Tourism and Tourism At Home: A Qualitative Study of Relationships between Tourism and Ethnic Restaurants

Seoyeon Jang[1] & Anita Eves[2]

Abstract

This study explores how ethnic restaurants serve their role as 'tourism at home', by investigating customers' motivation to visit ethnic restaurants, especially in relation to tourism. This study adopted a grounded theory approach, using semi-structured interviews composed of two phases. The first phase of interviews was conducted with 18 British people who had experienced at least one of the four ethnic restaurants, Chinese, Japanese, Thai or Korean. The second phase of interviews was conducted with 12 British people who were actually visiting one of the origin countries of those restaurants, Korea, to see if people share the same motivation to visit ethnic restaurants as travel motivation. Six common motivational factors between visiting ethnic restaurants and travel (i.e., to change/ escape from the routine, to experience something new/ different, to experience and learn about another culture, curiosity/ desire to explore unknown, togetherness, and travelling itself) were established through findings, and the relationships between motivation to visit ethnic restaurants and tourism, and how they influence each other were identified.

Keywords: Tourism; Ethnic (Asian) restaurants; Motivation; Travel motivation; Restaurant choice behaviour

Introduction

Food is more than eating or the nutrients it provides. Ethnic food is defined as being characteristic of a region and/or culture reflecting the attitudes, values, traditions, heritages and beliefs of a culture (Mora, 1998). Similarly, Mason and Paggiaro (2012) stated that native food represents the place of origin, as well as local landscape and culture. In this respect, ethnic restaurants serving ethnic food at home are often said to provide an experience of "tourism at home" (van den Berghe, 1984; Cohen & Avieli, 2004).

Food and Tourism

Food has long been regarded as an important component of the tourist experience at a destination, being part of creating a memorable tourist experience (Plummer et al., 2005; Hall & Sharples, 2003). In particular, it is recognised as an important part of the cultural tourism market (Mason & Paggiaro, 2012). Consuming ethnic food, or local food when a person is in a tourist destination, has been regarded as one of the essential parts of the tourism experience. Tourists are seeking authentic and unique experiences and consumption of the food of the destination takes the tourist closer to the host culture. Kim et al. (2009) demonstrated that tasting local food satisfies tourists' appetite and offers local cultural experiences, and tourists consider local food not only as sustenance but also as one of the unique and original attractions during a holiday. Moreover, the food itself can play a critical role in differentiating and promoting a tourist destination. Food helps to enhance the quality and competitiveness of a country's tourism industry through marketing strategies and brand-building (du Rand et al., 2003; Lan et al., 2012). There are opportunities to create a positive association between food and a destination, since food is branded by nationality (e.g. Chinese, French, Italian and Mexican) (Okumus et al., 2007).

[1]Assistant Professor, Department of Tourism, Korea National Open University, Daehakro 86, Jongro-gu, Seoul, Korea.
E-mail: seojang@knou.ac.kr;
[2] Professor of Hospitality Management, University of Surrey, Guildford, Surrey, GU2 7XH, United Kingdom
E-mail: a.eves@surrey.ac.uk

Thus food may eventually increase the likelihood that tourists will visit the regions when the food or image of the cuisines becomes popular in the minds of tourists, since it will naturally link to an array of benefits and positive expectations of quality, reliability and trust of the food.

In the end, it will naturally lead to increased travel intentions to the region of the food (Horng& Tsai, 2010; Horng et al., 2012). Alderighi et al. (2016) concluded that local food specialities have impact on the decision to visit/revisit a tourist destination in their research, which was the case of a mountain region. Accordingly, food can act as either a primary or secondary trip motivator (Quan & Wang, 2004) by influencing the tourist's destination choice or decision making (Ritchie et al., 2011).There have been several studies focusing on tourists whose major motivation to visit a destination is for experience of food and beverages (e.g. Galloway et al., 2008; Sparks, 2007).However, all or nearly all tourist activities are food related, regardless whether a tourist is interested in trying local food or not. Eating at tourist destination is an obligatory tourist activity, to provide the energy and essential nutrients needed for body functions (Richards, 2002). Thus, eating is a critical precondition for other tourist activities as well, even if there is no available or acceptable food for a tourist.

Consuming the differences of the food other than one's own means a sense of adventure, adaptability, and openness to other cultures, but this openness to other cultures often involves a certain amount of potential risk, as eating directly involves incorporation of materials in to the body (Molz, 2007).One personality trait closely related to the perception of the risk of consuming unfamiliar food, such as ethnic food, is food neophobia. Pliner and Hobden (1992:107) defined food neophobia as a personality trait, "a continuum along which people can be located in terms of their stable propensity to approach or avoid novel foods." The authors developed a 10-item food neophobia scale which assesses the trait of food neophobia. Food neophobia is believed to predict a willingness to try novel foods but is also associated with the frequency of eating and intake quantity and anticipated liking of the foods (Eertmans et al., 2005). The food neophobic tendency can be significant in food consumption in tourism settings (Fischler, 1988). Some tourists may be reluctant to try unfamiliar local foods because of unfamiliar ingredients or the risk of being unaccustomed to its taste or flavour (Mak et al., 2012). Ji et al. (2016) suggested that tourists' actual food consumption on a destination depends on this personality trait, and the neophobic tendency exerts negative impact on the consumption of novel food.Therefore, food which can be an attraction to some tourists can be an impediment for other tourists (Cohen &Avieli, 2004).

Ethnic Restaurants and Tourism

Ethnicfood is often used as a way to promote national cultures for the purpose of boosting the tourism industry of a country, as seen in the case of Korea. The Korea National Tourism Organisation, in association with the Ministry for Food, Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, recently announced a strategy to boost the tourism industry of Korea through promoting Korean food and supporting Korean restaurants abroad (Gonggam Korea, 2010). The Tourism Bureau of Taiwan has also promoted Taiwanese cuisines with an international culinary brand marketing strategy, which aims to create a unique culinary brand in the international market through consistent image building of Taiwan's food in order to attract more foreign tourists (Horng et al., 2012). Similarly, in 2010, "Gourmet Taiwan International Action Program "was launched to internationalise Taiwanese cuisine. The objectives are to boost the global competitiveness of the Taiwanese restaurant industry, and to increase Taiwan tourism, by assisting restaurateurs to develop overseas business locations and by marketing Taiwanese cuisine overseas (Lan et al., 2012). Likewise, Thailand has recently developed the "Global Kitchen Project," to export its cuisine globally by creating overseas Thai restaurants which bring Thai food to the world and enhance Thailand's gastronomic identity. Through its promotional advertising, the country also invites tourists to experience its cuisine in Thailand, believing that eventually, those who taste and love Thai food overseas will be willing to travel to Thailand to experience the authentic product (Horng& Tsai, 2010).

In terms of the ethnic food market, the market for ethnic foods has been growing rapidly due to international trade, globalisation, migration and tourism, and consuming ethnic cuisine is one of the major trends in the restaurant industry in many developed countries such as the U.S. and the UK (Ebster& Guist, 2004; Jang et al., 2009; Meulenberg & Viaene, 1998). The 'average world citizen' now has more exposure to various ethnic foods and products (Torres, 2002), and people's desire for healthier but flavoursome cuisine has contributed to the growth of the ethnic foods industry (Verbeke & López, 2005). In the UK, ethnic food market increased 28% in value sales between 2007 and 2012 to reach £1.4 billion, and it had expected to decrease since the economic turbulence.

However, ethnic restaurants have enjoyed robust growth again since 2015 (Mintel, 2012; Mintel 2017). In the U.S., sales of ethnic foods are expected to reach $2.7 billion in 2015 (Agricultural Marketing Resource Centre, 2012). Given the above, ethnic food, a highly culturally based product compared to other general food (Chaney & Ryan, 2012), and one of the fastest growing markets in the restaurant industry, can play a critical role in tourist destination marketing by creating a positive image of a region or a country as a tourist destination. Accordingly, ethnic restaurant experiences can influence people's holiday decision making process. Another possible influence of ethnic food experiences in ethnic restaurants is that it can reduce the fear of having local food in a tourist destination. All or nearly all tourist activities involve food. Whether a tourist is interested in trying local food as a tourist experience or not, he or she needs to eat (Plummer et al., 2005), even when they feel it is risky to consume the food in a tourist destination. According to Optimal Arousal Theory (Iso-Ahola, 1980), people tend to avoid or withdraw from that setting if a leisure or tourism environment is perceived as providing too much risk, which implies that an individual may avoid going to a tourist destination in the first place if the individual regards the local food as too unfamiliar and perceives it as a "risk".

