An exploratory study of food in destination marketing

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Abstract

While food, as an element of culture, is increasingly being used in many destination marketing strategies, most research on food-related tourism marketing has been conducted from the demand-side focusing on food-related visitor experiences. Moreover, most research in this domain has been dominated by Asian perspectives, neglecting emerging Western destinations. Considering these shortcomings, the overarching aim of this PhD study was to explore the use of food in destination marketing in selected destinations in Yorkshire, England, to address this gap in knowledge, and to develop recommendations for destination marketers and other industry stakeholders to assist in planning and utilising food as a cultural resource more effectively at the destination level.

The research strategy was based on an embedded single-case study with multiple units of analysis: four destination marketing organisations (DMOs) at regional and local levels. During the first stage of the data collection process, a qualitative content analysis of DMO websites was undertaken to explore how food was used in the current marketing strategies. This approach enabled the researcher to evaluate textual and visual information used to represent food on the official DMO websites at regional and local levels. The second stage involved semi-structured interviews with DMO representatives and "industry experts" and aimed to seek deeper insights into the use of food in destination marketing strategies.

The findings indicate that food in destination marketing is an area in which DMOs are increasingly active, but in which there is considerable variance. This is visible in the changing and evolving nature of the English cuisine, but also in the differences which were identified in the marketing of food in rural and urban destinations reflecting both cultural heterogenisation and homogenisation. Moreover, this study found that despite the increasing use of "local" food in destination marketing, there is a lack of consensus over what counts as "local". Accordingly, this study proposes four key dimensions representing different perceptions and judgments about what counts as "local", as indicated in this study by interview participants as well as the review of the literature. In addition, this study identified the changing nature of DMOs and destination marketing as well as numerous challenges that DMOs face in delivering value to consumers and stakeholders. In particular, in view of the increasingly important role of food, this study has identified the activities of cooperation and networking among and between public and private sectors as pre-requisites to the effective implementation of food in destination marketing activities.

Author’s declaration

I certify that the work presented in this thesis is, to the best of my knowledge and belief, original, except as acknowledged in the text, and that the material has not been submitted, either in whole or in part, for a degree at this or any other university.

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I am deeply indebted to my supervisors, **Dr Peter Whalley and Dr Paul Fallon**, for supporting me during these past three years. Besides being very supportive, they gave me complete freedom to pursue various projects. In addition to our academic collaboration, I greatly value the close personal rapport that Peter, Paul and I have forged over the years. I also would like to thank **Professor Peter Schofield** for his helpful final draft reading and suggestions.

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Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to my grandmother, **Monika Stalmirska**, and to the loving memory of my grandfather, **Feliks Stalmirski**. They never stopped sharing their wisdom, support and encouragement to study.

Ta praca doktorska dedykowana jest mojej babci, **Monice Stalmirskiej**, i pamięci mojego kochanego dziadka, **Feliksa Stalmirskiego**. Zawsze dzielili się oni swoją mądrością, wsparciem i zachętą do nauki.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the study

1.1 Introduction

While food, as an element of culture, is increasingly being used in many destination marketing and management strategies, research on food-related tourism marketing is especially limited in Western cultures. This signals the gap in research and provides an opportunity for the current study to contribute to knowledge in this area by focussing on a number of destinations in the region of Yorkshire, England.

Tourism in England is an interesting case, as with the new tourism strategy the government has recognised the significant potential proffered by the use of food in tourism. What is more, linking food with tourism has also been recognised by a growing number of DMOs in England. However, despite this, there has been no empirical evidence examining this phenomenon in the context of destination marketing English destinations. Thus, gaining a deeper understanding of the current use of food as a destination marketing tool is fundamental to assist in the designing of future destination marketing strategies that would enable to achieve a greater competitive advantage and increase the profile of England's cities, towns and rural areas as unique destinations. Consequently, the purpose of this chapter is to provide a rationale for the present study aiming to explore the use of food in destination marketing in selected destinations in Yorkshire and to develop recommendations for destination marketers and other industry stakeholders to assist in planning and utilising food as a cultural resource more effectively at the destination level.

This chapter begins with the consideration of the main issue this PhD study concentrates on and the research context. In particular, the need for the present research study within the current tourism academic knowledge is acknowledged. This is made by identifying the limitations of and gaps in previous research studies on the issues highlighted that require investigation. Secondly, based on the gaps recognised, the main aim and objectives of the present study are established. Thirdly, a research framework is presented outlining the overall research design and approach. Fourthly, the relevance and justification for undertaking this study are explained. Lastly, the chapter finishes with the section in which the structure of the PhD thesis is outlined.

1.2 Background of research

Destination marketing is becoming extremely competitive worldwide (Buhalis, 2000; Kozak and Kozak, 2016). Whilst tourists enjoy a plethora of choices of available destinations, DMOs at all levels are competing for attention amongst an increasing amount of marketing activity (Wang and Pizam, 2011). Furthermore, it is becoming increasingly difficult for destinations to differentiate against rivals offering similar attributes and benefits. Morgan and Pritchard (2004, p.60) state that:

> *“most destinations have superb five-star resorts and attractions, every country claims to have a unique culture, landscape and heritage, each place describes itself as having the friendliest people, and high standards of customer service".*

Thus, destinations are competing in increasingly contested markets with little to distinguish them from each other (Kotler, Haider and Rein, 1993). As competition in the tourism industry intensifies, culture is increasingly seen as an asset for, and means of, product differentiation (Richards, 2012). This is because of a recent shift from an era of industrial to one of cultural capitalism (Yeoman, McMahon-Beattie, Fields, Albrecht and Meethan, 2015) as well as the rise of the experience economy and experience marketing (Pine and Gilmore, 1999). For that reason, culture has been more prominently employed as an aspect of the tourism product and in destination marketing strategies. The predominant direction of this expansion has been into culture which is seen to include the cultural activities of everyday life (Williams, 2002). This exemplifies a movement away from the traditional view of cultural tourism associated with high culture and with "cultured" people (Richards, 2007). High art is used and celebrated in destination marketing alongside “popular”, “everyday” and “street” culture (Smith, 2016).

At the destination level, building on cultural resources and experiences becomes an important aspect in contemporary tourism (Yeoman et al., 2015). While eating is a basic human need, food can also be a tourist attraction and a reason for travel. Increasingly food, as an element of culture, is being used in many destination marketing and management strategies to benefit not only the tourism industry and the visitor, but also economic, social and environmental aspects of a destination.

According to the literature, destination marketers have started to realise the great potential of food in marketing the distinctiveness of the destination, as well as contributing to the competitiveness of the destination (Du Rand and Heath, 2006; Kivela and Crotts, 2006; Lin, Pearce and Cai, 2011; Okumus, Kock, Scantlebury and Okumus, 2013). This is because when combined with tourism, food can provide a natural competitive advantage, not easily replicated when specific to a location and a culture (Mulcahy, 2015). Similarly, according to McKercher, Okumus and Okumus (2008), an increasing number of destinations are using food as a means to differentiate themselves and to expand the market.

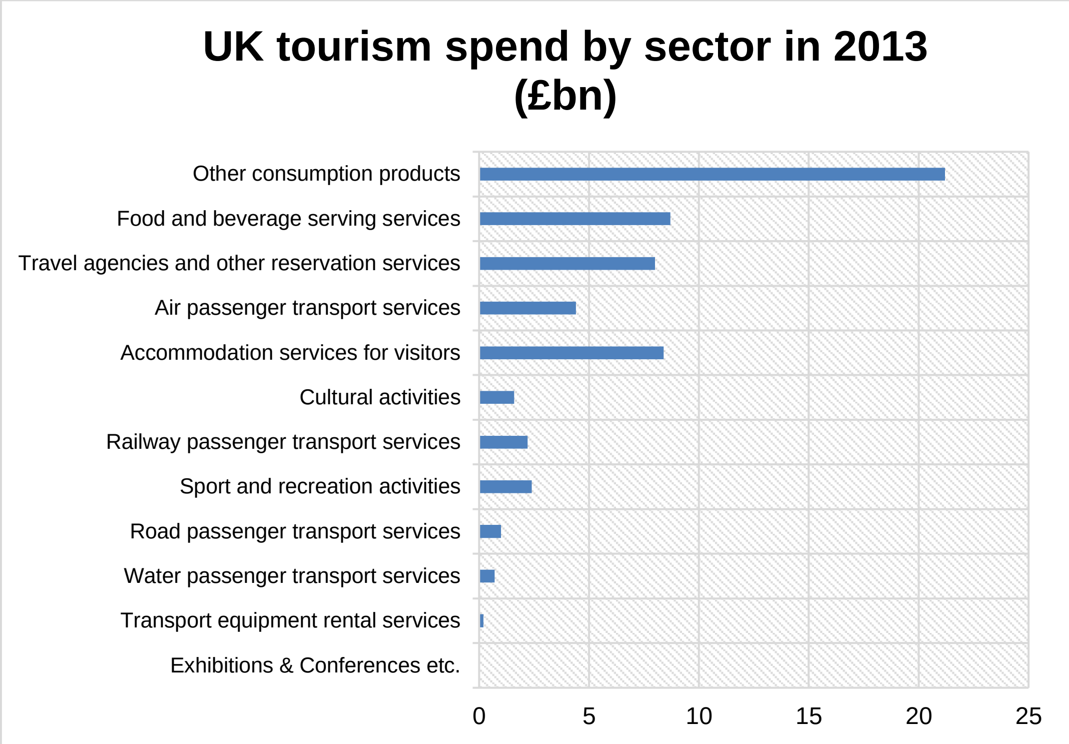
Moreover, food-based tourism is increasingly recognised as a useful tool in destination branding and promotion (Du Rand, Heath and Alberts, 2003). In particular, a number of studies evaluate the utilisation of food by destinations either through the analysis of official destination booklets, brochures and websites (Boyne, Hall and Williams; 2003; Horng and Tsai, 2010; Jalis, Che and Markwell, 2014; Kim, Yuan, Goh and Antun, 2009; Okumus, Okumus and McKercher, 2007; Okumus et al., 2013) or through interviews with destination marketers (Harrington and Ottenbacher, 2010), or the combination of both (Du Rand, Heath and Alberts, 2003; Du Rand and Heath, 2006; Horng and Tsai, 2012a; Horng and Tsai, 2012b; Lin, Pearson and Cai, 2011).

England, as one of the top 10 destinations in the world (UNWTO, 2016), is one of the many countries around the world focussing on the opportunities that the linkage of food and tourism provides and has used it as a means of destination differentiation. According to the new strategy, tourism is vitally important to the UK economy (Department for Culture, Media & Sport, 2016). Taking into account direct and indirect impacts (including aspects like the supply chain), tourism in England contributes £106 billion to the British economy (GDP) and supports 2.6 million jobs (Visit Britain, no date). In 2015 there were 36.1 million inbound visits to the UK in 2015 and London was the most popular destination in the UK, attracting 51% of all visits (House of Commons Library, 2016). In addition, there were 114.2 million domestic overnight trips made in Great Britain in 2014, a fall of 7% on the number of domestic visits made in 2013 (House of Commons Library, 2016).

However, Rhodes (2016) notes that tourism has grown more quickly than other industries in the UK since 2008. In particular, the biggest tourism related industry is the food and beverage serving sector, employing 1.6 million people in 2013, which constituted 55% of tourism related jobs. According to the Office for National Statistics (2014), the UK tourism industry employment has grown cumulatively at nearly double the rate of non-tourism industries between 2009 and 2013 with growth rates of 5.4% (tourism industry) and 2.4% (non-tourism industry) respectively. Of this growth, the food and drink serving industry has grown at the fastest rate with growth of 8.8% over the period, or an increase of 99,900 in employment (Office for National Statistics, 2014).

Most recently, the Tourism Alliance (2017a) has published the annual review of tourism statistics which brings together the headline tourism figures from the three main national tourism surveys and combines them with key information from other studies and publications to provide an overview of the size and value of tourism to the UK economy (Tourism Alliance, 2017a). In particular, the Tourism Alliance seeks to establish and maintain a favourable operating environment for all businesses involved in the delivery of tourism, particularly in England. According to its latest report, the food and beverage serving sector contributed significantly to the overall tourism spend in 2013, even more than the accommodation sector (Figure 1).

Figure 1. UK tourism spend by sector (source: Tourism Alliance, 2017b)



Clearly, the parts of the tourism industry that have seen the biggest growth since 2008 have been the food and drink service industry. Accordingly, this significant potential of food in tourism has been recognised in the new tourism strategy. In August 2016 the government published a new “Tourism Action Plan” including a series of new initiatives and measures to help the UK out-compete other major tourism destinations, welcoming more visitors than ever before and see more staycations (Department for Culture, Media & Sport, 2016). One of the major parts of the plan is the new £40 million “Discover England Fund” aimed to deliver new tourism outside London and ease travel around Britain, helping visitors from abroad as well as Brits holidaying at home to explore the wealth of tourism opportunities across the country. According to the Department for Culture, Media & Sport (2016, no page), the funding is designed for “*projects to shine a spotlight on some of the country’s great cultural and sporting assets, from music festivals to championship golf courses and <u>our world-class cuisine</u>*” (emphasis added by the author).

Indeed, food features heavily as one of the major pillars of the new GREAT campaign (which was published as part of the new tourism plan) promoting the best of Britain. In particular, this part of the campaign lies in the hands of

Department for Environment Food & Rural Affairs (DEFRA) and its Great British Food Campaign aiming to celebrate England's world class food industry and culture, drive tourism growth and jobs in the sector and establish the destination's reputation as a great food nation (Great British Food Campaign, no date).

As part of the Great British Food Campaign, local food and tourism organisations are able to apply for a dedicated £150,000 grant to fund food tourism projects principally delivered in England. The grant was announced in the light of results from the Rural Tourism and Local Food and Drink report, commissioned by DEFRA and published in February 2016. The report concludes that a localised food and drink offer can enhance the tourism offer of rural destinations and offer benefits to rural businesses and economies by attracting additional visitors, encouraging greater tourism expenditures and extending the tourism season (White, 2016). Consequently, the overarching aims of the grant scheme are to:

- increase the attractiveness of destinations, by enhancing its local identity and reputation by offering food-related recreational opportunities for visitors;
- extend the tourism season, by supporting year-round tourism in the form of food and drinks based attractions such as trails, festivals, markets or other initiatives providing opportunities to attract visitors at different times of the year;
- increase the retention of tourism expenditures in the local economy.

In essence, the new grant allows local partnerships, which could include community groups, trade bodies and National Parks, to group together and bid for up to £25,000 each. The money will then be used to champion regional food and drink, growing local businesses and potentially creating more jobs (DEFRA, 2016a).

Clearly, with the new tourism strategy the government has recognised the significant potential proffered by the use of food in tourism. The new strategy also allows for more proactive marketing of food in tourism promotions and encourages the tourism and food industries to work together for mutual benefit. Linking food with tourism has also been recognised by some regional and local DMOs in England. In regions such as Yorkshire, a series of "Delicious" tourist trials were created in addition to the "Tour de Yorkshire Cuisine – An edible journey" campaign (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016). Furthermore, within Yorkshire a number of places have started to be known for their food-related tourism offer. For example, in 2011 York was voted by TripAdvisor a top 10 European destination for food and wine (Visit York, 2016). Most recently, Bradford has been named Britain's Curry capital for the sixth time in a row (Visit Bradford, 2016), while Malton has been named as Yorkshire's Food Capital (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016). In addition, there have been other food-related tourism developments in the region of Yorkshire, such as: food trails (for example: Chocolate Trail in York), speciality food groups (for example: the Yorkshire Pantry), food festivals (for example: Sheffield Food Festival) and farm shops (for example: Cannon Hall Farm).

However, while food has clearly emerged as a part of the tourism offer and despite this recent elevation of food in tourism, there has been no empirical evidence examining this phenomenon in the context of destination marketing across destinations in England. Although Boyne, Hall and Williams (2003) describe the development context for food-related tourism initiatives in the UK, the scope of their study is limited to an evaluation of food-related tourism initiatives in the UK promoted on the official tourism websites. Thus, research into the involvement of the official DMOs and relevant stakeholders in destination marketing through food, is almost non-existent. Therefore, there is a need to explore the various destination marketing strategies and initiatives of selected destinations in England. It is also crucial to seek deeper insights into the perceptions of this phenomenon as perceived by DMO representatives and industry stakeholders.

1.3 Aim of the study and research objectives

The gaps in the literature that were identified in section 1.2 led to the central research question: how and why is food used in destination marketing? On this basis, the overarching aim of this study is to explore the use of food in destination marketing in selected destinations and to develop recommendations for destination marketers and other industry stakeholders to assist in planning and utilising food as a cultural resource more effectively at the destination level.

In order to reach this aim, the study has five key research objectives (ROs). These are:

RO1: To explore the literature on food and destination marketing. This will contribute to setting the context for the research and identify gaps in the academic knowledge.

RO2: To create a conceptual framework to guide the research and justify the case study chosen having drawn upon the literature review and identified potential research gaps.

RO3: To explore how food is promoted on the official DMO websites of selected destinations in Yorkshire, England.

