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Destination foodscape : a stage for travelers' food experience

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Destination foodscape: A stage for travelers' food experiences

ABSTRACT

11 This study elaborates on the foodscape construct and explores it within tourism. The study
12 contributes to the literature by introducing destination foodscape and presenting a novel
13 framework for understanding a destination's food environment. The typology of foodscapes
14 shows how the destination foodscape construct is multifarious, which is influenced by well-
15 defined and organized service environments but goes beyond staged service encounters to non-
16 organized environments. Regarding the implications for destination and tourism management,
17 this study suggests placing a stronger emphasis on local food as a marketing dimension,
18 involving local people by making them aware of their role in the destination foodscape and their
19 importance for travelers' food experiences as part-time marketers, as well as in creating public-
20 private destination spaces where tourists can have more private food experiences.

21

Keywords:

23 **Destination foodscape, food, foodscape, experience, servicescape, qualitative study**

1 Destination foodscape: A stage for travelers' food experiences

2

3 1. Introduction

4 The wealth of research on the effects of the physical service environment on customers'
5 service experiences (Bitner, 1992), perceived value (Babin & Attaway, 2000; Liu & Jang,
6 2009), satisfaction (Ladhari, Brun, & Morales, 2008), future behavioral intentions (Jang &
7 Namkung, 2009), and organizational sales and success (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982) proves the
8 service environment's importance. Kotler (1973) initially identified the essence of the physical
9 retail environment and its ability to evoke emotional responses through sight, sound, smell, and
10 touch as atmospherics. This construct was further developed by Booms and Bitner (1982, p.
11 36), who stated that the physical retail environment is "the environment in which the service is
12 assembled and in which seller and customer interact, combined with tangible commodities that
13 facilitate performance or communication of the service." Bitner (1992) subsequently proposed
14 a servicescape framework to explain the antecedents to and consequences of the service
15 encounters' physical surroundings on customer and employee responses. Since then, the
16 servicescape construct has proved useful in a large range of settings, including cyberscape
17 (Williams & Dargel, 2004), dinescape (Ryu, 2005), shipscape (Kwortnik, 2008), and
18 eventscape (Brown, Lee, King, & Shipway, 2015).

19 The idea of servicescape was introduced to the field of tourism by Clarke and Schmidt
20 (1995). In accordance with Bitner (1992), they discovered a gap between the marketing
21 literature and environmental psychology, and they called for a broader understanding of the
22 physical setting, especially in service encounters. Additionally, Clarke and Schmidt (1995, p.
23 161) questioned whether the servicescape model was applicable to services in which "there is
24 a substantive environmental context: that is, where 'place' is effectively a key part of the
25 service." Thus, inspired by scholars in marketing, geography, psychology, and sociology,

1 servicescape was introduced as an “experiencing place” framework, which, as a holistic
2 servuction system, integrates the surrounding environmental encounter with the servicescape
3 (Clarke & Schmidt, 1995). These scholars maintain that natural and man-made environments
4 are both important quality dimensions and contribute to the servicescape framework.

5 A vacation is an experiential product, and inspired by the servicescape framework, the
6 experiencescape concept, which represents landscapes of experiences, was introduced by Quan
7 and Wang (2004) and O’Dell (2005) to the field of tourism. Following that lead, Mossberg
8 (2007) conceived experiencescapes as a blend of inputs from different actors and activities
9 throughout the whole journey. These studies suggested that experiences such as sensory
10 experiences from the different “scapes” of a destination, like tastescape (Hjalager & Richards,
11 2002), smellscape (Dann & Jacobsen, 2002; 2003), and soundscape (Aili, 2002) are nested
12 together and co-created by the actors involved (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2003) and eventually
13 contribute to the overall travel experience.

14 Indeed, food is an integral part of tourism (Hjalager & Corigliano, 2000; Quan & Wang,
15 2004), and extant research has documented how food contributes to experiences and affects
16 tourists’ decisions, behavior, and satisfaction (Björk & Kauppinen-Räsänen, 2017b; Getz,
17 Robinson, Andersson, & Vujicic, 2014). Food—a specific destination’s food and wine culture,
18 food events and food festivals—has been proven to trigger travel motivation (e.g. Boniface,
19 2003; Hall & Sharples, 2003; Kivela & Crofts, 2005) and determine destination choice (Kozak
20 & Rimmington, 2000; Hsu, Tsai, & Wu, 2009). Previous studies have shown that food
21 influences involvement and place attachment (Gross & Brown, 2006, 2008; Hashimoto &
22 Telfer, 2006; Pestek & Nikolic, 2011), as well as how food experiences, such as culinary-
23 gastronomic experiences, contribute to lived (Long, 2010) and memorable experiences
24 (Kauppinen-Räsänen, Gummerus, & Lehtola, 2013) and add to the overall travel experience
25 (Neild, Kozak, & LeGrys, 2000). Studies have also shown that food experiences affect travel

1 satisfaction (Björk & Kauppinen-Räsänen, 2014; 2017b), holiday well-being (Björk &
2 Kauppinen-Räsänen, 2017a), and even intentions to revisit a destination (Kim, Kim, Goh, &
3 Antun, 2011; Quan & Wang, 2004).