Exposure to unfamiliar foods and repeated exposure to those foods tends to increase preference and familiarity for those foods (Pliner, 1982). Similarly, an increased exposure to a wider variety of ethnic dishes can lead to an increased interest in consuming local foods and ethnic foods (Torres, 2002). Therefore, ethnic restaurants can provide potential tourists of a destination with familiarity and interest in local foods, or at least reduce the fear of the food at the destination.

It is said that food in tourism and dining out are closely related (Mak et al., 2012). However, there is scarce literature on why people choose to go to ethnic restaurants, especially in relation to subsequent travel motivations and tourism. There have been several studies regarding ethnic restaurants, but the focus has been mainly on customer satisfaction and behavioural intention, such as customers' willingness to recommend or revisit the restaurant, rather than their initial motivation to visit the ethnic restaurants (e.g. Ha & Jang, 2010; Liu & Jang, 2009; Jang et al., 2011), or have focused on one specific aspect, such as the role of authenticity (Ebster & Guist, 2004) or food safety training (Kwon et al., 2010) in ethnic restaurants. Similarly, even though there have been studies regarding motivations for visiting general restaurants (e.g. Auty, 1992; Ayala et al., 2005), fast food restaurants (e.g., Baek et al., 2006; Elder et al., 1999), and fine dining restaurant (Nijte et al., 2008), there has been lack of study on motivational factors for visiting ethnic restaurants. Since motivational factors and attributes in restaurant selection can differ according to the type of restaurant (Johns & Pine, 2002), it is necessary to identify motivational factors and attributes specifically related to ethnic restaurants. Also, considering the unique characteristic of ethnic restaurants in that they serve the role of "cultural ambassadors" (Wood & Munoz, 2007) and consequently "tourism at home", the primary objective of this study is to explore motivations for visiting ethnic restaurants and their relationships with tourism.

Definition of ethnic restaurants

For their study of ethnic restaurants, Ha and Jang (2010b: 525) defined ethnic foods as "foods from other countries that an individual does not eat on a regular basis", and used Korean restaurants in their study since they were accessible, but still perceived as "exotic" by customers in the U.S. In the same context, Lee et al. (2009) excluded Italian and American food in their study regarding ethnic restaurant image in Korea, since Italian and American foods are no longer regarded as "exotic", having become "mainstream" in the restaurant industry. Therefore, it can be concluded that even though the food is from other country, it is not considered as "ethnic" if the food has become common to customers in their own country. In market research regarding ethnic food and ethnic restaurants in the UK (e.g. Mintel 2012, Mintel 2013, Keynote, 2012), restaurants such as French, Italian were excluded, and restaurants mainly from the Far East and Asia were included, as well as Caribbean and Mexican. Among these ethnic restaurants, this study focused on Asian restaurants, namely Thai, Japanese, Chinese, and Korean restaurants. These are considered as "exotic" and thus "ethnic restaurants" to UK customers.

Tourism and Tourism at home

Study Method

A qualitative research approach was adopted for this exploratory study, which investigated and described ethnic restaurant experiences. More specifically, the current research adopted a grounded theory approach with the purpose of conceptualising the motivations underlying people's decision to visit ethnic restaurants and their relationship with tourism. A grounded theory approach was suitable for the current study since previous research regarding people's motivation for visiting ethnic restaurants is sparse (Kim et al., 2009).

Thus, the purpose for this study is not confirming or testing of a theory but rather exploring the area, focusing on depth and quality of the data (Strauss and Corbin, 1998).with aim of establishing a theoretical model (Mehmetoglua & Altinay, 2006). This is the purpose of the current study, to gain insight into people's motivations in their own words, and to put conceptual labels and interpretations to the data. Previous studies have pointed out that a researcher does not begin with a preconceived theory in mind (Glasser& Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1990), and the existing literature plays an important role at the latter stages of the process, because the researcher needs to obtain knowledge on grounded concepts linked to the theory derived from data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).This paper follows the same sequence.

The current research was composed of two stages, first regarding ethnic restaurant choice motivation and second, regarding travel motivation in order to compare both motivations and explore common motivational factors and relationships between them. The data were collected using semi-structured in-depth interviews, which are useful in exploring 'why' people choose to do certain things in more depth, to seek new insights, identify general patterns, and understand the relationships between variables (Altinaty & Paraskevas, 2008). To obtain insight into the interviewees' experiences with ethnic restaurants, in the first stage, semi-structured face to face interviews were conducted with 18 British customers who had been to Asian restaurants (Thai, Japanese, Chinese, Korean) in the UKto explore key motivational factors related to visiting these restaurants. The profiles of the interviewees are described in

Table 1. Also, by investigating the travel motivations of 12 British people who were visiting Korea, the origin country of one of the Asian restaurants, this study identified the relationships between motives for visiting ethnic restaurants and travel, and determined common elements. The profiles of the participants visiting Korea are depicted in

Table **2**.

Since the purpose of the study is to generate understanding rather than to generalise findings or confirm a theory, a purposive sampling method was adopted (Saunders et al., 2007). It transpired that interviewees from the second stage of interviews (visitors to Korea) had comparably higher educational background, which probably reflects that people with a higher educational background tend to travel more to learn about other cultures (Warde & Martens, 2000). However, this study focuses on the phenomenon itself, so emphasis was on information from the data rather than on how many or what type of people shared the phenomenon (Patton, 2000; Jamal, 1996).

Based on the background knowledge derived from literature review and previous study, interview protocols for each stage of interviews were developed. The interviewees of first stage (Asian restaurant customers) were asked the same set of questions derived from related literature and previous study regarding motivational factors for restaurant choice, but with flexibility in the ordering and the contents of the questions depending on the flow and context of the interviews. The interviewees of the second stage (visitors in Korea) were all asked the same questions, which were different from those in the first stage of the interviews, and followed an interview protocol developed based on previous studies regarding travel motivations. Interviews took from 20 minutes to 70 minutes depending on each interviewee's story. The procedure for the two stages of interviews is described in figure 1.

Figure 1. Procedure for the interviews
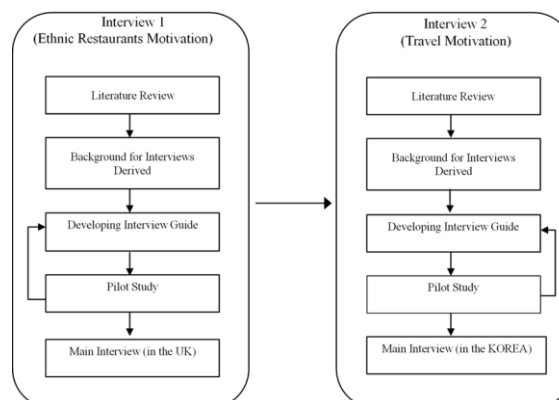
Data were not analysed by questions while being collected. Digital recordings of interviews were transcribed verbatim into text and data analysis followed the three steps that Strauss and Corbin (1998) suggested. First, the data were disaggregated and categorised into conceptual units specifically related to the topic of the current research. Then, the emerging relationships among categories were identified, followed by identifying principal categories and integrating them. These findings were integrated with findings from existing literature to build a conceptual framework.

In terms of data analysis, initially data were analysed without imposing a pre-defined analysis framework, consistent with grounded theory. Grounded theory is regarded as a process of constant comparative analysis. Therefore, the analyst returned constantly to data sources, to confirm perspectives of the emerging interpretation and to obtain new data, where appropriate (Heath & Cowley, 2004; Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

Table 1. Profile of participants (Stage 1)

Respondent	Gender	Marital status	Age	Education	Occupation	Travel experience[3]
EM-1	Female	Single	25-34	Postgraduate	Graphic Designer	No
EM-2	Male	Single	Under 24	Undergraduate	Student	No
EM-3	Male	Single	Under 24	Undergraduate	Student	No
EM-4	Male	Single	Under 24	Undergraduate	Student	No
EM-5	Male	Single	Under 24	Undergraduate	Student	No
EM-6	Female	Married	Over 55	Undergraduate	Retired(former swimming teacher)	Yes
EM-7	Female	Single	Over 55	Undergraduate +Diploma	Retired (former development manager) Volunteer at Royal festival hall	No
EM-8	Male	Single	Under 24	Undergraduate	Student	Yes
EM-9	Female	Married	Over 55	Postgraduate	English Lecturer	Yes
EM-10	Male	Single	25-34	Undergraduate	Sales advisor in health club	No
EM-11	Female	Married	35-44	Diploma(College)	Project technical coordinator	No
EM-12	Male	Single	35-44	Undergraduate	Technical engineer in lighting	No
EM-13	Female	Single	25-34	Level 3,College	Beauty Therapist	No
EM-14	Male	Single	25-34	Postgraduate	PhD student	Yes
EM-15	Female	Married	45-54	Undergraduate	IT system	No
EM-16	Female	Married	35-44	Undergraduate	Doctor	No
EM-17	Male	Single	45-54	Postgraduate	Head project manager	Yes
EM-18	Male	Single	35-44	Postgraduate	Medical machine buyer	No