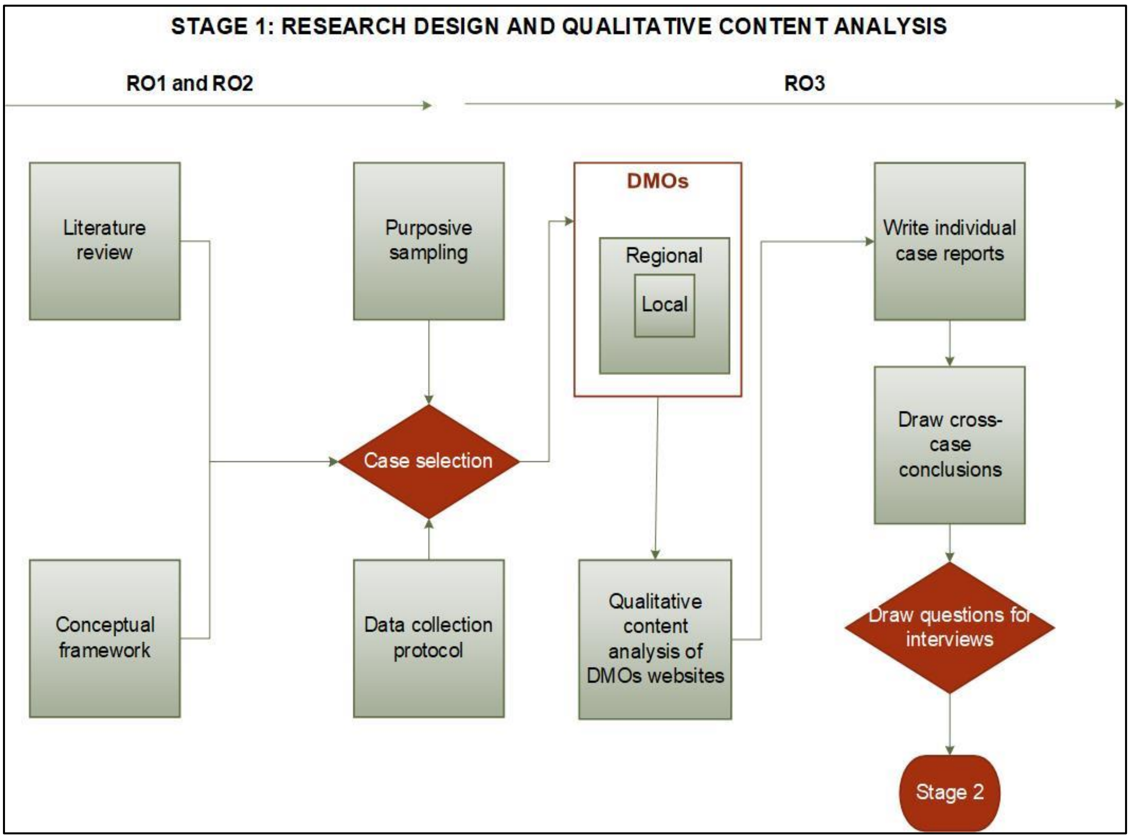
RO4: To investigate and identify stakeholders' opinions regarding the use of food in destination marketing in the selected DMOs.

RO5: To identify theoretical and practical guidelines and recommendations to assist planning for the use of food as a cultural resource more effectively at the destination level.

1.4 Research framework

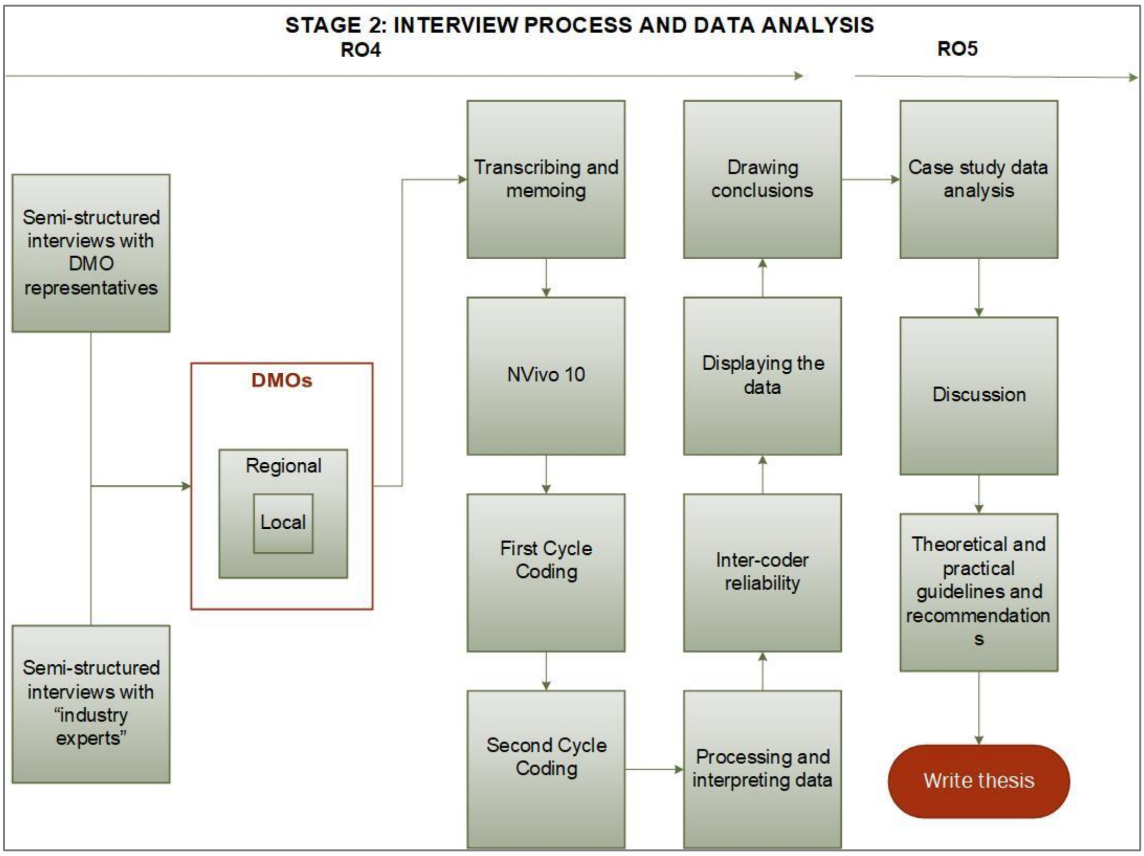
This study adopts a two-stage research approach depicted in Figure 2 and Figure 3. It was thought that such an approach would allow the author to study the phenomenon of food and destination marketing in-depth and from many different angles.

Figure 2. Research framework stage 1 (source: author)



As illustrated in Figure 2, stage 1 involves a qualitative content analysis of DMO websites to investigate how food is used in the current destination marketing strategies. This approach enables the researcher to evaluate textual and visual information used to represent food on the official DMO websites at various levels. A range of regional and local DMO websites include: Welcome to Yorkshire; Visit Peak District and Derbyshire; Welcome to Sheffield and Visit York. This methodological approach is informed by a number of previous content analysis studies of websites and brochures with a focus on food in tourism. In keeping in particular with the approach of Silkes, Cai and Lehto (2013) open coding is utilised to discover the themes and to avoid making the data fit pre-conceived categories.

Figure 3. Research framework stage 2 (source: author)



Stage 2, as illustrated in Figure 3, includes semi-structured interviews with DMO representatives and "industry experts" and aims to seek deeper insights into the use of food in destination marketing strategies. Interview participants are chosen by means of purposive, convenience and snowball sampling. Interview questions are based on the results from the qualitative content analysis as well as literature review.

1.5 Significance of the study

Rather than focus on the demand-side, which has already been heavily explored in previous studies, this study explores the supply-side to provide a clearer picture of the complexity of the destination marketing process in the context of food and tourism. Only a limited number of studies have examined the role of food in destination marketing, however most of them tend to focus on Asian destinations (for example: Henderson, 2004, 2014, 2016; Horng and Tsai, 2010; Okumus et al., 2007).

Although a similar study was conducted by Boyne, Hall and Williams (2003), their scope of study was limited to evaluation of food-related tourism initiatives in the UK promoted on the official tourism websites. Boyne et al. (2003) did not conduct interviews with industry stakeholders, unlike the present study. In fact, research into the involvement of the official DMOs and relevant stakeholders in destination marketing through food, is almost non-existent. Therefore, there is a need to critically examine the various destination marketing strategies and initiatives of selected destinations in Yorkshire, England and their associated stakeholders to promote and integrate local cuisine into the tourist experience.

At the time of writing Boyne et al. (2003) stated that food and gastronomy-related tourism initiatives were at an early stage of the product development life cycle in the UK and consequently food initiatives were not suitably represented on the websites of their respective official local tourist boards. Given that almost 15 years have passed since then, the current study is very timely and is going to provide an up-to-date picture of the current use of food as an element in destination marketing in England. This is crucial, as in the last few years, there has been an expansion in the number of food-based tourism activities in England, as outlined in section 1.2. This has highlighted a need for more information on this phenomenon and the current research makes a noteworthy and timely contribution to this end by developing the corpus of knowledge on the topic.

Given the fact that a typical visitor spends about a third of their travel expenses on food-related purchases (Chaney and Ryan, 2012), thus, food consumption accounts for a substantial component of tourism expenditure (Du Rand, Heath and Alberts, 2003; McKercher et al., 2008; Nield, Kozak and LeGrys, 2000). On this basis, food may be a viable market segment (McKercher et al., 2008) which is important for DMOs facing the challenge of managing their already small budgets and simultaneously protecting their funds from even further government invasions justified by other local priorities, as will be explained in section 2.3.3 of this thesis. Hence, the results of this study are expected to provide valuable guidelines and recommendations for DMOs, tourism institutions and other stakeholders. The research findings will assist them in planning and utilising food as a cultural resource more effectively at the destination level.

As it was identified earlier (section 1.2) most previous studies tend to evaluate the utilisation of food by destinations either through the analysis of official destination booklets, brochures and websites (Boyne et al., 2003; Horng and Tsai, 2010; Jalis, Che and Markwell, 2014; Kim, Yuan, Goh and Antun, 2009; Okumus et al., 2007; Okumus et al., 2013) or through interviews with destination marketers (Harrington and Ottenbacher, 2010). However, this study uses a combination of both: qualitative content analysis and semi-structured interviews. Thus, although the research methods in this study are not new, they are combined in ways that only a limited number of studies have done previously (for example: Du Rand et al., 2003; Du Rand and Heath, 2006; Horng and Tsai, 2012a; Horng and Tsai, 2012b; Lin et al., 2011). This enables a detailed collection of data and leads to a rich portrayal of the use of food in destination marketing in selected destinations. What is more, this study is expected to establish a two-step data collection procedure which can be reapplied in future studies.

1.6 Thesis structure

Chapter 1 has introduced the background and research objectives of the study and provided the rationale for the research undertaken on how food is used in destination marketing. It has also tentatively offered the anticipated outcomes and contributions to knowledge resulting from the study.

The review of the literature is presented in **Chapter 2** and provides the analysis of the current literature relevant to the study. Its first two sections comprehensively scrutinise the literature to reveal gaps in the scholarly discussions, so as to provide solid and robust theoretical and conceptual perspectives for the study. More specifically, Chapter 2 explains the relationship between food and tourism and covers a review of the destination marketing literature. This critical analysis in the literature review chapter forms a solid basis for the formation of the proposed conceptual framework presented in section 2.4 which graphically represents the main elements contained within this study and the presumed relationships among them. It is important to note that the proposed conceptual framework should be viewed as explorative and descriptive in nature rather than explanatory.

Chapter 3 is a methodology chapter which discusses the research design informed by the literature review. It explains in detail the research philosophy, research strategy, the research methods (qualitative content analysis, semi-structured interviews), as well as the rationale for the specific methodology used to address the research aim and objectives.

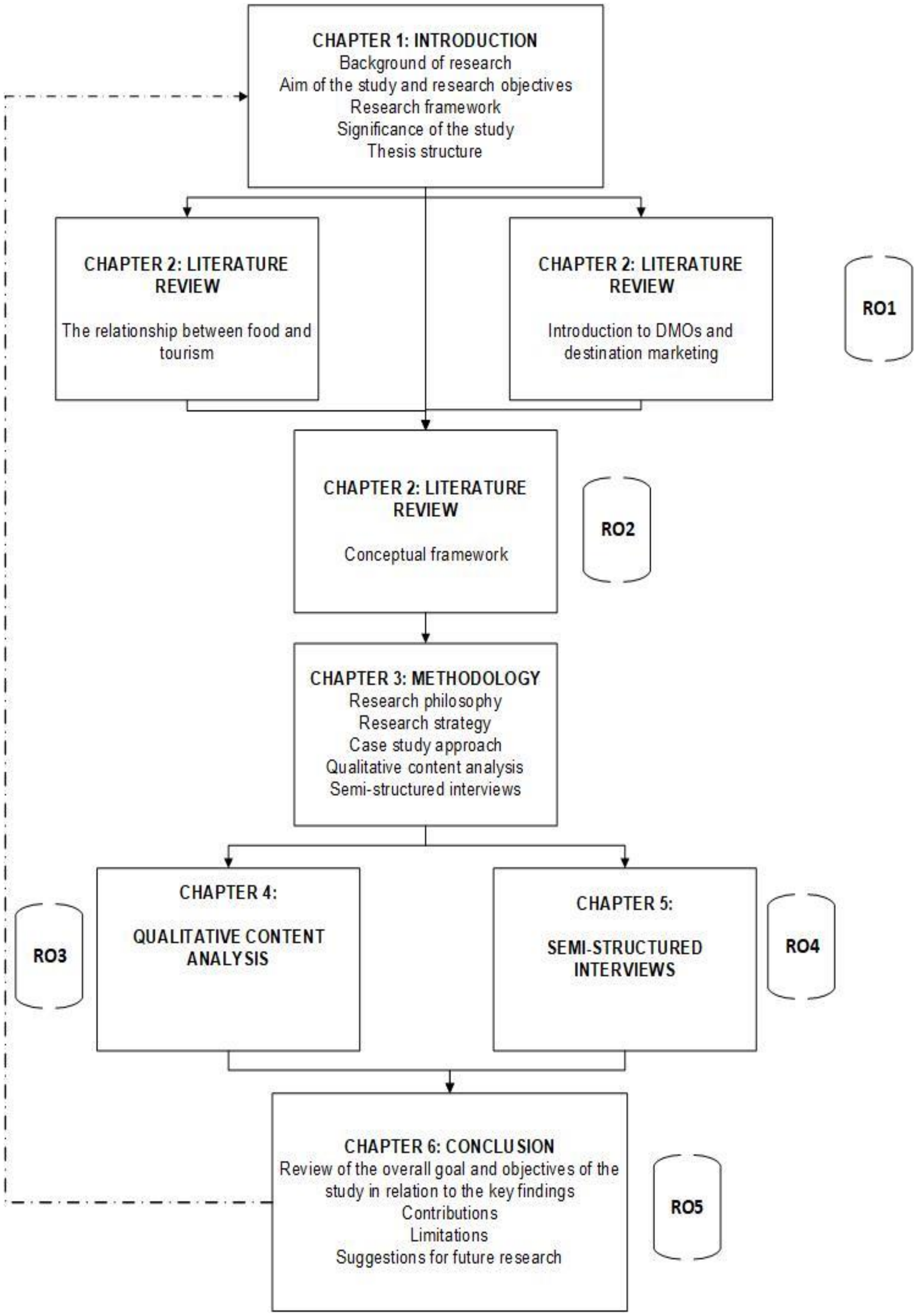
Chapter 4 is an investigation of content analysis data and reports the findings. It also explains data analysis procedures by providing visual examples of the research data management from NVivo software.

Chapter 5 reports the qualitative data gathered from the semi-structured interviews. This chapter also presents the main findings of this study in relation to the issues identified in the literature review and practical implications that they present. It focuses on the differences identified in the marketing of food in rural and urban destinations. This chapter also discusses the issue of “local” food and the changing remit of DMOs. Lastly, based on the challenges and opportunities identified, the discussion proposes recommendations which are believed to assist in planning and utilising food as a cultural resource more effectively at the destination level. In particular, food stories are suggested as vehicles for a more inclusive and well-coordinated destination marketing practices.

Finally, **Chapter 6** concludes the thesis by critically reviewing and discussing the major findings in relation to the research objectives outlined in Chapter 1. Following this discussion, the theoretical and practical contributions of the study are presented along with its limitations, and recommendations for further research.

Figure 4 illustrates the structure of this thesis.

Figure 4. Thesis structure (source: author)



Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1 Chapter introduction

Chapter 1 has provided background information and outlined some of the questions relating to the study of food in destination marketing. It has also presented the rationale for conducting this research. The purpose of this chapter is to present the review of literature (RO1) and the conceptual framework (RO2). This is undertaken by examination of prior research and theory related to the use of food in destination marketing.

Firstly, a discussion on a range of topics specifically addressing the relationship between food and tourism is presented. Definitions of food-related tourism are presented and considered. Food is also presented as a window to and representation of another culture. This is followed by a discussion of the studies dedicated to depicting the use of food as a destination marketing tool and the utilisation of food as a destination attraction itself.

Secondly, this chapter begins with an examination of the complexity of destination marketing and DMOs. The definitions of destination marketing are explored which is followed by discussion illustrating the difficulty of defining a destination due to the large number and varied uses of the term. The general functions of a DMO are widely explained followed by the discussion of the three phases in the development of destination marketing literature. Numerous challenges in destination marketing are also outlined, however, the main focus is on the issues stemming from the new political and economic context in England where DMOs are expected to have a more broadly based mandate, yet operate in a heavily resource-constrained environment.

This chapter finishes with a presentation of the conceptual framework which provides a visual representation of interlinked concepts that together provide a comprehensive understanding of a phenomenon under investigation.

2.2 The relationship between food and tourism

Food plays a significant part in all aspects of human life, from fulfilling basic physiological needs to building social interactions and psychological expression (Tikannen, 2007). It has become recognised as a manifestation of culture and has emerged as one of the popular aspects of cultural tourism (Bessiere, 1998). Richards (2012) claims that besides its role as cultural identity, food is recognised as one of the elements of creativity in everyday life that can engage many visitors. Thus, food can be used as a means of marketing destinations (Richards, 2002).

As one of the cultural products, the role of food has become increasingly important in destination marketing. Thus, this section seeks to develop an understanding of how food, as a component of culture, is used in destination marketing. It starts with the definition of food-related tourism, then the link between food and culture is explained, followed by an exploration of literature on food in destination marketing.