4 What the previous studies on the scape construct and food experiences share is a focus
5 on the man-made and built environment. This means that a substantial part of the research
6 elaborating on the scape construct and food experiences has been devoted to well-defined and
7 organized service environments such as retail stores, hotels, restaurants, and bars. These studies
8 have contributed to insights related to the physical service environment, which are staged and
9 managed by service organizations, and potentially controlled by the tourism industry. However,
10 when considering the essence of food and viewing travel as a journey (Norton & Pine, 2013),
11 it seems well justified to assume that food experiences comprise a sequence of food occurrences
12 in both organized and non-organized environments, in which experiences are either created
13 (Grönroos, 2008) or co-created (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). This implies that travelers experience
14 food not just in places like restaurants and bars but also at beaches and in parks. Consequently,
15 this study stresses that environments that are not necessarily controlled by service organizations
16 or the tourism industry, but in which the travelers do spend some amount of time and which
17 potentially contribute to experiences, are less studied.

18 Against the previous background, the study takes a holistic approach toward a
19 destination's food, which means that the study perceives that a destination encompasses various
20 food places, which together comprise a destination's foodscape. As a contribution to the fields
21 of tourism and service marketing, the aim of the study is to elaborate on the construct of
22 destination foodscape and explore it within tourism. The study contributes to the study of
23 destination and tourism management by introducing destination foodscape and presenting a
24 novel framework for understanding the multifarious nature of a destination's food environment.
25 On the other hand, by linking the framework to value creation (processes), service provision

1 (encounters), and resource integration (see Grönroos & Gummerus, 2014), the study contributes
2 to service marketing and the research streams of service-dominant logic (Vargo & Lusch, 2004)
3 and service logic (Grönroos, 2008).

4 The article proceeds as follows. The theoretical framework presented builds on the
5 discourses of ‘scapes’ (Bitner, 1992; Mossberg, 2007), service co-creation (Gummesson,
6 Lusch, & Vargo, 2010), and creation (Grönroos & Gummerus, 2014) and adds a tourism
7 journey perspective (Clarke & Schmidt, 1995; Norton & Pine, 2013). Furthermore, the
8 discussion is multidisciplinary, founded on research conducted in anthropology and folklore
9 (Appadurai, 1996; Long, 2010), sociology (Winson, 2004), and philosophy (Dolphijn, 2004).
10 Then, we explore the dimensional nature of the destination foodscape framework. We present
11 the qualitative research methodology used in this exploratory study in Section 3. The analyzed
12 empirical findings highlight the destination foodscape construct in Section 4. Finally, we
13 discuss the implications for research and practice, bearing in mind that the servicescape is a
14 quality indicator (Baker, Parasuraman, Grewal, & Voss, 2002).

15

16 **2. Literature review**

17

18 *2.1. Two types of food environments*

19

20 The servicescape is the physical setting in which a service process takes place. Bitner’s
21 (1992) framework describes how the built environment under the service providers’ control
22 affects both customers’ and employees’ cognitive, emotional, physiological, and behavioral
23 responses. This commercial service setting, which denotes the physical environment and
24 includes ambient conditions, space, functions, signs, symbols, and artifacts has been developed
25 further by many researchers, who have also noted that the physical service environment can

1 significantly influence customer behavior (e.g., Bauer, Kotouc, & Rudolph, 2012; Mohan,
2 Sivakumaran, & Sharma, 2012; Tombs & McColl-Kennedy, 2003).

3 In addition to Bitner's (1992) influential idea, this study was inspired by the work of
4 Rosenbaum and Massiah (2011), who proposed an expanded servicescape framework based on
5 Tombs and McColl-Kennedy's (2003) and Rosenbaum and Montoya's (2007) ideas. This
6 framework shows the multifaceted nature of the physical setting and, in addition to the physical
7 and social-symbolic dimensions, includes a social dimension containing customer and
8 employee elements in interactions and a surrounding environment dimension affecting the
9 mental state. Another inspiring framework is the experiencescape that Mossberg (2007)
10 proposes, which contributes to the field of tourism by capturing specific tourism-related
11 features. Building on O'Dell's (2005, p. 16) idea of experiencescape, which is a space of
12 "pleasure, enjoyment, and entertainment," Mossberg (2007) developed a framework to show
13 that the traveler's experience was influenced by the physical environment, the staff, other
14 customers, and products or souvenirs. She also noted the role of stories in elevating service
15 offerings.

16 For a more context-specific understanding of the scape concept within tourism,
17 Kwortnik (2008) introduced the concept of shipscape. He argued that a cruise vacation was a
18 prototypical experiential product, corresponding to the idea of experiencescape. However,
19 because such a servicescape has distinct features, he introduced the construct of shipscape,
20 which, in accordance with other frameworks, is a blend of many dimensions. The core of the
21 framework highlights the cruise as a journey, while the customer takes part in elements like
22 climbing walls and shopping, contributing to the cruise experience. The shipscape construct
23 parallels Bitner's (1992) and Mossberg's (2007) dimensional frameworks, while also
24 highlighting the experiential effect of the detected dimensions and the embeddedness of the
25 internal shipscape, including the lobbies, shops, and restaurants in a broader, surrounding

1 experiential context—the sea, which is not staged by the organization. The shipscape “includes
2 both man-made physical and social environments in which the cruise service is delivered (the
3 ship), as well as the natural environment (the ocean) that provides a broader experiential
4 context” (Kwortnik, 2008, p. 291).

