planets increasing population (van Huis et al. 2013; Coleman 2016). Such gastronomic enterprises, such as the Nordic Food Lab in Copenhagen and the Ento project in London, seek to transform insects into highly palatable foods by optimizing their color, texture, taste, and flavor (van Huis et al. 2013), as does the Korean Edible Insect Laboratory (Shin, Baker and Kim 2018). Insect-consuming populations often eat them as a delicacy, seeing each insect as an ingredient. Many of these insects and insect foods frequently fetch higher prices than other meat sources in the market, and it is this approach of investigating insects as a delicious gastronomic product that interests us (Halloran et al. 2015).

Current and future issues associated with edible insect gastronomy

Although edible insects are increasingly seen as a delicious food option with health and sustainable benefits, there are a number of issues associated with edible insect gastronomy.

Customer psychology

Understanding customers and how they may be more likely to adopt entomophagy is a critical step toward the future of acceptance (Baker, Shin, and Kim 2017). In the U.S., there is still a widespread perception that edible insects are disgusting (Baker, Shin, and Kim 2016, 2017). The unfamiliarity of insects as food in the U.S. poses many difficulties to product development, as prior taste experiences form the basis for expectations and knowledge. As the U.S. is not an insect-eating culture, their expectations are less distinct (Tan et al. 2015). Product preparation (Tan et al. 2015) and the form of the product (Baker, Shin, and Kim 2016) greatly affect willingness to try edible insects. As such, while some gastronomic experiences seek to show the insect in its traditional form, to entice thrill seekers (Baker, Shin, and Kim 2017), most companies and firms are using a more ambiguous form of insects, such as flour.

Marketing

It is critical to understand how and why sensory cues, such as food appearance and description, can be marketed to increase acceptance and consumption. In addition, both researchers and practitioners have found that making insects into food involves transforming the insects into another form (Baker, Shin, and Kim 2016; Stock et al. 2016). In the U.S., this involves creating cricket flour to be used in products as opposed to whole crickets. In addition, the wording associated with product descriptions can reduce negative perceptions, such that more ambiguous descriptions decreased risk perceptions, as opposed to obvious insect descriptions (Baker, Shin, and Kim 2016). Understanding consumers’ attitudes and behaviors, especially from a marketing and psychology standpoint, is critical in order to gain acceptance and solve the global food issue.

Conclusion

Human consumption of edible insects is both a healthy and sustainable gastronomic option for tourists and consumers. In addition, based on increased populations, the United Nations has
urged the promotion and adoption of this more sustainable protein for human consumption. This chapter seeks to educate readers on the benefits of entomophagy and discuss edible insect consumption from a cultural and anthropological perspective. Second, the chapter presents a number of current examples of edible insect gastronomy across the world, including as tourist destinations in special events, as packaged products, at casual restaurants, and in high-end gastronomy. As gastronomy involves discovering, experiencing, researching, and understanding food, this chapter hopes to illuminate the concept and practice of edible insect gastronomy.

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Edible insect gastronomy


Introduction

Given that 100% of visitors must eat, it is surprising that academic interest in food and wine tourism is relatively recent (substantial research started to appear from the end of the 1990s) (Wolf 2015). One does not even need to travel exclusively in search of culinary experiences to be considered a food tourist; ‘opportunistic’ food tourists may look for food and drink experiences at a destination that they have selected primarily for other reasons, and ‘accidental’ food tourists may participate in a food or drink festival just because they happen to be in a certain location at a certain time (Yeoman et al. 2015). The tremendous growth of eco-gastronomic tourism in the last two decades, however, can be explained in terms of the potential that local food and drink have to help differentiate destinations by developing a ‘sense of place’, which offers a unique visitor experience, but at the same time, provides economic benefits to local communities (Haven-Tang and Jones 2005). One global manifestation of the shift in visitors’ interest from globalized and standardized products and services towards niche products and services is the surge in demand for craft-based products, which is a wider movement in which people demand goods and services that have a connection with the ‘local’ (Rogerson 2016). Place-based gastronomic tourism can focus on a diverse range of products including regional cuisine, wine, beer, cider, spirits such as gin and whiskey, and tea and coffee. While a substantial amount of research has been conducted on oenotourism, there appears to be scant research on the tourism generated by other alcoholic beverages (Cloutier et al. 2016), and particularly on craft or artisan alcoholic beverages. In order to address this gap in the literature, this chapter investigates the increasing popularity of craft drinks tourism (beer, cider, and gin) worldwide and, more specifically, in Northern Ireland, a destination where out-of-state visitors spend over a third of their money on food and drink (NITB 2009, cited by NITB 2012) and where pubs are the top visitor attraction (NITB 2012). The findings of the investigation revealed that tourists are thirsty for craft beer, cider, and gin in Northern Ireland, that craft drinks tourism provides local communities and entrepreneurs with economic as well as socio-cultural benefits, and that craft drinks contribute to provide that all important authentic experience that ‘the new tourist’ (Poon 1993) is after.
Craft drinks tourism worldwide & in N. Ireland

Craft food and beverages tourism

Within the past 20 years there has been a considerable increase in consumer demand for high quality, locally produced, authentic food and beverages. This increase in demand can be attributed to a post-modern consumer backlash against the industrially produced homogenous products that have dominated global markets (Jenkins 2016). The homogenization of consumption has been driven by multinational brands through mass advertising, whose effect has been to confuse consumer needs and wants and limit the range of offering in terms of product variety. However, a sea change is taking place and product differentiation and niche markets are becoming increasingly important to the contemporary consumer (Murray and O’Neill 2012, cited by Rogerson 2016). This post-productivist transition has generated a revalorization of rural spaces and craft products, such as gourmet coffee, artisan cheese, artisan bread products, humanely raised and slaughtered meat, and craft beverages. The promotion of these craft products complements the adoption of endogenous, bottom-up strategies for rural development, facilitating a sense of ownership by local people while creating niche markets for local enterprises in tourism, craft, and agricultural sectors (Ray 1998).

Another reason why the craft beverage industry has exploded in the market is that brewers and distillers are able to ‘hyperdifferentiate’ between corporate brands and craft beverages (Mathews and Patton 2016). Craft beer dominates the alcoholic craft beverage scene; however, craft cider and spirits are other manifestations of this burgeoning market. Examples of craft beverage tourism include tours of production facilities, visits to breweries, pubs, and brasseries, exploring self-driving trails or routes, themed weekends away, beverage tastings and beverage and food pairing sampling, visiting artisan food and beverage museums and collections, and the acquisition of themed visitor merchandise (Dunn and Wickham 2015).

Destination marketing organizations are increasingly using videos to tell the story of their place, and artisan food and beverage entrepreneurs are taking center stage (Kline and Bulla 2017). This form of marketing appeals to Millennials who are turning their back on ‘things’ in favor of immersive cultural experiences (Kelly 2017). Moreover, the rise of craft beverages signals the grassroots development of a space where multiple generations, social entrepreneurs, and community-focused innovators can forge their own path. The craft brewery or distillery serves as a medium to development within communities; it fosters a sense of local pride, the emergence of a place where ideas can be exchanged and voices heard, and an atmosphere that attracts creative professionals. Studies have documented the spiraling effect of changing communities where one small change leads to another until a critical mass of shifts have taken place in the built, cultural, human, and social landscapes of a town or region (Delconte, Kline and Scavo 2015; Stone and Nyaupane 2015; Zahra and McGehee 2013). Hence, new businesses that emerge within the craft beverage industry have the potential to create a ripple effect of impacts within their host region (Kline and Bulla 2017).

Craft beer tourism

According to Kelly (2017), beer tourism has become big business; breweries in the US have increased from just 78 in 1978 to 5,005 in 2016, which represents an annual average increase of 11.6% during the 38-year period. The number of craft breweries has also grown in the last
30 years in the US, from one craft brewery in 1966 to an estimated 2,000 breweries today (Herrera 2016; Reid, McLaughlin, and Moore 2014), although other estimates put the number of craft breweries at 4,000 (American Distilling Institute 2017b). The Brewers Association estimates that in 2014 more than 10 million people toured small and independent craft breweries in the U.S. and more than 7% of craft sales by volume were made at the brewery. Including a brewery visit within a tourism trip is very appealing and a survey conducted by Travelocity in 2016 found that more than 75% of respondents said they would choose a destination where there was the chance to visit a craft brewery and sample local beer (Kelly 2017). The craft beer movement in the United States is not an isolated phenomenon. Craft breweries are rapidly expanding also in the United Kingdom, across Europe, Australia, New Zealand, parts of Asia and most recently in South Africa (Rogerson 2016). Elzinga, Tremblay, and Tremblay (2015) argue that the increase in demand for craft brews has (re)invented beer as a serious consumption good to be paired with food, rather than simply as a liquid that quenched thirst on a hot day or offered an inexpensive buzz. Additionally, Withers (2017) points out that what was once considered a beverage for the ordinary person or working-class man has now transformed into a sophisticated and complex consumer product that spans across many demographic entities – from hipster to hippie – and with high-end restaurants offering a beer list that frequently matches the length and depth of wine lists. Sugar (2016) also maintains that the growth of craft beer allows women to ‘re-engage’ with beer and the social ritual of its consumption. According to Herrera (2016), there are several underpinnings of this cultural shift in beer consumption such as changes in preferences of certain consumer groups (e.g., hipsters) opting not to support beer conglomerates, the growth of word-of-mouth recommendations, increased disposable incomes, and higher education levels, which encouraged a preference for variety and quality over homogeneity and quantity. In this sense, craft beer exemplifies one of many ways through which communities reaffirm local identities in the wake of the impacts of globalization on homogenizing tastes and products (Flack 1997; Schnell and Reese 2014). Because of this reaction against industry consolidation and lack of variety, since the 1980s consumers have begun to show a renewed interest in ‘older’ European beer styles such as porter, pale ales, stout, and bitters (Dillivan 2012). Indeed, craft beer is conceptualized as a beer that (1) is brewed, bottled, and sold by a privately owned brewery; (2) is small in production (six million barrels or less); and (3) contains only ‘traditional’ ingredients (Brewers Association, 2017). Eberts (2014:176) points out that because brewers usually must draw their key raw ingredients, such as barley and especially hops, from a variety of non-local sources, they rely on evoking localness primarily through “the art of brewing itself and the narratives of place they employ in their marketing.”

Rao (2008) notes that the rise in the number of craft breweries suggests that a new entry into a market is possible for entrepreneurs even when large-scale producers account for a vast majority of the sales in a market, and that a number of like businesses entering the same market does not always result in destructive competition. According to the author, this phenomenon is due to the craft beer industry’s success at framing itself as a social movement against big beer businesses. He states: “identity movements, informed by a ‘we’ feeling, arise to challenge dominant organizations or categories and seek to realize new collective identities by building new organizations that emphasize democracy, participation, and empowerment” (Rao 2008:43). This helps to explain why craft beer appeals to demographics such as hippies and hipsters, and why craft beer destinations that feature breweries, brewpubs, and craft-beer-focused bars have increasingly become appealing to residents and non-residents, who seek authentic and unique experiences as a means to explore host cultures (Plummer et al. 2005).
Craft drinks tourism worldwide & in N. Ireland

**Craft cider tourism**

In addition to craft beer, consumers are increasingly drinking craft ciders that allow for the personality of the product, producer, and place to come through. The amount of apple juice that must be legally contained in the final product varies from country to country (Kline and Cole 2017). For example, in the U.K. cider must contain 35% juice (Thring 2011), France requires it to be 100% apple juice derived (Blenkinsin 2012), and in the USA, the standard is 50% (Badeker 2002). Similarly to craft beer, there are many different flavors and styles of ciders available to consumers nowadays depending on the ingredients (traditional versus unusual) that have been used and the methods that have employed in the production process (Kline and Cole 2017). The U.K. is the largest cider market both globally and across Europe (it represents 39% of the global market) and has more than 500 cider makers (NACM 2017). Overall penetration has slipped slightly in 2016, which is echoed by the 1% drop in volume sales. Despite this, there are areas of growth within this market, which suggests that consumers are drinking less cider, but are more discerning about quality and more experimental in their choices when they do. Craft cider and fruit-flavored cider have seen the biggest uptick in usage. Craft cider, although still a relatively niche area of the market, has gained a fairly strong following among young men. While only 14% of adults have drunk craft cider in the UK in the six months to October 2016, this jumps to 36% of male under-25s, and is also unusually high among people living in London (33%). It follows that craft cider offers growth potential if the craft craze in beer crosses over into the cider market (Mintel 2017).

The crossing of craft cider and tourism can be seen in both rural and urban settings. The location of the cidery affects the whole visitor experience. In the context of urban craft cideries where all raw ingredients are brought in at varying levels of processing, the experience is often similar to visiting new craft breweries. In general, the facilities will include many of the same elements tied to alcoholic beverage creation such as mash tuns (containers used to convert starches from crushed grains into sugars for fermentation), fermenters, barrels for aging, and packaging. Often a tasting room is built alongside the production space with varying degrees of access and view between the customers and cider makers. In the context of rural craft cideries, the experience is often similar to visiting wineries, where visitors get to consume the terroir of the cidery. Terroir is a French term that in the context of winemaking is defined as the unique mix of soil, climate, weather, and landscape in a particular place. In this setting, guests can often experience the process more comprehensively than would be expected of their urban counterparts, from the growing and the pressing of apples all the way to packaging and consumption of the cider (Kline and Cole 2017).

The visiting of craft cider operations, just as visiting wineries or breweries, can be defined as consumer experience tourism (CET), which is a powerful means for product branding (Mitchell and Mitchell 2001). Visitors to production facilities such as craft cideries, add value to the brand image through the experience of tours. Tours allow visitors the opportunity to identify with elements distinctive of craft products including quality, traditions, and craftsmanship that are critical to product marketing (Murray and Kline 2015). It follows that visiting craft cideries is not just a marketing opportunity for local cider production, it is a tourism opportunity that fosters a connection to place, culture, and heritage, all while encouraging the continuation of traditional and sustainable methods (Jenkins 2016).

**Craft spirits tourism**

The explosion in craft spirit distilleries in the USA is a less-known, but even faster growing market than craft beer. While the number of craft distilleries is much smaller than the number
of craft breweries (there were roughly 1,000 craft distilleries at the end of 2016 compared to over 4,000 craft breweries), the growth of craft distilleries is even more dramatic, with the number of new entrants to the craft distilling market doubling approximately every 3–5 years (American Distilling Institute 2017b). According to the American Distilling Institute (2017a), “craft spirits are the products of an independently owned distillery with maximum annual sales of 52,000 cases where the product is physically distilled and bottled on-site.” Most estimates put the craft spirit market at around 2% of the total US distilled spirits market (Geller 2015); however, craft spirits likely own a larger value portion relative to sales volume, as the products generally maintain higher pricing per unit relative to mass producers. As noted by Kinstlick (2011), the most popular spirit type produced by craft distillers in America is whiskey (52%), followed by vodka (50%), gin (30%), and rum (25%).

A possible reason behind the proliferation of craft distilleries is the regional specialization seen throughout the market landscape. Craft distillers link their products explicitly to local or regional history through branding and the use of local ingredients as a point of market differentiation. This is likely one reason for the popularity of gin among craft distillers as it is one of the spirits most amenable to using non-traditional ingredients in its production, specifically the botanicals that are used in the creation process. This use of non-traditional ingredients allows distillers to include local products in developing their flavor profiles and allows further linkage of craft spirits to local heritage, agriculture, or landscape (Cole 2017).

It is the connection of place and product that provides the link between craft spirits and tourism. Akin to the farm-to-table movement as part of the larger trend of local food production-consumption, the grain-to-glass trend has become important for craft distillers (Helmer 2015). Similar to visiting a creamery to experience the process of how cheese is produced from milk cows, craft distillers can share with tourists how they take locally grown ingredients and produce spirits with significance to the agriculture of the area. Cole (2017:32) argues that “seeking authenticity is fitting within craft spirit tourism as a way tourists connect with something real, like the culture of a place, or essential, like the heritage of a landscape.” As in the case of wine tourism, which has led to the establishment of wine destinations throughout the world (e.g., Napa Valley, California; Bordeaux, France; Tuscany, Italy), a rise in the establishment of craft beverage destinations based on beer, cider, and spirits is beginning to be seen. For example, craft spirit trails are being developed at different geographic scales; while some are specific to craft distilleries and even particular spirit types such as the Kentucky Bourbon Trail Craft Tour, others offer a mix of craft beverage producers such as the Central Pennsylvania Tasting Trail (Cole 2017). In the U.K., Scotland is now at the heart of the British gin industry, being home to two of the world’s largest brands (Gordon’s and Tanqueray), but also to more than 25 craft gin distilleries. To reflect this rise in Scottish craft gin, the Wine and Spirit Trade Association (WSTA) has launched the Scotland Gin Trail. The route’s 17 stop-offs include craft distilleries and gin bars across Scotland, from the bright lights of Glasgow Distillery (a young producer that launched its first spirit, Makar Glasgow Gin, in 2014) to the dark skies of Shetland Reel Gin (the U.K.’s most northerly distillery) (Reaney 2016). In addition to craft spirit trails, craft distilleries also host special events and festivals, e.g., the Craft Spirits Fest in Miami, Florida and the Craft Spirits Carnival in San Francisco, California, and deliver facility tours to create a deeper connection between the brand and the tourists (Cole 2017).
Case study 46.1: Tourism in Northern Ireland

Statistics published by the Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency (NISRA) point towards an upward trend in external tourism activity in Northern Ireland between 2011 and 2016. According to the source, in 2016, there were an estimated 4.6 million overnight trips in Northern Ireland (including external trips of visitors to the Province and domestic trips taken by local residents), which represents a 1% increase on 2015. Expenditure associated with these trips was £851 million, which represents an 11% increase on 2015 (NISRA 2017a). The growth in visitor numbers is likely to continue in the next few years, due to the fact that Northern Ireland is not yet a mature tourism market and, as a consequence, it has the potential to grow faster than its closest neighbors (the U.K. and R.O.I.), as it is still playing catch-up to 30 years of limited investment due to the Troubles. Moreover, it can safely be anticipated that visitor numbers to the destination will increase further in the next couple of years due to the fact that Lonely Planet, the world’s largest travel guide book, has named Belfast and the Causeway Coast as 2018’s number one region to visit (Belfast Telegraph 2017).

The official tourism organization, Tourism NI, is promoting a number of niche forms of tourism in order to attract international visitors, increase visitor spend, and compete with other destinations. Among these is gastronomy tourism. According to Tourism NI (2017), “food is a major reason why people come to Northern Ireland and tourists spend over £350 million per year on food and drink alone. Food and drink related experiences have become increasingly important to tourism as they offer destinations an opportunity to differentiate and celebrate local foods and educate visitors about heritage, landscape and culture”. In order to take advantage of the opportunities associated with food and drink in the Province, Tourism NI identified 2016 as the Year of Food and Drink. Different foodie experiences and events took place during the year across Northern Ireland and each month had a different theme ranging from ‘Breakfast month’, to ‘Brewing and distilling’, to ‘Bread and baking’, to mention but a few (Visit Belfast 2016). The Causeway Coast and Glens Restaurant Week, a nine-day culinary celebration that showcases the vibrant restaurant scene across the entire Borough and which has taken place in November for the last two years, is part of the legacy of the Year of Food and Drink 2016 (Visit Causeway Coast and Glens 2017).

Craft drinks tourism in Northern Ireland

Pubs are the top visitor attraction in Northern Ireland (NITB 2012). Moreover, the second most popular activity undertaken by domestic tourists in Northern Ireland in 2016 was “to go to a pub, restaurant or nightclub” which accounted for 33% of all activities undertaken (NISRA, 2017b: 6). Hence, in accordance with global trends, it is not surprising that alcoholic craft beverages have grown in popularity and are sought after by increasing numbers of domestic and international visitors. In order to quench the thirst for alcoholic craft beverages, a number of breweries, distilleries, cideries, and pubs that specialize in craft drinks have emerged; out of these, some have been in existence since the 1980s, but the majority has emerged within the last five years. The most prominent examples include Hilden Brewery, Whitewater Brewery, Boundary Brewery, and Lacada (craft beers); MacIvors, Long Meadow, Tempted, and Toby’s (craft ciders); Shortcross Gin, Jawbox Gin, Boatyard Distillery, and Copeland Gin (craft gins); The Quiet Man, and Echlinville Distillery (craft whiskeys); and as regards bars that specialize in alcoholic craft drinks, Kiwi’s Brew Bar in Portrush; Sunflower in Belfast; the Woodworkers in Belfast; and the John Hewitt also in Belfast (see Figure 46.1).
There are currently no statistics available on craft beverages and craft beverages tourism in Northern Ireland. Hence, for the purpose of this chapter, the author conducted semi-structured interviews with five craft beverages businesses including Jawbox Gin, Lacada Brewery, MacIvors Cider, Kiwi’s Brew Bar and Prohibition Ltd (a wholesaler that curates and distributes craft drinks in the region) between September and December 2017. From the interviews, it emerged that all the businesses have been in operation between seven years (Kiwi’s Brew Bar) and almost a year (Jawbox Gin) and were launched because the founders either had a personal interest in a specific craft drink or realized that the drinks market was flooded with standardized commercial products. For example, the Director of Kiwi’s Brew Bar argued the following:

I was sick of going to different pubs to drink the same beer. There was just nothing, only mainstream tasteless beer.

(Kristofer Charteris, Portrush, 2017, pers. comm.)

This finding supports the literature on the emergence of craft beverages as a response to the industrially produced homogenous products offered by global brands (Flack 1997; Schnell and Reese 2014; Herrera 2016; Jenkins 2016). The interviewees were asked if the demand for craft drinks has increased in the last year. They all agreed that it has apart from the Director of Kiwi’s Brew Bar, who maintained that demand has slowed down in the last year after peaking two/three years ago. For example, the Managing Director of Prohibition Ltd stated:

Yes, however now as it is becoming slightly more mainstream, people are demanding ‘cheaper’ products within the craft industry.

(Felicia Matheson, Newcastle, 2017, pers. comm.)
This finding is in line with global trends relative to the growth of craft beverages as noted by Reid, McLaughlin, and Moore (2014), Herrera (2016), the American Distilling Institute (2017b), and Mintel (2017). The interviews also revealed a shared belief among participants that craft drinks help destinations differentiate themselves by developing a sense of place, which has the effect of enhancing the visitor experience. For instance, the Head Brewer and Chair of Directors of Lacada argued:

Yes, visitors … wish to hear the stories of local produce and local firms; they like to take this back with them; it provides them with identification with the places they visit and the people they meet.

(Laurie Davies, Portrush, 2017, pers. comm.)

This belief supports the view of authors such as Plummer et al. (2005), Jenkins (2016), and Cole (2017) according to whom the connection of ‘product’ and ‘place’ is at the heart of the successful marriage between craft beverages and tourism. In addition, all interviewees unanimously agreed that craft beverages provide local communities with socio-cultural benefits such as a sense of pride, identity, and unity, which also supports the current literature on the topic (Delconte, Kline, and Scavo 2015; Stone and Nyaupane 2015; Zahra and McGehee 2013). Finally, when asked about the future of alcoholic craft beverages, four out of five interviewees affirmed the belief that the popularity of craft drinks will increase in the future with the Founder of Jawbox Gin stating:

The signs at the moment are that demand will increase, as long as the quality of the product remains high there should be no reason for this to change (see Figure 46.2).

(Gerry White, Belfast, 2017, pers. comm.)

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Figure 46.2   Jawbox Gin.
The Owner of MacIvors Cider Co. added that:

People want to consume less drinks but of a higher quality. Low alcohol, gluten-free, low-cal are all trends that are increasing exponentially.

*(Greg MacNeice, Portadown, 2017, pers, comm.)*

This finding is in line with current statistics that point towards an increase in the consumption of craft beverages (Reid, McLaughlin, and Moore 2014; Elzinga, Tremblay and Tremblay 2015; Herrera 2016; Jenkins 2016; Rogerson 2016; American Distilling Institute 2017b) and a decrease in the consumption of mainstream alcohol (Mintel 2017) as people become more health conscious.

**Conclusion**

This chapter has investigated the growth of alcoholic craft beverages and craft beverages tourism both internationally and in Northern Ireland. The evaluation of the current literature on the topic and the analysis of data obtained through semi-structured interviews conducted with five enterprises that operate in the craft drinks industry in Northern Ireland have revealed some significant trends and characteristics. While the overall number of craft breweries, cideries, and distilleries still trails behind that of commercial ones, the former have been growing at a much faster rate. This increase can be explained in terms of the contemporary consumers’ interest in products that are authentic, local, and produced with traditional methods, which, in turn, allows them to identify with the culture, heritage, and terroir of the destination visited. This is evident in the case of visits to craft cideries in Normandy, craft gin distilleries in Scotland, and craft breweries in the USA.

Craft beverages and craft beverages tourism provide communities with socio-cultural benefits such as a renewed sense of pride, identity, and unity and allow local entrepreneurs to be creative, forge their own path, and earn a living through their passion, while at the same time benefiting the region their craft business is located in through the creation of employment. Third, the development of the alcoholic craft drinks industry appeals to a wide demographic not only because of its democratic connotations, but also because of its use of sustainable methods of production based on small batch brewing, use of local botanicals or grains, and employment of cooperative business models that adopt bottom up strategies, which lead to a more sustainable type of tourism.

All these facets help to explain the increasing popularity of craft beverages and craft beverages tourism, a success story that is likely to continue as it fosters an environment where all players win including producers, consumers, destinations and the tourism industry.

**References**


Craft drinks tourism worldwide & in N. Ireland


Introduction

Street food has not been widely studied by tourism scholars, yet it merits attention in view of its actual and potential contribution to the visitor experience as well as destination economies and societies. This chapter reviews the relationship between urban street food and tourism, making reference to Asia where food vendors are an integral part of life and an important tourism resource. The purpose is to enhance knowledge and understanding of the distinctive characteristics of street food and its interactions with tourism, including the extent to which it can be considered an example of gastronomic tourism. After an account of the defining qualities of street food and its administrative challenges, linkages with tourism are explored. A case study of Bangkok illustrates the role of street food and official policies pertaining to its management and promotion. The chapter ends with a conclusion which highlights key issues. Findings are based on the analysis of secondary data related to the themes of street food and tourism derived from academic research, official agencies, and private industry. Personal observations made during visits to several of the specified locations additionally inform the narrative.

Street food defined and official challenges

The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) of the United Nations defines street food as “ready-to-eat foods and beverages prepared and/or sold by vendors or hawkers especially in the streets and other similar places” (FAO 2017). A distinction can be made between vending and hawking, the latter strictly referring to sellers who are mobile, but the terms are usually employed interchangeably, as they are hereafter. The sector is one of great diversity of product offerings served by vendors on foot or using pushcarts, bicycles, and motorized vehicles. Others operate from stalls of differing degrees of permanence. They are located in urban and rural areas on the coast and inland and some do transitory business at events and festivals. Positions are chosen which are easily accessible to resident and visitor populations and traders are a marked presence in many cities. When a group are gathered together, either officially or informally, they constitute street markets. Kowalczyk (2014) proposes a spatial
distribution model whereby scattered traders aggregate or are organized into food streets and courts, followed by the emergence of food districts, although this process is not always evident. Quantification is complicated by the nature of the activity, but estimates that over three million people in India are directly involved (Fellows and Hilmi 2011) suggest its economic and social significance in certain societies (Tinker 1997 and 2003; Yasmeen 2001).

Street food has a long history (Calloni 2013) and, according to the FAO, around 2.5 billion people eat it daily (Fellows and Hilmi 2011). Assorted types are available globally (de Cassia Vieira Cardoso, Companion, and Marras 2014) and extend beyond indigenous cuisines in larger settlements. Dishes may reflect external influences and cosmopolitanism shaped by past and present flows of immigrants. Street food is not confined to the less developed world and is undergoing something of a resurgence in North American and European cities where it is agreed to animate urban environments (Newman and Burnett 2013). The concept is evolving and now embraces gourmet food trucks and pop-up restaurants which have become fashionable around the world (Frost et al. 2016). Items sold are sometimes far removed from traditional street food dishes regarding price, sophistication, and quality. Indeed, commentators have remarked upon the gentrification of the trade (Calloni 2013) and the inclusion of street food in reinvented forms on the menus of expensive restaurants also indicates movement away from its roots.

Street food is ubiquitous in Asia (McGee and Yeung 1997; Winarno 2017), not least the Southeast region (Bhowmik 2005) where the tropical climate favors outdoor eating and retailing. Vendors are prevalent in cities which have grown rapidly, drawing migrants from within and outside the country and beyond who require feeding and can also provide workers for the sector. Patrons commonly span affluent professionals to the lowest paid laborers and can encompass tourists so the market is inclusive. The decision by the prestigious Michelin Guide to recognize street food as an establishment category for the first time in 2016 is a mark of its centrality to some food cultures and visitor appeal. A total of 35 outlets were featured in the publication for Hong Kong and Macau and 17 hawker stalls in the inaugural Singapore guide of the same year (Henderson 2017). Street food is also moving upmarket in more prosperous Asian cities in conformity with general trends.

Whilst a source of commercial opportunities and a major contributor to certain informal economies at national and sub-national levels, street trading poses administrative and urban planning challenges for authorities. Matters of hygiene and public health, detailed in subsequent sections, must also be addressed. The idea of the street as a public space is entrenched in regions such as Southeast Asia (Kim 2015; Oranratmanee and Sachakul 2014), but trading is frequently accompanied by litter, noise, and congestion on pavements and roads. Vehicular and pedestrian traffic are impeded, inconveniencing and annoying motorists and walkers. Business is often illegal or semi-legal with scope for bribery and extortion and there are reports of forced evictions and harassment by officials (Roever and Skinner 2016). Attempts are regularly made to exercise control and safeguard vendors and customers through regulating operational practices. However, these are not always sufficiently thorough or enforced where good governance and the necessary administrative processes and machinery are lacking.

The importance of street food to destination societies and economies in general and sometimes to tourism is appreciated, yet authorities have to try and balance the needs of vendors and customers with urban development priorities and plans. City land is deemed too commercially valuable to be reserved for the purpose and traders may be associated with backwardness and poverty by officials eager to present their city as a thriving forward-looking
metropolis (Oz and Eder 2012). It has been argued that traditional street traders are at odds with modernistic conceptions of a well-ordered and clean city perpetuated by urban elites (Batreau and Bonnet 2016; Yatmo 2008). Municipal authorities and laws can be unsympathetic (te Lintelo 2009) and the future is one of uncertainty for some food hawkers in the developing world in view of political agendas and the reduction in public space because of urbanization (Oranratmanee and Sachakul 2014). Nevertheless, street food has its defenders and vendors exhibit their resilience through a variety of survival tactics. Advocates cite visitor interest and custom to strengthen arguments for the retention of street food and its interactions with tourism are now discussed.

Street food and tourism

Vendors may deal almost exclusively with locals or tourists or cater to a mix of both depending on the location. Tourist patronage can therefore help support food vendors who play a particularly significant part in the food security of poorer nations where they are a vital source of convenient and affordable meals. Income and jobs for sellers and suppliers are also created alongside entrepreneurial opportunities. Tourist engagement with street food has been lauded as a kind of sustainable tourism which has favorable economic impacts. Visitors may additionally seek to appreciate and share destination cultures through food, helping to preserve traditions. Given that it is a supplementary activity for tourists, street food consumption does not lead to excessive rises in tourism which are difficult to manage (Bellia et al. 2016). Vendors are motivated to upgrade hygiene in order to meet visitor expectations and locals thereby benefit from safer food (Pilato, Seraphin, and Yallop 2016). Such outcomes are not inevitable and it should be recalled that tourism is only one force at work in determining how the street food sector operates and performs. Street food is also a potential cause of anxiety for tourists whilst being a tourism resource and further negative and positive aspects of the relationship are outlined below.

A tourist concern

Tourists may be discouraged from buying food on the streets because of unfamiliarity with that which is on offer and purchase methods, an obstacle compounded by language barriers. Some foods can inspire repugnance amongst those from other cultures in a way exemplified by the reactions of many Westerners to dog, rat, duck blood, duck fetus, and living grubs which are served in Vietnam (Vietnam Street Food Guide 2015). Fears about illness are another deterrent and more acute in developing countries where health and safety regimes are likely to be wanting. There are possible hazards due to additives and inferior ingredients, some of which may have been tainted by agricultural pesticides, and contaminated water. Deficiencies in food storage, preparation, and handling and the overall vending environment are common (Kusakabe 2006; Pang and Poh 2008; Winarno and Allain 1991; Wirakartokusumah, Purnomo, and Dewanti-Hariyadi 2014) attributed in part to vendor ignorance of good hygiene or apathy about abiding by instructions. Shortcomings may be tolerated by regular customers who are more interested in convenience, cost, and taste than hygiene and sanitation (Alimi 2016; Sabbithi et al. 2017), so there is little pressure to change.

Apprehension about consumption is not felt by all tourists, and adventurousness in the arena of food akin to other behavior is affected by factors such as age, nationality, and personality (Choi, Lee, and Ok 2013; Cohen and Aviela 2004; Henderson et al. 2012). Safety and
comfort regarding food can take priority over exoticism and experimentation in tourist decision-making (Ozdemir and Seyitoglu 2017; Chavarria and Panuwat 2017), but the less neophobic search out and relish new local foods. What constitutes the local is a matter of debate, however, and products and settings may be created specifically for tourists by the tourism industry. Tourists looking to mingle with residents and understand and participate in their food culture are thereby disappointed. Excessive demand from an influx of visitors may also overwhelm street traders and other micro food enterprises, adversely impacting authenticity and quality (OECD 2012).

A tourism resource

Traders and markets where they congregate to sell food and other produce have been found to have an appeal to tourists, adding life and color to the venue as well as the chance to shop (Choi, Lee, and Ok 2013; Hsieh and Chang 2006). Food vendors and their fare are often a novelty and believed to have authenticity (Kim, Eves, and Searles 2009; Sidali, Kastenholz, and Bianchi 2015), the quest for which are underlying drivers of culinary tourism at large (Getz et al. 2014). Indigenous food practices are a window onto a destination’s history and contemporary culture, valued as a counter to the homogenization of tastes and cuisines attendant on globalization which is demonstrated by fast food chains (Mak, Lumbers, and Eves 2012; Privitera and Nesci 2015). They also provide visually appealing contrasts such as those between humble food stalls and towering skyscrapers, one instance being scenes in downtown Kuala Lumpur (Hawkes 2015). The juxtaposition might be an embarrassment to ambitious officials, but is a striking symbol of the traditional co-existing with the modern which engages tourists (Batreau and Bonnet 2016).

The significance allotted to food in the tourist experience is apparent by its highlighting in much of the marketing undertaken by official agencies. Several destinations in Asia are presented as food paradises with promises of excellence and immense variety (Horng and Tsai 2010). Street food is frequently positioned as one pole of a spectrum, opposite de-luxe fine-dining restaurants, and a manifestation of the identity of the place and people. It is the basis of city tours and can be harnessed to product development, illustrated by a 2017 pilot scheme in Hong Kong. After a competitive process overseen by government, 16 food trucks were selected to trade at eight attraction sites. The aims are to augment the appeal of the attraction, give good food to tourists and showcase hygiene standards (Tourism Commission 2017).