2.2.1 Food-related tourism

Many different terms have been applied to express the connection between food and tourism (Everett, 2016). This includes: “food tourism” (Hall, Sharples, Mitchell, Macionis and Cambourne, 2004; Yeoman et al., 2015), “culinary tourism” (Harrington and Ottenbacher, 2010; Ignatov and Smith, 2006; Long, 2004; López-Guzmán and Sánchez-Cañizares, 2012; Smith and Costello, 2009), “food and drink tourism” (Everett, 2016), “food and wine tourism” (Croce and Perri, 2017), “gastronomy tourism” (Hjalager and Richards, 2002) and “tasting tourism” (Boniface, 2003). These various phrases are often used interchangeably to signpost a phenomenon where food is an important factor influencing travel behaviour and decision making (Hall et al., 2003). They usually incorporate an appreciation of beverages, both alcoholic and non-alcoholic (Hall, 2003), although wine tourism, and recently emerging craft beer tourism, are usually studied and marketed independently (Hall, 2000; Mintel, 2014). The definitions of these terms are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Sample of definitions of food-related tourism (source: author)

Author	Definition
Hall and Sharples (2003, p.10)	Food tourism: "*visitation to primary and secondary food producers, food festivals, restaurants and specific locations (…) it is the desire to experience a particular type of food or the produce of a specific region*."
Long (2004, p.21)	Culinary tourism: "*Intentional, exploratory participations in the foodways of an Other, participation including the consumption- or preparation and presentation for consumption- of a food item, cuisine, meal system, or eating style considered as belonging to a culinary system not one's own*."
Kivela and Crotts (2005, p.42)	Gastronomy tourism: "*Travelling for the purpose of exploring and enjoying the destination's food and beverage and to savour unique and memorable gastronomy experiences."*
Ignatov and Smith (2006, p. 238)	Culinary tourism*: "Tourism trips during which the purchase or consumption of regional foods (including beverages), or the observation and study of food production (from agriculture to cooking schools) represent a significant motivation or activity". "Concerns the self-aware and conscious interest in experiencing a destination through its foods.*"
Harrington and Ottenbacher (2010, p.14)	Culinary tourism: "*culinary tourism is defined as tourism where an opportunity for memorable food and drink experiences contributes significantly to travel motivation and behaviour*."
Bertella (2011, p.355)	Food tourism: "*A form of tourism in which food is one of the motivating factors for travel."*
Everett and Slocum (2013, p.769)	Food tourism: "*The desire to experience a particular type of food or the produce of a specific region and covers a vast number of gastronomic opportunities for tourists as well as involving numerous economic development schemes*."
Wolf (2014, p.12)	Food tourism: "*The pursuit and enjoyment of unique and memorable food and drink experiences, both far and near.*"
Everett (2016, p.11)	Food and drink tourism: "*food and drink motivated travel, which reflects any level of desire to engage in an experience involving food and drink away from home (primary and secondary motivation)."*
Mintel (2017, no page)	"*Food tourism is wide ranging, from gourmet experiences to street food, and encompasses many other food-related activities such as cooking classes, food festivals, wine and beer tastings and food purchases. Immersion in local culture is also key to a food-tourism trip so while food tourists are primarily motivated to visit a destination because of the cuisine, they are also likely to be culturally interested in the destination as a whole*."

As demonstrated in Table 1, a variety of definitions have been applied in regard to food-related tourism. For example, Long (2004) develops the term "culinary tourism" as the art of experiencing cultures other than one's own through food. In particular, Long (2004, p.20) states that "*culinary tourism is about food as a subject and medium, destination and vehicle, for tourism*". However, according to Wolf (2014), the term "culinary" implies higher-end experiences, similarly to "gourmet" which he defines as pursuit and enjoyment of premium and expensive food and drink experiences when travelling (Wolf, 2014). Ignatov and Smith (2006), on the other hand, define "culinary", as similar to "cuisine". They state that while “cuisine” is a noun that denotes styles of food preparation, “culinary” is a more encompassing term emphasising not just the style of cooking, but it also refers to ingredients, prepared foods, beverages, food production, motivations, activities, institutional structures, and food tourism itself (Ignatov and Smith, 2006).

In a similar vein, “gastronomy tourism” can be translated as "*the art, or science, of good eating*" (Gillespie and Cousins, 2001, p.2) which implies that this type of tourism is concerned with the enjoyment of good food and beverages as part of an affluent or aesthetically superior lifestyle (Horng and Tsai, 2010). Moreover, Ignatov and Smith (2006) explain that “gastronomy tourism” denotes appreciation of wine and other beverages and how they pair with food.

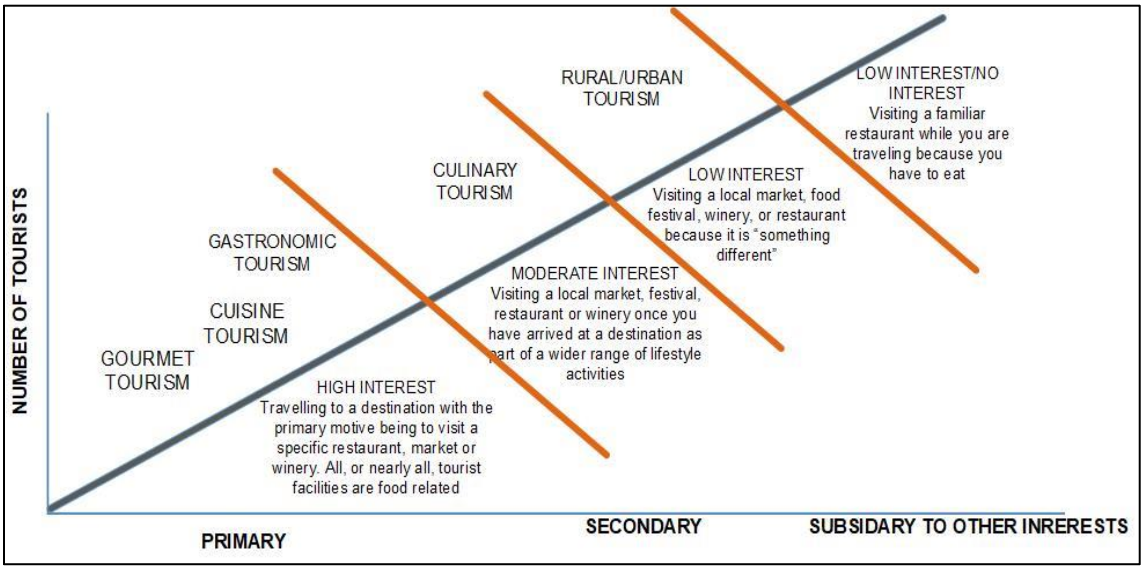
However, Wolf (2014) argues that the term “food tourism” is more appropriate as a majority of people just enjoy great food and not necessarily the expensive kind. For that reason, Wolf (2014) adopts the terms “food travel” and “food tourism” as more appropriate ones while discounting “culinary tourism” and “gastronomic tourism”. Wolf’s (2014) definition is an interesting one, as it describes food-related tourism as: “*the pursuit and enjoyment of unique and memorable food and drink experiences, both far and near*”. This means that in addition to traveling across the country or the world, one can also be seen as taking part in food-related tourism in their own country, county, city or neighbourhood.

Other definitions vary over whether food should be the primary or merely part of the overall touristic experience. For example, Harrington and Ottenbacher (2010, p. 14) define food-related tourism as: “*tourism where an opportunity for memorable food and drink experiences contributes significantly to travel motivation and behaviour*”. A similar definition is provided by Ignatov and Smith (2006, p. 238):

> *“tourism trips during which the purchase or consumption of regional foods (including beverages), or the observation and study of food production (from agriculture to cooking schools) represent a significant motivation or activity.”*

However, the most cited definition to date is provided by Hall and Sharples (2003). They define food tourism as: “a *visitation to primary and secondary food* *producers, food festivals, restaurants and specific locations (…) it is the desire to experience a particular type of food or the produce of a specific region*". Moreover, Hall and Sharples (2003) use the term "food tourism", as encompassing other types of food-related tourism (Figure 5).

Figure 5. Food tourism types (adapted from: Hall and Sharples, 2003, p.11)



As can be seen from Figure 5, Hall and Sharples (2003) propose a continuum of food tourism based on the centrality of food as a motivation to travel. However, there appears to be a discrepancy between their definition of food tourism and their subsequent segmentation of food tourism. If, as they propose, food tourism is defined as tourism where food is the "*primary motivating factor for travel*", then categorisation based on the criterion of "food as the secondary travel motivating factor" seems inappropriate. What is more, the model has not been tested empirically and it is intuitive and based on assumptions only.

As demonstrated above, there is no single accepted definition of food-related tourism and this concept has been defined in various ways. To take the argument even further, Everett (2016) states that food-related tourism is difficult to define, as other types and sectors of tourism also include elements of food-related tourism, such as for example cultural tourism (attractions and local cuisines), festival and event tourism (food and drink festivals and events), and heritage tourism (museums and places of production). Thus, the embedded nature of food-related tourism makes it difficult to define.

However, while many different terms and descriptions are used that cover slightly different aspects of food-related tourism, at the same time there are some overlaps. For example, all definitions emphasise the relative importance of food as a motivation to travel to a particular destination. Specifically, the definitions in Table 1 consider the food of a particular location as an important and even primary motivating factor for the tourist to travel. Thus, the motivation of tourists to travel to the destination is generally considered to be significantly influenced by the desire to savour local food and this seems to be embedded in the relevant definitions (Table 1).

Having considered different definitions of food-related tourism, it can be summarised that this type of tourism comprises these following characteristics:

- food is a reason to travel;
- eating creates memorable travelling experiences;
- tourists consume cultural products through eating at the destination.

It has to be noted that the above definitions are all consumer-focused definitions. However, the focus of this research is on DMOs and producers, so the supply-side of tourism. For that reason, the term "food-related tourism" is going to be used in this study. This is in line with Boyne et al. (2003) who applied this term in their study due to food-related tourism initiatives being at an early stage of the product development life cycle in the UK. It has to be noted that currently there is a growing recognition of the relationship between food and tourism. However, despite this recent elevation of food in tourism, there has been no empirical evidence examining this phenomenon in the context of destination marketing across selected destinations in England. Therefore, it is believed that "food-related tourism" is more appropriate, as it denotes that food, albeit important, may be a secondary product. What is more, as food is a *"polysemic[1] artefact"* (Everett, 2016, p.51), it is believed that the term "food-related tourism" signifies a more encompassing phenomenon which is thought to be able to lead to a more comprehensive understanding of the issues in this study.

[1] Having more than one meaning; having multiple meanings.

In order to ensure consistency, a single term “food-related tourism” will be used in the rest of this thesis.

2.2.2 Food as culture

Food – its cultivation, preparation and consumption – has long been considered as part of culture (Brulotte and Di Giovine, 2014; Counihan and Van Esterik, 2008; Fieldhouse, 1995; Fischler, 1980; Hegarty and O'Mahony, 2001; Korsmeyer, 2005). In particular, throughout the book “Food is culture” (Montanari, 2006) there is an underlying proposition that food is cultural and the book explores the premise that everything having to do with food represents a cultural act, “*however artless it may seem” (*Sonnenfeld, 2006, p.IX).

However, to understand the cultural predisposition of food, the concept of culture has to be explored. A sample of definitions of “culture” can be found in Table 2 on the next page. However, as a preliminary to this review of the various definitions of “culture”, it is worth considering some details of the general history of this word. Etymology is probably the first of all vehicles for determining the meaning of a word (Roberts, 2007). It includes both the study of the history of words and a statement of the origin and history of a given word, including changes in its form and meaning (McArthur, 1998). In the case of culture, there are some intriguing details. For example, according to Bolaffi (2003), the English word “culture” comes from the Latin verb “colere”, which means, variously, “to till,” “to cultivate”, “foster”, “care for”, “pay attention to”, “honour” or “worship” and from the noun “cultura”. Cresswell (2009) states that in early examples, a culture was “a cultivated piece of land”, in late Middle English the meaning was “cultivation of the soil” and this was then developed during the early 16th century into “cultivation of the mind or manners”. Moreover, reference to the arts and other examples of human achievement dates from the early 19th century (Cresswell, 2009). According to Bolaffi (2003), the world “culture”, with its classical anthropological definition, was established in English in 1871 by Tylor as “*that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society*” (cited in Bolaffi, 2003, p.61).

Table 2. A sample of definitions of "culture" (source: author)

Author	Definition of "culture"
Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952, p.181)	*"Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behaviour acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiment in artefacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values; culture systems may, on the one hand, be considered as products of action, on the other, as conditional elements of future action*."
Fladmark (1994)	Popularly perceived as being about the true nature of our lives past and present.
Hofstede (1994, p.5)	"[*Culture] is the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another."*
Sarup (1996, p.40)	"*Culture is not something fixed or frozen as the traditionalists would have us believe, but a process of constant struggle as cultures interact with each other and are affected by economic, political and social factors".*
Littrell (1997)	Culture can be viewed as comprising what people think (attitudes, beliefs, ideas and values), what people do (normative behaviour patterns, or way of life) and what people make (artworks, artefacts, cultural products). Culture is therefore composed of processes (the ideas and way of life of people) and the products of those processes (buildings, artefacts, art, customs).
Avruch (1998, p.5)	"*Culture is a derivative of individual experience, something learned or created by individuals themselves or passed on to them socially by contemporaries or ancestors."*
Williams (2002, p.93)	*"We use the word culture in two senses: to mean a whole way of life – the common meanings; to mean the arts and learning – the special processes of discovery and creative effort."*
Tylor (cited in Bolaffi 2003, p.61)	"*That complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society*".
Spencer-Oatey (2008, p.3)	"*Culture is a fuzzy set of basic assumptions and values, orientations to life, beliefs, policies, procedures and behavioural conventions that are shared by a group of people, and that influence (but do not determine) each member's behaviour and his/her interpretations of the 'meaning' of other people's behaviour.*"
Matsumoto and Juang (2012, p.15)	"*A unique meaning and information system, shared by a group and transmitted across generations, that allows the group to meet basic needs of survival, pursue happiness and well- being, and derive meaning from life.*"
Kecskes (2015)	Socially constructed set of various kinds of knowledge structures that an individual turns to as relevant situations permit.

As it can be noted from the above, culture is a notoriously difficult term to define. In 1952, the American anthropologists, Kroeber and Kluckhohn, critically reviewed concepts and definitions of culture, and compiled a list of 164 different definitions. Their coverage includes historians (from Herodotus to Toynbee), philosophers (Kant, Herder, Hegel, Nietzsche), literary men (Matthew Arnold, T.

S. Eliot), psychoanalytical writers (Freud, Roheim, Kardiner) and all major and minor figures in anthropology and sociology. In the book, the many definitions of culture are grouped on the basis of the comparative emphasis which their authors place on either descriptive, historical, normative, psychological, structural, or genetic elements. In surveying hundreds of written statements regarding the term under consideration, they illustrate the severe troubles associated with an exhaustive definition of “culture”.

This notion of culture as being difficult to define is echoed in the tourism literature (for example: Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2015). In a similar vein, Smith (2009, p.1) states that defining culture is "*notoriously problematic as it has both global and local significance, and it can be deeply historic and highly contemporary*" (Smith, 2009, p.1). Accordingly, it seems that no matter how one chooses to go about this, this term tends to elude definition. This is alarming, as from a methodological viewpoint fuzzy concepts and vague terminology question the very foundation of academic studies. Furthermore, while there is a lack of consensus about the definition of “culture”, different perceptions of culture also exist (Table 3).

Table 3. Different perceptions of culture (source: Smith, 2009)

Culture as…		
Theoretical/political	**Social/aesthetic**	**Everyday life**
• Culture is educational • Culture is experiential • Culture is therapeutic • Culture is inspiring • Culture is transcendent • Culture is conservation • Culture creates new opportunities for integration • an expression of diversity • Culture strengthens identities • Culture animates space • Culture creates a sense of place and character • Culture creates uniqueness • Culture enhances image • Culture is a catalyst for regeneration	• Culture is beautiful • Culture makes a place look nicer • Culture makes a place livelier • Culture is relaxing • Culture is fun and exciting • Culture makes a change from everyday life • Culture means the mixing of different people • Culture makes a place look special • Culture makes a place look different • Culture means more tourists come • Culture means seeing and doing new things • Culture makes people's lives better	• Culture is about family and friends • Culture is where I live • Culture as a nationality • Culture is religion • Culture is a language • Culture is what we eat and drink • Culture is what we wear • Culture is what music we listen to • Culture is what we read • Culture is where we shop • Culture is what we do on a daily basis • Culture is where we go on a Saturday night

It is clear from Table 3 that culture can, and does, have many different meanings. A theoretical/political culture is the product of both the collective history of a political system and the life histories of the members of that system, and thus it is rooted equally in public events and private experiences. Culture as social/aesthetic includes the fine visual arts, literature, theatre, architecture, and music. In this instance, culture is generally ascribed to the realms of cultural production such as music or art or to the scientific field. Arnold (1935) wrote that culture is a study of perfection and to have culture is to be acquainted with the best that has been known and said in the world. Accordingly, culture here can be seen as something to strive for or something aspirational. Today, this concept is more often termed “high culture” to indicate the artistic and cultural expressions valued by a given society’s elite (Chandler and Munday, 2011; Gans, 1999).

However, it is important to note that “culture” is not just about the arts and the aesthetic judgments of a selected minority (culture as social/aesthetic), but it is also about the lives and interests of ordinary people – culture as everyday life (Williams, 2002). Anthropology views culture not as something to be acquired, but rather as “a whole way of life,” something we already have. Culture is seen as including the cultural activities of everyday life (Clarke, 2000). It celebrates high art alongside the valuing popular culture. Therefore, culture can refer to either high culture or popular culture, the ways of thinking and feeling characteristic of everyone in a given group or society, or the capacities of individuals, the attitudes and habits of the many or of the few (Inglis, 2005). This view is also supported by Borley (1994) who states that culture is very often linked with art which leads to narrow thinking of culture as an artistic expression of the heritage of a nation. Instead, the author uses a dictionary definition of culture as *“the sum of the inherited ideas, beliefs, values and knowledge, which constitute the shared bases of social action”* (Borley, 1994, p.3).

Elsewhere, Bolaffi (2003) states that nowadays, the term “culture” is used mainly with two meanings. The first one and most ancient of these, taken up at the beginning of the seventeenth century by Francis Bacon, refers to the body of knowledge and manners acquired by an individual. The second one describes the shared customs, values and beliefs which characterise a given social group, and which are passed down from generation to generation. Accordingly, “culture” here can be seen as existing on two levels which Mills (2015) describes as collectivist cultures and individualist cultures.

