



Development and validation of a multidimensional tourist's local food consumption value (TLFCV) scale

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ABSTRACT

This study is to test whether consumption value theory can be applied to food tourism in a tourism destination. Despite its importance, few studies have explored the types of local food consumption value that tourists obtain in a destination. This study sought to develop and validate a scale of local food consumption value from a tourist perspective. As a result, a seven-factor structure was generated. The overall construct demonstrated satisfactory levels of reliability and validity. The value on their satisfaction with tasting local food, positive post-purchase intention, and food destination image varied by cultural region. Future research is expected to benefit from using the validated measurement to understand the unexplored aspects of tourists' local food consumption.

1. Introduction

Local food refers to food prepared using the traditional methods of a particular area, if not with local ingredients (Chang et al., 2010). Since local food is significantly important as a tourist attraction, the consumption of local food has a significant economic influence in a tourism community (Kim et al., 2016a,b; Mkono et al., 2013). For example, it has been reported that 30–40% of a foreign tourist's budget is allocated to eating food or purchasing it as a gift at a tourism destination (Boyne et al., 2002). This has substantial economic effects for a destination, especially for agricultural, restaurant, and food-processing businesses (Kim et al., 2018a,b; Correia et al., 2008).

As food can serve as a regional or national symbolic brand at a destination, it contributes to enhancing the regional or national image and reinforcing the attractiveness of that destination (du Rand and Heath, 2006; Fox, 2007; Kim et al., 2012). Many food tourism studies have discussed the typology of the tourist experience in terms of food consumption (Bardhi et al., 2010; Cohen and Avieli, 2004; Getz and Robinson, 2014; Mkono et al., 2013). In particular, the effects of food on the culinary travel experience, tourist satisfaction, and choice of local food have been actively studied, due to the use of food tourism as a destination marketing tool (Chang et al., 2010, 2011; Fields, 2002; Kim et al., 2013; Mak et al., 2012).

Despite the active study of food tourism, some research gaps persist. Some studies have analyzed consumer value in the hospitality and tourism field (Sánchez et al., 2006; Williams and Soutar, 2000, 2009).

However, little effort to examine tourists' value in their local food consumption in a destination has been infused. Due to the lack of effort that has been made to identify tourists' value when they consume local food in a destination, a number of unanswered questions still remain. What is the exact concept of local food consumption value as perceived by tourists? What types of local food consumption value do foreign tourists seek during a trip? How can we verify the dimensions of tourists' local food consumption value in terms of reliability and validity?

In response to the aforementioned research questions, this study aimed to develop a multidimensional scale with which to measure tourists' local food consumption value (TLFCV). Its findings should broaden the horizon of food tourism research beyond existing studies, which have simply adopted product consumption value scales that were developed based on consumer behavior. The new scale is expected to contribute to both academic and practical circles because it should offer a more precise measurement of local food consumption value and thereby further our understanding of the nature of food tourism in overseas tourist destinations.

2. Literature review

2.1. Food tourism research

The importance of food in tourism literature has been neglected because food is regarded as merely one of the supplemental components

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supporting tourists' main activities (Cohen and Avieli, 2004; Torres, 2002; Quan and Wang, 2004). However, the role that food plays in a tourist destination is significant (Germann Molz, 2007; Jones and Jenkins, 2002; Mkonon et al., 2013). Even though empirical studies of food tourism are very scarce, extant research is outlined below.

First, the role of local food in a destination has been acknowledged because of its economic benefits to the host community (Gaztelumendi, 2012). For example, over one third of tourist expenditure worldwide is attributed to food (Gaztelumendi, 2012). In addition, food tourism affects the main source of business for agricultural producers and food-related service industries (Henderson, 2009). Tourists who are committed to culinary-related activities will also participate in other activities such as visiting historic sites or participating in outdoor activities. Thus, their activities contribute to the local economy (Gilmore, 2015). Second, images of the particular cuisine or a restaurant in a destination can create a unique "brand" that can heighten the competitive advantage of a destination (Ab Karim and Chi, 2010; Hjalager and Corigliano, 2000; Kim et al., 2014; Lin et al., 2011).

Third, food tourism research has explored food tourists' local food consumption experiences and evaluated their travel (Björk and Kauppinen-Räsänen, 2014; Chang et al., 2010; Kim and Eves, 2012; Kim et al., 2013; Mak et al., 2012; Tse and Crofts, 2005; Wijaya et al., 2013). For example, according to Kim and Eves (2012), excitement, cultural experience, sensory appeal, interpersonal relationship, and health concern were the five motivations for tourists to consume local food. Subsequently, Kim et al. (2013) examined the relationships among tourists' motivations to taste local food, demographic factors, and food-related personality traits. Gender and age affect some motivational factors, while food-related personality does not reveal any differences among motivations for tasting local food in a destination. However, previous studies have underinvestigated tourists' local food consumption value, which is a salient determinant in understanding tourists' experiential quality and behavior.

2.2. Consumption value

As Appendix A indicates, Sheth et al. (1991) pioneered a theoretical framework for consumption value. They proposed a multidimensional consumption value structure that included functional, social, emotional, epistemic, and conditional value. After their initial effort, their theory was actively adapted to various contexts, such as choosing a product or a service in the pre-purchase stage or evaluating a product or service in the post-purchase stage (e.g., Kim and Lee, 2017; Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007; Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). After reviewing the studies that employed consumption value theory in the hospitality and tourism field, it was found that, unlike in the consumer product context, conditional value was not always conceptualized as one of the consumption value dimensions (Kim and Lee, 2017; Sánchez et al., 2006; Sweeney and Soutar, 2001). Moreover, it can be noted that consumption value differs with different products. That is, since local food that foreign tourists taste while traveling is different from manufactured products or tourism attractions, its consumption value is different. Thus, there is a need for developing a new scale.

2.3. Tourists' local food consumption value

Based on a review of previous studies of consumption value theory, a tourist's local food consumption value can be discussed as follows. First, diners depend on the degree of functional utilitarian value associated with their food choices. As functional value is broadly defined, studies have found that it should be measured separately based on several dimensions (Kim et al., 2018a,b; Perrea et al., 2015; Sánchez et al., 2006; Sweeney and Soutar, 2001; Williams and Soutar, 2009). As initial work, Finch et al. (1998) addressed three functional consumption values: "price/value for money," "essential features (taste/quality value)," and "health functions of food products." Studies have also

found enough evidence that consumers (tourists) seek three aspects of functional value, including taste/quality, price, and health value, when they experience local food at a destination (Finch et al., 1998; Kim and Eves, 2012; Nield et al., 2000).

As international tourism demand increases, a higher standard in food quality at a destination is required (Quan and Wang, 2004). Accordingly, the functional utility a local food provides to tourists has been considered an important and basic function for tourists at a destination. For example, Nield et al. (2000) investigated the role of food for tourists and found that the more tourists positively evaluated diverse food-related attributes such as food quality, value for money, variety of dishes, and food presentation, the more they became satisfied. Kim and Eves (2012) found that sensory appeal, health concerns, price, and taste quality increased tourists' motivation to experience local food.

