MODUL VIENNA UNIVERSITY
WKO WIEN PRIVATE UNIVERSITY

The Role of Food for Tourists: A Comparison between Generation X and Generation Y

Bachelor Thesis for Obtaining the Degree

Bachelor of Business Administration in

Tourism and Hospitality Management

Submitted to Mr Tomej Kristof

Melissa Graf

1211077

Vienna, 2nd June 2015

Affidavit

I hereby affirm that this Bachelor's Thesis represents my own written work and that I have used no sources and aids other than those indicated. All passages quoted from publications or paraphrased from these sources are properly cited and attributed.

The thesis was not submitted in the same or in a substantially similar version, not even partially, to another examination board and was not published elsewhere.

Date	Signature

Abstract

The consumption of food is an important component in the tourist experience; yet, each tourist perceives food in a different way. This study examines the different attitudes of tourists towards food and illustrates these differences by conducting an empirical comparison between Generation X and Generation Y

The first part of the paper provides an overview of the already existing literature concerning this area of research. The discussed topics include the role of food for tourists and the factors that influence the tourist's food consumption, such as food-related personality traits and socio-demographic factors. Furthermore, this study refers to the characteristics and types of food tourists, illustrating their key personality traits. This is followed by an introduction to generational theory with a focus on the character traits and travel behaviours of Generation X and Y.

In order to examine the differences between tourists from Generation X and Y, with regards to their perception of food while travelling, a questionnaire survey is conducted in the following part of the paper. The main findings of the survey indicate that Generation Y perceives food as a prestigious factor, providing them the opportunity to inform their friends about novel food experiences. Regarding the context of food, Generation X reveals tendencies towards neophobic character traits and Generation Y towards neophylic. Furthermore, Generation X participated more often in food-related activities than Gen Y. Lastly, Generation Y shows a stronger Internet use than Generation X when searching for food-related information.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

1   Introduction

For many years, the role of food in tourism has been ignored by scholars and viewed as a topic less worthy of closer examination due to its image of a less sophisticated field of research (Hall & Sharples, 2003). This has changed over the last couple of years and the topic has enjoyed a larger recognition by several academics (Chang et al., 2010; Mak et al., 2012b; Mynttinen et al., 2015).

The significance of food in tourism cannot be denied as it plays an important part in the tourist's experience. Besides the fact that it satisfies a basic human need, it can deliver a unique experience (Hall & Sharples, 2003). For some tourists, food can even be the prime motivator for travelling and the exploration of a destination's cuisine can be viewed as the "peak" experience of a trip (Quan & Wang, 2004). Additionally, it can serve as a tool to experience the cultural heritage and identity of a destination (Kivela & Crotts, 2006) and can lead to exploring a country's "novel" and "strange" cuisine (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). Hence, food constitutes one of the main attractive aspects of a destination (Kim, Kim & Goh, 2011).

When looking at the role of food from an individual perspective, each person has a different approach to food during his or her travels. The role of food may play a primary or secondary part in a tourist's experience, depending on his or her attitude and approach to it (Mkono, 2013). Authenticity and traditional local cuisine can have a high importance for some travellers during their journey, whereas others may prefer to enjoy more familiar foods and avoid any unpleasant risks (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). Even the type of information sources used for touristic food experiences can vary among travellers with different demographical backgrounds (Karim, 2006).

Food is perceived as one of the most pleasurable aspects in the tourist's experience, right after climate, accommodation and scenery (Hall & Sharples, 2003). Even if the main reason for travelling is not food-related, it can serve as an enjoyable contributing factor and create a more memorable travel experience (Quan & Wang, 2004). As stated by Mak et al., (2012b), there are several elements which contribute to a tourist's food consumption behaviour, such as religious and cultural background, socio- demographics, certain food-related personality traits, past experiences or other motivational factors.

Since each tourist perceives food in a different way while travelling, the author is interested in examining whether there are any key differences between the two generational cohorts X (people born between 1961 and 1981) and Y (people born between 1982 and 2002). Therefore, a brief study of the generational theory is provided in this paper, which serves as a socio-cultural framework and has a collective focus (Pendergast, 2010). Both generations illustrate key character traits, which will be reflected on in detail in this paper. Some of the main characteristics of Generation X are, for example, their entrepreneurial spirit, their tendency to balance work and life activities, their creativity or their value for independence (Jorgensen, 2003; Li, Li & Hudson, 2013). Generation Y, on the contrary, can be seen a generation characterized by being confident, team-oriented and pressured (Pendergast, 2010). Furthermore, each cohort depicts certain travel behaviours, which are further addressed in this paper.

To identify and analyse the differences between tourists from Generation X and Y and their perception of food while travelling, the author uses quantitative research methods. An online questionnaire survey was conducted targeted explicitly to Austrians from Generation X and Generation Y in order to add a clear focus to the research and control for national and cultural differences. The survey's main focus is put on the overall role of food while travelling, neophobic and neophylic tendencies, information sources used to search for food-related content and the participation in food-related activities by Generation X and Generation Y. Afterwards, all significant findings are illustrated and discussed by the author.

The aim of this paper is to provide an insight into the role of food for tourists from Generation X and Generation Y. Furthermore, a determination of the essential differences in attitude and perception of food-related activities of these two cohorts is made. Lastly, key disparities regarding their use of information sources are addressed. In the following section, the existing literature concerning these topics is reviewed in order to create an adequate basis for this study.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Food in tourism

The significance of food in tourism cannot be denied as it plays an important part in the tourist's experience. Research has shown that up to one third of the tourist's expenditure is spent on food which indicates a large economic importance for a country's tourism sector (Hall & Sharples, 2003). This aspect has led to several destinations, such as Italy, Australia and Singapore, promoting themselves by highlighting the culinary resources their country has to offer (Chang et al., 2010; Hall & Mitchell, 2002; Scarpato, 2002). Furthermore, studies have revealed that in some cases tourists spend up to two thirds of their budget on food (Telfer & Wall, 2000). This creates an evident impact on a destination's competitiveness and economy, making the tourist's food consumption and aspect worth focusing on (Mak et al., 2012b).

One extreme version of tourism defined by food is often referred to as "food tourism". However, this term is frequently used rather loosely and other various terms are being used simultaneously for referring to food-related activities. Ultimately, this can lead to confusion. Therefore, the following paragraphs will examine different terms and definitions used by academics to create a clear overview. A commonly used definition for food tourism derives from Hall and Mitchell (2001, as cited in Hall & Sharples, 2003, p. 10):

> "Food 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 the attributes of a specialist food production region are the primary motivating factor for travel."

This definition suggests that a simple visit to a restaurant while travelling would not fall under the category of food tourism. The tourist must rather participate in activities such as exploring a destination's local cuisine, seeing how certain dishes and foods are prepared and produced or enjoying a meal from a famous chef. Important is that tourists view these activities as significant factors in their travels (Hall & Sharples, 2003). Hence, Hall and Sharples (2003) conclude that food tourism, due to the aspect that food becomes a primary motivator for travelling, can be seen

as a form of "special interest" tourism. Referring to the number of tourists and their perception of food as a travel motivator, a division can be made into gourmet tourism, gastronomic tourism/cuisine tourism, culinary tourism and rural/urban tourism (Figure 1).
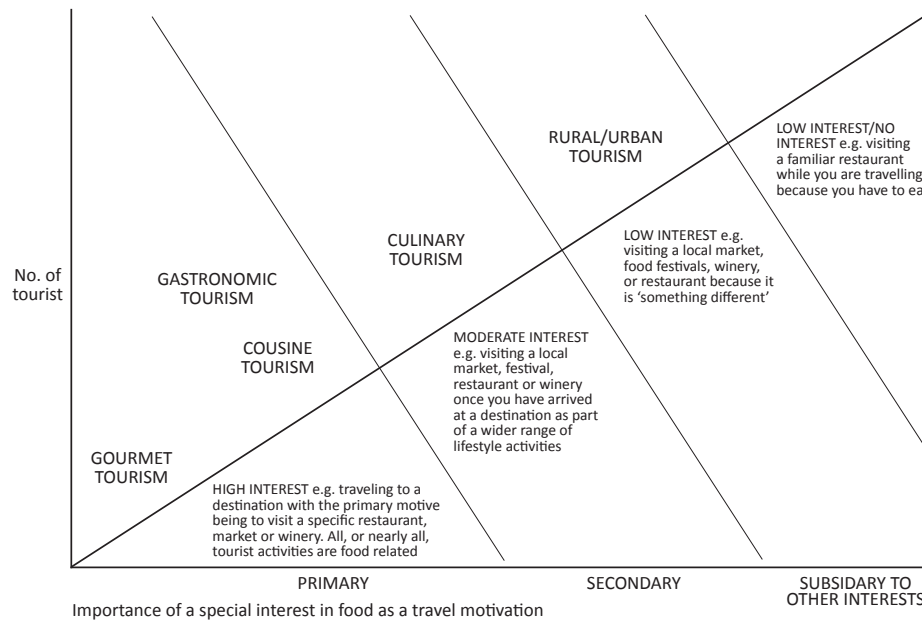
Figure 1: Food tourism as special interest tourism (Hall & Sharples, 2003, p. 11)

Figure 1 illustrates the various subcategories of food tourism, based on the number of tourists and the importance of food as a travel motivator. Gourmet tourism is referred to when tourists choose to visit a destination while having a food-related activity in mind. In these cases, all experiences during their travel are food-related. One can view cuisine tourism and gastronomic tourism in the same high interest group; with the only difference that not all activities have to be necessarily food-related. Culinary tourism is characterized by a moderate interest level, which means that culinary tourists participate in food and non food-related activities during their travels. Richards (2002) claims, that gastronomy tourism and culinary tourism can be seen as subcategories of cultural tourism due to the fact that food can allow tourists to connect with the culture of a destination. Lastly, Hall and Sharples (2003) detect the lowest food interest group, namely, Rural/Urban tourism, which refers to tourists visiting or participating in food-related activities just because it creates a change in their usual travel pattern. Furthermore, Hall and Sharples (2003, p. 9) stress that one has to "differentiate between tourists who consume food as a part of

the travel experience and those tourists whose activities, behaviours and, even, destination selection is influenced by an interest in food." Therefore, it is necessary to analyse the occurrence of food-motivated activities.

Furthermore, according to Arilla, Herranz and Herrera (2012), recent studies have shown that for an increasing number of tourists, food is playing a considerable and significant, but not prime role during their travels. The authors argue that these tourists should not be excluded from the research scope of food tourism and thus, a broader definition should be used when defining food tourists. Consequently, Arilla, Herranz and Herrera (2012, p. 7) claim that "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."

Based on the analysis of the previously mentioned literature, for the purpose of this study the author will refer to the definition of food tourism by Arilla, Herranz and Herrera (2012). This definition includes tourists for whom food is the prime motivator for travelling but also tourists for whom food plays a secondary, but significant, role in their travels. The above-mentioned definition is chosen, since it refers to a more broad understanding and comprehensive approach of food in tourism, which is essential for this paper.

Lastly, a classification should be made of all touristic aspects, which are based on the context of food. Hereby, Smith and Xiao (2008) explicate the variety of touristic food-related entities. These can range from facilities (restaurants, vineyards), events (food festivals, kitchen shows), activities (cooking schools, wine tasting) and organizations (food associations, food classifications) (Table 1). This underlines the large diversity of food-related activities and thus illustrates the difficulty of classifying them.

Facilities	Events	Activities	Organisations
Buildings/structures	*Consumer shows*	*Consumption*	
Food processing facilities	Food and drink shows	Dining at restaurants	Restaurant classifications or certification systems
Wineries/breweries	Cooking equipment (kitchen shows)	Picnics utilising locally-grown products	(e.g. Michelin, Taste of Scotland)
Farmers' markets	Product launches	Purchasing retail food/beverages	Food/wine classification systems (organic, etc.)
Food stores	*Festivals*	Pick your own operations	Associations (e.g. Slow Food)
Food-related museums	Food festivals	*Touring*	
Restaurants	Wine festivals	Wine regions	
Land uses	Harvest festivals	Agricultural regions	
Farms		City food districts	
Orchards		*Educational observation*	
Vineyards		Cooking schools	
Urban restaurant districts		Wine tasting/education	
Routes		Visiting wineries	
Wine routes		Observing chef competitions	
Food routes		Reading food, beverage	
Gourmet trails		Magazines and books	

Table 1: Types of touristic food-related activities (Smith & Xiao, 2008, p. 290)

2.2   The role of food for tourists

According to Quan and Wang (2004), each tourist experiences food in a different way while travelling and for some it can be of higher importance than for others. Quan and Wang (2004) created a typology of the tourist food experience claiming that tourists consume food either as a peak experience, as a supporting experience or as an extension of their daily routine. The peak experience refers to situations where enjoying food is the main motivation for tourists. On the contrary, the supporting experience defines moments where food is only seen as a secondary motivator. Hence, the supporting experience can be viewed as an extension of the tourist's day-to-day food consumption whereas the peak experience creates a contrast to the daily eating routine. In some cases, a peak food experience can become a supporting experience, and vice versa. For example, a tourist's initial plan to go sightseeing at a destination may be abandoned by an interesting food event, thus making food the peak experience. On the other hand, a tourist may travel to a country for its food but may meet someone and thus spend the day sightseeing with this person, making food only a supporting experience (Quan & Wang, 2004).

Mason and Paggiaro (2009) argue that several tourists view food as a gateway to connect and understand the local culture and people in a destination. Even the perception of food, that tourist may know and have already tried in their country of origin, can change if experienced in a certain environment and prepared in a signature way. Factors such as the climate, the atmosphere and other stimuli only found at a specific destination can create a more memorable and unique experience. For example, tourists have mentioned that drinking a cup of coffee in Venice or Paris, surrounded by a unique setting, creates a long lasting impression. Such experiences are likely to be remembered for a long time due to the fact that food stimulates all senses (smell, taste, hearing, sight and touch) and can be remembered in various aspects (Aslimoski & Gerasimoski, 2012). Furthermore, Aslimoski and Gerasimoski (2012) list other tangible and intangible aspects of a destination that can be experienced while consuming food. For example, traditional food is often served in a way that reflects a culture's identity. Even other elements such as the architecture of the restaurant or the climate bring the tourist closer to experiencing a destination's local culture.