5

6 **INSERT Table 1 here**

7

8 Based on the previous discussion, Table 1 proposes that ‘places’ comprise two types of
9 food environments which contribute to food experiences. First is the service environment; it is
10 a physical, organized service encounter (restaurants and bars) that is staged by the service
11 provider, and therefore, creates a managerial framework for service encounters, including
12 interactions among many actors and elements in value-creating processes (e.g., Grönroos, 2008;
13 Grönroos & Gummerus, 2014; Gummesson et al., 2010). Referring to such a service
14 environment, Reimer and Kuehn (2005) posited that it is vital to establish interactions between
15 social aspects or human actors (i.e. service provider, customers, and personnel) and the various
16 elements within the service encounter’s physical surroundings (e.g., social-symbolic signs,
17 products, and souvenirs) to elicit quality experiences and satisfaction, because these may
18 encourage repeated visits to the servicescape. Thus, the servicescape becomes an
19 experiencescape by providing the means of food experiences for the traveler or the “nested
20 products of inputs from organizations and tourists. [Food experiences] are produced through
21 substantive and communicative staging” (Mossberg, 2007, p. 63).

22 Second, in line with Kwortnik’s (2008) views on shipscape, the idea of the broad
23 experiential context of the grape wine environment (Hall, Sharples, Cambourne, & Macinois,
24 2002), and the discussion of “the holistic wine tourism experience” (Quadri-Felitti & Fiore,
25 2012, p. 10) contributing to the construct of winescape (Quintal, Thomas, & Phau, 2015), we

1 argue that non-organized environments also influence travelers' food experiences. These
2 authentic, local settings (e.g., parks, beaches), which are not controlled by service organizations
3 or the tourism industry, create an extended environment for food experiences at a destination.
4 For example, portraying food from a holistic folkloristic view, Long (2010) confirmed this idea,
5 while also implying that foodscape includes people in interactions, the practiced culture, and
6 food systems germinating into everyday life. This suggests that in comparison with food
7 encountered in staged service environments, in which food intake is most common, the non-
8 organized environment offers the tourist a 'scape' in the form of a surrounding environment for
9 watching the street life, sensing the culture, and experiencing the local atmosphere. Having
10 visited Hangzhou, Boston, Bangalore, and Lyon and talked with people sitting alone eating in
11 parks (i.e. the "public room") and thus not being exposed to a service encounter or service
12 provider, Dolphijn (2004) highlighted this "feeling" and stressed that many food encounters are
13 of a more private nature. Thus, an important aspect of a foodscape is that while locals living
14 within the foodscape are intertwined with it, travelers also become one element of it, although
15 for a shorter time, and are affected by it. Therefore, most travelers carry that scape home in the
16 form of memories, souvenirs, and new eating and cooking behavior.

17

18 *2.2. From foodscape to destination foodscape*

19

20 The foodscape has been examined in many fields from various perspectives. One such
21 perspective is foodscape in relation to the geography, climate, and environment of food, where
22 issues like farming, production, and logistics are studied (e.g., Mikkelsen, 2011; Sage, 2010).
23 The idea of foodscape has also been explored within the fields of nutrition and health sciences,
24 in which interest is centered on the relationship between the environment and food intake, food
25 choice, and food behavior (Kestens, Lebel, Daniel, Thériault, & Pampalon, 2010; Mikkelsen,

1 2011). The fields of cultural studies and sociology have also investigated the foodscape, in
2 which religious, cultural, and consumption practices are the core interest (e.g., Winson, 2004).
3 Gradually, the study of foodscapes has also moved to the fields of marketing (Cummins &
4 Macintyre, 2002) and consumer behavior research (Sulaiman & Haron, 2013), though not yet
5 to tourism.

6 A central aspect of the foodscape construct is that it highlights the interaction among
7 people, place, and food, weaving the individual into the surrounding environment, culture, and
8 society (Sage, 2010). Therefore, foodscapes are dynamic, which means that they are constantly
9 changing. Many constructs, such as servicescapes and experiencescapes, are blended within
10 foodscapes, and therefore, foodscapes contribute to a continuous and broader discussion not
11 only about how people, place, and food interact but also about how they interact within various
12 spaces in food environments (Mikkelsen, 2011). From this viewpoint, researchers have
13 described foodscape as a construct representing a “landscape of food” (Mikkelsen, 2011, p.
14 210) that centers on “food environments” (MacKendrick, 2014, p. 16) within which the food
15 encounters are interlinked (physical and spatial aspects) and jointly contribute to “the spatial
16 distribution of food across urban spaces and institutional settings” (Johnston, Biro, &
17 MacKendrick, 2009, p. 512), where spaces and institutional settings refer to a wide set of places
18 (e.g., workplaces, schools, and highway truck stops; Winson, 2004). Following that thread, the
19 foodscape can be studied on various levels, like detailed food-related scapes such as dinescape,
20 kitchenscape, tablescape, and platescape (e.g., Cummins & Macintyre, 2002; Mikkelsen, 2011;
21 Ryu, 2005; Sobal & Wansink, 2007) or more broadly as the physical, social, and cultural
22 dimensions (Douglas, Douglas, & Derrett, 2001) of a food region or destination.

23 Sonnino and Marsden (2006) introduced the construct of a place-based foodscape,
24 which denotes the scape as limited to a specific geographical area from a production
25 perspective. While a destination foodscape shares this narrow aspect, it also takes a holistic,

1 general conceptualized perspective of lived and memorable experiences gained within a scape
2 from a traveler's point of view. Additionally, destination foodscape incorporates the idea that
3 travel is an experiential product lived in a specific area in which food is an integrated element
4 (e.g. Björk & Kauppinen-Räsänen, 2017b). The destination foodscape construct thereby
5 comprises the overall food experiences in a destination consisting of both peak and supporting
6 experiences (e.g., Quan & Wang, 2004). A context-specific feature of experiences is that they
7 are co-created both in service providers' staged contexts and in everyday settings.