Second, the favorable feelings such as excitement, pleasure, and happiness that occur in a tourist's food consumption process have been conceptualized as having emotional value (Kim and Eves, 2012; Long, 2004; Mitchell and Hall, 2003; Sparks et al., 2003). The activity of eating local food at a foreign tourist destination is symbolic, as diners basically pay for commodities (food) to experience palatable emotions such as happiness and excitement and romantic feelings. This meaning of experiencing different ethnic foods intensifies when one goes on vacation (Mitchell and Hall, 2003). Tourism activities such as wine tasting or attending food festivals for pleasure are not only based on rational factors, but also associated with emotions such as enjoyment and fun (Getz, 2000). Food is a useful attraction through which tourists can experience a local culture; it not only solves the issue of hunger, but also allows tourists to experience pleasurable emotions (Long, 2004). Thus, it can be assumed that emotional value is an important benefit tourists obtain through experiencing local foods.

Third, any product can be associated with social value, which is a specific social image consumers wish to have. For instance, the food served to guests at a deluxe restaurant or Michelin-starred restaurant inherently represents their prestigious status (Fodness, 1994; Kim and Lee, 2017). Tasting special and different food allows tourists to recognize the value of their own social status (Fields, 2002). Mak et al. (2012) indicated that distinctive local food could motivate tourists to enhance their status and prestige. That is, tasting local food plays a role in ego enhancement and self-satisfaction. Similarly, Chang et al. (2010) found that Chinese tourists perceived a higher social status and were willing to share their local food experiences with their friends after taking a trip.

Beyond individual recognition and prestige, social value has been operationalized to indicate interactions with other dining patrons. At social occasions and family gatherings, mealtime offers a good opportunity to interact with others (Richards, 2002). When diners are asked to recall their best meals in detail, the ambience of those meals is more memorable than the food itself (Kniazeva and Venkatesh, 2007). The importance of the interaction value or "togetherness" has been emphasized in food tourism research, as socializing with friends and relatives is an important utility that tourists can achieve during their holidays (Goolaup and Mossberg, 2016; Williams and Soutar, 2009). Meanwhile, social interactions between family members or between food producers and consumers (tourists) are considered an important and valuable part of food-related festivals (Williams et al., 2015).

Fourth, consuming local food at a foreign destination is more likely to provide epistemic value, as tourists generally consider it a novel experience and a way to expand their knowledge (Getz, 2000; Kivela and Crofts, 2006). Eating local food is one of the easiest ways to experience the local culture at a destination, and tourists are likely to satisfy their curiosity and desire for novelty by doing so. Epistemic value can be understood as follows: local food serves as a major medium for tourists to appreciate the culture of a destination and evaluate their cultural capital (Bardhi et al., 2010; Kivela and Crofts, 2006; Richards, 2002). For instance, using chopsticks without

hesitation and enjoying Cantonese food after visiting Hong Kong can offer a way to gain cultural capital (Mak et al., 2012). Thus, epistemic value is an important asset that tourists can pursue by eating local food at a destination.

2.4. Rationale for TLFCV scale development

Most consumption value studies have actively considered the features of durable goods or commodities. As Appendix A shows, Sheth et al. (1991) conducted the first consumption value study. Since then, marginal efforts have been made to develop only two consumption value scales in the consumer behavior field (Long and Schiffman, 2000; Sweeney and Soutar, 2001) and one in the tourism field (Sánchez et al., 2006) using regular scale development procedures. Furthermore, limited efforts have been made to conceptualize a tourist's local food consumption value in the food tourism field.

Since food consumption is characterized differently from the consumption of other tangible commodities and intangible services, food consumption value is likely to include many distinctive features (Dagevos and van Ophem, 2013). For example, beyond the primary benefits sought from eating, local food in a destination is associated with cultural assets, spiritual meaning, religious meaning, and national image. Thus, functional value including price or diverse utilitarian functions embedded in a consumer product can be distinguished from functions that local food has in a tourism place. Most hospitality and tourism studies have simply attempted to identify food consumption value either conceptually or empirically using a few items rather than a validated scale (Chang et al., 2010; Dagevos and van Ophem, 2013; Ignatov and Smith, 2006; Mak et al., 2012; Oh, 2000; Roseman, 2006). Thus, most did not consider the multidimensionality of the food consumption value construct.

Meanwhile, there is a need to develop a reliable and valid scale to measure a tourist's local food consumption value that can be confirmed by groups that differ cross-culturally. In addition, the instrument should be tested on more than one local cuisine to enhance external validity. Consequently, a new scale that validates a tourist's local food consumption value and can be applicable to different cuisines and ethnic groups worldwide is desperately needed to be developed.

3. Methods

Fig. 1 shows the overall procedures used to develop the TLFCV scale. Following a review of scale development studies (Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 2003; Hung and Petrick, 2010; Kim and Eves, 2012; Lee and Crompton, 1992), this study developed a new TLFCV scale in six stages. These included (1) specification of definition and dimensions of the construct, (2) generation of a pool of items and determination of the format for measurement, (3) consideration of experts' reviews of the initial pool of items, (4) purification of the items via pre-test, (5) conducting a pilot test and (6) analysis of main survey results.

3.1. Specification of definition and dimensions of the constructs

The first stage in developing the construct measurement involved defining and conceptualizing the dimensions of the constructs. Content analysis of previous studies about consumption value and a tourist's local food experiences was conducted even though consumption value has not actively been investigated in the context of a tourist's local food experiences. Since the qualitative data aids generating themes and gaining insight into the concept (Berg, 2004; Kim et al., 2018a,b,2016a,b), this study attempted coding, thematic/dimensional classification, and interpretation to identify definition and meaningful pieces of content through systematic reading or observation of texts. To guarantee external validity two external reviewers were invited to verify whether results of content analysis are correct. Then a group discussion with the external reviewers was subsequently proceeded to

confirm definition, the dimensionality of the construct and proposed items.

As a consequence, the consumption was defined as a tourist's perception of the benefits or utility of consuming a local food at a destination (Sánchez et al., 2006; Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007; Sweeney and Soutar, 2001; Williams and Soutar, 2009). Results of content analysis of the dimensionality of the construct generated seven dimensions. Taste/quality value refers to the perceived utility acquired by consuming local food at a destination due to the food's taste, quality, and expected functional performance. Health value is defined as the perceived utility acquired by consuming local food at a destination due to its ability to enhance health. Price value is defined as the perceived utility acquired by consuming local food at a destination due to the reduction of its cost. Emotional value refers to the perceived utility acquired by consuming local food at a destination due to its ability to arouse desired feelings or positive affective states. Prestige value is defined as the perceived utility acquired by consuming local food at a destination due to its ability to enhance one's social self-concept. Interaction value refers to the perceived utility acquired by consuming local food at a destination due to its ability to enhance interactions between people. Epistemic value is defined as the perceived utility acquired by consuming local food at a destination due to its ability to arouse curiosity, provide novelty, and satisfy one's desire for knowledge.

3.2. Generation of a pool of items and determination of the format for measurement

The second step involved generating items that could "capture the dimensions as specified" (Churchill, 1979, p. 67). The qualitative approaches such as in-depth interview, group discussion, and analysis of open-ended questions can facilitate generation of themes and obtainment of an insight into the concept beyond review of the extant literature (Kim et al., 2018a,b). Use of these multiple methods help to secure content validity of a scale (Lawshé, 1975).