2.3 Factors influencing the behaviour of tourist's food consumption

The study of tourist's food consumption behaviour has enjoyed increasing popularity in the last couple of years, due to the fact that food preferences of tourists can play a key role in their selection of a destination (Mak et al., 2012a). There are several factors that affect the food consumption behaviour of tourists during their travels. These elements thereby influence the food choices, intakes and preferences of tourists and can be categorized in the following five groups: cultural and religious influences, socio-demographic factors, food-related personality traits, exposure and past experiences and motivational factors (Mak et al., 2012b). Each influencing factor will be considered in turn.

2.3.1 Cultural and religious influences

Culture and religion have always strongly influenced tourist food consumption (Mak et al., 2012b) as they create guidelines for what can be seen as appropriate and inappropriate to eat (Logue, 2004). According to Logue (2004), culture is the accumulation of different views and mindsets of a specific group. Therefore, it determines which food is "acceptable" or "unacceptable", and "good" or "bad" (Mäkelä, 2000). Rozin and Rozin (1981, as cited by Mak et al., 2012b) claim that there are three elements - basic food, cooking techniques and flavour principles - that identify a certain cuisine. Several studies have been conducted concerning the food consumption and preferences of Western Europeans, Americans and Asians. For example, Torres (2002) revealed that American tourists travelling in Yucatan, Mexico, express less interest in local food as expected but seem to have been changing their food consumption behaviour over the last couple of years. Another study by Chang, Kivela and Mak (2010) concerning Chinese tourists travelling in Australia demonstrates that the Chinese food culture exerts a great influence on their food choices as the majority of Chinese tourists preferred Chinese food even while travelling abroad. Other research by Pizam and Sussmann (1995) has revealed that nationality has a significant influence on the tourist travel behaviour and their studies have indicated that Japanese, Italian and French tourists have little motivation to try the local cuisine at a destination. For the purpose of this study, it is necessary to point out that there are no existing studies about the food consumption behaviour of Austrian tourists travelling abroad or in Austria.

Religion may also exert an influence on what tourists are allowed or willing to eat during their travels. Some food can be forbidden by religion (e.g. pork dishes in Islam, Judaism), or must be prepared in a certain way (e.g. halal, kosher) or there may be fasting or feasting ceremonies (e.g. Lent, Ramadan) (Packard and McWilliams, 1993). These religious beliefs can be strictly practiced by believers and can affect their travel behaviour. For example, Muslims categorize food into halal (permissible) and haram (prohibited) (Jafari & Scott, 2014). Hassan and Hall (2003) revealed, after analysing the food choices of Muslims travelling in New Zealand, that most Muslims would strictly stick to their diet and would even prepare food in advance. However, Cohen and Avieli (2004) have discovered in their studies that a

large number of Israelis while travelling would not distinct between non-kosher and kosher food as strictly as in their home country.

2.3.2 Socio-demographic factors

Although there have been attempts in studying the demographic profile of food tourists (Mitchell & Hall, 2003; Mak et al., 2012b) the insights are still very limited. Socio-demographic factors, such as age, gender, marital status, educational level, occupation or household income have been revealed as important indicators in explaining tourists' food choices (Mak et al., 2012b). For example, according to Leones (1995), women tend to be more price-sensitive than men and would rather sample unknown fruits or vegetables.

Concerning the factor of age, Khan (1981, as cited in Mak et al., 2012b) claims that older people, due to their different taste perception and experiences, prefer other foods than younger people. Kim, Eves, and Scarles (2009) emphasize that gender, age and educational background have a significant influence on local food consumption by tourists. Their study reveals, for instance, that female visitors tend to be more concerned about health issues, diet and nutrition facts. Furthermore, they mention that older persons show a large interest in perceiving the local culture and are more concerned about health and natural resources than younger people, showing that age can in fact influence tourist travel motivations. Concerning tourists' educational background, Kim et al. (2009) revealed that people with a high-level of education are more likely to be interested in cultural activities during their travels.

2.3.3 Food-related personality traits

Food-related personality traits can be defined as "individual characteristics that exert a pervasive influence on a broad range of food-related behaviours" and have been recognized in having a significant influence on the tourist food choices and consumption behaviour (Mak et al., 2012b, p. 932). Based on the analysis of the existing food tourism literature, one can detect two highly important character

15

traits: "neophobic" and "neophilic" tendencies (Mak et al., 2012b). Cohen and Avieli (2004) refer to this differentiation, first mentioned by Fischler (1988), to explain the willingness of tourists to try unusual food. Fischler (1988) claims that people are by nature sceptic towards unknown and strange food (neophobic) but also have a certain drive to explore new foods (neophilic). Therefore, one cannot make a clear division between neophobic and neophilic people as each person can show both personality traits (Cohen & Avieli, 2004).

Nevertheless, Cohen and Avieli (2004) state that tourists show a stronger tendency towards trying novel food during their travels compared to their usual behaviour in their home country and suggest that a journey to another destination may provoke the tourist's neophilic character traits. On the contrary, Torres (2002) claims that tourists overall choose familiar food over unfamiliar food while travelling. Moreover, it may occur that the location in which tourists plan to consume novel food intimidates them and therefore prevents them from trying a new cuisine (e.g. hygiene standards, dubious or remote locations, unsafe impressions) (Torres, 2002). Furthermore, if a destination does not offer establishments, which meet the visitor's expectations, most tourists feel reluctant to visit an ominous local food institution and may even experience "anxiety", "insecurity" and "frustration" (Cohen & Avieli, 2004, p. 761). This signifies that in some cases local food can be an impediment for some tourists. Therefore, it is crucial for the tourism industry to create an image of a destination's food culture, which does not act as an impediment for tourists and seems approachable to them (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). To achieve such an image, it is important to be aware of the food preferences of potential customers (Quan & Wang, 2004).

As mentioned above, tourists who generally tend to be neophylic may show neophobic characteristics while travelling and consuming novel food. This creates a conundrum for destinations, which on the one side want to create establishments where neophylic tourists can explore their taste buds but on the other side do not scare away neophobic tourists with unusual food. Such dilemmas can be resolved if the destination achieves to create an "environmental bubble", which offers the tourist an unthreatening food consumption environment (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). An example could be restaurants that indicate the level of spiciness for each item on

the menu and therefore, allow the customer to have a perception of what he or she may expect.

2.3.4 Exposure effect and past experience

Referring to the neophobic characteristics discussed before, tourists normally consume food, for which they have already developed some level of trust (Mak et al., 2012b). Meaning, that it is more likely that tourists consume a certain dish, which they already have tried once before. Studies have revealed, that tourists, after being exposed to certain foods on a regular basis, create a certain fondness and trust to these kind of foods (Birch, 1999; Stein, Nagai, Nakagawa, & Beauchamp, 2003).

Due to globalisation, people are being exposed to a large variety of food from all over the world (Mak et al., 2012a). Let alone the fact that one can find a Chinese or Italian restaurant in almost every European city. Torres (2002) claims, for example, that due to globalisation, Americans have become more familiar with foreign fruits like mangoes, papayas or pineapples and that they are no longer seen as exotic but rather are being included in the country's cuisine. Even if some Americans have not tasted the fruit in its original state, they have tried the juice of these fruits as they are being used in many beverages (Torres, 2002).

Mak et al. (2012b) suggest, that tourists who have visited a destination already once before and have experienced its local food, could develop a larger fondness towards this cuisine. Furthermore, thanks to the increase of globalisation and a large offer of foreign restaurants, tourists have the opportunity to actually experience a country's cuisine even before planning to visit this country. However, it must be mentioned that in some cases, ethnic food offered outside of the country it originates from may be different from the traditional cuisine, as it may have been modified to please the preferences of the locals and certain ingredients may not be available. These opportunities, where people can try a country's cuisine, can have a significant effect on the tourist food consumption behaviour while travelling but also on their food preferences in their home country (Mak et al., 2012b).

Overall, there are many opportunities where tourists are being exposed to ethnic food, such as the variety of food supplied in their home country, restaurants which offer international cuisine or other sources that inform people about foreign food, such as the Internet or other media (Mak et al., 2012a).

2.3.5   Motivational factors

To explain what motivates tourists travelling to certain destinations to experience its local food, Fields (2002, p. 37) refers to the findings of McIntosh (1995) and applies the following four categories to explain the motives of food tourists:

- Physical motivators
- Cultural motivators
- Interpersonal motivators
- Status and prestige motivators

Physical motivators refer to the fact that food is a basic need of humans and, therefore, must be consumed by any tourist while travelling. This can be applied to all tourists and, hence, does not serve as an explanation for tourists travelling for food. In this case, Fields (2002) suggests that physical motivators could also be other needs such as a repose, a change of surroundings or the search to try novel foods. Furthermore, health has been identified as a motivator for tourists to consume certain foods. Several destinations offer food-related products or dishes that are known to have a positive effect on people's health (e.g. the Mediterranean cuisine, known for cooking mainly with olive oil). Especially for Western countries such aspect can seem attractive and can be used to market a destination, as tourists from these countries are often concerned with "weight gain, cholesterol and other health problems" (Fields, 2002, p. 38).

Food is an important part of a country's heritage as it often serves as a reflection of its culture. Hence, food can be viewed as a cultural motivator, since tourists who are enjoying local food are at the same time also encountering a destination's culture (Fields, 2002). As suggested by Fields, the quest for authenticity can be seen as a key motivator in tourism and food offers the perfect environment to experience the

"authenticity" of a destination. Consequently, he reveals that many suppliers in the tourism industry try to create and offer settings where tourists can experience authentic and genuine food. In some cases, however, dishes may have been altered to fit the tourist's tolerance level.

Apart from the occasional tourist travelling on his or her own, the majority of people travel in groups of two and more. This creates the possibility to share certain events with each other, which, in general, may enhance the whole experience in a positive way (e.g. sharing a meal together) (Fields, 2002). Warde and Martens (2002) reveal in their survey that people dining out in the UK perceive the social aspect of food as more valuable than its qualitative aspect. Based on his findings, Fields (2002) claims that in a tourism context, consuming food in company helps create relationships and enhances social bonds, which makes it an interpersonal motivator. He mentions the example that nowadays the pace of everyday life has changed and it has become a rare occasion that families dine together. However, being on vacation provides families with an opportunity to engage on a social basis with each other. Food and beverages may also act as a tool between strangers to meet and interact with each other (e.g. conference dinners, galas). This motivational factor can be quite fascinating from a sociological perspective as it allows insights into the family life and other social interactions of people (Fields, 2002).

For a long time, status and prestige have been viewed as important motivators for people to go on trips and explore new destinations (Fields, 2002). Applied to food tourism, dining at famous restaurants and other people knowing about it has always been a popular way to demonstrate one's status (Richards, 2002). Culinary tourism has developed into an important lifestyle factor for the middle classes who are starting to plan their holidays in places, which offer special culinary features (e.g. a wine and cheese tasting in Tuscany). Tourists often seek certain dishes and foods that cannot be found in their home country and therefore, cannot be experienced by their friends back home. Another habit of tourists to establish status and prestige is to seek unknown and ethnic restaurants, which are only visited by locals and cannot be found in the "standard" travel guide. However, as soon as this restaurant appears on the radar of other tourists, it would lose its unique appeal (Fields, 2002).

Although Fields' (2002) findings are not verified empirically, his revelations were highly significant for the field of food tourism and created the basis for several studies concerning the tourist's food consumption behaviour and motivations, especially because they include the experience of local and non-local food (Mak et al., 2013).

While Fields (2002) categorizes the motivators for tourist food consumption into physical, cultural, interpersonal and status and prestige motivators, Kim et al., (2009) reveals nine other motivators, after conducting in-depth interviews with 20 people:

- exciting experiences
- escape from routine
- health concern
- learning knowledge
- authentic experience
- togetherness
- prestige
- sensory appeal
- physical environment

Based on the results by Kim et al. (2009), Mak et al. (2012b) divide these food-related motivational factors into five main groups, namely: symbolic, obligatory, contrast, extension and pleasure. The symbolic dimension includes activities where food has a symbolic meaning such as exploring the culture of a destination, authentic experiences, educational value or prestige and status (Mak et al. 2012a). The obligatory dimension refers to the fact that food is a necessity and also relates to health aspects. The contrast dimension reflects, as the name already suggests, the attitude to search for a contrast in the day-to-day experience of tourists (e.g. visiting factories or wineries on the countryside to create a more interesting city trip). Furthermore, the extension dimension covers aspects where tourists engage in food-related experiences that may extend their regular program, such as eating habits. Lastly, the pleasure dimension refers to situations where tourists desire pleasurable food experiences for all senses (Mak et al., 2012b).