Listings by Western media of best street food cities yield insights into the more famous and Asian destinations are prominent. CNN includes Bangkok (1), Tokyo (2), and Hong Kong (7) in its Top 10, which also features Honolulu, Durban, New Orleans, Istanbul, Paris, Mexico, and Cairo (CNN 2016). Bangkok is rated first out of ten by Forbes (2017), and followed by Singapore, Penang, Marrakech, Palermo, Ho Chi Minh City, Istanbul, Mexico City, Brussels, and Ambercris Caye. Frommers (2017) nominates Bangkok (1), Hong Kong (6), Kuala Lumpur (7), Tokyo (9), and Singapore (10) alongside Tel Aviv, Istanbul, Paris, Mexico City, and Mumbai. These assessments are clearly subjective, but do reveal how certain cities, and especially Bangkok, have acquired an international reputation for their food (Kowalczyk 2014) and the case of the Thai capital is considered in the next section. It thus seems that street food can be a consideration in decisions about visits to some locations renowned for their offerings and play a part in providing entertainment and satisfaction generally. However, while there will be exceptions, it is unlikely that street food is a primary motivator for most travelers.
Case study 47.1: The case of Bangkok

Bangkok is one of the world’s most visited cities and received 19.3 million overseas tourists in 2016 when the total number for Thailand was over 32 million (Tourism Authority of Thailand 2017a). Food is a core constituent of the destination image of Thailand (see Figure 47.1 and Figure 47.2) communicated by the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT), although textual information on the main website is surprisingly scanty. There are explanations of a selection of Thai food and a themed vacation representing Thailand’s “cooking, food and culture” is described (Tourism Authority of Thailand 2017b). The repute of the capital’s street food is reflected in the 13.5 million YouTube postings on the subject in 2017 and the numerous short escorted tours advertised online. Many of the city’s larger markets combining food and other goods are well-known and a component of organized itineraries. An annual festival celebrates the popularity of street food, yet tourists are not immune from safety concerns about the produce sold (Santoso 2013) which are also a preoccupation of city officials.

Figure 47.1 Vendor preparing food at street market.  
Image: Saurabh Kumar Dixit.

Figure 47.2 Flavored rice milk on display at street market in Bangkok.  
Image: Saurabh Kumar Dixit.
Vending as a whole is a tool in the capital’s poverty reduction strategies and there is official awareness of the essential social and economic functions it performs (Nirathron 2006) alongside disadvantages. Pavements are often crowded and difficult to navigate, provoking online citizen campaigns to reclaim the sidewalks. Many food vendors work in front of buildings, sometimes using woks to cook at very high temperatures and without access to running water. Good hygiene can be difficult to maintain (Khongtong et al. 2016) and poor regulation and illegality (Chavarria and Panuwat 2017) are pressing problems. Vendors are legally required to register, paying a monthly fee for the cleaning and upkeep of the street occupied, and their hours are sometimes restricted to try and reduce congestion. There were 762 areas approved for street vending and around 20,000 registered vendors in 2012 (Kusakabe 2014) with almost 27% of those in Bangkok’s Inner District trading in food. Other sources estimate a figure of between 250,000 and 380,000 when unauthorized traders are taken into account (Yasmeen and Nirathron 2014). Several come from China and poorer Southeast Asian neighbors and barely make a living, but an increase in Thai graduates selling food has been observed. Some citizens turn to vending after losing permanent jobs during downturns in the economy and are more entrepreneurial and financially successful than the older generation (Maneepong and Walsh 2013).

Access to public space by urban vendors is a contested issue historically and formal efforts at control, largely ineffective, can be traced back to 1941 (Yasmeen and Nirathron 2014). The Bangkok Metropolitan Administration (BMA) is currently in charge of the city and has sought to impose greater order over traders since its establishment in 1985. Initiatives have partly been determined by the attitude of incumbent governors and street trade has become something of a vote winner and loser amongst city residents who have mixed feelings about the matter (Kusakabe 2014). The BMA has been credited for its efforts to improve the city environment while protecting the livelihoods and food supply associated with vending, although actual achievements are debatable (Tangworamongkon 2014; Yasmeen and Nirathron 2014). Researchers have found a degree of informal organization amongst traders themselves, made possible by the absence of enforcement of any existing rules (Kusakabe 2014). Batreau and Bonnet (2016:30) write about a grey zone of ‘managed informality’ and also of differences at a district level pertaining to interpretation of laws, prevailing codes of conduct, and actual behavior.

An increasingly assertive approach to curbing street trade is evident and officially approved locations had been cut to 243 by 2017. There has been speculation that the goal is eventually to restrict vendors to a few venues frequented by backpacker tourists (BBC News 2017). Such extreme steps have been deemed improbable because of the politicization of street trading and fears of igniting public anger by imposing a widespread ban (Economist Intelligence Unit 2017), but more reforms are expected. The chairman of an advisory board to the city governor asserted in 2017 that “street food will continue to be part of Bangkok life, on the condition that there will not be obstructions for pedestrians and that vendors observe sanitary rules in the interest of public health … we will allow them to be in certain areas, under strict conditions” (BBC News 2017).

News of the firmer stance was reported in the international media with stories of plans to remove food vendors from all of Bangkok’s 50 districts, provoking expressions of alarm and outrage. These were refuted by officials and the TAT published a press release which reassured visitors that Bangkok would remain a “top destination for street food” (Tourism Authority of Thailand 2017c). Nevertheless, there are tensions between retaining street food traditions and
environmental and food safety improvements which are set to intensify in the years ahead. It may also be worth noting that certain comments by overseas observers and visitors reveal a tendency to romanticize street trading, overlooking the unenviable working conditions and the fact that much of it is a consequence of poverty. The disappearance of some forms of vending in Bangkok and elsewhere may be a welcome sign of social and economic progress which compensates for any loss of city color and vibrancy.

**Conclusion**

The case study of Bangkok demonstrates the ways in which street food can be made use of as a tourism resource, serving a dual purpose of meeting the food needs of visitors and being an attraction in itself or an enhancer of other attractions. Despite any regulatory weaknesses and their ramifications, visitors enjoy the lively atmosphere engendered by street trading which is especially striking at night and many are appreciative of the food on offer. Municipal governments are mindful of tourist sentiments and that these are shared by some residents who rely on street food, but officials are desirous of tidying up the streets and curtailing vending. Conflicts thus ensue which have still to be resolved. The dilemma is apparent in other major Southeast Asia cities such as the Indonesian capital of Jakarta and Ho Chi Minh City, formerly known as Saigon, in Vietnam (Davis 2017; Eldse, Turner, and Oswin 2016). Authorities in the latter have spoken of emulating Singapore, which is hailed as an exemplar of good practice regarding food hawker management (Ghani 2011). All hawkers in Singapore are registered and housed in officially run hawker centers. Workers and stalls have to meet strict hygiene criteria and are awarded a grade which must be publicly displayed. A points-demerit system punishes infringements and can lead to suspension and revocation of operating licenses (National Environment Agency 2017). When discussing Singapore, it should be remembered that the city state is prosperous and renowned for its competent and corruption-free government which engages in comprehensive economic and physical planning. Other administrations may not possess its resources and capabilities, and it is perhaps unrealistic to call for duplication of the Singapore model. Visitors may also prefer the disorder and energy which prevails in parts of Bangkok and several regional cities. Nevertheless, elements of the policy can perhaps be usefully adopted elsewhere and adapted to the local context in order to better protect traders and customers (Henderson 2016).

This chapter has shown that traditional street food possesses distinctive characteristics regarding its composition and mode of operation. These distinguish the sector from other types of foodservice available to tourists, although it acts as both an attraction and amenity in the same way as alternative forms of dining. Street food’s qualities as a perceived representation of locality and authenticity render it especially interesting to visitors and the trade enlivens sites where it is conducted, especially city streets at night. Searching out what are judged the best vendors and partaking of their fare may motivate some visitors so that street food can be a sort of gastronomic tourism, but it is a more incidental experience for most. At the same time, certain street food attributes generate concerns about food safety and inspire authorities to restrain trading; resulting doubts about long term sustainability are manifest in Bangkok. Its case is continuing to unfold and developments there and more widely merit monitoring given that street food seems set to acquire greater prominence as a tourism and leisure resource whilst under heightened threat from forces of modernization and urbanization.
References


Street food and gastronomic tourism


Islam is the second largest religion in the world after Christianity and constitutes 1.6 billion people, 23% of world’s population (Worldometers 2017). According to Business Wire (2017), Muslims are estimated to reach 26.2% of the world population in 2030, and Islam is expected to be the largest religion in 2070 (The Telegraph 2017). However, Halal food globally is growing with a lower percentage than the Muslim population, and is estimated to reach 16.2% during 2017–2022. Therefore, the Halal food market has a high potential that should be produced and promoted to satisfy the needs and wants of all Muslim tourists.

Although the number of Muslim tourists is below ambitions – 117 million in 2015 which is just over 7% of the Muslim population – their spending accounted for 145 billion US dollars in 2015 (Salam Standard 2016). The number of Muslim tourists is estimated to reach 168 million and their spending will account for 192 billion US Dollars by 2020 (The Economy Watch 2017).

Halal and Haram are very important concepts in the life of Muslims and should be understood properly to understand the concept of Halal food and drinks. Halal and Haram are Arabic words for permissible (lawful) and impermissible (forbidden) respectively, according to the Islamic law (Sharia). Halal food and drinks stem from Muslims’ religious belief in both concepts, as Halal is good and Haram is bad to their bodies and minds. The Theory of Planned Behavior explains how people’s behavior is governed by their attitudes (individual’s personal belief about a behavior), subjective norms (personal views about other’s reactions towards an individual behavior), and perceived behavior control (the ability of individual to control his/her behavior to eat only Halal food).

Islam is a caring and compassionate religion that takes care of the individuals’ health and therefore the Islamic law (Sharia) sets the rules on what is Halal and what is Haram accordingly. Halal food is part of Halal tourism, where Muslim tourists seek products and services that are permissible according to the Islamic Sharia that reflects their religious belief. One of the major issues concerning Muslim tourists when travelling abroad is to find tourism and hospitality businesses or facilities that provide Halal food and other Halal services. The following section explains the concepts of Halal and Haram in Islamic context, the Theory of Planned Behavior and its application to Halal food, Halal tourism, and Halal food.
Literature review

The concepts of Halal and Haram in the Islamic context

Halal (lawful, permissible) and Haram (unlawful, prohibited) are significant concepts in Islam; they are paradoxical in meaning and nature (Jallad 2008; Qaradawi 2013). According to Al Qaradawi (2013:7), Halal (the lawful) means “that which is permitted, with respect to which no restriction exists, and the doing of which the Law-Giver, the God (Allâh), has allowed”, whereas, Haram (the prohibited or unlawful) is “that which the Law-Giver has absolutely prohibited; anyone who engages in it is liable to incur the punishment of Allâh in the Hereafter as well as a legal punishment in this world”. These concepts are associated with all aspects of Muslims’ lives, food, and beverages (Al Qaradawi 2013; Faiz 2011), business and trade (Borzooei and Asgari 2013), finance (Visser 2009; Faiz 2011; Haddad 2013), social relations between genders (Haddad 2013), communication and behavior (Al Jallad 2008), and ethics in life and work (Ahmad and Owoyemi 2012).

Halal is not only related to permissible food and drinks, but also is extended to Muslim’s explicit behavior including speech, code of dress, manners, conduct, and alike (Al Jallad 2008). Halal travel and tourism, Halal medicine, and Halal finance are other types of Halal operations that impact upon the lives of Muslims.

Haram, on the other hand, refers to anything that is impermissible (unlawful) in the Islamic law, i.e., Sharia, such as speech, dress, manners, food, and drinks, etc.

The rationale behind Halal and Haram is to surrender to God’s teaching and wisdom as he knows what is good and bad for us in our life. For example, blood, pork, alcohol and intoxicants are Haram because alcohol and intoxicants can rob our senses and swine meat is filthy (Al Qaradawi 2013).

The Theory of Planned Behavior and Halal food

In this chapter, the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) was used as a theoretical framework to build a better understanding of Halal food from a tourism perspective, as it is one of the most common theories employed to clarify consumption of Halal products and Halal food (Lada, Geoffrey, and Amin 2009; Abdul Khalek and Ismail 2015) (see Figure 48.1).

In this theory, the behavior of individuals is shaped by attitudes (individual’s personal belief about a behavior), subjective norms (personal view about other’s reactions towards an individual behavior), and perceived behavior control (the ability of individual to control his/her behavior to eat only Halal food). Attitude of Muslim tourists concerning the consumption of food is attached to the Islamic Sharia. It is attached to benefits and consequences from or not consuming Halal food. Subjective norms are linked to the social pressure, and in this context, it is how other Muslims perceive a Muslim who consumes Haram (prohibited) products. Muslims know that only Halal food is permitted in Islam and any other Haram food is totally forbidden and such prohibition stems from Islamic Sharia (God’s words).

All the above factors influence a Muslim’s intention to consume Halal food, since the prohibition of Haram food is a religious mandate and a Muslim who disobeys may face punishment on Judgment Day. This is a clear message to Muslims to avoid eating Haram products. God said: “Prohibited to you are dead animals, blood, the flesh of swine, and that which has been dedicated to other than Allâh, and [those animals] killed by strangling or by a violent blow or by a head-long fall or by the goring of horns, and those from which a wild animal has eaten, except what you [are able to] slaughter [before its death], and those
which are sacrificed on stone altars, and [ prohibited is] that you seek decision through divining arrows. That is grave disobedience” (Surat Al-Maida:3). Perceived behavior control, is described as a Muslim’s ability to control his behavior by only eating Halal food, because it is the only food accepted in their religion. Thus, perceived behavior control is largely influenced by attitude and subjective norms, which regulate individual behavior due to social pressure.

**Food tourism, culinary tourism, gastronomic tourism**

Concepts that are used to describe the linkage between tourism and food experience include food tourism, culinary tourism, and gastronomic tourism (Hall et al. 2003; Guzel and Apaydin 2016).

Hall and Mitchell (2005:74) defined food tourism as “a visitation to primary and secondary food producers, food festivals, restaurants and specific locations for which food tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of specialist food production region are the primary motivating factor for travel”. As reflected by the definition, food tourism is about the pursuit of food-related experiences offered by an array of organizers and businesses.

Culinary tourism “is about individuals exploring foods new to them as well as using food to explore new cultures and ways of being. It is about the experiencing of an extraordinary food, that steps outside the normal routine to notice difference and the power of food to represent and negotiate that difference” (Long 2004: 20). Accordingly, culinary tourism implies the motive to explore and experience new kinds of food specialties and traditions out of the usual environment and daily routine. Moreover, the definition highlighted the role of food in highlighting the competitiveness and attractiveness of destinations. In the same vein, Ignatov and Smith (2006:238) defined culinary tourism as “trips during which the purchase or consumption of regional foods (including beverages), or the observation and study
of food production (from agriculture to cooking schools), represent a significant motivation or activity.” This definition reflects that culinary tourism includes travelers’ pursuit of new eating and drinking experiences and observing how the food and beverage are, and participation in food production.

Gastronomic tourism is defined by Richards (2011:17) as “the reflexive cooking, preparation, presentation and eating of food”. Although the authors highlighted all the stages of the gastronomic tourism experience, they did not mention where the food should be consumed. Accordingly, gastronomic tourism refers to itineraries organized to destinations where the main motivation factor of travel is to experience and enjoy the local cuisine there. The three concepts (food tourism, culinary tourism, and gastronomic tourism) are very similar and used interchangeably. Culinary refers to food preparation and cooking techniques. Gastronomy refers to good taste and flavor of the local food and beverage, while the food tourism is the broadest one. In the following sections, Halal tourism and Halal food are discussed.

**Halal tourism**

A variety of terms have been used to express the linkage between Islamic Sharia and tourism: Islamic tourism, Muslim-friendly tourism, and Halal tourism. According to the literature, all these terms are similar and focus on three dimensions: Muslim tourists; tourism products such as Halal hospitality, and Halal food and beverage facilities, and tourist destinations, i.e., Islamic and non-Islamic (Henderson 2003 2010; Zamani-Farahani and Henderson 2010; Battour, Ismail and Battor 2010; Duman 2012; Zulkifli, Rahman, Awang and Man 2011; Battour and Ismail 2016). However, the most common used concept in tourism literature is ‘Halal tourism’.

Battour and Ismail (2016) defined Halal tourism as “any tourism object or action which is permissible according to Islamic teachings to use or engage by Muslims in tourism industry”. This definition highlights the term ‘Halal’ that implies tourist products (such as accommodation and food and beverage facilities) are ruled by Islamic Sharia and these products are tailored to Muslim tourists when travelling to Muslim and non-Muslim destinations. Accordingly, Halal tourism entails that businesses offer Halal accommodations that have separate recreational facilities for males and females such as beaches, swimming pools and spas, do not serve alcohol, provide prayer rooms, prayer mats, a copy of the Quran, and the direction of Makkah (Qiblah) in hotel rooms. In addition, they should provide facilities that serve Halal food in restaurants and flights on board (Henderson 2010; Battour, Ismail and Battor 2010). Accordingly, the tourism industry is evolving, and business are responding to the needs of Muslim tourists. For example, in air flights, Muslim tourists can find Halal food in many air carriers, and restaurants can show they have Halal labelled food and beverages to attract them. The influx of Muslim tourists means more mosques or prayer rooms, and Halal food facilities. Research revealed the top ten Islamic and Halal destinations including Malaysia, United Arab Emirates, Turkey, Indonesia, Saudi Arabia, Morocco, Jordan, Qatar, Tunisia and Egypt (Conde Nast Traveler 2018). Other non-Muslim destinations such as Japan, Thailand, and the U.K., are now aware of the needs and wants of Muslim tourists and the economic impact of the Muslim market, and are therefore providing products and services according to the Islamic law (WTM 2007; Al Jazeera 2015). The top non-Islamic destination that provide Halal services include: Singapore, Thailand, U.K., South Africa, Hong Kong, Japan, Taiwan, France, Spain, and U.S. (Halal Trip 2017).
Halal food

It is difficult for Muslims travelers to find Halal food whenever they travel to non-Muslim destinations. Hassan and Hall (2003) found that it was difficult for Muslim travelers to find Halal food in New Zealand, therefore, they cooked their own meals when they traveled there. Moreover, Kurth and Glasbergen (2017) analyzed Halal certification bodies in the Netherlands to figure out whether they address the needs of the Muslim community and how those certification bodies are influenced by international Halal governance. They found that the Halal governance system in the Netherlands is weakly institutionalized and hardly met the needs of a varied Muslim community.

Referring to the Holy Quran and The Prophet Muhammad’s Hadith, Riaz and Chaudry (2003:2) defined Halal food as “any kind of food that are free from any component or ingredient that Muslim are prohibited from consuming”. Islamic Sharia – Halal food law (as depicted in the Quran and Sunnah) – determines which food and beverage are permitted and prohibited for Muslims. Consequently, Muslims can eat any kind of food and drink any kind of beverage except that prohibited in Quran or Sunnah (Islamic law). Along with abiding by Halal food law, Muslims believe that prohibited food and beverage are banned based on health reasons (Regenstein, Chaudry, and Regenstein 2003). In other words, Muslims believe that avoiding eating prohibited food keeps them healthy. By referring to Quran and Sunnah, Regenstein, Chaudry, and Regenstein (2003) emphasized the five general rules associated with Halal food in Islam:

1) Prohibited animals: Islam prohibits a range of animals: animals with no blood such as flies; animals with blood that does not flow such as snakes; all insects except locusts; amphibians such as frogs; carnivorous animals such as wolves, hyenas, and dogs; and meat from swine and pet donkeys is prohibited.
2) Prohibition of blood: Blood drained from animals is prohibited.
3) Method of slaughtering/blessing: Permitted animals that were slaughtered according to Islam, Judaism, and Christianity is Halal meat.
4) Prohibition of carrion: Eating dead animals except fish is prohibited.
5) Prohibition of intoxicants: Anything that intoxicates a human body such as alcoholic drinks is prohibited.

Accordingly, certain products are Halal such as milk from cows, sheep, goats and camels; honey, intoxicating plants, fresh or frozen vegetables, fresh or dried fruits, legumes and nuts, and grains. Meat from cows, sheep, goats, deer, moose, chickens, ducks, and game birds, is Halal when it the animal is slaughtered according to Islamic rules. Examples of Haram food and beverage include: alcoholic drinks and intoxicants; swine meat (pork, ham, gammon, bacon, pork by-products such as sausages and broth); non-Halal animal fat; enzymes from Haram animals (microbial enzymes are permissible); gelatine from non-Halal sources (fish gelatine is Halal); L-cystine (if from human hair); lard; lipase (from Haram animals); non-Halal animal shortening; rennet, stock, tallow (from Haram animals); animals improperly slaughtered, dead before slaughtering, or slaughtered in the name of other than Allâh (Al Jallad 2008; Islamic Council of Victoria, Australia 2018; Halal Research Council 2018).

Methodology

The aim of this chapter is to build a better understanding of the concepts of Halal tourism and Halal food as associated mainly with Muslim culture and Muslim tourists. Halal tourism
and Halal food is associated mainly with Muslim culture and therefore, this study is a kind of sociocultural study that is used to describe the ethnic and socio-cultural groups participating in specified cultural experiences (Veal 2017). The research design of this chapter is theoretical (non-empirical) that is, mainly based on the theory and literature of Halal tourism and Halal food. A conceptual framework is developed to explain those concepts (see Figure 48.2).

Tourism is a multitype activity and experience that encompasses a range of forms such as health, education, eco, events, adventure, religious, and cultural. Halal tourism is a recent type within these series of tourism that is mainly associated with Muslim tourists who are demanding certain products and services that should be delivered according to Islamic law. Halal tourism includes products and services such as Halal food, Halal restaurants, Halal accommodations, Halal transportation, Halal entertainment, Halal beaches, and Halal handicrafts and souvenirs. All these products and services must be prepared and delivered according to the Islamic law, i.e. Sharia, to be called Halal.

- Halal food: No pork, no alcohol, animals must be slaughtered according to Islamic law.
- Halal restaurants: Separate dining for families, separate dining for males and females.
- Halal accommodation: Separate rooms/suites for families, separate rooms for males and females.
- Halal transportation: Separate seats within mean of transport, front or back for males and females.
- Halal beaches: Separate beaches and swimming pools (males/females).
- Halal handicrafts/souvenirs: Comply with the Islamic law.

Figure 48.2  Conceptual framework of Halal food and its place in Halal tourism.
Halal food in the Islamic context means that all food and beverages should be pork-free and alcohol-free to be delivered and consumed by Muslim tourists. As mentioned earlier in the literature review section, it is not only Muslim destinations that are interested in serving Halal food, but non-Muslim destinations are now aware of the expansion of Muslim tourists who are visiting those destination. In marketing, satisfying the needs and wants of customers is the core of the marketing concept.

**Case study 48.1: Halal food:**

**Mansaf, a traditional food in Jordan**

Halal food is identified as any food that is subject to Islamic Sharia in terms of lawful slaughtering, cooking, and delivering. Mansaf is a Halal food and is part of the Jordanian culture that is originated in the Bedouin culture where the story began. Mansaf is the most popular food that is eaten at the weekends, during family gathering, Islamic celebrations such as Eid Al-Adha (sacrifice feast during Hajj) and other events such as sacrifice for the new-born, graduation, weddings, and funerals (see Figure 48.3).

Mansaf is associated with Jordanian culture, which originated in the Jordanian Bedouin culture. The life of Bedouins was limited in terms of food resources; meat from lamb, goats and camels, bulgur (burghul in Arabic) – a cereal food made from the parboiled groats of several different wheat species – bread, yoghurt, and ghee. In simple words, Mansaf became popular since all the ingredients were available and affordable and easy to prepare for Bedouins in the desert.

**Ingredients**

Lamb meat, bulgur, bread, dried yoghurt and Arabic aromas such as Melilotus (sweet clover), cinnamon, cloves, and nutmeg. Dried yoghurt or ‘rock cheese’, (Jameed in Arabic) is prepared

![Figure 48.3](image.png) A Mansaf feast celebrating the graduation of the second author of this chapter (Harahsheh 2003).
from sheep and goats curd milk, which is reserved in a big cloth bag to thicken yoghurt. Salt is added daily to ensure yoghurt thickening through lack of water. This process dries the yoghurt; it becomes thick, hard, and easy to shape as balls. Jameed should be left to dry so it can be stored for months. The best Jameed is produced in Karak, a city in southern Jordan.

**Recipe**

1. Wash meat cubes and place in tray with lid. Cover meat with water, cover tray and place in refrigerator for 4–8 hours.

2. Melt ¼ cup of the clarified butter in heavy skillet over medium-high heat. Drain and pat the meat cubes dry. Place in skillet and cook for 20 minutes until browned on all sides. Season meat with salt and pepper, to taste, and add enough water to cover meat. Reduce heat, cover, and cook for 1 hour. Add onion and simmer uncovered for 30 minutes.

3. While meat and onion are cooking, place yogurt in a large saucepan and whisk over medium heat until liquid. Whisk in egg white and ½ teaspoon of salt. Slowly bring yogurt mixture to boil stirring constantly with a wooden spoon in one direction until it reaches the desired consistency. Reduce heat to low and allow yogurt to softly simmer uncovered for 10 minutes.

4. Stir yogurt into meat and add seasonings as desired. Simmer gently for 15 minutes. Taste and adjust seasonings, as needed.

5. In a small skillet, melt 2 tablespoons of the remaining 4 tablespoons of clarified butter. Add almonds and cook for 5 minutes. Stir in pine nuts and cook for 3 minutes. Remove from heat and set aside.

6. Split the khubz (bread) loaves open and arrange, overlapping on a large serving tray. Melt the last remaining 2 tablespoons of ghee and brush over the khubz to soften.

7. Arrange rice over the khubz, leaving a well in the center of the rice. Spoon the meat into the rice well and then spoon the butter and nuts over the meat. The grilled or cooked head of the lamb is placed in the middle of the platter on the top of the bulgur/rice. Sprinkle parsley or chives over top (see Figure 48.3).

**How is Mansaf eaten?**

Mansaf is served in platters. The traditional way to eat Mansaf is a group of people surrounding the platter of Mansaf. They do not use spoons since it is not accepted in the Bedouin culture. They put their left hands behind their backs and eat with their right hand according to Islamic rituals: Prophet Muhammad, peace and blessings be upon him, said: ‘Eat with your right hand.’

New trends in Mansaf culture emerged in the last two decades; people started using rice instead of bulgur, chicken instead of meat and fresh cooked yoghurt instead of dried yoghurt (Jameed). Recently, Mansaf sandwiches appeared as the latest fashion in Amman; Shrak (very thin bread) is filled with cooked rice, meat and a little bit of Jammed to prepare a delicious Mansaf sandwich served with a glass of Jameed syrup. Most recently, two paradoxes: Jameed and chocolate (mixed together) are being produced in Jordan as Jameed Chocolate, the sour of Jameed and the sweetness of chocolate (Jordan Times 2017).
Conclusion and recommendations

This chapter presents a piece of literature on Halal food within a broader concept of Halal tourism. The concepts of Halal (permissible) and Haram (unlawful) concern Muslims, as they impact upon their daily and spiritual life. They represent the Islamic laws that govern every aspect of a person’s life (speech, behavior, dress, dietary, finance, medicine, etc). in Islamic law, i.e., Sharia, Halal (lawful and permissible) is rewarded by God and Haram (unlawful) is punishable.

Research showed that it is difficult for Muslim tourists to find Halal food and other Halal services whenever they travel to non-Muslim destinations. Halal tourism is a niche market segment that involves products and services that are provided to Muslim tourists. The Muslim market is increasing annually and is expecting to reach 168 million tourists and their spending will reach $192 billion by 2020 (The Economy Watch 2017). The marketing concept entails understanding and satisfying the needs of customers profitably (Kotler and Armstrong 2017). Therefore, from a marketing point view, Muslim and non-Muslim destinations should consider taking those figures into account and providing Muslim-friendly services to satisfy the needs and wants of Muslim tourists.

Notes

1 An example of Halal travel and tourism includes separate pools and beaches for females and males. Halal medicine does not include substances from Haram animals, is not toxic, and do not contain human parts that are not allowed in Islamic law. Halal finance means any financial transaction that complies with Sharia and does not include usury as a means of profit.

2 Hadith is a collection of traditions containing sayings of the prophet Muhammad that, with accounts of his daily practice (the Sunna), constitute the major source of guidance for Muslims apart from the Koran.

References


Halal food and Muslim tourists


The Quran (Surat Al-Maida), 5:3.


NATIVE FOODS AND GASTRONOMIC TOURISM

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Introduction

Contemporary consumers are increasingly showing their interest in local foods, foraging, and authentic cuisines. This arises in part from the homogeneity that has accompanied globalization and the ubiquity of fast food cultures, leading to a backlash against “McDonaldization” (Ritzer 2009). Such developments have opened up a promising space for native foods, which sit poised to create new forms of food culture in tourism and wider society.

This chapter will outline the native foods component of Australian food tourism in order to reveal the unique opportunities it may offer and outline the implications it may hold for the ethics and conduct of gastronomic tourism. It is argued that gastronomic tourism offers promising opportunities for Australia’s Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples to earn income, build successful enterprises, and practice custodianship of native foods. It also offers opportunities for tourists to appreciate and understand Indigenous food and culture and thereby have more enriching gastronomic tourism experiences. These endeavours highlight the capacity of gastronomic tourism to share culinary epistemologies and thereby foster cross-cultural learning and engagement. This chapter will discuss the multiple benefits that may be derived from tourists experiencing native foods through the gastronomic tourism encounter.

Literature review

Recent decades have marked a transition “from the pleasures of food to food tourism” (Buatti 2011:93). This is not only because food is a critical component of holiday experiences, but also because there is a growing niche market of food tourists who travel specifically for culinary experiences. As a result, “food is an important economic and cultural resource offering tangible benefits for tourism” (Buatti 2011:94). The power of local foods in driving different forms of tourism is increasingly recognized. For instance, Montanari argues:

Depending on production methods, food can ... become a cultural reference point, an element of regional development and a tourist resource. This occurs with ‘local’
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food, representing a model of production and consumption that suggests a strong link with the region in which the food is produced.

(2009:91)

There is increasing interest in the ethics and sustainability of food tourism as it emerges as a driver of tourism and destination growth strategies. For instance, Hall and Gossling (2013) have edited a volume focused on “sustainable culinary systems” considering the growing interest in the ethical consumption and production of food. In this analysis, food is not separable from the ecological, sociological, cultural, political, and economic contexts in which it is produced, and so considerations of ethical and sustainable relations between producers, consumers, businesses, and governing authorities are now essential.

Food provides insights into ways of life, helping tourists understand differences between their own culture and those with which they come into contact (Henderson 2009:317). Using a semiotic analysis of food, Parasecoli (2011) argued that food serves as a means for intercultural communication, and he explores how this occurs through tourism, travel, and migration. Parasecoli demonstrated that food offers a space for encounters with “otherness”, but is also situated within power discrepancies. He stated: “Regional gastronomic specialties, deprived of any embodied connection with the society and culture of a specific place, risk often reduction to local color, produced for the sole amusement and consumption of tourists” (Parasecoli 2011:660).

The niche of native foods in gastronomic tourism marks a special space where issues of Indigenous rights, settler–colonial relations, possibilities for cross-cultural dialogue, and reconciliation come to the fore. In places such as Australia, the specific context for this chapter, the unsettled history leads to situations of exploitation in tourism, conflicts over appropriation, and significant controversies. Recent academic work has made contributions to understanding such issues (e.g., Higgins-Desbiolles et al. 2017; Hale and Higgins-Desbiolles 2017).

Australia was founded on the myth of “terra nullius”, marking a failure to recognize the custodianship and rights of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people, and thus justifying colonization. As Langton (1996) showed, this plays out in both popular culture and tourism in an insecure Australian identity and a continuing rapaciousness for appropriating Aboriginal patrimony, including native foods (referencing Les Hiddens, known as the “Bush Tucker Man”; see Langton 1996:18). White’s (2014) work demonstrated the implications of this when she noted that the use of native spices has created a bush tucker brand and built an identifiably Australian national cuisine directed at branding through commercial nationalism.

But the literature also indicates that such disrespectful appropriation does not have to be the only outcome. Janer’s (2007) cultural studies analysis called for a “decolonization of culinary knowledge” as she advocated a move away from culinary nationalism to a state where we can appreciate the “cultural epistemology” of Indigenous cultures on their own terms and the multiple benefits this may open up. In the study of the attractiveness of Maori foods in restaurants, Morris argued “that the public culinascape can be read as a map of the field of race relations in Aotearoa New Zealand” (2010:6). Understanding the use of native foods in Australian gastronomic tourism illuminates a good deal about opportunities for the benefit of Aboriginal people and Torres Strait Islanders, satisfaction of tourist demand, and wider Australian societal relations.

Native foods in Australia

Aboriginal people were farming the native plants and animals … for thousands of years. Being the oldest living culture, they had that deep connection to country.
Laws, customs, spirituality, beliefs and Dreaming; it was really a unique way of life and social system and economic system that extended for thousands of years.

(Josh Whiteland, in Carter 2013a)

In Australia, native foods (also called Indigenous foods, bush foods, and bush tucker) are foods that are Indigenous to Australia and may be associated with Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander cultivation and use of these foods. They include meats (e.g., kangaroo, emu), sea-foods (e.g., abalone, fish), plant foods as fruits (e.g., quandong, kutjera), plant foods as nuts (e.g., bunya nuts, pindan nuts), spices (e.g., mountain pepper, lemon myrtle), and potential superfoods (e.g., gubinge or Kakadu plum). It is estimated there are up to 5,000 native food species (almost 20 per cent of Australia’s native flora and fauna) that were utilized by the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people at the time of European colonization (SBS Food n.d.). Pascoe’s recent book *Dark Emu* demonstrated that Indigenous Australians were “using domesticated plants, sowing, harvesting, irrigating and storing” (2014:back-cover), thus refuting long-held myths that Indigenous Australians were simply hunter-gatherers. This analysis forces a recognition that many of the native foods enjoyed today have emerged from extensive and long-term cultivation by Aboriginal custodians for millennia and these land management practices underpin an argument for a “right to ownership” (Pascoe 2017).

Because of growing consumer interest, the native foods industry in Australia has expanded in recent years with an estimated value of $14 million annually (inclusive of value adding) (Bryceson 2008:7). Tourism Australia has promoted Aboriginal foods in its efforts to benefit from the unique branding that this offers, calling on visitors to “sample our unique bush tucker while you’re down under” (Tourism Australia n.d.).

Recent media reports on notable celebrity chefs have added to the current high profile of native foods in Australia. For instance, Scottish-born celebrity chef Jock Zonfrillo opened the award-winning Orana Restaurant in Adelaide featuring a menu built on native foods and challenging Australia to embrace this as the authentic national cuisine. Zonfrillo stated: “Our food celebrates post settlement Australia while cooking with respect to Country and the culture of the First Australians” (quoted in Welch 2016:31). Additionally, the world-renowned chef Rene Redzepi of Copenhagen’s Noma Restaurant hosted a “pop-up Noma in Sydney” in early 2016, creating a fever pitch around native foods; his booked out restaurant was located at the newly launched prestige development at Barangaroo and supported by Tourism Australia (Thomsen 2016). The Noma pop-up in Sydney in 2016 illustrates White’s claim that Australian native foods are embraced for branding and tourism marketing purposes.

Aboriginal chefs have also made notable contributions and raised the profile of native foods. Celebrity chef Mark Olive presented the television series *Outback Café* and acts as an ambassador for native foods in Australian cuisine, recently appearing on the international road shows of Restaurants Australia. Rayleen Brown, co-founder of the catering business Kungkas Can Cook in Alice Springs, has been a leader and advocate for Aboriginal benefit from the native foods sector. Thus, a number of Indigenous-led initiatives have been undertaken to build Indigenous opportunities, share Indigenous knowledge, and foster respect (e.g. Torres 2010). Notably, some of these Aboriginal leaders responded to the Redzepi’s Noma in Sydney event by developing a collaboration under the title “the Five Kungkas” (*kungkas* being the Pitjantjatjara word for women) and challenging Redzepi and his team to source some of his native ingredients from them rather than non-Indigenous distributors.

Non-Indigenous distributors such as Creative Native, Australian Functional Ingredients, Oautback Pride, and Outback Spirit dominate the native foods sector; however, a small number of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander distributors, providers, and harvesters are also visible,
including Mayi Harvests, Indigiearth, and the 5 Kungkas. Studies suggest the benefits derived by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people from the native foods industry are minimal, with the primary benefits accruing to providers outside of remote Australia (Bryceson 2008; Cleary et al. 2008). Non-Indigenous initiatives have largely driven the development of the industry, and as a result, there has been concern for a number of years that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples are losing their rights and not adequately benefitting. For instance, Rayleen Brown has advocated for “proper recognition and financial rewards for the original custodians of bush foods as the industry expands and its export potential grows” (Hasham 2015). Brown voiced concern that non-Indigenous dominance of native foods may result in “a loss of connection between Aboriginal people’s relationship with the food and the person who is developing it”. In the case of macadamia nuts, Brown noted it has been developed “without any regard to the interests of Aboriginal people … as if it’s a common good, a free for all.” (Hasham 2015).