8 A destination's foodscape is an aggregation built on travelers' various food experiences
9 in a destination, some of which take place in organized environments staged as service
10 encounters not managed by service organizations or controlled by the tourism industry. For
11 example, hotels' restaurants and bars are classic, staged service environments for tourists. These
12 service- and experiencescapes are predominantly used by tourists, and they refer to "the
13 physical environment surrounding a service encounter taking place in a tourism destination"
14 (Saraniemi & Kylänen, 2011, p. 136). Retail and grocery stores as well as food markets are
15 organized environments. While they can be staged with tourists in mind, they primarily serve
16 the local community as food outlets serving the everyday needs and mundane chores of the
17 locals. An essential notion here is that while food experiences are place-based, they are also
18 shaped by sociocultural meanings and values. For example, research on food festivals, events,
19 and trails claim the importance of visitor immersion in the surrounding environment (Getz,
20 Robinson, Andersson, & Vujicic, 2014; Robinson & Clifford, 2012).

21 To conclude, a destination foodscape is a holistic conception of food experiences in a
22 destination. As Dolphijn (2004, p. 24) noted, a foodscape "is never a sum of its parts; it is in
23 the sum itself that the parts are created." Thus, within tourism, a destination foodscape denotes
24 the places and scapes that facilitate a wide range of food experiences, beyond just restaurants
25 and bars.

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3. Methodology

3.1. Individual interviews

The purpose of this study was to elaborate on the concept of the destination foodscape and explore it within tourism. To do so, we required rich data. Therefore, a qualitative research approach was needed (Smith, 2010), which enabled us to elicit data that could reveal deeper insights into the foodscape (Hine, 2000). Studies applying a qualitative approach are especially beneficial for theory development when the voices of the informants are important (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007; Veal, 2006). Accordingly, we conducted individual face-to-face interviews to gather data (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Miles & Huberman, 1984); such interviews can reveal detailed, in-depth beliefs and feelings held by individual consumers (Rowley, 2012). They may also help the informants to provide information that they may perceive as sensitive or personal (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Miles & Huberman, 1984). Additionally, face-to-face interviews provide an opportunity for further probing, which is essential in a study that aims to uncover rich, in-depth insights, such as ours (Rowley, 2012).

3.2. Data collection and sampling

For this study, we employed a strategic sampling procedure (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007), searching for informants of varying age and gender who have at least some travel experience and an interest in sharing thoughts about destination food. Thus, we made it clear that the purpose of the study was to gain insights into memorized experiences—those stored in long-term memory. An important notion here is that the experience concept can be

1 approached in at least two ways: experience as *Erfahrung* (German), or memorized experiences,
2 and experience as *Erlebnis* (German), or lived experiences (Björk & Sfantla, 2009). These two
3 types of experiences are interlinked in that some onsite experiences (*Erfahrung*) are memorized
4 and used for future decisions and evaluating new experiences (*Erlebnis*), which may become
5 memorized experiences (Björk & Sfantla, 2009). In asking the informants about their
6 memorized food experiences, this study delved into the *Erfahrung* aspects of the experiences.

7 This study employed a saturation sampling procedure, in which we stopped collecting
8 data when we no longer heard “anything new from the interviews” (Smith, 2010, p. 98). In
9 doing so, the sampling procedure followed the idea of theoretical sampling of grounded theory
10 (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The sample size was 30 informants. Although we could have ended
11 the data collection earlier, for reliability and saturation reasons, we added three additional
12 informants to the investigative process (Miles & Huberman, 1984). No new aspects of the
13 discussion of destination foodscapes were revealed in these transcripts. The heterogeneous
14 sample (e.g., students, working adults, and retired individuals with diverse educational
15 backgrounds living in rural and urban areas) consisted of 16 men and 14 women, with an age
16 range of 21 to 92 years. The informants shared that they considered themselves travelers,
17 annually undertaking, on average, one international trip and a few national trips that included
18 at least one overnight stay. Like Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen’s (2014) findings, some of the
19 informants resembled ‘foodies’ and were very interested in food, potentially yearning for peak
20 food experiences, while others had more mundane attitudes.

21 The length of a qualitative in-depth interview can be between 30 minutes and several
22 hours (Veil, 2006). As the study was focused and properly planned, it was possible to keep the
23 conversation with the informants to approximately 30 minutes. To increase trustworthiness, the
24 study design involved a narrow research theme, carefully selected and trained interviewers (four
25 persons), and an attempt to find engaged informants (Guillemin & Gillman, 2004; Legard,

1 Keegan, & Ward, 2003). To further increase the data's credibility, the informants were advised
2 of the study's aims and academic use of the data, allowed to remain anonymous, and
3 encouraged to choose a convenient location and time for the interviews. One of the criteria
4 established was that the interviews would not be disturbed. Most interviews took place in the
5 informants' homes and a few in a public area, such as a café, library, or shopping center. The
6 location where data collection occurred had no effect on the study. The interviewees could
7 discuss in their own mother tongue, Finnish or Swedish. Overall, the informants seemed to be
8 comfortable with the interview process.

9 The theoretical framework we developed for this study functioned as a guide for data
10 collection (Miles & Huberman, 1984). Such a guide specifies what will be studied and helps to
11 avoid the so-called no-risk framework, which can occur in qualitative studies. We argue that
12 our framework absorbs existing research, categorizes service experience factors (in the
13 organized service environment), and attempts to expand the understanding of the destination
14 foodscape concept by also considering non-organized environmental dimensions, which prior
15 studies have neglected. Consequently, we structured the interview guide as open-ended to gain
16 insight into the informants' perspectives about previously experienced servicescapes (Bitner,
17 1992; Mossberg, 2007).