Based on Mak et al. (2012b), all factors which influence the tourist food consumption can be summarized in the following graph (Figure 2):
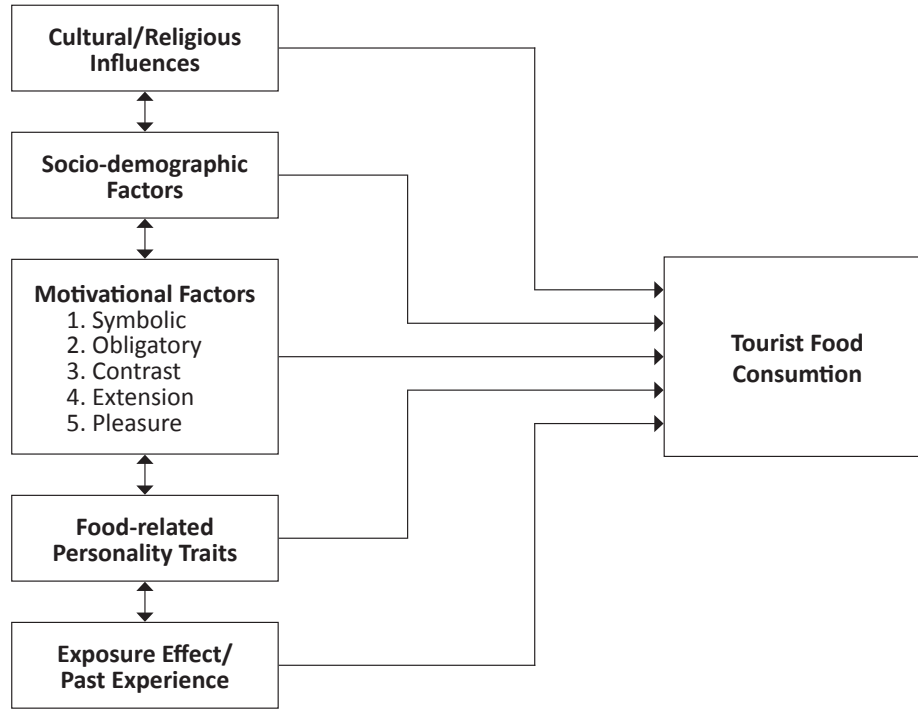
Figure 2: Factors influencing tourist food consumption (Mak et al., 2012b, p. 934)

Referring to the previously mentioned motivational factors (symbolic, obligatory, contrast, extension and pleasure) (Mak et al., 2012b), Mak et al. (2013) added to their analysis the following 14 subcategories of the five dimensions mentioned above: authentic experience, prestige, cultural knowledge, health concern, assurance, convenience, price/value, novelty, variety, familiarity, eating habits, sensory pleasure, social pleasure and contextual pleasure. These can be categorized as seen in Figure 3:
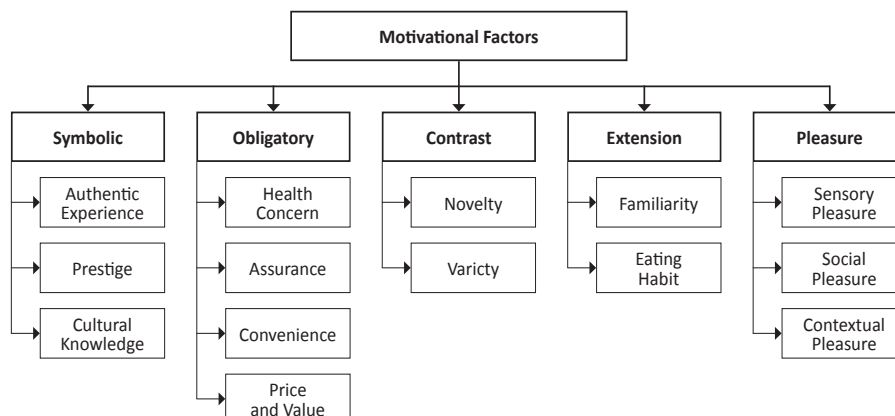
Figure 3: Subcategories of motivational factors (Mak et al., 2013, p. 331)

Based on the analysis of the existing literature, it becomes clear that there are various factors that contribute to the tourist's food choices. Due to the increasing number of studies over the years concerning the food consumption behaviour of tourists (Fields, 2002; Mak et al., 2012a; Mak et al., 2012b; Mak et al., 2013; Organ et al., 2014) there has been a larger understanding of this subject. Nevertheless, the majority of literature focuses on quantitative research methods concerning food events and local food and have theories such as Field's (2002) four motivational factors as their basis (Mak et al., 2013). For this study, the author is interested in discovering which factors are the primary motivators of Austrian tourists and if there is a difference between tourists from Generation X and Generation Y.

2.4 Characteristics and types of food tourists

It has been revealed that eating out as a tourist compared to eating out during normal occasions differs and it is therefore necessary to closer examine this phenomenon to better comprehend the touristic food consumption (Mitchell & Hall, 2003). In the following section the author will review literature on the different types of food tourists based on their perception and attitude towards food while travelling. Furthermore, the author will explicate the key values and attitudes of tourists and illustrate typical characteristics of food tourists.

22

2.4.1 Types of food tourists

Referring to Cohen's (1984) study, which categorized tourist's lifestyle, Hjalager (2003) divides tourists, based on their perception and approach towards food and drinks during their travels, into four categories: recreational, existential, diversionary and experimental gastronomy tourists. The next paragraphs evaluate the touristic food experience based on Hjalager's proposed model (Hjalager 2003, as cited in Kivela & Crotts, 2006).

Recreational tourists show a tendency of loosening their day-to-day routine while travelling and tend to spend a larger amount of money than in their home country for pleasurable purposes. They are often not highly interested in the authenticity of a country's cuisine and avoid consuming novel or unusual food, but rather search for dishes, which they are already familiar with from their home country. This behaviour could be described as neophobic (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). An example could be tourists in destinations such as Spain and Greece consuming mass-marketed cuisine offered by restaurants. Kivela and Crotts (2006) describe recreational tourists as rather traditional since family values and dining together are perceived as highly important. Furthermore, they tend to be overwhelmed by wait staff, elegant food institutions, extravagant wine and expensive dining. Additionally, the atmosphere of the food consumption environment has no particular importance for recreational tourists. In general, food has no highly significant role for them and food-related activities are often only perceived passively.

On the contrary, existential tourists are the kind of people that are very keen to participate in food-related activities. They are interested in visiting farms and wineries, attending cooking classes, collecting vegetables and fruits on fields, participating in a cheese making courses and going fishing with professionals. They also tend to purchase and sample local specialties as souvenirs. Their primary information sources are the Internet and food and travel magazines, rather than suggestions by travel agencies and pamphlets (Kivela & Crotts, 2006). In general, the existential tourists would choose local and ethnic restaurants, either because they

are seeking to experience the local culture of a destination or because they also prefer to dine in this manner in their home country (Cohen & Avieli, 2004).

As mentioned by Kivela and Crotts (2006), diversionary tourists want to leave behind their everyday life in their place of origin, such as doing chores or nourishing the family. For them, food and drinks while travelling must be accessible with no difficulties or effort. Also, the amount of food being served is crucial for them, since quantity is perceived as more important than quality (e.g. chain restaurants, cheap house wine, large portions). Diversionaries despise exotic and unusual food. Regarding the subject of social context, diversionary tourists prefer eating in company with friends, family and newly met people. Therefore, they often prefer rugged and simple settings such as trattorias or other restaurants where one does not have to dress in a particular way and the mood is rather easy-going. Their primary information source would be travel agencies or pamphlets and often they employ a tour guide (Kivela & Crotts, 2006).

Lastly, experimental tourists can be illustrated by consuming certain foods and drinks. At a holiday destination they can be found in the trendiest design cafes and restaurants that offer the latest innovations in cuisine, surrounded by hip settings. These tourists are familiar with the latest trends in the food industry and know exactly, which ingredients, dishes or new preparation methods are popular at the moment. They do not have to be great cooks. In fact, some experimental tourists do not cook very often for themselves, but are rather well informed about trends and styles due to reading food-related magazines. For these tourists, the qualitative and fashionable aspect of the food they are consuming has a high importance level. Other prestigious objects such as expensive kitchen utensils, designer clothes, interior design or renowned car brands are seen as synonyms for explicit food. Experimental tourists would buy items such as coffee-table cookbooks, books about wine and culinary aspects, kitchen gadgets or other design objects as souvenirs (Kivela & Crotts, 2006). Concerning their food consumption behaviour while travelling, experimental tourists frequent local markets and consume ethnic dishes. As the name already suggests, they are highly experimental and are open to trying new spices, fruits, dishes, and are interested in seeing how certain foods are being prepared (e.g. closely watching a street vendor while he is preparing a meal). This

open mindedness derives from being genuinely curious rather than from actually enjoying the food. Nevertheless, an absolute exposure to a destination's cuisine and culture cannot be expected by these tourists, since they tend to make these sorts of experiences in a touristic environment (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). The experimental tourist, if he or she had a pleasant food experience, is also very likely to return to the respective destination (Kivela & Crotts, 2006).

2.4.2   Characteristics of food tourists

In the following paragraphs the author will explicate what exactly characterizes food tourists and which attitudes and values they usually posses.

Gaztelumendi (2012) defines tourists, which show interest in food-related activities while travelling, as the following:

- They participate in novel trends and consume cultural aspects of the place.
- They try to experience a destination's authenticity by consuming food.
- They are interested in where their food originates from.
- They view the consumption of food as a possibility to socialize and exchange information.
- They have, in general, higher expenses.
- They avoid consistency.

As stated by Carlsen and Charters (2006), in general, more information can be found on the wine tourist than on the food tourist, as the latter one has been seen as a rather inferior area of research. Ignatov (2003), after studying food tourists and wine tourists in Canada, refers to the rather familiar picture of the middle-aged or older, educated, male wine tourist. However, even though she discovered these qualities in her research, the majority of the wine tourists were female, not male. Furthermore, she revealed that a larger number of people, mainly but not entirely females, are more interested in food tourism than in wine tourism or food and wine tourism.

Mitchell and Hall (2003) claim, that possessing knowledge about the values and attitudes of food tourists can be essential information for destinations to promote

food tourism. In the decision making process of tourists, attitudes and values are highly important factors. Compared to motivational factors, which are rather spontaneous and flexible, attitudes and values are more engraved in the tourist's persona (Kotler, Bowen & Makens, 2006). Tourism Victoria (2000, as cited in Mitchell & Hall, 2003) conducted an analysis of people visiting the state of Victoria in Australia and revealed two tourist segments, "socially aware" and "visible achievers", which are more likely to participate in food-related activities. These two segments show the following characteristics (Mitchell & Mitchell, 2000, after Roy Morgan Research, 1997, as cited in Mitchell & Hall, 2003, p. 71,):

Socially Aware

- They possess a high level of education.
- They work in professional/managerial fields.
- They are often public servants, politicians and researchers.
- They are interested in new trends and innovations.
- They prefer "learning a living" than earning a living.
- They pursue education and knowledge.

Visible Achiever

- They are around forty years old.
- They are wealth creators.
- They have traditional values about home, work and society.
- They work for financial reward and job satisfaction.
- They see importance in quality and value for money.
- They are interested in public affairs, the economy and politics.

Furthermore, Tourism Victoria (2000, as cited in Mitchell & Hall, 2003, p. 71-72) concludes that mostly young couples (single, no children, below 45) fall under the segment "socially aware", while midlife households (single/married with children below the age of 16, 45-60 years old) fall under the segment "visible achiever". These segments seem to have a high interest in food and wine tourism. This information is valuable to detect culinary tourists with a high-levelled interest in food but also to study markets with lower interest levels (Mitchell & Hall, 2003).

Based on the literature reviewed above, one can detect certain key characteristics of tourists, who engage in food-related activities while on holidays. For the purpose of this study, the author will use this information to analyse Austrians and their food consumption behaviour while travelling and detect their perception and attitude towards food. After defining and analysing food in tourism, the author will provide a brief understanding of generational theory in the following chapters, as it constitutes the second part of this thesis' area of research. Since only a few studies (Ignatov, 2003; Kim, Eves & Scarles, 2009) have explored the attitudes of tourists from different age groups towards food, the author is interested in analysing whether there are significant disparities between Generation X and Generation Y.

2.5 Generation X and Generation Y

Studies have revealed that there is a number of disparities between different generational cohorts concerning their travel behaviour, values, attitudes or influential events in their life span (Li, Li, & Hudson, 2013). The following paragraphs will analyse these differences, with a focus on the characteristics and travel behaviours of Generation X and Y.

2.5.1 Generational Theory

Pendergast (2010, p. 1) defines generational theory as the attempt "to understand and characterize cohorts of people according to their membership of a generation, which is objectively assigned according to the year of birth." This theory applies a socio-cultural framework and can be applied to a larger cohort of people rather than on individuals (Pendergast, 2010). Generational cohorts are characterized by demographics, media, pop culture, market analysis and by people of their own generational group (Pendergast, 2007; Fields et al., 2008). The study of generations provides useful information and tools for researchers in the tourism industry, since by studying basic demographical factors, it can provide insights into the characteristics of young adults starting their careers and novel tourists entering the

tourism market. However, the theory is limited to certain research areas due to its large scope and level of generalization (Pendergast, 2010).

One of the main contradictions in generational studies is the fact that there are several opinions on how generational cohorts should be allocated by their years of birth (Moscardo & Benckendorff, 2010). For example, Pendergast (2010) defines Generation X as being born between 1961 and 1981 and Generation Y between 1982 and 2002. On the contrary, Martin and Tulgan (2006) base their studies on the assumption that members of Generation X were born between 1965 and 1977 and Generation Y between 1978 and 1989. Another definition derives from Harmon et al. (1999, as cited in Huang & Petrick, 2010), which states that members of Generation X were born between 1965 and 1976 and Generation Y between 1977 and 1994. This illustrates the difficulty in defining a universal generational theory as these definitions show variations of up to five years. However, for the purpose of this study, the author will refer to the age groups proposed by Pendergast (2010), with 20 years as the typical generational span (illustrated in Table 2).

Birth years	Generation name	Age in 2015
1961 – 1981	Generation X	34 – 54
1982 - 2002	Generation y	13 - 33

Table 2: Generation X and Generation Y (Pendergast, 2010)

According to Pendergast (2010), generational cohorts, who grow up and live in the same locations, also share the same influential experiences (e.g. economic crisis, World War II) during their most forming years. This aspect leads to them having similar values and beliefs, which shape the generation's character. Furthermore, Pendergast (2010, p. 3) mentions that each generation contains certain subgroups, which describe them even more accurately. For example, Generation Y depicts three subgroups, namely the "Generation Why" (born 1982 – 1985), the "Millenials" (born 1985 – 1999) and the "iGeneration" (born 1999 – 2002). Millenials, due to being the group in the middle, seem to represent Generation Y's traits the fullest. Possessing knowledge of these characteristics allows researchers to detect communal behaviours such as work ethics, family orientation, consumption preferences or attitudes towards politics (Pendergast, 2010).

Based on the analysis of Howe and Strauss (2007), a generational cohort changes over time. To forecast in which way a generation will evolve, Howe and Strauss (2007) suggest examining past generation's evolvement, which had the same prerequisites. For example, events such as a crisis, war or cultural revolutions can influence a generation's persona significantly. Therefore, as suggested by Howe and Strauss (2007), generations can be allocated in four different repetitive archetypes, based on the life cycle they are currently in: prophet, nomad, hero and artist.

As mentioned by Howe and Strauss (2007), prophet generations are born in a post-war era and enjoy a relaxed childhood. As young adults, they experience "spiritual awakening" and develop clear morals in their mid-adulthood and eventually become guides for future crisis (currently Baby Boomers). The nomad generation is born whilst a cultural revolution against set orders. They enjoy a less protected childhood than the prophets, followed by an estranged adulthood, a crisis lead midlife and a "post-crisis" elderhood (currently Generation X). Hero generations are characterized by their protected childhood, team oriented adulthood, active mid-adulthood and potent elderhood. Technology and community pay important roles in their lives (currently Generation Y). Lastly, the artist generation is born whilst a period of crisis or war, which is characterized by sacrifice. They are defined by an overprotected childhood, post-crisis adulthood, experimental mid-adulthood and sensitive elderhood (currently Generation Z) (Howe & Strauss, 2007, p. 45-47). These four phases can be seen a cycle, where each generation passes through one during their life span, while keeping the key characteristics of their generation (Pendergast, 2010).