Table 2 Profiles of participants (Stage 2)

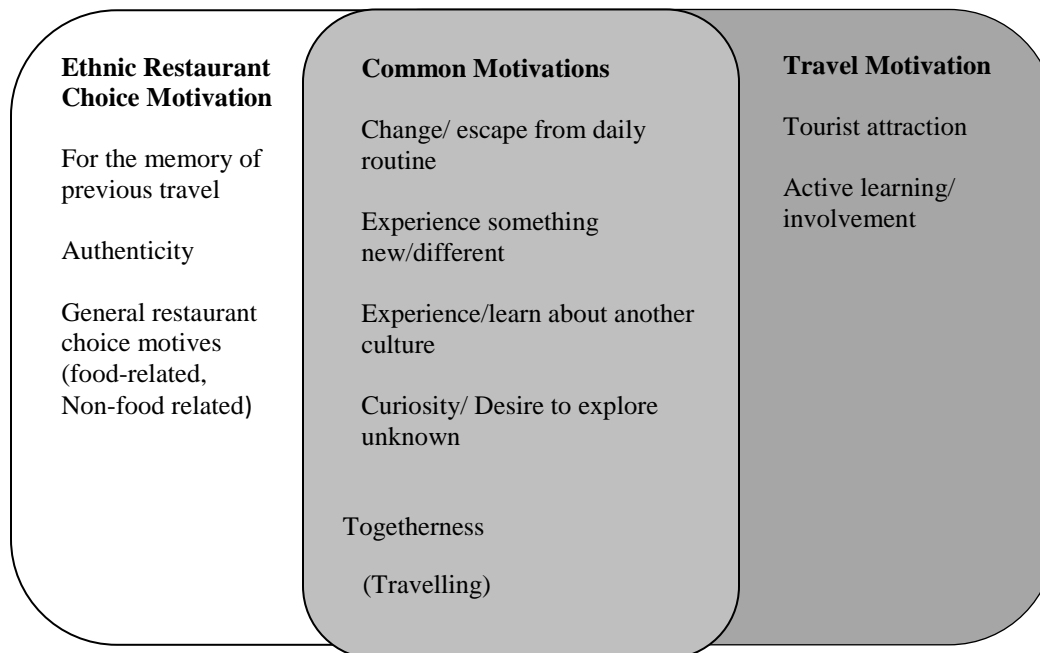| Respondents	Gender		Marital Status	Age	Education	Occupation
TM-1	Female		Married	Over 55	Postgraduate	Housewife
TM-2	Female		Married	Over 55	Postgraduate	Retired (Former teacher)
TM-3	Male		Married	Over 55	Postgraduate	Retired (Former teacher)
TM-4	Female		Married	Over 55	Undergraduate	Teacher
TM-5	Male		Married	Over 55	Postgraduate	Teacher
TM-6	Male		Single	35-44	Postgraduate	Nurse
TM-7	Male		Married	45-54	Postgraduate	Chemical Engineer
TM-8	Female		Single	25-34	Undergraduate	Teacher
TM-9	Female		Single	25-34	Undergraduate	Publisher
TM-10	Male		Single	Under 24	Undergraduate	Unemployed
TM-11	Male		Single	25-34	Postgraduate	PhD student
TM-12	Male		Single	25-34	Undergraduate	Local government officer

Research Findings

The findings were categorised into common motivational factors between visiting ethnic restaurants and travel, and the relationships between tourism and ethnic restaurants. Thus, data were integrated and are not reported

¡[3]Travel experience: Interviewee's travel experience to the origin country of the restaurant they visited.

separately. From both the stage 1 of interviews and existing literature, motivational factors for ethnic restaurants were identified, not only motivations for general restaurant choice but also motivations unique to ethnic restaurants, such as for change, learn about another culture, for the memory of previous travel and curiosity. The findings are summarised in figure 2. After the stage 2 of interviews investigating travel motivations, six common motivational factors between visiting ethnic restaurants and travel to a related country were identified: (1) to change/ escape from routine; (2) to experience something new/ different; (3) to experience and learn about another culture; (4) curiosity/ desire to explore unknown; (5)togetherness, and (6) regarding travelling itself. These are discussed further (See Figure **2**).

Figure 2. Summary of findings

Ethnic Restaurant Choice Motivation	Common Motivations	Travel Motivation
For the memory of previous travel	Change/ escape from daily routine	Tourist attraction
Authenticity	Experience something new/different	Active learning/ involvement
General restaurant choice motives (food-related, Non-food related)	Experience/learn about another culture	
	Curiosity/ Desire to explore unknown	
	Togetherness	
	(Travelling)	

Each Category of responses relating to common motivation is discussed below.

For change and escape from the routine. Participants from both first and second stage interviews related their reasons for visiting Asian restaurants, or for travelling, as being to escape from routine. Customers wanted to go to ethnic restaurants to feel some change from their daily life, especially through having different foods from those they usually ate:

"sometimes it's just a nice change**,** from things I would cook myself…"
(EM-4, Male, aged under 24)

"…they never quite end up being in same as other restaurants." (EM-8, Male, aged under 24)

Warde and Martens (2000) mentioned that one of general reasons for consumers' eating out is 'getting a change' from what they eat every day. In the same context, interviewees in the current study enjoyed different food, cooked in a different way, with a different taste, presentation, textures and different spices. Asian restaurants make respondents more aware of flavours that are different from what they usually have, making them feel they are experiencing greater change from their daily lives than they feel in other restaurants. This is one of the functions that dining out can offer- the hedonic value of the restaurants. Hedonic value is subjective, personal, and results derive more from a product's or service's uniqueness, symbolic meaning or the emotional arousal and imagery it evokes (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982),"an overall assessment of experiential benefits and sacrifices, such as entertainment and escapism", whereas utilitarian value is defined as an overall assessment of functional benefits and sacrifices, such as price and location(Over by and Lee, 2006: 1161). Thus, ethnic restaurants seem to fulfil hedonic values, with more experiential benefits for customers by making them feel greater change and escape from their daily routines.

Ha and Jang (2010a) examined the relationships between perceived values regarding dining experiences in Korean restaurants in the U.S. and their impacts on customer satisfaction and behavioural intention. While the

utilitarian value of the restaurants, such as providing tasty and healthy food options is still important, they revealed that hedonic value significantly influenced customer satisfaction and behavioural intention, and this hedonic value was evoked by traditional aspects of Korean foods. The taste of food was regarded as a utilitarian value, but traditional Korean food itself was considered as hedonic value. Therefore, it can be concluded that ethnic food can meet customers' satisfaction in terms of hedonic value, including escapism, with different and unique tastes, textures and presentation of the ethnic foods.

Similarly, people also decided to travel to Korea because they wanted a change in their mundane daily lives:

"…we wanted to feel something fresh, something exciting… that's why we chose to travel to Korea…just wanted to make some drastic change." (TM-10, Male, aged under 25)

From the above quote, it appears that the participant was not satisfied with his daily life. He was a relatively young interviewee compared to the others, had just finished university and was struggling to find a job. This probably explains why he thought "England is not the easiest place to live" and why he wanted to have some change and excitement. Dann (1977) suggested two key travel motivations: "anomie" of the society and the psychological needs for "ego-enhancement". Anomie represents the desire to transcend the feeling of isolation which is inherent in mundane life, as well as the desire to simply get away from it all, while ego-enhancement arises from the desire for recognition, obtained through the status conferred by travel. Krippendorf (1987) supported this desire to 'get away from it all', stating that escape is one of the two most important psychological needs that people go through before they make a decision to take an overseas vacation. Other travel motivation studies have also found that tourists are motivated to travel to escape from the routine of daily life, which has been regarded as an intrinsic reward that people believe a leisure activity can provide (MacCannell, 1977;Iso-Ahola, 1982). IsoAhola (1982)'s escape-seeking dichotomy viewed leisure behaviour as a process that provides a tourist with an outlet where he/she can avoid something and seek something at the same time. Escaping is "the desire to leave the everyday environment behind oneself" and seeking is "the desire to obtain psychological (intrinsic) rewards through travel in a contrasting (new or old) environment" (Iso-Ahola, 1982:261). A tourist may have desire to escape their personal world and personal troubles, difficulties and failures, as seen in the case of the interviewee above, and/or the interpersonal world. Getting away from routine life has been reported as one of the main reasons or "push factors" for tourists to make a decision for travel. (e.g., Crompton, 1979; Uysal& Jurowski, 1994; ,Kozak, 2002; Yoon &Uysal, 2005). Further Jonsson and Devonish (2008) maintained that when people want to escape to another territory or country, they often choose to travel, and as respondent 10 said, as people want more drastic change, it seems that they tend to find more exotic, more unfamiliar places to visit such as Korea for UK tourists, and this could also be applied to customers who visit Asian restaurants to try more unfamiliar and exotic, unique food.