However, the use of native foods in tourism experiences provides a different context that may better facilitate opportunities for Aboriginal control of and benefit from the native foods industry. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people have included native foods in their tourism experiences for decades, including: foraging for native foods; interpreting environments where native foods are found and cultivated; telling dreaming stories concerning native foods; performing ceremonies for the thriving of native foods; making art and artefacts concerning native foods; running culinary events serving food tourists and serving native foods during tours. As Craw (2012:18) argued, native foods in gastronomic tourism may even lead to “broader engagement” that places settler-Indigenous relationships on a more positive footing. The following case study is an example of how one Aboriginal tourism operator in Australia has successfully modelled the embedding of native foods in the gastronomic tourism experience and showcases these possibilities.

Case study 49.1: Aboriginal gastronomic tourism: Koomal Dreaming

Josh Whiteland has created a tourism business called Koomal Dreaming offering cultural experiences based on his Wadandi and Bibbulman culture and country. As a leader in the tourism industry in the South West region of Western Australia (WA), Whiteland argues that tourism offers a good opportunity:

I think tourism is quite good for Aboriginal people. It gives them the opportunity to continue cultural activities, to go back to country, to run and have their own business, to be confident and proud of who they are, and it’s a vehicle for continuation of these cultural practices… They can also have a better lifestyle… by going back to the land.  

(Josh Whiteland, pers. comm., 4 August 2016)

Whiteland developed food and food experiences as features of his tourism offerings as he looked to create compelling experiences. He explained how he evolved a feature on native foods in his product:

To begin with it was mostly about creating tourism experiences and I guess all that complements that. I’m a musician and artist, and I love public speaking. But I also had a passion for cooking, foraging, hunting and farming, because I have a farming background.  

(Josh Whiteland, pers. comm., 4 August 2016)
The Koomal Dreaming website shows how these multiple talents of cultural story-teller, performer, musician, artist, chef, and custodian come together to create the Koomal tourism offering, but the integration of food and his cultural knowledge of food gives his tourism experience a special edge. Under the section on food on the Koomal Dreaming website, it states:

The Wadandi people … maintain an intricate system and way of life living by the six seasonal rotation, and have done so for over 50,000 years. Learning to live by these seasons Josh developed a passion for foraging, hunting and cooking. Experimenting with local foods and native flavours has led to a flair and passion for cooking. Josh cooks traditional food out on country and often blends these flavours with contemporary foods and cooking styles at home for visitors.

Over the last couple of years Josh has been sharing this knowledge and passion for food with visitors and chefs from around the world. This has led to opportunities to connect and work with leaders in this field both on film, on location and at events (see Figure 49.1).

(Whiteland, pers. comm., 4 August 2016).

Whiteland has also impacted the burgeoning native foods movement in Australia by hosting international chefs in order to transform their appreciation of native foods and the Aboriginal custodians of these foods. For instance, he has hosted world-renowned chefs, including Rene Redzepi, Peter Gilmore, and Jock Zonfrillo, and taken them on foraging and cooking activities (Koomal Dreaming n.d. b; Carter 2013a). Whiteland has also gained an international profile through his dedicated work to enhance the profile of Australian native foods, including presenting on foraging for native foods at the MAD [food] Symposium in Copenhagen in 2013 at the invitation of Chef Rene Redzepi (see Carter 2013c).

Figure 49.1   Josh Whiteland of Koomal Dreaming.
(Photo courtesy of Koomal Dreaming and Elements Margaret River.)
Whiteland’s view is that the Aboriginal traditional owners’ cultural connection to country underpins the unique offering Aboriginal contributions make to gastronomic tourism. His mentoring of these celebrity chefs has a purpose:

For the individual to create the awareness about the bush plants and fruits and vegetables and spices, they would really need to immerse themselves within the culture and land and be able to connect to the land, connect to the people and connect to the fruits and vegetables and the food that comes from the land. Then you’ll have a really clear understanding of what is available and what [are] our national foods.

(Josh Whiteland in Carter 2013a)

Whiteland argues that these experiences are essential to gaining a genuine sense of place and securing a sense of identity. As he explained in a radio interview:

Those sorts of recipes and foods I just think [give an] amazing connection back, from understanding the bulya which is the rock, understanding the fire, the kala which is the warmth and how it relates to the family, culture and kindship of Aboriginal people.

(Josh Whiteland in Carter 2013b)

Koomal Dreaming tours are well-regarded, as demonstrated in client feedback and tourism awards. A review of client feedback indicates that travelers are moved by these experiences, with 27 out of 28 reviews posted on TripAdvisor designated in the “excellent” category (TripAdvisor n.d.). One illustrative client comment with the title “gem of the south” stated:

When one thinks of the Margaret River region, we normally associate it with wine-making and food; now we should add an extra feature, Josh and Koomal Dreaming. It’s difficult to know where to start… his awesome didgeridoo playing, his amazing cooking, his personal demeanour or his extensive and personal knowledge?

Josh and Koomal Dreaming brought together a remarkable experience … Start[ing] with a private(ish) visit to Ngilgi Cave before most people enter, and Josh plays his didgeridoo for you before he entertains and fascinates you with information about the Aboriginal history and customs of this remarkable section of Western Australia. Take a trip with him around the region when he imparts on you his own part in the story of the land and then partake in one of the best barbecue lunches imaginable … If you are from Western Australia, this has to be part of our awakening, if you are from overseas and want to have an understanding of the rich and diverse culture before European settlement, you just can’t go past this experience.

(TripAdvisor n.d., posted 15 April 2017)

Koomal Dreaming has won numerous awards, including the Indigenous Tourism Award at the West Australian Tourism Awards in multiple years resulting in its induction into the WA Tourism Awards Hall of Fame in 2016. Josh Whiteland is also mentoring the future leaders in the native foods sector. Together with celebrity chef Mark Olive, he has co-created Kambarang South West Aboriginal Gourmet Experience as part of WA’s Margaret River Gourmet Escape event. This event features extensive training for a number of WA Aboriginal hospitality students, with all proceeds going to the Outback Academy’s Hospitality Program (Koomal Dreaming n.d. c).
At the heart of gastronomic tourism is telling the story of a destination’s history, culture, and people, so it makes good business sense to have the stories of the native foods narrated directly by Aboriginal tourism operators who have access to generations of knowledge concerning their Country. Josh Whiteland stated:

Everything’s about the food stories. You may be explaining about a certain plant that flowers and fruits in a certain time of year, or talking about animals that have nesting periods … The food stories are a big part of food tourism … quite often the audience is intrigued by the food story. More and more people want to learn more about sustainable foods and also healthy foods with medicinal properties. They want to be able to connect to the area with the stories, the food and the culture; there’s a whole experience available and that’s what I like offering the most.

(Josh Whiteland, pers. comm., 4 August 2016)

The case of Koomal Dreaming demonstrates that there are advantages for both tourists and hosts when Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander tourism operators with custodial and cultural knowledge offer the native food tourism experience. However, this analysis also suggests there may be much more to be gained. In creating a space for recognition and decolonization of culinary knowledges, native foods in Australian gastronomic tourism may be instrumental in settling Australia’s identity and inter-communal relationships.

**Conclusion**

It remains to be seen where the native foods sector of Australian gastronomic tourism might lead. The concern with dispossession and exploitation found in the wider native foods sector certainly remains a threat in the sphere of gastronomic tourism as well. Parasecoli’s (2011) discussion of power in the food encounter is pertinent. Food tourists and consumers of native foods have the ability to choose the provenance, and thus whether Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people will benefit and whether their custodianship will be recognized.

Native foods presented in gastronomic tourism from a position of respectful engagement and intercultural dialogue have the potential to enhance the food tourists’ understanding of the “food story”, its origins and history. Craw asserted: “Native foods offer an opportunity for a rich and active engagement with terroir and with Indigenous Australian worldviews” (2012:20). As the case of Koomal Dreaming demonstrates, these gastronomic tourism experiences activate tourists through an experience of place that foregrounds culture, Country, and care. As the tourist comment on TripAdvisor noted “this has to be a part of our awakening”. The interface of native foods and tourism potentially offers a nourishing terrain of becoming that may transform relationships between peoples and place.

**References**


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Introduction

The symbolic, and also economic, struggle between tea and coffee, since the colonial period, resulted in an emblematic victory of the former by its declaration as India’s national drink in 2012 (Ghosh 2015). Nevertheless, historical and sociocultural standpoints indicate that tea experienced some crucial symbolic fluctuations in the country’s colonial and post-colonial history. As with time more and more Indian have been consuming tea, it became clear that the beverage, as a national drink, became a strong symbol of identity for the Indians across all castes, in the past, and in the classes of the present (Devee 1921; Neville 2006; Ray 2009; Ghosh 2015).

Tea can also be considered a social pacifier, since it has been a universally acceptable beverage in all major religions of India (Bhadra 2005; Lutgendorf 2012). Tea even became a drink for both genders that encouraged a human rights movement, namely women’s social awakening in India (Roshan 2012). Therefore, tea’s symbolism could be interpreted both as a sociocultural manifestation that encouraged not only national identity and reduced class distinctions, but also contributed to amending gender discrepancy in Indian society.

In the context of tourism, while in commercial advertising tea was presented as a cheap and healthy beverage for all, in politics, tea was rather promoted as the national beverage by the post-independence governments of India, and also part of the country’s gastro-diplomacy abroad (Bhadra 2005; Neville 2006). Hence, tea has become a symbolic ingredient in popular Bollywood movies, too, with the goal of further establishing it as the nation’s cultural drink associated with extravagance and celebrities as emblematic heroes of the society. As a consequence, Bollywood has been certainly influencing popular interests in tea legacy in the growing Indian middle-class society that has started travelling massively lately.

Thus, these above-mentioned symbolic and sociocultural trends of tea have influenced the recent growth of tea tourism in India. It is probable that the growing interest in revitalizing Indian cultural roots, from a political point of view, and tea romanticism toward harmony and spirituality associated with Indian tea culture by tourists have further strengthened tea tourism development in the country (Government of India, Ministry of Tourism 2006).
The growth of Indian tea tourism, therefore, could be perceived as a result of the symbolic revitalization of the Indian identity that merges with the global tourism phenomena. Domestic tourists look for Indian values that are health-oriented, e.g. Ayurveda, casteless, and classless Indian values and traditions, while foreign tourists seek spirituality and historical connections with the past. The paper seeks to expand the anthropological reflection of the symbolic attractiveness of tea as a commodity for the emerging tea tourism dynamics in India.

Understanding the emergence of tea tourism

One of the least known facts about the Indian tea (chai in Hindi), is that it was a plant that was introduced into the Indian subcontinent in the early 19th century as a colonial cash crop (Lutgendorf 2012). Before that Indians didn’t even regard tea as a beverage. With the increased attention that the study of Indian chai has received over the past decade, there has been a large focus on trying to understand what makes it so significant to the point that the government officially proclaimed tea as the national drink of India in 2012 (Ghosh 2015).

From a historical perspective, tea has only been grown in a few plantations mainly concentrated in the North East of India, a land often described as one of enchanting natural beauties. The hills, rivers, forests, and waterfalls formed the Tea Belt that included Darjeeling, Dooars, Terai, and Assam. Currently the most important regions of this Tea Belt are Dooars, at the foothills of the Himalayas, and Terai (Sarma 2014).

According to Sarma (2014), altogether they have a total tea area of 97,280 ha and the production of tea is approximately 216,000 tons. Following this is Darjeeling, where an “amber coloured with delicate flavour” tea is produced, a “total of 17,820 ha of tea cultivation producing approximately 9.8 million kg of tea” (Sarma 2014:32). Finally, the Assam region that produces a “full bodied bright tea liquor” and has “312,210 ha area with production capacity of 507 million kg” (Sarma 2014:32). These areas are big drivers for tea production in India.

Tea tourism, an upcoming trend, is being pushed into these areas to increase alternate forms of revenue. Jolliffe (2003) in one of her earlier essays describes it as “areas of tea services, tea attractions, tea tours and tea destinations that tea is clearly directly connected to tourism, as contemporary tourists seek out unique and authentic experiences related to the consumption and appreciation of the beverage called tea” (2003:122).

Currently, tea tourism is still considered as a new and forthcoming segment by the political administration. Jolliffe (2007) argues that despite “small-scale garden visits and farm stays in India, especially in Darjeeling, tea’s potential as a tourism product has not been fully recognized” (2007:57). Most recent writers disagree with this, with the common example of Assam and Darjeeling. To improve on tea tourism, Sanyal (2008) finds that the “Darjeeling district, and Assam are now converting their British-built old bungalows into luxury lodgings, catering to a select, but growing, band of people who wouldn’t mind paying handsomely while sipping what is called Champagne of teas” (2008:1). This has been found to be part of an integrated tourism master plan for the region in order “to develop additional facilities inside the tea garden to attract tourists which can help in generating additional revenue” (Sarma 2014:32).

The results are clear: tea tourism in India has risen significantly. Among the North-Eastern Tea plantations, Assam is found to have the highest proportion of domestic and foreign tourists at 4,511,407 and 17,543, respectively. Assam received 44% of domestic tourists and 8% of international tourists among the tea states of India (Government of India, Ministry of Tourism 2012). The main home nations of foreign tourism to the region are the U.S. (16.12%) and the
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U.K. (13.15%), followed by Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Canada, Germany, France, Malaysia, Australia, and Japan (Tata Consultancy Service Report 2010). The main motivations for both domestic and foreign tourists were “culture, resorts and hills” (Government of India, Ministry of Tourism 2006).

Tea from a historical perspective

Jolliffe (2007) believes that the success of Indian tea tourism could be explained by the fact “how well tea is featured in a more macro-cultural environment in the Indian society (2007:67). The more culturally relevant tea is perceived in the Indian society, the more successful it will be in attracting visitors to sample it. “My difficulty in imagining an India without chai – the essential lubricant of nearly all social occasions and commercial transactions, and the quotidian ‘fuel’ of countless rickshaw-wallahs, artisans, and labourers in the ‘casual economy’ – is shared by many Indians today” (Lutgendorf 2012:12). Hence, the deeply rooted symbolism behind tea consumption is undeniable in India. Ray (2009) believes that Indians’ interest in tea can be dated to around the Great Indian Rebellion of 1857. Since the rebellion was repressed, Indians’ admiration for British practices started to fade away and Indian nationalism began to rise (Ray 2009). Interestingly, tea, as a formerly British beverage, became the symbol of Indian nationalism.

This is best seen in Wyvern’s Culinary Jottings, first published in 1878, a collection of menus of British cuisine, published after the rebellion depicted that “tea made and poured out by a Khidmatgar [an Indian waiter or more loosely translated to as a servant of God, were considered] to make new-comers open their eyes” (Steel and Gardiner 1898, quoted in Ray 2009:101), as this manner of drinking tea was no longer considered British. As a consequence, British tea consumption was dissuaded, and rumors of tea contamination spread, such as blackthorn leaves replacing tea leaves (Ray 2009). As the English demand fell, the Bengali Hindu-middle class demand rose, as they did not focus on purity of the goods, as the British had before, so tea impurity was accepted (Ray 2009).

The sheer ripple effect of a rise in Indian demand led to tea changing the economy. Concerning Ray’s findings (2009) the “number of Indian companies producing tea” in the early 20th century “would not have risen to such a scale, had there not been a sufficient demand for the foodstuffs within the country” (2009:40). In the 21st century, tea consumption in north India is more domestic than commercial and manufacture and consumption is three times more than that of coffee in India (Ghosh 2015). Still, the affordability of tea made it loved by everyone; for instance, the price of tea as in a standard restaurant “for the princely sum of one rupee and four annas, one could drink as much tea as one liked and eat a number of pastries, patties, sandwiches and cakes” (Neville 2006:130).

In the 1920s, everyone in India could afford a cup of tea (chai in Hindi), which would have initially been demarcated as new food by the Indians in the early 20th century. Sunity Devee, the Queen of the Princely State of Cooch Behar, referred to this fact in her autobiography “We do not have many meals in India. Formerly we had breakfast, fruit and milk every afternoon and dinner. Now we have quite a late breakfast in the English way, and afternoon tea” (Devee 1921:114). Tea became truly Indian in the 1930s, and it partially replaced even traditional foods such as milk and yogurts (Ray 2009).

The success of tea replacing the Indian diet, was strongly linked to its added value as a health substance in the Indian consciousness. The earliest example of this was when it was symbolically consumed as a medical beverage, or for children’s growth, due to the nutritive elements of Bengali cuisine (Ray 2009), while nationally other Indian cultures adopted tea for good health.
As Roshan (2012) finds, it was “a necessary of daily life of the Bhotias and it was largely consumed by them to prevent from the intense cold and wonderful dryness of the atmosphere” (2012:456).

**Tea from a sociocultural perspective**

Surprisingly, in religious circles, tea was symbolically identified with one religious group in India: the Muslims. This empathy with tea was due to the fact that they did not have a traditional beverage, since alcohol is haram in Islam (Roshan 2012). For this reason, Muslims probably contributed to the development of tea culture in India (Roshan 2012).

From a more Hindu perspective, in the beginning of democratizing tea in the Indian society (late 19th century), Brahmins (highest caste Hindus) preferred coffee over tea, as tea was perceived as a working-class and non-Brahmin drink (Bhadra 2005). Therefore, the Indian Tea Board, in order to reduce religious gaps, initiated actions to make the beverage less linked to religion and more symbolic for all Indians. The most notable manner was by hiring Brahmins to sell tea at railways to street vendors (Roshan 2012). To go one step further they completely closed the religious divide that tea had for Indian by promoting communal harmony. For instance, in the advertisement depicting a Hindu, a Muslim, and a Sikh drinking a cup of tea, they are connected by one slogan “wealth, health and happiness” (Bhadra 2005).

Tea was not only seen as a symbol of all religious communities in India, but also for both genders. Roshan stated (2012) that men (in the late 19th century) like “Mohammedans occasionally indulge in an ice or a cup of tea. It is very unusual for any native ladies to appear at these garden-parties” (2012:454) to even enjoy a cup of tea. This lack of interest for the beverage by women was only temporary, since strong female figures such as, the previously-mentioned Queen Sunity Devee, can be seen drinking tea several times in her autobiography (Devee 1921). This trend of drinking tea by aristocratic Indian women laid the foundation for women to express their gender equality to men. Later, Lutgendorf (2012) describes that during the 20th century “tea was touted as a medium for women’s ‘awakening’ – a progressive and empowering tool for smart, modern homemakers, who understood the importance of good nutrition and domestic hygiene” (2012:15).

**Postmodern understanding of today’s tea tourism**

In popular South Indian cinema and politics, Rajanayagam (2015) identifies how the culturally symbolic tea is used to show the rural socio-political system, the tea stall is an important center, a melting pot, a meeting point, where collective opinions are formed and relationships shared. The tea-stall is not merely a point of buying and selling, but a door to the village and a window to the world (Rajanayagam 2015). Hence, the way tea can be linked to tourism is how tourism can manage this symbolic connection between local and global, and furthermore how hosts and guests meet in the shadow of colonial past to revitalize cultural heritage.

Incorporating tea into commercial advertising was not always so successful. Lutgendorf (2012) finds that the replication of tea advertisements used in England for the Indians failed drastically, as shown in a 1911 newspaper that “celebrated tea as a natural product of a colonized and tamed ‘jungle’, raised in geometrically arrayed and manicured ‘gardens’ and picked by dark-skinned, subaltern women, who offered it at a gleaming white table to equally white consumers; a tidy ‘factory’ building in the background, lit by the rising sun of colonial-era progress, merely hinted at the complex and increasingly mechanized intermediary process involved in actual tea manufacture” (Lutgendorf 2012:13–14).
As early as the 1930s, an intense campaign of tea selling and advertising was implemented via “Mobile tea stalls … stationed in vantage points in bazars and streets” (Neville 2006). Later, tea advertisement became the center of the “buy and sell game”. Tea commercials could be seen in various visages. In an advertisement posted in Jungatar, Kolkata in 1939, the ad stated “Anyone can have Indian tea which is the pride and pleasure of India” (Ray 2009:60). This pride and pleasure of India, refers to the extensive spectrum of the Indian population, where by charging 1 paisa, people would be able to enjoy buying it cheaply (Ray 2009).

In the 1930s, ads were also targeting health symbolism, such as “Chhelemeyeder Swasthyer Dayitwa Apnari” (“You alone are responsible for the well-being of your children/your children’s health depends on you”) (Ray 2009). Aimed at homemakers, tea was advertised as an essential drink to the youth and as an essential commodity in the household. Neville (2006) states the swiftness of tea’s magnetism “usually taken in place of milk during illness on medical advice” (2006:128). Roshan (2012) strengthens the health symbolism through the multiple use of cartoons in these advertisements, such as “A yawn at dawn” and “Tea is essential for avoiding daily trouble” illustrating an Indian man waking up with a cup of tea displaying his healthy lifestyle (2012:464–465).

Following commercial ads, India’s film industries, such as Bollywood and Tollywood, also contribute to the globalization of the symbolic unity of Indians through a single beverage. Throughout the various films, there seems be a common presence of *chaai wallahs* (tea sellers) and/or just the consumption of tea. This reflected even in noteworthy songs and dances that Indian cinema is known for (Roshan 2012).

Bhadra (2005) even discusses with the significance of a “teacup serves as a detail, its necessity depending on the choice of the viewer” (2005:40). As in the case of literature, the film industry began adopting “tea with a stereotypical affective meaning” such as the film *Chao Paoa* (Bhadra 2005). The film displayed a scene of couples, chatting over a cup of tea, as it was a normal social convention to gather with a cup of tea. Bhadra (2005) exemplifies that “tea drinking as a meaningful image was transferred from literature to film without any alteration in its signification” (2005:41). This can be found apparent with the iconic Raj Kapoor sharing a cup of tea with Nargis in the movie *Shree 420* produced in 1955 (YouTube 2012), an iconic movie of its time, or even humorously with Aamir and Salman Khan sharing a single “cup of chai” in the film *Andaz Apna Apna* (1994). Produced in 1994, its most noteworthy scene was its witty one-liners around a cup of tea.

As a result, tea tourism has increased in India as well. This is mainly due to the use of remote hill stations and tea plantations in Indian film, particularly in areas like Darjeeling. It has been a prominent filming destination for Indian filmmakers. Well-known Bollywood movies like Aradhana, Mausam, Barfi and Via Darjeeling were often filmed in Darjeeling, and through this, popular songs like *Main Chali Main Chali* and *Dil Hai Mera Deewana* encouraged youths, regardless of class, to search for those tea plantations during their vacations (Das 2014).

**Political perspective of tea tourism**

The symbolic democratization of tea also impacted the politics of both the British imperial government and the post-independence government. The imperial government in India, under Lord Curzon, Viceroy of India, chose to implement the Indian Tea Cess Act in 1903. As a consequence, the imperial government maximized production by trying to impose laws that allowed selling more tea to Indians. Therefore, the Act was not only beneficial for the tea trade, but provided money to increase domestic tea consumption too (Roshan 2012).
After Indian independence in 1947, the new government under the Indian National Congress established some “tea intervals” (Roshan 2012), a break in between meeting in which tea was served as a refreshment for politicians. The government, as Bhadra finds (2005), had a new “political meaning [after independence] … tea as a product, in its self-representation, has undergone a metamorphosis, as it were, from an old imperial insignia to a symbol of the new nation” (2005:26). As a result, tea, symbolically, represented the victory of Indians over the British.

The government further forged a “nationalist rhetoric of the independence movement to champion tea as India’s ‘national beverage’ that (like a ‘national language’, ‘national costume’, ‘national song’, etc.) could potentially unify the subcontinent’s diverse religious, linguistic, and caste groups” (Lutgendorf 2012:15). By drinking tea, the Congress could consolidate its power across various states, regions, and castes, as tea was consumed by basically every Indian.

In the earlier years of the post-independence government and to the present day, India has maintained strong foreign relationships and diplomacy to establish itself to the world as a superpower. Culinary diplomacy, a form of cultural diplomacy through promotion of their cuisine, has been very fundamental to this (Rockower 2012). For instance, Prime Minister Modi’s culinary diplomacy follows the motto of “chai-pe-charcha” (discussion over tea) (Narayanan 2015). He has been commonly seen with world leaders sharing a cup of tea during meetings.

In terms of tea tourism in India, the importance of tea has even led to the fact that the “central government has decided to make a tea stall – where Prime Minister Narendra Modi is reported to have worked as a child – into a tourist spot” (Huffington Post 2017). A more notable example is in “the wake of the spate of violence against Indian students in Melbourne, Australia in 2010. Australian civil society sought to use culinary diplomacy as a means to bridge the divide between communities [by using] Indian cuisine and restaurants as a focal point to bring the Indian and broader Australian communities to the same table to increase cultural knowledge as it allayed the Indian community’s fears of hostility and isolation” (Rockower 2012:9–10).

Concluding remarks

All these symbolic and pragmatic characteristics described beforehand have contributed to a highly appreciated and solidly established role of this beverage in the Indian society. Tea is not only an economic and social tool that builds harmony in a multicultural society, but also a beverage that has been revitalized through historical, political, and cultural symbolism. Tea represents Indian sociocultural and religious unity; harmony in political spheres; and gender equality in the public and private domains. Tea as a drink and also as a colonial institution has been revitalized in society, and tourism actors, alongside with commercial advertisements delivered by Indian movie starts, have been promoting it in modern channels of communication such as songs, movies, and commercial ads. It is not surprising that these nationalistic and symbolic steps towards a nationwide Indian identity are sought desperately by the emerging Indian tourism sector.

Indian tea tourism as a postmodern form of spirituality can be also understood from a functionalist angle. The booming Indian economic results enable more and more Indians to take domestic holidays in faraway distances. This is supported by a spiritual and nationalistic reawakening that seeks unique Indian symbols of being truly Indian. Tourism can be understood from the Durkheimian perspective of the sacred and profane, where tourists look for
sacred experiences that allows them to revitalize themselves and to escape from their monotonous life. Tea as a unique Indian relic generates more and more interest in the Indian travelling market that will certainly impact international tourism as well in the tea-growing areas of the country. Lastly, as Lutgendorf stated (2012), to successfully use tea to enhance tourism, tea must be marketed as “made in India by Indian products” or better known “as a swadeshi product, invoking the slogan of nationalist enterprise, ‘Be Indian, Buy Indian!’” (2012:27). If implemented correctly tourism “has the potential to [further] enhance the brand image and marketing of tea-producing destinations such as Assam and Ooty” (Jolliffe 2003:122).

References


Introduction

The United Nations (2002) has described population ageing as unprecedented and without parallel in the history of humanity. It has been estimated that globally the number of older persons (aged 60 years or over) is expected to more than double, from 841 million people in 2013, to more than 2 billion in 2050 (He, Goodkind, and Kowal 2016). In other words, every fifth person in the world will be over 60 years, and every sixth person will be over 65 years (United Nations 2013). There is little doubt that the world is ageing very quickly both at an individual and at a population level (Leeson 2014). Never before has humanity seen such a development, i.e., a shrinking of the younger populations in almost all of the developed countries, while at the same time a considerable ageing of its older residents (Meiners and Seeberger 2010). Most developed countries are now beginning to experience the phenomenon of an aging society, “with no country in the world can hide from the (inevitable) greying of its population” (Leeson 2002: 25).

In terms of its market potential, people older than 65 years constitute an important market segment. The market impact becomes even more significant with increased opportunities for traveling based on seniors’ perceived good health and financial status compared to previous generations (Healy 2004). However, there has been a tendency of tourism marketers and product developers to treat senior consumers as one large homogeneous segment (Cleaver et al. 1999; Moschis, Lee, and Mathur, 1997). This attitude contrasts sharply from the results of empirical studies dating back to the 1980s that demonstrated that senior travelers have been segmented according to: their general demographics (Tongren 1980; Anderson and Langmeyer 1982; Norvell 1985; Blazey 1991), use of travel information (Capella and Greco 1989), lodging preferences (Lieux, Weaver, and McCleary 1994), psychographics (Backman, Backman, and Silverberg 1999; Moisey and Bichis 1999), and travel motivations (Romsa and Blenman 1989; Shoemaker 1989, 2000; Thomas and Butts 1998; Cleaver et al. 1999; You and O’Leary 1999).

Part of this problem relates to the underlying perceptions that the travel industry regards senior consumers as one large homogeneous segment, which has been attributed to an inaccurate and stereotyped view of ‘the elderly’ (Moschis 1992). To cater for the diversity of needs of this growing market, the industry needs to have a better understanding of senior travel behavior so that tourism products and services can be better tailored to meet their preferences for a diverse range of travel experiences.
Seniors and tourism

The ageing of the world’s population is occurring in most developed countries, along with other significant changes associated with older adults’ socio-demographics and changes in their travel patterns (Schroder and Widmann 2007; Patterson et al. 2017). These have been recognized as the primary reasons for the growth in the senior tourist segment that has now become a major component of the global tourism and travel industry (Patterson 2018; Schroder and Widmann 2007; Nimrod and Rotem 2010; Hrnjić, Šuta, and Pilav-Velić 2016). Furthermore, there is consumer evidence emerging that suggests that older tourists are demanding superior levels of service, have the ability to pay for these types of services, and are interested in buying a greater variety of goods, services, and unique experiences (Prideaux, Wei, and Ruys 2001).

In addition, an increasing number of research studies have confirmed that the senior market is becoming one of the largest and most significant market segments, because many seniors have the discretionary income and increased time to travel (Moisey and Bichis 1999; Moscardo and Green 1999; Paxson 2009; Sie, Patterson, and Pegg 2016). Furthermore, many senior travelers tend to travel longer distances and stay away from home longer than any other age cohort (Shoemaker 1989; Blazey 1991; Pearce 1999).

These findings suggest that older generations are increasingly becoming attracted to undertaking a variety of tourism experiences, wanting to experience and discover the world, and this is especially true of baby boomers (born between 1946 and 1964) who have been found to have different attitudes and lifestyles compared to previous generations of retirees (Moschis, Lee, and Mathur 1997; Faranda and Schmidt 2000; Patterson et al. 2016). According to Patterson (2018), ‘boomers’ are having a significant impact on the type of holidays that they are taking, and although travelling to warmer climates for their holidays is still popular for many, there has been increased spending on vacation experiences that specifically focus on such niche markets as adventure, educational, cultural, and heritage tourism. This is because older individuals would rather take holidays where they can learn something new and/or embark on different types of historical and cultural experiences (Patterson and Pegg 2011).

The market for senior tourists already represents a key economic segment. This is because travel and leisure activities have now become the largest discretionary expenditure item for older consumers, particularly in most of the developed and affluent countries around the globe (Hsu, Cai and Wong 2007). Nevertheless, the travel industry has been criticized for failing to recognize the diversity of travel preferences that are required to attract the senior travel market. This was because in the past, there was a tendency of tourism marketers and product developers to treat senior consumers as one large homogeneous segment (Moschis, Lee, and Mathur 1997; Cleaver et al. 1999). Sánchez (2000) felt that there has been a lack of studies on ageing populations from a micro-economic perspective, specifically in relation to their consumer behavior.

As a result of these trends, tourism destinations are often not as organized or prepared to receive senior visitors. There is a need for the key stakeholders to emphasize the importance of implementing education and training of staff, and the implementation of programs and events that focus specifically on the senior traveler. Senior travel has also been found to assist in changing their lifestyle so as to improve any chronic disease outcomes, to change their daily routines, and to improve their general health status overall (Alén, Losada, and Domínguez 2012; Frosch et al. 2010; Hrnjić, Šuta, and Pilav-Velić 2016). One special interest area that is a rapidly growing market for senior tourists is gastronomic tourism.
Senior travelers

Gastronomic tourism

Food is fast becoming one of the most important attractions or drivers, as tourists seek new and authentic experiences and alternative forms of tourism (Crouch and Ritchie 1999). The role that food plays in attracting tourists to a destination has only recently been recognized by governments, researchers, and the wine, food and tourism industries. The primary motivating factors for travel may include attending food festivals, restaurants, and specific locations for which food tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of a specialist food production region are the main foci (Douglas, Douglas and Derrett 2001).

Food tourism has also been referred to as ‘gastronomic tourism’. The word gastronomy is derived from Greek ‘gastros’ meaning stomach, and ‘gnomos’ meaning knowledge or law (Kivela and Crotts 2006). It has been defined in a number of different ways, including the study of the relationship between culture and food; as an historical topic; or as a reflection of a society’s culture (Santich 2004). Gastronomic tourism has generally been referred to as trips that are made to destinations where the local food and beverages are the main motivating factors for travel. Hall et al. (2003) were the first researchers to define gastronomic (or food) tourism in greater detail as: an experiential trip to a gastronomic region for recreational or entertainment purposes, which includes visits to primary and secondary producers of food, gastronomic festivals, food fairs, events, farmers’ markets, cooking shows and demonstrations, tastings of quality food products or any tourism activity related to food. Kivela and Crotts (2006) further noted that it is very closely connected to, and at times inseparable from wine and other alcoholic beverages.

According to Blanco (2010) gastronomic tourism is now growing to include such elements as: explaining the customs and the history of a place, presenting the local cuisine and typical dishes, table etiquette, popular recipes, gastronomic tours, special diets, combined trips, gastronomic routes, promoting specialized restaurants, promoting gastronomic package deals, gastronomic seminars, meeting famous chefs, gastronomic festivals, selling gifts linked to food, restaurant research, and restaurant labels (quality, security). This is because there are a growing population of travelers who are interested in not only exploring different cultures around the world, but also in experiencing their cuisine and food (World Tourism Organization 2012). Food tourism is now regarded as a form of niche or alternative tourism and is often included as a new or additional sector of the travel and tourism business (Ritchie and Crouch 2003). Furthermore, a nation’s identity is reflected and strengthened by the food experiences that it offers (Du Rand, Heath and Alberts 2003).

Yeoman (2008) stated that food is now becoming a significant aspect of the tourist experience of a destination, driven by the growing trends toward authenticity and the need to have a high-quality experience. As a tourism futurologist, Yeomen (2008) went onto state that the role of the celebrity chef and the media has resulted in the emergence of niche food programs on TV and a range of ‘foodie’ magazines. Today, celebrity chefs are shaping tourism products, and this is driving an interest in good quality food. This has helped to increase the travel consumers’ awareness of different cuisines and cultures as well as fueling their desire to experience them.

Kim, Kim, and Goh (2011) concluded that in the past, little research has been conducted on food tourism, or examining the food tourist’s behavior. They felt that this was surprising as food tourism is one of the fastest growing industries and areas of interest for the tourism industry. Not only is the economic aspect seen as important, but there are other benefits that are provided for the particular destination. Du Rand, Heath, and Alberts (2003:97) stated that these benefits were, “to enhance sustainability in tourism; contribute to the authenticity of
the destination; strengthen the local economy; and provide for the environmentally friendly infrastructure”. Clave and Knafou (2012) further noted that the tourist experience potentially transforms the gastronomic experience into the main focus of the trip and is seen in a context where mobility is becoming increasingly more global.

Traditionally, many local communities did not hold their own cuisine in high regard, as it is often viewed as not being sophisticated enough, and definitely not something a tourist would be interested in eating (Kapner 1996). However, studies are beginning to find that there is increased interest in food (or gastronomic) tourism which is beginning to make a significant contribution to the economy of the market destination (Bessiere 1998). Bessiere (1998) concluded that gastronomic tourism has become a fashionable trend that was helping to restore the ‘identity crisis’ that local communities in France were experiencing. This is because it encouraged tourists to not only come into their rural areas and buy local products, but to eat in restaurants or farms, which represented a sizable income for these local communities. Sims (2009) conducted research from two U.K. regions, the Lake District and Exmoor, to argue that local food can play an important role in the sustainable tourism experience because it appeals to the visitor’s desire for authenticity within the holiday experience. After conducting qualitative interviews with a sample of tourists and food producers, the researcher concluded that ‘local food’ has the potential to enhance the visitor experience by connecting consumers to the region and its perceived culture and heritage.