The definitions indicate the range of ways that scholars use to describe "culture". Underlying this range is a concept of culture as a set of attributes that individuals acquire (individualist cultures) and secondly, culture as a thing that distinguishes groups from each other (collectivist cultures). However, Eliot (1948) proposes more levels of culture. In his first chapter, "*The Three Senses of Culture*", Eliot (1948) begins by stating that culture exists on three levels: that of the individual, that of the group or class, and that of the entire society. The culture of the individual depends upon the culture of the group, and the culture of the group depends upon the culture of the society. Therefore, it is culture at the societal level that needs to be defined because it is the most basic and the most important meaning of this world. Accordingly, Eliot (1948) describes culture as:

> *"Simply as that which makes life worth living (…) It includes all the characteristic activities and interests of a people: Derby Day, Henley Regatta, Cowes, the twelfth of August, a cup final, the dog races, the pin table, the dart board, Wensleydale cheese, boiled cabbage cut into sections, beetroot in vinegar, nineteenth-century Gothic churches and the music of Elgar. The reader can make his own list"* (Eliot, 1948, p.27-31).

What the above examples illustrate is that "culture" can exist on different levels. However, other researchers focus on another more problematic aspect of culture rather than on its definition, perspectives and levels. For example, Geertz (1973, p.5) considers the human condition with reference to culture as that of "*an animal suspended in webs of significance he himself has spun".* Therefore, he considers the analysis of culture to be "*not an experimental science in search of law but an interpretative one in search of meaning".*

In a similar vein, Williams (2002, p.96) states that "*a culture is common meanings*" made by living and then remade, in ways in which nobody can know in advance. In particular, Williams (2002) recognises that culture has two aspects. The first one is about known meanings and directions; the second aspect is based on new observations and meanings. According to this definition, the nature of "culture" is always both traditional and creative; it is based on the most ordinary common meanings and the more refined individual meanings. It is important to note that Williams' (2002) definition emphasises the dynamic nature of culture. In a similar, but more cautionary vein, according to Eliot (1948), the development of culture must be organic and cannot be consciously guided. He states, "*if any definite conclusions emerge from this study, one of them is surely this, that culture is the one thing we cannot deliberately aim at*" (Eliot, 1948, p.19). Kecskes (2015, p.114) takes this point further stating that "*culture has fuzzy boundaries, and it is considered neither relatively static nor ever-changing, but both*".

What the above examples illustrate is that culture can be seen as a process. In particular, Hopper (2007) states that "cultures" have always been dynamic concepts shaped by internal forces ensuring that cultures remain neither static nor stable. What is more, external forces ensure that cultures are not homogenous, discreet and bounded entities, but they overlap and reflect other traditions. According to Hopper (2007), cultures are always evolving. This view is shared by Clifford (1992) and Rojek and Urry (1997).

The above discussion presents a critical account of the definition of culture. The central argument here is the movement away from the simple definitions of culture as being represented by a range of arts, skills and knowledge to a position where the culture is presented as the lived reality of people engaged in everyday life. This definitional shift emphasises that culture is not an exclusive concept but is fundamentally an inclusive one. As such, this study views culture as a whole way of life (Williams, 2002). Culture is seen as including the cultural activities of everyday life (Clarke, 2000). It celebrates high art alongside the valuing of popular culture. This definition also allows for the inclusion of popular cultural attractions such as food. It points out that the resources associated with cultural tourism have expanded from the largely fixed, tangible manifestations of heritage toward intangible products of contemporary culture.

In relation to tourism especially, food is seen as a window onto and representation of another culture (Brulotte and Di Giovine, 2014; Mintz, 1996). A number of tourism researchers (such as: Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016; Hjalager and Richards, 2002; Kalenjuk, Tešanović, Gagić, Erdeji and Banjac, 2015; Richards, 2001) have argued that food is a key part of all cultures, a major element of cultural heritage and an increasingly important cultural attraction for tourists. From a cultural perspective, food dishes can be seen as a mix of tangible (for example: ingredients and cooking equipment) and intangible (for example: tastes, smells, recipes, and eating traditions) elements that contribute to the cultural values and characteristics of destinations (Timothy and Ron, 2013). Moreover, in their editorial introduction to a special issue of the Journal of Heritage Tourism dedicated to understanding cultural heritage cuisines and tourism, Timothy and Ron (2013) state that food has long been one of the most important markers of regional and ethnic identity, along with religion, language, folklore, and other distinguishing elements of culture.

A number of tourism researchers argue that food satisfies all the conventional requirements of the cultural tourism product. For example, Horng and Tsai (2012a, 2012b) claim that food-related tourism is an aspect of cultural tourism, because the cuisine is an integral part of the culture of communities and destinations. However, they note that food-related tourism is considerably different from simply eating meals in a location during traveling. This is because, food-related tourism assumes that the local foods and drinks have stories behind them that can reveal some aspect of the local culture. Moreover, Horng and Tsai (2012a, 2012b) state that food in tourism can pass on knowledge and information about the local culture which then conveys some local or unique feature. Thus, the uniqueness of the destination’s food has become the major factor that makes the destination popular and attractive. Accordingly, Horng and Tsai (2012a, 2012b) conclude that food culture can become an effective and valuable asset in destination marketing.

In a similar vein, Sims (2009) states that local food products have stories behind them that reflect the destination and its culture. Thus, tourists choosing to consume local products may not just be enjoying the physical taste of the food. Instead, they are also consuming the story behind it. Consequently, eating becomes a multidimensional experience that enables the visitor to connect with the place and culture of the destination. Accordingly, Sims (2009) states that local food initiatives based on stories can offer an enhanced visitor experience, encourage the development of products and services that boost sustainability and benefit rural regions as well as visitors and residents alike.

Elsewhere, Scarpato (2002) further contends that a meal is a cultural artefact and the industry that produces it is a cultural industry. In a similar vein, Fine (1996) describes restaurants as organisations which produce physical and cultural objects. Ignatov and Smith (2006) also state that food-related tourism is an aspect of cultural tourism, and cuisine is an integral part of the culture of communities and destinations. Thus, combining travel with local food products (e.g. eating a particular dish or drinking a local wine) means partaking in the local culture. In particular, Smith (2016) proposes a typology of cultural attractions which views gastronomy as one of the main categories (Table 4).

Among other tourism researchers that have argued that food is a key part of the culture, Long (2004, p.1) states that "*food is central to traveling and it is a vivid entryway into another culture*". In particular, she describes food in tourism as the activity of exploration and discovery of the culture and history through food, which affects the formation of unforgettable experiences. Similarly, Boniface (2003) evaluates food in tourism through a cultural lens and states that food is an example of a living everyday cultural product.

Table 4. A typology of cultural tourism attractions (source: Smith, 2016)

Typology of cultural tourism attractions	
Heritage sites	archaeological sites, towns, monuments, museums
Performing arts venues	theatres, concert halls, cultural centres
Visual arts	galleries, sculpture parks, architecture
Festivals and special events	music festivals, sporting events, carnivals
Religious sites	cathedrals, temples, pilgrimage destinations, spiritual retreats
Rural environments	villages, farms, national parks, eco-museums
Indigenous communities and traditions	tribal people, ethnic groups, minority cultures
Ethnic groups in cities	Chinatowns, Indian slum, Jewish quarters, Brazilian favelas
Arts and crafts	textiles, pottery, painting, sculpture
Language	learning or practice
Gastronomy	food tasting, cookery courses
Popular culture	pop music, shopping, fashion, media, design, technology
Creative activities	painting, photography, dance

While food is seen as a means of discovering the culture and local history of a place, Gordin and Trabskaya (2013) suggest that it also provides tourists with a more experiential way to learn more about the destination. As well as providing sensory pleasures, food is the "*basis of narratives, rituals, festivals or other aspects of cultural expression*" (Horng and Tsai, 2010, p. 75) with visitor appeal. It is a means whereby tourists can gain an understanding of another culture and eating alongside locals is believed to afford a genuine cultural experience (Okumus et al., 2007). More recently, Getz, Robinson, Andersson, Vujicic (2014) have claimed that food defines culture and gives rise to cultural differences. They describe food culture as the ways in which humans use food, from its production through consumption.

Interestingly, while from a cultural perspective, food can be seen as a cultural artefact, Cook and Crang (1996) view food not only as "placed" cultural products, but also as "displaced" materials and practices. They explain the notion of displacement as evoking a sense of a geographical world where cultural lives and economic processes are characterised not only by the spaces, but also by the movements to, from and between those spaces. Moreover, Cook and Crang (1996) explain that many basic foods seen as traditional in European food cultures, such as tomatoes and potatoes, were discovered and imported from overseas. Similarly, Henderson (2016) explores the relationship between food and culture in Singapore and concludes that food cultures are dynamic and exposed to internal and external developments. This can mean that food cultures are constantly evolving and not static.

Nevertheless, food (either placed or displaced) can be seen as the expression of a place's social and cultural capital, and consequently, it can be a marker of local identities (Everett and Aitchison, 2008; Karlsson, 2005; Richards, 2002; Tellstrom, Gustafsson and Mossberg, 2005). In addition, Bessiere (1998) states that eating can be perceived as absorbing the quality of the food and becoming part of a culture. Thus, for the tourist, eating local food can mean appropriating the nature, culture and identity of the specific area being visited (Bessiere, 1998).

In connection with the above, in the book entitled "*The Taste of Place: A Cultural Journey into Terroir*", Trubek (2008) introduces the notion of "terroir". However, the sources she cites to define "terroir" provide such diverse ways that no precise application of the word is possible. Trubek (2008) explains that in French "terroir" denotes, literally, "the soil," however its connotations are more complex than that.

She explains that this concept is originally applied to wines, the characteristics of which are said to be subtly influenced by soil, climate, and vine selection, as well as the techniques of the farmer. However, the notion of terroir gradually extended to food products. Trubek (2008) never provides her own definition; however, terroir can be seen as the contribution of the unique environmental characteristics (soil, climate, energy) of a place where food is made combined with the culture (tradition, techniques, tools, and procedures) within which it is made.

In essence, terroir means uniqueness and quality of place. It can be simply defined in environmental terms, however, the origins and significance of the phrase may be located within much wider philosophical, historical, social and cultural debates that define a particular destination (Tresidder, 2015). While Croce and Perri (2017) propose that the terroir is the combined effect of soil, topography, subsoil and climate, others propose that it also includes the customs and ceremonies of the people who produce local dishes (Hammer, 2011). In other words, it is the application of the methods, techniques, habits and customs of a culture when it interacts with its soil for the purpose of growing food. As such, the concept of terroir can be seen in food products associated with a specific place and underpinned by a particular set of production and consumption practices that are directly informed by local traditions and then reinforced by institutions to shape the ways that taste comes to define a place and its people (Trubek, 2008). Accordingly, it also enables tourists to enjoy a fuller immersion in the destination (Croce and Perri, 2017).

In addition, Trubek (2008, p.28) presents the idea of appellation d'origine controlee (AOC) which emerged in the mid-1950s, first to define wines and several decades later other agricultural products that linked their superior quality to the place of origin. On the heels of that French innovation, several other similar initiatives have emerged. In particular, within the European Union three schemes of geographical indications and traditional specialties exist: Protected Designation of Origin (PDO), Protected Geographical Indication (PGI), and Traditional Speciality Guaranteed (TSG) (Fields, 2015). This is particularly important for destination marketing, as a number of tourism researchers argue that food can act as a means to achieve local distinctiveness of place (for example: Hall et al., 2003; Henderson, 2009; Kim, Eves, and Scarles, 2009).

In addition to academic research, United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) has also recently recognised food as a true part of cultural heritage. To clarify, UNESCO is responsible for coordinating international cooperation in education, science, culture and communication (UNESCO, no date a). High-profile activities of UNESCO include the World Heritage Sites (Poria, Reichel and Cohen, 2013), which have identified almost 1000 places of special cultural or physical significance (Pearson and Pearson, 2016). One of UNESCO's more recent projects is the Creative Cities Network, whose objective is to promote cooperation with and among cities that have identified creativity as a strategic factor for sustainable urban development (UNESCO, no date b). The 116 cities which currently make up this network work together towards a common objective: placing creativity and cultural industries at the heart of their development plans at the local level and cooperating actively at the international level (UNESCO, no date b). There are seven potential fields of excellence within the UNESCO Creative Cities Network: film, literature, crafts and folk art, music, design, media arts, and gastronomy (UNESCO, no date b). In this context, gastronomy is used to describe the study of food and culture – that is, knowledge and understanding of what humans eat (Pearson and Pearson, 2016).

In addition to the Creative Cities Network initiative, in 2010 food made its first appearance on UNESCO Representative List of the Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity with the inscription of three food traditions: Traditional Mexican cuisine, a gastronomic meal of the French and gingerbread craft from Northern Croatia. Since then more food traditions has been added to the list (Table 5).

According to De Miguel Molina, De Miguel Molina, Santamarina Campos and Del Val Segarra Oña (2016), the approval of the three applications in 2010 represents a shift in outlook by UNESCO towards new categories of heritage and, specifically, towards a consideration of food and its symbolic role in societies. This recent inclusion of food on UNESCO Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity list clearly shows that food has officially received status as a true part of cultural heritage.

Table 5. Food and drink traditions included on the UNESCO's list of Intangible Cultural Heritage (adapted from: UNESCO, no date c)

Year	Representative List of the Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity	Country
2016	Beer culture in Belgium	Belgium
	Flatbread making and sharing culture: Lavash, Katyrma, Jupka, Yufka	Azerbaijan, Iran (The Islamic Republic of), Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Turkey
	Oshi Palav, a traditional meal and its social and cultural contexts in Tajikistan	Tajikistan
2015	Tradition of kimchi-making in the Democratic People's Republic of Korea	Democratic People’s Republic of Korea
2014	Lavash, the preparation, meaning and appearance of traditional bread as an expression of culture in Armenia	Armenia
2013	Kimjang, making and sharing kimchi in the Republic of Korea	The Republic of Korea
	Mediterranean diet	Cyprus, Croatia, Spain, Greece, Italy, Morocco, Portugal
2012	Turkish coffee culture and tradition	Turkey
	Washoku, traditional dietary cultures of the Japanese, notably for the celebration of New Year	Japan
	Cherry festival in Sefrou	Morocco
2010	Gastronomic meal of the French	France
	Gingerbread craft from Northern Croatia	Croatia
	Traditional Mexican cuisine - ancestral, ongoing community culture, the Michoacán paradigm	Mexico

As explained in this section, the contribution of cultural studies to the domain of food and tourism is significant (Robinson and Getz, 2016). This is because food can be viewed as a reflection of the culture of the destination and its people (Du Rand and Heath, 2006). It conveys something indigenous and unique to a specific destination (Ignatov and Smith, 2006). Thus, food can play an important part in differentiating destinations (Ab Karim and Chi, 2010) through emphasising national, regional and local uniqueness and utilising food as a means of differentiation in destination marketing (Henderson, 2009; Okumus et al., 2007).

The idea of local food culture is well-known, as every country is characterised by its national, regional and local iconic dishes (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016). Accordingly, the uniqueness of the destination’s food has become the major factor that makes the destination popular and attractive (Horng and Tsai, 2012a, 2012b). However, very often the aspect of culture seems to be omitted by food and tourism researchers (Su and Horng, 2012). What is more, Bernard and Dominiguez (2000) point out that food, as an aspect of culture that reflects the ancestral customs, history, geography, daily life, religion, economic and social development of a region, has not been fully explored yet in terms of destination marketing.

2.2.3 Food in destination marketing

The destination marketing literature stresses the importance of differentiation by emphasising a destination's distinctive and unique tangible and intangible products and services (Heeley, 2015a; Pike, 2008). What is more, the point of differentiation should be based on propositions which are sustainable, credible and relevant (Morgan and Pritchard, 2014). Thus, at the destination level, building on cultural resources and experiences becomes an important aspect in contemporary tourism (Yeoman et al., 2015). Increasingly food, as an element of culture, is being used in many destination marketing strategies, as an asset for and means of product differentiation. This is because when combined with tourism, food can provide a natural competitive advantage, not easily replicated when specific to a location and a culture (Mulcahy, 2015). While eating is a basic human need, food can also be a tourist attraction and a reason for travel. Food has been regarded as not only being a basic psychological necessity (Tikannen, 2007), but evidence from a number of studies suggests that food can be a tourist attraction (Henderson, 2009; Hjalager and Richards, 2002, Scarpato, 2002). With more and more tourists seeking new and authentic experiences (Poon, 1993), food is becoming one of the most important attractions (Boniface, 2003; Horng and Tsai, 2012a, 2012; Kim and Eves, 2012). Unlike other tourist attractions, food is available all year-round, any time of day and in any weather (Kivela and Crotts, 2006).

However, this common perception of food as an attraction in tourism is challenged by Cohen and Avieli (2004) who highlight the complications and impediments experienced by tourists in the local food sphere in unfamiliar destinations, even when attracted to the local cuisine. They conclude that issues such as hygiene standards, health considerations, communication gaps, and the limited knowledge of tourists concerning the local cuisine can impose serious difficulties when travelling abroad. The uniqueness of foods and service delivery settings would thus seem to be a quality which both attracts and repels. However, it has to be noted that their empirical contribution is limited as the discussion is based only on observations on West Europeans and Israelis traveling individually or in tour-groups in China, Thailand, and Vietnam. This prevents the study from making generalisations and only comparative empirical research would indicate the usefulness of the approach and indicate ways for its further elaboration.

Although, as explained above, some tourists may remain fearful of trying new foods while traveling due to neophobia[2] or concerns about quality controls or hygienic preparation conditions (Cohen and Avieli, 2004), research indicates that food may still enhance tourists' overall holiday experience and be the most memorable part of the trip (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014, 2016; Meler and Cerovic, 2003; Quan and Wang, 2004; Tikkanen, 2007). In addition, a number of researchers state that food has become a significant "pull factor" (Chang, Kivela and Mak, 2011; Okumus et al., 2007) that influences tourists' destination choice (Gyimóthy and Mykletun, 2009; Ab Karim and Chi, 2010; Kim et al., 2009; Mak et al., 2012; Mykletun and Gyimóthy, 2010). Food can be also a reason to revisit a destination (Bessiere, 1998; Boniface, 2003; Cohen and Avieli, 2004; Hjalager and Richards, 2002; Long, 2004). In particular, Hu and Ritchie (1993) state that food is one of the most important reasons for tourists to visit a destination alongside other factors such as weather, accommodation, sports and recreational opportunities, scenery, and entertainment. Similarly, Rimmington and Yuskel (1998) claim that food is one of the most important factors that contribute to travellers' overall satisfaction. Accordingly, food is recognised as an important factor in a tourist's experience of a destination (Henderson 2009; Hjalager and Richards, 2002b; Horng and Tsai, 2012a, 2012b).