To experience something new and different. Both customers of Asian restaurants and tourists in Korea viewed "differentness" and "something new" as good, fascinating and exciting, and these were amongst their motivations for their choice of restaurants and travel destinations. They looked for different and new things not necessarily for a change, but because they think the differentness itself is exciting and interesting:

"It's lovely going out to try something different.."(EM-8, Male, aged under 24)
"It's the different flavours, spices, they use some…still very different from European food. British food I say it's very European now, lot's of French, Italian, Spanish influences…Asian food has different textures, um, different spices they use, that's why I like about it." (EM-18, Male, aged 35-44)"

Previous studies regarding ethnic restaurants revealed that one of the reasons for customers to visit ethnic restaurants is novelty seeking. Roseman (2006) identified that the main reason for U.S. consumers to go to ethnic restaurants was to have food that was different from what they have at home and to have food with a variety of different tastes. It was confirmed by Ha and Jang (2010a) that customers seek novelty at a restaurant reflecting a different culture, and this is one of the major purposes of visiting an ethnic restaurant. Similarly, British tourists in Korea said one of their main travel motivations to visit Korea was for new experiences and to try something different.

"It's exciting to come and see, you can go somewhere and trying something new and different…"(TM-9, Female, aged 25-34)"
"well I think when I do travel, I like to visit a new place…I think it's just experience seeing something new…I found out it's fascinating. I love it, it's great…" (TM-6, Male, aged 35-44)

Interviewees used the word "new" often when they were talking about the reasons why they chose to visit Korea, such as "new place" and "something new". As the interviewees said, they wanted to experience something new, not because they wanted to have some change, but because they just thought it is "fascinating" and "exciting", in common with the interviewees talking about Asian restaurants.

In addition, something new and different reflects "uniqueness". Interviewees said they came to Korea because they can experience something that they cannot have in other countries:

> "…And I found it's fascinating country. Because it's very different than anything else you can get in the world really… It's very unique, isn't it. You know, it's something you cannot do it anywhere else in the world." (TM-12, Male, aged 25-34)

This tendency of tourists to look for new things, which can be termed as "novelty seeking" has been reported as one of the main motivational factors in tourist motivation theories. Also, novelty seeking arouses travel intention (Jang et al., 2009). In the motivational theory of escaping and novelty seeking mentioned previously, Iso-Ahola (1982) suggested that novelty seeking is the basic motivational dimension of tourist behaviour, to seek a new environment as a reward through travel. People who visited Asian restaurants and who travelled to a related country shared these two motivational factors, escaping from daily routine and novelty seeking. In the theory of push-pull motivations, another predominate theory in tourism motivational study(Brown, 2005), Crompton (1979) stated that novelty is one of the two pull/external motivators to travel. This push and pull concept has been used widely to reflect the internal and external drives that motivate people to travel (Kim et al., 2010; Rittichainuwat, 2008). While push factors are considered as socio-psychological motives that drive people's desire to travel, the pull factors are used to represent the external stimuli that influence where people travel to meet their desires or needs. Many subsequent studies using the theory of push and pull motivation have confirmed that novelty is one of the major factors (e.g. Yuan & Macdonald, 1990; Kim &Prideaux, 2005; Meng et al., 2008). Kim and Lee (2000) conducted a cross cultural study to see whether there is a difference between the motivations of Japanese tourists and Anglo-American tourists, and found Anglo-Americans placed more importance on novelty seeking compared to Japanese tourists, while Japanese tourists focused more on togetherness and prestige.

To experience and learn about another culture. The most frequently mentioned motive for both Asian restaurant customers and British visitors to Korea was to experience and learn about another culture. Interviewees who visited Asian restaurants considered it as a way of learning about and experiencing a different culture, not only because of the food, but also due to the atmosphere, decoration, service, the way the waiter or waitress was dressed and the manner of eating. They thus regarded an Asian restaurant as a cultural space.

> "…you get the experience of like small sample of somebody else's culture, and appreciate of diversity..uhm..in another level…like being able to taste something that people from all around the world would enjoy." (EM-1, Female, aged 25-34)
> "..you'll experience small part of their culture. You see how they operate the business, how they deal with customers.. (EM-10, Male, aged 25-34)

> "…just a bit of taste of cultural space, I mean the taste of culture. When you go to Chinese restaurant, you will get chopsticks and you get the Chinese way of eating and sometimes you get those little crackers at the end, I don't know what they're called, so something bit of taste of a culture, really. The space having typical flowers or decorations on the wall… you know when you go to Chinese restaurants, you see the pictures on the wall and Chinese writing…" (EM- 16, Female, aged 35-44)

In this context, some interviewees regarded visiting Asian restaurants as an alternative to visiting other countries to experience the food and culture.

> "…in the UK, we have all different kinds of food we can enjoy. We don't need necessarily have to travel to taste the food from around the world…"(EM-1, Female, aged 25-34)
> "..if you can't go to Korea, then if you have Korean restaurant, the best thing is, go and try and experiences what are the foods they are having. It's perfect also for, you know, to kind of gaining idea how they are actually live in, what do they eat kinda stuff. It's whole thing, it's also like sometimes the way the food is served, and how they actually eat it, it's like whole experiences. So it's perfect." (EM-12, Male,aged 35-44)

In common with interviewees, Van der Berghe (1984) and Wright et al. (2000) also stated that ethnic cuisine is the easiest and most pleasant way to cross cultural boundaries and to appreciate diversity. Sukalakamala and Boyce (2007), in their study of customers' perception of their dining experience in Thai restaurants, also confirmed that customers perceived going to ethnic restaurants as a good way to learn about different cultures.

Even though some of the interviewees from the current study did not seem to actively travel or visit other countries to experience and learn about other cultures, including food, they still appreciated and cherished the diversity of other cultures by visiting ethnic restaurants. Indeed interviewees reported that this was an advantage of going to ethnic restaurants, since they can enjoy such experiences without travelling.

"Cultural experience" was also found to be the central motivational factor for travel. One of the frequent phrases used by interviewees was "to experience culture", when they were asked about their motivation for travelling to Korea:

"We just want to experience the culture." (TM-4, Female, aged over 55)

"We just come here to really, um experience the culture." (TM-11, Male, aged 25-34)₃

According to Kay (2009), cultural tourists have become common in modern tourism since the early 1960s in Europe, and an interest in learning and experiencing different cultures has risen and it is one of the most evident tendencies among tourists today (Lynch et al., 2011). A number of authors have confirmed this trend. Kozak (2002) found that cultural motivation, originating from the wish to learn about foreign places, was one of the main holiday motivations for British and German tourists. Similarly, Kim and Prideaux (2005)found that cultural experience was the most important motivational factor, with novelty seeking, when travelling to foreign countries. Nicolau and Mas (2006) argued that an interest in broadening cultural knowledge stimulates people to visit faraway places. They did not find that cultural motivations lead tourists to make longer journeys for their holidays, but they had a positive influence on people's willingness to pay a higher price. This would seem to support the current findings, since the flight cost for British tourists visiting Korea is relatively higher than other tourist destinations from the UK.Likewise, in a study exploring Portuguese tourists' motivation for travelling to exotic travel destinations such as Brazil, Morocco, Egypt, Mexico, Sao Tome and Principe, the knowledge factor, which is related to the need for doing and learning new things and exploring different cultures and places was found to be a push factor (Correia et al., 2007). This can also be applied to the motivational factors for visiting ethnic restaurants, especially for British customers visiting "exotic" Asian restaurants, as seen above.