18 The interview guide contained three general but reflexive themes. First, the informants
19 were asked to recall and share one or two memorable food experiences (good or bad) they'd
20 had while traveling. Second, during the discussions, more precise questions were asked about
21 the impact of the organized and non-organized environments in detail, to achieve a cause-effect
22 structure, if possible. This required applying the probing technique (Zikmund, 2003), and thus,
23 individual questions were asked (Maxwell, 1996). The third theme pertained to background
24 information such as the informant's age and number of international and national trips (with at

1 least one overnight stay) taken annually. The interviews were recorded and transcribed for
2 analysis.

3

4 *3.3. Data analysis*

5

6 We employed an interpretive analytic method. First, we analyzed the data and then
7 summarized the data for theory development. We did this in an iterative process—moving back
8 and forth between theory, data, and emerging findings (Eisenhardt, 1989; Glaser & Strauss,
9 1967; Miles & Huberman, 1984). We filtered the data through a process of open coding to
10 identify concepts representing dominant themes. Then we analyzed the absorbed list of
11 concepts via axial coding. In doing so, we were able to find relational patterns between the
12 concepts. We employed selective coding to forge emerging structures and elaborate on the
13 destination foodscape concept as an environment for food experiences. The analysis of the
14 transcripts identified several elements characterizing memorized food experiences and elements
15 influencing destination foodscape experiences. In line with the logic of a grounded theory
16 approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), we constantly compared these factors, as Maxwell (1996)
17 and Miles and Huberman (1984) suggested.

18 An essential notion is that good qualitative research is trustworthy and enhances the
19 understanding of the phenomenon in focus. In this context, Guillemin and Gillman (2004, p.
20 274) emphasize reflexivity, in which the researcher reflects upon the collected data and
21 analysis, and stress that knowledge is constructed as “an active process that requires scrutiny,
22 reflection, and interrogation of the data, the researcher, the participants, and the context that
23 they inhabit.” The trustworthiness of qualitative research is established when the findings
24 emerge from the data and correspond to reality (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this study, the
25 iterative process—comparison between data and theory and across-data comparison, as a form

1 of informant triangulation—served to ensure the quality of the study (Decrop, 2004). In a
2 similar vein, informant triangulation (a wide range of informants), interviewer triangulation
3 (four persons), and data analysis triangulation (two persons) (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) were used
4 to increase credibility. In presenting the findings, we aim for transparency by explicitly
5 presenting how the data (excerpts from the data) is summed into elements and dimensions of a
6 destination foodscape.

7

8 **4. Findings: Destination foodscape**

9

10 The empirical data revealed that destination foodscape is multifarious—it is both
11 dimensional and dynamic. This section summarizes the findings in two parts. First, we discuss
12 what characterizes memorized experiences emerging from a destination’s food environment.
13 The findings demonstrate the elements within a destination foodscape that create food
14 memories. Second, we present a typology of foodscapes and detail the various foodscapes with
15 a focus on the most dominating dimensions—that is, the dimensions that characterize the
16 construct of destination foodscape—and their constituting elements.

17

18 *4.1. Characteristics of memorized experiences emerging within a destination foodscape*

19

20 The self, place, food, context, and time have been found to characterize experiential
21 food memories (Kauppinen-Räsänen, Gummerus, & Lehtola, 2013), while travelers’ food
22 experiences are found to be covered by place, food, and behavior (Björk & Kauppinen-
23 Räsänen, 2016a). The current study found that memorized experiences of a destination
24 foodscape comprise such elements as *place, atmospherics, food, sociocultural food factors, and*
25 *the intensity level of the food experience*. When it comes to the place, particularities of the place

1 were mentioned, and interestingly, place was mentioned as a two-dimensional construct. First,
2 past food experiences were mentioned in relation to a specific destination, which was linked to
3 the geographical surroundings of the foodscape as a dimension of authenticity (Robinson &
4 Clifford, 2011):

5
6 “During our travels, [while] visiting Greece, of course, means Greek dishes, it is
7 Souvlaki and wine leaves. Thailand [means] Thai food, noodles and soups” (informant,
8 man, age 52).

9
10 Second, the informants linked their past food experiences to specific food consumption
11 places. They commented on food encounters, which are organized environments and staged by
12 service organizations such as restaurants, bars, and cafés. However, the informants also
13 mentioned streets, beaches, and markets, which are food encounters not controlled by the
14 tourism industry. Specifically, the latter places involved a sense of locality such as authentic
15 fish markets, which are usually not tourist attractions:

16
17 “I think of the food experiences on the beach, you sit there at the restaurants with sea
18 view, [it is] beautiful. You watch what tourists and other people do [...] the fish markets,
19 looking at the fishermen who work hard, [...] the smell and all the noise. Maybe it is
20 the same back home, but no, I do not think that people are shouting that much, we are
21 more calm. It is something special to visit the food markets abroad.” (informant, woman,
22 50).

23
24 While the interactions with the locals were perceived as essential, sensorial aspects were
25 also mentioned, which is in line with previous research (Bitner, 1992; Kotler, 1973; Mossberg,

1 2007; Pine & Gilmore, 1998); therefore, we concluded that atmospherics add to memorized
2 food experiences. The informants also tended to talk about food experiences in terms of the
3 food sensations and how the food was different from that at home, which shows the essence of
4 food quality and the desire of novelty, also proven by past studies focusing on travelers' general
5 food experiences (e.g., Björk & Kauppinen-Räsänen, 2016b). Associated with these food-
6 related aspects, the specifics of the local food culture, such as practices and habits, added to the
7 experiences created within the destination foodscape. Finally, the analysis revealed that a
8 destination foodscape became experiential and was mentioned as remembered even though the
9 food experiences were rather ordinary; that is, the recalled experiences varied from mundane
10 practices to peak experiences. To conclude, with a special focus on the physical environment,
11 the findings uncover how place influences experiential food memories; some food
12 environments are staged with tourists in mind, while some tend to serve the local community.