Regardless of food acting as the primary or secondary reason to travel or as a "peak experience" or "supporting experience" (Quan and Wang, 2004), enjoying the food of a destination is simply one part of the expectations tourists have for their trip (Nelson, 2017). Food is thus seen as an important source of marketable images and experiences for the tourist (Quan and Wang, 2004). This is crucial for DMOs, as the overall food service experience is an increasingly important

[2] The fear of anything new; food neophobia: the reluctance to eat, or the avoidance of, new foods.

factor of both tourist satisfaction and dissatisfaction which can greatly impact on tourists' expenditure or lead to serious financial losses (Nield, Kozak and Legrys, 2000). In general, it is accepted that the typical visitor spends about a third of their travel expenses on food-related purchases (Chaney and Ryan, 2012). Thus, food consumption accounts for a substantial component of both domestic and international tourism expenditure (Du Rand, Heath and Alberts, 2003; McKercher et al., 2008; Nield et al., 2000; Sparks, Bowen and Klag, 2003). On this basis, food may be a viable market segment (McKercher et al., 2008) which is important for DMOs facing the challenge of managing their already small budgets and simultaneously protecting their funds from even further government invasions justified by other local priorities, as explained in section 2.3.3 of this thesis. Hence, various marketing activities that attempt to provide travellers with positive and memorable food experiences deserve to be managed on a strategic level as means of destination marketing (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014, 2016).

Increasingly food, as an element of culture, is being used in many destination marketing strategies as an asset for and means of product differentiation (Cohen and Avieli, 2004; Richards, 2012). This is because food can give a competitive edge and be an asset of tourist destinations (Fox, 2007; Haven-Tang and Jones, 2005, Kivela and Crotts, 2006). In particular, Hall (2003) states that food-related tourism is increasingly an element of tourism promotion and a key element to competitive destination marketing. Subsequently, it comes as no surprise that destinations are capitalising on the potential to promote their food as a unique product and a source of differentiation (Ab Karim and Chi, 2010; Okumus et al., 2007).

Based on these perceived opportunities for food in destination marketing, destinations are capitalising on the potential to promote their cuisine as a unique product and a source of differentiation (Ab Karim and Chi, 2010; Okumus et al., 2007). Furthermore, such activity is inclusive given the recent publications relating to areas of the world that are not traditionally known for their food or as having a clear culinary identity, including: Albania (Brokaj, 2014), Austria (Scheuch, 2012), Canada (Hashimoto and Telfer, 2006), Croatia (Henderson, 2009; Meler and Cerovic, 2003), Georgia (UNWTO, 2012), Hong Kong (Horng and Tsai, 2012a; Kivela and Crotts, 2006; McKercher, Okumus and Okumus, 2008; Okumus et al., 2007;), Indonesia (Wijaya, King, Morrison and Nguyen, 2017), Korea (Seo and Yun, 2015; Seo, Yun and Kim, 2017), Moscow (UNWTO, 2012), New Orleans (Mintel, 2014), Nordic Countries (Casciola, Laurin and Wolf, 2014; Getz et al., 2014), the Peak District National Park, England (Sharples, 2003), Peru (Nelson, 2016b), Singapore (Henderson, 2014, 2016; Horng and Tsai, 2012a), South Africa (Du Rand, Heath and Alberts, 2003; Du Rand and Heath 2006), Taiwan (Lin, Pearson, and Cai, 2011), Turkey (Okumus et al., 2007) and the UK (Boyne et al., 2003; Everett and Slocum, 2013; Sims, 2009).

There have been extensive studies dedicated to depicting the use of food as a destination marketing tool and the utilisation of food as a destination attraction itself. In particular, Table 6 outlines and presents articles which examine the food-related tourism literature from a marketing perspective, namely as an element in destination marketing and a contributor to the overall experience of tourists. In addition, all articles relate to supply-side stakeholders such as DMOs, government and food service suppliers.

Previous studies mainly focus on comparison and discussion of destination marketing strategies used to promote food in various destinations (e.g. Du Rand et al., 2003; Okumus et al., 2007; Horng and Tsai, 2010). In particular, a growing number of studies explore the role of destination websites regarding promotion and marketing of food. For example, Boyne et al. (2003) critically evaluate the ways in which food-related tourism initiatives in the UK are promoted by focusing on the ways in which information relating to local food initiatives is signposted by tourism information providers. According to them, because such initiatives can generate a range of positive economic and social benefits, these should, therefore, be supported by effective marketing activities. However, they report (at the time of writing) that while food and gastronomy-related tourism initiatives are at an early stage of the product development life cycle in the UK, food initiatives are often not suitably represented on the websites of their respective official DMOs. Boyne et al. (2003) argue that, while such inadequacies stem in part from the early evolutionary point in the product lifecycle at which food-related tourism initiatives in the UK are positioned, there is a requirement for a clearer definition of roles for support organisations and a framework for these organisations to work efficiently together to achieve the effective implementation of strategies.

Table 6. Summary of studies depicting the use of food as a destination marketing tool and the utilisation of food as a destination attraction (source: author)

Source	Destination	Aim and contribution	Area of focus
Boyne, Hall and Williams (2003)	UK (food-related tourism websites)	Examine the ways in which food-related tourism initiatives are being promoted using the World Wide Web.	Food-related tourism and destination (website) marketing
Du Rand, Heath, Alberts (2003)	South Africa	Explore the role of food in South Africa's destination marketing.	Food tourism and destination marketing
Frochot (2003)	19 French regional tourism brochures	Identify the different food images that can be used by tourism advertisers in their promotional material; investigate how different food images can be used for specific destinations' positioning strategies.	Food images in destination marketing
Meler and Cerovic (2003)	Croatia	Explore the potential of food to become a tourist attraction in Croatia and provide recommendations in the field of food marketing to assist with the tourist product development.	Food marketing and destination product development
Haven-Tang and Jones (2005)	Wales, Monmouthshire	Present research designed to develop a Sense of Monmouthshire training module aimed at the operators of tourism businesses in Monmouthshire and outline how the celebration of difference, through the use of local food and drink, can provide regions with the opportunity to incorporate cultural distinctiveness within economic development.	Local food and destination differentiation
Kivela and Crotts (2005)	Hong Kong	Investigate if the motivation to travel for food reasons is a reasonably valid construct to use for market segmentation purposes. Also examine if food could become the driving force behind the revival of tourism for destinations that are struggling at a critical stage of the tourist product lifecycle.	Gastronomy tourism and destination marketing
Du Rand and Heath (2006)	South Africa	Conceptualise a food tourism destination marketing framework. Outline recommendations and suggestions regarding the development and implementation of food tourism that can be considered by DMOs.	Food tourism and destination marketing
Hashimoto and Telfer (2006)	Canada	Explore the relationship between identity and marketing cuisine in Canada, both from the perspective of being a nation of immigrants and from the perspective of being made up of distinct regions.	National identity linked to food and destination branding

Kivela and Crotts (2006)	Hong Kong	Examine how gastronomy influences tourist's experience of a destination and provide practical recommendations for DMOs.	Gastronomy and tourist experience
Okumus et al. (2007)	Hong Kong and Turkey	Examine the use of food in destination promotion materials produced officially by national tourism offices.	Food and destination marketing strategy
Smith and Xiao (2008)	Ontario, Canada	Gain insights into the general structure and some of the issues of culinary tourism supply chains (farmers' markets, food/beverage festivals, and restaurants).	Culinary tourism and supply chain implications
Kim, Yuan, Goh and Antun (2009)	16 cities/counties DMO websites in Texas, USA	Apply the content analysis evaluating the websites of the DMOs in West Texas and investigate the effective use of web marketing of food-based tourism that would affect tourists' destination decisions.	Food-based tourism and destination (website) marketing
Horng and Tsai (2010)	Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Singapore, Taiwan and Thailand	Analyse, using content analysis, the marketing strategies by means of which the government websites use national, regional and local food cultures to attract tourists.	Food and DMO websites
Lin, Pearson and Cai (2011)	Taiwan	Investigate the identity of food in relation to Taiwan as a tourism destination through assessment of tourism brochures and destination websites.	Food image and destination marketing
Nilsson, Svärd, Widarsson and Wirell (2011)	Northern Italy (three Citaslow towns)	Explore how destination development is conducted in a Cittaslow context, unveiling some contradictions between the commercial sides of tourism and the non-commercial ethos of the Cittaslow movement.	Slow food and destination marketing
Horng and Tsai (2012a)	Hong Kong, Singapore	Seek to explore culinary tourism development and marketing strategies and contents of Hong Kong and Singapore.	Food-related tourism development and marketing strategies
Horng and Tsai (2012b)	East Asia	Evaluate governmental policy and strategy for promoting culinary tourism.	Destination marketing and culinary tourism
Mak, Lumbers and Eves (2012)	n/a	Review perspectives and theories of globalisation in the context of food consumption in tourism and provide practical recommendations for destination marketers and food suppliers at a destination level.	Globalisation, food consumption and destination marketing

De La Barre and Brouder (2013)	The Arctic	Explore the role of food in the Arctic tourism experience and evaluate the growing importance of food and its relationship to land-based traditions and tourism activities.	Food and tourism experience
Silkes, Cai and Lehto (2013)	Indiana	Investigate marketing promotional literature for festivals and discuss the potential opportunity for culinary tourism at festivals within the concepts of the image formation process and destination marketing.	Food festivals and image formation in destination marketing
Jalis, Che and Markwell (2014)	Malaysia	Investigate how Malaysian cuisine is represented by relevant government agencies' promotional brochures, travel guides, and websites.	Food-related content; DMO websites and promotional materials
Lee and Scott (2015)	n/a	Provide a review of the articles examining the marketing of food as an attraction for tourists.	Marketing of food as an attraction
Nelson (2016a)	Houston (Texas)	Discusses the induced image of Houston (Texas) through the restaurant pages of the Greater Houston Convention and Visitor Bureau's official website.	Food image and destination (website) branding
Nelson (2016b)	Peru	Investigates Peru's image as a culinary destination.	Food and destination image

A number of other studies also explore the status of DMO websites in the context of food-related tourism marketing. For example, Kim, Yuan, Goh and Antun (2009) investigate the status of website content regarding food and evaluate the performance of the DMOs' websites in West Texas. They conclude that website marketing is a critical and efficient tool for DMOs to promote their destination and reduce the costs for marketing. Elsewhere, Horng and Tsai (2010) explore the contents of the cuisine and gastronomy websites of Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Singapore, Taiwan and Thailand, by analysing the techniques used to introduce and promote these East Asian destinations' cuisine and food culture. In particular, they examine the marketing strategies by means of which these websites use national, regional and local food cultures to attract tourists. Horng and Tsai (2010) report that although there are some individual differences and room for improvement, all the official websites reviewed provide detailed information about their country's cuisine and most provide an introduction to the varieties and features of traditional cuisines, food cultures, and representative foods. Moreover, most countries' websites offer information on local restaurants, and some of them (Hong Kong, Korea, and Thailand) also display their restaurants' guarantees of food quality and safety. Additionally, Horng and Tsai (2010) identify a number of important dimensions which are essential for the promotion of food-based tourism on websites: "Culture and Food Culture", "Featured Foods and Recipes", "Table Manners", "Culinary Tourism", "Restaurant Certification" and "Restaurant Guides". Horng and Tsai (2010) also conclude that for the optimal promotion and marketing of food, the marketers should have a very good knowledge of the local cuisine, the local foods and food culture.

In a similar vein, Jalis, Che and Markwell (2014) examine how Malaysian food and cuisine is used to market Malaysia as a tourist destination. In particular, their study, through analytical techniques of content analysis, explores the dimensions of cuisine used to promote this particular destination which is characterised by a multi-ethnic structure. They analyse travel guides, brochures and the official tourism websites and report that the food photographs convey the various sensory experiences available to tourists when consuming Malaysian food and cuisine. Interestingly, Jalis et al. (2014) report that photographs of local foodways also show the local community lifestyle. Thus, they conclude that such photographs could encourage the tourists to try the local cuisine, get closer to the local community, and thus enhance their travelling experience while in Malaysia. Jalis et al. (2014) report that the textual analysis, on the other hand, stimulates tourists' desire to try the local fare, through the use of words such as delicious, mouth-watering and delectable.

Similarly, De La Barre and Brouder (2013) explore marketing materials produced by the official DMOs to ascertain how northern foods and food-related traditions are used to position polar tourism in the marketplace. In particular, they focus on the growing importance of food and its relationship to land-based traditions and tourism activities in northern Canada and Sweden. De La Barre and Brouder (2013) state that following food-related tourism trends developing around the world, the unique attributes of the circumpolar food are being recognised in destination marketing strategies and used to enhance the appeal of northern destinations. In particular, De La Barre and Brouder (2013) report that as part of destination marketing activities, food is used to embrace the rich storytelling traditions of circumpolar people, both the indigenous people who have always lived with the land, as well as more recent newcomers who have made "the North" their home. Thus, they conclude that consuming food is also about consuming stories.

Analysing not only websites, but also brochures and booklets, Okumus, Okumus and McKercher (2007) compare how Turkey and Hong Kong use food in their marketing activities. Their findings indicate that substantial differences exist in the use, importance and presentation of food and the construction of images in both destinations. In particular, according to Okumus et al. (2007), these differences relate to stronger production values and better-composed pictures, reflecting higher professional standards, greater levels of investment and a longer involvement in tourism promotion in Hong Kong than in Turkey. They conclude that while many destinations are moving towards marketing strategies based on cultural assets, as each destination's culture is unique, ironically only a few emerging destinations, including Turkey, capitalise on their rich culinary cultural heritage.

In the same way, emphasising the role of unique food culture, Horng and Tsai (2012a) in their study of culinary tourism development and marketing strategies of Hong Kong and Singapore, report that although Hong Kong and Singapore, owing to their geographical position, lack many natural resources, and their agricultural development is limited, both destinations have unique and multi-ethnic food cultures, which are the core resources in developing food-based tourism. According to Horng and Tsai (2012a), food or cuisine are the physical products exemplifying unique food culture, thus they can be used to create the brand story and develop food-based tourism that is innovative, diverse and likely to attract attention. However, they conclude that successful implementation of food-based marketing strategies requires the public and private sectors forming strategic alliances to enhance the attractiveness of tourism through different marketing strategies and thereby jointly present image of the destination's culinary culture. This is further emphasised in their subsequent article in which Horng and Tsai (2012b) state that in addition to rich and diverse food resources, the success of food-based tourism also requires cooperation among public and private sectors. According to them, the government must set a general direction to promote sustainable culinary tourism development, integrate tourism and hospitality-related industries, as well as educate local residents to actively join in related activities.

As outlined above, exemplifying unique food culture combined with cooperation among public and private sectors seems to be the core of effective food marketing strategy at a destination level. However, this sometimes proves difficult for destinations which have been influenced by years of migration and globalisation. For example, Hashimoto and Telfer (2006) explore the relationship between identity and the marketing of cuisine in Canada. This, however, proves very difficult, as Canada's culinary traditions have been influenced by a long history of immigration, multiculturalism combined together with regional product availability. Moreover, chefs have combined cultural traditions and local products, creating new forms and styles of cooking. As a result, Hashimoto and Telfer (2006) state that there is not an easily definable Canadian cuisine. They explore marketing efforts from different geographical regions across the country which further highlight the rich food diversity available in Canada, which is influenced, not only by global but also by regional forces. Hashimoto and Telfer (2006) conclude that rather than promoting a single Canadian cuisine, which infers a single style, it is better to promote Cuisine in Canada, which signifies the diversity of available products.

Elsewhere, by reviewing perspectives and theories of globalisation and food consumption in tourism, Mak, Lumbers and Eves (2012) provide a range of recommendations for destination marketers and food suppliers at a destination levels. Firstly, according to them, it is important for destination marketers and culinary suppliers to understand tourists' cultural values and preferences to develop and provide appropriate gastronomic products. Moreover, this understanding would be useful to inform the development of effective strategies for the promotion and development of food products as well as serving as a basis for segmentation of the tourist market. Mak et al. (2012) also state that destination marketers and culinary suppliers may jointly promote the traditions and customs of the local food to enhance interest. Moreover, food products can be linked with special activities and experiences available in the destination to enhance the experiential aspects of the consumption experience. And lastly, Mak et al. (2012) state that destination marketers and culinary suppliers should harness the positive effects of globalisation by reviving and reconstructing local traditions and particularities for the tourism market.

In a similar vein, Haven-Tang and Jones (2005) explore how local food and drink can be used to differentiate tourism destinations. They argue that local food is a fundamental aspect of creating a "sense of place" and providing visitors with a distinctive experience. They describe a "sense of place" as the "soul" or "spirit" of a place which embraces everything that is unique and distinctive about a place. According to Haven-Tang and Jones (2005, p.72), "sense of place" can also refer to:

> *"personal, family, and community stories (…) or an embedded body of knowledge about a place–the history, legends, geography, geology, flora, and fauna; or a feeling that communities and people are special and distinct from anywhere else".*

Ultimately, they stress the importance of using local food and drink to develop a "sense of place" which then can provide unique visitor experience and differentiate tourism destinations while providing economic benefits to the local community. Taking this argument even further, Haven-Tang and Jones (2005) conclude that a development of sense of place through food should help to extend the tourism season by spreading the volume and value of tourism throughout the year, spread the benefits of tourism more widely (geographically, socially and economically), enhance destination competitiveness, encourage innovation and develop a sense of community.

Focusing more on the role of food in enhancing destination image, Kivela and Crotts (2005) ascertain that food is inextricably linked to the destination and the destination's image. Moreover, they confirm that food-based experiences are powerful tools for marketing the destination. Similarly, Frochot (2003) views food as a potential theme to sharpen destination images and ascertain their uniqueness in comparison to other countries. Elsewhere, after analysing food-related information presented in tourism brochures and destination websites, Lin et al. (2011) propose a framework with seven food dimensions which should be taken into account when preparing promotional materials for international markets. These dimensions, representing the characteristics of a destination, are divided into: a class of food; the role of food; the character of food; the value of food; a feature of food or food-related subjects; an attribute of foodservice; and availability of food or food-related subjects. Moreover, Lin et al. (2011) conclude that uniqueness of food items should be effectively integrated into food-related activities or establishments to make a strong and favourable impression on tourists by making a meaningful link between tourists, food and a tourism destination. Thus, food can be used in the process of building a destination brand.