Other authors have noted that, for tourists, one of the ways to experience the culture of a destination was tasting local foods.All participants had tried and enjoyed Korean local food while they were travelling in Korea, and believed that having local food was one way to experience the culture:

"We were in the Galbi (Korean BBQ) restaurant last night and enjoyed a lot! you know, the food is part of culture and trip. You should try." (TM- 4, Female, aged over 55)

"Food and drink is an integral part of experiencing culture. Ingredients, cooking styles, presentation styles and cutlery vary differently across cultures. For example, in South Korea, Korean barbeques are a common style of eating food – something that would provide a significant cultural experience." (TM-12, Male, aged 25-34)

For tourists, local cuisine is one of the ways to appreciate the culture of a destination (Kivela&Crotts, 2006). Since culture is a value system that forms a framework which guides behaviour of members of a society, culture determines what people eat (Atkins & Bowler, 2001).Therefore, food has been regarded as an essential element of the culture of a destination (Jones & Jenkins, 2002).Thus, food does not only satisfy tourists' physical needs but also fulfills their desire for gaining in-depth knowledge about the local culture(Hjalager, 2002).

Hence, both customers in Asian restaurants and tourists regard trying ethnic food as a way of experiencing, learning about and appreciating another culture.

Curiosity/ desire to explore unknown. Some participants reported that their reason to visit certain Asian restaurants was curiosity, just because they had never tried it before. These participants usually described themselves as adventurous in relation to food and trying new things:

"because I hadn't been to one before. (laughing)… I like to be adventurous with food, …and I never had Korean before. So I thought, um, okay, just give it a go."(EM- 17,Male, aged 45-54)

"(It was) curiosity, I guess." (EM-2, Male, aged under 24)

New dishes are often regarded as exciting, interesting, sometimes fashionable and stylish, while customary foods give consumers security and certainty(Warde, 1997). Human beings are omnivores, or food generalists, which means they consume various foods, theoretically almost without limitation. However, eating is directly connected to body, and conflict between interest in new foods and fear of trying new food arises. Consequently, a person has curiosity about new foods and fear of new foods at the same time, and the balance between them may change in different individuals and different circumstances (Rozin and Rozin, 2005). Considering that one of the motives for visiting Asian restaurants is curiosity and to try foods they had never had before, it seems that to people who enjoy ethnic restaurants, curiosity overrides fear of trying novel foods, perhaps having a more food-neophilic tendency. One constantly lives in the continuum between the two poles of neophobia and neophilia. While food-neophobia reflects prudence, fear of the unknown and resistance to change, food-neophilia explains the tendency to explore, the need for change, novelty and variety (Fischler, 1988).Also, interviewees, who mentioned 'curiosity' or 'because they never tried it', tended to like travelling. Likewise, British tourists in Korea stated that their decision to visit Korea was curiosity, because they had never been to Korea:

"…because I' haven't been to Korea, I came here." (TM-6, Male, aged 35-44)

"We enjoy travels. We travelled all around the world, and Korea, you know. We've not been to Korea, so let's go! And there was opportunity."(TM-4,Female, aged over 55)

Sometimes it seems that desire to go to new places is also for self-satisfaction/fulfilment and to have a feeling of prestige from visiting countries which are not major travel destinations:

"I think it's quite special, that you're(Korea) has not bloomed in the market yet, for Brits to come in to your places…people like us, you know, we want to see the world…"(TM- 2, Female, aged over 55)

Prestige and self-fulfillment have been revealed as main motivational factors for people to travel, with prestige and self-fulfillment found to bepush factors that lead people to travel (e.g., Crompton, 1979; Uysal&Jurowski, 1994, McGehee et al, 1996; Chan & Baum, 2007). This is associated with the self-image of tourists and how they are perceived by others (Gilbert & Morris, 1995).One of the ways to achieve the self-fulfillment or feeling of prestige was travelling somewhere "unknown". The desire to explore and discover what lies beyond the known horizon has been labelledthe "Ulysses Factor" (Anderson, 1970).It is a psychological factor in planning vacations, and motivates people to travel and provides people with the feeling of self-achievement when it is fulfilled(Mayo and Jarvis, 1981), which also seem to be applicable to people's motivation to visit ethnic restaurants.

Togetherness. Interviewees also considered going to Asian restaurants as an opportunity to spend time with their family or friends. By trying various kinds of foods at the same time and talking about it with friends or family, visiting Asian restaurants was considered as a good opportunity to increase intimacy:

"You often go in a group, and you get big table, big round thing in the middle and lots of different foods that you can have a little bit of that and little bit of that, and little bit of that, so try lots of little things…Usually if you go to an ethnic restaurant, you usually go out decent evening and you take quite long time over it, so everyone has quite big different meal and different courses, and specifically you're sitting there for a few hours, and chatting. You chat over the food and talk about it, so yes, it's social experience…So it's whole experience, trying out different foods, and that just socialness as well."(EM-9, Female, aged 35-44)

From the above statement, the advantage of going to Asian restaurants can be social experience, facilitated by sharing food, consistent with Jamal's (1996) study of ethnic restaurants, which found that one of the ways that participants strengthened their relations with friends was by going together to eat at ethnic restaurants.

Occasion influences customers' preference in choosing restaurants, which means that customers rank variables differently when choosing restaurants, according to occasion (Auty, 1992).It seems that being able to try different, unfamiliar dishes, and talk about them makes visiting ethnic restaurants more of a social occasion than other meal experiences.

Similarly, tourists in Korea wanted to share their experiences with friends. Some interviewees who had been to Korea before took their friends or family to Korea to share their experiences, even though they repeated the same activities as on their first visit. Respondents who had not been to Korea before, also mentioned wanting to travel with friends, and this was one of the reasons to visit Korea, despite not knowing what to expect in Korea.

"It's our third time to Korea. Three years ago, we came to Korea and this time to be with friends…We persuaded them to come to Korea with us. We've been seeing things for third time, almost same. We are desperate to show friends. You know, look at this, look at this, and look at this. (Female, aged over 55)"

Therefore, to be with friends/family or togetherness seems to be one of the motives for visiting Korea. Correia et al (2007) maintained that sharing travel experiences and developing close friendships is one of three push motivational factors for travelling. Being able to share travel experiences after returning home can also be important, and was reported as one of the five key factors motivating Chinese into making travel decisions (Ryan & Mo, 2001). Such sharing of experiences included pictures or going to Korean restaurants in the UK. By sharing new experiences with friends and family, both customers of Asian restaurants and tourists in Korea strengthened the feeling of togetherness.

Travelling itself. For some interviewees, visiting Asian restaurants was regarded as a substitute for travelling, allowing them to feel as if they are travelling in that country:

"(In Korean restaurant) I will be expecting actual Korean feel. I will expect to feel like…maybe not makes sense. but…being in England, but in Korea." (EM-2, Male, aged under 24)

"They have trolleys being pushed and you see the food fresh and some things' are cooked or warmed and you are watching it. So it's the whole experience as well. Suddenly you are eating Dimsum in China." (EM-7, Female, aged over 55)

"…if you didn't realise that you just walked up the streets in London, you would thought, um actually maybe I am in Japan,.."(EM-17,Male, aged 45-54)

Thus while an ethnic restaurant is a mere cultural space, it can also represent the origin country of the food itself, and give customers an illusion that they are actually travelling in that country. Traditional foods and traditional facilities and aesthetics are often regarded as important attributes in ethnic restaurants (Ha & Jang, 2010b; Lee et al., 2009),andexplain in part how ethnic restaurants give customers an illusion that they are actually in that country. It gives a holistic feeling, including all the senses such as vision, smell, taste and sound, listening to different languages or music from the origin country.

Relationships between tourism and ethnic restaurants. The motivations for visiting ethnic restaurants and travelling have some motives in common, and they also seem to influence each other. In addition to give customers an illusion that they are travelling in the origin country, trying food in an ethnic restaurant seems to influence customers' awareness and interest in the origin country:

"(Visiting ethnic restaurants) actually makes people to aware of those countries and aware of their culture, how they live in through the diet, definitely." (EM-12, Male, aged 35-44)"

Furthermore, ethnic restaurants also seem to influence customers' perception of the image of the origin country:

"I think it could also be countries' image... It's part of the culture, and it represents the image. I don't know how to, but really is…that is their culture for me cause I've never been there. You might see in on TV, but it's not the same. Maybe because it's running business overseas, they could be more authentic and more cultural."(EM-10, Male, aged 25-34).