13

14 *4.2. Destination foodscape: four generic types of foodscapes*

15

16 The findings in Table 2 show how foodscapes can be characterized due to the
17 environment type and for whom the environment is staged. Hence, four generic types of
18 foodscapes can be distinguished: destination service encounter (an organized environment
19 staged for tourists), destination encounter (a non-organized environment staged for tourists),
20 local service encounter (an organized environment staged for locals), and local encounter (a
21 non-organized environment staged for locals).

22

23

INSERT Table 2 here

24

1 Organized environments or service encounters are clearly identified places and defined
2 by the commercial space such as restaurants, bars, and cafés. They are featured by managed-
3 service processes and under the command of service organizations. Non-organized
4 environments or encounters are also clearly identified places, but they are not managed by
5 service organizations. These foodscapes are specifically identified by the user, who also is in
6 full control of his or her eating and dining processes.

7 An essential notion here is that the four foodscapes are not exclusive; they overlap. This
8 means that an environment, which is organized and staged with the tourists in mind (e.g., a
9 hotel bar), can be used by the locals. In a similar vein, a non-organized environment staged
10 primarily for locals (e.g., a public, but remote beach area) can also be used by tourists.

11

12 *4.2.1 Foodscape staged for tourists; experiencing authentic uniqueness*

13

14 We contend that a foodscape (organized and non-organized) staged with tourists in mind
15 is a dimensional construct comprised of the physical environment, social interactions, food
16 quality value, monetary value, and a feature characterized by divergence (Table 3).

17

18

INSERT Table 3 here

19

20 The analysis revealed that tourists tend to expect a physical environment that reflects the
21 culture, and thus, is authentic and feels different. In addition to some functional issues,
22 emotional and sensory aspects were frequently mentioned, like a pleasant physical place and
23 attractive interior; these findings align with Dube and Le Bel's conclusions (2003). The
24 informants underscored three types of social interactions within the foodscape: (1) positive
25 contacts with the service personnel, (2) other people (guests, tourists) being pleasant, and (3)

1 good relationships within one's own family. These social interactions combine to create a
2 relaxed and enjoyable experience. Hence, the social aspect stressed by Mossberg (2007) as
3 contributing to the experiencescape was substantiated by a multitude of interactions in the
4 current study. One of the informants said,

5

6 "I like, when the waiter [in a restaurant] presents what we are eating, saying something
7 about the local products and ingredients that are used, maybe where the fish has been
8 caught" (informant, woman, 38).

9

10 Another informant continued,

11

12 "Eating out on the evenings with the family is what makes the vacation trip. Good food,
13 warm weather. You do not have to prepare the food, just relax, eat and enjoy"
14 (informant, woman, 41).

15

16 Food, in terms of its taste, smell, and appearance, was described as important in a
17 foodscape. Interestingly, the informants' view of food differs depending on where it is served
18 and eaten, which further highlights the essence of various types foodscapes. For example, the
19 informants said that they expected high quality corresponding to an international standard in
20 raw materials and ingredients in fine-dining restaurants, while they evaluated food eaten on the
21 street or at the beach in terms of how the food tasted, how hygienic the food stands were, and
22 how well the food satisfied basic hunger needs.

23

24 In addition to the value of food quality, they also discussed value in terms of price. The
interviews revealed that the informants were prepared to pay a somewhat higher price for fine

1 dining, whereas street food must be inexpensive. Hence, both quality and monetary value were
2 perceived as essential for positive experiences in the foodscape.

3 Divergence was an essential aspect of destination foodscape. For example, many of the
4 informants discussed food and eating on day trips to vineyards, breweries, or distilleries. These
5 trips contributed to the informants' travel experiences because of the places' dissimilarity and
6 the feeling of contrast to the informants' everyday life.

7
8 “Wine tasting, a day trip was fantastic. The trip was completely unplanned. I do not
9 know exactly how I went to the place. But ok, a small bus, to the vineyard, we drove
10 about one hour through a very nice landscape. Then a guided tour was held by the owner,
11 at least he said that he was the owner. We looked at the barrels, he explained the
12 processes and we tasted different wines [...] I have done this before, but it is every time
13 a unique, special experience” (informant, man, 47).

14
15 These places were appreciated because of how they were staged, which included a mix of
16 education and entertainment. The informants also noted the social dimension as important for
17 their culinary-gastronomic experiences. In sum, the findings show that in an environment
18 staged for tourists, the destination foodscape's experiential value is co-created by the physical
19 environment and social aspects like interactions with the staff and other people. The act of co-
20 creation has also been stressed by several authors (e.g., Grönroos, 2008; Grönroos &
21 Gummerus, 2014; Gummesson et al., 2010; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2003).

22

23 *4.2.2 Foodscape staged for locals; experiencing the mundane*

24

1 We also assert that foodscape (organized and non-organized) staged for locals is a
2 dimensional construct. It is comprised of the physical environment and immersion (Table 4).