More recently, in their systematic review of the food tourism literature from a marketing perspective – as an essential element in destination marketing and a contributor to the overall experience of tourists, Lee and Scott (2015) examine 48 relevant journal articles. Among these 48 journal papers, 28 focus on the consumer (demand-side), 19 relate to supply-side stakeholders such as government and DMOs or food service supplier, and one examines both demand and supply. It is clear that most articles included in their review, focus on the demand-side and thus more research on the supply-side is needed. In addition, outlining the areas for further research, Lee and Scott (2015) state that the participation of local community and food production chain is an important aspect in the marketing of food that has not received scholarly attention.

As outlined above, different destinations using food in their marketing activities demonstrate that this type of approach is gathering a momentum in destination marketing (Boniface, 2003; Cohen and Avieli, 2004; Hall and Sharples, 2003; Hjalanger and Richards, 2002). However, while food has clearly emerged as a part of the cultural experience within many destinations (Yeoman et al., 2015), little is still known about this and the academic community has been surprisingly slow to consider the theoretical potential in examining this phenomenon in the context of destination marketing (Du Rand and Heath, 2006; Henderson, 2009). In other words, although there have been numerous studies on marketing tourism destinations (such as for example: Buhalis, 2000, Echtner and Prasad, 2003, Faulkner, 1997; Gretzel, Yuan and Fesenmaier, 2000; Morrison, 2013; Pike, 2004, 2008; Pike and Page; 2014; Wang and Pizam, 2011), the empirical evidence on how food is used in tourism marketing is still relatively limited (Lee and Scott, 2015; Okumus et al., 2007).

What is more, the above discussion and Table 6 illustrate that there has been a relative lack of studies exploring the use of food as a destination marketing tool and the utilisation of food as a destination attraction in European destinations. In particular, most research on DMO websites has been dominated by Asian perspectives. This, therefore, raises the question of the applicability of the findings of non-Western-based research to Western markets. In other words, research on food-related tourism marketing via official DMO websites is especially limited in Western cultures. Thus, this signals the gap in research and provides an opportunity for the current study to contribute to knowledge in this area by focussing on a number of destinations in the UK.

Previous research by Boyne et al. (2003) critically evaluated food-related tourism initiatives in the UK promoted on the official tourism websites. At the time of writing Boyne et al. (2003) stated that food and gastronomy-related tourism initiatives were at an early stage of the product development life cycle in the UK and consequently food initiatives were not suitably represented on the websites of their respective official local tourist boards. Given that nearly 15 years have passed since then, gaining a deeper understanding of the current use of food as a destination marketing tool is fundamental to assist in the designing of future destination marketing strategies that would enable to achieve a greater competitive advantage and uniqueness of place.

2.3 Introduction to DMOs and destination marketing

This section aims to introduce the reader to the discipline of destination marketing and give a comprehensive overview of the key terminology and literature developments. However, before examining and discussing the literature, the author would like to point out that destination marketing is a diverse and highly complex discipline. As a growing area of study (Cai, 2002), developing over a period of 40 years (Pike, 2016), destination marketing literature is still evolving. As a consequence, the extant theory remains fragmented due to the lack of established terminology to describe its various associated phenomena, which puzzles academics and practitioners alike (Skinner, 2008).

2.3.1 Definitions

The following section provides a review of definitions of destination marketing. In particular, this section explains the difference between "destination marketing" and "place marketing". This is followed by the definition of "destination" and defining DMO and the role of destination marketing organisations (DMOs).

2.3.1.1 Defining destination marketing

According to Pike (2016), the destination marketing literature commenced in 1973 with the first article by Matejka (citied in Pike, 2016) followed three years later by the first destination marketing book by Wahab, Crampon and Rothfield (1976). They defined destination marketing as:

> *"the management process through which the National Tourists Organisations and /or tourist enterprises identify their selected tourists (…) communicate with them to ascertain and influence their wishes, needs, motivations, likes and dislikes, on local, regional, national and international levels and to formulate and adapt their tourist products accordingly in view of achieving*

> *optimal tourist's satisfaction thereby fulfilling their objectives"* (Wahab et al., 1976, p.24).

Since then destination marketing research has significantly progressed, but according to Uysal, Harill and Woo (2011), most of the literature echoes a similar definition of destination marketing.

Having reviewed a number of definitions of destination marketing presented in Table 7, this research views destination marketing as a concept to define strategically developed marketing activities aimed at attracting tourists to a specific location (Elbe et al., 2009). A review of the literature (Table 7) reveals that a number of researchers provide a very similar definition of destination marketing (Pike, 2008; Wahab et al., 1976) and for that reason, it is viewed as suitable for this research.

It has to be noted that in the literature the term "destination marketing" is often conflated with "place marketing" or "place branding" (Anholt, 2010). While these terms may seem similar and often are used under the same umbrella name (Gertner, 2011), conceptually, destination literature targets solely tourists, while place related literature describes the general planning and development of places including all target groups such as residents, companies and tourists (Kerr, 2006). Thus, place-related literature can be regarded as a wider concept, with destination literature as one of its components.

However, this becomes even more confusing, as place marketing literature often takes the form of destination marketing focussing on tourists and tourism related issues. For example, Sevin (2013) reports on the findings of her study aiming to understand how five prominent American DMOs use Twitter in relation to place branding. Elsewhere, Lichrou, O'Malley and Patterson (2010) in their study on narratives of a tourism destination and their implications for place marketing and branding, state that tourism is intimately connected to the place marketing process. Hence, tourism is often used as a medium for the achievement of a number of place marketing objectives.

Table 7. Some definitions of destination marketing (source: author)

Author	Definition
Wahab, Crampon and Rothfield (1976, p. 24)	*"The management process through which the National Tourist Organisations and/or tourist enterprises identify their selected tourists, actual and potential, communicate with them to ascertain and influence their wishes, needs, motivations, likes and dislikes, on local, regional, national and international levels, and to formulate and adapt their tourist products accordingly in view of achieving optimal tourist satisfaction thereby fulfilling their objectives."*
Kotler, Haider, Rein and Rein (1993, p.16)	*"Market- orientated strategic planning"* which *"is successful if stakeholders derive satisfaction from their community, and when visitors, new businesses and investors find their expectations matched."*
Buhalis (2000)	It facilitates the achievement of tourism policy.
Murphy, Pritchard and Smith (2000)	An amalgamation of individual or collective efforts and activities created to form total experience of a visited place.
Ritchie and Crouch (2000, p.2)	Destination marketing should operate as a mechanism for "*the total impact of tourism development and not just the economic consequences, an eye to the long-term as opposed to short-term effects, and an overall objective of sustainable tourism development*".
Pike (2008)	Selling of places; promoting the destination; connecting better the supply and demand aspects of tourism; maximising the use of destination resources.
Elbe, Hallén, and Axelsson (2009)	A notion to define strategically developed activities aimed at attracting tourists to a specific location.
Morrison (2010)	Marketing is a continuous, sequential process through which a destination management organisation (DMO) plans, researchers, implements controls and evaluates programmes aimed at satisfying traveller's needs and wants as well as the destination's and DMO's vision, goals and objectives. To be most effective, the DMO's marketing programmes depend upon the efforts of many other organisations and individual within and outside the destination.
Brown et al. (2011, p.246-247)	*"Destination marketing aims to raise awareness of a destination and increase visitation by creating a unique brand which positions and differentiates the destination from others*."
Wang (2011, p.1)	"*Destination marketing and management is a complex issue which requires a comprehensive holistic and systematic approach to understand it*."
Morrison (2013, p.9)	"*A continuous, sequential process which a DMO plans, researches, implements, controls and evaluates programmes aimed at satisfying traveller's needs and wants as well as the destination's and DMO's vision, goals and objectives*."

Heeley (2015a, p.31)	*"The deployment of proactive promotional, sales and fulfilment techniques aimed at attracting and servicing tourists in order to raise profile and otherwise generate net local economic benefit for [a destination]."*
Pike (2016, p.4)	"*Promotion, leading the development and implementation of collaborative marketing communication strategies that match internal (destination) resources with macro environment (market) opportunities. Destination marketing is as simple and as complicated as that."*

A similar situation can be noted in destination branding and place branding literature. For example, place branding often takes the form of destination branding focussing on tourists (for example: Park and Petrick, 2006; Qu, Kim, and Im, 2011). What is more, destination branding has also recently widened its focus to include other target groups such as residents (Jeuring and Haartsen, 2017; Palmer, Koenig-Lewis and Jones, 2013). In particular, Freire (2009) states that residents are important for a destination brand-building process and therefore the process requires a holistic approach. Most recently, Zenker, Braun, and Petersen (2017) reiterate that residents have a wider knowledge of the destination and for that reason, they are an important group for destination branding, although this is not the focus of this study.

As mentioned above, currently, place marketing is mostly appreciated in the broad field of tourism development (Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2008). In particular, Kotler, Asplund, Rein and Heider (cited in Baker and Cameron, 2008, p.79) define place marketing as:

> *"A place planning procedure concerning the satisfaction of the needs of target markets. It could be successful when it satisfies two main parameters: a) the enterprises and the residents' satisfaction from the purchase of goods and services that the place provides, b) the satisfaction of the expectations of potential target markets (enterprises and visitors), as long as the goods and the services that the place provides to them are those that they wish to get".*

Indeed, the application of both terms – "destination" and "place" – occurs in tourism literature, even when the discussion refers to a destination specifically (for example: Freire, 2009). This could be because it is not possible to separate the destination from the place (Campelo, Aitken, Thyne, and Gnoth, 2014). The destination is part of the place which is strategically positioned to be visited and consumed (Hultman and Hall, 2012). Accordingly, Campelo et al. (2014) argue that destinations are embedded in places as it is the place with all of its networks, relationships and shared experiences that determine the nature of the destination. In particular, Kozak and Baloglu (2010) notice that the term "destination" is being replaced by "place" in tourism literature. This marks an important shift calling for the involvement of all stakeholders in strategic planning.

According to Kozak and Baloglu (2010), place or destination marketing will achieve little without involving all stakeholders. As such (destination) marketing efforts should be combined with (place) planning principles and policy formulation to coordinate efforts of all stakeholders and residents.

The discussion above illustrates the close relationship between the concept of destination marketing and branding and place branding and marketing. However, to avoid ambiguity this research does not focus on place marketing or place branding literature as such. There are, of course, some overlaps between the fields, which have been explained above. However, the main focus of this study is on the supply-side of tourism (DMOs) and for that reason, the term "destination" is seen as more appropriate. Moreover, following Pike (2008) this study views destination branding as an essential component in the destination marketing strategy which is seen as the process of communicating a destination's unique identity by differentiating a destination from its competitors. From now on, to avoid ambiguity the single terms "destination marketing" and "destination branding" will be used as opposed to other terms (such as "place marketing" and "place branding").

2.3.1.2 Defining the destination

A tourism destination is one of the key concepts of tourism and the focal point of tourism marketing activities (Dolnicar and Grün, 2017), but researchers and practitioners still disagree on how it should be defined (Saraniemi and Kylanem, 2011). Many discussions have taken place in the tourism literature regarding the concept of "destination", however, as illustrated in Table 8, "destination" is a somewhat vague concept in the tourism literature due to the large number and varied uses of the term. This is also supported by Kaurav, Baber, Chowdhary and Kapadia (2015) who, in their recent review paper state that there is a gap in defining the core concept of a destination. While in recent years there has been a number of scholars (for example: Beritelli, Bieger, and Laesser, 2014; Dolnicar and Grün, 2017; Jovicic, 2015) who have tried to define, delineate, and analyse tourism destinations, it still seems that the term causes confusion rather than clarity.

Table 8. Definitions of tourism destination (source: author)

Author	Definition
Leiper (1990, p.95)	"*A place that a traveller chooses to visit for a stay of at least a night in order to experience some feature or characteristic of the place perceived as a satisfying leisure time experience.*"
Hu and Ritchie (1993, p. 26)	*"A package of tourism facilities and services, which, like any other consumer product or service, is composed of a number of multidimensional attributes that together determine its attractiveness to a particular individual in a given choice situation*."
Laws (1995, p. 133)	"*Places become destinations only by attracting large numbers of visitors, that is to say, that places become tourist destinations through being made into marketable products*".
Seaton and Bennett (1996, p.351)	"*A destination is both a physical entity (geographical location with spatial, physical properties) but it is also a more intangible socio-cultural entity (made up of its history, its people, its traditions and way of life)"*; a destination not only exist physically but also mentally, in the minds of tourists and potential tourists.
Vukovic (1997, p.96)	"*A tourism destination acts as an integral and functional unit in which its particular parts components (such as tourist spaces, localities, zones etc.) can have their own specific offering, and even grow and develop independently*."
Buhalis (2000, p.1)	Amalgams of tourism products offering an integrated experience to consumers. However, "*it is increasingly recognised that a destination can also be interpreted subjectively by consumers depending on their travel itinerary, cultural background, purpose of visit, educational level and past experience.*"
Murphy, Pritchard and Smith (2000, p.44)	"*Amalgam of individual products and experience opportunities that combine to form a total experience of the area visited*."
Framke (2002, p.103)	"*The destination is a narrative created by marketing: it is a place structured by processes and experienced through social actions, and it 'exists' at various geographical levels, but it is never a place with clear boundaries*."
Gunn (2002, p.25)	"*Community- attraction complex and destination zone*."
Pike (2004, p.11)	"*Destinations are places that attract visitors for a temporary stay and range from continents to countries to states and provinces to cities to villages to purpose-built resort areas. At the foundation level destinations are essentially communities based on local government boundaries."*
Saarinen (2004, p.172)	*"Destinations can be understood as constantly changing products of a certain combination of social, political and economic relationships that are specific in space and time."*
Framke (2002, p.98)	"*A narrative, as an attraction, as a geographical unit, as an empirical relationship, as a marketing object, as a place where tourism happens… and so on*."
Pike (2008)	A geographical space in which a cluster of tourism resources exists.

Bornhorst, Ritchie and Sheehan (2010, p.572)	"*A geographical region or major attraction, which seeks to provide visitors with a range of satisfying to memorable visitation experiences."*
Jenkins, Dredge and Taplin (2011, p.25)	"*A location that a person travels to, and that is distinct from their usual place of residence. The travel may be for the purpose of an overnight stay or day trip. A destination can be a specific site such as an urban playground, a theme park or a national park, an urban or rural town or a national park; a region; an island or reef; a state or province; a nation-state, or an internationally defined region."*
Saraniemi and Kylanem (2011, p.133)	*"A set of institutions and actors located in a physical or a virtual space where marketing-related transactions and activities take place challenging the traditional production–consumption dichotomy."*
Wang (2011)	A destination can be a part of a political boundary (California, USA and Darling Harbour in Sydney, Australia); a destination as a political boundary (Las Vegas, Nevada, USA); a destination across political boundaries (The Alps in Europe).
Kotler (2013)	A place that incorporates an interconnected and complementary set of attractions, events, services and products which together create a total experience and value proposition to visitors.
Morrison (2013, p.4)	A geographical area which has political boundary or boundaries that attracts visitors; a place where the tourist can find overnight accommodations, a place where a destination mix and tourism marketing efforts exist, a place where a coordinating organization structure has been created and image exists of place in tourists minds, a place where government agencies have introduced laws and regulations and there is a mixture of tourism stakeholders.
Beritelli, Bieger, and Laesser (2014, p.215)	*"Multiple different, partly overlapping spaces, consisting of dynamic flows."*
Jovicic (2015, p.453)	"*Tourism destinations should be considered to be a very active subject of tourism development with destination stakeholders being actively involved in the decision- making process*."

Traditionally, it has been argued that a destination can be seen as a geographical concept (Jovicic, 2016). Pike (2008) notes that the geographical boundaries that often define a destination commonly coincide with the boundaries of a political jurisdiction. For example, according to Wang (2011), destinations can exist within a section of a political boundary (for example: The French Quarter in New Orleans, USA), destinations can also be a political boundary (for example Las Vegas, USA) while others cross political boundaries (for example: European Alps).

However, once spatially confined as the "*end of the journey*" (Vukonic, 1997, p.96) the destination is now defined as "*an amalgam of individual products and experience opportunities that combine to form a total experience of the area visited*" (Murphy, Pritchard and Smith, 2000, p.44). Accordingly, this means that a tourism destination does not have to have strict boundaries. Therefore, a whole country, a particular region, a certain tourist place, or even smaller area (airport) or attraction can be called a tourist destination (Bornhorst, Ritchie and Sheehan,2010).

In addition, a growing body of literature proposes that destination is a dynamic and fluid concept. In particular, Buhalis (2000) notes that a destination is a subjective concept, perceived by tourists on the basis of different elements such as their travel itineraries. Similarly, Jenkins, Dredge and Taplin (2011) state that tourists are more likely to define a destination in relation to their journey, in particular in terms of attractions, services, entry and departure points. More recently, Pearce and Schänzel (2013) report that destinations are seen as places of personal interest, travel to which is generally purposive and planned for, though unplanned destinations are also visited and pleasant surprises are valued. Accordingly, from the tourist's perspective destinations can be seen as fluid concepts which are unfolding as a journey progresses. Similarly, Jovicic (2016) recognises that once seen as passive and spatial units, due to the growing complexity of tourism as a geo-spatial, economic, and socio-cultural phenomenon, a destination is now recognised as to be a very active subject of tourism development with destination stakeholders being actively involved in the decision-making process.

Elsewhere, Beritelli, Bieger and Laesser (2014) propose a dynamic view of destinations stating that a destination is a space of “variable geometry” – multiple different, partly overlapping spaces, consisting of dynamic flows. They explain that “variable geometry” origins from the aviation’s industry and indicates the modification of aircraft wing angles, so that the aircraft shape adapts to speed and altitude conditions. Accordingly, variable geometry in a destination means that it is a flexible place comprised of different supply networks and delineated by various tourist movements.

The issues outlined above can be problematic for destination marketers who operate on the basis of administrative boundaries that very often limit an accurate conceptualisation of the destination (Jenkins et al., 2011). However, Bornhorst, et al. (2010) state that it is conceptually and managerially more effective to view a destination as that geographical region which contains a sufficiently critical mass or cluster of attractions, so as to be capable of providing tourists with visitation experiences that attract them to the destination for tourism purposes. Therefore, to avoid ambiguity, for the purpose of this research, a tourism destination is understood as a specific geographical area that attracts tourists and where tourism marketing efforts are undertaken through established destination marketing organisation. This view of a destination has a strong impact on determining the role of DMOs, which will be explored in the following section.