2.5.2 Characteristics of Generation X

Generation X (born 1961-1981, age in 2015: 34-54) (Pendergast, 2010), currently the living nomad generation, grew up during a period where in many households both parents were either working or where divorced and single parents (since Gen X-ers are a generation with the largest number of parents divorced) (Zemke, Raines & Filipczak, 2013). They were influenced by incompetent school systems and collapsed marriages and adhered already in their childhood and young adulthood the attitude

29

to distrust regulated establishments. Compared to nowadays, childcare was not yet as accessible and since many mothers were urged to return to their employment, many Gen X-ers experienced a rather less caring childhood (Howe & Strauss, 2007).

Concerning work preferences, many members of Generation X enjoy to work for themselves or for liberal agencies rather than large corporations. Due to their expertise in technology and general ambition, Generation X brought forward some of the greatest American entrepreneurs (Howe & Strauss, 2007). According to Pendergast (2010), the Gen X-ers are currently in the nomad stage of their cycle, meaning they are viewed as rationalistic and depressed. They are experiencing mid-adulthood and often occupy management positions, with more mature members of the generation entering higher positions.

As claimed by Jorgensen (2003), some of the key characteristics of Generation X are as following:

- They value independence.
- They perceive work with and action-oriented view.
- They question the cause of issues.
- They try to acquire skills and expertise.
- They are unloyal to companies over a longer period (however, value loyalty to individuals).
- They thrieve towards a work-life balance.
- Their personal goals are more valuable than their work goals.

Gen X is tech competent and can be viewed as the creditors for defining the Internet as it is known today. For work related correspondence, they prefer using e-mail or the web as communicational tools (Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009). In comparison to Generation Y, they are the generation with the highest number of tertiary educations in the US (on the basis of enrollments in higher education institutions, such as colleges and universities) (Mitchell et al., 2005).

Although the subject of generational theory is not a new area of research (Mannheim, 1952), it seems that over the last decade there have been more detailed studies concerning Generation Y than the previous generations, perhaps

due to being the next generation entering the tourism market. However, based on the above findings, it becomes clear that Generation X and Generation Y have been influenced and formed by various events and factors during their lifetime, which created two cohorts with unique characteristics.

2.5.3 Characteristics of Generation Y

Generation Y (born 1982 – 2002, age in 2015: 13-33) (Pendergast, 2010), also widely known as Millenials, are currently young adults and are the living hero generation at the moment. This generation often brings forward some highly important leadership figures and members are viewed as team-oriented collaborators, which also show respect in front of their superiors, even though they tend to be self-centred. The Y Generation are fast learners and can adapt quickly to new circumstances, making this a key quality in the work environment (Pendergast, 2010). As mentioned before, concerning Generation X, Generation Y shows the same interest in creating a work-life balance (Young et al., 2013). Furthermore, this generation is characterized by having a lot of confidence, being easy-going and traditional and having the highest average education level compared to the other generations (Pendergast, 2010). However, this contradicts with the fact stated before by Mitchell et al. (2005) that Generation X is the highest educated generation. The reason for these two contrary outlooks could be the time difference between both studies as Generation Y has aged and has had the chance to accumulate more tertiary studies.

Generation Y constitutes the first generation, which is familiar with the Internet, social media and cellular phones since their childhood years (Tyler, 2007). This generation can be characterized as "digital natives" since they grew up with technology and are familiar with the digital language (Prensky, 2006). Barnikel (2005) claims, that members of Generation Y view more content on the Internet than on television, being the first generation with such a consumption habit. These factors may have supported Generation Y to become the most tech competent generation living, since they have been acquainted with technology since their formative years.

According to Pendergast (2010), Generation Y values the opinions of their friends very high. Furthermore, their classification of a "friend" varies compared to the previous generations, since for Generation Y "friends" are people in their network and do not have to be necessarily close to them. This aspect may refer to the connectivity of Gen Y-ers due to social media, which allows them to create a network of friends all over the world. From a financial perspective, Generation Y is currently becoming part of the working world (Young et al., 2013) and has usually been supported financially by their parents longer than the generations before (Pendergast, 2010). Therefore, they received the nickname "helicopter kids" as they stay in proximity to their family for a long period of time (Salt, 2006, as cited in Pendergast, 2010).

Generation Y is characterized by having a high credit dependency and being rather unsure buyers. They constantly feel the urge to update their tech devices (e.g. having the newest smartphone, camera etc.) to follow the latest trends. However, the economic crisis has made it more difficult for Gen Y-ers to set foot into the working world as fewer jobs were available and many businesses had to close, creating an unstable and unclear future for this generation (Pendergast, 2010).

Howe (2000) defines seven key characteristics of Generation Y, which can be determined as:

- Special (the feeling of being an important part of society)
- Sheltered (protective childhood)
- Confident (a sense of pride concerning positive aspects of one's country)
- Team-oriented (since childhood exposed to group situations and team work)
- Achieving (highest educated generation)
- Pressured (high pressure to achieve well in all life aspects)
- Conventional (conventional attitude towards values)

Based on the above-mentioned characteristics, one can say that Generation Y is a highly educated, technology savvy, confident and credit dependent generation which values the opinions of their friends and tend to have a rather busy Internet social life.

The key characteristics of Generation X and Y can be summarized as in Table 3 (Pendergast, 2010, p. 4):

Factors	Generation X	Generation Y
Beliefs and Values	Variety, freedom	Lifestyle, fun
Motivations	Individuality	Self-discovery, relational
Decision Making	Experts, information, brand switchers	Friends, little brand loyalty
Earning and Spending	Credit savvy, confident, investors	Uncertain spenders, short-term wants, credit development
Learning styles	Auditory or visual dialogue	Visual, kinaesthetic, multi-sensory
Marketing and Communication	Descriptive and direct	Participative, viral, through friends
Training Environment	Round-table style, planned, relaxed ambience	Unstructured, interactive
Management and Leadership	Cooperation, competency, doers	Consensus, creativity, feelers

Table 3: Characteristics of Generation X and Generation Y (Pendergast, 2010, p. 4)

2.5.4 Travel behaviour of Generation X and Generation Y

Studies have revealed that there are significant differences in the generational cohorts concerning their travel behaviour and preferences (Li et al., 2013). Demographic characteristics, especially age, are viewed as useful indicators for segmenting markets and targeting certain tourist cohorts and are key influencers of tourist travel behaviours (Huang & Petrick, 2010). The following paragraphs will illustrate these core disparities based on reviewing several findings in this area.

According to Huang and Petrick (2010), Generation X are currently earning their highest income and are the current business travellers. Compared to the previous generations, Gen X-ers are the highest spenders when it comes to travelling for leisure. On the contrary, Li et al. (2013) claim that Generation Y possesses the lowest average household income and are known to spend the littlest for leisure travel purposes, due to the fact that this generation is only currently entering the working

world (Harrington, Ottenbacher, Staggs, & Powell, 2012). However, they are becoming the next big tourist group since many members of Generation Y are graduating from college at present (Li et al., 2013).

From a tourism marketing perspective, it is highly necessary for destinations and organizations to be aware of the generational differences to achieve a precise targeting of each cohort. It would be ignorant to assume that targeting new emerging tourist markets in the same way as previously would lead to similar results (Pennington-Gray, Fridgen, & Stynes, 2003). Huang and Petrick (2010) claim that due to Generation X's familiarity with the media, the television is the main medium to advertise to this generational cohort. However, members of this generation do not accept every message, since they view advertisement as manipulative and tend to be rather sceptic towards ads. To reach this audience effectively, advertisement should be straightforward and energetic and should convince of a product's reliability and quality. In general, destination-marketing managers should promote packaged tours, special discounts and destinations such as beaches, theme or amusement parks and sport events (Huang & Petrick, 2010). A study by Huang and Petrick (2010) suggests that compared to Generation X, Generation Y is the most dependent cohort when it comes to decision-making. Because they are critical towards mass media and value the opinion of their friends, Gen Y-ers are addressed the best by word-of-mouth publicity, fast and energetic visual aids and ads that represent their lifestyle in an amusing and light way (Morton, 2002).

Richards (2007, as cited in Pendergast, 2010, p. 11) states the following features as the key travel behaviours of Generation Y:

- travelling more often
- exploring more destinations
- spending more on travel
- booking more over the Internet
- experience hungry
- information hungry
- intrepid travellers
- getting a lot out of their travel

However, referring to the belief that Generation Y travels more frequently than the other generations, one can find contradicting opinions. For example, based on the findings by Moscardo and Benckendorff (2010), there is no clear evidence of the Y Generation being more frequent travellers. Therefore, it is yet unclear which generation has the higher number of travelling members.

Furthermore, a study by the Canadian Government (2002, as cited in Moscardo & Benckendorff, 2010) suggests that Generation Y shows a great interest in activities such as dining at elegant restaurants, shopping, music events and nature-based activities while travelling. Also, a trend to travelling independently and close to one's home can be observed. According to Contiki (2008, as cited in Moscardo & Pendergast, 2010), Generation Y-ers show a strong favouritism towards experiencing a destination's local culture, while travelling more frequently and spending more time at a destination.

Based on the above analysis, it becomes clear that there varying factors that influence the travel behaviour of both generational cohorts. As mentioned before, some of these factors include their financial situation, attitude towards marketing and general travel preferences. Therefore, it is necessary to analyse these generational differences to acquire a clear perspective of their travel behaviour. As proposed by Pennington-Gray et al. (2003), thorough research of generational groups in different countries should be conducted, since studies have revealed that each country may have its unique influencing factors which defined a generation's persona. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the author will conduct research explicitly addressing Austrians of Generation X and Generation Y.

2.6   Suggested Hypotheses

After reviewing the existing literature, the following four hypotheses were developed for this paper:

- H1: The role of food while travelling differs between Generation X and Generation Y.

- H2: Tourists from Generation X and Generation Y differ in their neophobic and neophylic tendencies.

- H3: Tourists from Generation X and Generation Y differ in their information source preferences when searching for food-related information.

- H4: Generation X participates more often in food-related activities while travelling than Generation Y.

In order to test their consistency, the author will apply quantitative research methods by conducting a questionnaire survey. Each hypothesis will be tested and, later on, evaluated. The following chapter will review the mythology used in the survey.

3   Methods

3.1   Types of Research

According to Veal (2006) and Creswell (2014), there are three different types of research approaches: qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods. This differentiation, however, must not be seen as a strict limitation to either use one or the other. Rather, it illustrates a continuum. For example, some studies propose a more quantitative than qualitative approach and vice versa. A mixed methods approach would apply both quantitative and qualitative elements (Creswell, 2014).

Qualitative research involves the gathering of a large amount of information from a concentrated group of people (Veal, 2006). Usually, it tries to examine a group and their attitude towards a social issue. In order to collect the desired data, participants are typically asked questions concerning a specific topic and research conductors later interpret the data (Creswell, 2014). The centre of qualitative research is often the individual comments and opinions of the participants (Creswell, 2014). The outcome of a qualitative study is usually not, as with quantitative research, shown by numbers. Some ways to collect qualitative data are, for example, observations and informal or in-depth interviews (Veal, 2006).

A quantitative research approach involves the use of data in a numeric form. This approach applies statistical analysis in order to test previously stated hypotheses to draw a conclusion. Compared to the qualitative research approach, quantitative research usually involves the study of a large group of people in order to achieve reliable and significant results. Methods used to acquire such data include questionnaire surveys, observations or secondary sources (Veal, 2006). Usually, the results are presented in a report with a set structure, starting with an introduction, a review of the existing literature and theories, an explanation of the methods used, the results of the study and a following discussion (Creswell, 2014).

A mixed methods approach would be combining both qualitative and quantitative methods and collecting the two types of data (Creswell, 2014). In many cases, research can be based on a qualitative foundation and then is further proved by quantitative methods (Veal, 2006). In order to choose the right research approach, it depends on what kind of research question one is dealing with and what kind of results one wants to achieve. In this study, a quantitative research approach will be applied by conducting a questionnaire survey.

In the end, the author chose to apply a quantitative research approach. This practice was selected in order to test against certain theories, gather representative information and examine general trends.

3.2   Questionnaire Surveys

As stated by Veal (2006, p. 231), questionnaire surveys "involve the gathering of information from individuals using a formally designed schedule of questions called a questionnaire or interview schedule." The following paragraphs will observe the concept of questionnaire surveys and the different types of surveys.

Often, the terms "survey" and "questionnaire" are being used synonymously, which, however, is incorrect. To state a clear differentiation, a survey is the whole aspect of a study and a questionnaire is only a method to gather the desired information from a certain number of participants. Questionnaire surveys usually only examine a specific sample of a population and are dependent on the participant's responses.

How accurate the collected information is relies on several factors such as the honesty of the participants, their ability to recall certain information and the overall design of the questionnaire. In general, questionnaires involve a large group of people and are therefore, dependant on evaluating the results by using certain computer programs (Veal, 2006).

As mentioned by Veal (2006), there are six different types of questionnaire surveys: household surveys, street surveys, telephone surveys, mail surveys, E-surveys, user/on-site/visitor surveys and captive group surveys.

Household surveys are usually authorized by a leisure or tourism organization or by the government and are normally used for marketing implications. Due to their large sample size with participants from all age groups, occupational groups, ethnical backgrounds etc. they can often be seen as a representative sample of a certain country, state/region, or neighbourhood (Veal, 2006). Telephone surveys are usually popular among political pollsters and in market and academic research due to being easy and quick to conduct. The participants are randomly selected from a list of telephone numbers using CATI software (Computer Assisted Telephone Interviewing) and the interview usually lasts between 10 to 15 minutes (Veal, 2006; Trochim & Donnelly, 2007). Mail surveys are questionnaires in paper version sent to individual's homes and are rather inexpensive to be conducted. Their main advantages are that they can be sent out to a large number of people and the respondents can fill it out whenever it is convenient for them (Trochim & Donnelly, 2007). However, mail surveys characterized by low response rates (25 to 30 per cent) since often the participants do not bother to fill out and reply to the survey (Veal, 2006).