3
4 **INSERT Table 4 here**

5
6 The dimension of physical environment was characterized by being private. A sense of privacy
7 emerged not only from non-organized environments like beaches, hiking trails, and parks but
8 also from organized environments staged primarily for locals like food markets, food street
9 markets, farmers markets, and market halls. Hence, the sense of privacy came from being apart
10 from organized environments in general as well as being apart from environments staged
11 specifically for tourists. We observed that food experiences do not necessarily refer only to the
12 local food, but rather to the eating experience in more general terms, such as the enjoyment of
13 eating in a more “private environment,” as one informant said.

14 Above all, however, the environment contributes to the experiences at a destination,
15 when the traveler immerses him- or herself into the mundane lives of the locals, taking either
16 an active or a passive role. Previous studies have linked immersion to the consumption of places
17 (Rakic & Chambers, 2012) and perceived authenticity (Pearce, 2012). In the current study, the
18 informants expressed the importance of the mundane food environment by talking about stimuli
19 and senses and the experience of being in the intersection of what Pine and Gilmore (1998)
20 labeled “entertainment and escapism.” The leading words used by the informants were
21 “*watching*” and “*acting*.” Indeed, the empirical findings indicate that non-organized food
22 encounters are important in a destination foodscape. The informants talked about finding a good
23 vantage point to view the locals in their everyday lives as linked to food and eating. However,
24 they also mentioned aspects related to the whole logistics system (i.e. the infrastructure):

25

1 “Being on vacation, I like to go to local markets in the mornings, it is so peaceful, before
2 the day starts, the scent inside [...] it is irresistible, and the bread is so good. At home I
3 never got freshly baked bread [...] in the afternoons there are those local farmers
4 shouting out “watermelons” and other fruits and vegetables” (informant, woman, 32).

5

6 This is a context in which the informants also found great pleasure being active and contributed
7 to the destination foodscape. The informants stressed that activities like window shopping and
8 bargaining also contributed to their pleasurable experiences within the foodscape.

9 The findings show that in contrast to the environment staged for tourists, aspects related
10 to social interaction or food quality are not central features within the environment staged for
11 locals. Instead, cultural immersion or immersion in the local life contributed to the experiences
12 in this type of foodscape. These findings parallel those of Appadurai (1996), Dolphijn (2004),
13 and Long (2010), who emphasized the connectivity of food, history, and culture.

14

15

16 **5. Conclusions and future research needs**

17

18 This study elaborated on the construct of destination foodscape and explored it within
19 tourism. In accordance with past studies, the scape construct appeared multifarious. Here, the
20 destination foodscape was discovered to comprise two main dimensions: organized and non-
21 organized. Yet, most often, experiences come from organized service encounters like
22 restaurants and bars, which were staged for tourists. Bitner (1992) defined these scapes as
23 servicescapes and Mossberg (2007) as experiencescapes, and Reimer and Kuehn (2005)
24 claimed that these scapes are replete with interactions among visitors, service providers,
25 personnel, physical surroundings, and facilities.

1 In addition to the environments staged for tourists, destination food experiences emerge
2 during encounters with the everyday lives of locals, meaning the food context “outside” the
3 tourist-staged environment. The empirical findings indicate that authentic food experiences are
4 found in the everyday practices of the locals, in the streets, and in markets. Food experiences
5 also evolve among tourists themselves, who co-create them—at beaches and in parks—in small
6 groups of friends or family members, apart from other people. Therefore, we characterize the
7 destination foodscape within tourism as a dynamic food-related environment that is constantly
8 being produced and reproduced in staged and non-staged foodscapes by a varying set of actors.

9 As the discussion above shows, the study contributes by detecting that foodscapes can
10 be characterized due to the environment type and for whom the environment is staged. Hence,
11 the study uncovers four generic types of foodscapes: destination service encounter (an
12 organized environment staged for tourists), destination encounter (a non-organized
13 environment staged for tourists), local service encounter (an organized environment staged for
14 locals), and local encounter (a non-organized environment staged for locals).

15 With regard to theory, this research elaborates and explores the destination foodscape
16 construct. Previous research has focused on experiences in other more general or specific
17 contexts. However, food is a critical element that contributes to tourist experiences that can be
18 encountered in myriad ways if a journey perspective is applied (Everett, 2009). Because most
19 tourist experiences are not evaluated immediately after a service encounter, but rather long after
20 the journey has ended, models and theories that allow for a holistic approach to destination food
21 experiences are required. Responding to that request, our destination foodscape framework,
22 which accounts for food experiences in a destination, encompasses both organized and non-
23 organized environments which are staged for tourists or locals. By doing so, it resembles the
24 definition of winescape as a general concept (Hall et al., 2002; Quintal et al., 2015). Thus, this
25 research argues, in comparison with already existing theories on servicescape (Bitner, 1992)

1 and experiencescape (O'Dell, 2005; Mossberg, 2007), that destination food experiences cannot
2 be reduced to staged service encounters only. Instead, a holistic perspective is required that
3 encompasses a destination's different food-related scapes, which are interlinked and add up to
4 a destination's foodscape.

5 This study stresses that locals carry an essential promotional role, as they are essential
6 actors in creating public-private destination spaces where tourists can have more private
7 experiences such as those related to food. Additionally, this study offers three recommendations
8 for destination and tourism management: (1) emphasize serving tourists locally and on locally
9 produced food; (2) focus not only on environments, which are staged for tourists, but also on
10 the everyday lives of the locals as strong experience-enhancing actors; and (3) create places
11 where tourists can have more private food experiences. Doing so could also create new business
12 opportunities for innovative service providers offering deals with an eye toward what is
13 authentic, unique, local, tasty, healthy, convenient, and potentially sustainable and
14 environmentally friendly. Furthermore, management should recognize the strong positive
15 effects of staged visits to vineyards, breweries, and local farms on destination food experiences
16 and the fact that people tend to remember special occasions, such as birthdays, Christmas, and
17 anniversaries, which may result in shared experiences and sharing stories.