Ethnic food experiences in ethnic restaurants in tourists' home setting may thus reduce the fear of having local food in a tourist destination. Tourists can have increased exposure to unfamiliar food based on rising numbers of ethnic restaurants in their home settings. This may allow tourists to become acquainted with various foreign cuisines and to gain some knowledge of local foods even though they have not visited the origin country of the cuisine (Mak et al., 2012).

Horng et al. (2012) support this, reporting that tourists' familiarity with the food and cuisine of a destination has a positive influence on travel intentions toward the destination. Similarly, the findings of this study showed that ethnic food experiences in ethnic restaurants can be a direct motivation for travelling to the origin country of the restaurants:

"I can't wait to go to China or Hong Kong, and maybe Korea and just to, you know, have the experience more ethnic food in their own country, really."(EM-9, Female, aged over 55)

"I had Korean food in England but I never experienced fully, so (I thought) that would be nice, just to experience Korean food…I thought it would be a nice thing to experience overall…" (TM-12, Male, aged 25-34)

Conversely, tourists' local food experiences in travel destinations seem to influence tourists' future behaviour. After travelling to a country, some people actively seek out a related ethnic restaurant in their home country. All participants who had not been to Korean restaurants in the UK before they visited Korea reported that they would look for Korean restaurants near where they live when they return:

"…when we go back, I am so sure that we will be looking for Korean food. I heard there are some Korean restaurants in New Malden." (TM-1, Female, aged over 55)

"When we get home, we are going to start Korean restaurants, Galbi (Korean BBQ) restaurants. We think we would go down one in Newcastle."(TM-2, Female, aged over 55)

"And I am definitely going to search for the Korean restaurants, and trying to plan next trip back here." (TM-10, Male, aged under 25)

As seen above, previous travel experience to the origin country of the restaurant can motivate people to visit ethnic restaurants, to remember a trip to the origin country. Jamal (1996) also argued that people who travelled abroad and who experienced foreign food dishes may actively seek out those foods in their own country through ethnic restaurants and/or supermarkets, and further they even may try to cook those dishes in their own kitchens. One interviewee said that even though she did not like eating out, she visited only ethnic restaurants to remember the time when she travelled to that country and to imagine going back:

"Eating sushi is a souvenir because in Japan, I spent quite a lot of time, and it is the most beautiful time in my life. After, I realised that I haven't been to many Japanese restaurants in Japan other than sushi restaurants. So, eating sushi is for my memory." (EM-6, Female, aged over 55)

Lupton (2005) argued that there is a strong relationship between memory and food. Taste often triggers memories of previous food events or experiences around food, and vice versa. In other words, food can invoke memory as well as certain memories generate a desire for a particular food. Sometimes, it is not only taste but also memories of travelling to those countries that motivate people to visit ethnic restaurants.

In addition, participants who have more travel experiences tend to try a greater variety of ethnic foods, and described themselves as adventurous in trying new things, including food. Also, they tend to more actively seek out ethnic restaurants, even in cases where they are less available, while people with less travel experience tended to confine themselves to ethnic foods that were easy to access. Also, travelling to the origin country of the food affected customers' perception of the authenticity of an ethnic restaurant. Authenticity in food cultures is difficult to define. Authenticity of ethnic restaurants can be categorised into three different viewpoints, 'objectivist', 'constructivist', and 'postmodern'. From the objectivist approach, food can be considered authentic when it was prepared by natives according to tradition (Lu & Fine, 1995), and this can be extended to the interior and exterior of the restaurants (Ebster&Guist, 2004).

On the other hand, constructivists reject the idea of authenticity as reality, and suggest it cannot be objectively determined. What is considered as authentic is relative depending on the context and symbolism derived from social construction (Cohen, 1988; Wang, 1999). The postmodern approach goes further, claiming that authenticity is not important, and what consumers are looking for is enjoyable illusion, an idealised picture of the culture which comes up to customers' expectation (Ebster&Guist, 2004).Ebster and Guist (2004) further showed that culturally experienced customers tend to put less importance on authenticity than culturally naïve customers. In this study, however, customers with many travel experiences, who can be regarded as culturally experienced compared to those who had less travel experiences, did not suggest authenticity is less important, since they were all looking for "authentic" restaurants. Indeed, those who had not been to the origin country of the restaurant, but had a lot of travel experience, had different perceptions of the term "authenticity".

For example, customers with few travel experiences considered authenticity as food cooked by or served by the people from the origin country, comparing restaurant food with the prepared food in supermarkets. Customers who had been to the origin country considered the food as authentic when it had a similar taste to that experienced while travelling in that country. Participants who had been to the origin country often complained about the authenticity of the food in restaurants in the UK, suggesting recipes had been altered to appeal to different palates:

"normally if you went to Tesco whatever and you taste what they call traditional Chinese food, Japanese or Indian food, you won't taste actual aspect of how it tastes, whereas if you go to the restaurant, you taste how they actually taste. So it broadens your aspect of tasting authentic food."(EM- 13, Female, aged 25-34, no travel experience)

"Sometimes they changed taste to western tastes, since it's quite sweet, quite oily and quite salty. I am not sure but maybe in the country they are from it'll be different. They changed the taste to suit our taste, so sometimes too sweet compared to my experience, so I don't like it." (EM-14, Male, aged 25-34)

Those who had visited ethnic restaurants, but had not been to the origin country, and who had accumulated many travel experiences were careful about using the word "authenticity". They talked about whether they liked the food or not and said they did not know if it was authentic or not. Therefore, it seems that travel experience influences customers' preferences and satisfaction with ethnic restaurants and perception of authenticity.

Conclusions

The current study was conducted in the context of the growing market of ethnic restaurants and their use as "tourism at home" and as a tool for destination marketing. Given the scarcity of research on ethnic restaurant choice motivation and its impact on tourism, a grounded theory approach was employed, adopting semi-structured interviews and reviewing of related literature. Through the first stage of interviews with British people who had been to Asian restaurants in the UK, motivations for visiting ethnic restaurants were identified. With the second stage of the interviews, British travellers' travel motivations to visit one of the origin countries of the restaurants were established. With the comparison between motivations from two sets of interviews, common motivational factors between visiting ethnic restaurants and travelling, as well as the relationships between them, were identified. This study identified six common motivational factors between visiting ethnic restaurants and travelling:1) to change/ escape from the routine,2) to experience something new/ different,3) to experience and learn about another culture,4) curiosity/ desire to explore unknown,5) togetherness, and 6) travelling itself.

By identifying these motivations, this study demonstrates that motivations for visiting ethnic restaurants share common factors with travel motivation. This could imply that ethnic restaurants function as means of engaging in tourism at home, and there is a possibility that these factors could be developed into travel motivations to visit the origin country of the restaurant. By fulfilling customers' motivation to learn and experience another culture, ethnic restaurants can play a role in marketing of a country, by conveying the culture and developing an image of the country. Not only do visiting ethnic restaurants and travelling have motives in common, but they also seem to influence each other (See Figure 3). Customers value the illusion that they are travelling in the origin country while they are dining in an ethnic restaurant, and trying food in an ethnic restaurant seems to increase customers' awareness and interest in the culture of the origin country of the restaurants. For those with food neophobic tendencies, increased exposure to the ethnic foods can decrease the fear of such foods. Therefore, countries such as Korea, Taiwan and Thailand have been supporting and expanding restaurants serving their ethnic cuisine overseas, as a way to promote the country as tourist destination. Furthermore, it was found that experiences of ethnic foods in ethnic restaurants in the home country could be a direct motivation for the people to travel to the origin country.

Conversely, travelling influences people not only to increase willingness to try a variety of foods, but also to actively find ethnic restaurants. Thus, it could be said that previous travel experiences motivate people to visit ethnic restaurants, sometimes, becoming one way to remember previous travels. Travelling to the origin country of the food also affects customers' perception of the authenticity of an ethnic restaurant, and eventually it has impact on preference and satisfaction with ethnic restaurants in their home country. These relationships are summarised in figure 3.