Street surveys are usually characterized by rather short questionnaires and by inquiring pedestrians on the street. Normally, the participants are questioned at highly frequented areas such as large shopping streets or tourist and pedestrian areas by using a cross-selective approach. However, street surveys usually come with certain limitations such as the restricted length of the questionnaire, since respondents often do not want to invest excessive time to participate in the survey. Another limitation of street surveys is the difficulty to achieve a representative

sample of a population. Some individuals may not frequent shopping streets of tourist areas but perhaps are desired participants for the survey (Veal, 2006).

E-surveys can be divided into two categories, namely the e-mail survey and the web survey. With regards to e-mail surveys, participants usually receive an e-mail containing a questionnaire, which he or she can either print, fill out and send it back to the researcher or fill out the questionnaire electronically using a word-processor and e-mailing it back. The other category of e-surveys is web surveys, which are fully electronic. Here, the respondent receives a link to an online questionnaire and the researcher then immediately saves the data in electronic form (Veal, 2006; Trochim & Donnelly, 2007). E-surveys have relatively low costs and are therefore easy to apply. However, they are strictly limited to people with an Internet access and can be seen as unwelcome "junk mail" when sent via e-mail. Veal (2006) also mentions on-site/site surveys, user surveys and captive group surveys.

For the purpose of this study, the author conducted a web-survey and a street survey, which resolved in a sufficient number of participants from both generational cohorts.

3.3 Sampling

As mentioned by Trochim and Donnelly (2007), sampling is the selection of a certain part of a population for closer examination in order to later on generalize the results for the whole population. In the following paragraphs, the author will give a brief overview of the concept of sampling, the difference between probability and non-probability sampling and the different types of sampling methods.

There are two different types of samplings, namely probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling is applied when the probability of each person participating in the survey is known (Robson, 2011). This method involves a random selection process where each participant has an equal chance in being selected (Trochim & Donnelly, 2007). On the contrary, non-probability sampling does not apply random selection techniques and is therefore seen as less representative for a specific population (Robson, 2011).

According to Robson (2011), there are five main types of probability samples, namely simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified random sampling, cluster sampling and multi-stage sampling. The most basic probability sampling method, as the name already implies, is simple random sampling where all participants are selected randomly by using techniques such as a lottery method or dedicated computer programs. By applying systematic sampling, researchers would select every nth participant from an organized list. Stratified random sampling involves organizing the population into specific "stratas" (e.g. male/female) and then randomly selecting within a strata. Cluster sampling applies a technique where people with different characteristics are divided into "clusters" and then randomly selected. Lastly, multi-stage sampling can be seen as a continuation of cluster sampling where samples are selected in stages. For example, first sampling a school and then a specific class within the school (Robson, 2011).

The main types of non-probability sampling are quota sampling, dimensional sampling, convenience sampling, purposive sampling and snowball sampling (Robson, 2011). Quota sampling involves setting a specific quota of sample (e.g. questioning 40 women and 60 men) (Trochim & Donnelly, 2007). Dimensional sampling can be viewed as a continuation of quota sampling where researchers define a dimension (e.g. ethnic background and age group) and sample participants accordingly. Convenience sampling involves asking people, which are the most convenient to participate in the survey. Purposive sampling, as the name already implies, is when the interviewers select the participants with having a purpose in mind. For example, asking people on the street that seem to belong to a certain age group to act as respondents. Lastly, snowball sampling involves researchers identifying other possible respondents by asking previous participants (Robson, 2011).

For the purpose of this paper, the author applied several non-probability sampling techniques, namely convenience, dimensional, purposive and snowball sampling. This approach was chosen because two specific age groups were examined and a random sampling technique could not be applied.

3.4 Question Design

Since this study involves a questionnaire survey, the following paragraphs will illustrate important criteria in the process of designing a questionnaire. As mentioned by Veal (2006), it is important that the process of designing a questionnaire is done with care and thoughtfulness in order to achieve efficiency. To avoid divergence, the questions should be selected by always having the main research question in mind. According to Fowler (2002), there are two main classifications of survey questions, namely open-ended and closed questions. Open-ended questions are used when interviewers ask the respondents to give an answer without providing him or her with a selection of possible responses. The main advantage of open-ended questions is that the respondents are not influenced by the interviewer and may provide unexpected answers. The drawbacks, however, are that often open-ended questions have a low response rate or are answered in a very brisk way and that it is laborious to evaluate the answers by using a computer analysis (Veal, 2006). On the other side, closed questions allow the respondent to select one or more answers from a given list of possible responses. This option may be preferred since it allows the respondent to easily select an option and the researcher to later reliably interpret the findings (Fowler, 2002).

Some common questions asked in survey questionnaires are usually subjects such as age, economic status, occupation, socio-economic group, income, marital status, household type, life cycle, ethnic group, residential location/trip origin, housing information, transport or media use. Whereas some are quite straightforward (e.g. age), others may be more difficult to find out (e.g. income) (Veal, 2006).

In order to clearly measure respondent's answers, several measuring techniques can be applied in a questionnaire. One of the most common scaling techniques is the Likert Scale where a 1 to 5 scale indicates the level of agreement or disagreement towards a proposition (Trochim & Donnelly, 2007). Furthermore, Veal (2006) mentions ranking and attitude statements as measuring techniques. By applying ranking, respondents have to rank items based on their importance. Attitude statements are a way to analyse participant's attitudes and level of agreement or disagreement to proposed statements. In addition, Veal (2006) also states semantic

differential and reporter grid as measuring methods for tourism and leisure activities.

3.5   Development of the Questionnaire

As previously mentioned, the purpose of this study is to examine the role of food for tourists from Generation X and Generation Y and compare these two cohorts with each other. The author has chosen to create a questionnaire in order to achieve relevant information about this study. The questionnaire consists in total of twelve questions and is divided into five sections. The questions were chosen based on the previously reviewed literature and the hypotheses and were either open-ended or closed questions.

The first part of the questionnaire consisted only of one screening question, namely a request where participants had to state their nationality. This question was left by its own, since this study only involves Austrians as subject matters. The respondents had the opportunity to choose between "Austria" and "other". As soon as the second option was chosen, the respondent was screened out and could not continue with the next questions.

The second section continued with an inquiry of the birth year, since this is the second main criterion in this survey. Based on the respondent's answers, they were either categorized into Generation X or Generation Y. The second question in this section referred to the first hypothesis, H1 (The role of food while travelling differs between Generation X and Generation Y). For this question, a Likert scale was applied where respondents had to state their agreement or disagreement towards four given statements. Each statement referred to one of the four motivators mentioned by Fields (2002), namely culture, social, prestige and basic need.

The third section starts with a simple "yes" or "no" question, inquiring if the participant has ever travelled to a destination explicitly for food. This part is followed by another closed ended question in a Likert scale format, where the neophylic and neophobic tendencies were tested. The participants were asked to state their level of agreement or disagreement to each of the three neophylic and three neophobic

statements. This question referred to the second hypothesis, H2 (Tourists from Generation X and Generation Y differ in their neophobic and neophylic tendencies).

The fourth part of the questionnaire consisted out of four questions and began with a "yes" or "no" question where respondents were requested to state which information sources they usually use to find out about food-related information (e.g. Internet, travel guides, magazines, friends and family etc.). This was followed by an open-ended question where the participants could state any other information sources they usually use, which have not been listed previously. These two questions related to the third hypothesis, H3 (Tourists from Generation X and Generation Y differ in their information source preferences when searching for food-related information). The next question was another closed "yes" or "no" question, which inquired if the respondents have ever participated in any of the listed food-related activities. This list contained activities such as beer/wine tasting, food festivals, food tastings, farmer's markets etc. This referred to the last hypothesis, H4 (Generation X participates more often in food-related activities while travelling than Generation Y). The last part of section four required a simple "yes" or "no" question where respondents were asked if they have ever brought food as a souvenir back from their holidays.

The fifth and last section of the questionnaire consisted of three short questions, which asked participants questions concerning their demographic profile. The first closed question inquired the gender of the participants, followed by the highest achieved level of education. Finally, the last question referred to the respondent's current occupation, which provided a list of options to choose from but also included an open-ended option, if his or her occupation was not listed. The questionnaire with full wording can be found in the Appendix in either the original version in German or the translated version in English.

3.6   Data Collection Process

The survey was conducted by sending out a questionnaire on the May 1st 2015 and was closed on May 11th 2015. Firstly, the author created the online questionnaire

using the survey-developing program "Google Forms". The survey was distributed via the social media platform Facebook by posting a link to the online questionnaire. This resulted in a large number of participants within the first day. However, as expected, the respondents were primarily persons from Generation Y, since the author herself is part of this cohort and the questionnaire circulated in her circle of friends. This lack of participants from Generation X was resolved by sending out e-mails containing the link to the questionnaire to targeted respondents. Furthermore, the survey was distributed among the faculty members of Modul University Vienna and the author asked past respondents to forward the survey to relatives and friends. Lastly, a street survey was conducted by inquiring pedestrians about their birth year and nationality, followed by the completion of the questionnaire. These approaches lead to a sufficient number of participants of Generation X. In the end, a total of 128 responses were collected. To sum it up, the author combined several sampling methods, namely convenience, dimensional, purposive and snowball sampling. This was applied by conducting a web-survey and a street survey. However, as mentioned previously, certain limitations are associated with these methods.

4 Results

4.1 General Data Collected

As mentioned above, 128 responses were collected in total, whereas 50 respondents were from Generation X and 78 from Generation Y. All participants were Austrians, since this was one of the main conditions of the survey. The number of invalid and non-Austrian participants was kept quite low with only three answers. Table 4 and 5 illustrates the gender distribution among the respondents of both generational cohorts. Concerning Generation X, the males and females were rather equally distributed with 54% male and 46% female. Referring to Generation Y, about two thirds (68%) were female and the remaining third (32%) were male. With regards to the occupation of the respondents, 57% were employed and 37% were students and the majority (66%) had a bachelor or masters degree.
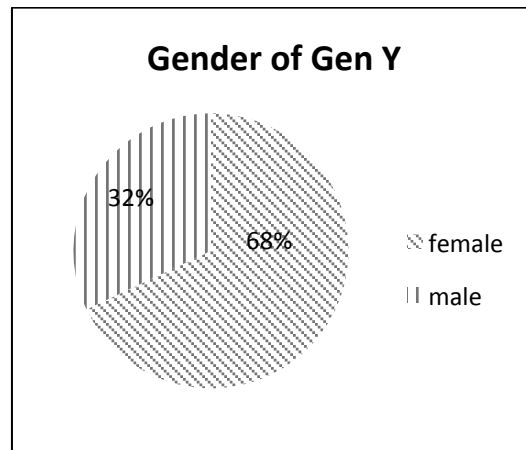
Table 4: Gender of Gen X
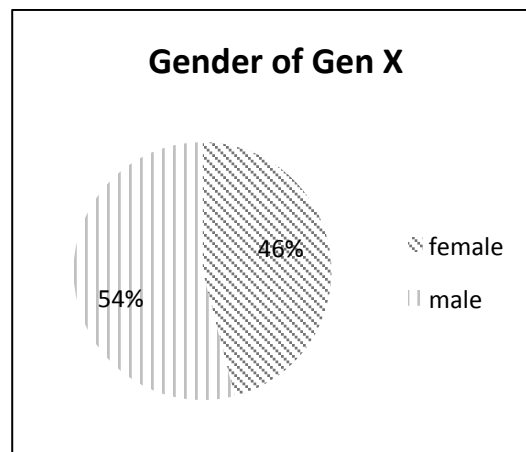
Table 5: Gender of Gen Y

4.2 Section 1: The Role of Food for Tourists

The first quantitative results refer to the question concerning the role of food for tourists while travelling. This section relates to the hypothesis 1, namely:

H1: The role of food while travelling differs between Generation X and Generation Y.

In order to test against H1, a Man Whitney U Test was conducted using the statistics program SPSS. The following Tables 6 and 7 display the results of this test, which will be discussed in more detail.

Role of food	Generation X vs. Y	N	Mean Rank
It is a way for me to experience the local culture of a destination.	Generation X	50	66.64
	Generation Y	78	63.13
It serves as a social function (e.g. sharing a meal with friends, conference dinners etc.).	Generation X	50	63.43
	Generation Y	78	65.19
Afterwards, I have the opportunity to tell friends about the novel food I have tried.	Generation X	50	55.91
	Generation Y	78	70.01
No particular role, since it is a basic human need.	Generation X	50	71.58
	Generation Y	78	59.96

Table 6: Ranks - Different roles of food

	It is a way for me to experience the local culture of a destination.	It serves as a social function (e.g. sharing a meal with friends, conference dinners etc.).	Afterwards, I have the opportunity to tell friends about the novel food I have tried.	No particular role, since it is a basic human need.
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.509	.774	.028	.055

Table 7: Mann-Whitney U Test - Roles of food

Table 6 displays the mean rankings of four different roles of food while travelling: the cultural aspect, the social function, status and prestige, and the aspect of a basic need. Referring to the aspect of food being a way of experiencing a destination's culture, there are no large differences between the two age groups. This can be seen by referring to mean rankings of Gen X (66.64) and Gen Y (63.13), which do not differ gravely. Hereby, a large mean ranking means a larger level of agreement. Both cohorts tend to see food as a way to experience a destination's culture. A similar observation can be made when looking at the social role of food. The mean rankings of Gen X (63.43) and Gen Y (65.19) indicate no larger variance between these two groups. There is only a slightly larger level of agreement from Generation Y concerning the fact that food plays an important social role while travelling.

46

However, looking at the factor of status and prestige, meaning, that food can be a way to boast about one's travel experiences, a slight difference can be observed. Referring to the mean rankings of Gen X (55.91) and Gen Y (70.01), it becomes clear that Generation Y tends to tell their friends more often about the novel food they have tasted than Generation X. Lastly, there is a significant difference between Generation X and Y when it comes to the perception that food is only a basic need while on holidays. While Generation X tends to see it merely as a basic need (mean ranking of 71.58), Generation Y does not share this attitude (mean ranking of 59.96). Table 7 indicates the actual significance values of the Man Whitney U test. Concerning the "prestige" aspect of food, there is an almost significant result of p = 0.055. Furthermore, the significance value of the "basic need" factor is significant at p = 0.028.