An increasing number of destinations have been found to be popular with tourists because of their unique gastronomy (Hjalager 2002). Scarpato (2002) argued that gastronomy must be seen as part of a cycle linking the physical, cultural, and gastronomic environments. That is, gastronomic experiences can add value to tourism by providing the tourist with a link between the local culture, landscape, and food, while at the same time searching for new products and experiences that often yield a high level of satisfaction (Hjalager and Richards 2002). Quan and Wang (2004) created a typology of food consumption. That is, food can be seen either as the main attraction, subsidiary, or supporting experience during a holiday. The researchers stated that it is important to acknowledge food as the primary tourist activity, and to develop attractions including local cuisines at the holiday destination. For example, in food festivals, the major or the sole motivation to travel may be the different tastes of foods supplied at the particular destination so as to achieve a peak touristic experience. Pilato, Seraphin, and Yallop (2016) evaluated the potential of street food as a factor of appeal and a sustainable livelihood strategy for developing destinations. They concluded that street food is part of the way of life of local communities, and within this context, street food is seen as a ‘related tourism activity’ and not as a form of tourism.

Tourists generally spend on average one-third of their travel expenses on food, and because of this trend, it makes sense that regional variation in food and drink products should be encouraged, so as to highlight cuisine as a tourist attraction. This has resulted in the concept of a culinary tourism product being conceived as a new brand of Canadian tourism (Hashimoto and Telfer 2006).
Senior travelers

Case study 51.1

Nova Scotia advertises its regional cuisine through the Taste of Nova Scotia program as:

Savour contemporary dishes created to showcase Nova Scotia’s fresh seasonal products, asparagus and rhubarb in the spring, strawberries, tender greens and blueberries in the summer, and apples and pumpkins to herald in the fall harvests. One cannot forget Nova Scotia meats and poultry, the taste of a locally grown wine and of course, our seafood; mussels, oysters, salmon, haddock, crab, smoked salmon, scallops and the king of the sea … lobster. (Hashimoto and Telfer 2006: 40)

Nova Scotia’s culinary influences have been traced back to the first French-speaking Acadians whose cuisine is medieval in style and even to the Germans who were brought over in 1753 to counter the French and Catholic presence. Recently, the tourism authorities in Nova Scotia have developed a number of culinary trails which are perfect for seniors who travel in the off-season, and that lists participating restaurants on their website. Each of the culinary trails is described in terms of its food history and local attractions. Restaurants belonging to the Taste of Nova Scotia are required to have six menu items or 80% of the menu comprised of food products that are found in Nova Scotia (MacKenzie 1995). Along with the well-established Taste of Nova Scotia program that now has over 200 participating restaurants the province has recently developed a number of seafood trails that could attract senior travelers (Taste of Nova Scotia 2018).

In addition, Fortress Louisbourg is a National Historic Site that is operated by Parks Canada and is an ideal location to attract older tourists who love visiting heritage and cultural tourism sites. This French Fortress was founded in 1713 and reconstructed in 1961. As part of the tourism product, staff in period costume prepare and serve food and beverages which are based on 18th century traditions and recipes. The Bakery at the fortress also sells bread and desserts based on the appropriate time period (Fortress Louisbourg Volunteer Association 2003).

Seniors and gastronomic tourism

Research evidence suggests that age, gender, and social status (or social class) are significant factors in accounting for variations in food preferences. In one of the first studies, Khan (1981) contended that older people tended to display different food preferences compared to younger people owing to their diminished taste and olfactory sensitivity. Tse and Crotts (2005) also found that a tourist’s age was negatively correlated with the number and range of their culinary explorations. As a result, it is not uncommon for older travelers to eat conservatively, preferring familiar foods rather than trying out local cuisine so as to avoid possible effects from diet change or to control existing health problems. This also suggests that older tourists may consume a narrower range of foods available at a specific destination. Conversely, Kim, Eves, and Scarles (2009) determined that older tourists with a higher education level were found to had a stronger desire to understand and experience foreign cultures through local food consumption than younger tourists.

The European Commission recently financed the ESCAPE project (2015) which focused on the development and promotion of transnational exchanges for seniors (aged 55 years and older) in five European countries during the low season, namely in Bulgaria, Cyprus, France, Italy, and Portugal. A questionnaire was administered to 894 respondents of which 41.5% were men and 58.5% were women. Gastronomy was the third most favored theme (774 replies), behind nature
and culture (858 replies), and health and wellbeing (780 replies). It was noted that the importance of access to gastronomy activities increased until the age of 80, then it slowly began to decline.

Because of this increasing interest of seniors in nature and culture, gastronomic tourism is now becoming a special interest area for older travelers. Many seniors plan their vacations specifically to incorporate culinary trips, and are particularly interested in sampling local food products, and tasting authentic regional recipes. Lee, Scott, and Packer (2014) conducted qualitative interviews with 43 members of the ‘Slow Food’ movement to discuss factors influencing their travel destination choices. Lee, Scott, and Packer (2014) concluded that despite differences in culture, age, gender, and occupation, all of the Slow Food members preferred local cultural immersion. That is, to eat local food that they bought from small-scale producers, to read local restaurant menus, to participate in local food events, and to enroll in cooking classes whenever possible. One of the males interviewed who was over 60 years of age stated that, “Every time I travel I try local food, particularly street food”. Another female (over 60) also said, “I eat what local people are eating …I always stay a weekend and visit the local market, where producers show their fresh products, cheese … I love it”.

Several researchers have offered advice about food preferences to tourism operators when providing specific programs for senior tourists. That is, they need to be aware of older people’s preferences for slower paced tours, choosing their own food menus, and by avoiding too many early morning departures (Massow 2000).

**Conclusion**

In an era of changing consumer profiles and behaviors, travel providers must strive for a thorough understanding of what consumers want and are willing to pay for. The importance of gaining a deeper understanding new patterns of consumption, as well as greater knowledge about senior travelers is providing a new challenge for the tourism industry (Balderas-Cejudo, Rivera-Hernaez, and Patterson 2016). Golik (1999:65) stated that, “One of the outcomes of this increase in life expectancy is that it will allow seniors to travel more, travel longer and travel later in life”.

To cater for the diversity of needs of this growing market, what is needed is a more comprehensive understanding of senior tourists and their motivations for leisure travel, so that products and services can be better tailored to meet their current and future preferences when traveling. Moreover, knowledge of the hospitality industry in general, and gastronomic tourism consumer behavior in particular will allow food tourism stakeholders to more effectively target and develop new markets, to intervene in the decision-making process and to persuade the consumer to more readily purchase local and regional food products and services (Mitchell and Hall 2003).

“Gastronomic tourism applies to tourists and visitors who plan their trips partially or totally in order to taste the cuisine of the place or to carry out activities related to gastronomy” (UNWTO 2012:7). The growth of gastronomy and food tourism over the next decade is dependent on how well different stakeholders and providers of tourism products and services are able to cater for the social and demographic changes that are associated with the consumer behavior of baby boomers and senior travelers.

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Senior travelers


PART VI

Futuristic perspectives in gastronomic tourism
Introduction
Throughout the world, tourists seek entertainment that combines culture, food, drink, and entertainment. Gastronomic festivals and events are about people immersing themselves in real and engaging activities that focus on food and drink as well as other cultural activities (McDonald and Denneault 2001). The driver and motivation for the tourist’s experience is the participant’s involvement in the gastronomic experience at festivals and events where the fun, food/beverage, and comfort feed the experience producing emotional and evaluative satisfaction. (Mason and Paggaiaro 2011). The food and drink must be the highest quality even if it is priced reasonably and the event site must be aesthetically pleasing and culturally meaningful.

Gastronomic festivals and events can be a major positive force in promoting tourism throughout the world. Gastronomic events are authentic, memorable activities that include behind the scene activities that lead to hands-on participation and consumption (Williams, Williams, and Omar 2014). These events often are the peak experience tourists seek as they travel and this is important because it appears that the sole motivation is often to attend the memorable food festivals/events (Quan and Wang 2004). The memorability of the events is then documented in a flurry of social media posts, which appears to be increasing demand for more festivals and events. These same posts can also present challenges for organizers, because they cannot control what is posted and thus negative images can have disastrous effects on the events.

Festivals are staged in major cities, medium cities, small towns, or in agro-tourism sites in rural areas. Events are usually created to draw attention to local foods, wines, or spirits that are a part of the region’s gastronomic history. They also often feature menu items from successful restaurants, cafes, bars, and grills. Almost every major city has a taste, food, beer, wine, or spirit festival, and many have multiple events either to promote a slow tourism period or to highlight a specific tourism travel time. Gastronomic events have a major effect on destination image and the development sustainable tourism and organizers continue look for new ideas for events (Hernandez-Mogollon, Folgado-Fernandez, and Duarte 2014). One can expect more events featuring concepts that marry a variety of concepts such as dark tourism with food and drink, chocolate, or pastries, heavy metal with unique themed food and beers, or cooking competition throwdowns in collaboration with dance competitions.
The gastronomic festivals are produced and developed by a diverse group of stakeholders. There are many components that contribute to the success of the festivals and events. Funding to plan and organize the event, marketing brochures, posters and flyers, media coverage, social media presence, and a strong online video presence will help developers focus on creating a strong brand. Tourists attending the festivals and events usually find other attractions to visit, and developing packages often add value to the experience. These events are sometimes broad in scope. The cost to attend ranges from free, such as an event in a Nigerian Village festival featuring indigenous food and drink (Esu and Arrey 2009), to a top-end event on Nantucket Island or in Aspen, with very expensive tickets featuring luxury hotels/resorts and special VIP tastings that may cost thousands of dollars to experience.

While the price of the event may vary, the gastronomic festivals and events of the future probably will be much more experiential, interactive, and expensive. The economies of the world continue to become more efficient and reduced poverty allows more and more of the world to have the choice of how to spend their disposable income and to have more time available to do this. It is said this is a world where people “hunger for experience” (Hjalager and Richards 2007).

Gastronomic events will continue to satisfy the need of people to add value to their lives and this trend will continue. The food or beverage featured may ostensibly be the reason for attending, but the experience is much more than that and is the real reason people want to attend. The event of the future will use technology to bring the events to higher level. For example, the world can attend the Hong Kong Food and Wine Festival or the Disney Epcot Center Festival virtually and many of the festivals post videos and more online. One of the biggest changes occurring is that every event could and will be a global event.

Case study 52.1

Al Hodge and Pat Montez live in the U.S.A. and are partners in a gastronomic food, wine, beer, and spirit festival tourism management company, Fun Affair. They were university friends who started their careers volunteering at events. They were such great volunteers, the event organizers hired them. After graduation, they both found jobs, Al in hotel marketing and Pat as restaurant manager. Even though they lived in different cities, they worked together to plan events and became very successful, eventually forming their own company. They believe the most important issue in the future of planning and managing events is attention to detail, which occurs because they plan effectively. Pat believes that creating a broad-based promotion and marketing program targeting social media is the key to success. This is important but the events would not be successful if Al were not an awesome organizer, a great people person, and clear communicator. They both keep an eye on finances and logistics.

Besides the aforementioned skills, Al and Pat believe that gastronomic festival promotion, management, and organization are all about relationships at multiple levels. The first level is the marketing piece and connecting with attendees and volunteers to build customer engagement and loyalty. The second level is to connect with those supplying the beer, wine food etc. and identify businesses that can benefit and add value for attendees. Relationships with regulatory agencies, police, security, parking, transportation, and equipment suppliers are also invaluable. One of the reasons for their success is that they know everyone who has contributed to past events and know
Gastronomic festivals and events

how to put these relationships to building the next event. Word of mouth and engagement of participants leads to new opportunities. Customers might suggest new products, entertainment possible venues. Those supplying the food, beer, wine etc. are sometimes the force behind creating new festivals in a wide variety of locations and Al and Pat are often in charge. They believe the demand for events will continue to grow, and not all new events will be successful, but the event market will probably correct to the appropriate number of events and poorly organized events will fail (see Figure 52.1).

A typical American gastronomic festival promotion piece designed with a broad appeal aimed at many market segments.

Figure 52.1 A typical American gastronomic festival promotion piece designed with a broad appeal aimed at many market segments.

Future events: disruptors and trends?

The three driving global general economic trends that affect the future of tourism and gastronomic festivals are changes in wealth, technology, and resources (Yeoman et al. 2012). For example, countries such as China, Russia, Brazil, Mexico, and India have growing economies that have dramatically increased the standards of living producing discretionary income that allows their population to spend and experience gastronomic events for pleasure and leisure. As overall wealth is rising across the population, there also has been a dramatic increase in the very wealthy who seek to possess and consume the best of everything. Thus because of the increased demands, there have been dramatic price increases for the best wines, the best food, and finest accommodations. This will probably produce a proliferation of exclusive gastronomic events with unique celebrity attendees, famous chefs, high-end wine producers, wine credits, and spirit experts/distillers. High-end will certainly continue to grow in gastronomic events because the demand continues to grow.

Changes in wealth also influenced patterns of consumption, and the new norm is higher quality food and drink even for those not in the world of the very wealthy. Craft beer, boutique wineries, micro-distilleries, and specialty crops/foods are featured at gastronomic festivals. Increased demand coupled with challenges in distribution and marketing have led an entrepreneurial thrust to create gastronomic festivals that feature these types of products. These will
probably continue to proliferate throughout the world as well as further integrate gastronomic events as marketing platforms for new higher quality food and beverage.

The growth of these gastronomic events provides a chance for those with disposable income to make the choice to spend their money experientially and also affects festivals’ approaches to security and environment issues. Attendees expect well-organized events with proper infrastructure and they must feel secure and safe for an event to be successful (Chaney and Ryan 2012). Even before the recent regrettable terror incidents as music and cultural festivals, event managers found their market niches demanding improved security. At the same time, the sophistication of the market breeds suspicion of festival operators who simply pay lip service to environmental sensitivity. Operators staging an event thus face the fact that all festivals must be green. This requirement offers additional challenges to operators (Laing and Frost 2010).

Technology has improved communication and allowed one to always be in touch as one travels. It has changed the way people plan their activities and spend their extra money because there is so much information available on everyone’s devices. When they find the gastronomic event that is appealing, they can map it, book, and pay for it all on their phone or other device. Because everyone can see everything on the worldwide web, it has had a profound effect, allowing the whole world to see every gastronomic event in the world. This has caused a globalization of the market for these events, leading to dramatic changes in destination and event marketing as well as destination competitiveness. It has also led to increased demand for gastronomic events and many events selling out well in advance, some the day tickets go on sale, and thus tickets are being resold at higher prices. It has also led to new events.

The exciting message for event organizers is that technology will affect gastronomic events even more in the future. Finding how to effectively utilize the real time of video and working to create good viral online posts is a real challenge. Yet with each new next generation of devices, it is simpler to integrate technology into the event. It also drives the financial structure of events, because instead of using cash, almost all tickets bought online are bought electronically. One of the issues at events is how to control the cash collected. Now that electronic payments either by phone, cube etc. are the norm, financial management is simplified.

The effect of changes in resources fed by population growth, environmental issues, and demand for food may also drive the future of the gastronomic event industry. Climate change is an issue globally and changes in weather patterns are a real concern for those organizing events. The increase in temperatures effects events because heat, rain, snow, or cold impact events which are usually located outside will probably drive more operators to move inside. The world’s depletion of petroleum and other oil products will cause increases in transportation costs. Electric alternatives and other alternative approaches appear to be successfully mediating this concern. At the same time, new transportation approaches such as Uber or competitors already have disrupted the gastronomic event world. Instead of using public or event provided transportation, more and more event attendees use these services. One issue that has come to the forefront with changes in resources is the importance in changing approaches and the amount of food waste that we generate. Festivals and events will continue to find solutions and better methods of redistributing human edible food waste and finding uses for the waste that humans cannot eat through composting and animal feed. Events of the future will also continue to reduce the carbon footprint of their events.

Part of reducing carbon footprint is utilizing locally sourced food and meeting the demand for specialty foods that are more environmentally sound. This is also tied to festivals focusing on the sustainable agricultural heritage of the regions. The food and beverage focus of events in the future will often flow from regional or local traditional agriculture products, indigenous
Gastronomic festivals and events

signature cooking techniques, and specialty local wines, spirits, or beer. The products add value to the event, especially when they are integrated with a wide variety of other regional or local cultural and artistic experiences. One will see more events that also integrate cultural tourism and local cultural history.

Case study 52.2: Chinese cuisine and culinary tourism festivals

China is a large country with a wide range of natural geographical conditions, indigenous food and drinks, economic and cultural development, and lifestyles. Thus, it is not surprising that a fascinating diversity of local flavor in the cuisine is found throughout the nation. China also has a long gastronomic history, and by the Qing dynasty, eight unique cuisine regions were identified: Szechuan, Hunan, Fujian, Cantonese, Zhejiang, Jiangsu, Anhui, and Shandong (Anderson 1988; Newman 2004). Such variety influences the Chinese gastronomic event business.

Each cuisine has its own unique qualities. Szechuan has a reputation for spiciness with a wide variety of peppers as the most identifiable seasoning, and readers might be familiar with Kung Pao Chicken (Wang 1995). Hunan, probably best known for the food from the Xiang River area, but also from Dongting and Western Hunan, focuses on colorful, fresh, aromatic blending of a variety of seasonings and peppers in oil and broth until the meat is soft, such as beer duck (Pan 2016). Fujian is cool, often light and is known for its sweet and sour dishes, but also for its soups with brown sugar flavor. One famous dish is ‘Buddha jumped over the wall’ (Jiang 2013).

Cantonese cuisine is characterized by wide selection and variety of dishes and is the cuisine best known as Chinese. This is because many Cantonese people immigrated to and opened restaurants in the U.S.A. and around the world. Almost all of the people of Hong Kong are Cantonese and Hong Kong cuisine is Cantonese with a wide variety of foreign and Chinese regional influences. It is characterized by a light taste, with rich flavor often including up to six flavors in a dish. The ingredients often change with the seasons, and include one of my favorite names for a dish, ‘Snake Fighting Tiger’ (Wang 1995).

Zhejiang cuisine is bright in color, usually with a delicious smooth, non-greasy flavor that may have a crisp or soft texture. It is characterized by small and delicate dishes. The most famous dishes are Longjing shrimp and ‘Hundred Birds Facing the Phoenix’. This dish is a chicken prepared in a clay pot with multiple steamed dumplings facing it (Zhou 2012). Jiangsu, usually known as Su, is characterized by soft meat perfectly prepared to fall off the bone, many seafood dishes and uses a wide variety of techniques including stewing, braising, broiling, and baking. It often features soups that focus on the featured foods original flavors. ‘Stewed Lion’s Head’ is best prepared in a clay pot and features meatballs (usually pork) shaped liked to look like a male lion’s head (Jiang 2013).

Anhui cuisine, usually just referred to as Hui, is known for dumplings made with egg wrappers. The cuisine’s heritage was integrating game into many dishes. It is often simple and affordable and focuses on using natural flavors. The most famous dish may be Wuwei Smoked Duck (Pan 2016) which is often confused with Peking (Beijing) duck. Hui region cooks in the U.S.A. are also credited with creating Chop Suey for a Chinese statesman’s visit in 1896. Shandong cuisine is usually referred to as Lu cuisine and has influenced the cuisine of the areas nearby. This includes the entire northeast region, Beijing and Tianjin. The region developed quick frying techniques, stewed
specialties, boiled and roasted meats, as well as techniques to glaze fruit with sugar and honey. The heavier seasoned dishes feature ‘one dish one taste’, attempt to reflect the flavor of raw materials, and use a wide variety of pasta. Some of the most famous dishes include Dezhou braised chicken, sweet and sour yellow river carp, fried mountain scorpion, and so on (Wang 2018).

There are many culinary tourism festivals in China. Generally speaking, they can be divided into three or more categories according to the scope of the festivals – whether national, regional, or organizational in scope. National culinary tourism festivals are often held by national organizations. Regional food festivals are organized by a province, a city, a county, a township, or even a village organization, such as the Chengdu International Culinary Tourism Festival (Yu and Chow 2013; Arpex 2008). Factories, hotels and restaurants also produce gastronomic festivals and sometimes these events are so successful that they are taken over by cities or governmental agencies. The Qingdao beer festival was originally started by the Qingdao beer factory but now is run by Qingdao City Government, and has evolved into a regional festival that draws visitors from around the nation and abroad (Zong and Zhao 2013). The annual Chinese Culinary Festival attracts nearly 10 million people from more than 31 countries and the regions’ direct and indirect total economic benefits is more than 300 million yuan. It is an important platform for promoting the Chinese food culture and agricultural products abroad and in China (Fu 2016).

Hong Kong promotes gastronomic festivals which have a wide focus and an international flavor. One of the most interesting occurs on 2000 plus year old Cheung Chau Bun Festival (Chow 2014). Locals believe the god Pak Tai saved the island from the plague in late Qing dynasty and the event includes honors him with Taoist ceremonies and music, food, parade, lion dances, drum beating, and an exciting Bun Scrambling Competition (HKTB 2017).

The future of Chinese cuisine and gastronomic festivals is positive because more money is being spent on food in China than ever before. The average Chinese income/living standard has increased and will continue to allow an increasing number of Chinese people to travel not of as a necessity but for pleasure. They also are able to afford fresher, healthier food and to pay for meals in restaurants. Eating out or enjoying all kinds of exotic food is a new norm. The future development directions of Chinese cuisine are bound to move towards six types of food: these are fast, healthy, original, slight, special, and happy (Wang 1999). Nationalization and globalization will cause Chinese regional cuisines to evolve and integrate new flavors and techniques to help quench the countries dining needs (Chen 1994). One can also expect the continued growth of gastronomic or culinary tourism.

Summary

There will be substantial growth in gastronomic events orchestrated by the national and local economic development planners. The technology will allow anyone on the internet to attend virtually, and thus the festival product that is packaged and produced must flow easily with ease of transportation, ambience in the design, clean hygiene facilities, great entertainment, access to electricity, and the best food and beverage products served attractively. The world is going to continue to demand more and will consume more.

The gastronomic festival and event of the future probably will be much more experiential and interactive. Expect a variety of unique somewhat compatible cuisines with local connections. The events will often focus built on the history/heritage of the region. They will be well
organized with great security, environmentally sound, and feature fresh healthy food and great beverages. With globalization, the markets for these events will continue to expand and lead to destination marketing and destination competitiveness. This will include broad efforts at collaboration by hotel groups, restaurateurs, farmers, government tourism organizations while at the same time a concerted effort to train and educate the volunteers. The key to successful future events is quality (Chaney and Ryan 2012).

References


Introduction

Australia has a growing reputation as a premium wine-producing country together with high quality cuisine, strongly supported by Tourism Australia’s latest positioning strategy – ‘Restaurant Australia’ and hosting for the first time the prestigious World’s 50 Best Restaurants 2017. The image of wine has developed into one of a lifestyle product (Winemakers Federation of Australia 2002), and correspondingly, there is an increasing trend where wine tourism is viewed as a personalized encounter where travelers can experience culture, lifestyle, and territory (Hall et al. 2000). This is evident with the increase in wine tourists and the number of wine producers featuring a cellar door. However, the development of a mature wine region requires the support of gastronomy tourism and value-added services.

This chapter focuses on Hentley Farm, initially a wine producer, who later opened a restaurant that has won an array of awards such as Best Regional Restaurant in 2013–2016 Advertiser Food Awards, and the Best Restaurant in a Winery category at the SA Restaurant & Catering Awards for 2014 and 2015. This case study, based in the Barossa region in South Australia, will support the notion that a total food and wine tourism experience includes a combination of quality wine and innovative cuisine in a personal and intimate environment.

Australian wine tourism

Wine tourism is the “visitation to wineries and wine regions to experience the unique qualities of contemporary Australian lifestyle associated with the enjoyment of wine at its source – including wine and food, landscape and cultural activities” (WFA 2017). Wine tourism is an important part of destination development, and an opportunity for direct sales and marketing on the part of the wine industry (Getz 2000). Australia has 65 official Geographical Indication (GI) wine regions, of which South Australia has 18, including Barossa Valley, Clare Valley, and Coonawarra (Wine Australia 2013). South Australia has the largest area of vineyards, accounting for 48% (71,310 ha) of the national total vineyard area (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2012), with 706 wineries and 375 wineries with a cellar door (Winebiz 2016).
The Australian wine tourism industry has a significant economic impact. During 2009, there were just under 5 million visitors who visited a winery while travelling in Australia, spending just over $7 billion (Tourism Research Australia 2010). Wine tourism is consistently described as more than just tasting wine or even just visiting a winery. Visitors are seeking experiences which they can remember, extending far beyond the cellar door. Similarly, tourists are increasingly stating that food is a key aspect of the travel experience and they believe experiencing a region or country’s food is essential to understanding its culture. As a result, the mature wine regions have realized the importance of developing food, culture, and tradition into their destination image.

**Australian gastronomic tourism**

Foodways refers to the connection between food-related behavior and country (its geography, history, culture, people), and this intersection provides a special sensory window into the culture of a country (Ferguson 2004). The growing importance of food for tourists is reflected in the recent surge in research by industry bodies and academia (Tourism Australia 2017b; UNWTO 2017; Lee and Scott 2015). This is also highlighted by the fact that over half of international visitors to Australia (52%) rate Australia having good food and wine, and 23% associate Australian wineries with great food (Tourism Australia 2017b). Furthermore, the most important factor for 36% of visitors when selecting a holiday destination was good food and wine.

Australia is a young country building a reputation for cuisine and gastronomy. Yet, multicultural cuisines together with fresh and native Australian ingredients have created a thriving and unique dining scene (Tourism Australia 2017a). Many wine regions now boast some of the best regional restaurants in Australia and many of these restaurants are located within wineries. The partnership between wine and food is apparent in many promotional mediums and trail guides which espouse both.

The idea of a local food culture is well-known in Europe; however, Australia has not successfully developed its own regional identities. Developing a unique regional identity becomes increasingly valuable as more food tourists and travelers seek authentic food experiences. One way of achieving a unique regional identity is by adopting local food, which is also key to the process of sustainable regional development and tourism (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen 2016). Another method is using gastronomy-related heritage to strengthen a region’s tourism products (Boyne, Hall, and Williams 2003). This method is often used in regional development by policy makers. However, successful regional development is closely tied to the work and collaboration of regional associations and local government to support the promotion of the region and local businesses, establishment of facilities such as a visitor center, in addition to the long-term sustainability of the region (Alonso and Liu 2012).

**Barossa region, South Australia**

The Barossa tourism prosperity is primarily based on natural beauty, wine, heritage, and gastronomy. The Barossa is located 75 kilometers north-east of the state’s capital city Adelaide. The average number of international visitors in 2017 to Barossa was 216,000 and it had more than half a million domestic visitors, with a total of 655,000 visitor nights. The most popular reasons for travelling to the Barossa are: eating out at restaurants, visiting friends and relatives, and visiting wineries, respectively (AEC Group Ltd 2011). The value of tourism to Barossa has increased from $164m in 2016 to $179m in 2017 (South Australian Tourism Commission 2018).
The Barossa Region of South Australia has successfully built its reputation in the international wine industry as one of Australia’s premier grape-growing regions (Rural Directions 2010). The Barossa’s agricultural production is an important cultural aspect of the region while contributing to the economic output of the region with 86% of land use dedicated to agricultural use. The Barossa Region contributed 7.2% to South Australia’s total agricultural gross value production of $4.4b (Rural Directions 2010). However, the agriculture output only includes grape production, while wine production is included in manufacturing which is significantly larger. Agricultural production includes: grapes, sheep, cereals for grain, processing of hay and straw, meat cattle, legumes for grain, and oil seeds, followed by fruit, pig farming, and poultry. In addition, there are a range of businesses currently value-adding in the Barossa region offering heritage bakery products, processed meat products, olive oil, and processing of raw dairy into cheese and milks (Rural Directions 2010).

Barossa wine and history

The Barossa’s unique cultural heritage originated from settlement of German-speaking Silesians in 1841. The early migrants brought a strong food culture and were self-sufficient, quickly establishing farms, planting vines, and starting wine production. This early interest in wine forms the foundation for the region’s commitment to develop a world-class wine industry.

The Barossa is home to more than 550 grape growing families, 150 wineries, and 80 cellar doors (South Australian Tourism Commission 2017). The Barossa is also home to four of the 12 oldest winery companies in Australia: Penfolds, Orlando, Seppeltsfield, and Yalumba. As a result, Barossa produces two of Australia’s most iconic wines: Penfolds Grange and Henschke Hill of Grace. Barossa Shiraz and Eden Valley Riesling have been regional heroes, with Cabernet Sauvignon, Mataro, Grenache, Semillon, and Fortified wines all contributing to Barossa’s standing as one of the world’s great wine regions (Tourism Barossa 2017).

Barossa food and traditions

Barossa’s Prussian and English heritage is considered a major attraction for the region, with many of the skills of food production and winemaking linked to its heritage. The preservation of its heritage is a key differentiator from other wine regions in Australia (AEC Group 2011). Early settler traditions such as smoked and pickled foods, small goods, and sourdough breads have remained common place. The Barossa’s contemporary food culture is informed by tradition, but evolved by modern artisans who place emphasis on quality fresh ingredients.

A key opportunity recognized by Barossa is the need to increase food, dining, and function venues, including restaurants, extended cellar door tasting, and restaurant houses, wine bars, and cooking schools (AEC Group 2011). Successful implementation of this strategy has led to many new innovative high-quality restaurants mostly located in wineries. In 2014, there were 17 restaurants and 34 food outlets in wineries which increased by 12% to 19 restaurants and 38 food outlets in wineries by 2016 (BGWA 2016).

The Regional Development Australia Barossa (RDA Barossa) organization continues to aim to add value to the region and its economy by assisting industry to expand and innovate (RDA Barossa 2015). Barossa recognizes that premium food and wine profitability are one of their top priorities. This highlights the need for quality food and wine production that yields profits along the entire value chain to encourage future growth. This is discussed further in the framework of gastronomic tourism development.
Case study 53.1: Hentley Farm

Keith and Alison Hentschke bought the 150 acre vineyard and mixed farming property in 1997. As an Agricultural Science and Wine Marketing graduate, Hentschke believed that careful vineyard selection is the key to producing high-quality wines. Armed with a 1950s soil map, Hentschke strategically located the best parcels of land in the Seppeltsfield area featuring rich red soil and varying microclimates induced by geographical contours (see Figure 53.1).

Figure 53.1  Hentley Farm Wines – Barossa Valley.
Source: Hentley Farm Wines.

Hentley Farm – The wines

The Hentley Farm is a single estate vineyard featuring single-block vines and a cellar door which is housed in the property’s original 1840s homestead. The estate grows Shiraz (70%), Grenache (17%), Cabernet Sauvignon (10%), Zinfandel (2%), and Viognier (1%) with a crush of approximately 500 tons. The winemaker, Andrew Quin, started with Hentley Farm in 2008, and won the Barons of Barossa 2017 winemaker of the year award. The winery has been awarded the James Halliday ‘5 Red Stars’ signifying an outstanding winery producing wines of exemplary quality. The 2018 James Halliday Wine Companion awarded 21 Hentley Farm wines 94 points and above.

Quin’s philosophy on wine-making is to develop the complexity in the wine by picking earlier in order to create more vibrancy and blending options, but still produce traditional Barossa wines with minimalist intervention. Hentley Farm now exports to China, the U.K., and the U.S.

Hentley Farm – The Restaurant

Initially a casual café was planned as a food offering at Hentley Farm, but Keith Hentschke soon realised the restaurant had to match the high quality of their wine, thus redefining the concept into a fine-dining restaurant. Since Hentley Farm Restaurant opened in 2012, it has won a number of local and national awards. In 2013 and 2016, it was awarded Restaurant of the Year, in addition to Best Regional Restaurant in South Australia. More recently, Hentley Farm won Best Winery Restaurant in the South Australian Best of Wine Tourism Awards 2017.

The Head Chef, Lachlan Colwill, originally from the Barossa, is a well-respected chef, having run the Manse Restaurant where he won Adelaide’s 2008 and 2009 Best Fine Dining Restaurant,
2010 Restaurant of the Year, and Chef of the Year. When Colwill joined Hentley Farm, he had a clear vision of innovation and excellent quality food and experience:

Heading up a kitchen that will be a continuous think tank of ideas in food, connecting with the guests that visit Hentley Farm, and being part of a team that strives for excellence in every aspect, from vineyard to wine to food to experiences. Joining Hentley Farm has provided an opportunity to also focus on other areas in food such as farming and foraging on the Hentley Farm site which is already a great source of inspiration as a chef, and to create a dining experience that is unique to the region.

(Starlight Children’s Foundation 2017)

Colwill believes that as a regional restaurant, their style is a reflection of the modern Barossa. The restaurant uses the farm to forage ingredients and has programs for yearly pickling and preserving: “this is what most Barossans do” (AGFG 2017). Hentley Farm’s menu is inspired by the Australian way of eating, which is cold and raw and lightly seared, particularly in summer. The restaurant practices sustainability by its choice of ingredients; that is why they often use kangaroo instead of beef and grow their own leaves, greens, onions, garlic, tomatoes, flowers, and herbs. Hentley Farm’s local food supply chain supports local businesses including pork, dairy, apricot, peach, and quail producers.

The Hentley Farm restaurant was originally developed to attract visitors to the cellar door. However, the restaurant’s success has created an equality of food and wine at Hentley Farm. As the restaurant only stocks Hentley Farm wines, it is important for the chef and wine maker to work synergistically. Both the chef and winemaker consider their creations and how each works together. “I think it’s really important in the restaurant that we put the time and effort into the pairings. Because, if a pairing fails in a wine and food match, the food will always generally look fairly strong, but the wine won’t look as good … and won’t help tell our story” (Quin 2017). Quin feels that the collaboration with the restaurant has helped advance their wine making as they are constantly experimenting with flavors and food pairings, which he calls a “palate development perspective”. He also feels the restaurant helps him push his boundaries and think outside the square and come up with new concepts with their small batch range of wines.

Although wine regions often get labelled ‘food and wine regions’, many regions do not have quality food offerings. Wine regions that have built a good reputation for their wines must ensure they have good quality food to support their image to ensure the right ‘type’ of tourist is attracted. It is for this reason that head chef Lachlan Colwill (2017) argues “wine comes first and then food just matches the quality of wine”. Hentley Farm’s strong wine brand has assisted the success of the restaurant by bringing the trade and media which in turn drove the restaurant’s success. The synergy between the winery and restaurant is a key driver in the farms appeal. Accordingly, the restaurant has boosted the attraction of higher-end tourism dollars and provides an important link to the community. By offering unique high-end experiences, the farm attracts visitors who would typically visit luxury destinations such as Champagne and the Napa Valley.
Barossa gastronomy tourism development

The development of gastronomic tourism within a destination is complex due to many stakeholders and their sometimes conflicting strategic goals. The typology of value-added in gastronomic tourism framework is used here to analyze the stages of gastronomy development of the Barossa. The framework assists the discussion of each of the four orders or phases of gastronomy tourism development (Hjalager 2002). Through this analysis, the importance of wine tourism to the development of Barossa as a mature gastronomic destination is emphasized, as shown in Table 53.1.