Overall, 71 items were generated based on a thorough review of previous studies (e.g., Finch, 2006; Finch et al., 1998; Kim and Kim, 2013; Kim et al., 2002; Long and Schiffman, 2000; Park and Rabolt, 2009; Pope, 1998; Sánchez et al., 2006; Sweeney and Soutar, 2001; Turel et al., 2010; Williams and Soutar, 2009; Xiao and Kim, 2009; Zhang, 2008). Appendix B shows an initial list of selected items. Seven potential dimensions were determined, including taste/quality value (9 items), health value (6 items), price value (5 items), emotional value (22 items), prestige value (9 items), interaction value (4 items), and epistemic value (16 items). As a result, the TLFCV scale was hypothesized as multidimensional.

3.3. Experts' review of the initial pool of items

In-depth interviews with experts were carried out to extract the most relevant items for measuring the construct in order to measure tourists' local food consumption value as well as to come up with new items that had been ignored in the previous step (DeVellis, 2003; Kim et al., 2018a,b). Ten food experts including chefs and managers at local restaurants in Hong Kong were selected using a purposive sampling method. First, the interviews started with open-ended questions regarding the participant's general experiences of local food consumption during their most recent trip abroad and their perceptions of foreign tourists in their restaurants. Second, a list of initial items was reviewed by the interviewees, who could ascertain whether they represented items of the measurement instrument. Therefore, the interviewees examined the initial items and evaluated the content (face) validity in terms of whether they were a good representation of the definition of each construct indicating tourists' local food consumption value. Items which were described as redundant or less representative by more than half of the interviewees were ruled out. Third, the interviewees were

Stage	Method
<p><u>Stage 1</u> Specification of the definition and domains of the construct</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Literature review of studies on consumption value theory and tourists' food consumption
<p><u>Stage 2</u> Generation of a pool of items and determination of the format for measurement</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Literature review of studies on consumption value theory and tourists' food consumption
<p><u>Stage 3</u> Experts' review of the initial pool of items</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In-depth interviews with 10 experts in tourist-consumed food Analyses <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Checking for content validity - Checking for clarity and conciseness of each item
<p><u>Stage 4</u> Purification of the items</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pre-test with 50 doctoral students Analyses <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Checking for content validity - Checking for clarity and conciseness of each item
<p><u>Stage 4</u> Purification of the items</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pre-test with 50 doctoral students Analyses <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Checking for content validity - Checking for clarity and conciseness of each item
<p><u>Stage 5</u> Pilot test</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pilot test using two groups of foreign tourists through online panel survey <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Samples of 400 U.S. tourists Analyses <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) - Checking for factor loadings, communalities, and reliability coefficients
<p><u>Stage 6</u> Main survey</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A main survey of 870 foreign tourists in Hong Kong Analyses <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - EFA - Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) - Checking for reliability coefficients, convergent validity, discriminant validity, nomological validity, cross-validation, and criterion (predictive) validity

Fig. 1. Procedures for developing tourist's local food consumption value scal.

asked to recall their local food experiences again and explain their local food consumption value during their travels. In this stage, new items which had not been derived through the literature review stage were added.

As a result, 21 of the 71 initial items were removed because the interviewees revealed the vagueness of their meanings and their similarities. Meanwhile, four items were added to reflect the characteristics tourist's local food consumption value. Consequently, 54 items remained after the wording and sentence structures were modified.

3.4. Pre-test and pilot test

To purify the measurement items, a pre-test was conducted using 50 doctoral students majoring in hospitality and tourism management to repeatedly check the content validity of the measurement once more with a large sample and refine the measurement items for conciseness and clarity. All doctoral students dine frequently at local restaurants when traveling. Also they were familiar with the scale development process and were able to give fruitful comments in terms of content

validity. Applicability of each item was measured and 12 of 54 items were removed because of more than half of respondents indicated low scores (less than 3.0). In addition, the wordings of items were changed. Finally, 42 items were included for the next stage.

Soon after the pre-test, a pilot test was conducted to identify whether all the measurement items were ascertained by a sample of actual food tourists and to check for any weakness before the main survey (Oppenheim, 1992). The pilot test was conducted based on a sample of 412 U.S. tourists who had eaten local food while travelling in France or Italy within the previous two years. U.S. tourists were chosen for the sample because U.S. citizens had one of the highest levels of outbound tourism demand in the world (UNWTO, 2016). In addition, French and Italian foods were considered representative of world cuisines. Using purposive sampling, pilot test was conducted with the assistance of a professional online survey company, Qualtrics, in the U.S.

Of U.S. tourists who traveled to France, 54.4% of the respondents were females. Those in their 30s were the most common (33.0%), followed by those in their 20s (21.8%). The majority of the respondents had a college degree (52.4%). Most of the respondents were Caucasian

(79.1%). 62.1% were married. About 26.7% of the respondents were company employees, and 15.5% were professionals. Meanwhile, 18.4% of the respondents reported a monthly household income of USD 3001–4,000, followed by those who earned USD 4001–5000 (17.5%). The demographics of U.S. tourists who traveled to Italy were similar.

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using principal axis factoring and direct oblique rotation was conducted to identify the underlying dimensions of the TLFCV scale. Two datasets included those who dined local food in France ($n = 206$) and those who dined on local food in Italy ($n = 206$). After conducting an initial EFA, nine items with communalities less than 0.5 and factor loadings less than 0.4 in both datasets were removed as recommended by Comrey and Lee (1992). After deleting these items, the reliability alphas in each dimension were greater than 0.78, and thus the items in the extracted domains were considered internally consistent.

According to an analysis of the tourists who visited France, the local food consumption value construct, consisting of 33 items, produced a 6-factor solution, explaining 69.13% of the variance. The dimensions were labeled taste/quality value, price/health value, emotional value, prestige value, interaction value, and epistemic value. In a similar vein, the EFA results based on the Italian tourist sample produced a 7-factor solution, explaining 67.06% of the variance. The extracted dimensions and composition of items within each dimension were almost the same as those in the previous samples. Therefore, 33 items were used in the data analysis stage.

3.5. Data collection of main survey

The purpose of the main survey was to examine the reliability and validity of the measurement scale based on a large sample at on-site tourism destinations. Hong Kong, the well-known “culinary capital of Asia” (Hong Kong Tourism Board, 2016) was chosen for the destination. Foreign tourists who were fond of experiencing local cuisines and had experienced local cuisine at least once traveling Hong Kong were the target sample. The quota sampling method according to gender and age proportions was used in the main survey. This approach guaranteed representativeness of tourists to Hong Kong (Song et al., 2012; Tsang et al., 2011). The English version of the questionnaire was translated into Mandarin Chinese, Korean, and Japanese by a professional translation company.

Data collection for the main survey was conducted at the international airport and main tourist attractions in Hong Kong, where tourists could easily access the local food. Fifteen well-trained undergraduate students majoring in hotel and tourism management participated in this main survey as interviewers. A gift (postcard, souvenir magnet) was given to each respondent as a token of appreciation for their participation.

The main survey was carried out from April 2016 to June 2016. A total of 1008 questionnaires were collected. Two screen questions were applied asking respondents if eating local food in Hong Kong one of their major motivations to visit the destination and if eating local food in Hong Kong an important part of their trip. 76 were screened out because they provided negative answers to both the questions. Moreover, after 62 questionnaires that had many missing values or checked only one number of agreement were removed, a total of 870 remaining questionnaires were used for the data analysis.