Figure 3. A Model illustrating the Relationship between Tourism and Ethnic restaurants
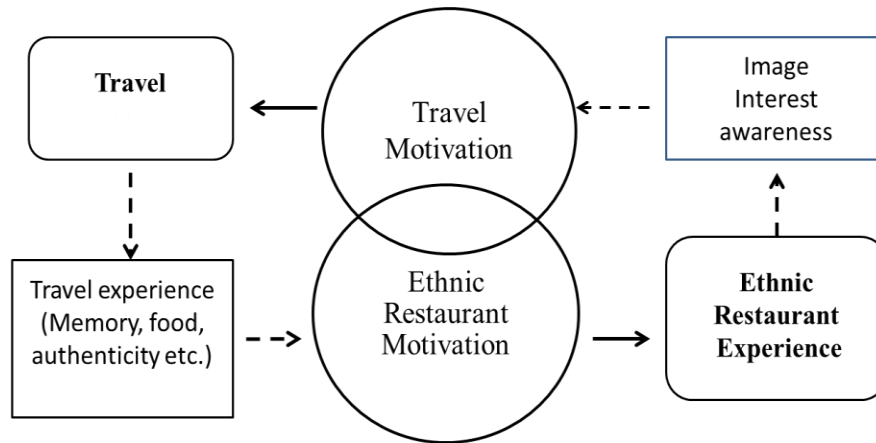
This study is a first attempt to understand the relationships between ethnic restaurants, "Tourism at home," and "Tourism". This study contributes to academic knowledge, in terms of investigating motivational factors for choosing ethnic restaurants, as well as informing destination marketers adopting food as a marketing tool. However, there are limitations that should be considered. Since this study adopted a qualitative approach, with no intention to generalise findings, a purposive sample was used and the sample was selected in a restricted area in the UK in the first stage of interviews. To expand the study to include more people from various areas in the UK would be helpful in the process of building and confirming a more precise conceptual model. In addition, it is necessary to empirically test the motivational factors derived from the findings of interviews, and continuously compare these with the results from new research. Also, this study focused on UK customers and tourists only, so future research might take into account those from other countries for a wider understanding and generalizability of the results.

References

Agricultural Marketing Resource Center. (2012). Ethnic foods market profile, [Online], Available at: http://www.agmrc.org/markets__industries/food/ethnic-foods-market-profile/Accessed 02/05/2013.

Alderighi, A., Bianchi, C. &Lorenzini, E. (2016). The impact of local food specialities on the decision to (re)visit a tourist destination: Market-expanding or business-stealing? Tourism Management, 57, 323-333.

Altinay, L. &Paraskevas, A. (2008). Planning Research in Hospitality and Tourism.

Oxford: Elsevier.

Anderson, J. R. L. (1970). The Ulysses factor. New York: Ed. Harcourt Brace Johanovich, Inc.

Atkinson, P. & Bowler, I. (2001). Food in Society. London: Arnold.

Auty, S. (1992). Consumer choice and segmentation in the restaurant industry. The service Industry Journal, 12 (3), 324-339.

Ayala, G.X., Mueller, K., Lopez-Madurga, E., Campbell, N. R. & Elder, J.P. (2005). Restaurant and food shopping selection among Latino women in Southern California. Journal of the American Dietetic Association, 105 (1), 38-45.

Baek, S., Ham, S., & Yang, I. (2006). A cross cultural comparison of fast food restaurant selection criteria between Korean and Filipino college students. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 25, 683-698.

Chan, J. K. L. & Baum, T. (2007). Motivation factors of ecotourists in ecolodge accommodation: The push and pull factors. Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, 12 (4), 349-364.

Chaney, S. & Ryan, C. (2012). Analyzing the evolution of Singapore's World Gourmet Summit: An example of gastronomic tourism. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 31,309-318.

Cohen, E. (1988). Authenticity and commoditization in tourism. Annals of Tourism Research, 15, 371-386.

Cohen, E. & Avieli, N. (2004). Food in tourism: Attraction and impediment. Annals of Tourism Research, 31(4), 755-778.

Correia, A., do Valle, P. O. &Moco, C. (2007). Modelling motivations and perceptions of Portuguese tourists. Journal of Business Research, 60, 76-80.

Crompton., J. L. (1979). Motivation for Pleasure Vacation. Annals of Tourism Research, 6 (4), 408-424.

Dann, G.M.S. (1977). Anomie, Ego-Enhancement and Tourism. Annals of Tourism Research, 4, 184-194.

Ebster, C., & Guist, I. (2004). The role of authenticity in ethnic theme restaurants. Journal of Foodservice Business
      Research, 7(2), 41-52.
Elder, J., Zive, M. M. & Nader, P. R. (1999). Factors affecting selection of restaurants by Anglo-and Mexican-
      American families. Journal of the American Dietetic Association, 99 (7), 856-858.
Eertmans, A., Victor, A., Vansant, G., & Van den Bergh, O. (2005). Food-related personality traits, food choice
      motives and food intake: Mediator and moderator relationships. Food Quality and Preferences, 16, 714-726.
Fischler, C. (1988). Food, self and identity. Social Science Information, 27, 275-292.
Galloway, G., Mitchell, R., Getz, D., Crouch, G., & Ong, B. (2008). Sensation seeking and the prediction of attitudes
      and behaviours of wine tourists. Tourism Management, 29(5), 950-966.
Gilbert, D. C. & Morris, L. (1995). The relative importance of hotels and airlines to the business traveller.
      International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 7(6), 19-23
Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research, Chicago,
      IL: Aldine Publishing Company.
Gonggam Korea. (2010). The launch of Korean Food Foundation for globalisation of Korean food, [Online],
      Available: http://www.korea.kr/policy/mainView.do?newsId=148690901,
Ha, J. & Jang, S. (2010a). Perceived values, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions: The role of familiarity in Korean
      Restaurant. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 29, 2-13.
Ha, J. & Jang, S. (2010b). Effects of service quality and food quality: The moderating role of atmospherics in an ethnic
      restaurant segment. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 29, 520-529.
Hall, M., &Sharples, L. (2003). The consumption of experiences or the experiences of consumption? An introduction
      to the tourism of taste. In C. M. Hall, E. Sharples, R. Mitchell, N. Macionis, & B. Cambourne (Eds.), Food
      tourism around the world: Development, management and markets (pp. 3-22). Oxford: Butterworth-
      Heinemann.
Heath, H., &Cowley, S. (2004). Developing a Grounded Theory Approach: A Comparison of Glaser and Strauss.
      International Journal of Nursing Studies, 41 (2), 141-150.
Hjalager, A. M. (2002). A typology of gastronomy tourism. In A. M. Hjalager& G. Richards (ed.), Tourism and
      Gastronomy. London: Routledge.
Holbrook, M. B. &Hirscham, E.C. (1982). The experiential aspects of consumption: consumer fantasies, feelings, and
      fun. The Journal of Consumer Research, 9 (2), 132-140.
Horng, J. S., Liu, C. H., Chou, H. Y. & Tsai, C. Y. (2012). Understanding the impact of culinary brand equity and
      destination familiarity on travel intentions. Tourism Management, 33, 815-824.
Horng, J. S. & Tsai, C. T. (2010). Government websites for promoting East Asian culinary tourism: A cross-national
      analysis. Tourism Management, 31, 74-85.
Iso-Ahola, S. (1980). The social psychology of leisure and recreation. Dubuque, IA: Wm. C. Brown.
Iso-Ahola, S. (1982). Toward a social psychology theory of tourism motivation. Annals of Tourism Research, 12, 256-
      262.
Jamal, A. (1996). Acculturation: the symbolism of ethnic eating among contemporary British consumers. British Food
      Journal, 98(10), 12-26.
Jang, S., Ha, A.,&Silkes, C. (2009). Perceived attributes of Asian food: From the perspective of the American
      customers.International Journal of Hospitality Management, 28, 63-70.
Jang, S., Liu, Y. &Namkung, Y. (2011). Effects of authentic atmospherics in ethnic restaurants: investigating Chinese
      restaurants.International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 23 (5), 662-680.
Johns, N. & Pine, R. (2002). Consumer behavior in the food service industry: a review. International Journal of
      Hospitality Management, 21, 119-134.
Jones, A., & Jenkins, I. (2002). 'A taste of Wales- Blas ArGymru': Institutional malaise in promoting Welsh food
      tourism products. In A. M. Hjalager, &G. Richards (Eds.), Tourism and Gastronomy (pp. 115-131). London:
      Routledge.
Jonsson, C. & Devonish, D. (2010). Does nationality, gender, and age affect travel motivation? A case of visitors to
      the Caribbean Island of Barbados. Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing,25,(3/4), 398-408.
Kay, P, L. (2009). Cultural experience tourist motives dimensionality: A cross-cultural study. Journal of Hospitality
      Marketing and Management, 18, 329-371.
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.
Key Note (2012). Market Update 2012-Ethnic foods, Richmond Upon Thames: Key Note Ltd.

Kim, Y.H., Goh, B.K., & Yuan, J. (2010). Development of a Multi-Dimensional Scale for Measuring Food Tourist Motivations. Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism, 11 (1), 56-71.