<p>| Table 53.1 Typology of value added in Barossa gastronomy tourism development |
|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
|                   | First order       | Second order      | Third order       | Fourth order      |
| <strong>Main input resource</strong> | Agricultural production: grapes, sheep, grains, cattle, fruit, pork, dairy, poultry. Value-added goods: bakery products, processed meats, olive oil, cheese. | Resources in the service sector such as improved accommodation, tours, and transportation. | Entrepreneurial resources, including food offered in over half of the cellar doors, and farming environments such as Maggie Beer. | Knowledge: hiring staff from other areas and transfer of knowledge. |
| <strong>Expected tourist behavior</strong> | Most popular reasons for travel: eating out in restaurants, visiting friends and relatives, and visiting wineries. | Tourists’ knowledge of food has increased which increases demand to experience Barossa’s gastronomy reputation. | Experience the food: through grape-stomping vintage festivals, tactile eating experiences, paddock to plate experiences, feast and forage experience. | Interaction between the chef and the customer. |
| <strong>Principal strategies</strong> | Increase in tourism and expenditure through active marketing initiatives by regional tourism association. | Maintaining revenues through quality and reinvention of traditional methods such as pickling, small goods production, dairy. | Offering new products and service to tourists, such as restaurant offerings purely to enhance producers’ wine. | Restaurants hosting food and wine critics, social media, participating in food and wine shows, and awards. |
| <strong>Collaborative structures</strong> | Local community support. | Creation of Barossa Touring Map. Development of joint food and wine events with local council, BWGA, and Tourism Barossa. | Collaborative structures, networks, and sharing of information. These include the BGWA, Barossa Food, Barossa Trust, Barossa Council, and the SATC. | Exporting goods such as wine to create, build, and reinforce a gastronomy and wine reputation. |</p>
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<td><strong>Examples of initiatives to enhance value-added</strong></td>
<td><strong>Quality standards:</strong> Trust mark, Hentley Farm is a member of Relais et Chateaux Association.</td>
<td><strong>New experiential elements include luxury tourism experiences that include a personalized wine-making experience, personalized storage facilities, and private dining room.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Research and development:</strong> universities recognizing importance of gastronomy through an increase in research through government grants.</td>
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<td>Earlier promotion campaign focus on gastronomy and wine.</td>
<td>Food and wine festival such as Barossa Vintage.</td>
<td>Other trail guides such as the Barossa Heritage Trail, Barossa by Bike, and Barossa walking trails.</td>
<td><strong>Media center:</strong> Federal tourism organization advertising gastronomy internationally. Use of virtual reality media to enhance tourism experience. Trail maps designed for photo opportunities linked to social media through hashtags.</td>
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<td>Maggie Beer opened her Export Kitchen.</td>
<td>Certification and branding: Restaurant Caterers awards, Gourmet Traveller, AFR award, and sustainability standards.</td>
<td>Visitor centers expanded to more regional towns such as the Barossa visitors’ information center. Cooking classes: bespoke cooking classes, corporate team-building cooking exercises/classes.</td>
<td>Governments funding to support initiatives of producers. Eat local campaign to support sustainability in the region.</td>
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<td>Extensive creation of food and wine festivals including: Barossa Gourmet Weekend, Barossa Be Consumed, Oktoberfest, Barossa wine auctions and agricultural shows.</td>
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The first order entails building gastronomy tourism within existing economic activities based on resources and materials already established. Barossa, for example, was the first region to create a food and wine festival, known as Barossa Vintage. This highlights the existing reputation of the region as a premier wine region upon which gastronomy has been built over a number of years.

The second order develops and improves the quality of products through upgrading or through innovation. Upgrading has occurred extensively in Barossa through a million dollar cellar door and restaurant developments such as St Hugo, Wolf Blass, and Jacobs Creek. In addition, commodifying food produce, as has been implemented by Maggie Beer with the development of Export Kitchen now employing over 100 staff (Maggie Beer 2017). Certification has been a measure of quality with a range of awards given by Restaurant Caterers, Gourmet Traveller, and AFR awards to Barossa restaurants such as Hentley Farm, St. Hugo, and Appellation (which are mostly within wineries).

The third order of value-added in gastronomic tourism is through the integration of peripheral activities to enhance the experiential element of food (Hjalager 2002), and the increased offering of food at tourism venues. The Barossa experiential element of food has become more sophisticated through not only food innovations in award winning restaurants such as Hentley Farm, but also offering ‘Paddock to Plate’ experiences. Other sophisticated wine experiences include a personalized wine-making experience, personalized wine storage and a private dining room at St Hugo. This phase also involves more enhanced features in trail guides through the identification of excellence in food, wine, and tourism experiences through the Barossa Trust Mark, and variety of trail options such as the Barossa Heritage Trail, Barossa by Bike and the Barossa Walking Trail. The region has successfully developed collaborative structures, networks, and sharing of information between stakeholders. These stakeholders include the Barossa Grape and Wine Association, Barossa Food, Barossa Trust, Barossa Council, and the South Australian Tourism Commission.

The fourth order extends the third order through the inclusion of the development and commodification of knowledge connected to food and tourism. This stage involves bringing in external experts to share knowledge and to send staff to other regions to gather knowledge. This is achieved by visiting chefs from international or interstate locations, as well as Barossa chefs travelling abroad. There is also interaction between the chef and customer which is a source of knowledge and value creation. Another significant factor is the extensive visitation of professionals in the industry visiting the region. This is apparent through many food and wine critics visiting the region’s renowned restaurants, as well as participation in national and international awards. The appeal of the field of gastronomy, wine, and tourism to the university sector is evident through government funded research grants between universities, local council and other stakeholders.

**Conclusion**

Barossa is a mature destination that has successfully developed gastronomic tourism with the assistance of the wine industry into a mature destination. It has created and applied sophisticated food and wine experiences, which has attracted talented people and entrepreneurs to the region. Value-added services and products together with knowledge development and research resources have further developed the region. The challenge for Barossa will be to maintain its level of commitment and innovation to ensure sustainable future developments, as demonstrated through Hentley Farm. Hentley Farm is a new vineyard, founded ten years ago by Keith Hentschke is considered part of a modern Barossa where Andrew states “we’ve got this
restaurant that's quite modern and […] I’m going to make vibrant wines, I’m going to have this big cross section of styles, why can’t we? Because, some of these wines people have never even tasted before, so we can afford for them to be unique” (Quin 2017). The key to sustainable destination positioning and development is to recognize the uniqueness and authenticity which will satisfy the customers’ need for experiences (Pestek and Nikolic 2011).

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This chapter explores the presence and use of important legal protections for gastronomy-based intellectual property, such as the name of a heritage foodstuff, in an environment where foodways are increasing in value and could be susceptible to appropriation if not protected. It begins with an introduction to the concept of intellectual property, followed by a brief history of how IPRs have evolved over the years, both broadly and more specifically within the tourism sector. The types of food tourism intellectual property and the importance of intellectual property for developing destination-based brands opens a discussion on gastronomic tourism as a new frontier for both establishing and protecting IPRs. The development of a provincially based food designation in Canada is used to provide insight into the process of establishing new intellectual property within the marketplace while considering how this may help to change the landscape of gastronomic tourism in meaningful way. A comment on the relationship between IPRs in gastronomic tourism and the rights claims of communities in developing food destinations serves as a reminder of the fine balance that needs to be struck when developing gastronomic tourism.

**Intellectual property and intellectual property rights**

By definition, intellectual property includes “the legal rights which result from intellectual activity in the industrial, scientific, literary and artistic fields” (WIPO 2008:3). In other words, intellectual property protects creations of the mind that manifest themselves as innovations within specific fields.

The rationale for protecting intellectual property is twofold:

One is to give statutory expression to the moral and economic rights of creators in their creations and the rights of the public in access to those creations. The second is to promote, as a deliberate act of Government policy, creativity and the dissemination and application of its results and to encourage fair trading which would contribute to economic and social development.

(WIPO 2008:3)

The World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO) is the international body responsible for promoting the protection of intellectual property around the globe. WIPO has been
operating as one of the United Nations’ 17 specialized agencies since 1974 and has 191 member states (as of September 2017). The organization administers 26 international treaties, including the Convention Establishing the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO Convention 1967) that was signed in Stockholm, Sweden on 14 July 1967 and came into force on 26 April 1970.

However, the legal foundation for intellectual property was set many years before, with the Paris Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property (Paris Convention 1883) and the Berne Convention for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works (Berne Convention 1886), whose signatories formed Unions to support the conventions. In fact, WIPO replaced the United International Bureaux for the Protection of Intellectual Property; an amalgamation of the bureaus set up to administer these two foundational agreements, which remain in force and are included in those now administered by WIPO.

As per the definitions provided in Article 2 (viii) of the WIPO Convention (1967) “intellectual property” includes rights relating to the following:

- literary, artistic, and scientific works
- performances of performing artists, phonograms, and broadcasts
- inventions in all fields of human endeavor
- scientific discoveries
- industrial designs
- trademarks, service marks, and commercial names and designations
- protection against unfair competition, and all other rights resulting from intellectual activity in the industrial, scientific, literary, or artistic fields

These intellectual property rights (IPRs) are typically grouped under the two main branches of intellectual property established by the Paris Convention and Berne Convention: “industrial property” and “copyright”, respectively. Importantly, IPRs are protected in law through various legal mechanisms, including copyright, patents, and trademarks, as well as industrial designs and geographical indications. However, intellectual property is intimately connected to the mind, which is inherently free from territorial restrictions. This means the application of law to protect IPRs is conflicts with their very nature, because protections are bound to the jurisdiction of the country in which they are granted. Hence, the raison d’être of an intergovernmental organization like WIPO. Through its organs and unions, which are composed of the signatories of the treaties it administers, a three-tiered system of international law is maintained that establishes and facilitates the protection of IPRs worldwide (WIPO 2008:6–9).

By design, IPRs financially incentivize creativity and innovation by protecting individuals from having their creations used without permission. More specifically, they allow for the costs associated with researching and developing a new idea or concept to be offset by facilitating the transformation of an intangible asset into the exclusive property of its originator for a limited period, thus providing a return on or recovery of the original investment made by the creator. Importantly, this can free up capital – financial and other – necessarily required to drive innovation; therefore, IPRs can be positioned as growth stimulators at various levels, from the individual to industry and beyond.

**Intellectual property within the tourism sector**

The sheer size and scope of the global tourism sector means that its economic impact is insurmountable. In fact, the World Travel & Tourism Council (2017) reports that travel and tourism
Intellectual property rights

injected US$2.3 trillion directly into the global economy, which compounds to US$7.6 trillion of indirect economic impact. Importantly, IPRs provide the available means to support competition and growth within this sector while promoting and protecting innovation within its related industries. For example, in their research into scenarios where IPRs can be used to effectively manage products in the tourism sector, Lis-Gutierrez et al. (2017) expand upon the types of intellectual property protections that can be effectively applied. A version of the table (Lis-Gutierrez et al. 2017:2840) they use to summarize their findings follows below at Table 54.1.

However, Speriusi-Vlad (2014) argues that while the entire suite of intellectual property protections can be effectively applied within the tourism sector, branding is particularly appropriate because it is so valuable within the service area. In fact, the development and exploitation of a tourism brand can be facilitated by other forms of protection, including trademarks, geographical indications, and certification marks, to name a few (Speriusi-Vlad 2014).

Nanayakkara (n.d.) expands upon this point in her exploration of the role of intellectual property in enhancing competitiveness in the tourism sector. With the tourism market now reaching a saturation point, the author observes that the landscape is becoming increasingly competitive and destinations are working to attract specific customer segments by creating new points of differentiation by adding value to their tourism products and services. As a result, new markets are opening for eco-tourism, agro- [or gastronomic-] tourism, and religious tourism, to name a few (Nanayakkara n.d.). Like the traditional market for goods, the author notes that trademarks, both registered and unregistered, as well as collective marks, certification marks, and geographical indications, are fast becoming the intellectual property protections of choice for destinations seeking to brand and market their place and its unique

Table 54.1 Use of intellectual property in the tourism industry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form of Protection</th>
<th>Product</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Copyright</td>
<td>Promotional material, including guides, brochures, maps, among others, photographic images of objects, works of art and places of geographical spaces, films of objects [...], multimedia productions, either on CD or available on the internet, publications and educational material, whether in print or electronic form [,] interpretations or performances of traditional cultural expressions, software associated to the platforms or reservation of places</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domain names and platforms</td>
<td>Definition of mechanisms for protection, renewal and defense of domain names, definition of protection mechanisms, renewal and defense of backup platforms, adequate use of different social media platforms in accordance with the respective policies and guidelines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brands</td>
<td>Marks of establishments of services associated to the tourism [product] (places of room, places of feeding, among others), development and use of collective marks, development and use of certification marks, creation or destination tags</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geographical indications</td>
<td>Use of geographical indications that apply to: agricultural products (food, wine, grains, tobacco leaves, fruits, animals, minerals, mineral waters, beers, flowers, flour). Handicrafts, some industrial products, Traditional Knowledge (TK), Traditional Cultural Expressions (ECT)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial designs</td>
<td>Designs applied to merchandising objects. Handicrafts, traditional products which may be protected by geographical indications</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Lis-Gutierrez, J. et al. (2017).
points of differentiation. In fact, the creation of destination brands, from small villages to entire countries, has developed into an industry, and place-branding along with place-marketing are quickly becoming areas of specialization and discussion (Morgan, Pritchard, and Pride 2011). However, and more importantly, Nanayakkara reminds us:

Branding is a marketing term which embodies many different concepts with intellectual property rights, principally trademarks, contributing towards its development. A brand, is therefore a larger and more amorphous concept, being essentially a communication tool whereas a trademark and other intellectual property rights, which may contribute to it, are based in law and have clear legal definitions.

Ultimately, this means the marketplace is full of destination-based intellectual property that can be leveraged for marketing with the assurance that protections exist if related IPRs are infringed upon, including registered names for small villages and trademarked taglines for entire countries.

**Gastronomic tourism as the new frontier for intellectual property**

The use of intellectual property within the food and agricultural sectors and the application of IPRs to promote or protect trade and investment agreements can come into conflict with other internationally recognized rights, including the most basic right to food and especially within the context of farmers’ rights in developing countries. These issues are explored in detail by Haugen (2014) and others, but are beyond the scope of this discussion, which is focused more specifically on the socio-cultural aspects of food-based intellectual property and IPRs and the value created by leveraging foodways of an area to promote and protect its food products and experiences.

In his exploration of the relationship between food, IPRs, and what this means for the future of food tourism, Fields (2015) observes that because gastronomy is constantly evolving there remains a grey area when it comes to intellectual property at the micro level; for example, in relation to the ownership of recipes. However, at the macro level, the author argues that IPRs can have a big impact on gastronomic tourism because existing intellectual property legislation allows for the marketing and promotion of place-based food product and process designations, including the Protection of Designation of Origin, Protection of Geographical Indication, and Traditional Speciality Guaranteed (Fields 2015:131). Importantly, this means that destinations seeking to differentiate themselves from competitors near and far have access to the means through which to protect the gastronomic elements that define their unique tourism products and services. For example, a festival that is focussed on a specific foodstuff that is grown, raised, or harvested in a particular region or made from ingredients that are unique to that region, may benefit significantly from having the core ingredient or resulting product legally protected through a designation of origin. Not only does this build integrity into the festival but it can also add value to related forms of intellectual property protection; for example, the festival’s brand mark. The Festival of Parmigiano Reggiano, which celebrates the iconic hard cheese, and the British Asparagus Festival, which celebrates the Vale of Evesham Asparagus, are two examples of festivals that leverage the protected status of their foodstuff.

Such designations can help communities seeking to capitalize on their foodways to differentiate themselves from mass tourist destinations by appealing to new demographics wanting to experience authentic food products in the places and spaces they come from. Among the many challenges associated with the development and application of these protections, from losing
intellectual property rights

economies of scale to creating barriers to market-entry and increasing the cost of regulation, Field’s attention to market saturation and climate change are a reminder that food-based intellectual property can decrease in value as it is produced, and global warming may mean destinations lose their ability to leverage food products when they can no longer produce them (2015).

Intellectual property also poses a unique challenge for countries seeking to position themselves under a unified gastronomic brand. Whereas provenance-based designations work well both locally and regionally, their application at the national level is contingent upon a shared food identity. Canada, for example, has several food products and culinary traditions that could be defended as uniquely Canadian; however, Canadian food identity is heavily influenced by its demographic composition, which includes a diversity of populations. Lenore Newman explores this dynamic in detail in Speaking in Cod Tongues: A Canadian Culinary Journey (2017), but Hashimoto and Telfer summarize it well:

While some regions are more easily identifiable with a general type of cuisine, it is important to note there are distinct sub-regions in terms of cuisine styles and available products and that there is also cross over between the regions. From the First Nations People to immigrants from around the world, people have added their cultural distinctiveness to cuisine in Canada.

(2006:36)

Over time, Canadian cuisine has evolved into a gastronomic mosaic that boasts new creole dishes, and this makes it difficult to package and market the nation under one branded cuisine. Importantly, it also presents the opportunity for developing a community of practice within the Canadian tourism industry for developing, marketing, and promoting gastronomic tourism in a way that celebrates unique local and regional products at the same time as multiculturalism.

Case study 54.1: Feast On® – a certified taste of Ontario

The Culinary Tourism Alliance is a not-for-profit organization based in Toronto, Ontario. Since 2011, it has been connecting tastemakers to locals and visitors alike while working with destinations near and far to grow food tourism from the ground up. In 2013, with support from the Ontario Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs, the Culinary Tourism Alliance (CTA) began the process of developing a designation to recognize champions in the foodservice industry for actively sourcing local food and celebrating it on their plates. At the beginning of 2014, Feast On™ was launched into the marketplace and within its first year, over 100 restaurants became a ‘Certified Taste of Ontario’.

Importantly, research for the designation involved a significant amount of stakeholder engagement and consultation to ensure the new provincial designation was developed in a way that respects, pays forward to, and reinforces existing and other local and regional brands and their intellectual property. Now a registered trademark, Feast On® continues to work with restaurants of all shapes and sizes – from food trucks to fine dining establishments – to verify they are committed to sourcing local food product and marketing this to their customers. For this program, the definition of local is aligned with the provincial definition and includes anything grown, raised, or harvested in Ontario or made from ingredients that are grown, raised, or harvested in Ontario.
As part of the application process, prospective designees agree to a manifesto where they commit to:

- Procure Ontario food and drink whenever possible.
- Identify the provenance of Ontario food and drink on the menu.
- Track and trace Ontario food and drink purchases.
- Develop Ontario’s culinary identity by championing local, seasonal products.
- Educate the public about Ontario food and drink while bringing awareness to its strong agricultural sectors.

They must also verify that their food and drink procurement practices match the following standards:

- 25% of total annual food receipts reflect Ontario food purchases
- 25% of total annual beverage receipts reflect Ontario beverage purchases

Finally, applications are encouraged to be supported by proof of active membership or participation in a complementary designation programs at the local, regional, provincial, or national level, and identification or records of involvement, support, or activity in local food festivals, events, or initiatives.

Once an application is completed, information is collected – including records of food and drink expenditure that identify value and source – is verified by the Culinary Tourism Alliance and the applicant is notified of the status of their application. In addition to becoming a ‘Certified Taste of Ontario’, successful restaurants immediately begin to receive the benefits associated with the designation, including: exclusive Feast On® logo rights; inclusion in marketing campaigns; exclusive event opportunities; a profile on the organization’s website as well as prioritization in its content and on social media; and access to industry resources, among others.

Towards an appreciative approach to gastronomic tourism development

In exploring the role that IPRs play in protecting the economic interests of those whom claim proprietorship over their associated intellectual property, one cannot help but to reflect on the movement towards increased intellectual property in the gastronomic tourism space and what this means for communities in developing food destinations. Place-based brands and their supporting intellectual property, as well as food-based designations, can help to protect communities by authenticating products and processes that set many destinations apart.

However, in their literature review on food tourism and marketing of local food in rural areas, Sidali, Morocho, and Garrido-Pérez observe that Traditional Knowledge (TK) is often politicized as part of the process:

The trend towards turning cultural goods into property to gain economic advantages is particularly visible in the international political arena: whereas at international tables national states with a high concentration of indigenous groups often advocate stronger protection for indigenous populations, on the domestic level these concerns are not set as a priority on the political agenda.

(2016:3)

The authors explore this through a case study on the Ilex guayusa Loes., a sacred plant for the Kichwa indigenous communities that live in the Ecuadorian Amazon. Importantly, they...
find that using experience economy and intimacy approaches can help to ensure social justice prevails when growing food tourism. More specifically, Sidali, Morocho, and Garrido-Pérez conclude that integrating elements of the indigenous cosmovision (worldview) – such as “mutual learning as an explicit goal of the tourism encounter” and “regulated access to intellectual property (2016:4) can help to facilitate this.

Conclusion

High-integrity gastronomic tourism experiences should have as their foundation the history, heritage, and culture behind the food of a particular place – in other words, its foodways – including why food is produced in an area, how it is prepared, and the way in which it is consumed by locals. As a result, IPRs can help destinations to protect themselves from having their defining foodstuffs and related intellectual property from being diluted in the global marketplace. At the same time, the use of intellectual property law to protect claims to gastronomic-related IPRs needs to be carefully applied so that gastronomic tourism products are developed in an inclusive, respectful, and equitable manner that sees the communities behind tastes and taste experiences benefitting from leveraging these to attract visitors to their destination.

References


Introduction

The intersection between gastronomy, tourism, and the media is increasingly important in this digital age, where new media is supplementing, and in some cases supplanting, traditional forms of media such as film and television (Frost et al. 2016). Yet the latter is still influential in this space, with the advent of streaming services increasing the demand for content connected to food, and tie-ins with social media platforms such as Instagram, Facebook, and Twitter. Presenters, often chefs, are playing an important role in this phenomenon, sometimes becoming celebrities in the process (Bell and Hollows 2011).

Television programs connected to gastronomy are driving and shaping the nature of gastronomic tourism, both in relation to destinations that have traditionally been associated with food, and those emerging as new foodie destinations. They may lead to a greater insight into food heritage, including links to authenticity, and sustainability issues linked to the producing and consumption of food, such as their impact on health and the environment, as well as an awareness of gastronomy as a component of culture and the theatre of food more generally. This chapter will highlight these issues through a case study approach, and conclude with some suggestions for future research.

Exploring culture through gastronomy

The origins of exploring culture through gastronomy can be traced back to the English writer Elizabeth David. Her bestselling *A Book of Mediterranean Food* (1951) was partly a book of recipes, but also combined three other novel features. First, it was themed on a specific socio-geographical region. Second, it included quirky illustrations of Mediterranean places. These were primarily sun-filled vistas of local people engaged in food production, sales, and cooking. Third, she introduced each section with a short extract from well-known travel writers such as Robert Byron, Lawrence Durrell, Compton Mackenzie, and D.H. Lawrence (Frost et al. 2016). Going beyond just cooking, David pioneered writers “describing a world which could be imagined and summoned up amidst the cooking pots” (Chaney 1998:347).

At first, television mirrored early cookbooks, with chefs in kitchens demonstrating how to cook certain dishes. *The French Chef* (1962–1973), for example, featured Julia Child focusing
on French cuisine, albeit broadcast from a Boston studio. Over time, television technology changed, potentially freeing cooking show presenters to go on location, but this eventually only happened due to financial rather than technical innovation. For example, in 1991, the British chef Keith Floyd made a ten-episode series called *Floyd on Oz*. In this, he journeyed around all the states and territories of Australia, combining recipes and tourist attractions. By going on location, Floyd fashioned a vibrant and successful television series which set a template for future productions. As Rick Stein commented, “The fact that Keith didn’t cook in a studio was radically new” (2013:227). What was also revolutionary about this program was that it came about after Tourism Australia approached Floyd, co-ordinating the state destination marketing organizations and providing the funding (Hall and Mitchell 2002).

Stein himself began to branch out in his television programs. In his autobiography, he notes: “These days, I don’t only do cookery TV, I indulge other interests such as music and literature, often linked to food” (Stein 2013:288). His profile as a celebrity chef gives him the platform to indulge his other interests, but also to draw comparisons between food and culture. For example, he made a documentary called *Rick Stein’s Taste of the Italian Opera* (2010), and observes that “I tried to suggest that these composers who all loved their food were, if not directly influenced in their opera writing, at least filled with a wish to embrace life in their work with the same passionate enthusiasm” (Stein 2013:288).

Many of these programs made by Stein feature Cornwall, a region which he is intimately associated with and where the bulk of his restaurants are located. Thus, they might form a type of cross-promotion, whetting the audience’s appetite for visiting Cornwall by showing deeper layers such as its literary history and ancient rituals that can be traced back to pagan times. For example, he has made programs about subjects such as Daphne du Maurier (*Rick Stein in du Maurier Country* (2007)), the author of many books set in Cornwall, and the poet John Betjeman, who wrote some of his work during time spent beside the Cornish coast (*Betjeman & Me: Rick Stein’s Story* (2006)). In a two-part special called *Rick Stein’s Cornish Christmas* (2010), Stein presents various festive rituals from Cornwall such as wassailing, where songs were sung to apple trees in a rite of fertility, as well as purification (Falassi 1987), in an attempt to protect the crops against evil spirits. The wassail is now largely a lost tradition, alongside the Yule log, the boar’s head, and mumming. Stein juxtaposes these cultural practices alongside the preparation of festive fare such as goose and lobster.

The relationships between television producers, destination marketing organizations and tourist attractions in making these television programs are complex and dynamic. In recent years, producers have become more aggressive in seeking revenue from destinations and operators in return for being featured in cooking shows. Two examples illustrate this, both from our ongoing project of interviewing regional tourist stakeholders in Australia. In the first, a winery owner talked about his changing relationship with a popular television show, He lamented that:

*With some of the earlier episodes, we had … [winery name] there, because the program wasn’t established then, so we just gave them the wine [and location] and they were happy to have it. Of course now it costs a fortune to have your wine there [on the show].*

*(interviewed in 2016)*

The second instance was with a regional destination marketing organization. The manager explained how:

*Channel … [X], they want to do a new cooking show and they want to come and do a feature on … [the region]. I talk to … the marketing group that deals with all the restau-

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rant and the wineries saying listen you guys! They want to come and do this. I’d say it would cost ten grand [$10,000] … It costs a certain amount of money to pay these people to come here. We pay for that because it’s good use of public money to lift the profile of the place and to give all those businesses a lift. If one of our operators wanted to pay that person to come to them and just give their business a lift, then that’s up to them.

(interviewed in 2015)

The strategies outlined in these two instances bring into question Gartner’s (1994) argument that films lead to autonomous image creation and are effective in influencing potential tourists as they are perceived as being independent of destination marketers. It seems that there is a delicate illusion in play in gastronomic television, with high levels of trust and engagement amongst the audience, but only as long as they are not explicitly made aware that destinations, restaurants, and attractions are paying to be featured. While it is outside the scope of this chapter, it is perhaps time to rethink the concept of autonomous image creation in light of the above.

Case study 55.1: Sicily Unpacked (2016)

Our first case study looks at how the media is influencing a growing appreciation for gastronomy as an integral part of cultural history. We examine the British television series Sicily Unpacked (2016), which features a chef and an art historian who explore Italy through its cuisine, but also its artistic heritage, including paintings and architecture. Art historian Andrew Graham-Dixon and chef Giorgio Locatelli, who runs a Michelin-starred restaurant in London, first came together for Italy Unpacked (2013–2015). As they explain in their introduction for each episode, having journeyed through mainland Italy, they are now proceeding to Sicily, a destination they find particularly fascinating:

Graham-Dixon: ‘I love how layers of history have created a unique blend of art and architecture here.’
Locatelli: ‘And I adore her incredible flavor and no-nonsense approach to food.’
Graham-Dixon: ‘But it’s only recently that we discovered that we share the same intense passion for the island.’
Locatelli: ‘So we decided to team up and travel here together’.

Each episode follows a similar structure, and explanations about food and art history are alternated. They each take turns to be the expert, explaining art or a recipe to the other, who takes on the role of the enthusiastic novice. Their journey around Sicily is eclectic and disjointed, hopping back and forth, rather than following the sort of logical route that might be conventionally expected, so that they can focus on different themes that intersect with gastronomy and culture. Part of the charm is that it is a destination that appears to be largely unspoilt, with a distinctive cuisine that many tourists have yet to experience. With the plethora of gastronomic travel programs on television, finding something that has not been ‘filmed to death’ is often difficult.

Episode 1 focuses on Palermo and the impact of Arab and Norman conquests in the Medieval period. Each segment reinforces the message that these different layers affected both cuisine and art in Sicily’s capital. Two examples illustrate this, with the first being culinary. Locatelli demonstrates how to cook pasta con le sarde (pasta with sardines), a dish particularly associated with Palermo. As he cooks, he reacts to Graham-Dixon, answering his questions and telling stories. Locatelli emphasizes
that this is a dish strongly influenced by Arab culture and is accordingly unlike any other pasta dish in Italy. Going further, he exclaims “that in the north, around Milan, we would never cook anything like this”. Distinguishing the dish is the matching of seafood (sardines, anchovies) with sultanas. The inclusion of dried fruit in a savory dish, he explains, is common in the Arab world and completely unheard of in Italy. Yet, despite this mismatch, it has become the iconic dish of Palermo.

The second example is of the Palatine Chapel in the Royal Palace in Palermo (see Figure 55.1). This was constructed in the twelfth century by Roger II, the first Norman king of Sicily (for the history of Sicily, including the Norman invasion, see Norwich 2015). As Graham-Dixon guides Locatelli around, he presents this as one of the great gems of medieval art. It also, he argues, epitomizes the melding of different cultures that occurs in Sicily. Its construction was commissioned by a Norman invader, who, much like William the Conqueror in England, leapt from being a noble to being a king through an audacious and aggressive conquest. However, unlike the English Normans, those in Sicily affirmed their status through commissioning great works of art that drew on the cultural heritage of the lands they had conquered. Accordingly, the Palatine Chapel is dominated by Byzantine mosaics depicting Christian figures and iconography. Utilizing such a style was a deliberate strategy by the Normans, proclaiming that they were the heirs to the Byzantines who once ruled Sicily. In addition, this Christian church also has many Islamic motifs, reflecting that Palermo was a cultural melting pot with an important Arab population. As such, Christian imagery is blended with Arabic arches and decorations.

In the second episode, the focus is on the Spanish, who gained control of the island in the fifteenth century (Norwich 2015). They strengthened feudal institutions at a time when they were crumbling elsewhere in Western Europe, stagnating economic development and inflicting a crushing poverty on the Sicilian peasantry. This episode contrasts the stunning richness of Spanish Baroque art and architecture within towns with the long history of neglect and oppression in the rural areas. In this case – whilst they do not explicitly state this – their themes of art and cuisine have become disconnected.

**Figure 55.1** Built by the Normans, the Palatine Chapel includes Byzantine and Arabic artistic styles.
(Photo courtesy of Warwick Frost.)
In Noto, which after being destroyed in an earthquake in 1693 was quickly rebuilt in the Baroque style, they finish their exploration of its architecture with a visit to a gelato shop. There, Locatelli explains that legend has it that these dishes were originally brought to the island by the Arabs in the eighth century. The owner of the shop proudly tells them that all his ingredients are sourced locally and he has a “deep connection with the terrain of Sicily”. His signature dish is an almond sorbet, which the hosts proclaim with gusto as “Baroque”, “decadent”, and “sublime”.

Excursions to Enna to witness the Easter procession and to Messina to take in paintings by Caravaggio are broken with a trip to Modica. Here they visit an artisanal chocolate maker who is following original recipes from the sixteenth century. Chocolate, it is explained, was developed by the Aztecs of Mesoamerica. When the Spanish conquered them, they brought it to Europe. As it was then – and is now being recreated in Sicily – it was simple and with few ingredients, and did not contain the dairy and food additives which we have today. Accordingly, instead of being “smooth and beautiful”, it is gritty. For Graham-Dixon in particular, the old recipe is challenging for his modern expectations.

Visiting the countryside, as opposed to the towns that most of this episode focuses on, they reflect on poverty. Entrenched oppression, they explain, led to resistance and banditry, which may have been the origin of the Mafia. In terms of cuisine, it forced the peasants to make the most of local ingredients and products (see Figure 55.2). They eat a pasta dish made with chicory, a weedy plant that is often ignored. Locatelli sums these culinary experiences up with the evocative phrase “we are eating the Sicilian terrain” and says that in Sicily, “poverty made it necessary to be inventive with the few ingredients you had”.

The third episode is on the future of the island, though to be frank, this is the most weakly themed of the series. It is still a thought-provoking and entertaining piece, but in contrast to the historically-themed parts, it meanders to a simple conclusion that Sicily should be forward-looking and embrace the contemporary world. It starts with a visit to a vineyard on the slopes of Mt Etna. As with many such travel programs, this is the opportunity for the winemaker to expound how irrigation is the enemy of good quality wine and that each vintage should be distinct reflecting the

Figure 55.2 Sicilian cuisine built on basic ingredients – Panelle (chick pea fritters), cheese and tomatoes.
(Photo courtesy of Warwick Frost.)
weather and conditions of the year. A similar sentiment could be espoused by his counterparts in Champagne or the Napa Valley and it tells the viewer nothing of what is particularly special about Sicily. The segment is rescued by Locatelli preparing battered vine leaves and the winemaker munching away and exclaiming that he had never thought of eating the foliage.

The viewing of Greek statues and Roman mosaics is counterbalanced with a segment on the Greek gourmand Archestratus, who wrote 2,300 years ago. Whilst Graham-Dixon peruses a current edition of this work, Locatelli recreates a recipe of tuna with olive oil wrapped in a fig leaf and cooked in an open charcoal fire. As Locatelli enthuses to the nodding Graham-Dixon, “for me food like this puts you in touch with the past just as vividly as any work of art, it’s history you can eat”.

Concluding their journey, the two hosts return to Palermo. Locatelli discloses that he and his family take annual holidays to Sicily, while Graham-Dixon responds that he intends to return. Summing up what he has learnt on this trip, Graham-Dixon tells his companion: ‘I never really realized until I came and saw Sicily from your perspective through the food, I never realized how completely the different cultures that shaped the art here completely shaped the food. It’s like the art and food are a mirror image of each other”. For viewers, it means that gastronomy is placed in its historical context and can be understood in greater depth through its links with other forms of cultural heritage.

Exploring sustainable lifestyles through gastronomy

This next case study examines the nexus between food and sustainability on television, including activities such as foraging, food gardens and recycling, and how this may flow through to tourism. This trend can be traced back to the passion of a number of key individuals, who bemoaned the type and source of food that people were typically eating in the late twentieth and early twenty-first centuries. One of the early activists was Alice Waters, with her Chez Panisse restaurant in Berkeley, California, who extolled local produce, seasonality and simplicity of menus, and prevention of waste (Frost et al. 2016). Another important milestone was the Slow Food movement, started in Italy in the 1980s by the journalist Carlo Petrini as a reaction against plans to open a McDonald’s fast food outlet in Rome. It was based on a philosophy that good food needed care and time to prepare, as well as to consume, and traditional recipes are important. This movement has been criticized as being elitist, requiring the ability to spend long periods of time in the kitchen, which may not be possible for working families, as well as fetishising and romanticizing food that was often the cornerstone of peasant diets (Frost and Laing 2013; Frost et al. 2016). Nevertheless, it was influential and started a conversation about the origins of food and the increasingly fast way that we are living our lives. This was subsequently taken up by books by Michael Pollan (The Omnivore’s Dilemma – 2006) and films or documentaries like Fast Food Nation (2006), Super Size Me (2004), and Pollan’s Food Fight (2008), which showed the risks of cheap, high-calorie and low-nutrition diets for health and the sustainability of food production. In the case of Food Fight, the growth of the organic food movement was shown as a way forward; a David fighting the Goliath of the food production industry or agribusiness in the United States.

Television wasn’t far behind. Even situation comedies picked up on the trend for edible gardens and small livestock such as chickens, with The Good Life (1975–1978) poking gentle fun at a husband and wife whose aim is to be completely self-sufficient, much to the
derision of their more upper-class next door neighbors. A spate of cooking programs in particular demonstrated how everyday people could incorporate good food habits and sustainable practices into their lives. For example, TV chefs like Antonio Carluccio emphasized foraging for mushrooms and herbs, having been brought up to do this in his native Piedmont, in part because food was scarce during World War Two, but also because it was a traditional practice of families of the region (Carluccio 2012). Two different types of programs are discussed here. The River Cottage examples suggest a quest for a rural utopia in which the farmer appears to live off the land, yet in reality must have other streams of income, such as the ubiquitous cookbook (Thomas 2008). The second type is more overtly political, exemplified by Jamie Oliver’s programs that highlight the lack of nutrition in typical school dinners in the U.K. and his desire to change eating habits at home.