4. Findings

4.1. Demographic and travel-related profiles

The demographic characteristics of tourists were as follows (see Table 1). The gender distribution was equal, and about half of the respondents were married (52.0%). In terms of age, 32.8% of the respondents were aged 26 to 35. A majority of the respondents had bachelor's degrees (39.1%). In terms of occupation, 39.4% of the

respondents were company employees. The respondents came from mainland China (40.5%), Southeast Asian countries (16.2%), Europe (15.9%), and Taiwan (6.6%). In terms of annual household income, 32.4% of the respondents made USD12,001–36,000. The highest percentage of respondents (37.8%) were visiting Hong Kong for the first time. Most respondents visited Hong Kong for vacation/leisure (68.1%). Most of the respondents indicated they were staying three to four nights in Hong Kong (34.3%). Most of the respondents were independent travelers (89.7%).

4.2. Cross-validation of data

Dividing sample data into two parts is a common preventive method to cross-validate data. Since the Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) models are not suggested to be specified on the basis of EFA using the same sample (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011), the data was randomly divided into two data sets in SPSS. The generalizability and reliability of results can be achieved when replicating a factor analytic solution on a separate sample (DeVellis, 2003). Thus, the whole data set was randomly. EFA was used for the first data set ($n = 438$) to identify the underlying dimensions and reduce the number of measurement items. CFA was applied to the second data set ($n = 432$). Then the overall measurement model was tested using the whole sample ($n = 870$) after the successful cross-validation process.

4.3. EFA

EFA was conducted using the principal axis factoring method and promax rotation approach to identify the underlying dimensions and items within each derived dimension for the final factor solution. Four items with communalities of less than 0.5 and factor loadings of less than 0.4 were removed as recommended in the literature (Comrey and Lee, 1992).

According to the EFA results, using 29 items as the factor structure derived a 7-factor solution (see Table 2). The extracted factors were labeled as follows: (1) emotional value, (2) epistemic value, (3) health value, (4) prestige value, (5) taste/quality value, (6) price value, and (7) interaction value.

EFA was also conducted for each dimension of one's satisfaction with tasting local food, positive post-purchase intention, and food destination image to check the predictive validity of the TLFCV scale in the later stage. Three items regarding satisfaction with tasting local food were adopted from a study by Namkung and Jang (2007). Positive post-purchase intention was embedded in two items used by Phillips et al.'s (2013) study. Five items for indicating image of food destination were adopted from a study by Ab Karim and Chi (2010). Each EFA generated a one-factor solution. Each factor explained 78.30%, 75.96%, and 65.95% of the variance, respectively (Table 3).

4.4. CFA

A CFA ($n = 432$) was conducted with the second data set to confirm the underlying dimensions and items extracted. The CFA results revealed a satisfactory level of fit for the overall fit indices. Therefore, a CFA with the whole data set ($n = 870$) was conducted. Standardized factor loading should exceed 0.50 to obtain convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010). The item (“I think that I learn Hong Kong dining habits through my Hong Kong food experiences) was ruled out at the beginning of CFA because its factor loading was 0.47.

The CFA results revealed a supportive level of fit for the overall fit indices, with the exception of the chi-square value ($\chi^2(320) = 1245.33, p = .000$). Since the chi-square is sensitive to the sample size (Hair et al., 2010), other fit indices are substantially more helpful in evaluating the model than the chi-square value. Goodness-of-fit analyses were conducted for the following indices: Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .95, Normed Fit Index (NFI) = .93, Tucker-Lewis Index

Table 1
Profiles of the respondents (n = 870).

Category		%	Category		%	
Age	19–25	20.1	Gender	Male	50.0	
	26–35	32.8		Female	50.0	
	36–45	27.4		Country of origin	Mainland China (Guangdong)	18.0
	46–55	13.0			Mainland China (Non-Guangdong)	22.5
Marital status	56 or above	6.7	Taiwan	6.6		
	Single	48.0	Korea and Japan	8.4		
	Married	52.0	Southeast Asian countries	16.2		
Educational level	Secondary school or less	13.6	Europe	15.9		
	Diploma or higher diploma	18.0	Australia/New Zealand	3.8		
	University/college student	11.7	America	6.2		
	University/college graduate (Bachelor's degree)	39.1	Others	2.4		
Occupation	Master's degree or higher	17.6	Frequency of visits to Hong Kong (Including this trip)	1	37.8	
	Company employee	39.4		2–4	35.1	
	Own business	9.1		5–7	15.2	
	Professional	20.8		8–10	7.7	
Annual household income	Housewife	6.7	11 or above	4.2		
	Student	10.2	Purpose of visit	Vacation/leisure	68.1	
	Retired	3.3		Business	21.7	
	Others	10.5	Visit friends and/or relatives	10.2		
Annual household income	Less than USD 12,000	12.3	Travel period	Day trip	10.1	
	USD 12,000–36,000	32.4		1–2 nights	31.9	
	USD 36,001–60,000	21.7		3–4 nights	34.3	
	USD 60,001–84,000	13.4		5 nights or more	23.7	
	USD 84,001–108,000	6.3		Travel mode	Package tour	10.3
USD 108,001 or above	13.9	Independent traveler	89.7			

Table 2
Explanatory factor analysis of the TLFCV scale (n = 438).

TLFCV scale items (Overall I think that...)	Community	Factor loading	Mean
Factor 1: Emotional value (Eigenvalue: 8.68; % of variance: 38.74; grand mean: 5.07; $\alpha = .93$)			
Eating Hong Kong food makes me feel happy.	.77	.89	5.26
Eating Hong Kong food gives me pleasure.	.74	.80	5.27
Eating Hong Kong food changes my mood positively.	.69	.79	5.03
Eating Hong Kong food fascinates me.	.67	.73	4.89
Eating Hong Kong food makes me crave it.	.65	.70	4.92
Eating Hong Kong food makes me feel excited.	.72	.69	5.13
Factor 2: Epistemic value (Eigenvalue: 7.64; % of variance: 8.61; grand mean: 5.36; $\alpha = .87$)			
I want to seek out more information about Hong Kong food.	.70	.85	5.22
I am more curious about Hong Kong food.	.72	.84	5.21
Eating Hong Kong food is a good opportunity for me to learn new things.	.69	.81	5.48
I want to try more diverse Hong Kong food.	.59	.71	5.56
My knowledge of Hong Kong culture has increased.	.58	.66	5.41
I learn Hong Kong dining habits through my Hong Kong food experiences (e.g., how to eat the food, how to use utensils).	.47	.61	5.30
Factor 3: Health value (Eigenvalue: 6.16; % of variance: 6.21; grand mean: 5.17; $\alpha = .87$)			
Hong Kong food is hygienic.	.69	.83	5.21
Hong Kong food makes me healthy.	.66	.78	5.01
Hong Kong food is safe.	.61	.72	5.40
Hong Kong food provides good nutrition.	.59	.57	5.05
Factor 4: Prestige value (Eigenvalue: 5.85; % of variance: 4.85; grand mean: 4.57; $\alpha = .89$)			
Eating Hong Kong food gives me a chance to show off my Hong Kong food experiences to others.	.74	.85	4.80
I have higher social status when eating well-known Hong Kong food.	.74	.84	4.09
It is worthwhile to show pictures of my Hong Kong food experiences to others.	.65	.74	5.00
Eating well-known Hong Kong food gives me prestige.	.68	.72	4.40
Factor 5: Taste/quality value (Eigenvalue: 7.08; % of variance: 4.34; grand mean: 5.54; $\alpha = .89$)			
Hong Kong food provides a variety of ingredients.	.57	.75	5.61
Hong Kong food provides good quality ingredients.	.73	.73	5.54
Hong Kong food provides appealing flavors.	.67	.73	5.49
Hong Kong food is tasty.	.63	.73	5.53
Hong Kong food provides a high standard of quality.	.70	.64	5.52
Factor 6: Price value (Eigenvalue: 3.88; % of variance: 2.53; grand mean: 4.75; $\alpha = .89$)			
Hong Kong food is reasonably priced.	.84	.90	4.70
Hong Kong food offers value for money.	.73	.82	4.80
Factor 7: Interaction value (Eigenvalue: 4.69; % of variance: 2.41; grand mean: 5.22; $\alpha = .83$)			
My friendship or kinship with my travel companion has increased while eating Hong Kong food together.	.67	.78	5.17
Eating Hong Kong food helps me interact with the people I travel with.	.74	.72	5.27