Given the above findings, it can be said that H1 is partially supported, since Generation X and Generation Y differ concerning some of the roles food can play while travelling. Yet, in some aspects, both generations share similar attitudes.

4.3   Section 2: Neophobic and Neophylic Character Traits

The next quantitative results refer to the question studying the neophobic and neophylic tendencies of the participants. This section concerns the hypothesis 2, namely:

H2: Tourists from Generation X and Generation Y differ in their neophobic and neophylic tendencies.

Once again, a Man Whitney U test was conducted and the following Tables 8 and 9 illustrate the obtained results. The terms "neophobic" and "neophylic" were added in parentheses after each statement simply to clarify the interpretations of the results and were not included in the original questionnaire.

Neophobic and Neophylic Statements	Generation X vs. Y	N	Mean Rank
I often do not trust ethnic food while travelling (neophobic 1).	Generation X	50	67.75
	Generation Y	78	62.42
I am experimental when it comes to trying new and unusual food when I travel (neophylic 1).	Generation X	50	58.01
	Generation Y	78	68.66
Restaurants, street vendors or markets sometimes intimidate me or do not meet my standards (neophobic 2).	Generation X	50	68.29
	Generation Y	78	62.07
I tend to only visit restaurants and other food providing institutions that are known to be tourist friendly (neophobic 3).	Generation X	50	64.19
	Generation Y	78	64.70
When I am travelling, I do not mind eating unusual food with unknown ingredients in them (neophylic 2).	Generation X	50	64.51
	Generation Y	78	64.49
I would eat almost everything when I travel (neophylic 3).	Generation X	50	58.82
	Generation Y	78	68.14

Table 8: Ranks - Neophobic and neophylic statements

	Neophobic 1	Neophylic 1	Neophobic 2	Neophobic 3	Neophylic 2	Neophylic 3
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.389	.076	.318	.934	.998	.153

Table 9: Mann-Whitney U Test - Neophobic and neophylic tendencies

Table 8 contains the mean rankings of each generational cohort. By referring to these values, it becomes clear that there are no large and obvious differences between Generation X and Y. However, by analysing the mean rankings closer, one can see slight disparities between each cohort. Compared to Generation Y, Generation X seems to show stronger neophobic character traits than neophylic. This can be seen when looking at the mean rankings of the first (Gen X: 67.75/ Gen Y: 62.42) and second (Gen X: 68.29/ Gen Y: 62.07) neophobic statement, since, as mentioned above, a higher mean ranking indicates a higher level of agreement.

Furthermore, Table 8 reveals that Generation Y displays stronger neophylic tendencies than neophobic, compared to Generation X. By referring to the mean rankings of the second (Gen X: 58.01 / Gen Y: 68.66) and sixth (Gen X: 58.82 / Gen Y: 68.14) neophylic statement it seems that Generation Y tends to be more

experimental when trying new foods than Gen X and would "eat almost everything". Table 9 indicates the actual significance values, which show that there have been no significant results in the comparison. However, the value of the neophylic statement referring to how experimental the participants are when trying novel foods indicates an almost significant result (p=0.076), suggesting that Generation Y is more experimental than Generation X.

After analysing the results of the survey, it can be stated that H2 is partially supported, since both generations seemingly differ in their neophobic and neophylic character traits. However, no significant values were produced.

4.4   Section 3: The Use of Information Sources

The following results of the survey refer to the information sources used by the participants in order to search for food-related information. This section concerns the hypothesis 3, namely:

H3: Tourists from Generation X and Generation Y differ in their information source preferences when searching for food-related information.

In order to test this hypothesis and the collected data, a chi-square test was conducted in combination with a crosstabulation. The following Tables 10, 11, and 12 illustrate the results concerning the use of the Internet as an information source as an example, since this was the only significant result. All other results of the chi-square test of the remaining information sources can be found in the Appendix for further references.

Crosstabs			Internet	
			Yes	No
Generation X vs. Y	Generation X	Count	37	13
		Expected Count	42.2	7.8
	Generation Y	Count	71	7
		Expected Count	65.8	12.2

Table 10: Crosstabs - Information sources

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.699[a]	1	.010		
Continuity Correction[b]	5.470	1	.019		
Likelihood Ratio	6.541	1	.011		
Fisher's Exact Test				.013	.010
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.647	1	.010		
N of Valid Cases	128				

Table 11: Chi-Square Test - Information sources

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.229	.010
	Cramer's V	.229	.010
	N of Valid Cases	128	

Table 12: Phi Cramer's V results - Information sources

Table 10 illustrates the total count of participants of each cohort, which use the Internet as an information source, and the corresponding expected count. These values reflect how many respondents were expected to say either "yes" or "no" and what the respondents actually replied. By referring to the Phi Cramer's V and Pearson Chi-Square significance value in Table 11 and 12 ($p = 0.010$) it becomes clear that the difference between Generation X and Generation Y, concerning their use of the Internet as an information source, is significant.

Table 13 and 14 indicate the results of the other information source options, which were given to the participants. By comparing Table 13 and 14, one can see that 76% of Generation X and 82% of Generation Y indicated the use of travel guides as an information source. Concerning magazines, both generations seem quite equal with 52% of Gen X and 50% of Gen Y using them. However, Generation Y (95%) seems to rely more strongly on the advice of friends than Generation X (90%).
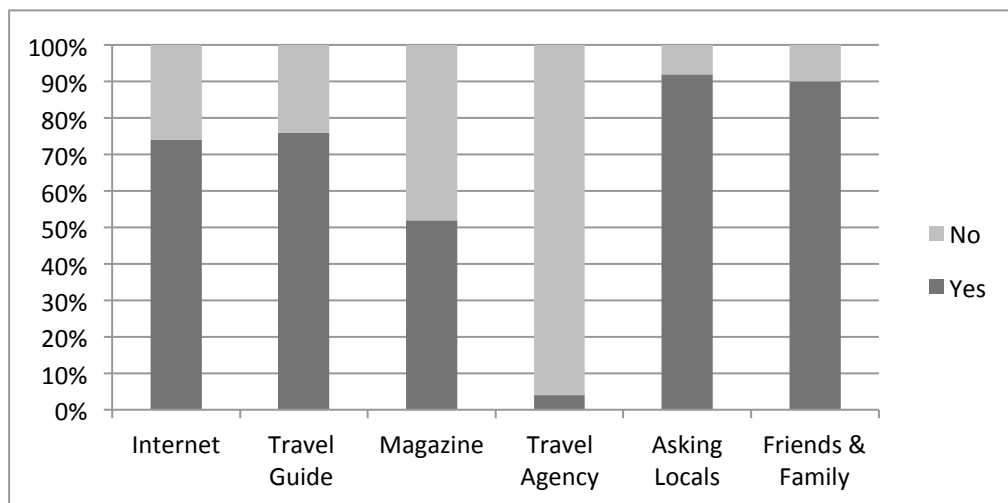
Table 13: Information sources used by Generation X

Table 14: Information sources used by Generation Y
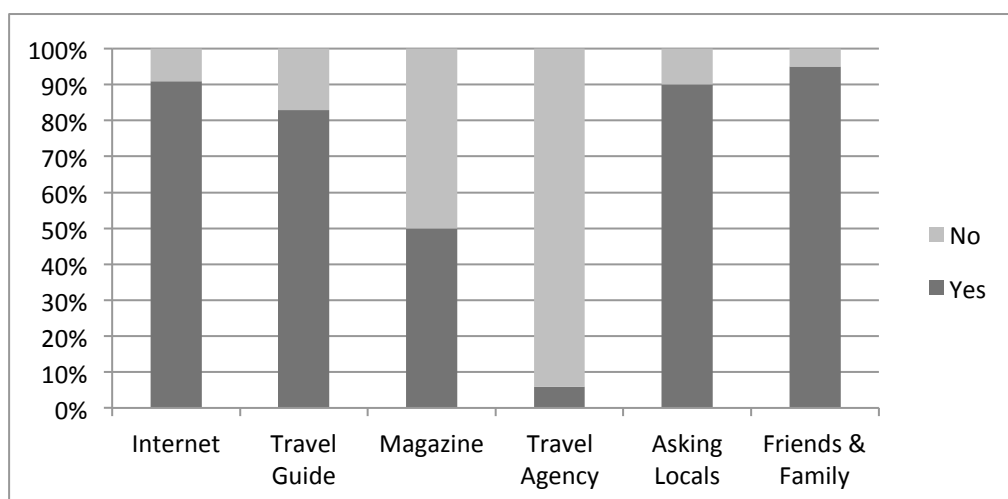
Following this section, the participants were given the opportunity to state any other information sources they normally use to search for food-related information, which were not provided as options. Some examples by Generation X were as following:

- "Relevant Apps"
- "Ethnic restaurants in my home country"
- "Other literature about the travel destination"
- "Trip Advisor"

Some examples given by Generation Y were as following:

- "My gut instinct"
- "Blogs"
- "Tips from other travellers"
- "Yelp"
- "The hotel I am staying in"
- "Travel Apps"

This list of further possible information sources provides a deeper insight into the information sources used by the two generational groups. The author observed that both Gen X and Gen Y indicated the usage of travel Apps and other travel information websites such as "Trip Advisor" or "Yelp". However, a larger interest by Gen Y concerning online information sources was observed.

After this closer examination, it becomes clear that H3 is partially supported. While slight disparities between Gen X and Gen Y concerning their information source preferences could be detected, no significant values were generated. Therefore, Gen X and Gen Y differ to a certain degree in their use of information sources.

4.5   Section 4: Food-Related Activities

The following quantitative results refer to the last area of research of this study. Here, the respondents were asked to indicate if they have ever participated in the given food-related activities. This examination of food-related activities refers to hypothesis 4, namely:

H4: Generation X participates more often in food-related activities while travelling than Generation Y.

Once again, a Chi-Square test was conducted in combination with a crosstabulation. The following Tables 15, 16 and 17 illustrate the results for the variable "wine and beer tasting" and shows the participation of the respondents in this activity.

Crosstabs			wine/beer tasting	
			Yes	No
Generation X vs. Y	Generation X	Count	37	13
		Expected Count	31.6	18.4
	Generation Y	Count	44	34
		Expected Count	49.4	28.6

Table 15: Crosstabs - Wine/beer tasting

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.057[a]	1	.044		
Continuity Correction[b]	3.335	1	.068		
Likelihood Ratio	4.154	1	.042		
Fisher's Exact Test				.060	.033
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.025	1	.045		
N of Valid Cases	128				

Table 16: Chi-Square Test - Wine/beer tasting

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.178	.044
	Cramer's V	.178	.044
N of Valid Cases		128	

Table 17: Phi Cramer's V results - Wine/beer tasting

Referring to Table 15, one can see the number of respondents from each group who have ever participated in a wine or beer tasting. By looking closer at the counted value and the expected value of each generation cohort, it becomes clear that Generation X seemingly participated more often in a wine or beer tasting than Generation Y. This observation can be supported by the Pearson Chi-Square (Table 16) and Phi Cramer's V significance value of p=0.044 (Table 17). This indicates a significant difference between Gen X and Gen Y with Generation X participating more often in wine or beer tasting than the younger Generation Y. All other results of the Chi-Square test were insignificant and can be found in the Appendix for further reference.
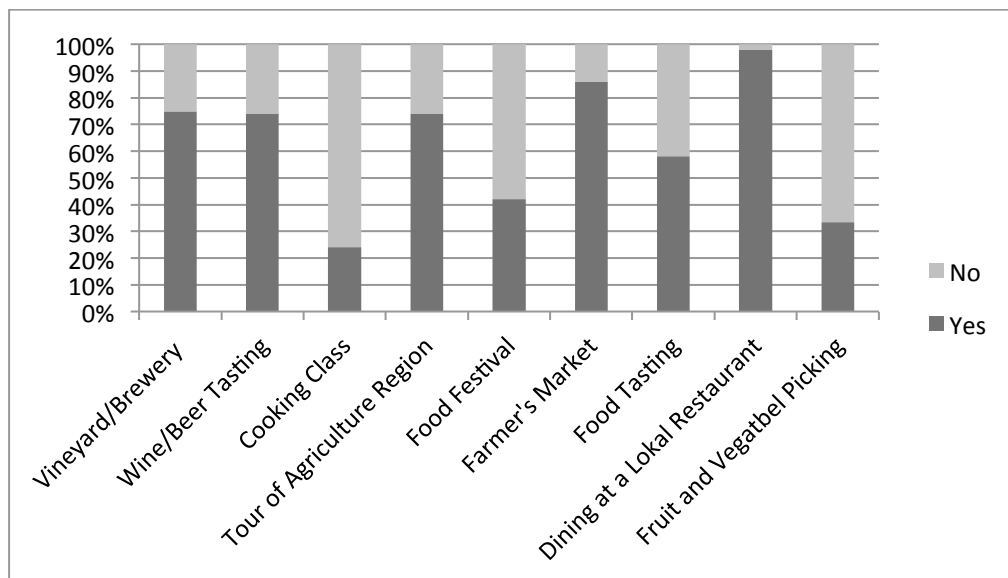
Table 18: Participation in food-related activities by Generation X
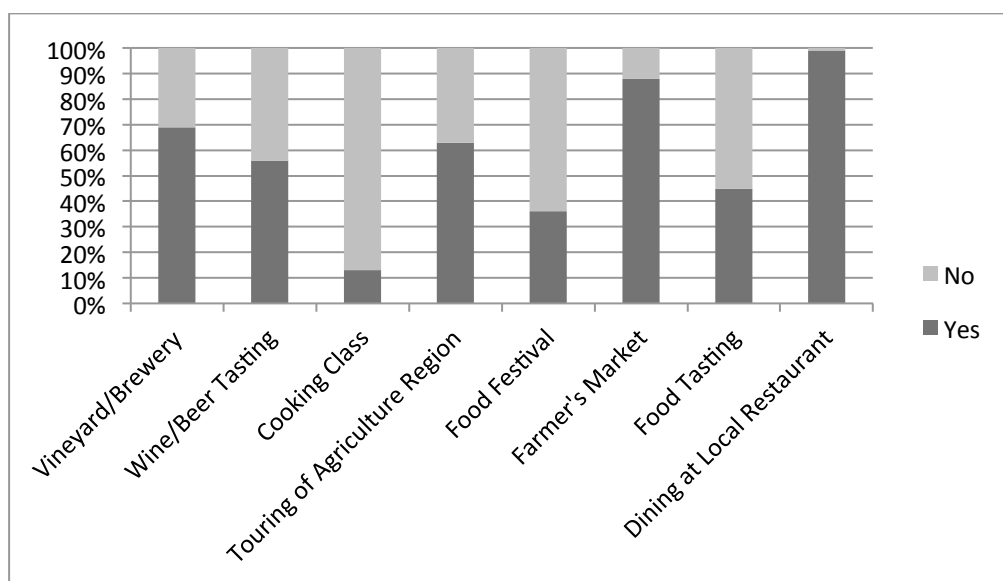
Table 19: Participation in food-related activities by Generation Y

Although no other significant results were found, slight differences can be detected between the two generational cohorts. Table 18 and 17 illustrate the participation in food-related activities by Generation X and Y. By looking closer at these two tables, some variations between both cohorts can be seen. For example, 24% of Generation X have stated that they have already participated once in a cooking class, whereas only 13% of Generation Y have done so. Furthermore, 74% of Gen X have experience

a tour of an agriculture region, compared to Gen Y where only 63% have claimed so. Overall, by comparing Table 18 and 17, one can observe that in most of the cases Generation X has indicated a larger interest in food-related activities (visiting a vineyard/brewery, wine/beer tasting, cooking class, tour of agriculture region, visiting a food festival) than Generation Y (visiting a farmer's market, fruit and vegetable picking, food tasting).