Case study 55.2: River Cottage (1999– ) and River Cottage Australia (2013)

Hugh Fearnley-Whittingstall, star of the UK series River Cottage, has always been honest about the difficulties of sustainable farming: “It was very aspirational and I never pretended to be the expert. Many people connected with me on my journey because it wasn’t always easy. It was also great fun because of the characters involved – many who later helped to set up the farm” (quoted in Harley 2016). It is interesting that Fearnley-Whittingstall recognizes that there is an element of aspiration behind what he is doing. Thomas (2008) and Bell and Hollows (2011) label this type of television program as utopian, where the city slicker takes on the challenge of becoming a farmer, yet seemingly has time for leisure.

In this example, the experiment was a success and the humble farm venture of 1998 eventually expanded to become a cooking school, kitchen garden, and dining and event experiences on site, which has won tourism awards, along with a number of cafes known as ‘Canteens’ in south-west England. Fearnley-Whittingstall has championed a number of causes, including the importance of free-range chicken farming; trying to reduce the amount of food that gets sent to landfill, notably from supermarkets; and criticizing fishing quota systems that lead to dead fish being thrown back overboard into the sea. His television profile has been the backbone of these campaigns, including one-off documentaries such as Hugh’s Fish Fight (2011), an allusion to Food Fight mentioned above. More recently, social media is also used to spread messages and assist others with their campaigns. For example, he has partnered with Crowdfunder to assist in raising funds “to grow the all-important skills of young people in the world of food sustainability” (River Cottage 2017). Thomas (2008:691) argues that the seductive character of the downshifting fantasy attracts even those “who would not define themselves as either ‘green’ or alternative”’. The question remains whether these programs really do change behavior, or are simply a form of ‘eco-reality’ (Thomas 2008), providing viewers with a ‘feel-good’ factor that lasts only so long as the program is running (Bell and Hollows 2011). Either way, they appear to have contributed to Devon’s tourism offerings and its image as a rural idyll.

The Australian spin-off has been less successful than its British counterpart. Paul West, former chef, participated in a casting call to live and work on a small farm and became the star of River Cottage Australia. As he says in the opening credits, “I used to dream about a farm … where life flourished under deep blue skies and your day’s work was rewarded by abundance”. Despite the difficulties of the first year, he says at the start of the second season: “I’ve never
been more connected to the food on my plate”. The reality was perhaps less bucolic. West in fact did not live permanently on the property and while he appeared to receive support from the local community, it was often unclear where the money came from to sustain the business, with seemingly only small amounts generated from time to time; not enough to keep a farm – and a family – afloat.

West announced at the end of 2016 that the television series was taking a break. The property was sold mid-way through 2017, and West moved with his family to Newcastle, a regional city by the coast: “It’s [River Cottage] not my property, I didn’t own it … As much as I do love going up there, I’ve got a family to feed, so I need to generate income, I can’t just do it for the love” (Campbell 2016). Audiences may have felt somewhat let-down at the changing narrative. The case study suggests that viewers in the future may be less ingenuous when it comes to buying into the fantasy of the ‘good life’.

**Jamie Oliver’s Food Revolution (2010)**

Jamie Oliver started his television career as a lovable lad, who brought a breath of fresh air to cooking programs (Hollows and Jones 2010), using phrases such as ‘lovely jubbly’ to describe his dishes. It took a while for him to become an activist, but when he did, he used his popularity to bring about real change. For example, after the screening of *Jamie’s School Dinners* (2005): “The public attention brought to bear on the issue of low cost, low quality food in schools resulted in New Labour committing to improved budgets in their 2005 election campaign, thus demonstrating that a lifestyle program can make a political intervention” (Thomas 2008:696).

This led Oliver to teach a group of people how to cook, who would then “pay it forward” and teach others how to cook, in an endless chain of behavior change. He began this in Rotherham in the United Kingdom, as shown in his series *Jamie’s Ministry of Food* (2008). The use of the term ‘Ministry of Food’ is a reference to the British Government’s initiative during and after World War Two (1939–1954) (Hollows and Jones 2010) and suggests the urgency of the venture. In *Jamie’s Food Revolution* (2010), he headed to the United States, to try to achieve the same goals as in Britain – reform of school lunches, encouraging people to cook from scratch rather than buying take-away dinners or fast food and substituting better choices for high fat or high sugar diets. The dishes he promotes such as pasta with meatballs and salmon tikka, have been criticized as merely being healthier versions of take-away food (Hollows and Jones 2010), but they were presumably selected to make the transition towards good eating less herculean in the early stages.

There have been other concerns raised about Oliver’s approach. Hollows and Jones (2010) refer to Oliver as a ‘moral entrepreneur’, but note that “his adoption of an ethical disposition also generates advantages within and beyond the culinary field” (2010:319). Oliver has a chain of restaurants which attract locals and tourists alike, although it should be acknowledged that they put into practice Oliver’s philosophy of fresh ingredients cooked with care. Another view of his television programs is that they are elitist, singling out the working class as needing help (Bell and Hollows 2011) and thus reinforcing stereotypes. It does appear however that by continuing to push agendas that are unpopular in some quarters, regardless of the criticism, he has built a level of trust that has enabled him to put the quality of food at the forefront of public discussion.
Conclusion

There is a growing number of gastronomic programs on television, many of which are have evolved beyond a mere showcase of cookery. The first case study illustrates how food is often presented intertwined with culture, including history, art, or rituals. Part of their popularity might be linked to the interest of many destination marketing organizations in sponsoring these programs. It might also be attributed to the increasing sophistication of television audiences, many of whom may be well-travelled, consider themselves foodies and are looking to deepen their understanding of food in its social and cultural context (Laing and Frost 2015).

The second case study highlights a different approach, where food can be a political tool and television programs involving gastronomy may deliver messages about sustainability. This has largely happened outside government auspices, where a concerned individual, often a celebrity chef, has used their fame to champion a particular cause connected to food. Indeed, governments are typically portrayed as too moribund to change without the impetus from outside (Hollows and Jones 2010). Their effect on tourism is largely unknown at this stage.

More work is therefore needed to examine these issues further. We have a number of studies that analyze these programs and their content, but few that consider how they are received by audiences and what effect they have on such things as destination image and leisure and travel behavior on the one hand, and eating habits and the uptake and maintenance of sustainable practices on the other. The power of the media to build image, the relationship between audiences and celebrity chefs, and the level of trust that is engendered in the latter’s activities through television are all areas that warrant exploration. For example, how much trust do viewers have in the locations and experiences depicted on the screen, given the increasing prevalence of destinations paying for sympathetic coverage? Other forms of media also require examination in this context, particularly emergent forms such as social media, to see which are more persuasive, and to understand shifting patterns of media usage and power.

References


Introduction

Global food production is characterized by industrialization and concentration, with a few large-scale actors having power over considerable share of overall food production (Gössling and Hall 2013:13). The powerful intermediation of global multinationals decontextualizes food and turns customers away from any sort of reference to their geographic or social roots (Parrot, Murdoch, and Murdoch 2002). This, linked with the successive crises in food security registered in recent decades as mentioned by several authors (Ilbery and Kneafsey 1998; Ilbery and Maye 2005; Renting, Marsden, and Banks 2003; Sánchez 2009) established the foundations for the emergence of Alternative Food Networks (AFNs), which are diametrically opposed to industrial ways of food supply and commercialization systems.

The preference for the term networks reflects a theoretical interest in the convergence of the complex ways via which food is made available through contingent relations that sometimes defy a categorization as simply ‘conventional’ or ‘alternative’ (Holloway and Kneafsey 2004). The network concept is associated with relational forms of thinking, which influences many agri-food studies, providing a dynamic character (Kneafsey et al. 2008).

Whatmore, Stassart, and Renting (2003) identify three types of AFNs: the alternative, the local, and the quality. However, is the quality network that seems to have generated most interest among researchers, because, it would seem, the production of quality products can be interpreted as an alternative to agricultural productivism (Watts, Ilbery, and Jones 2007). However, Sánchez (2009:191) identifies thirteen AFNs modalities based on literature review. They are: a) geographical indications; b) the private certification of food, organic food or biological; c) community agriculture; d) box schemes; e) farmers’ markets; f) direct sales; g) food supply to public institutions; h) fair trade; j) community food projects; k) urban orchards; l) diets linked to lifestyle; and, m) buying local food. AFNs are hybrid constructions (Goodman 1999; Holloway and Kneafsey 2004; Ilbery and Maye 2005; Renting, Marsden, and Banks 2003; Sánchez 2009) and can be expressed in various ways.

Moreover, in a context of increased experiential tourism, the face-to-face contact relations among local producers and consumers, or hosts and guests, are helping to create a framework of authentic experiences. This is often associated with the fact that the interaction,
participation, and involvement in various activities create more positive customer feelings in various settings and situations, and thus enhance the value for the participants (Prebensen and Foss 2011). Kim et al. (2013) argues that the involvement in host community activities, which in gastronomic tourism could be local food events or pick up your own fruits in local farms leads to a memorable tourist experience.

AFNs such as food events, farmers’ markets, direct sales, or fair trade are common features of gastronomic tourism. Therefore, the aims of this chapter are three-fold: firstly, to provide an overview of the Alternative Food Network concept and its application of gastronomic tourism, secondly, to illustrate that the exchange of food products in gastronomic tourism is possible thanks to conventions shared by actors involved in the networks, and thirdly, to highlight the main features of AFNs based on common gastronomic tourism products identified in the case study.

The chapter takes as a case study Catalonia, which is one of the main well-known gastronomic destinations worldwide since it has been awarded for having two of the best restaurants in the world – the Bulli and the Celler de Can Roca.

The theoretical approach is based on concepts and principles from the Convention Theory raised by Boltanski and Thevenot (1991) and subsequently developed by Storper and Salais (1997). The Convention Theory helps us to understand that any form of coordination in life, be it social, economic, or political (existing in food supply chains and networks) requires agreement of some sort between its participants.

The chapter is organized as follows: the next section elaborates the conceptual framework. The section following presents the data, context and the methodology of analysis. The case study is presented in the next section, and the following section reports and discusses the empirical results and addresses some conclusions.

Finally, the chapter addresses some key theoretical and practical issues in the understanding of gastronomic tourism supply chain in the alternative food systems. It does this by presenting a dual focus, not just on how food products are exchanged within gastronomic tourism, but also on the core values and attitudes by stakeholders who are living in a hybrid economy where alternative food consumption and conventional agroindustry structures are continually overlapping.

From the value chain to the network concept in gastronomic tourism

AFNs work has been influenced by work on actor–network theory, cultural economy approaches, and Convention Theory (Maye and Kirwan 2010). In the case of tourism, the network concept has invited us to explore the hybrid relations that bundle up space (Van der Duim et al. 2012) and based on theories such the Action Network Theory, to shift the attention of research from the ‘tourist’ to people, objects, and events which their multiple relations shape the place in which tourists intervene (Russo and Richards 2016).

The consensus about to apply the network concept is a critical point because at the network dimension the relations are based on shared values instead to executed power that could result in asymmetries of power relations along the value chain.

In the exchange of food products within gastronomic tourism, a number of values shared by the various actors can be identified, including: values centered on a concern for the environment, such as organic production; economic values, such as small-scale production and social and cultural values, e.g., preserving traditional production methods (Leal 2015). These values allow different power asymmetries and help to stabilize the interaction between the actors
involved in the exchange of gastronomic products. The following subsection discusses the distinction drawn between conventional food systems and the conceptual transition towards alternative food networks.

**Conventional food value chains versus alternative food networks within gastronomic tourism**

According to Sánchez (2009:186), food incorporates a geography and a history of its own. Likewise, they are subjected to a more or less long process of manipulation, transformation and displacement before being consumed. Thus this situation, linked with the successive food crises that threat food security worldwide, gives rise to an alternative food system where networks and complex relations take place. Therefore, it is a transition from the productivist regime (based on agro-industrial production) to a post-productivist one (Ilbery and Bowler 1998; Renting, Marsden, and Banks 2003) in the supply chains which let the Alternative Food Networks (AFNs) arise.

The AFNs refers to face-to-face interactions such as farmers’ markets, proximity relationships that transport local and regional identity of a commodity, and the extended relationships that shorten the trading space sometimes, like fair trade networks (Whatmore, Stassart, and Renting 2003). Authors like Gössling and Hall (2013) call it “new culinary systems” that emerged from a food citizenship and social justice in the food supply chain. In general, AFNs allow consumers to access (perceived) fresher, safer and taster foods whose origin is known and trusted (Pålil et al. 2013).

In contrast to the conventional chain, in the alternative chains that make up the AFNs, there is a direct interaction, not only with the producers or suppliers, but with the whole chain. In the chain of alternative value, an economic and ecological dimension coexist; that is to say, aside from an economic value, ecological values are also taken into account and are shared throughout the chain with other actors on the basis of cooperation and communication (Morgan, Marsden, and Murdoch 2006). These aspects are reflected in the permanent search in tourism for a closer relationship between producer and final consumer (Antonioli Corigliano 2002; Boniface 2003; Hall and Sharples 2003; Hjalager and Richards 2002).

Furthermore, the description of the actors and of their roles in AFNs is supported by a broad body of literature (Boniface 2003; Canavan, Henchion, and O’Reilly 2007; Hjalager and Richards 2002; Ilbery and Kneafsey 1998; Ilbery and Maye 2005; Renting, Marsden, and Banks 2003), which recognizes the particular character of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) as forms of social organization that typify the business related with products commercialized as local, craft, regional, or artisan. Most of these products and the businesses that sell them are one of the main features of gastronomic tourism (Leal 2015).

Based on the work of various authors (Hinrichs 2003; Ilbery and Kneafsey 1998; Ilbery and Maye 2005; Murdoch, Marsden, and Banks 2000), Figure 56.1 presents the main differences between the conventional and alternative food system.

According to Grieve and Slee (2003), the reconnection between producers and consumers serves to rebuild relationships of trust between consumers. Activities such as farmers’ markets and other forms of direct marketing help to increase dialogue between the two parties. Indeed, these new scenarios have been highlighted for their potential as tourist attractions (Boniface 2003; Hall and Mitchell 2001; Hjalager and Richards 2002; Ilbery and Kneafsey 1998; Schlüter 2009).

In general, and according to Jarosz (2008), AFNs may be identified in four major ways: (1) shorter distances between producers and consumers; (2) small farm size and scale or
Alternative food networks and gastronomy

environmentally farming; (3) the existence of ‘alternative’ food purchasing models and venues, usually based on human relationships and proximity between consumers, producers, and/or retailers; (4) a commitment to the social, economic, and environmental dimensions of sustainable food production, distribution and consumption.

**Conventions as an exchange agreement**

An approach, which has been influencing agri-food studies, but has not been broadly applied to tourism studies, is the Convention Theory. Conventions are defined as “the practices, routines, agreements and their associated informal and institutional forms which bind acts together through mutual expectations” (Salais and Storper 1992:174).

The Convention Theory, based on Maye and Kirwan (2010:3), helps to identify specific norms, values, and organizational forms for different food networks, each with different orders of worth developed by Boltanski and Thèvenot (1991) and relevant to quality food products such as: 1) commercial (e.g., price and value of goods); 2) domestic (e.g., products that draw on attachments to place and traditional methods of production); 3) industrial (e.g., efficiency and reliability concerns); 4) public (e.g., consumer recognition of trademarks, brands and packaging); 5) civic (e.g., societal benefits) and 6) ecological (e.g., production impacts). Later, Kirwan (2006) and his study on farmers’ markets, identifies a convention of ‘regard’ which is also taken into the current case study.

*Figure 56.1  Main differences between conventional and alternative food systems.  
Source: Author’s own based on Hinrichs (2003); Ilbery and Kneafsey (1998); Murdoch et al. (2000).*
The Convention Theory assumes that any form of coordination which exists in the networks of gastronomic tourism requires the agreement of some kind among the participants, which is opposed to the simple imposition of power relations by a dominant party (Morgan, Marsden, and Murdoch 2006). The efforts to co-ordinate situations and outcomes in resolving interpretive differences in new or modified contexts of action give rise to conventions that unite facts through mutual expectations (Storper and Salais 1997).

Furthermore, the Convention Theory allows us to understand the hybrid nature of quality production and how the composition of agri-food value chains is linked to new patterns of food and tourist consumption. The theory considers the way in which the conventions of the consumer/tourist (concerned with quality and value) are evaluated and contrasted with the conventions of the producer (concerned with efficiency and costs) (Murdoch and Miele 2004).

For instance, based on the interaction of conventions, Storper (1997) identifies four productive worlds (see Figure 56.2). The Interpersonal World of Production (INTWP) or the world of specialized and dedicated products is the world in which the AFNs that characterizes gastronomic tourism might be found.

The key contribution made by Convention Theory, according to Maye and Kirwan (2010:4) is that it helps to unveil the hybrid nature of quality production/AFNs, as food producers and processors can exist simultaneously in “several worlds of production”. The authors pointed out some examples to illustrate the case. For instance, a specialist food company can exist in a ‘domestic world’, espousing conventions of tradition, trust, and place; an ‘ecological world’, where conventions related to environmental sustainability are important; and a ‘commercial world’, where conventions are related to price and value for money.

Morgan, Marsden, and Murdoch (2006) point out that it is in the Interpersonal World that the conventions associated with trust, local recognition, and spatial embeddedness might be found. For the authors, interpersonal spaces of local, typical, and organic food make up the so-called ‘alternative sector’ in which gastronomic tourism is embedded.
Case study 56.1: The case study of Catalonia’s’ Alternative Food Networks of its gastronomic tourism

Tourism is important in Catalonia; it represents the 15.9% of the Spanish population and generates 18.9% of the Spanish GDP. According to the Catalan Institute of Statistics (IDESCAT), tourism is an important pillar of the Catalan economy, growing at 3.7% in 2015 and 8.3% in 2016. The region became the leader in international tourism in Spain receiving more than 17 million visitors in 2016. Moreover, tourism is defined as a global brand (Catalonia) with ten separate brands covering the whole of the region (Arcarons i Simon 2009) and are associated with specific products on a territorial basis.

On the other hand, the Catalan gastronomy has been a central point of interest since the beginning of the twenty-first century. A clear reflection of this pro-active role was the creation in 2001 by the Catalan Tourist Board of the first ‘Gastronomic Club’. Subsequently, in 2003 the necessary agreements for the development of gastronomic tourism in order to diversify its tourism offering were established. Catalonia was selected as case study based on two criteria: a) its tourism performance and gastronomic tradition, and b) its attractiveness as a gastronomy destination worldwide.

The primary data comes from 12 interviews and informal conversations maintained since 2011 with different stakeholders involved in gastronomic tourism in Catalonia. In addition, the information gathered was supported by secondary information.

Farmers’ markets and direct sales in gastronomic tourism: an example of Alternative Food Networks

Food trails and routes and fairs and festivals as gastronomic tourist products contribute to generating spaces for the exchange not only of products, but also in some cases are considered as forms of alternative relationship in the food supply chain where domestic, civic, and ecological conventions allow the food exchange agreement. For Smith and Xiao (2008), farmers’ markets, restaurants, and food festivals are part of gastronomic tourism; however, for Hall and Page (2006), the direct sale makes up the morphology of supply of this tourist modality.

In any case, farmers’ markets, direct sales, and tourism products are certainly alternative spaces where consumers or tourists are directly connected to producers, allowing the establishment of proximity relations, one of the main features of AFNs.

Farmers’ markets

Farmers’ markets and municipal markets are an important part of the retail distribution of Catalan cities and towns, as well as being relevant spaces in the establishment of proximity relations that are built through personal contact.

In an interview conducted in 2015 with the Boqueria Fresh Market Manager, he refers to the importance of personal contact in fresh markets by pointed out that “... personal contact is important because there is someone who explains to you and that does not happen in the supermarket, there the product is on a shelf, nobody explains it to you, that is the great advantage of the fresh markets”. Due to personal contact, domestic and civic conventions are commonly exhibited and
performed. Fresh Markets are tourist attractions that contribute to the creation of tourist products (Boniface 2003) and the Boqueria in Barcelona is an obvious example of the potential of these scenarios for tourism.

In the case of the weekly farmers’ markets that developed throughout Catalonia, most of them do not have an infrastructure. These markets have few stands compared to the municipal markets in cities. In Catalan farmers’ markets, most of the stands are addressed to the sale of fruits, vegetables, cheeses, sausages, honey and preserves, and bakery products. These markets are usually organized by the town councils and located at the center of the municipalities. Nowadays, there are about 353 markets addressed to sell fruits and vegetable distributed in about 451 municipalities of the 946 that has Catalonia. In some municipalities in Catalonia, farmers’ markets are incorporated by the touristic offer and are usually included in food trails designed by tour operators.

Regarding conventions, farmers’ markets present conventions of ‘regard’, in which aspects related to the benefits are not only economic, but also those related to local and social roots (Kirwan 2006). For instance, Leal (2015) identified two new conventions based on her analysis conducted of the AFNs in Catalonia: the first one is the ‘identity’ and the second one is the ‘tradition’ because the value of the exchange is acquired when the food product has a historical component that is recognized as traditional and typical of the region by the stakeholders involved in the exchange of food products. These two conventions are commonly confirmed by statements taken from personal conversations maintained in 2011 and in 2015 with the chef and owner of the Michelin star restaurant Sant Pau located in the Barcelona’s coastal area when she claims: “... the gastronomy is the diversity of a country, of its traditions, culture and identity”.

**Gastronomic tourism products: food events, food trails, and fairs as direct sales mechanisms**

Direct sales in the case of gastronomic tourism is presented through food fairs, routes and gastronomic events which in the case of Catalonia and in general, involves a large number of stakeholders from different sectors (public, private and mixed) (Leal 2015; Smith and Xiao 2008).

According to the Gastroteca official website (2017), in Catalonia there are 12 gastronomy routes which serve to introduce the visitor to the rich offer of Catalonia’s cuisine wine and gastronomy. Food fairs and gastronomic events are also promoted at the institutional level by the Catalan Tourist Board thanks to its creation of a gastronomic calendar. This information is disseminated via the website “festacatalunya.cat” (2017). Based on this information, Catalonia organizes more than 200 gastronomic events involving mainly seasonal, artisan, traditional, typical, and regional products. These events help to connect farmers, and local food producers not only with residents but also with tourists due to the inclusion of this kind of products in the touristic offer promoted by Destination Management Organizations (DMO) and by tour operators at all kind of scales.

It might be claimed that food routes, fairs, and events as tourism products in Catalonia show how actors that share a set of values and conventions embedded in elements related to the territory and its identity can facilitate the building of new socio–spatial scenarios for tourist interaction.


**Discussion and conclusion**

This chapter explores gastronomic tourism within the basic features of the Alternative Food Networks and draws theoretical and practical insights. It starts from the micro level, focusing on the concept of networks which allow the understanding of the actions of individual and collective agents, institutions, practices, and relationships at different scales and how has been applied to agri-food and tourism studies. Subsequently, the concept of networks applied to the agri-food studies has led to the concept of Alternative Food Networks, which are alternatives to an industrial food system (also known as ‘conventional’).

It is argued through the chapter that an alternative to conventional agri-food systems is based on values shared by the actors involved. Those values are explained through the lens of the Convention Theory in which these conventions are some sort of agreements that allows food products exchange and fulfil mutual expectations (Salais and Storper 1992).

Gastronomic tourism is creating alternative food supply chains which go beyond the traditional value chain and are based on ecological, identity, and domestic values, among other values that allow the exchange of food products. Tourists and final consumers are able to gather product information direct from producers and farmers and to test food products without intermediaries. Gastronomic tourism is helping to create new realities in the exchange of food products and is helping to redistribute the economic value of agri-food sector. In this sense, gastronomic tourism is more than a tourism modality, it is transforming the food supply chain relationships among farmers, producers, and customers within tourism.

Moreover, it is important to recognize that the conventions shared by actors may regulate the food exchange that occurs within gastronomic tourism. Actions of individual agents like farmers and tourists occur within contexts that are shaped by agreements that are shared and that allows food product exchange in touristic spaces. Gastronomic tourism and its AFNs such as farmers’ markets, food events, fairs, and ingeneral direct sales, can represent a hybrid relationship, which was born in a World of Industrial Production, but has let an Interpersonal World of Production rise where AFNs take place. Within a post-industrial tourism system, which is more hybridized than the industrial one, there are overlapping processes and practices in conventional food supply chains which are breaking down.

The case study suggests that in contrast with the conventional food systems, the conventions that characterize the producers, distributors, and restaurateurs (associated with gastronomic tourism resources) are strongly associated with green or ecological conventions as well as with other conventions (domestic and civic, as well as those of recognition, inspiration, consideration), thus resulting in the formation of new conventions, such as identity and tradition.

Conventions can be seen in common claims made by farmers or producers which participate in AFNs in gastronomic tourism when they usually state that their products are special or unique. These products, which form part of an Interpersonal World of Production, are characterized by the use of artisan techniques, the feeding of livestock with organic fodder, the use of traditional recipes exclusive to the region and vegetables and fruit produced in an integrated fashion, as well as by the originality and innovative way of making and producing foodstuffs.

Gastronomic resources in Catalonia, and in general in a territory, present a strong identity based on the conventions of domestic value, civic equality, and inspiration, and where priority is given, according to Boltanski and Thévenot (1991), to uniqueness and the manifestation of emotions and passions. These feelings can just be transported through personal contact among the whole network as an important element for interaction. Personal contact is coordinated by mechanisms such as trust, reputation, and the power that is exercised by the stakeholders.
On the other hand, gastronomic tourism and its AFNs may be seen as a new reconnection among farmers and tourists and allow new interaction spaces and scenarios that goes beyond the conventional food products delivery mechanisms such hypermarkets or wholesale markets. The AFNs identified in gastronomic tourism show a high level of customer satisfaction and loyalty due to high quality standards of service and products.

In this framework, we may claim that gastronomic tourism through food events, fairs, and direct sales within its activities allows the creation AFNs that fulfils Jarosz (2008)’s four major ways of AFNs: (1) it allows shorter distances between producers and tourists; (2) most of the businesses are small farm size and most of them are oriented to sustainable farming methods; (3) the existence of ‘alternative’ food purchasing models and venues such food events or food trails contribute which are gastronomic tourism products and contribute to establish proximity between consumers, producers, and/or retailers; (4) AFNs of gastronomic tourism show a commitment to the social, economic, and environmental dimensions of sustainable food production, distribution, and consumption which is identified in the values and conventions shared among actors.

The Catalan case illustrate that gastronomic tourism products result in AFNs that has an impact direct in urban areas, but especially in rural areas where the food products are produced. The AFNs of gastronomic tourism make visible the production process but also make aware tourists about gastronomic resources of a region. This fact is possible thanks to conventions that are shared among actors. This study is, therefore, helpful in understanding the impact of gastronomic tourism in a hybrid agri-food system, and it provides a starting point for more in-depth studies in the future.

References


Introduction

This chapter contributes to a holistic understanding of ‘geographical indications’ at a tourism destination. There is a growing consumer interest in knowledge and tasting of local food specialties. Getting to know local food represents a novel, valuable alternative to ordinary food experiences. In this chapter, we focus on geographical indications, a specific category of typical local foods which are protected by European laws.

The chapter is divided into two main parts. In the first part, we define GIs, and describe how GIs have the potential to transform a place into a touristic destination. The second part of this chapter presents two case studies, concerning two notorious Italian GIs: ‘Parmesan’ cheese and ‘Prosecco’ wine. Both these GIs are well-known products, characterized by specific stories. Using Geographical Information Systems (GIS) tools, we map the zone of origin of such GIs and provide for these zones several touristic indicators that together contribute to define the features of a tourism destination.

This study might contribute to a better understanding of the meanings and the features of a ‘typical’ food, and of how a food can be defined as typical. Last but not least, this work provides also a picture of the huge efforts which Italy – a country characterized by a remarkable gastronomic richness – is devoting to preserving and making known its food heritage.

Interlinkages between geographical indications and tourism:

Geographical indications

Geographical indications (GIs) are agri-food products linked to a specific place; such place shapes the products’ geographical origin, as well as their cultural and historical identity (Barjolle, Boisseaux, and Dufour 1998; Bowen and Zapata 2009). Geographical indications are also associated to local typical food for their strict relationship with their place of origin. They include different typologies of products: wine, spirits, cheeses, meat products, fruit, vegetables, and others.

Recently, a growing number of consumers have developed a remarkable sensitivity for food safety and quality, particularly with respect to the place of origin of products. This tendency has also involved the World Trade Organization (WTO) and General Agreement on
Tariffs Trade (GATT), that have recognized and regulated GIs as a form of intellectual property (Barham 2003; Teuber 2011). GIs have developed all over the world; however, higher concentrations of them can be found in some European countries: particularly, Italy, France, and Spain.

Two kinds of European GIs can be identified: Protected Designations of Origin (PDOs) and Protected Geographical Indications (PGIs). The consideration of how closely a product is related to territory is the major distinction between these two kinds of GIs (European Commission 2007). For instance, PDO implies that products are subject to more stringent conditions; it requires that the quality or the characteristics of products must be exclusively referred to natural and human factors located in the geographical area of origin; in other words, the entire production process must be carried out within the defined geographical area of origin.

PGI conditions are less stringent than those of PDO; indeed, it requires that only a part of the product quality or characteristics are attributable to the geographical area of origin.

To help consumers’ product identification with respect to other competitors, official EU logos have been introduced: respectively, a logo for PDO and a logo for PGI. In accordance with a note of the European Economic and Social Committee (EESC 2008), existing studies have demonstrated that logos and labels are still inadequate to help consumers identifying products, and might even create confusion among consumers (Teuber 2011).

Each typical food which has gained either the PDO or PGI recognition of origin is regulated by a production disciplinary. Production disciplinaries are documents which regulate and describe qualities, characteristics, the production process, and the origins of typical foods. These regulations are the primary result of the willingness of groups of local producers or operators to valorize and protect their local products.

Belletti (2000) defines this process an “institutionalization of reputation”, noting that GIs’ reputation can be protected using legal instruments that, for instance, can prevent asymmetry of information and misappropriation of benefits.

These regulations are first approved by the region and country of origin, and finally by the European Commission. After such approval, the regulation is published in the Official Journal of European Union. Registration is the final step of this process, and is a necessary condition for the official recognition of the GI.

Some scholars (e.g., Bramley, Biénabe, and Kirsten 2009; Bowen and Zapata 2009) suggest that GI protection can provide some advantages.

GIs are products that have a strong relationship with geographical, social, and cultural factors, distinguishing them from other, ‘anonymous’, mass-produced goods (Barham 2003); they also are important for European culture, identity, and heritage (Kühne et al. 2010). Consumers associate with GIs concepts such as ‘authenticity’, ‘healthy’, and ‘tradition’ (Teuber 2011). Indeed, if typical products are perceived as being of a higher quality, this might encourage and boost the improvement and the empowerment of ‘local’, ‘quality’ food systems (Van der Ploeg and Long 1994), which might be also able to charge higher prices than those of other competitors (Babcock and Clemens 2004).

European policies and scientific literature agree on the potential role of geographical indications in improving rural development (Pacciani et al. 2001; Belletti 2002; Marsden et al. 2000). Belletti et al. (2009) also consider that typical foods reinforce collective actions among producers (e.g., creating a collaborative network in which many actors work and manage the product in common, Barjolle and Sylvander 2002). Advantages related to cooperative and collaborative production have been also studied (e.g., Menard 2000).
Tourism destination

Food can present complex meanings, related to traditions, production, consumption, and sustainability (Hall and Sharples 2008; Hall and Mitchell 2001). Besides its ‘traditional’ functions, food can also be denoted by other functions such as entertainment and diffusion of cultural knowledge (Renko, Renko, and Polonijio 2010). Within this context, the strong relationship of GIs with a specific place, its culture, and its tradition has aroused a strong consumer interest, which, for example, highly values tasting products in their very place of origin (Long 2004). Several studies have demonstrated that food can be a trigger motivation for travelling (Quan and Wang 2004), thereby recognizing it as a crucial element of destination choice (Hjalager and Richards 2002). Long (1998) was the first to define the concept of food tourism: people travel to a specific destination to taste local food. The concept was later implemented by Hall and Mitchell (2001); for them, food tourism comprises not only tasting and eating food, but also getting to know food producers and operators, participating in food festivals (Hjalager and Corigliano 2000), and/or visiting wineries or typical restaurants (Schlüter and Thiel 2008).

Long (2004) describes food as a tool to explore new cultures; hence, food tourism can be assimilated to a form of cultural tourism (Lenglet 2014). As underlined by Rinaldi (2017), food and gastronomy play a fundamental role in the development of places, as they can contribute to the economic, social, and environmental sustainability. Typical and local foods are also significantly relevant with respect to the identification and the differentiation of places in global competition.

GIs, indeed, are agri-food products with unique and irreproducible characteristics (Hall and Mitchell 2003); the relationship with a specific place and culture defines the authenticity of the destination (Lee and Arcodia 2011). The result is a new image of a tourism destination: food tourism destination. In their study, Hashimoto and Telfer (2006) conclude that food of a specific place is for the food tourist essential as well as the destination. In this sense, thereby, the goal – and the challenge – is to create a strong ‘food identity’, referring to a place that can be identified as a food tourism destination (Lin, Pearson, and Cai 2011). Support might come from food-related events (like food festivals), that can contribute to regional development, and sustain local producers and local business (Du Rand, Heath, and Alberts 2003); moreover, such events might increase the reputation of a place as a destination renowned for its local food.

The philosophy of food tourist can be summarized by the expression ‘eat authentically’ rather than ‘eat well’ (Lenglet 2014), recalling the importance of appreciating food tasting it in its very zone of production. Indeed, for a tourist, tasting food immersed in the culture of a place enriches his/her experience in terms of, for example, perceived value (Tempesta et al. 2010; Mason and Paggiaro 2009). Furthermore, the tourist’s experience contributes to the appreciation of the tourism destination, and to the intention of revisiting it (Sparks, Wildman, and Bowen 2003).
Case study 57.1

The European Union (EU), among its 27 member states, has identified 3301 designations. Italy is the EU member with the highest number of GIs: with 857 GIs, Italy accounts for 26% of the total European GIs. In terms of number of GIs, Italy is followed by France (755 GIs), Spain (354 GIs), and Greece (271 GIs). Together, these countries account for 68% of the total European GIs. Origin labeling has a long tradition in the Mediterranean area. Outside Europe, China is the nation with the highest number of GIs, 10 of which belong to the food category.

GIs are steadily growing. For instance, in the ten years from 2006 to 2016, the number of food designations in EU has increased by about 102%; each year, 68 new products are registered as GIs. In 2016, 69 new GIs (belonging to the food category) have been introduced. The food sectors that account for the majority of protected foods are represented by vegetables and fruits (377), cheeses (235), meat products (182), and fresh meat (159). With respect to the wine category, in 2016 no new designations have been registered; the number of 1579 typical wines remained thus unchanged. The registration of new products allows producers and firms to gain competitive advantage (Charters et al., 2017) and to promote rural development (Everett and Aitchison 2008).

Methodology

This study focuses on Italian GIs. Typical products are divided into wines (526), foods (293), and spirits (38). In particular, two renowned typical products are analyzed, which are commonly considered as ‘ambassadors’ of Italian excellence. The first product included in this study is the world-renowned Parmesan Cheese (Formaggio Parmigiano); the second product is Prosecco wine, that in few years has obtained several recognitions.

We analyze performances of these two typical products, comparing 2014 and 2015 major trends. The data source employed in this study is the Italian ISMEA, the institute of services for the agricultural and alimentary market (Italian: Istituto di Servizi per il Mercato Agricolo Alimentare): it is a public institute devised and controlled by the Italian Ministry of Agricultural, Alimentary and Forestry policy (MIPAAF). Selected data have been retrieved in annual reports published by ISMEA analyzing the performance of the agri-food sector. Production disciplinary and consortium websites have been considered in this study as the major sources of information about the history, the characteristics, and the production process of these products.