Table 3

Explanatory factor analysis of satisfaction with tasting local food, positive post-purchase intention, and image of food tourism destination (n = 870).

Constructs and items	Communality	Factor loading	Mean
Satisfaction with tasting local food (Eigenvalue: 3.13; % of variance: 78.30; grand mean: 5.50; $\alpha = .91$)			
I am satisfied with Hong Kong food as I expected.	.77	.88	5.43
Eating Hong Kong food is a wise choice.	.75	.87	5.43
I am happy about my decision to experience Hong Kong food.	.79	.89	5.54
I am satisfied with my decision to experience Hong Kong food.	.82	.91	5.62
Positive post-purchase intention (Eigenvalue: 2.28; % of variance: 75.96; grand mean: 5.36; $\alpha = .83$)			
I would like to visit a Hong Kong-themed restaurant after I go back to my country.	.64	.80	5.04
I would like to recommend Hong Kong food to families and/or friends.	.84	.92	5.46
I would like to say positive things about Hong Kong food to other people.	.79	.89	5.57
Image of food destination (Eigenvalue: 3.30, % of variance: 65.95, grand mean: 5.52; $\alpha = .87$) (I think that...)			
Hong Kong, as a tourism destination, provides delicious food.	.62	.79	5.44
Hong Kong, as a tourism destination, provides diverse food.	.67	.82	5.52
Hong Kong, as a tourism destination, provides rich food culture.	.74	.86	5.62
Hong Kong, as a tourism destination, provides traditional food culture.	.67	.82	5.57
Hong Kong, as a tourism destination, provides unique food.	.59	.77	5.45

(TLI) = .94, Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = .95, root mean square residual (RMR) = .07, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .06, and test of close fit (P-close) = .00.

In terms of convergent validity, standardized factor loadings of seven dimensions were ranged from 0.60 to 0.94. Regarding Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values of emotional value, epistemic value, health value, prestige value, taste/quality value, price value, and interaction value were 0.68, 0.56, 0.55, 0.64, 0.53, 0.80, and 0.70 respectively. Composite construct reliability (CCR) values of emotional value, epistemic value, health value, prestige value, taste/quality value, price value, and interaction value were 0.93, 0.86, 0.83, 0.88, 0.85, 0.89, and 0.82 respectively. All the standardized factor loading exceeded 0.50, and all the AVE values were higher than .50. In addition, all the CCR values far exceeded the 0.70 criterion (Hair et al., 2010). Thus, convergent validity of TLFCV was satisfactory. The discriminant validity of the TLFCV scale was met, as the highest correlation value of TLFCV dimensions was 0.57 (Kline, 2011).

4.5. Model comparison of TLFCV scale

Four alternative models were compared to confirm whether a seven first-order factor model is the best for conceptualizing TLFCV. Model 1 represents a first-order factor model with 28 indicators, whereas Model 2 is a seven first-order factor model. Model 3 indicates how the second-order factors account for the covariance among the seven first-order latent variables. Model 4 shows two third-order factors based on the hierarchical characteristics of several consumption values (e.g., functional value, social value). The results of comparing models to identify the best conceptualization of TLFCV are shown in Fig. 2, whereas goodness-fit-indices are represented in Table 4.

In terms of the goodness-fit-indices, Model 1 is the poorest model for conceptualizing TLFCV. Models 2, 3, and 4 revealed the same RMSEA, whereas Model 2 showed a lower Chi-square and better goodness-fit-indices for the other indicators. Therefore, Model 2 was proven to be the best fit for measuring TLFCV, supporting the first-order factor model encompassing seven dimensions.

4.6. Invariance test

To increase the robustness of the validity of the measurement items, two invariance tests, across gender and across a randomly divided sample, were conducted. The baseline model for unconstrained and the factor loading constrained model showed that same constructs were measured across two groups. The Chi-square difference was used to identify whether two groups were invariant. The results showed that there was no difference of the measurement models between female and male ($\Delta \chi^2(\Delta df = 21) = 28.41; p = .13$). In addition, results of

Chi-square difference test across the sample randomly divided in half showed no difference ($\Delta \chi^2(\Delta df = 21) = 24.66; p = .26$). This indicated that the measurement model was invariant for different groups, confirming the validity of the seven-dimensional structure of the newly developed scale (Table 5).

4.7. Internal consistency of the scale

The internal consistency of the items was checked in each of the seven dimensions in the four datasets, including all of the samples (n = 870) and the three regional groups such as Chinese tourists (n = 410), other Asian tourists (n = 214), and Western and other tourists (n = 246). Cross-cultural difference can be moderated in that tourists can interpret foreign cuisine at a tourism destination differently; as such, the reliability alphas in the datasets were computed for the three regional groups to cross-validate the internal consistency (Kim et al., 2014; Mak et al., 2012). As a result, the Cronbach's alpha values fall into a range of .82–.95 in all of the dimensions for all four datasets.

4.8. Nomological validity

Nomological validity is defined as “the degree that the summated scale makes accurate predictions of other concepts in a theoretically based model” (Hair et al., 2010, p. 126). The correlation between theoretically defined sets of variables can verify whether the measurement has nomological validity (Hair et al., 2010). According to the literature on business, hospitality, and tourism, consumption value is significantly associated with satisfaction, destination image, and behavioral intentions. Thus, the current study tested for nomological validity by correlating TLFCV domains with satisfaction with tasting local food, positive post-purchase intention, and image of food destination. Table 6 shows that all correlations were significant at the predicted sign, confirming the nomological validity of the newly developed scale.