These results illustrate that H4 is fully supported, since Generation X participated more often in food-related activities than Generation Y. However, due to fact there the Chi-Square test has only generated one significant value (wine and beer tasting), it can be argued that H4 is only partially supported.

4.6   Discussion of Results

Based on the previously stated results concerning the different roles of food while travelling, one can conclude that Generation Y is more likely to tell their friends about past food experiences than Generation X. This result may derive from the fact that Gen Y-ers maintain a highly social lifestyle with a strong Internet use (Howe, 2007) and therefore, are more likely to share food-related facts on social media platforms. Furthermore, Gen X views food more often simply as a basic human need while travelling than Gen Y.

The findings referring to the neophobic and neophylic character traits of tourists clearly indicate slight differences between Generation X and Y. In general, Generation X tends to show more neophobic character traits compared to Generation Y, who reveal a stronger tendency towards neophylic attributes. For instance, these values indicate that Generation X tends to not trust ethnic food or street vendors, markets or restaurants while travelling. However, as mentioned by Cohen and Avieli (2004), one cannot make a clear division between Generation X and Y since usually tourists show both neophobic and neophylic character traits. It may also depend on the travel situation, since tourists could be more willing to try food that they have heard of before than unusual and intimidating foods. These

results also cannot be generalized due to the small sample size and the insignificant results and would require further research.

Section 3 of the results reveals that Generation Y significantly uses the Internet more often as a source to search for food-related information than Generation X. This result was expected since the previously reviewed literature revealed that Generation Y grew up with the presence of the Internet and is the most tech savvy generational cohort (Barnikel, 2005, Prensky, 2006). Furthermore, Gen Y tends to seek the advice of friends and family more often than Gen X. The phenomenon that Gen Y values the opinion of their friends highly was also mentioned by Pendergast (2010) in the above reviewed literature. Apart from the Internet, travel guides, and friends and family, both generations seem quite similar in their information source preferences.

By referring to the results of Section 4, it can be concluded that Gen X and Gen Y show differences concerning their interest in food-related activities. Furthermore, Generation X seemingly participates more often in such activities than the younger generation. The reason for this phenomenon could be that Gen Y is currently earning the lowest income (Li, Li & Hudson, 2013) and Gen X having more opportunities and resources to engage in food-related activities. However, since the sample size of Gen X was smaller, a generalization cannot be made and this area remains open for further research.

5   Conclusion

The main purpose of this paper was to focus on the role of food for tourists and conducting a comparison of the attitudes and perceptions of the two generational cohorts X and Y. In order to provide an understanding of this area of research, the author reflected on previously written literature. Since there have been no other studies exploring the differences between Generation X and Generation Y concerning their attitudes towards food while travelling, the author was interested in exploring this research gap. To create a substantial base for this study, the literature reviewed covered areas of interest such as the different factors that influence a tourist's food consumption behavior and the key types and

characteristics of food tourist's. This examination was followed by an analysis of the Generation X and Y, which covered their main characteristics and travel behaviors.

The results of the survey illustrate the key differences between Generation X and Y with regards to the role of food while travelling. After comparing both cohorts, one of the significant differences concerned the aspect of food being a prestige factor. The findings revealed that a significant number of respondents from Generation Y are more likely to tell their friends and family about novel food that they have experienced, than Generation X. This creates a prestigious effect since people are more inclined to "boast" about their past food experiences. Also, with regards to food being simply a basic human need, differing attitudes could be observed. Several of the respondents from Generation X indicated that they often view food simply as a basic human need while on holidays. The majority of Generation Y did not share this opinion.

Regarding the examination of the neophobic and neophylic character traits, several tendencies could be detected. The findings of the survey revealed that most of the respondents of Generation X showed neophobic character traits whereas Generation Y clearly demonstrated a tendency towards neophylic character traits.

Further results of this survey shed light onto the information source preferences of the two generational cohorts. In order to search for food-related information, Generation Y significantly uses the Internet more often than Generation X. This significant result can be further supported by the fact that Generation Y is the most tech savvy generation so far and was raised with the omnipresence of the Internet (Barnikel, 2005, Prensky, 2006) and therefore, the survey produced an expected outcome. Apart from the use of the Internet, Generation Y also tends to consult their friends and family more often than Generation X and also relies on travel guides more frequently. Besides these disparities, both generational groups depicted rather similar information source preferences.

Finally, an insight into the past experiences of Generation X and Generation Y with food-related activities was given. The results of the survey indicated that respondents from Gen X participated more often in such activities than Gen Y. Especially with regards to wine and beer tastings the survey produced significant

results. This indicates that Gen X significantly differs compared to Gen Y concerning the participation in wine and beer tastings. Referring to the remaining food-related activities Generation X seemed the most interested, apart from visiting farmer's markets, fruit and vegetable pickings and food tastings where Generation Y showed larger interest. These results may derive from the fact that Generation X's members are older than Generation Y and often earn a higher income, allowing them to engage in such activities.

These results, as every other kind of research, are associated with certain limitations. First of all, these findings cannot be generalized since the sample size of Generation Y was limited with 50 participants. With a larger sample size, larger variations between both generational cohorts could have been detected. Furthermore, a random selection technique during the sampling process could be applied in order to gather more generalizable results. Additionally, the survey could have been open for completion for a longer period in order to obtain more results since it was only available for a short period.

These findings have clearly revealed certain differences between tourists from Generation X and Y with regards to the role of food and this paper provides an overview of these main disparities. Nevertheless, generational differences concerning the role of food in tourism remain an area of interest, which is still open for further research. By addressing the limitations mentioned above, a deeper clarification of this topic could be provided.

Bibliography

ARILLA, J. M. P., HERRANZ, J. B. & HERRERA, C. F. (2012). Gastronomy's importance in development of tourism destinations in the world. *In UNWTO, Global Report on Food Tourism - Am Reports: Volume 4.* Madrid, Spain, 6-9.

ASLIMOSKI, P., & GERASIMOSKI, S. (2012). Food and nutrition as tourist phenomenon. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *44*, 357–362.

BARNIKEL, M. (2005). Generation Y media habits show tide is turning in favour of internet. *Media: Asia's Media & Marketing Newspaper, p*. 12.

BIRCH, L. L. (1999). Development of food preferences. *Annual Review of Nutrition*, *19*, 41–62.

CARLSEN, J., & CHARTERS, S. (2006). *Global wine tourism: Research, management and marketing.* Wallingford and Cambridge, UK: Cabi International.

CHANG, R. C. Y., KIVELA, J., & MAK, A. H. N. (2010). Food preferences of Chinese tourists. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *37*(4), 989–1011.

COHEN, E., & AVIELI, N. (2004). Food in tourism - Attraction and impediment. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *31*(4), 755–778.

CRESWELL, J.W., (2014). *Research Design. Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Method Approaches.* 4th ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

FIELDS, K., (2002). Demand for the gastronomy tourism product: motivational factors. In A.M. Hjalager, G. Richards, (Eds.), *Tourism and Gastronomy* (pp. 36–50). London: Routledge.

FIELDS, B., WILDER, S., BUNCH, J. & NEWBOLD, R. (2008). *Millennial Leaders: Success Stories from Today's Most Brilliant Y Leaders.* Garden City, NY: Morgan James Publishing.

FISCHLER, C. (1988). Food, self and identify. In *Social science information,* 27, 275–292. Retrieved from http://www.researchgate.net/profile/Claude_Fischler/publication/232475763_Food_self_and_identity/links/0deec51a472598c937000000.pdf

FOWLER, F.J. Jr., (2002). *Survey Research Methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

GAZTELUMENDI, I. (2012). Global trends in food tourism. *In UNWTO, Global Report on Food Tourism - Am Reports: Volume 4.* Madrid, Spain, 10-11.

HALL, M., MITCHELL, R., (2002). The changing nature of the relationship between cuisine and tourism in Australia and New Zealand: from fusion cuisine to food

networks. In A.M. Hjalager, G. Richards, (Eds.), *Tourism and Gastronomy* (pp. 187–206). London, UK: Routledge.

HALL, C.H. & SHARPLES, L., (2003). The consumption of experiences or the experience of consumption? An introduction to the tourism of taste. In C.M. HALL, (Ed.), *Food Tourism around the World. Development, management and markets* (pp. 1-24). Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

HARRINGTON, R. J., OTTENBACHER, M. C., STAGGS, A., & POWELL, F. A. (2012). Generation Y Consumers: Key Restaurant Attributes Affecting Positive and Negative Experiences. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *36*(4), 431–449.

HASSAN, M. W. & HALL, C. M. (2003). The demand for halal food among Muslim travellers in New Zealand. *In C.M. HALL, (Ed), Food Tourism around the World. Development, management and markets (*pp. 81-101). Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann

HOWE, N. & STRAUSS W. (2000). *Millennial's Rising: The Next Great Generation.* New York, USA: Vintage Books.

HOWE, N., & STRAUSS, W. (2007). The Next 20 Years: How Customer and Workforce Attitudes Will Evolve. *Harvard Business Review*, 41–52. Retrieved from https://hbr.org/2007/07/the-next-20-years-how-customer-and-workforce-attitudes-will-evolve

HUANG, Y. C., & PETRICK, J. F. (2010). Generation Y's Travel Behaviours: a Comparison with Baby Boomers and Generation X. In P. Benckendorff, G. Moscardo & D. Pendergast (Eds.), *Tourism and Generation Y* (pp. 27-37). Oxfordshire, UK: CABI International.

IGNATOV, E., (2003). *The Canadian Culinary Tourists: How well do we know them?.* Thesis (MA). University of Waterloo, Ontario, Canada.

JAFARI, J., & SCOTT, N. (2014). Muslim world and its tourisms. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *44*, 1–19.

JORGENSEN, B. (2003). Baby Boomers, Generation X and Generation Y? Policy implications for defence forces in the modern era. *Foresight*, *5*(4), 41–49.

KARIM, S. A. (2006). *Culinary Tourism as a Destination Attraction: an Emperical Examination of the Destination's Food Image and Information Sources.* Oklahoma State University.

KIM, Y. H., KIM, M., & GOH, B. K. (2011). An examination of food tourist's behavior: Using the modified theory of reasoned action. *Tourism Management,* 32(5), 1159–1165.

KIM, Y. G., EVES, A., & SCARLES, C. (2009). Building a model of local food consumption on trips and holidays: A grounded theory approach. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *28*, 423–431.

KIVELA, J., & CROTTS, J. C. (2006). Tourism and Gastronomy: Gastronomy's Influence on How Tourists Experience a Destination. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *30*(3), 354–377.

KOTLER, P., BOWEN, J. & MAKENS, J. (2006). *Marketing for Hospitaility and Tourism* (4th ed). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

LEONES, J. (1995). Farm outlet customer profiles. *Direct Farm Marketing and Tourism Handbook,* 1–4. Retrieved from http://www.cals.arizona.edu/arec/pubs/dmkt/Farmoutlet.pdf

LI, X., LI, X. R., & HUDSON, S. (2013). The application of generational theory to tourism consumer behavior: An American perspective. *Tourism Management*, *37*, 147–164.

LOGUE, A.W., (2004). *The Psychology of Eating and Drinking*. 3rd ed. New York: Routledge.

MAK, A. H. N., LUMBERS, M., & EVES, A. (2012a). Globalisation and food consumption in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *39*(1), 171–196.

MAK, A. H. N., LUMBERS, M., EVES, A., & CHANG, R. C. Y. (2012b). Factors influencing tourist food consumption. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *31*(3), 928–936.

MAK, A. H. N., LUMBERS, M., EVES, A., & CHANG, R. C. Y. (2013). An application of the repertory grid method and generalised Procrustes analysis to investigate the motivational factors of tourist food consumption. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *35*, 327–338.

MANNHEIM, K. (1952). *Essays on the Sociology of Knowledge.* London: Routladge & Kegan.

MATIN, C. A. & TULGAN, B. (2006). *Managing the Generation Mix (2nd ed). From Urgency to Opportunity.* Amherst, Massachusetts: HRD Press, INC.

MASON, M. C., & PAGGIARO, A. (2009). Celebrating Local Products: The Role of Food Events. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, *12*(4), 364–383.

MÄKELÄ, J., (2000). Cultural definitions of the meal. In H.L. Meiselman (Ed.)*, Dimensions of the Meal: The Science, Culture, Business, and Art of Eating (*pp. 7–18). Gaithersburg, ML: Aspen Publication.

MITCHELL, M. A., MCLEAN, P. & TURNER, G. B., (2005). Understanding Generation X . . . Boom or Bust Introduction. *Business Forum, Volume 27, No. 1,* 26-31.