2.3.1.3 Defining the Destination Marketing Organisation (DMO) and its role

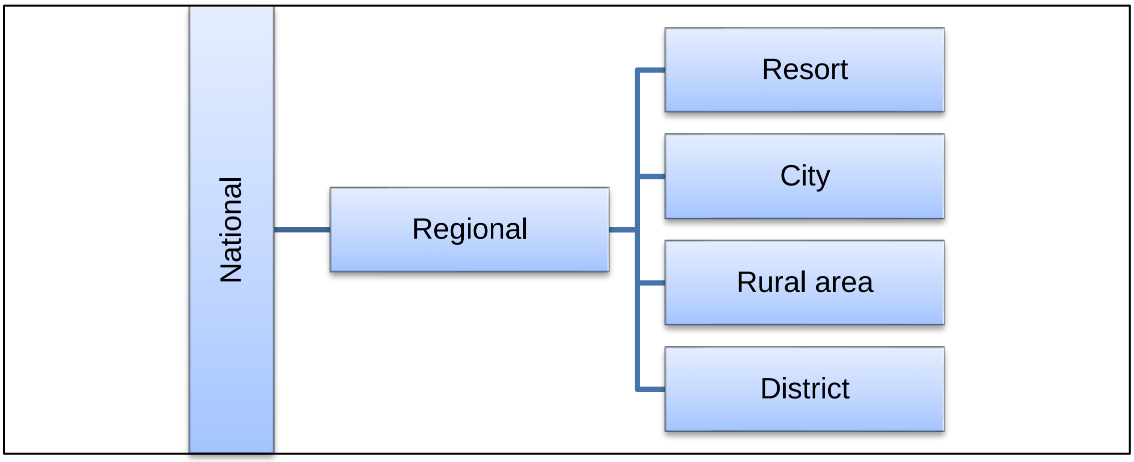
Generally, a destination marketing organisation can be defined as *“the organisation responsible for the marketing of an identifiable destination*” (Pike, 2008, p.31). In other words, DMOs are institutions appointed to pursue strategic goals and to devise and implement a marketing strategy in a destination (Blumberg, 2005). However, the literature review conducted has revealed that many different terms have been used to describe the roles and functions of the DMO: destination marketer, destination image developer, destination promotion coordinator and advocate, supporter and facilitator of tourism projects in the local community (Gartrell, 1994; Presenza, Sheehan, Ritchie, 2005; Ritchie and Crouch, 2003). This range of different terms represents recent debate on the core functions of the DMO (Blumberg, 2005; Elbe et al., 2009; Ford and Peeper, 2007; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Morgan, 2012; Pechlaner, Kozak, Volgger, 2014).

However, it has to be noted that these definitions of the role and functions of DMOs are normative and descriptive and mainly based on the observations and interpretations of the researchers rather than supported or confirmed by empirical data (Wang, 2011). At a country level, there are often three distinctive types of DMOs, as presented in Table 9 and Figure 6.

Table 9. Three levels of DMOs (adapted from: Morrison, 2013; Pike, 2016)

Type	Responsibility
National DMOs	• responsible for management and marketing of tourism at a national level • the entity with overall responsibility for marketing a country as a tourism destination
Regional, provincial or state DMOs	• responsible for the marketing of tourism in a geographic region defined for that purpose • sometimes, but not always an administrative or local government region such as a county, state or province
Local DMOs	• responsible for the management and/or marketing of tourism based on a smaller geographic area or city/town

Figure 6. DMOs at three geographical levels (source: author)



DMOs have historically been established as government departments (Pike, 2016). However, DMOs can have different structures representing a particular type of funding arrangement. For example, Wang (2011) recognises that there are four types of DMO:

- government agencies: completely under the control of the national or local government responsible for the destination; work with allocated budgets and market the destination in accord with municipal policy;

- government funded non-profit organisations: a separate business entity, with considerable latitude in the use of its resources. Typically receives a share of visitor taxes collected locally by service providers;
- dual funded non-profit organisations: government funded DMOs receiving contributions and subscription fees from various local service providers in addition to funds allocated by their local governments;
- members only trade associations: some coalition of commercial enterprises may take on the role of destination marketing.

Elsewhere, Ritchie and Crouch (2003, p.175) argue that a DMO may be either a "public sector agency or a private sector-driven organisation". Indeed, the public-private partnership (PPP) has become a favoured model in many destinations (Morrison, 2013; Pike, 2016). PPPs are essentially partnerships between the public sector and the private sector for the purpose of designing, planning, financing, constructing, providing and/or operating infrastructure, facilities or related services (Kim and Woo Park, 2007).

It is important to note that in the tourism literature some researchers differ in their interpretation of the DMO name. There is a recent trend by some academics and scholars to refer to DMOs as destination *management* organisations rather than *marketing* organisations (for example: Elbe et al., 2009; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015, Presenza et al., 2005; Sheehan and Ritchie, 2005), or as DMMOs, destination *marketing and management* organisations (for example: Gretzel, Fesenmaier, Formica & O'Leary, 2006; Morrison, 2013; Wang and Pizam, 2011). Pearce (2015) notices that this issue is not simply the issue of the semantics, but also a question of the extent to which the title reflects the basic functions undertaken by the DMO.

The supporters of the formulation of destination management (for example: Blumber, 2005; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015) or destination marketing and management organisations (Wang and Pizam, 2011) claim that over the past years, DMOs have undergone a number of transformations, and from typically marketing organisations, they have been transformed into entities with a more comprehensive remit in the sphere of tourism management (Presenza et al., 2005). In particular, Elbe et al. (2009) state that the DMO has to be skilful in building and maintaining relationships with stakeholders in order to fulfil its tasks, hence management rather than just marketing. Similarly, Gretzel et al. (2006) state that very often DMOs find that they are in a position in which they have to be responsible to both the buyer and the local communities they represent, hence "*not only marketing an experience, but also doing whatever can be done to ensure that the deliverable product is enjoyable and of high quality*" (Gretzel et al., 2006, p.119).

Elsewhere, Wang and Pizam (2011) argue that although the main function of DMOs is to increase the number of visitors to a destination, however, this is a major challenge since the DMOs neither shape nor manufacture the product. Ultimately, the DMOs role is confined to marketing with "*their hands tied behind their backs*" (Wang and Pizam, 2011, p.x). This means that DMOs are responsible for the marketing of products over which they have no control. As a result, Wang and Pizam (2011, p.x) state that "*many DMO executives (…) have quietly called for a change in the role of DMOs and for a greater influence in the management and operation of tourism enterprises at the destination in a holistic manner*." As such, this marks a shift from DMOs towards DMMOs.

However, most of these studies are again normative in nature, expressing the views of simply what DMOs should or might do (Pearce, 2015). For example, Presenza et al. (2005) develop a list of "possible" activities in an attempt to model the various roles of DMOs. Their conceptual model is descriptive in nature and built on "*the notions of the common and desired activities of the DMO*" (Presenza et al., 2005, no page). However, Pike and Page (2014, p.205) go as far as to argue:

> *"Using the term Destination Management Organisation as a generic descriptor is unhelpful in adding clarity and purpose to the discussion of the DMO's role because it confuses the perceived need for management with the largely marketing function they actually undertake. Therefore, whilst academics may create terms and offer an oversight of the problems facing destinations and the need for management, allocating their resolution to DMOs as management functions is clearly a different scope for a DMO."*

What is more, according to Pike and Page (2014), “management” implies some kind of control while they argue that very few DMOs have either mandate or resources to effectively manage their destination. Similarly, Page and Hall (2003) and Howie (2003) state that DMOs are very limited in terms of what they can undertake and achieve in a destination, as there are many practical issues managed by local authorities: car parking, pollution, control of crowds, security issues. What is more, as noted by Pike and Page (2014), DMOs have little control over access issues such as the development of airport, rail and road infrastructure. They also have no control over stakeholders' product development, pricing or marketing strategies (apart from joint promotions undertaken). This is further emphasised by Line and Runyan (2014, p.93) who state that “*DMOs have relatively limited control of a destination’s operand resources*”. In a similar vein to Pike and Page (2014), they claim that DMOs control neither the destination’s infrastructure nor the private suppliers of the tourism product. Furthermore, Line and Runyan (2014) claim that DMOs do not own the natural and historical/heritage-based resources that play such a critical role in many destinations’ competitive positions.

More difficulties in the application of management function may stem from the interdependence between a DMO’s funding sources and its mandate. Blumberg (2005) states that in general both the public and the private sector contribute to destination marketing in return for some (though not necessarily financial) benefit. This is because local authorities are interested in place marketing as an economic development function, and tourism operators similarly expect a raise of the destination’s profile and a subsequent increase in the number of visitors. However, Blumberg (2005) explains that with limited financial resources, it seems to be an unfeasible project for the DMOs to fully assume responsibility for destination management.

To summarise, the literature portrays a range of roles and functions for the DMO: from a marketing or promotion focus to ones that also suggest broader efforts related to the management and development of the destination. To avoid ambiguity, the main focus of this research is based on the principles of marketing and how these are applied at a destination level. This is because, while some researchers argue that there is a shift towards recognising that the role of DMO goes well beyond the marketing (for example: Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Ritchie and Crouch, 2003), it is widely recognised that the main mandate of DMO is to promote visitation in their destination (Dore and Crouch, 2003; Pike and Page, 2014).

2.3.2 Literature developments

Much of the initial stimulus for destination marketing emerged from the germane area of tourism marketing which provided the foundations for the development of this more specialised literature focused on the destination (Pike and Page, 2014). Thus, as a growing area of study (Cai, 2002), developing over a period of 40 years (Pike, 2016), destination marketing literature is still evolving.

Table 10 illustrates the three phases in the development of the destination marketing literature.

Table 10. Destination marketing literature development (source: author)

TIMELINE	LITERATURE FOCUS	MAIN CONTRIBUTORS
Phase 1: mid-to-late 20th century	• Predominantly economic perspective is adopted. • Development of destination marketing plans and frameworks aiming to identify tourists needs and wants. • Promotion and communication of unique products and services.	Gartrell (1988); Gilbert (1990); Hawes, Taylor and Hampe (1991); Heath and Wall (1992); Murphy (1993); Laws (1995); Nykiel and Jascolt (1998); Bennett (1999)
Phase 2: late 20th century-early 21st century	• Focus on the issue of destination competitiveness. • Divergence in interest from the marketing of destinations in favour of branding.	Buhalis (2000); Ritchie and Crouch (2003); Morgan and Pritchard (2001); Murdaugh (2005); Kolb (2006); Pike (2008)
Phase 3: early 21st century-present	• The shift from destination marketing towards destination management. • Destination marketing conceptually elevated and regarded with a close connection to broader, more expansive and consequential notions of culture and sustainability.	Wang and Pizam (2011); Ritchie and Crouch (2011); Morgan (2012); Morgan and Pritchard (2014); Pike and Page (2014); Morrison (2013); Kozak and Kozak (2016), Pike (2016)

The next section explains that research focusing on destination marketing can be traced back to the last few decades of the twentieth century. Early studies (Gartrell, 1988; Hall and Wall, 1992) mainly focus on the conceptualisation of destination marketing and tend to adopt economic perspective. Other studies in this phase (Kotler et al., 1993; Laws, 1995; Nykiel and Jascolt, 1998) shift their concern towards the development of strategic frameworks guiding the process of destination marketing. The most influential works from that time introduce the concepts of the uniqueness and difference as the core of destination marketing (Gilbert, 1990; Bennett, 1999).

Phase 2 studies (Buhalis, 2000; Ritchie and Crouch, 2003; Kolb, 2006) tend to focus on the issue of destination competitiveness and place greater emphasis on destinations to differentiate their products based on their uniqueness. Phase 2 is also characterised by a focus on more specific aspects of destination marketing, such as destination branding (Morgan and Pritchard, 2001; Morgan, Pritchard and Pride, 2004; Murdaugh, 2005; Murphy et al., 2007)

Due to the growing complexity and challenges in destination marketing, contemporary studies in Phase 3 (Ritchie and Crouch, 2011; Morgan and Pritchard, 2014; Pike and Page, 2014; Campelo et al., 2014) pay attention to the role of culture and sustainability which can signify a shift towards more cultural and sustainable destination marketing practices.

Therefore, by reviewing existing relevant literature, the following three sections include the evolution of the destination marketing literature covering its history and recent developments.

2.3.2.1 Phase 1

According to Pike (2016), the destination marketing literature emerged in 1973 with the first article by Matejka (citied in Pike, 2016) followed three years later by the first definition of destination marketing by Wahab et al. (1976). They define destination marketing as:

> *“the management process through which the National Tourists Organisations and /or tourist enterprises identify their selected tourists, actual and potential, communicate with them to ascertain and influence their wishes, needs, motivations, likes and dislikes, on local, regional, national and international levels and to formulate and adapt their tourist products accordingly in view of achieving optimal tourist’s satisfaction thereby fulfilling their objectives”* (Wahab et al., 1976, p.24).

However, the first pioneering text on destination marketing was published in 1988 by Gartrell. Since then a significant destination marketing research has been undertaken and it was during the nineteen nineties when destination marketing *"gathered significant momentum as both an academic and practitioner perspective*" (Heeley, 2015a, p.141). During this period destination marketing literature has started to emphasise that differentiation and uniqueness lie at the heart of destination marketing. For example, Gilbert (1990) states that destinations need to identify a special attraction, unique benefits or attributes that cannot be found elsewhere. This is because differentiation and uniqueness are important for destinations since they will either become places of status or commodities, with the latter leading to increased substitutability (Gilbert, 1990). In particular, Gilbert (1990) states that destinations should differentiate themselves in their tourism promotion, so that they become a “status area” rather than a “commodity area”. According to the author, the latter type of area is unfavourable as awareness of its unique attributes and benefits is low among potential visitors. Additionally, commodity areas are heavily substitutable, demand is largely incidental and there is a great resistance to high prices. For that reason, Gilbert (1990) indicates that a tourist destination should work towards becoming a status area by basing its product offer on its special attributes that cannot be found elsewhere. This should result in increasing visitations, higher spend and greater loyalty.

Elsewhere, rather than providing advice on what destination marketing should look like, Hawes, Taylor and Hampe (1991) report on the findings of their study in which they aimed to examine the destination marketing plans of 35 DMOs in the USA. Based on the “practitioner-oriented” approach the authors state that they do not intent to provide a critique of state marketing plans, nor an evaluation of their effectiveness. Rather, they extract the key approaches from each plan and identify four main destination marketing themes. One of the four main themes in destination marketing strategy is to create and promote unique destination location products to offer to the tourism market.

In contrast to the above, Heath and Wall (1992) in their "Marketing Tourism Destinations" textbook present guidelines to facilitate the planning, development and marketing of tourism, with an emphasis on destination areas at the regional and community levels. Although a predominantly economic perspective is adopted, Heath and Wall (1992) view destination marketing as a strategic approach proceeding from situation analysis through mission formulation, establishing goals and objectives, portfolio analysis, target markets definition, positioning, developing the appropriate marketing mix, and establishing the proper organisational design and supporting systems. However, Murphy (1993) recognises that Heath and Wall (1992) fail to emphasise "sense of place" in the discussion of a destination marketing strategy. According to Murphy (1993), in an increasingly competitive and homogeneous world, tourism marketing should be emphasising the unique or unusual character of its regional and community destinations as product differentiators.

In a similar vein to Heath and Wall (1992), Laws (1995) states that selecting which aspects of a specific destination to feature in the marketplace depends on two steps: identifying the destination's special advantages and understanding how to entice those visitors which the destination hopes to attract. Kotler et al. (1993) take this argument event further by stating that destinations should undertake a comprehensive place audit (SWOT) analysis enabling them to select competitive strengths. In particular, they state that marketing of places requires a deep understanding of how "place buyers" (tourists) make their decisions. With this understanding, "place sellers" (DMOs) can take the necessary steps to compete for tourists.

Proposing a new idea, Palmer and Bejou (1995) assert that alliances between the private and public sectors are particularly attractive in destination marketing, because there is usually a congruence of objectives between the two sectors; attracting more tourists can benefit not only the narrow financial objectives of tourism operators, but also the more diverse social objectives of the public sector. Consequently, they believe that the unique approach in destination marketing should be based on a collaborative approach reflecting the environment in which stakeholders operate.

Similarly, during this time Nykiel and Jascolt (1998) provide a destination marketing plan that promises to enhance revenue growth and increase demand. In short, they explain a destination marketing plan as a broad structure guiding the process of determining the target market, detailing the market's needs and wants, and then fulfilling these needs and wants better than competitor or alternative destinations. To simplify the destination marketing process, Nykiel and Jascolt (1998) break down the process into various steps including competitive and environmental assessment, goals and objectives, strategies and tactics, measurements and results.

To conclude this period of time, Bennett (1999) defines the destination marketing elements that are essential to achieving greater success in the 21st century. According to him destination marketing should focus on delivering a destination which is desirable and different. Bennett (1999, p.52) states that "*if all destinations were the equivalent of a Mars bar or a McDonalds, which are always the same, then there is no reason to travel any more!*". This ultimately reflects the main principle of destination marketing as being based on uniqueness and difference.

2.3.2.2 Phase 2

Into the new Millennium, academic and practitioner perspectives on destination marketing start to focus on the issue of destination competitiveness. For example, Buhalis (2000) states that destination marketing is increasingly becoming extremely competitive worldwide and therefore it is crucial for destinations to differentiate their products based on their uniqueness. Similarly, Ritchie and Crouch (2003) emphasise the distinctiveness of place as the most important factor that has to be ensured at each stage during the destination marketing process. They further maintain that DMOs have to develop marketing strategies based on unique features.

Moreover, Ritchie and Crouch (2003) identify culture as one of the very powerful dimensions of destination attractiveness. In particular, they note that high quality and distinctive meals are a powerful element in the cultural dimension of a destination's attractiveness. This marks an important turn in destination marketing literature – one that reflects a shift towards intangible and cultural approaches. Another contribution of Ritchie and Crouch (2003) is a conceptual model of destination competitiveness that recognises the importance of sustainability for long-term success.