4.9. Predictive validity

In developing a new scale, it is important to check predictive validity, which refers to the extent to which measurement scores are able to precisely predict other related measures of the construct they represent (Kline, 2011; Lee and Crompton, 1992). To check predictive validity, correlation and multiple regression analyses were conducted as executed in previous studies (Bergkvist and Rossiter, 2007; Hung and Petrick, 2010; Sánchez et al., 2006). First, the results of correlation analyses between seven domains of the TLFCV scale and one's satisfaction with tasting local food, between the domains and one's positive post-purchase intention, and between the domains and one's food destination image ranged from 0.34 to 0.63 ($p < .001$), .29 to .59

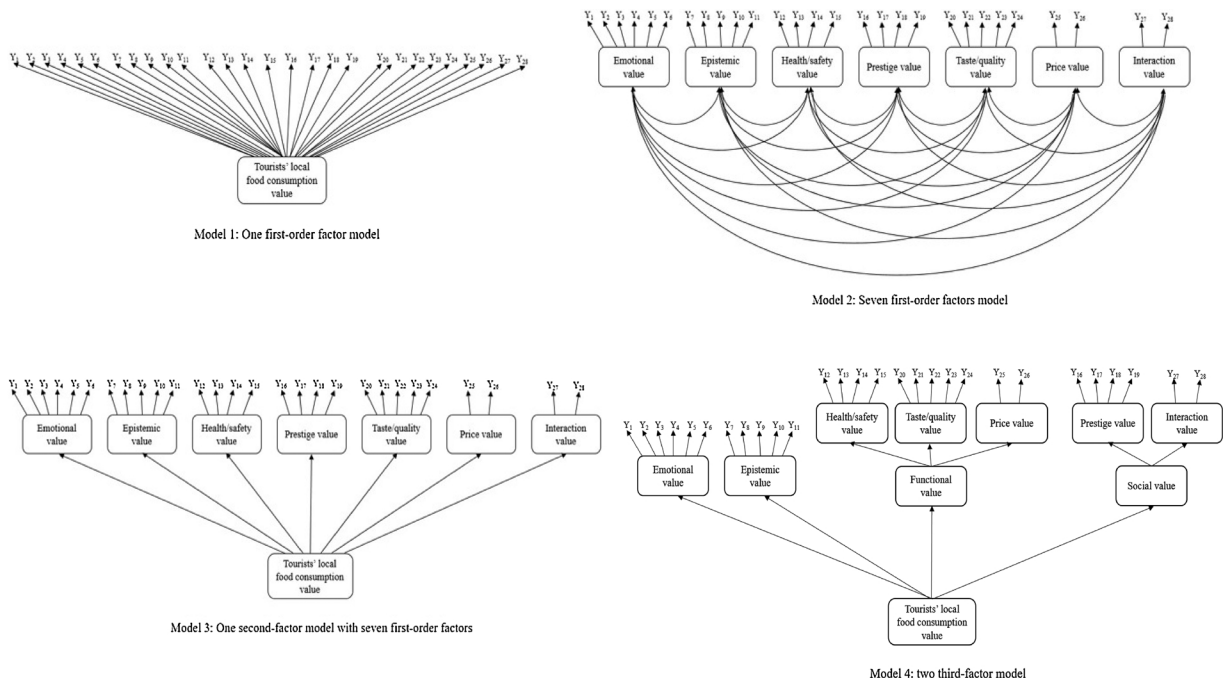


Fig. 2. Model comparison of TLFCV.

Table 4
Model comparison for dimensionality of the TLFCV scale.

Goodness-fit-indices	Measurement models			
	Model 1: One first-order factor model	Model 2: Seven first-order factors model	Model 3: Second-factor model	Model 4: Two third-factor model
RMSEA	.13	.06	.06	.06
RMR	.16	.07	.09	.08
CFI	.72	.95	.93	.94
NFI	.71	.93	.91	.92
TLI	.69	.94	.92	.93
IFI	.73	.95	.93	.94
χ^2	5069.20	1245.33	1526.06	1387.11
df	341	320	334	332
χ^2/df	14.87	3.89	4.57	4.18

($p < .001$), and .25 to .58 ($p < .001$), respectively, in all samples. This demonstrated the predictive validity of the scale, as the seven domains were highly correlated with the other three variables, including satisfaction, post-purchase intention, and image.

Second, a series of multiple regression analyses were conducted to

Table 5
Model comparison for measurement invariance tests.

Goodness-fit-indices	Measurement models			
	Gender (Female = 435, Male = 435)		Radom split (First data set = 438, second data set = 432)	
	Unconstrained	Measurement weights	Unconstrained	Measurement weights
RMSEA	.04	.94	.05	.04
RMR	.08	.08	.08	.08
CFI	.94	.94	.94	.94
NFI	.91	.90	.90	.90
TLI	.93	.93	.93	.93
IFI	.94	.94	.94	.94
χ^2	1707.15	1735.56	1745.37	1770.03
df	640	661	640	661
χ^2/df	2.67	2.63	2.73	2.68

Table 6
Nomological validity of tourists' local food consumption value scale.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	1.00									
2	.56**	1.00								
3	.45**	.34**	1.00							
4	.52**	.45**	.34**	1.00						
5	.56**	.42**	.57**	.24**	1.00					
6	.41**	.32**	.36**	.26**	.33**	1.00				
7	.46**	.53**	.33**	.49**	.30**	.23**	1.00			
8	.63**	.59**	.50**	.34**	.61**	.39**	.47**	1.00		
9	.57**	.59**	.41**	.41**	.49**	.29**	.43**	.70**	1.00	
10	.49**	.53**	.47**	.25**	.58**	.33**	.42**	.72**	.59**	1.00

Note: ** $p < .01$, 1 = Emotional value; 2 = Epistemic value; 3 = Health value; 4 = Prestige value; 5 = Taste/quality value; 6 = Price value; 7 = Interaction value; 8 = Satisfaction with tasting local food; 9 = Positive post-purchase intention; 10 = Image of food destination.

explore how much the seven dimensions regressed on the three dependent variables. A tolerance value higher than .38 and a VIF score less than 2.65 were revealed in all of the regression models; therefore, multicollinearity was not considered a concern. As Table 7 indicates,

Table 7
Effects of a tourist’s local food consumption value on their satisfaction with tasting local food and intentions.