Kim, C. & Lee, S. (2000). Understanding the cultural differences in tourist motivation between Anglo-American and Japanese tourists. Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 9 (1/2), 153-170.

Kim, S.S. &Prideaux, B. (2005). Marketing implications arising from a comparative study of international pleasure tourist motivations and other travel-related characteristics of visitors to Korea. Tourism Management, 26, 347-357.

Kivela, J. &Crotts, J. (2006). Tourism and gastronomy: gastronomy's influence on how tourist experience a destination. Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research,30 (3), 354-377.

Kozak, M. (2002). Comparative analysis of tourist motivations by nationality and destination. Tourism Management, 23, 221-232.

Krippendorf, J. (1987). The Holiday Markers: Understanding the impact of leisure and travel. Trowbridge: Heinemann Professional Publishing.

Kwon, J., Roberts, K. R., Shanklin, C.W., Liu, P., & Yen, W. S. F. (2010). Food safety training needs assessment for independent ethnic restaurants: Review of health inspection data in Kansas. Food Protection Trends, 30(7), 412-421.

Lan, L.W., Wu, W. W., & Lee, Y. T. (2012). Promoting food tourism with Kansei cuisine design. (2012). Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 40, 609-615.

Lee, J., Lee, S., & Moon, B. (2009). Impacts of ethnic restaurant image on participate intention in food tourism, Journal of Food Service Management Society in Korea, 12 (5), 205-227.

Liu, Y. & Jang, S. (2009). Perception of Chinese restaurant in the U. S. : What affects customer satisfaction and behavioural intentions? International Journal of Hospitality Management, 28, 338-348.

Lupton, D. (2005). Food and Emotion. In Korsmeyer, C. (ed) The Taste Culture Reader: Experiencing food and drink. New York: Berg.

Lu, S., & Fine, G. A. (1995). The presentation of ethnic authenticity: Chinese food as a social accomplishment. The Sociology Quarterly, 36, 535-553.

MacCannell, D. (1977). The tourist, New York: Schockon.

Mak, A. H. N., Lumbers, M. & Eves, A. (2012). Globalisation and food consumption in tourism. Annals of Tourism Research, 39 (1), 171-196.

Mason, M. C.,&Paggiaro, A. (2012). Investigating the role of festivalscape in culinary tourism: The case of food and wine events. Tourism Management, 33,1329-1336.

Mayo, E. J. & Jarvis, L. P. (1981). The psychology of leisure travel: Effective marketing and selling of travel services. Boston: CBI.

McGehee, N. G., Loker-Murphy, L., &Uysal, M. (1996). The Australian international pleasure travel market: Motivations from a gendered perspective. Journal of Tourism Studies, 7 (1), 45-57.

Mehmetoglua, M. &Altinay, L. (2006). Examination of grounded theory analysis with an application to hospitality research. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 25, 12-33.

Meng, F., Tepanon, Y. &Uysal, M. (2008). Measuring tourist satisfaction by attribute and motivation: The case of a nature-based resort. Journal of Vacation Marketing, 14 (1), 41-56.

Meulenberg, M. &Viaene, J. (1998). Changing food marketing systems in western countries. In Jongen, W..andMeulenberg, M. (ed). Innovation of food production systems: product quality and consumer acceptance,Wageningen Press, Wageningen, pp.5-36.

Ji, M., Wong, I. A., Eves, A. &Scarles, C. (2016). Food-related personality traits and the moderating role of novelty-seeking in food satisfaction and travel outcomes. Tourism Management, 57, 387-396.

Mintel (2012). Ethnic Foods-UK, London: Mintel.

Mintel (2013). Eating Out Review, London: Mintel

Mintel (2017). Ethnic Restaurants and Takeaways, London: Mintel

Molz, J. G. (2007). Eating difference. The cosmopolitan mobilities of culinary tourism. Space and Culture, 10 (1), 77-93.

Nicolau, J. L. & Mas, F. (2006). The influence of distance and prices on the choice of tourist destinations: The moderating role of motivations. Tourism Management, 27, 982-996.

Njite, D., Dunn, G., & Kim, L. (2008). Beyond good food: what other attributes influence consumer preference and selection of fine dining restaurants? Journal of Food Service Business Research, 11 (2), 237-266.

Okumus, B. & Okumus, F. & McKercher, B. (2007). Incorporating local and international cuisines in the marketing of tourism destinations: The cases of Hong Kong and Turkey. Tourism Management, 28, 253-261.

Overby, J.W., & Lee, E.J. (2006). The effects of utilitarian and hedonic online shopping value on consumer preference and intentions. Journal of Business Research, 59, 1160-1166.

Patton, M. Q. (2000). Qualitative research and evaluation method. London: SAGE Publications.

Pliner, P. (1982). The effects of mere exposure on liking for edible substances. Appetite, 2, 283-290.

Pliner, P. &Hobden, K. (1992). Development of a scale to measure the trait of food neophobia in humans. Appetite, 19, pp.105-120.

Plummer, R., Telfer, D., Hashimoto, A., &Summers, R. (2005). Beer tourism in Canada along the Waterloo-Wellington Ale Trail. Tourism Management, 26, 447-458

Quan, S. & Wang, N. (2004). Towards a structural model of the tourist experience: an illustration from food experiences in tourism. Tourism Management, 25, 297-305.

du Rand, G. E., Heath, E., & Alberts, N. (2003). The role of local and regional food in destination marketing: a South African situation analysis. Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing, 14 (3/4), 97-112.

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.

Ritchie, J. Tung, V., & Ritchie, R. (2011) Tourism experience management research: emergence, evolution and future directions. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 23,419-438.

Rittichainuwat, B. N. (2008). Responding to Disaster: Thai and Scandinavian Tourists' Motivation to Puhket, Thailand. Journal of Travel Research, 46, 422-432.

Roseman, M.G. (2006). Changing Times: Consumers choice of ethnic foods when eating at restaurants. Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing, 14 (4), pp. 5-32.

Rozin, E. &Rozin, P. (2005). Culinary Themes and Variations. In Korsmeyer, C. (Eds) The Taste Culture Reader: Experiencing food and drink. New York: Berg.

Ryan, C. & Mo, X. (2001). Chinese visitors to New Zealand-Demographics and Perceptions. Journal of Vacation Marketing, 8 (1), 13-27.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. (2007). Research Methods for Business Students. (4thed.). Essex: Prentice Hall.

Sparks, B. (2007). Planning a wine tourism vacation? Factors that help to predict tourist behavioural intentions. Tourism Management, 28, 1180-1192.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques, New York: Sage Publications.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998) Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and proceduresfor Developing Grounded Theory (2nd ed.), New York: Sage Publications.

Sukalakamala, P.,& Boyce, J.B. (2007). Customer perceptions for expectations and acceptance of an authentic dining experience in Thai restaurants. Journal of Foodservice, 18, 69-75.

Tuorila, H., Lahteenmaki, L., Pohjanheinen,, L., &Lotti, L. (2001). Food neophobia among the Finns and related responses to familiar and unfamiliar foods. Food Quality and Preference, 12, pp. 29-37.

Torres, R. (2002). Toward a better understanding of tourism and agriculture linkages in the Yucatan: Tourist food consumption and preferences. Tourism Geographies, 4 (3), 282-306.

Uysal, M. & Jurowski, C. (1994). Testing the push and pull factors. Annals of Tourism Research, 21 (4), 844-846.

Van der Berghe, P. (1984). Ethnic Cuisine: culture in nature. Ethnic and Racial Studies, 7 (3), pp.387-97.

Verbeke, W. & López, G. (2005). Ethnic food attitudes and behaviour among Belgians and Hispanics living in Belgium. British Food Journal, 107 (11), 823-849.

Wang, N. (1999). Rethinking authenticity in tourism experience. Annals of Tourism Research, 26, 349-370.

Warde, A. (1997). Consumption, Food and Taste. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Warde, A. & Martens, L. (2000). Eating out: Social differentiation, Consumption and Pleasure, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wood, N.T. and Munoz, C.L. (2007). "No rules, just right, or is it?" The role of themed restaurants as cultural ambassadors. Tourism and Hospitality Research, 7(3/4), pp.242-55.

Wright, L. T., Nancarrow, C. & Brace , I. (2000). Researching taste: layers of analysis. British Food Journal, 102 (5/6), 429-440.

Yoon, Y. & Uysal, M. (2005). An examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty: a structural model. Tourism Management, 26 (1), 45-56.

Yuan, S. & McDonald, C. (1990). Motivational determinants of international pleasure time. Journal of Travel Research, 24 (1), 42-44.