MITCHELL, R. & HALL, C. H., (2003). Consuming tourists: food tourism consumer behavior. In C. M. Hall, et al. (Eds.), *Food Tourism around the World. Development, management and markets (*pp. 60-80)*.* Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

MKONO, M., MARKWELL, K., & WILSON, E. (2012). Applying Quan and Wang's structural model of the tourist experience: A Zimbabwean netnography of food tourism. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 5, 68–74.

MORTON, L. P., (2002). Targeting Generation Y. *Public Relations Quarterly* (pp. 46-48). Retrieved from http://www.msubillings.edu/CASFaculty/mclaughlin/Psyx%20332/Documents/Targeting%20Generation%20Y.pdf

MOSCARDO, G., & BENCKENDORFF, P. (2010). Mythbusting: Generation Y and Travel. In P. Benckendorff, G. Moscardo & D. Pendergast (Eds.), *Tourism and Generation Y* (pp. 16-26). Oxfordshire, UK: CABI International.

MYNTTINEN, S., LOGRÉN, J., SÄRKKÄ-TIRKKONEN, M., & RAUTIAINEN, T. (2015). Perceptions of food and its locality among Russian tourists in the South Savo region of Finland. *Tourism Management*, 48, 455–466.

PACKARD, D.P., MCWILLIAMS, M., (1993). Cultural foods heritage of middle eastern immigrants. Nutrition Today 28 (3), 6–12

PENDERGAST, D. (2007). The MilGen and society. In N. Bahr, D. Pendergast (Eds.), *The Millennial Adolescent* (pp. 23-40). Camberwell, Victoria, Australia: Australian Council for Education Research.

PENDERGAST, D (2010). Getting to Know the Y Generation. In P. Benckendorff, G. Moscardo & D. Pendergast (Eds.), *Tourism and Generation Y* (pp. 1-15). Oxfordshire, UK: CABI International.

PENNINGTON-GRAY, L., FRIDGEN, J. D., & STYNES, D. (2003). Cohort Segmentation: An Application to Tourism. *Leisure Sciences*, *25*(4), 341–361.

PIZAM, A., & SUSSMANN, S. (1995). Does nationality affect tourist behavior? *Annals of Tourism Research*, *22*(4), 901–917.

PRENSKY, M. (2006). Listen to the natives. *Educational Leadership* (pp. 8-13).

QUAN, S., & WANG, N. (2004). Towards a structural model of the tourist experience: an illustration from food experiences in tourism. *Tourism Management*, *25*(3), 297–305.

REISENWITZ, T. H., & IYER, R. (2009). Differences in Generation X and Generation Y: Implications for the Organization and Marketers. *Marketing Management Journal,* 9(2), 91-103.

RICHARDS, G., (2002). Gastronomy: an essential ingredient in tourism production and consumption? In A.M. Hjalager, G. Richards (Eds.), *Tourism and Gastronomy (*pp. 3-20)*. London: Routledge.

ROBSON, C., (2011). *Real World Research. A Resource for Users of Social Research Methods in Applied Sciences* (3rd ed.). Padstow, UK: Wiley.

SCARPATO, R., (2002). Sustainable gastronomy as a tourist product. In A.M. Hjalager, G. Richards (Eds.), *Tourism and Gastronomy* (pp. 132-152). London, Sheldon, UK: Routledge.

SMITH, S. L. J., & XIAO, H. (2008). Culinary Tourism Supply Chains: A Preliminary Examination. *Journal of Travel Research*, *46*(3), 289–299.

STEIN, L. J., NAGAI, H., NAKAGAWA, M., & BEAUCHAMP, G. K. (2003). Effects of repeated exposure and health-related information on hedonic evaluation and acceptance of a bitter beverage. *Appetite*, *40*(2), 119–129.

TELFER, D. J., & WALL, G. (2000). Strengthening backward economic linkages: Local food purchasing by three Indonesian hotels. *Tourism Geographies,* 2(4), 421–447.

TORRES, R. (2002). Toward a better understanding of tourism and agriculture linkages in the Yucatan: Tourist food consumption and preferences. *Tourism Geographies*, *4* (March 2015), 282–306.

TROCHIM, W.M.K. & DONNELLY, J.P., (2007). *The research methods knowledge base* (3rd ed.). USA: Thomson.

TYLER, K., (2007). The Tethered Generation. In *HRMagazine*, 52(5). Retrieved from http://www.shrm.org/publications/hrmagazine/editorialcontent/pages/0507cover.aspx

VEAL, A. J. (2006). *Research Methods for Leisure and Tourism: A Practical Guide* (3rd ed.). Edinburgh Gate, UK: Prentice Hall.

WARDE, A. & MARTENS L. (2002). *Eating out: Social differentiation, consumption and pleasure.* Cambrideg: Camebridge University Press.

YOUNG, S. J., STURTS, J. R., ROSS, C. M., & KIM, K. T. (2013). Generational differences and job satisfaction in leisure services. *Managing Leisure*, *18*(2), 152–170.

ZEMKE, R., RAINES, C. & FILIPCZAK, B. (2013) *Generations at Work: Managing the Clash of Boomers, Gen Xers, Gen Yers in the Workplace.* New York, NY: AMACOM.

Appendices

Appendix A – Questionnaire (Original)

Lebensmittel und Speisen für Touristen der Generationen X und Y

Sehr geehrte Teilnehmerin, sehr geehrter Teilnehmer.

Im Rahmen meiner Bachelorarbeit an der Modul University Vienna führe ich eine Umfrage bezüglich der Bedeutung von Lebensmittel und Speisen für Touristen der Generationen X und Y durch. Um möglichst relevante Erkenntnisse zu erzielen, bin ich ausdrücklich daran interessiert Österreicher im Alter von 18 – 54 zu befragen. Wenn dies auf Sie zutrifft, bitte ich Sie, die Beantwortung dieses Fragebogens fortzusetzen, welche nicht länger als 5-10 Minuten dauern wird. Ihre Daten werden anonym und vertraulich behandelt und ausgewertet.

Sollten Sie dazu Fragen haben, zögern Sie bitte nicht mir ein E-Mail zu schreiben: 1211077@modul.ac.at

Vielen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme!

Mit freundlichen Grüßen,

Melissa Graf

* Erforderlich

1. **1. Welche Staatsangehörigkeit haben Sie?** *
   Markieren Sie nur ein Oval.

   ( ) Österreich

   ( ) Sonstiges: .... *Ausfüllen dieses Formulars beenden*

2. **2. Bitte geben Sie Ihr Geburtsjahr an** *

   ....

3. **3. Welche Rolle spielen Nahrungsmittel für Sie während Sie vereisen? Wie zutreffend sind folgende Aussagen für Sie?** *
   Markieren Sie nur ein Oval pro Zeile.

	trifft überhaupt nicht zu	trifft nicht zu	weiß nicht	trifft zu	trifft stark zu
Es erlaubt mir die landesübliche Kultur einer Destination zu erleben.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
Es dient einer sozialen Funktion (z.B. eine gemeinsame Mahlzeit mit Freunden, Konferenzdinner)	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
Ich habe die Möglichkeit nach der Reise meinen Freunden zu erzählen, welche neuartigen und ungewöhnlichen Gerichte ich probiert habe.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
Keine besondere Rolle, denn es ist ein menschliches Grundbedürfnis.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

4. **4. Sind Sie schon einmal ausdrücklich zu einem Reiseziel gereist nur auf Grund dessen kulinarischen Angebotes? ***

Markieren Sie nur ein Oval.

( ) Ja

( ) Nein

5. Bitte lesen Sie die folgenden Aussagen. Wie zutreffend sind diese für Sie? *

Markieren Sie nur ein Oval pro Zeile.

	trifft überhaupt nicht zu	trifft nicht zu	weiß nicht	trifft zu	trifft stark zu
Oft habe ich kein Vertrauen in ethnische Nahrungsmittel während ich verreise.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
Ich bin neugierig und interessiert daran neue und ungewöhnliche Lebensmittel zu probieren, wenn ich auf Reisen bin.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
Einheimische Restaurants, Straßenverkäufer und Märkte schüchtern mich oft ein, da sie oft nicht meinen Vorstellungen entsprechen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
Ich neige dazu, nur Restaurants und Gaststätten zu besuchen, die dafür bekannt sind, dass sie touristenfreundlich sind (verständliche Speisenkarten, sprachgewandtes Personal etc.)	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
Wenn ich auf Reisen bin, probiere ich gerne ungewöhnliche Lebensmittel mit mir fremden Zutaten.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )
Ich würde auf meinen Reisen fast alles essen.	( )	( )	( )	( )	( )

6. Welche der folgenden Quellen verwenden Sie normalerweise, um essensrelevante Informationen am Reiseort herauszufinden (z.B. Restaurants, Lebensmittelmärkte, einheimische Küche)? *

Markieren Sie nur ein Oval pro Zeile.

	Ja	Nein
Internet	( )	( )
Reiseführer	( )	( )
Zeitschriften und Magazine	( )	( )
Reisebüro	( )	( )
Tipps von Einheimischen	( )	( )
Freunde und Familie	( )	( )

7. Verwenden Sie sonst noch irgendwelche anderen Informationsquellen? Falls ja, welche?

....

8. Haben Sie in Ihren vergangenen Reisen schon einmal an einer der folgenden Aktivitäten teilgenommen? *

Markieren Sie nur ein Oval pro Zeile.

	Ja	Nein
Besuch eines Weinguts/Brauerei	⬭	⬭
Wein-/Bierverkostung	⬭	⬭
Kochkurs	⬭	⬭
Besichtigung einer landwirtschaftlichen Region	⬭	⬭
Food Festival	⬭	⬭
Lebensmittel Verkostung	⬭	⬭
Bauernmarkt	⬭	⬭
Obst oder Gemüse pflücken	⬭	⬭
Besuch einer lokalen Gaststätte (z.B. Restaurant)	⬭	⬭

9. Bringen Sie manchmal Lebensmittel oder lebensmittelbezogene Artikel als Souvenir von Ihren Reisen zurück? *

Markieren Sie nur ein Oval.

◯ Ja

◯ Nein

10. Bitte geben Sie Ihr Geschlecht an? *

Markieren Sie nur ein Oval.

◯ Weiblich

◯ Männlich

11. Höchster erreichter Bildungsabschluss? *

Markieren Sie nur ein Oval.

◯ kein Schulabschluss

◯ Grund-/Hauptschulabschluss

◯ Abgeschlossene Lehre

◯ Matura

◯ Hochschulabschluss (Universität/Fachhochschule)

◯ Sonstiges: ....

Appendix B – Questionnaire (English)

Dear participant,

I am currently writing my bachelor thesis concerning the role of food for tourists from Generation X and Generation Y. To receive relevant data, I am explicitly interested in Austrians between the ages of 13 to 35. If this applies to you, I kindly ask you to continue with the completion of this survey, which will take no longer than 10 min. Please be assured, that all individual answers will be kept in the strictest confidentiality and will remain anonymous.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me via
1211077@modul.ac.at

Thank you in advance for participating in this survey!

1.   **Please indicate your nationality**
   - Austrian
   - Non-Austrian

2.   **Please indicate your birth year _____**

3.   **What role does food play for you while travelling? Please review the following statements and show the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of them.**
       strongly disagree – disagree – unsure – agree – strongly agree

   - It is a way for me to experience the local culture of a destination.
   - It serves as a social function (e.g. sharing a meal with friends, conference dinners etc.)
   - Afterwards, I have the opportunity to tell friends about the novel food I have tried.
   - No particular role, since it is a basic human need.

4.   **Have you ever travelled to a destination explicitly for food?** - yes/no

5. **Please review the following statements and show the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of them.**

   strongly disagree – disagree – unsure – agree – strongly agree

   - I often do not trust ethnic food while travelling.
   - I am experimental when it comes to trying new and unusual food when I travel.
   - Restaurants, street vendors or markets sometimes intimidate me or do not meet my standards.
   - I tend to only visit restaurants and other food providing institutions that are known to be tourist friendly.
   - When I am travelling, I do not mind eating unusual food with unknown ingredients in them.
   - I would eat almost everything when I travel.

6. **Which of the following information sources do you usually use to find out about food-related information (e.g. restaurants, food markets, local cuisine) at a destination? yes/no**

   - internet
   - travel guide
   - magazines and newspapers
   - travel agency
   - asking locals
   - friends and family
   - other _____

7. **Have you ever participated in any of the below activities during your past travels? yes/no**

   - visitation to a vineyard/brewery
   - wine/beer tasting
   - cooking class
   - touring of an agriculture region
   - food festival
   - food tasting
   - farmer's market
   - fruit or vegetable picking
   - dining at a local restaurant

8. **Do you sometimes buy food or food-related articles as souvenirs?** –yes/no

9. **Please indicate your gender**
- female
- male

10. **What is the highest level of education you have achieved?**

- lower than high school degree
- high school degree or equivalent
- finishes apprenticeship
- bachelor/master degree or doctorate
- other _____

11. **What is your current occupation?**
- students
- employed
- retired
- currently unemployed
- other_____

Appendix C – Crosstabs Results: Information Sources

Travel Guides

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.090	.307
	Cramer's V	.090	.307
N of Valid Cases		128	

Magazines and Newspapers

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.020	.825
	Cramer's V	.020	.825
N of Valid Cases		128	

Travel Agency

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.052	.558
	Cramer's V	.052	.558
N of Valid Cases		128	

Asking Lokals

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.038	.669
	Cramer's V	.038	.669
N of Valid Cases		128	

Friends and Family

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.093	.293
	Cramer's V	.093	.293
N of Valid Cases		128	

Appendix D – Crosstabs Results: Food-related Activities

visitation to a vineyard/brewery

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.119	.178
	Cramer's V	.119	.178
N of Valid Cases		128	

Cooking Class

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.145	.102
	Cramer's V	.145	.102
N of Valid Cases		128	

touring of an agriculture region

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.116	.189
	Cramer's V	.116	.189
N of Valid Cases		128	

Food Festivals

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.128	.147
	Cramer's V	.128	.147
N of Valid Cases		128	

Food Tastings

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.128	.147
	Cramer's V	.128	.147
N of Valid Cases		128	

Farmer's Market

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.036	.681
	Cramer's V	.036	.681
N of Valid Cases		128	

Fruit/Vegetable Picking

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.028	.749
	Cramer's V	.028	.749
N of Valid Cases		128	

Dining at a local restaurant

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.028	.749
	Cramer's V	.028	.749
N of Valid Cases		128	