According to the definition of food tourism from Hall and Mitchell (2001), we have considered also tourism attractions available in the territory. Moreover, we have also integrated some tourism indicators used in the work of Lorenzini, Calzati, and Giudici (2011). These indicators are the number of tourist arrivals and departures (Goodwin and Francis 2003), and each socioeconomic-cultural component that can valorize a place (Calabrò and Vieri 2014). Attention was focused on accommodation (e.g., hotels, farmhouses, and bed & breakfasts), typical restaurants, food events (fairs, markets, festivals, events), and museums. Regarding this last component, only national museums recorded by MiBACT (the Italian Ministry of Cultural Activities) have been reported, without considering local museums. This limitation has been compensated by including provincial museums retrieved through a search in the correspondent region website. The tourism indicators and their respective sources are presented in Table 57.1.

Moreover, different indicators have been mapped (see Figure 57.1) using Geographical Information System (GIS) tools, to better understand and describe the phenomena. In this
### Table 57.1 Tourism indicators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Link</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arrivals 2015</td>
<td>ISTAT</td>
<td><a href="http://www.istat.it/en/">www.istat.it/en/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presences 2015</td>
<td>ISTAT</td>
<td><a href="http://www.istat.it/en/">www.istat.it/en/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels</td>
<td>ISTAT</td>
<td><a href="http://www.istat.it/en/">www.istat.it/en/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farmhouses (agriturismi)</td>
<td>ISTAT</td>
<td><a href="http://www.istat.it/en/">www.istat.it/en/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B&amp;B</td>
<td>ISTAT</td>
<td><a href="http://www.istat.it/en/">www.istat.it/en/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairs and Markets</td>
<td>Calendario fiere internazionali</td>
<td><a href="http://www.calendariofiereinternazionali.it">www.calendariofiereinternazionali.it</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Events and Festivals</td>
<td>Eventi e sagre</td>
<td><a href="http://www.eventiesagre.it/">www.eventiesagre.it/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical Restaurants</td>
<td>Via Michelin, Gambero Rosso</td>
<td><a href="http://www.viamichelin.it/">www.viamichelin.it/</a> <a href="http://www.gamberorosso.it/en/">www.gamberorosso.it/en/</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Museums</td>
<td>MiBACT</td>
<td><a href="http://www.beniculturali.it">www.beniculturali.it</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 57.1* GIS map of Parmesan and Prosecco zones.
Stefano Ciani, M. C. Mason and Andrea Moretti

part of the study, the ArcGis 10.3 software was used, a geo-referencing software by ESRI. Literature has provided several applications of GIS in tourism; however, few of them have addressed food tourism (Singh 2015). Geo-refering is a powerful tool that can allow the study of a phenomenon considering its geographical location. In the case studies presented in this chapter, knowing the location of food events, typical restaurants, accommodations, and their respective density might be a good starting point to analyze food tourism offers. Finally, food tourism offer is compared with tourism affluence (arrivals and presences).

Case study 57.2: Parmesan cheese

Parmesan cheese (Italian: Parmigiano Reggiano) is a cooked, hard-type cheese characterized by a long period of seasoning. It is obtained from a cheese-making process using raw milk from local cows, fed mainly with local fodder. The cheese-making process takes place using such raw milk, partially skimmed by natural surface skimming. Raw milk is put in copper vats adding natural whey, allowing curd formation. The milk temperature is increased until the temperature of 37°C is reached, and curd formation takes place. A 40–45 kg wheel of cheese can be obtained from 600 kilograms of raw milk. After that, the curd is broken up and cooked at a temperature of 45°C. The curd precipitated under the vats, is transferred in molds to form and eject the serum (whey). After a few days, the cheese is put into a water and salt solution to eject the remaining serum. This step is fundamental for the seasoning period that can require from 12 to over 30 months.

Parmesan cheese has been recognized since 1996 as Protected Designation of Origin (PDO). It is one of the oldest Italian indications; however, its history is much older. In 1901, the chamber of commerce of the city of Parma (located in the Emilia-Romagna region) proposed to establish a group of producers and sellers of cheese to authenticate the origins of the product. Years later, the chambers of commerce of Parma, Mantua, Modena, and Reggio Emilia reunited to develop a tagging system for cheese. In 1928, they created a consortium of protection that today is known as Consortium of Parmigiano Reggiano Cheese (Italian: Consorzio del Parmigiano Reggiano). The main roles of the consortium are: protecting the Parmigiano Reggiano brand; promoting consumption and develop the market; and divulgate and safeguard the authenticity and typicality of the product. In addition, the consortium is actively involved in the promotion and in information dissemination about Parmesan through fairs, events, and advertising.

The zone of production and transformation of Parmesan cheese is limited to some provinces located in Northern Italy: Bologna, Parma, Modena, and Reggio Emilia (located in the Emilia–Romagna region) and Mantua (located in the Lombardy region).

From the last annual report of ISMEA, Parmesan cheese is positioned at the second place in terms of certified production (137,620 tons on 2015 with a growing trend of 3.3% with respect to 2014), and of consumption value ($2.35 billion on 2015 with a decreasing trend of 5.3% with respect to 2014). The first place is held by the Grana Padano Cheese. Together, these products account for more than 62% of total consumption value, and total certified production. Thirty-five per cent of the total production is exported. The main export markets are France and Germany for the E.U., and the United States, the United Kingdom, and Canada for the rest of the world.

Within the Parmesan zone, different forms of touristic offers are established: there are 663 hotels, 368 farmhouses, and 820 bed & breakfasts. Regarding typical foods and food events, there are 12 typical restaurants and 615 food events. Finally, two national museums and 194 local museums are present.
Case study 57.3: Prosecco wine

Prosecco is a sparkling wine obtained through the vinification of white grapes of the ‘Glera’ variety. The peculiarity of sparkling wines is that they require two fermentations: primary and secondary fermentation. As other PDO products, both the process of cultivation and vinification of grapes must take place in the established zone of origin.

The winemaking process starts with the harvesting of ripe grapes, generally taking place in August–September. Grapes are then brought in wineries, de-stemmed and crushed to separate grapes from stems, and to release juice from skins. Subsequently, they are pressed, separating juice from skins. The juice is then ready for the primary fermentation. To start primary fermentation, yeasts must be added, as they convert sugars present in juice in ethanol alcohol and dioxide carbon. Primary fermentation takes place in steel vessels for about two weeks; from this process, a base wine is obtained, characterized by a low percentage of alcohol. After the fermentation, the wine is transferred and clarified several times. The secondary fermentation takes place about 4–6 months after harvesting. It consists of developing bubbles and of improving the wine flavor; to accomplish this, sugars and yeasts are added. Secondary fermentation takes place in steel vessels, resisting the high pressure developed by yeasts. After this fermentation, which can take 20–30 days, wine is ready to be bottled.

Prosecco wine has been recognized as a PDO since 2009. The zone of production is located between two Italian regions: Veneto and Friuli-Venezia Giulia, both located in North-East Italy. The origins of Prosecco are ancient: traces of this wine can be found in some documents dated back to the 1600s. In these documents, some references can be found regarding a white, soft, fresh wine coming from a little town near Trieste (the capital city of the Friuli-Venezia Giulia region), a town named, properly, Prosecco. This town still exists, allowing the extension of the geographical area of Prosecco wine.

During the 1700s and the 1800s, Prosecco was cultivated in some areas of the Veneto region, in particular on the hills of Valdobbiadene (an area located in the Veneto region), where in 1969 the first protected designation of origin ‘Prosecco di ConeglianoValdobbiadene’ was introduced. After that, the cultivation of ‘Glera’ grapes extended to the plain zones of the Veneto and Friuli-Venezia Giulia regions until today. The Italian literature provides several contributions about Prosecco wine, and wine communication (Moretti and Brandi 2014; De Luca, Mason, and Nassivera 2009).

Analyzing the last report of ISMEA, it can be observed that 27,000 hectares are devoted to Glera vineyards, with a production amounting to 2.6 million hectoliters (a production increase of 19.3% with respect to 2014). Italy is the first producer in the world (more than 50 million hectoliters) and the second exporter with 24 million hectoliters. The export is worth $6.6 billion. The major export markets are the United States, Germany, United Kingdom, and Canada.

Veneto and Friuli-Venezia Giulia regions provide rich tourism offers. Thanks to the presence of seaside locations and, at the same time, to the presence of some of the most appreciated Italian mountains, landscape attracts many tourists and offers different kinds of touristic opportunities. There are many hotels (more than 3,000), mostly concentrated on the coastline. The hinterland is characterized by a rural landscape: here, many farmhouses (901) and bed & breakfasts (2657) are present. Food tourism exhibits a remarkable relevance, with 41 typical restaurants and more than 650 food events. Regarding cultural tourism, there are 71 national museums and 321 provincial museums.
Table 57.2 Tourism results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zone</th>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Food Events</th>
<th>Restaurants</th>
<th>Accommodations</th>
<th>Nat. Mus. (local)</th>
<th>Arrivals</th>
<th>Presences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parmesan Zone</td>
<td>Parma</td>
<td>118,00</td>
<td>3,00</td>
<td>543,00</td>
<td>0 + (72)</td>
<td>687964,00</td>
<td>1674468,00</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reggio Emila</td>
<td>126,00</td>
<td>2,00</td>
<td>338,00</td>
<td>0 + (41)</td>
<td>284762,00</td>
<td>552741,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Modena</td>
<td>71,00</td>
<td>4,00</td>
<td>554,00</td>
<td>1 + (64)</td>
<td>494448,00</td>
<td>1210416,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mantova</td>
<td>304,00</td>
<td>2,00</td>
<td>416,00</td>
<td>1 + (17)</td>
<td>244548,00</td>
<td>525091,00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Prosecco Zone</td>
<td>Gorizia</td>
<td>295,00</td>
<td>1,00</td>
<td>232,00</td>
<td>1 + (22)</td>
<td>365718,00</td>
<td>1475231,00</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Trieste</td>
<td>22,00</td>
<td>0,00</td>
<td>250,00</td>
<td>2 + (43)</td>
<td>415647,00</td>
<td>978180,00</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Udine</td>
<td>199,00</td>
<td>5,00</td>
<td>975,00</td>
<td>4 + (79)</td>
<td>1226667,00</td>
<td>4991487,00</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pordenone</td>
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<td>1 + (31)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>3,00</td>
<td>702,00</td>
<td>10 + (37)</td>
<td>1726306,00</td>
<td>5065377,00</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Belluno</td>
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<td>7,00</td>
<td>839,00</td>
<td>10 + (23)</td>
<td>874288,00</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Treviso</td>
<td>56,00</td>
<td>6,00</td>
<td>705,00</td>
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<td>865364,00</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Venezia</td>
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<td>19 + (26)</td>
<td>8652195,00</td>
<td>34186544,00</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Vicenza</td>
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<td>13 + (40)</td>
<td>675017,00</td>
<td>1803514,00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Geographical indications and tourism

With respect to tourism influences, we consider the arrivals and presences in the Parmesan production zone and the Prosecco production zone, divided for each province (see Table 57.2) respectively. Table 57.2 summarizes the data presented on the above map. Focusing on food indicators, high numbers of food events and typical restaurants correspond – although not always – to high numbers of arrivals. Mantua and Gorizia are the provinces with the highest number of food events; however, tourism arrivals tend to be low. Moreover, high numbers of accommodations (hotel, B&B, farmhouses) correspond to high numbers of arrivals. The case of museums is remarkable: the highest concentration can be found in Veneto provinces, where, however, there is the lowest number of food events (except for Vicenza).

Conclusion

This chapter helps to understand the peculiarities that characterize a typical food. According to the literature, we have described step-by-step how it is possible to transform a tourism destination. The techniques of production are briefly described and some economic results of Parmesan cheese and Prosecco wine are explained. In the empirical part of this chapter, using GIS tools support, we mapped the typical food production zones, including several tourism indicators.

From this research, it is possible to create a framework of empirical relations between the typical foods and their territorial context in terms of touristic structures, tourism activities, and tourism demand behavior. From a managerial point of view, spatial referring allows defining the initial elements of a system to support decisions for operators employed in the typical products valorization, and for destination marketing organizations (Testa, Cantone, and Risitano 2007). For a territorial operator, it could be crucial to know the potential of its territory, and so to choose which managerial decisions to adopt to improve attractiveness and tourism offer of that territory. Furthermore, the capability to integrate new information steadily in the spatial referring system allows the development of a more detailed view of the territory, helping to manage it more efficiently.

References


Geographical indications and tourism


CELEBRITY CHEFS AND LUXURY HOTELS

The influence of personal branding on marketing strategies

Girish Prayag and Valentine de Cellery d’Allens

Introduction

Food and beverages are a critical aspect of the hospitality product (Prayag, Khoo-Lattimore, and Sitruk 2015). Food and beverages have become an increasingly common way for luxury hotels to differentiate and position themselves in the accommodation and hospitality sectors. Given the importance of food, and the popularization of chefs through TV shows, cooking schools, books and social media, among others, it is of no surprise that chefs have become very influential in the accommodation industry. For example, the rise of celebrity chefs (e.g., Jamie Oliver and Gordon Ramsay) provide credence to the fact that chefs are not only cooking but also doing business, public relations, and brand endorsement, as well as enhancing their own image and reputation through personal branding. However, Hansen (2008) argues that celebrity chefs, like Hollywood stars, are overwhelmingly media products, implying an arbitrary relationship between food and celebrity. At times, there is alignment between the type of food and the chef endorsing it, but at others, this relationship is purely financial. Nonetheless, celebrity chefs are increasingly transforming their names into brands (Henderson 2011), leading to the rise of the phenomenon of personal branding among chefs.

Personal branding is a planned process in which people make efforts to market themselves (Khedher 2014) through an attempt to differentiate themselves and stand out from a crowd by identifying and articulating their unique value proposition (Schawbel 2009). Through personal branding, individuals can enhance their recognition as experts in their field, establish reputation and credibility, advance their careers, and build self-confidence (Schawbel 2009). It is thus not uncommon in the hospitality industry for hotels and restaurant to capitalize on the personal branding of their chefs to market their hospitality offer. For example, the luxury Mandarin Oriental Hotel in Paris chose the famous chef Thierry Marx for launching its restaurant. Other examples include famous chefs such as Philippe Etchebest who manages the restaurant at Hostellerie de Plaisance (Relais and Châteaux group), Jean-François Piège at the Hotel-Restaurant Thoumieux, and Gordon Ramsay who is the Chef at the Trianon Palace. It is clear that the reputation of these celebrity chefs is sought after by
Celebrity chefs and luxury hotels

Hotels and luxury hotels have become key players in the launch of new products, restaurants, and hotels. Partnerships between chefs and hotels have become a global expansion strategy for many restaurant and hotel chains. Hence, the choice of the chef for a hotel’s restaurant is a strategic decision. Increasingly the chef’s own reputation and personal branding, the reputation of the hotel’s restaurant, and the reputation of the hotel itself are increasingly linked, yet the complexities and dynamics inherent in this link are not well understood from a business strategy perspective. Accordingly, the purpose of this chapter is to evaluate how the image and personal branding of a chef influences different aspects of hotel business strategy, with a focus on marketing and operational aspects. The chapter uses a case study based on Alain Ducasse and Hôtel Plaza Athénée to illustrate the complexity and dynamics of the relationship between celebrity chefs and luxury hotels. The chapter outlines the direct and indirect leverage of the personal branding of the chef for the hotel success.

Hôtel Plaza Athénée and Alain Ducasse

The Hôtel Plaza Athénée is a historic ‘Palace’, located in Paris close to the world-famous Avenue des Champs-Élysées. Since 1911, this five-star hotel has been a symbol of luxury, fashion, elegance, and innovation, with a strong Parisian identity and a warm color code, the “Plaza’s red”, which is the dominant color of the hotel. The Hôtel Plaza Athénée is part of the Dorchester Collection, launched in 2006, and successor of the Dorchester Group created in 1996. As of 2016, the group includes ten five-star luxury hotels across Europe and USA. With more than 520 employees, the Hôtel Plaza Athénée offers 154 rooms and 54 suites of different categories. The hotel also includes three exclusive suites: the Royal Suite (450 m²), the Eiffel Suites, and the Signature Eiffel Suites with a direct view on the Eiffel Tower (130 m²). The public rates range from €755 for a simple room to €25,000 for the Royal Suite per night.

Five gastronomic restaurants, four talented and well-known chefs, and one of the most innovative bars of the French Capital provide proof of the importance of culinary arts and reputation for the success of the hotel. The food and ambience concepts of the four restaurants are supervised by the most star-rated chef in the world, Alain Ducasse. He also makes decisions related to decoration and recruitment of the staff at the hotel’s restaurants. This collaboration between Alain Ducasse and Hôtel Plaza Athénée started more than 15 years ago and at that time it was considered surprising by the hospitality sector, given that the activity of food and beverage, and to some extent the chefs themselves, did not have an important role in business strategy of the hotel. Since then, the growing interest and curiosity of customers and the general public in the world of chefs and the mysterious kitchens of those luxury hotels have brought to the forefront the collaborations between celebrity chefs and luxury hotels.

Alain Ducasse is not only a chef but also a businessman heading approximately 27 restaurants in eight countries with more than 1400 employees and 20 Michelin stars. He has been ranked as the 94th most influential person in the world by Forbes magazine. His international company includes his restaurants, a school in Paris, various books, a catering service for event companies, and training and consulting activity, among others. At Hôtel Plaza Athénée, Alain Ducasse is the executive chef of the five restaurants supported by other well-known French chefs. The Hôtel Plaza Athénée had also benefited from the Pastry Chef Christophe Michalak who won the Pastry World Championship in 2003, Meilleur Ouvrier de France (2007) but he left the hotel in 2016.
Personal branding and chefs

According to Henderson (2011), the phenomenon of ‘celebrity chefs’ started in North America, mainly due to TV shows that have cultivated awareness and dissemination of fame of these so-called extraordinary chefs. Even if the career of every chef is different, the construction of these ‘well-known public figures’ seems to have common threads. Henderson (2011) describes the basis of their success as culinary skills, often practiced in the chef’s own restaurant and signified by accolades, and personality. As their own reputation and that of their restaurant become established, comes the time for restaurant diversification with often more than one restaurant of a different style or category. This multiplication of restaurants often leads to the internationalization of the chef and his/her activity. They also engage in extensive personal branding transforming their names and restaurants into brands and extending those to branded lines of food and drink, kitchen utensils, and household goods (Henderson 2011). Both traditional media and social media are critical in brand creation for these chefs as they play an important role in generating awareness and preferences.

The rise of personal branding among chefs is not surprising, given that the cost structures in the restaurant industry induce rigidities, which in turn limit the margins that any particular restaurant can generate. As a result, many chefs develop complementary activities and side-projects (Surlemont et al. 2005), for which personal branding is important. For example, merchandizing is an important source of revenue and works well if the personal brand of the chef is strong and well-communicated to customers. The more successful chefs merchandise anything from cookbooks, to perfumes, ties, hats, scarves, or tableware to ready-made dishes sold in ‘boutique’ grocery stores. Of importance also are all the other activities of the chefs outside of the restaurant, such as consulting for industrial cooking companies or supermarket chains, opening up mid-range or even down-market restaurants, taking part in TV shows or commercials, or regularly writing for newspapers. These contribute to build the personal brand, but can also weaken it. Not all chefs have the same revenue strategy, and they don’t use all of the options available to them. Some only focus on the ‘core business’, which appears to be more prestigious, some do a ‘full diversification’ using all the sources of revenue which is the most profitable, and finally, some do partial diversification, which is less profitable, but also less risky (Surelmont et al. 2005).

Though the image and reputation of a chef has a real impact on the success of a restaurant, his/her way of working and culture also plays an important role in this process (Surelmont and Johnson 2005). As Balazs (2002) observed, the leadership role of a chef impacts their staff, their way of cooking and as a consequence what comes out of the kitchen. There is no specific literature on how collaborations between a chef and a hotel’s restaurant result in negative equity, given that success stories are predominant in the media. However, it can be assumed that if a chef can be the reason of a restaurant success, he/she can also be the reason of a restaurant failure. Through bad strategic choices in terms of offer, menu, prices, positioning, and other operational aspects, the chef can undermine the success of a restaurant. Similarly, if the success of a restaurant can have an important impact on a chef’s reputation, a failure can also badly damage his image and make it harder to secure a future job in a restaurant. With celebrity chefs, there is an inherent assumption that success will come to those restaurants that associate themselves with such celebrities.
Case study 58.1: The personal brand of Alain Ducasse

Based on five in-depth interviews with hotel managers including the Co-Director of the Hôtel Plaza Athénée, Food and Beverage Manager, Director of Sales and Marketing, Deputy Manager of Human Resources, Director of Special Events, and Front of House Manager, the personal brand of Alain Ducasse was identified. All the interviews were held on site and generally lasted between 30 minutes to an hour. The interviews were conducted in the French language, tape-recorded, and transcribed into English. According to the managers, the success of the personal brand of Alain Ducasse is related to three characteristics: innovation/creativity, perfectionism, and management style.

The first characteristic, innovation and creativity, stems from Alain Ducasse’s experience in the gastronomy field and beyond with his own company epitomizing innovation. As the Food and Beverage manager pointed out, Alain Ducasse’s world-wide travels fuels his creativity in terms of new discoveries of flavors, techniques, products etc. This benefits his restaurants and the hotel. For example, for the 10th anniversary of the restaurant, Alain Ducasse au Plaza Athénée, the celebrity chef changed the vision of his three-star restaurant by coming back to what he calls ‘the essentials’. The concept meant coming back to the basics, with instant cooking, where the original product is highlighted. As the F&B manager pointed out “this was a brilliant innovation because it seems paradoxical to the concept of innovation but going back to the basics implies getting rid of everything superficial.” This positioning of the restaurant was well-aligned with the motto of the hotel, which is to bring innovation by maintaining the authenticity.

The second characteristic that imbues the personal brand of Alain Ducasse is that he is a perfectionist, who always focuses on quality and excellence. When the managers spoke of him, they described not only his quest for perfection, but also discipline and consistency which are required from chefs. This perfection also translates into recruitment, for example, as the special event manager explained: “It’s not only the person but his way of making people become loyal, the way he finds the good and right people for the job … he has the gift of surrounding himself with the best people.” The third characteristic is related to his management style. Alain Ducasse is not only a famous and excellent chef, or a successful businessman, he is also a great manager. Indeed, the managers used words such as “leadership”, “tutoring”, and “attentive” to describe his management style. His management style was described as efficient based on several qualities: his talent to find the best employees for the restaurant, the training he provides, including ability to delegate, the way he manages people, and the coaching that he provides. As one of the managers mentioned, “he [Alain Ducasse] does everything for people to grow, to be able to do things themselves, and to express what they do best. He manages to make sure that everyone expresses their talent through his recipes of course, and benefits from his expertise and advice.”

The hotel and Alain Ducasse

As the F&B Manager explained, “complexity” is the word to use when describing the relationship between Alain Ducasse and the hotel. The notion of complexity comes from the fact that Alain Ducasse is a large ‘company’ in itself with very different activities, and this company is also involved with various activities of the hotel, including strategy, reputation, and image management. Given that he is in charge of all the food and beverage activity of the Hôtel
Girish Prayag and Valentine de Cellery d'Allens

Plaza Athénée, his personal image and that of the hotel are linked, along with the image of his company and that of the hotel. As one of the managers said “it’s amazing to work with such a partner [Alain Ducasse and his company], but this creates both constraints and opportunities.” In terms of opportunities, he [Alain Ducasse] enriches the hotel with everything he sees and discovers around the world in terms of food and beverage, bringing a sense of renewal and modernity to the place. As one of the managers said “we are a palace of 100 years old, we are very heavy in the best sense, very sturdy, we have roots, a history, an experience, and Ducasse gives this little touch of madness because he is very dynamic, that dynamism in terms of catering, bar, food etc.” In essence, there is a complementarity between what the hotel stands for and the personal values and identity of the celebrity chef.

In addition to this notion of complementarity, the interviews revealed a strong sense of belonging and symbolism linking Alain Ducasse with the hotel. One of the managers compared the symbolism with what the southern French accent represents to the south of France, and the flavors associated with the cuisine of Provence. Alain Ducasse defines this region and its cuisine, so the attributes associated with this cuisine and people from this part of France (pride) have ‘rubbed off’ on how people perceive the hotel. The Co-Director of the hotel summed up the outcome of the relationship between Alain Ducasse and Hôtel Plaza Athénée as “1+1=3”. For the managers, he is part of the DNA of the hotel, and as a consequence, he is part of the hotel brand and global strategy.

The personal brand as direct leverage for the hotel

It is not surprising that the brand Alain Ducasse is the direct selling and differentiating point for food and beverage at the hotel. His name is the main reason why people come to the different restaurants. As mentioned previously, he supervises and validates menus, creations, and food events, so that for the customers, there is a real guarantee that they are eating Alain Ducasse’s creations. This equity of the brand name is proven by the financial results of the hotel. As explained by the Food and Beverage manager, “the Food & Beverage activity was losing money before Alain Ducasse arrived, and then he came, the turnover exploded. Even if F&B is not an extraordinary profit center for the hotel, it still contributes, undeniably bringing revenue to the hotel.” The Alain Ducasse brand name also serves as direct leverage for selling rooms at the hotel. While not all customers will dine at the restaurants, there is a proportion of customers who book rooms because they want to dine at Alain Ducasse restaurants. The location of the hotel near the Eiffel Tower, and the fact that the most booked restaurant in Paris is the Jules Verne at the Eiffel Tower, which is a Ducasse-branded restaurant, confers commercial advantage on the hotel that cannot be replicated by competitors. There are synergies between the hotel, its own restaurants, and Jules Verne that make the hotel offer very attractive.

In addition to the restaurants and the rooms, Alain Ducasse is also a direct selling point for the hotel’s events. Given the reputation and image of Alain Ducasse, people who want to organize a special event believe that he can add real added value to their event. Exceptionally, it may also happen that the Plaza Athénée will sell Alain Ducasse in person, for private or personal events where he will be in charge of the catering. As we are in the business of luxury, there are clients who are willing to pay to have the exclusivity of the Alain Ducasse brand name. However, as rightly pointed out by the Front of House manager, the direct selling point of using Alain Ducasse is a double-edged sword. If customers do not understand the cuisine, or have very different expectations, or expect that they will be eating what Alain Ducasse has prepared rather than what the kitchen team has prepared, they can be disappointed. In such cases, the brand name has an opposite effect on the reputation of the hotel.
Celebrity chefs and luxury hotels

Indirect leverage of the personal brand for the hotel

The personal brand of Alain Ducasse is an indirect leverage for the hotel in many different ways. First, in terms of hotel image, people like to come because of Alain Ducasse. This was well-illustrated by the comment of one of the managers: “a swimming pool in a hotel, we do not necessarily use it but we know it is there. … Ducasse is the same, though he might not be physically present, his charisma and reputation can be felt by both employees and customers throughout the hotel.” Second, his brand name covers financial leverage. As one of the managers mentioned, “his name is our strength, the food and beverage is not what bring us the most money, but this is what enables us to operate at 100% in terms of hospitality.” His name serves as leverage for occupancy rates and in terms of the average daily rate charged to customers. The basics of a luxury hotel combined with Alain Ducasse is a real point of differentiation for the hotel that makes customers willing to pay more to go to the Plaza Athénée. It is a source of competitive advantage.

Due to Alain Ducasse’s important role in the food and beverage activity of the hotel, his personal brand is also used as part of the sales and marketing strategy. Indeed, as explained previously, food and beverages play an important role in the image of hotels; it is part of the strategy and positioning. As one of the managers illustrated, “he is part of the image we convey, he is an asset, so he is naturally included in the tactical marketing strategy, and in the corporate and public relations strategy.” It is clear that Alain Ducasse is used constantly as part of the communication strategy of the hotel. For example, in the human resources department, the name Alain Ducasse is conveyed in recruitment strategies to signify reputation and talent. Finally, Alain Ducasse is also integrated in the broader marketing and operational strategies of the hotel. For example, when Alain Ducasse became the chef of the Parisian restaurant La Tour d’Argent in the Eiffel Tower, the Plaza Athénée used this to sell the suites with a view on the Eiffel Tower by giving a guarantee to have a table at the restaurant. Another example from the Front of House Manager is that “any customer who arrives is accompanied to his room, and on the way, we show the different restaurants, and we showcase Alain Ducasse of course. So Alain Ducasse is announced each time and more than once during the stay. It’s such an integral part of the hotel that we [employees] do not even realize it anymore.”

The personal brand as a negotiation tool

The brand name Alain Ducasse also serves as a powerful negotiating tool with suppliers, distributors, or even clients of the hotel. From the outset, it is clear that Hôtel Plaza Athénée does not really negotiate in terms of prices. If there is negotiation, the negotiation will be more about quality rather than prices as illustrated by the following quotes: “to guarantee the quality of our experience, we have the best products and we pay the price. At the Plaza we won’t have a problem to pay for the best products. It really is a religion and even more in three-star restaurants, it’s not a price negotiation, it is a negotiation of quality.” (Food & Beverage Manager/Co-Director) “They want the best products, I think they are willing to pay, I do not know if there is negotiation, what they want is the beauty and freshness of the product” (Deputy Manager of Human Resources).

The personal brand has also an impact on relationships developed by the hotel with its suppliers. Indeed, the pride of providing the best products and service to an Alain Ducasse restaurant is in itself a good reference for suppliers. For example, as the Sales and Marketing director said, “a great vegetable supplier will be seduced by the idea of promoting his products through Alain Ducasse and the Plaza Athénée. By supplying one of the most prestigious Parisian hotels
and restaurants can bring fame and reputation for the supplier.” Business relationships are also perceived as being more efficient as many suppliers want to have Alain Ducasse and the Plaza Athénée as customers.

Conclusion

The chapter has provided an insight into how a particular celebrity chef influences both marketing and operational strategies at a luxury hotel. Celebrity chefs have influence beyond the kitchen at luxury hotels. From the findings, it is clear that communication and public relations strategies are very much influenced by the brand name of the celebrity chef. By integrating and aligning the personal brand name of the chef with the hotel brand name, a hotel has a source of competitive advantage. As shown in this chapter, the values underpinning the reputation of the chef ultimately get assimilated in the organizational culture of the hotel. The personal brand name serves directly and indirectly as leverage for several activities and strategic decisions at the hotel. More importantly, price premiums can be charged by luxury hotels who can secure the endorsement of celebrity chefs.

References

Introduction

In recent times, as a result of a habits diversification driven by an increasingly sophisticated demand (Richards 2012), we have observed a change in the ways of which food is consumed, especially in terms of gastronomic events. The spectacularization of food consumption and the commercialization of food festivals and fairs (Haynes 2015) are therefore the basis of two new and innovative tasting formats, such as food trucks and temporary restaurants. Both of these concepts bring innovation in terms of gastronomic tourism proposals, by shaping new kinds of food experiences, since the consumption of food becomes itself the central and not a marginal moment in a tourist experience. If food trucks are born with the goal of bringing into the street and carrying along multiple stops some gastronomic specialties (most of the time unknown to the general public but with a great local relevance), the temporary restaurants – more recently emerged – constitute an attempt to ‘animate gastronomically’ a place (whether it is an art gallery, a shop, a library, a seafront etc.) through chefs’ culinary skills, which – in most cases – are looking for an opportunity for visibility, especially considering the much lower management costs if compared to a traditional restaurant. Although arising under different conditions, these two concepts share as main features temporariness and space mobility; they can last for a day, a weekend, a week, a month, or just for a specific gastronomic festival, and they can be found in different places from time to time. In this way, food trucks and temporary restaurants definitely create something like limited-time foodsapes.