Dependent variable: Satisfaction with tasting local food	All samples (n = 870)		Chinese tourists (n = 410)		Other Asian tourists (n = 214)		Western and other tourists (n = 246)	
	β	t-value	β	t-value	β	t-value	β	t-value
Emotional value	.24	7.43***	.19	3.70***	.28	4.33***	.30	4.78***
Epistemic value	.24	8.34***	.18	3.64***	.25	4.73***	.25	4.64***
Health value	.11	4.01***	.10	2.19*	.16	3.01**	.12	2.18*
Prestige value	-.08	-2.83**	-.01	-.25	-.15	-2.68**	-.09	-1.59
Taste/quality value	.26	8.70***	.25	5.52***	.26	4.28***	.24	4.09***
Price value	.08	3.10**	.02	.55	.10	2.10*	.10	2.07*
Interaction value	.13	4.68***	.21	4.44***	.13	2.44*	.11	2.08*
	$F = 170.28 (p < .001) R^2 = .58$		$F = 62.67 (p < .001) R^2 = .51$		$F = 63.62 (p < .001) R^2 = .67$		$F = 45.79 (p < .001) R^2 = .56$	
Dependent variable: Positive post-purchase intention	All samples (n = 870)		Chinese tourists (n = 410)		Other Asian tourists (n = 214)		Western and other tourists (n = 246)	
Independent variables	β	t-value	β	t-value	β	t-value	β	t-value
Emotional value	.20	5.31***	.10	1.78	.22	2.94**	.28	4.28***
Epistemic value	.32	9.50***	.32	5.58***	.30	4.82***	.30	5.29***
Health value	.08	2.61**	.12	2.20*	.05	.80	.07	1.20
Prestige value	.06	1.94	.05	1.01	-.09	-1.37	.16	2.72**
Taste/quality value	.16	4.68***	.09	1.71	.29	3.99***	.16	2.63**
Price value	-.01	-.31	-.02	-.31	.05	.94	-.00	-.07
Interaction value	.07	2.30*	.12	2.22*	.08	1.23	.01	.21
	$F = 105.77 (p < .001), R^2 = .46$		$F = 35.09 (p < .001), R^2 = .37$		$F = 37.49 (p < .001), R^2 = .55$		$F = 39.63 (p < .001), R^2 = .53$	
Dependent variable: Image of food destination	All samples (n = 870)		Chinese tourists (n = 410)		Other Asian tourists (n = 214)		Western and other tourists (n = 246)	
Independent variables	β	t-value	β	t-value	β	t-value	β	t-value
Emotional value	.08	1.84	.01	.17	.08	.97	.16	2.23*
Epistemic value	.28	8.44***	.29	5.66***	.20	2.97**	.25	4.01***
Health value	.14	4.36***	.14	2.90**	.16	2.33*	.13	2.02*
Prestige value	-.12	-3.84***	-.12	-2.73**	-.05	-.68	-.11	-1.74
Taste/quality value	.31	9.03***	.33	7.13***	.31	3.96***	.24	3.68***
Price value	.06	2.21*	-.03	-.80	.07	1.25	.11	1.98*
Interaction value	.15	4.84***	.22	4.64***	.12	1.74	.13	2.21*
	$F = 111.54 (p < .001) R^2 = .47$		$F = 58.49 (p < .001) R^2 = .50$		$F = 27.98 (p < .001) R^2 = .47$		$F = 26.28 (p < .001) R^2 = .42$	

Note: *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$.

most of the independent variables were significant at least at the 0.05 level, even though a difference in explanatory powers (R^2) was observed across the three cultural groups.

Overall, based on the higher level of explanatory power of all of the regression models, the TLFCV construct showed a high level of predictive validity. Furthermore, the results indicated that the dimensions of the TLFCV scale could be differently interpreted according to the cultural uniqueness of foreign tourists.

5. Discussion and conclusion

A main goal of this study was to develop a new local food consumption value scale as perceived by foreign tourists. Its significant findings will be discussed as follows. First, seven dimensions were derived after conducting EFA based on a main survey, and the factor model was confirmed via CFA. The factor structure showed a high level of validity in terms of content, convergent, discriminant, and predictive validity. Since the measurement scale was tested in diverse local food consumption contexts (e.g., U.S samples who tasted French food, Italian food; multinational samples who tasted Hong Kong local food), it guarantees external validity which refers to the extent to which the results of a study can be generalized to other situations and to other samples (Hair et al., 2010). In addition, it consistently demonstrated a high level of reliability in all of the datasets. As a result, this study was

successful in developing a TLFCV scale with a high level of reliability and validity.

Second, of the seven domains derived, “taste/quality value” received the highest mean score from respondents (grand mean = 5.54). This is understandable, as eating delicious and good-quality food is one of the most basic enjoyment activities sought by foreign tourists (Niell et al., 2000; Telfer and Hashimoto, 2003). Research has strongly supported the importance of “quality value” as a tourism attraction and as an enhancer of the tourist experience (Sánchez et al., 2006; Williams and Soutar, 2009). In terms of food tourists’ food experiences, co-operation among various stakeholders is important in maintaining the appealing taste and high quality of food (Telfer and Hashimoto, 2003). Destination Marketing Organizations (DMOs) should constantly communicate and work with local food-related stakeholders to provide and maintain consistent appealing taste and high-quality local food.

A high score for “emotional value” (grand mean = 5.07) supported the finding that foreign tourists attain pleasure, excitement, and relaxation by eating local food at a tourism destination (Kim et al., 2013; Mitchell and Hall, 2003; Sparks et al., 2003). Thus, it is suggested that advertisements or promotional materials for local food should have positive emotional appeal to tourists.

Third, “epistemic value” had the second highest mean score (grand mean = 5.36) on the TLFCV scale. The epistemic value items indicate that once tourists perceive the benefits of learning a local culture and

acquire new knowledge of local food, they desire to seek out more information and become even more educated. This result is consistent with those of previous studies proposing cultural capital theory (Getz, 2000; Tikkanen, 2007). Cultural capital theory explains that consuming local food at a destination is a behavior through which a tourist can obtain knowledge and experience of a local people's culture (Chang et al., 2011; Fields, 2002). As a destination marketing strategy, it is more effective to include visual or textual messages that encourage novelty seeking, curiosity, new experiences, and knowledge expansion to promote a place as a food tourism destination. By doing so, tourists can learn about and enhance their knowledge of local culture.

Fourth, "interaction value" was highly rated (mean = 5.22) as a local food consumption value. Previous studies also have placed importance on fun and enjoyment through eating together with family, friends, or coworkers at a tourism destination (Goolaup and Mossberg, 2017; Schänzel and Lynch, 2016). DMOs may develop promotional videos that represent not only features of local food but also the dynamic togetherness and socialization that tourists may experience while eating local food. Interestingly, "interaction value" and "prestige value" differed in this study, although both value domains were conceptualized as belonging to social value (Kim and Eves, 2012; Sheth et al., 1991; Williams and Soutar, 2009). This finding offers room to further investigate whether the domains should be incorporated or separated.

Fifth, "health value" was encompassed in local food consumption value (mean = 5.17), as perceived by foreign tourists. This result corresponds with those of previous studies addressing the importance of the health functions of food or the sanitation conditions of food while travelling (Cohen and Avieli, 2004; Kim and Eves, 2012; Torres, 2002). Therefore, the health value of Hong Kong local food should be emphasized through explanations of the meanings of certain dishes, the health functions of local ingredients, and nutrition information to attract more food tourists and satisfy their experience. Furthermore, a restaurant should try to build continuous trust with tourists by providing an impression of "hygienic and safe food" through open kitchen designs or by adopting a management system in which food safety is addressed, such as the Hazard Analysis Critical Control Point system.

Sixth, tourists ascribed the lowest rating to "prestige value" (grand mean = 4.57). This finding is inconsistent with those of other studies addressing the role of local food in "conspicuous consumption," enhancing "tourists' social status" (Chang et al., 2010; Kivela and Crofts, 2006), ego enhancement, or self-satisfaction (Kim and Eves, 2012). This finding offers room to further explore the level of prestige value with different types of local food.

Finally, "price value" has been the most common and important dimension used to measure consumer value as perceived by consumers (Finch et al., 1998; Finch, 2006), tourists (Sánchez et al., 2006; Williams and Soutar, 2009), or diners (Park, 2004). However, tourists rated price value relatively low (grand mean = 4.75) in this study. Some tourists regard meal prices in Hong Kong as more expensive than their expectations, or perceive the food as offering less value for money. This indicates a need to develop new menus with value for money, or to promote the lack of a service charge on food on Hong Kong. In addition, value meals or meal deals can be marketed to tourists who want to experience local food, including drinks and side dishes as well as main dishes.