18 This exploratory study has suffered from at least four limitations, which provide
19 avenues for future research. First, the conclusions drawn and the model presented are based on
20 a small sample, which prevents us from generalizing the findings to other scapes. Further
21 research could operationalize our two dimensions and the identified aspects in a quantitative
22 study. Because food experiences in a destination often differ from what a person experiences at
23 home, additional research should consider informants' background information. Second, the
24 study did not focus on traveler segments. Hence, research could investigate the four types of
25 foodscapes as perceived by travelers with varying food interest and food-related lifestyles.

1 Third, this study took a holistic perspective on the construct of destination foodscape. A narrow
2 view on a destination's foodscape could detect specific foodscapes within environments or
3 encounters like food events and food festivals. Fourth, this study did not explicitly focus on the
4 responses to the experiences. Therefore, we suggest that research could scrutinize the
5 destination foodscape concept further for its effects on physiological, emotional, behavioral,
6 experiential, and symbolic responses. In accordance with past research, destination food
7 experiences encompass several experience-influencing factors (e.g., Jaiswal, Sapra, Patil, &
8 Lama, 2013), some of which are not controlled by the tourism industry.

9

10

11

12

13

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1 **Table 1** Food experiences across two types of food environments.

2

Service environment	Non-service environment
<u>Service provision</u>	<u>Everyday life and practices</u>
Organized setting	Authentic, local setting
Staged by the service provider	Social interaction
Social elements (customers, personnel)	Culture
Social-symbolic signs, products, souvenirs	Food systems
Food	

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1 **Table 2** Destination foodscape in the context of tourism

2

		Staged for	
		Tourists	Locals
Type of environment	Organized	<p>Destination service encounter</p> <p>Staged place primarily for tourists' use</p> <p>Example: a hotel area</p>	<p>Local service encounter</p> <p>Staged place primarily for locals' use</p> <p>Example: a local grocery shop</p>
	Non-organized	<p style="text-align: center;">DESTINATION FOODSCAPE</p> <p>Destination encounter</p> <p>Non-staged place primarily used by tourists</p> <p>Example: a beach area featured as a tourist attraction.</p>	<p>Local encounter</p> <p>Non-staged place primarily used by locals</p> <p>Example: a public beach area, which may be inaccessible by public transportation.</p>

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Table 3 The dimensionality of food environments staged for tourists.

Excerpts from the interviews*	Elements	Destination foodscape dimensions	Point of notice
<p>“The restaurant has to be in a nice location”; “the atmosphere has to be good, and the interior attractive”; “the restaurant has to look inviting”; “no long queues”; “no stress”; “the service has to run smoothly”</p>	<p>*Place; physical location *Décor; related to the senses *Structure; related to functionality *Service encounters’ story; shared information and perceived pleasure</p>	Physical environment	<p>The restaurants are in a context that influences expectations and the servicescape is critical for positive food experience</p>
<p>“The personnel have to be nice and act properly”; “there must be other guests, not too many, but not too few either”; “all family members are enjoying their dining experiences”</p>	<p>*Service provider; managers; employees *Customers; other guests, tourists *Family; relation to own family members</p>	Social interactions	<p>Other guests, tourists are important for the atmosphere. Furthermore, good family relationships create a positive dining atmosphere</p>
<p>“The most important thing is how the food tastes”; “it has to be fresh”; “abroad, you eat different food”; “the food has to be authentic, the real thing”; “different from home”</p>	<p>*Food sensation; how the food tastes, looks, and is prepared *Food locality, authenticity; associations with the culture (national or regional)</p>	Food quality value	<p>Some of the informants evaluate food quality by the number of guests</p>
<p>“We usually compare prices. We use the restaurant menus with prices [and compare that with what] we have paid in other destinations” “It is important that you can go out to have your lunch and dinner”</p>	<p>*Price–quality relationship</p>	Monetary value	<p>Destination food experiences have a comparative dimension, which extends the destination, e.g. are cross-destinational</p>
<p>“We visited a pineapple farm in Thailand, it was [the] a most complete experience. We were guided around, took some good photos, and had some very good food. It was a day trip”; “quaint environments give the food experiences a special setting”</p>	<p>*Different places; wineries, breweries, and farms *Different from everyday life; special happenings such as birthday parties, Christmas, and New Year’s Eve</p>	Divergence	<p>The informants are exact about what is offered (e.g. is locally produced and of good quality)</p>

1 **Table 4** The dimensionality of food environments staged for locals.

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Excerpts from the interviews*	Elements	Destination foodscape dimensions	Point of notice
“The best thing is when you can have your own lunch at the beach”; “usually, before going for a hike we do some provision at the local food store ... this we use as food for our journey ... being out there with your own lunchbox, fantastic”	*Privacy; tourists enjoy eating in privacy on the beaches, during hikes, and in parks	Physical environment	Food intake in “privacy” is sometimes much appreciated.
“I become very thrilled about all the exotic food I see in markets”; “my best experiences are in the local food markets”; “a restaurant does not have to be big or fancy, for me it is a place from which I can watch locals, their eating habits in the restaurant, and outside”	*Traveler taking an active role; senses are used to immerse into the mundane lives of locals *Traveler taking a passive role; mundane lives are observed from a distance, in restaurants, cafés, and bars	Immersion	Immersion into the mundane lives of the locals. Food experiences are contextual, with activities and actions as integrated components

*The excerpts were translated from Finnish and Swedish.

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