The innovation in tourism-related business performances

The relationship between tourism and economic growth is widely accepted in the literature, by identifying such an interdependence between the tourism development and a recovery/spread of overall economic activity, both in mature touristic destinations and in emerging ones (Hall, Mitchell, and Sharples 2003; Hummel and van der Duim 2012; Thomas-Francois, von Massow, and Joppe 2017; Dogru and Bulut 2017). It is also claimed that tourism sector is strongly characterized by a high degree of innovativeness of multiple kinds; Hjalager (2010) outlined some essential preconditions regarding product or service, process, managerial, management, and institutional innovations. In particular, as for the product or service innovation...
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preconditions, it is essential to introduce the novelty element in the consumer experience, by referring to something never seen or experienced before in other contexts, in order to influence purchase decision when the innovation becomes perceptible to tourists. This assumption becomes particularly significant when we refer to touristic experiences grounded into the innovating framework of experience economy, coined by Pine and Gilmore (1998). Several authors have provided theoretical and empirical evidence strengthening the concept in a lot of tourism applications: Ek et al. (2008), for example, states that kinds of gastronomy-related businesses might be managed in a way that the consumption activity switches from a mere service to a memorable and exciting experience, where the venue of the business should be perceived as a factory of atmosphere; other authors (Oh, Fiore, and Yeong 2007) found that the experience dimensions applied to the bed & breakfast market segment have a structural consistence, where in particular the esthetic measurement item explains the most variance in the model predicting tourist’s arousal, memory, overall perceived quality and customer satisfaction; also in wine tourism issues, the constructs of the experience economy are useful to address managerial decisions: Quadri-Felitti and Fiore (2012), in reviewing applications of the four realms model in wine tourism literature, found that esthetics was a critical path in most of studies and, in particular for what concerns winescapes, engaging tourists through novelty, authenticity, and sensory activities was successful in various winery settings. Also concerning wine tourism, a simple but efficient categorization was provided by Johnson (1998), who divided wine tourists into generalists and specialists: generalists were tourists who had experienced wineries, wine festivals, and similar just for recreation, while specialists were tourists, not only for recreation, but with the specific interest in wine-related phenomena. As for innovation in restaurant management, numerous and recent studies have recognized the importance of this precondition for enhancing and improving business performances: Lee, Hallak, and Sardeshmukh (2016) found that high performing restaurants are more able to determinate higher levels of success due to implementing innovations in service, process and management; the innovative organizational culture (concerning features of challenging, creative, enterprising, stimulating and driving) is supposed to have positive impact in improving restaurants’ business performance also in the study of Jogaratnam (2017), who states that innovative culture is a better predictor in restaurant performances rather than market-oriented strategies; the dimensions of creativity and aesthetics are also pivotal in the findings of Horng et al. (2013) in assessing the innovative dining atmosphere of restaurants: through a mixed method combining Delphi and content analysis, they found that the ‘novelty’ item in restaurant management has the main weight explaining the creativity dimension, just as the ‘beautiful’ and the ‘culture’ and ‘fashion’ outline similar weights in explaining the aesthetic dimension, by suggesting restaurant managers promote a creative feeling for space design strictly through novelty and encourage the merger of fashion and traditional elements to increase aesthetic. Not only organizational and physical characteristics are addressed to be critical in assessing restaurant performances, Filimonau et al. (2017) explored the design of menus in UK restaurants and found that displaying food provenance, and nutritional and calorific values is a determinant able to affect the consumers’ choice, suggesting managers to reinforce the public vision of ‘carbon footprint’ in their menu design, in which are labelled more factual information about the foods supplied. Innovative capabilities (in terms of developing new dishes, using modern equipment and utensils coming from other countries, updating menus regularly, adopting international best practices) are one of the major thematic emerged in the study of African-ethnic restaurants (Otengei et al. 2017), in which the authors demonstrate how the level of inward internationalization (expressed by the capacity of attracting new and repeated food tourists) is influenced by the degree of technological adaptation performed by restaurants.
The novelty-seeking in food tourists’ experiences: a literature review

The sociology of food has always faced the dualism between individuals disliking unfamiliar dishes or foodstuffs and individuals always looking for novel and strange food, but in the case of tourists looking for new experiences is not surprising to see how the trip is able to stimulate their ‘neophile’ tendencies in trying unusual dishes and beverages (Cohen and Avieli 2004). As for the food consumption experiences, Quan and Wang (2004) have conceptualized a structural model clarifying the ambiguities that exist in explaining tourism experiences, by classifying them into supporting consumer experiences and peak touristic experiences; they first analyzed separately the features of the two kinds of experiences, later analyzing each other in relation to the daily experience. By considering that both types of food experiences can and should be integrated into the daily experience, they identified the differences depending of the weight of the major motivation for travel: if food consumption represents the simple extension of the food habits formed at home, it can be seen as the supporting experience to tourists to complete their main purpose of travel, which probably provides major motivation in other kinds of attractions; on the other hand, when the food consumption or experiencing a particular preparation or serving of food represent the sole motivation, or is among the major motivations, for travel, it becomes the peak moment into the touristic experience. The authors explain this turn from supporting experience to peak experiences by identifying two types of consumer behavior: when the quest for food is within the range of daily or weekly routines, the consumer is a routine variety-seeking, while if tourists are looking for food experiences that are beyond the boundaries of the routine and familiar, the consumer becomes a novelty variety-seeking. In outlining the main features of food and beverage management, Wood (2007) highlights the importance of experiential dimension in tourism issues in recognizing the still-existing survivor of the findings of Campbell-Smith (1967), among the first to coin the concept of ‘meal experience’, through which he explained that the quality of food and beverage alone were not enough to satisfy the tourist dining out experience, but rather the quality of service and the ambience of restaurant were core intangible elements in attracting customer’s motivations. For example, a qualitative analysis of the local food perception by Russian tourists in the Finland region of Savo (Mynttinen et al. 2015) confirms such preconditions and reveals that food consumption on holidays is perceived as a change to everyday routines, in which the seeking for novel and authentic food experiences is a valuable element in capturing tourists’ preferences; in addition, they found that more than 40% of respondents had paid a visit to local restaurants or cafes between two to five times during their holiday period in Savo region, while more than 30% would buy local food products more often if the place in which them are supplied is an unusual or not daily context, confirming the centrality of food consumption in tourism. But innovation is not only a precondition to improve business in tourism, it is also a measure of the expressed quality: Erkuş-Öztürk and Terhorst (2016) analyzed empirically the innovativeness performances of restaurants in the mass tourism city of Antalya (Turkey) and they found that the more the restaurants perform innovations in product and service, the higher will be the quality perceived by tourists; in particular, on the basis of four research hypotheses, they state that higher-quality restaurants are more innovative than lower-quality ones, restaurants visited by locals and tourists show more willingness to innovate than restaurants visited only by locals or tourists, higher-quality restaurants are mainly located in unusual places and mixed areas rather than ‘passers-by’ streets, in which are located more standardized restaurants. It appears quite evident from this study that
tourists who are looking for peak food consumption experiences are the ones more inclined to experience innovation in food consumption, and just for this reason, they are willing to search for higher-quality restaurants and food novelty also beyond the boundaries of mass tourism delimitations in urban areas. The search for unexplored gastronomies or food specialties also represents an opportunity for attracting visitors into tourism destinations; as noted by Alderighi, Bianchi, and Lorenzini (2016), local foodies do have an important role in promoting mountain areas: through a multivariate probit model they identify some main components concerning the promotional role of a local food specialty, where they firstly recognize the existence of a correlation between local food products and the intention to visit or revisit a mountain destination, and later they clarify whether these specialties produce effects of market-expanding or business stealing. In particular, they argue that experiencing particular specialties (in this case Bresaola, Pizzoccheri, Fontina, Melinda, and Speck) induces visitors to come back to the destinations, and this is particularly true when the tourist has a precise identification of a product’s place of origin. These findings confirm the assumptions that tourists are willing to travel when they seek for ‘not daily’ gastronomies that are among the major motivations. International literature explored the role of gastronomies not only in terms of attracting visitors towards a destination but also for what concerns the planning of food-based marketing strategies for tourism destination. This is what emerges from the study of Lin and Mao (2015), in which they have analyzed the role of food in souvenirs selling: while being generally identified as a gift related to a specific place, in recent years, food products have become a source of place identity and the commercialization as food souvenirs is defined by the authors as the “tangible proof of tourists’ intangible traveling and dining experiences” (Lin and Mao 2015:20). In particular, by identifying three dimensions for food souvenirs (sensory, utility, and symbol appraisal), they stressed the authenticity of local foods as a symbol of the location and a culture of a certain destination. The utilization of food products as a souvenir is more and more often habitual not only in common tourism experiences, but it is also spread in food festivals participations, in which consumers export their food experience by using the same food as a souvenir. The popularity of food products as souvenirs is also confirmed by Chen and Huang (2016) in the case study of Chongqing (China), whereby they found that local food delicacies represent for tourist a clear place marker of the visited destination and in the visitors’ during-travel stage, they also found that visiting restaurants, buying food products on food routes, and visiting celebrity chefs configure very important activities. Indeed by considering local food festivals, Vajirakachorn and Chongwatpol (2017), in dividing visitors by clusters, have individuated as one of the worthwhile dimension for participating in local festivals in Thailand the quality of food products supplied to the festival and the possibility to have new experiences; subsequently, through a stepwise logistic regression, they predict that one of the reasons that most influence the decision to revisit the festival is the possibility to ‘learn new culture’, a hypothesis which is confirmed by a more complex polynomial logistic regression in which the results show that visitors who have participated in order to have new experiences are the ones with the highest likelihood to attend the festival again. Escapism and educational dimensions are also recognized by Mnguni and Giampiccoli (2016) in discussing community-based tourism, in which they identify the opportunity for tourists to participate in cooking activities alongside host community members and the opportunity to exchange food experience between hosts and tourists as experiential instruments to enhance chances of growing in disadvantaged communities’ development.
Case study 59.1: ‘Napoli Pizza Village’ food experience: a content analysis approach

The ‘Napoli Pizza Village’ event is recognized to be one of the worldwide largest temporary restaurants, with the theme of the authentic Pizza of Naples tradition. The event takes place for ten days every year starting from 2011, normally at the beginning of June (inaugurating the summer season), and one of the most suggestive and charming seafronts of Naples (Lungomare ‘Caracciolo’) is animated by the flavors, lights, and tastes of about 50 of the most historical pizzerias of Naples, which are positioned side by side fronting the Caracciolo seafront. The setting hosting the (mega) temporary ‘village of pizza’ involves about 30,000 square meters in which every pizzeria provides one specific pizza, for a total of about 50 different pizzas available for visitors’ tastes. Being supported by a lot of national sponsorships, the event is also animated by the performances of numerous Italian and foreign music celebrities, which alternate themselves on the stage during the entire stay of the festival. The concept of the NPV is a real merge of innovation, experiential, and attractiveness: the visitors (most coming from the entire Campania region and neighboring regions, but also with growing cases of people coming from other Italian and European regions) are offered not only the possibility to taste the best pizzas of Naples surroundings, but also the possibility to experience the culinary traditions, the ambience and the majesty of Naples, one of the most attractive Italian tourism destinations. Estimates coming from the last edition of 2017 talk about 815,000 visitors and more than 100,000 pizzas supplied, confirming that the innovative format of temporary restaurant represents a real and efficient enhancer for tourism destinations. In order to set this case study into the literature above discussed, a content analysis was conducted on over 100 reviews of visitors who have participated in the event. As for the methodology, from the 1,201 total words extracted by the visitors’ reviews, 92 words were coded as focal and classified into four macro-dimensions: food, setting, experience, and organizational. From Table 59.1, it is possible to see how the total frequency of macro-dimensions was 644, where the most spread one was food (216), similar frequencies for setting (174) and experience (154), and lower frequency for organizational (100).

In particular, from Figure 59.1, it is possible to observe that the food-related dimension (mentioning elements like pizzas’ characteristics, eating habits, names of the historical pizzerias of Naples and adjectives indicating the tastes of pizzas) cover the 33.5% of the codified frequencies, the setting-related dimension had 27% of frequency (indicating elements referring to the physical context in which the NPV took place, such as the view or seafront, and adjectives about the architectonic environment involved into the event), the experience-related dimension accounted

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Frequency (n°)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Food-related</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>33.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Setting-related</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>27.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Experience-related</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>23.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Organizational-related</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>15.53</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>644</td>
<td>100</td>
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</tbody>
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Source: Author’s elaboration.
for the 23.9% of the total frequency (experience, event, show, atmosphere, evening, exhibition and entertainment were the most frequent words named by participants’ reviews), while the organizational-related dimension accounted for the 15.53% (the most frequent words in this case were organization, stand, service, staff, advertising and promotion).

The findings coming from this content analysis are in line with the current literature about the main features in gastronomic tourism and substantially confirm the most discussed assumptions regarding issues in food experiences. The case of ‘Napoli Pizza Village’ reveals that the innovative concept of temporary restaurant is able not only to produce heavy revenues for the hosting community, but it also acquires the key role of enhancer of a tourism destination due to its property to engage visitors beyond regional boundaries, by triggering supraregional tourism flows. The four dimensions identified in this content analysis confirm that the main focuses emerging from the visitors’ point of view are based on the supplied product characteristics, the overall sensory experience deriving from the participation to this kind of community festivals, and the efficiency of organizational arrangements.

Conclusions

Food consumption is an essential element of each kind of tourism experience and it has also been recognized as a component of regional identity and culture (Hall and Sharples 2003) and the linkages between food and tourism is a merger which engages tourists to seek out authentic, novel, and local food experiences related to the places they are visiting (Richards 2012). The same Richards (2012) argues that food experiences provide the basis for branding and marketing activities, in which one is the developing of specialty restaurants. In this framework, the ‘Napoli Pizza Village’ temporary (mega) restaurant can be classified as one of the most successful cases of territorial marketing and local identity promotion and communication, with an echo crossing also national boundaries. This innovative typology of food festivals, based on the creation of a temporary village of food tastes in memorable settings and scenarios and the involvement of pizza producers of the local community, represent not only a chance to strength territorial identity, but also the possibility to spread authentic gastronomic traditions through a novel tasting format, giving atmospheres, flavors, and unforgettable experiences to tourists.
Gastronomic tourism innovations

References


Introduction

Food and wine have recently become one of the most important arenas of experience productions, and there is evidence that a larger number of producers have sought to enhance their products into higher value experiences suitable for any demand segment. Among those, wineries as cultural ‘hubs’, attractions, or theme museums are examples of how the product can be extended to add a cultural value to the experience.

The purpose of this chapter is to present positive correlations between food, wine, culture, and tourism through the presentation of a selection of case studies that are internationally renowned as places where those elements have been creatively combined. After a brief overview of scholarly research on the role of food and wine as mediums of cultural tourism, the chapter introduces some innovative cases with emphasis on experience development.

In France, the cultural facility La Cité du Vin has successfully used, sensations, and imagination to promote and share wine culture. Through interactive and multi-sensory experiences, visitors are allowed to approach the living heritage of wine in a more experiential and participatory way. In Italy, Rocca di Frassinello and Ca’ del Bosco are wineries that have successfully transformed the production site into a place where to experience culture. The former organizes cultural events inside the production site and has established an exhibition museum on the relationship between Etruscans and wine, while the latter has created a unique art exhibition with sculptures adorning the cellar and the vineyards. The ‘Villa of the Mysteries project’ is a joint effort between local superintendence and Mastroberardino winery to re-introduce viticulture in the archeological site of Pompeii. Along with its historical value, this project provides new meanings to the tourists’ experience. In Spain, Marqués de Riscal is an example of an old winery with modern designed buildings. Contemporary architecture makes the winery a landmark as well as a tourist attraction in itself.

Although different, these case studies have been identified as they have many attributes that transcend local borders. First, food and wine have a connection with culture. The gastronomic product is the main subject, but it is also often combined with other cultural expression. The resulting combinations contribute to create immersive settings that engage
tourists more deeply. Second, food and wine experiences are considered a means to achieve cultural objectives. Public and private actors have developed experiences according with an interest that is not merely economic, but concerns the promotion of wine culture to a wide public. Finally, the production site is effectively a tourist attraction, as well as a cultural attraction in itself. Furthermore, it provides opportunities to experience culture in its wide sense. Being the culmination of the production process, it allows visitors to learn more about wine and food culture.

**Literature review**

Food and wine are expressions of local culture and its tangible and intangible heritage. Along with their value for human nutrition, food and wine convey a range of cultural and social meanings. They are the repositories of traditions and collective identity and reflect the social identity of groups and memberships (Murcott 1982; Montanari 2006; Harvey 2009). Tourism research has fully acknowledged the new role of both these elements in the context of cultural tourism. For instance, Poon (1993) argued that they are the driving forces behind the cultural revival of the tourism industry; and Richards (2012) recognized them as intangible expressions of culture and elements of creativity in everyday life, both elements that are engaging for many tourists. There appears to be clear evidence that food, wine, culture, and tourism are closely integrated.

It has been argued that developing tourist products based on food and wine as cultural resources is now a strategic option for many destinations (Rand, Heath, and Alberts 2003; Rand and Heath 2006; Bertella 2011). This situation certainly provides new opportunities, but it also involves a number of challenges.

One of these opportunities is for food and wine producers to make themselves attractive to a wide range of tourists. Food and wine experiences appeal to tourists who perceive them as ‘reasons to go’ (e.g., foodies) and also as a part of the overall holiday (Stone and Migacz 2016). Farms and wineries may not be merely a production site but an attraction for tourists interested both in culture and in gastronomy. This suggests a number of important implications. First, it implies a shift in thinking away from the product or service towards a more holistic approach to the entire experience. In the experience economy, easily copied service concepts have been replaced by more sophisticated experiences that combine elements of education, entertainment, aesthetics, and escapism to engage the consumer (Pine and Gilmore 1999). Food and wine producers are thus invited to develop new experiences around the basic product with themes, staging and performance. Concerning wineries, for instance, Getz (2000) and Jaffe and Pasternak (2004) collected a number of potential developments of the traditional winery experience. This list included company museums, art exhibitions, events, accommodations, retail outlets, and educational institutions. Second, as the level of interest in the basic product is different among tourists, food and wine experiences have to start with the needs of the individual (Choi 2012). Producers are thus stimulated to develop a new range of skills that go beyond the traditional management of tourism services and incorporate tourists into the process of experience design and development (Boswijk, Thijssen, and Peelen 2005; Richards 2012).
Case study 60.1: Thematic museums: La Cité du Vin

Food and wine have moved from simply production facilities into museums and heritage sites (Brulotte and Di Giovine 2014). The desire to promote and share gastronomic heritage has stimulated both public and private actors to organize thematic exhibitions. These museums are attractions for travelers as they represent opportunities to learn more about local heritage by exploring history, production processes, use and consumption patterns, as well as the relationship with society and landscape (Hjalager 2002; Montanari 2006). Today, a number of cultural attractions have wine or food ingredients as the main subject of the concepts. Among those, La Cité du Vin, in the Bordeaux region of France, represents one of the most innovative for its concept, as it has successfully used emotions, sensations, and imagination to promote and share wine culture. La Cité du Vin is a cultural facility dedicated to the culture of wine. Since its opening on 1 June 2016, it has become an essential feature in the Bordeaux tourist circuit, but is also a lively social venue for the inhabitants of Bordeaux and its surrounding area. A year after opening its doors to the public, La Cité du Vin has welcomed 425,000 visitors and a wide range of cultural events has taken place inside the structure, such as workshops, conferences, and temporary exhibitions (La Cité du Vin 2017).

This cultural facility has been designed with the purpose of creating a place to see, to visit and to experience. The architectural design is impressive for its shape and curves, and each detail evokes liquid elements and the soul of wine. Particular attention has been dedicated to the scenography of the permanent tour, which represents the main attraction. To make the visit as enjoyable as possible, it was conceived as a modular journey with twenty themed spaces explaining the culture of wine through history, geography, geology, oenology, and the arts. Each visitor can discover the permanent tour according to its own wishes and tastes, as there are no standard paths to take. The use of digital and interactive technologies (e.g., 3D images, decoration, aroma diffusion) creates immersive settings that stimulate all the senses. ‘The buffet of the five senses’, for example, is a themed space where visitors are invited to challenge their own senses, taste colors, and play with images as well as smells. The original idea was to allow individuals to learn more about wine tastings, but also to enjoy the tasting of wine, making it a pleasure.

La Cité du Vin is not only a thematic museum, but also a social venue. The promotion of wine culture passes also through multidisciplinary events that offer a different view of this living heritage. A varied cultural program, including cultural mediation activities, live performances, exhibitions and debates, is organized in synergy with national and international partners. Furthermore, this cultural facility offers public areas hosting life and exchange: a reading room with publication on wine, a concept store with items linked to the world of wine, a wine bar, and a restaurant with food and wine from the region of Bordeaux as well as other countries around the world (Vigneaud 2016).
Case study 60.2: Wineries as cultural ‘hubs’: Rocca di Frassinello

Wineries have a strategic role in food and wine tourism, as they represent the culmination of the production process and they contribute to the marketing process by allowing tourists to learn more about wine and viticulture (Antonioli Corigliano 2002). In some cases, the production site becomes also a place where to experience culture. *Rocca di Frassinello* winery can be considered an interesting example of an aggregate ‘hub’ of art and culture under the banner of wine.

*Rocca di Frassinello* is a modern winery situated in the hearth of Tuscan Maremma (Italy). The idea of its Chairman to create a model of excellence in wine production led to an agreement between *Castellare di Castellina*, a winery in the Chianti Classico region, and *Domaines Barons de Rothschild*, one of the leading French wine brands. To state the international level of the project, the architect Renzo Piano was invited to conceive an innovative site of production and not a mere monument to customers or wine. The result was a cellar essential in terms of its shape and designed to enhance the functionality of what it represents.

The barrel room is set in a central underground position, with the purpose of naturally maintaining a stable humidity and temperature. It is a square space with a floor slab that stands without being supported by any columns. The steel tanks are distributed on two sides of the area and above each one stands a chute that opens onto the roof above. Other production functions (e.g., bottling, storage) are distributed along the other two sides. A few times a year, the barrel room is the location of selected music concerts, providing a unique example of a place where people can enjoy live performances and learn more about the process of production of wine at the same time (see Figure 60.1).

The idea to organize events inside the barrel room was born after the partnership between the owners and the organizers of the festival ‘Melodia del Vino’, a cultural event that combines tastings and concerts in Tuscany. Since then, *Rocca di Frassinello* regularly hosts high-level live performances, no more than a couple per year due to limitations imposed by the process of production. In 2017, for instance, it was the location of a jazz concert during the Grey Cat Festival.

*Figure 60.1*  An event inside the barrel room of Rocca Di Frassinello. Photocredit: Rocca Di Frassinello.
Synergies in food, wine, culture and tourism

The linkage between wine production and culture is not limited to this initiative. A joint effort between the owners of Rocca di Frassinello, the Archaeological Superintendence of Tuscany, and the University of Florence has led to the restoration of the Etruscan necropolis of San Germano, which is situated in the vineyards and now it is open to public. To convey the idea that modern world is made up of countless bridges between past and future, an exhibition museum has been created inside the cellar.

The exhibition of archeological findings discovered in the area is combined with the use of digital and interactive technologies: at the end of the tour comes the opportunity to taste wine in the traditional way of the ancient Etruscans directly from the traditional jars. Visitors are thus allowed to discover the relationship between Etruscans and wine using all senses.

These initiatives provide evidence that Rocca di Frassinello has successfully positioned itself as a ‘cultural hub’, thanks to a wide range of events (not limited at the live music performances) and archeological and contemporary art exhibitions. The production site also hosts artwork from the famous photographer David La Chapelle. Today it is not only an attraction for wine lovers but also to cultural tourists, and welcomed more than 5,000 visitors in the year 2017.

Case study 60.3: Wineries with contemporary art exhibitions: Ca’ del Bosco

Another interesting example of a production site as a place to experience culture is provided by wineries hosting contemporary art exhibitions inside their vineyards and cellars. As suggested by Getz (2000) and Jaffe and Pasternak (2004), this represents a potential development of the traditional winery experience. Ca’ del Bosco provides evidence that wine culture may have a privileged connection with art, and the resulting combination of both elements contributes to reinforce the attractiveness of the offer. Today this winery is an important attraction in the area, welcoming about 19,000 visitors in 2016.

Ca’ del Bosco is a winery situated in Franciacorta, a wine region in Northern Italy famous for its high-quality sparkling wines. Since its origin, the quest for excellence in wine production has led to combine innovation with naturalness and quality. The wines are produced using an individual method, which is based on the traditional method, but with more stringent rules to ensure high-quality products and to exalt the characteristics of the terroir (see Figure 60.2).

Along with its wines, the peculiarity of Ca’ del Bosco is its contemporary art installations. The original idea of its owner was to set the way for a new civilization of wine, by creating a privileged connection among structures, lands, people, wine, and art. According to this philosophy, in 1993 the sculptor Arnaldo Pomodoro created a round-shaped gate, made of bronze with a core of steel, which was placed at the entrance of the winery. The gate was designed not only to be a portal, but also to celebrate the relationship between wine and art. Since then, internationally renowned artists such as Igor Mitoraj and Zheng Lu have been invited to create sculptures that today adorn the landscape and create a unique effect. Contemporary art installations have led the winery to be recognized as an attraction for both wine and art lovers, although they were not created for tourism-related purposes but to share a personal passion.
The winery has designed tours to give visitors a first-hand knowledge of how its wines are made and to celebrate the unique connection among terroir, people, wine, and art. All tours include a walk through its vineyards, barrique cellars and the underground Cupola – the dome from which branch off tunnels for storing and refining the wines – as well as wine tastings. Customized tours are offered to meet specific visitors’ desires. The presence of unique sculptures constantly communicates the relationship between wine and art, creating an immersive setting that stimulate all the senses. Ca’ del Bosco is not only a winery or an attraction for art lovers, but also an event venue, as it offers the opportunity of organizing events inside its complex.

**Case study 60.4: Wine experience in archeological sites: the Villa of the Mysteries project**

Lost or disappeared food and wine can turn into a starting point for interpreting stories, myths, and traditions of the past. Although not for tourism-related purposes, the rediscovery offers the opportunity to contextualize the tourist experience by creating a link between past and present. From this perspective, the ‘Villa of the Mysteries’ project is not only a successful attempt to investigate ancient Roman methods in wine making, but it also provides new meanings to tourists’ experience in Pompeii.

The ancient Roman town of Pompeii is one of the most renowned archeological sites. Thanks to its impressive remains, it has been included in the UNESCO World Heritage List since 1997. Pompeii has been a tourist attraction for over 250 years. Today is one of the most popular destinations in Italy, with approximately 2.5 million visitors every year.

Wine cultivation is one of the aspects of everyday life of ancient Pompeii that was revealed from the excavation begun about 250 years ago. In the early 90s, the Archaeological Superintendence of Pompeii and Mastroberardino winery developed the ‘Villa of the Mysteries’ project with the purpose of investigating methods and techniques of viticulture and winemaking in ancient Pompeii. Using the details discovered from the excavations as well as the descriptions of Ancient Roman...
viticulture provided by Columella and Pliny the Elder, vineyards within the city walls were re-planted in 1990 with the grape varieties that were typical of the time period (Harding 2005). In 2001, Mastroberardino produced 1,721 bottles of the first vintage using Ancient Roman techniques. These prestigious bottles were placed for auction and the proceeds were used to support the restoration of the wine cellar in the site of the Foro Boario.

The grape harvest is a part of this project. Every October the traditional cutting of the grapes takes place in the presence of journalists and tourists. During this event, official guides entertain visitors with ancient tales. The letters of Pliny the Elder, for example, describes how ancient Romans did not drink the wine pure, but mixed it adding honey or resin, or recount that one of the most expensive wines besides Falernum was the Greek wine produced in Kos. This event represents an attraction in itself, and a unique opportunity to learn more about ancient Roman wine culture.

**Case study 60.5: Wineries with modern designed buildings: Marqués de Riscal**

Traditional images of the wineries generally feature historical cellars, but in recent years contemporary architecture has gained a foothold in this industry. Internationally renowned architects have been involved in designing new modern buildings to create innovative sites of production. Thanks to impressive design, these wineries have become cultural attractions both for tourists and architecture lovers.

*Marqués de Riscal* provides an interesting example of a winery with modern designed buildings that has become a must-see destination for people travelling in La Rioja region. This winery is one of the oldest of the Spanish wine region and today it is internationally renowned for its high-quality products.

The desire to significantly renovate a winery that has changed little since its origins has led the owners to develop a large-scale project – called ‘The City of Wine’ – and to involve one of the most renowned architects in the world, Frank O. Gehry, known for works such as the Guggenheim Museum in Bilbao.

Opened in 2006, the City of Wine is a complex devoted to making, caring for, and studying wine which offers visitors the chance to enjoy everything that wine and the people involved in winemaking stand for. Its architectural design is impressive for its shape, and its façade constantly evokes the character of the region and its famous wines. This modern building is not merely a monument to wine culture, but a place to live and to experience. It houses a large set of facilities: a luxury hotel with 43 rooms located in two wings of the building connected by a suspended footbridge; two gourmet restaurants, ‘The Marques de Riscal’ and ‘1860 Tradición’, offering creative and traditional Basque–Riojan cuisine; a Vinotherapie Spa and other facilities such as a center for meetings and weddings and a coffee shop.

The ‘City of Wine’ has successfully become a tourist attraction in itself. About 90,000 visitors come to visit the historic cellars of *Marqués de Riscal* as well as to see this impressive building last year. But The ‘City of Wine’ also contributes to increasing the visibility of the surrounding areas, as it ‘invites’ its visitors to discover the nearby attractions and learn more about the history of this wine region.
Conclusion

Case studies examined in this chapter note that enhancement in gastronomic experience is more than simply generating new ideas. There are several modalities to add value to the experience, and examples previously described are possible implementations of traditional proposals. It is also, importantly, about the way it is designed and framed. This reinforces the distinctiveness of the experience. Elements of entertainment, education, and aesthetics have been successfully combined with the basic product, resulting in a broader experience. For instance, guided visits to Ca’ del Bosco or Marques de Riscal offer at the same time a sensory experience focused on the qualities of their products (wine) and a cultural experience that allows an understanding of the unique connection among terroir, people, wine, and art. The uniqueness of the experience is also related to the strength of wine culture and the extent to which this can create a distinctive identity for itself. For example, La Cité du Vin, Rocca di Frassinello, and the Villa of the Mysteries project have strengthened the relationship between past and future of wine, the former on a global scale and the latter locally. The experience provided by a ‘journey’ through history, geography, oenology, and the arts thus allow a broader cultural understanding.

References


Synergies in food, wine, culture and tourism


**Websites**


This handbook is devoted to developing a wider understanding of gastronomic tourism and its vibrant paradigms. The present chapter proposes the key notions, underscored in different contributions embraced in this volume. The prime aim of this chapter is therefore, to synthesize the views of the contributing authors and to present an overall scenario of gastronomic tourism to the readers. It also offers suggestions and potential directions for the future research to local business practitioners, researchers, chefs, academicians, and budding entrepreneurs to enable them to successfully accustom themselves to the peculiarities of the global gastronomic tourism sector. The following sections offer an overall outlook of the core issues and important topics evoked in the sixty handbook chapters.

Gastronomic framework

Gastronomy, which includes both foods and beverages, is considered as indispensable services and positioned at the very core of hospitality and inseparable from tourism. Visitors nowadays are using gastronomy to not only fulfill their basic dietary requirements, but are also utilizing the gastronomic experience to explore new culture, places, and people. Gastronomic tourism generates opportunities to explore, taste, and experience the foods and beverages of a destination, adding a deeper experience to the local tourism product. Chapter 1 and 2 highlight the theoretical outline/historical development of global gastronomic tourism. Gastronomic tourism, utilizing the senses of taste, smell, touch, and vision, offers a more cohesive level of experience. Chapter 3 enlightens readers about the modern gastronomy in terms of flavors and taste. Whereas Chapter 11 explores the controversies associated with the promotion of gastronomic tourism at destinations, as beverage and food tourism are considered to be very closely integrated. Wine, beer, tea, coffee, whiskey are the commonly used drinks associated with dining. An emerging wine tourism industry supplements immensely the gastronomic identity of a destination. Chapter 53 outlines such interlinkages and describes how mature wine regions require the support from gastronomic tourism. Wine tourism has received increased consumer focus because of visitors’ desires to experience regional gastronomic heritage and identity. In this context, Chapter 60 reveals the bonding in food, wine, culture, and tourism.

CONCLUSION

Building an agenda for global gastronomic tourism research

Saurabh Kumar Dixit
Conclusion

Cultural integration
The basis of gastronomic tourism is a perception of otherness, of foods making it different from the usual. Local culture and traditions have a prominent place in the gastronomic tourism studies. Culture, which includes ethnicity and national identity, is the most obvious way of distinguishing food systems as other. The concept of gastronomic identity exhibits the influences of the environment (landscape and weather) and culture (historical and ethnic identity) on prevailing taste, textures, and flavors of food and beverage. The Handbook presents an interdisciplinary investigation through cases from across gastronomic activities contributing to rural development through gastronomy, farmers’ market, local food consumption, community development leading to the sustainable development of the destinations. To address similar concerns, the authors in Chapters 7, 23, 24, 26, and 27 dealt with the elucidation of these issues with the help of suitable regional case studies. In Chapters 4 and 10, an effort is made by the authors to investigate the association of gastronomy, culture, and tourism activities. Cultural identity and traditions are governed by heritage and ethnicity, which are the most obvious way of differentiating foodways of one region with the other. Chapters 6, 29, and 30 assert the relationship between gastronomy, the way of life of the local population, cultural heritage, modern forms of creativity, and the economy. Likewise, in Chapter 28, the role of heritage and authenticity in the gastronomic consumption is examined, whereas Chapter 31 stresses the importance of sustainable restaurant system on gastronomic tourism. Reinforced by an increased interest in the local foods, gastronomic tourism offers the opportunity to experience new or exotic foods in both urban and rural settings such as in food trucks/temporary restaurants (Chapter 59) and slow food movements (Chapter 41).

Collaborative marketing
Gastronomic tourism offers huge potential in encouraging local, regional, and national economies and augmenting sustainability and inclusion. It pays positively at many levels of the tourism value chain, such as agriculture and local food manufacturing. Local gastronomy has the potential to support and built the destination’s image. Gastronomy is therefore associated with a specific destination, region, or country, and posed as a powerful tourism-marketing tool. Chapter 9 explores how the Nordic and Norwegian part of the globe is utilizing gastronomic tourism resources to market itself. Similarly, Chapter 8 portrays strategies to use gastronomic tourism as an instrument to fortify the tourism appeal of a destination. As highlighted in Chapter 5, creative collaboration is critical if the tourism and gastronomic synergy is to benefit economic, social, and environmental aspects of the community. There is no doubt that collaboration is key for successful planning, management, and marketing of gastronomic tourism for any destination. Chapter 56 deliberates on the food supply chain of gastronomic tourism in identifying Alternative Food Networks. This effort allows not only researchers, but also practitioners, to take decisions on how to improve the value chain of gastronomic tourism and which values and features may be promoted in order to strengthen the food supply chain of gastronomic tourism, and finally, how to cohabit within a hybrid economy of production and consumption.

Gastronomic visitor behavior
Gastronomic tourism is integral part of the experience economy. The visitors may relish local gastronomy as their primary travel motive or to supplement other tourism activities.
The motivation of the tourists to consume foods and drinks is the central element for the growth and development of gastronomic tourism. Understanding foodies or food lovers can be examined in different ways, associated to their cooking and eating behavior, formation of self and social identities, values and attitudes, lifestyle, and travel, and it is explained in Chapter 16. Tourists nowadays seek and participate in a wide range of gastronomic experiences, both when food is a primary motivation and when it is only considered as an ‘accessory’ element. In order to achieve optimum results, gastronomy producers may combine food, culture, and servicescape as per their needs and perceptions. Chapter 1 and Chapter 22 offer an understanding of the meaning and nature of memorable gastronomic experiences. Chapters 12, 13, and 14 elaborate on the gastronomic motivations of tourists, and investigate the determinants of food consumption and tourist perception and expectations towards the food and beverage items respectively. A thorough understanding of factors that influence tourists’ perception of food is central in increasing tourist satisfaction and repurchase intentions. However, tourists’ behavior may differ from person to person and thus stimulates their willingness to buy unfamiliar food in diverse manner. Gastronomic tourism has attained a prominent place in traveler’s decision-making and satisfaction, tourism products and place promotion strategies. The different constructs of gastronomic tourist behavior are explored in Chapters 15, 17, 18, 19, and 20. True understanding of consumers’ behavior for gastronomy requires acknowledging consumer experiences.

**Gastronomic tourism forms**

Gastronomic tourism is prevalent in diverse forms in different parts of the globe to suit the requirements of different individuals for contributing to the society. Some of the popular gastronomic forms with appropriate cases are explored in the present volume to enlighten the readers. These are illustrated as Chapter 42 dealing with wine tourism in Japan; Chapter 43 deliberating on food trails, routes, and tours; Chapter 44 on organic foods; Chapter 45 outlining edible insect gastronomy; Chapter 46 explaining crafts drink tourism; Chapter 48 addressing Halal foods; Chapter 49 describing native food; Chapter 50 discussing the sociological perspectives of tea tourism, and Chapter 51 dealing with the elderly market gastronomic tourism. Gastronomic events, an important gastronomic form, are designed to ensure provision of food and beverage consumption besides other hedonistic activities and entertainment. Gastronomic events have found to be essential elements in gastronomic tourism appeal. Motivation of the visitors to attend these events have steered the researchers to work on this area. Popularity and growth of gastronomic events/festivals are well documented in different books and journals. Chapters 21, 32, and 52 of the handbook deal with the different perspectives of the gastronomic events.

**Media and social media**

The internet and visual media have become a necessity for people’s everyday lives. Online food reviews/pictures, electronic word of mouth, and the images of gastronomy tourism shared across various online communities have a noteworthy bearing on gastronomic tourists’ intentions to visit a destination and join in gastronomic tourism-related activities. Many establishments endeavor to build an inimitable and personalized relationship with their customers, not only in the physical environment, but also in the virtual environment. The media nowadays is turning out to be an important force to influence changes in gastronomic tourism. Media mainly covers cinema, television, cookery shows, cookbooks, and social media. Chapter 55
explores linkages between media and gastronomic tourism through the case studies, and it further investigates how the media is influencing a growing appreciation for gastronomy. Chapter 58 offers an insight on celebrity chefs and their influences on both marketing and operational strategies of a luxury hotel. Chapters 33–40 of the *Handbook* look into the different dimensions of social media, mobile technology, and GIS technology with their applications in different viewpoints of gastronomic tourism.

**Avenues of future research**

It has long been considered that destinations may be given specific identities based on their specific geographic features, heritage, attractions, and culture, including foods and beverages. Hence, there is emerging trend of establishing and maintaining linkage between gastronomy and tourism of the locality. The technological and lifestyle changes have led to three specific modern food movements, including buy local, foodie, and sustainable consumption. Chapter 54 of the volume enlightens the readers on Intellectual Property Rights in gastronomic tourism. Chapter 57 elaborates the links between Geographical Indications (GIs) and tourism destinations. The chapter further illuminates how food and wine territorial richness can be used in developing a tourism destination where tourist can taste, see, and get to know typical foods. Moving ahead on the same lines ‘Gastro Diplomacy’ is emerging as a powerful approach, which may be studied to engage with foreign community and cultures, and to ensure robust economic development through gastronomy and tourism. Besides the concerns revealed in different chapters, other future avenues proposed for gastronomic tourism scholars would place sustainability more firmly on the research agenda.

The collection of chapters of the handbook provides seminal knowledge about food, foodies, and gastronomic tourism. They also emphasize the need for further investigation in this evolving arena. Each chapter, in its own unique way, provides a foundation for further research that will substantially enhance our knowledge in this area. These efforts should be viewed as a single step on the voyage of discovery, not as an end in itself. Gastronomic tourism deserves substantial enquiry to understand the dynamics of the development, and to draw conclusions on more comprehensive basis.

Based on the above deliberations, it can be concluded that the insights of gastronomic tourism can benefit a destination in many ways. It can help to position and market a destination for tourism, enhance its image, visitor experiences, contribute towards place/destination branding, and also support the sustainable development of local food and economy. I hope that this handbook will generate a greater interest and discussion on the diverse propositions of gastronomic tourism and offer a basis for a much larger research contribution from its readers.
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