5.1. Theoretical contributions

This study contributes to the existing literature on food tourism in several ways. First, it developed a TLFCV instrument in response to the lack of an existing representative construct for measuring tourists' local food consumption value at an overseas tourist destination. This study initially conceptualized local food consumption value as rated by foreign tourists. The scale was created through a rigorous six-stage process. Consequently, this study reveals the multidimensionality of local food consumption value.

The scale successfully passed rigorous reliability and validity

checks. It should help to clarify the nature of local food consumption value and the comparative magnitude of the domains in the value structure. In addition to this, as the scale proved to be effective in explaining satisfaction with tasting local food, positive post-purchase intention, and food destination image, it is expected to be a meaningful predictor of the outcome variables of tasting local food, such as the quality of overall travel experience, place attachment, and intention to revisit the destination.

As local food is a type of cultural asset, the TLFCV scale verified a consensus of the results according to different cultural groups. The results of the data analyses conducted based on distinctive samples empirically confirmed the development of a valid and reliable scale according to cross-cultural backgrounds, which demonstrates the generalizability or transferability of the scale. As the scale was tested on tourists with different cultural backgrounds in Hong Kong as well as the U.S., who had tasted Italian and French foods in Italy and France respectively, the value of this study exceeds those of previous studies regarding tourists' local food experiences, which have reflected the responses of only one national or regional group. Thus, the scale is expected to meet the approval of food tourism researchers.

5.2. Practical contributions

From a practical perspective, the TLFCV scale can be used to promote a culinary tourist destination. As the scale was effective at identifying a tourist's satisfaction with tasting local food, positive post-purchase intention, and food destination image, the results of this study can be used to promote a destination. For example, in Hong Kong's case, taste/quality, epistemic, interaction, health, emotional, and price value were identified as significant factors positively affecting tourists' overall satisfaction with tasting local food. Therefore, these factors should be more emphasized when promoting local food as an attraction to foreign tourists. However, in a sample of other Asian tourists, prestige value was revealed to have a negative effect on satisfaction with tasting local food. As the relationship of prestige value to satisfaction can differ according to cultural background, one must be careful when using prestige value as a promotional message.

Local food businesses that target foreign tourists should benefit from the findings of this study. As tasting local food is an activity that stimulates nostalgia after travelling, businesses should consider which values to emphasize to attract foreign tourists and offer them experiential impressions. The results indicating the relative importance of food consumption value domains should inform this consideration. In addition to this, the efficacy of emotional, health, prestige, taste/quality, and interaction value in positive post-purchase intentions differed across the three cultural cohorts. Therefore, local restaurants or food marketers should develop menus that considers the different cross-cultural preferences of different cohorts.

5.3. Limitations and future research

This study has a few limitations. First, the measurement scale was developed based on consumption value theory and then tested several times before the main survey was conducted. However, the refinement of the scale may be imperfect. Thus, future research should test this newly developed scale in more diverse contexts to see whether or not the findings of this study is consistent in other regions. Second, some researchers recommended application of Nvivo software to implement the content analysis (Berg, 2004; Kim et al., 2018a,b; Neuman, 2006). Thus future research needs to adopt the qualitative research software to systematical review of previous literature. In addition, tourists' consumption value can be used to segment international tourist groups whether to understand their socio-demographics or food-related personality traits (e.g., food involvement) according to the segments. The result can provide more strategic information to DMOs or local food consumption stakeholders.

Appendix A

See Table A1

Table A1

Previous studies on consumption value.

No.	Author	Research field	Applied setting	Consumption value domains	Used measurement scale
1	Sheth et al. (1991)	Consumer research	Consumer nondurables, consumer durables, industrial goods, and services	Functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, conditional value	Scale developed using simple procedures (focus group interview)
2	Finch et al. (1998)	Consumer research	Consumer cooperative membership	Functional value (health value, performance quality, value for money), social value, conditional value, epistemic value, emotional value	Scale developed using simple procedures (focus group interview)
3	Pope (1998)	Consumer research	Awareness of a corporation's sponsorship activities	Functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, conditional value	Scale developed using simple procedures (focus group interview)
4	LeBlanc and Nguyen (1999)	Education management	Business education	Functional value (price, performance/quality value), epistemic value, emotional value, social value	Scale developed using simple procedures (interview)
5	Long and Schiffman (2000)	Consumer research	Airlines' frequent flyer programs	Functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, conditional value	Scale developed through regular scale development procedures (Literature review, in-depth interviews, main survey)
6	Sweeney and Soutar (2001)	Consumer research	Durable goods at a brand level	Functional value (price/value for money, performance/quality value), social value, emotional value	Scale developed through regular scale development procedures (focus group interviews, pre-test, main survey)
7	Nelson and Byus (2002)	Public health management	Public health products	Functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, conditional value	Scale developed using simple procedures (telephone interview)
8	Finch (2006)	Consumer research	Organic food product	Functional value (health value, value for money), social value, conditional value, emotional value, epistemic value	Scale developed using simple procedures (telephone interview)
9	Chen et al. (2008)	Information management	Music files downloaded in a P2P environment	Functional value, social value, epistemic value, emotional value	Modified scale from Sweeney and Soutar (2001) and Williams and Soutar (2000)
10	Park and Rabolt (2009)	Consumer research	Apparel	Functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, conditional value	Scale developed using simple procedures (open-ended questionnaire)
11	Xiao and Kim (2009)	Consumer research	Foreign brand product	Functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value	Modified scale from Sheth et al. (1991)
12	Turel et al. (2010)	Information management	Mobile phone ringtones	Visual/musical appeal value, social value, playfulness value, value for money	Modified scale from Sweeney and Soutar (2001)
13	Lin and Huang (2012)	Consumer research	Green Product	Functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value, conditional value	Modified scale from Arvola et al. and Sweeney and Soutar (2001)
No.	Author	Research field	Applied setting	Consumption value domains	Used measurement scale
1	Williams and Soutar (2000)	Tourism	General tourism experience	Functional value, social value, emotional value, epistemic value	Scale developed using simple procedures (focus group interview)
2	Sánchez et al. (2006)	Tourism	Tourism package program	Functional value (establishment, personnel, product, price value), emotional value, social value	Scale developed through regular scale development procedures (focus group interviews, main survey)
3	Williams and Soutar (2009)	Tourism	Adventure tourism	Functional value (quality/performance, value for money), emotional value, social value, novelty value	Modified scale from Sweeney and Soutar (2001) and Weber (2001)

Appendix B

See Table B1

Table B1

Initial list of selected items.

Taste/quality value	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1						✓						✓				
2						✓						✓				
3						✓						✓				
4			✓							✓						
5																
6																
7																
8													✓			
9													✓			
Health value	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
10																
11																
12																
13																
14																
15																
Price value	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
16																
17																
18																
19																
20																
Emotional value	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
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Prestige value	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
43					✓	✓					✓	✓				✓
44					✓	✓					✓	✓				
45		✓		✓												
46					✓						✓	✓				
47					✓						✓	✓				
48					✓						✓	✓				
49					✓						✓	✓				
50																
51																
Interaction value	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
52				✓												
53							✓					✓				✓
54				✓									✓			
55		✓														
Epistemic value	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
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