It seems that the beginning of the new millennium marks a point at which a divergence in interest from the marketing of destinations in favour of branding them could be detected (Dioko, 2016). For example, the importance of destination branding is made clear by Morgan and Pritchard (2001, p.214) who state that "*the battle for customers in the tourism industry will be fought not over price but over the hearts and minds – in essence, branding (…) will be the key to success*". This is then followed by the seminal publication of "*Destination Branding: Creating the Unique Destination Proposition*" (Morgan et al., 2002).

In the same period, Caldwell and Freire (2004) state that although destination branding is a relatively new concept, there is a general consensus among practitioners and academics that destinations can be branded in the same way as goods and services. Elsewhere, Morgan, Pritchard and Pride (2004) confirm that destination branding is a significant development in the marketing of destinations.

In particular, Morgan and Pritchard (2004, p.60) emphasise the importance of destination branding by stating that:

> *"branding is perhaps the most powerful weapon available to contemporary destination marketers confronted by tourists who are increasingly seeking lifestyle fulfilment and experience rather than recognising differentiation in the more tangible elements of the destination product such as accommodation and attractions."*

In other words, they see destination branding as a powerful tool that destinations can use in order to survive within a globally competitive marketplace dominated by a handful of leading destinations. This is because, as they state, most destinations:

> *"have superb five-star resorts and attractions, every country claims to have a unique culture, landscape and heritage, each place describes itself as having the friendliest people, and high standards of customer service"* (Morgan and Pritchard, 2004, p.60).

The literature developments mentioned in this section gave subsequent rise to other notable destination marketing and branding publications. Among them, Murdaugh (2005) outlines guiding principles for successful destination marketing.

He emphasises the need to focus on a destination's top attractions, appeals, or benefits by stating that destination marketers have to "*focus on amenities not found in competing destinations*" (Murdaugh, 2005, p.31). Consequently, branding should include and reflect the unique selling points that separate the destination from the competition. In particular, with reference to the meetings market, Maurdaugh (2005, p.35) proposes that destinations are chosen "*based on the unique appeal of the particular destination – the community's personality, culture, heritage, or qualities that distinguish it from other communities*."

Elsewhere, Park and Petrick (2006) report on the findings of their study with 8 DMOs in the USA. They state that, according to all research participants, destination branding is necessary in today's competitive tourism market. Additionally, Park and Petrick (2006) believe that the key to successful destination branding is an ability to create an emotional link with tourists.

Other contributors to destination marketing and branding literature echo the need to create "unique" destinations which competitors cannot imitate. For example, Kolb (2006) in "Tourism Marketing for Cities and Towns" states that destination marketing should be based on an in-depth analysis of products, identification of the unique characteristics of a destination and then packaging them, so as to effectively market the destination as a "truly unique". He proposes a SWOT analysis as a way of identifying a unique core product. Moreover, Kolb (2006) explains that for a city or town, a unique core product could include unique botanical gardens, architecture, public art, historic building. However, if the city does not have one unique core product, it can still be viewed as unique based on the superior quality of tourism services or availability of unique benefits.

This growing importance of branding is confirmed by Murphy, Moscardo and Benckendorff (2007, p.5) who state that "*destination branding is growing rapidly as an approach to tourism destination promotion*". However, interestingly, Pike (2008) views destination branding as an essential component in destination marketing strategy rather than a separate activity. In his words: "*branding is at the very heart of marketing strategy, and so the purpose of all destination marketing activity must be to enhance the value of the brand*" (Pike, 2008, p.174). In addition, Pike (2008) states that differentiating among an almost endless list of competitors lies at the core purpose of destination marketing. Accordingly, "*a successful strategy achieves a point of difference against competitors on an attribute deemed important by the market*" (Pike, 2008, p.132).

2.3.2.3 Phase 3

In recent years (since 2010) the growth in destination marketing and management literature can be observed (Gertner, 2011). For example, Wang and Pizam (2011) in the title of their book acknowledge both marketing and management, in relation to theories and applications. While there are insightful propositions about ideals of destination management, they state that:

> *"many DMO executives (…) have quietly called for a change in the role of DMOs and for a greater influence in the management and operation of tourism enterprises at the destination in a holistic manner"* (Wang and Pizam, 2011, p.x).

This indicates that their proposition of destination management and marketing is based on assumptions only rather than empirical research. What is more, Wang and Pizam (2011) contradict themselves by stating that ultimately the main function of DMOs is to increase the number of visitors to a destination, hence marketing rather than, as they propose, management.

In the same way, Wang (2011) states that destination management and marketing is a complex issue which requires a comprehensive, holistic and systematic approach. In particular, Wang (2011) recognises that destination management and marketing has been and will continue to be shaped by a range of sociocultural, economic, political and physical factors.

Ritchie and Crouch (2011) reemphasise their previous argument (see Ritchie and Crouch, 2003) that culture and history play important roles in destination marketing. In the words of authors, while culture and history can often be seen as "*more malleable than physiography or climate from a management perspectiv*e", they both provide a powerful attracting force for prospective visitors (Ritchie and Crouch, 2011, p.331). Ritchie and Crouch (2011) argue that this is particularly important in today's world of homogenised tourism, where one destination often seems to resemble another. Accordingly, if destination marketing provides visitors with a unique setting, then this can achieve a point of differentiation. Ritchie and Crouch (2011) also warn that little or no alteration should be undertaken to local culture and history for the purpose of destination marketing. In summary, they believe that successful destination marketing should:

a) increase tourism expenditure;
b) increasingly attract visitors while proving them with satisfying and memorable experiences in a profitable way;
c) enhance the well-being of destination residents;
d) preserve the natural capital of the destination for future generations.

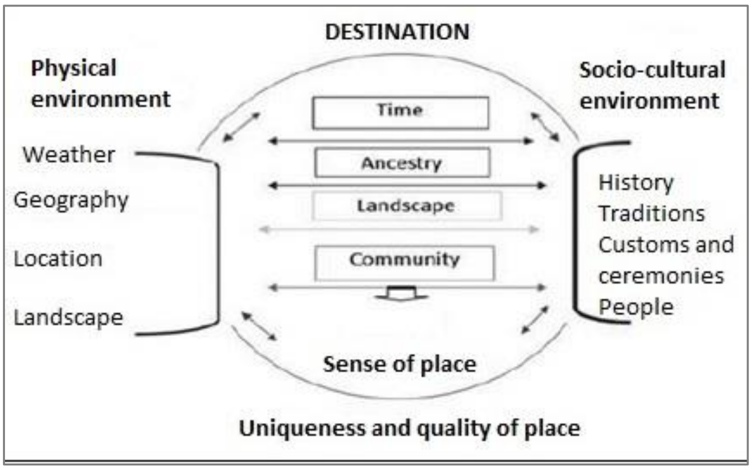
Interestingly, while the first two points are focused on financial gains, the last two points are connected to broader and more expansive notions of sustainability. This is also advocated by others, for example, Morgan (2012) calls for more "mindful" approaches to destination management and marketing and goes on to state that "*tomorrow's successful tourism destinations will be places which enhance the well-being of their populations through tourism and embrace new ways of sustainable living"* (Morgan, 2012, p.9).

Keeping with the destination branding theme, Morgan and Pritchard (2014) reiterate that most destinations use similar images in their marketing: their history, rich culture and beautiful scenery. For that reason, it is important to build destination branding on "*assets or associations which uniquely connect a destination to the audience*" (Morgan and Pritchard, 2014, p.414). They also emphasise that destination branding should not only be based on unique features of a destination, but also on propositions which are sustainable, credible and relevant. In this sense, destination branding can be regarded not so much as a promotional tool upholding the distinctiveness of place, but more importantly, destination branding can be seen as a tool serving the both – tourists and residents. In other words, destination branding can be seen as an emerging form of a more holistic or, as Morgan (2012, p.9) would say, "mindful" approach which DMOs should adopt.

Pike and Page (2014) also note that more and more often DMOs have been moving into branding activities in the attempt to achieve differentiation. Similarly, in the most recent review of destination marketing and branding, Dioko (2016) argues that the interest may be shifting away from general destination marketing towards destination branding across a broad range of geographical concepts: destinations, cities and places. He argues that although the marketing of destinations began in the mid-1980s, it stagnated after 2005. In contrast, research publications on the branding of destinations have increased just after the turn of the millennium.

Much of the current destination marketing literature pays attention to the role of culture. For example, Kladou, Kavaratzis, Rigopoulou, Salonika (2016) have noted that increasingly a shift towards cultural understandings of destination brands can be observed (for example: Kavaratzis and Hatch, 2013), as well as more informed analyses of the cultural and local nature of destination brands. Similarly, Campelo et al. (2014) state that it is fundamental to a destination branding strategy to recognise the cultural characteristics of the destination to understand the people who live in that place, and to appreciate how a shared “sense of place” is constituted and experienced. They explain “sense of place” as the basis of how places are defined and how destination brands are articulated (Figure 7).

Figure 7. Sense of place model (adapted from: Campelo et al.; 2014, p.161).



In their sense of place model (Figure 7), Campelo et al. (2014) provide an illustration of how the attributes from the physical environment interact with attributes from the socio-cultural environment to create constructs that determine the sense of place. They state that the application of this model to destinations should help to appreciate social spheres and to understand better their cultural significance. Accordingly, Campelo et al. (2014) emphasise that this is crucial for development of an effective and consistent destination branding strategy which is both culturally and socially informed. Thus, the application of this model should help marketers to understand attributes of social and cultural significance in tourism destinations. Similarly, in their review of destination marketing literature, Pike and Page (2014) conclude that the cultural aspects of destinations are increasingly seen as important dimensions in the attractiveness of destinations. More specifically, Pike and Page (2014) recognise that this is crucial in urban destinations which are seen as places to visit, work, live and study and therefore they tend to compete more aggressively.

A similar trend can be noticed in place branding literature. For example, Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2015) call for a culturally informed approach to place branding. Their main argument is that while culture is central to place branding, the relationship is complex and needs to be treated with caution. Furthermore, not only is place branding informed and affected by culture, but also informs and affects it. In particular, Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2015) criticise the current use of culture in place branding, as according to them, it does not reflect the complexity of the relationship. They explain that while branding claims to appreciate the role of culture and actually be based on culture, the two are rather disconnected and branding seems often to “hijack” culture. This “hijacking” refers to the interpretations of culture that are dominant within place branding – the emphasis on certain cultural elements over others and the wider effectiveness of culture-based strategies. In other words, Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2015) identify a disconnection between place branding and culture in current theory and practice.

Moving back to destination marketing literature, the most recent edited volume by Kozak and Kozak (2016) explores different marketing approaches and tools which are used in a variety of destinations around the world. Interestingly, in the concluding remarks Kozak and Kozak (2016) state that the richness of the volume derives from the contents of each chapter which explore the significance of understandings the multicultural characteristics of the tourism and hospitality industry in general, and of destination marketing in particular. They cite

Hofstede's cultural dimensions[3] and state that there is a need for a better communication between different actors in a destination. Interestingly, although the volume is divided into four thematic sections (destination image, destination branding, supporting elements of destinations, models of destination marketing and competitiveness), the main focus is on the currently most popular topic in the destination marketing literature – the image an individual holds of a destination. This further positions destination branding, as the core element in destination marketing process.

However, it has to be noted that most recently, destination marketing literature has been challenged. Heeley (2014; 2015a; 2015b) claims that there is a gap between the theory and practice of destination marketing. In his study, Heeley (2015a, p.2) found that the content of urban destination marketing across 58 European destinations was "*much of a muchness*" and strikingly similar in format and content. Having been a DMO chief executive officer for over twenty years, Heeley (2015a) found himself critiquing the very theory of which he had been such an "*enthusiastic and supporter*" (p.3). In his study, Heeley (2015a) conducted a series of 21 in-depth interviews with DMO executives and conducted "*an online investigation of urban destination marketing in 62 European towns and cities"* (Heeley, 2015a, p.13). He suggests that majority of destinations promote a standardised set of messages and imagery rather than uniqueness and difference, hence the "marketing of everything" approach as opposed to one based on uniqueness and difference.

To conclude this section of the literature review it appears that in this most recent five-year period between 2012 and 2017, destination marketing has been conceptually elevated and regarded with a close connection to broader, more expansive and consequential notions such as these of culture and sustainability. Of the number of recent studies, the enquiry undertaken by Campelo et al. (2014), which emphasises the importance of sense of place in destination branding and holistic approach, as well as Ritchie and Crouch (2011) and Morgan (2012)

[3] Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory is a framework for cross-cultural communication, developed by Geert Hofstede. It consists of six dimensions of culture: basic problems to which different national societies have over time developed different answers (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede and Fink, 2007).

calling for more cultural approaches embracing new ways of sustainable living, they are likely to be examples of the evolving direction of interest in this field of study. Nevertheless, this cultural and more sustainable turn is a relatively new development and academic investigation in the area is just beginning to emerge.

Overall, it appears that destination marketing, as a field of study and practice, has not only generated significant interest over the past two decades, but it has also navigated through an evolutionary conceptual journey that continues to develop today. It has to be restated that this field of research is dynamically unfolding, as it has progressed remarkably in a relatively short span of 20 years having been elevated from a destination marketing function within tourism to being regarded as a highly complex destination marketing and management concept. As demonstrated above, many researchers suggest that destination branding best represents the means by which destinations seek to distinguish themselves. Thus, destination branding acts as a powerful marketing tool to tackle increasing competition, product similarity and substitutability in the tourism market. What is more, it appears that there is a cultural turn in the destination marketing literature.

However, regardless of the shift in focus, all of the studies have one important thing in common, namely, they emphasise the importance of reinforcing uniqueness as well as differentiating the destination from competitors. As demonstrated in the above sections, the increasing competition in the global tourism market means that DMOs need to develop adequate strategies and effective marketing plans that will clearly differentiate them from competitors in the marketplace.

2.3.3 Contemporary issues – the challenges in destination marketing

While tourism destinations are clearly difficult products to market effectively, tourism destination marketers are also likely to continue to face considerable challenges in the future (Fyall and Garrod, 2005; Fyall and Leask, 2006). Previous studies conducted by Buhalis (2000), King (2002), Bennett (1999), Fyall and Leask (2006), Gretzel et al. (2006), among others, identify a number of issues impacting on the future marketing of destinations. These include: increasing competition, channels of distribution, the issue of collaboration, changing market conditions and patterns of booking. While this list is not exhaustive, it indicates some of the main challenges. In particular, the work of Gretzel et al. (2006) identify six main challenges for destination marketing (Table 11). However, it has to be noted that while Table 11 illustrates the main challenges facing DMOs, it is not the aim of this section to review all challenges, but rather to acknowledge the main issues while focussing specifically on the issues of increasing competition, technological change and collaboration.

Table 11. Challenges for DMOs (adapted from: Gretzel et al., 2006, p.118)

Challenge	Factors
Adapting to technological change	Lack of human and financial resources. Internet technology is not just a substitute for old ways of marketing. Web sites not catering to customers' unique needs.
Managing expectations	Leadership role of DMOs in local communities. Growing number of stakeholders. Communicating more effectively by recognising changes in consumer behaviour. Need for community relations plan.
Shift from destination marketing to more complex DMO responsibilities (destination management)	More complex DMO responsibilities. Increasing involvement in planning and development projects. Need to change DMO structures.
Confronting new levels of competition	Fight for market share with other destinations. Emergence of for-profit destination management companies. Compete for increasingly limited funding with other sectors.
Recognising creative partnering as the new way of life	Partnerships beyond geographical boundaries and/or jurisdictions. Lack of incentives for partnering. Need for creative partnering ideas.
Finding new measures of success	Increased need to demonstrate accountability. Finding the right benchmarks and benchmarking partners. Responsibilities and marketing tools have changed but evaluations still based on traditional methods.

The marketing of tourism destinations is increasingly becoming competitive globally (Buhalis, 2000; Pike and Page, 2014; UNWTO, 2013). DMOs increasingly compete with other destinations for market share. A key theme throughout the literature is the challenge of promoting destinations in the dynamic and global marketplace (Pike, 2008). A long-term view of competitiveness is paramount, and from a strategic planning perspective, sustainable destination competitiveness is essential (Pike and Page, 2014). However, this is becoming more difficult as, from the demand-side, tourists enjoy a plethora of choices of available destinations, while from the supply-side, a DMO represents a large and diverse range of destination attributes, amenities and stakeholders (Fyall and Leask, 2006). DMOs, therefore, face a challenge of meeting the expectations of not only tourists, but also all other groups within the destination in a manner that is sensitive to the needs of quite often diverse tourism stakeholders (Wang, 2008).

In particular, Gretzel et al. (2006, p.120) report that in their study one of the DMO representatives stated that the main challenge is “*to set a specific destination apart from the rest in terms of the experience it provides and the value for the customer dollar it offers*.” Another important challenge that emerged from their focus group discussions was that competition not only occurs in the form of rivalry in the marketplace, but also is increasingly characterised by a struggle to compete for local resources and funds (Gretzel et al., 2006). Thus, according to Hristov and Petrova (2015), within a new political and economic context DMOs across England are not only expected to facilitate a more holistic and inclusive approach to destination marketing and provide core leadership functions, rather than being solely responsible for the marketing and development of destinations.

Indeed, England has recently witnessed a major change with the existing structure of tourism promotion redefined, as many regional and locally-focused DMOs have been abolished or their funding cut as part of public sector austerity cuts (Pike and Page, 2014). In the past English destinations were heavily dependent on the public purse, mainly through regional government support provided by nine Regional Development Agencies (RDAs) (Fyall, Fletcher and Spyriadis, 2009). RDAs were the main source of funding and development support for tourism on a regional scale (Kennell and Chaperon, 2013) while tourist boards, namely Regional Tourist Boards, were responsible for implementation and development of national and regional tourism policy (Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1969).

However, in 2010, a new chapter for tourism governance and administration in England began, when the new economic and political landscape led to organisational and policy restructuring across English destinations with the aim of reducing the sector’s dependence on public funding (Kennell and Chaperon, 2013). In 2011 the government's tourism policy was published (Department for Culture, Media and Sport, 2011, p.21) with the aim to:

> *"modernise and update local tourism bodies to become focused and efficient Destination Management Organisations (DMOs) which are led by and, increasingly, funded through partnership with the tourism industry itself".*

Accordingly, the government's tourism policy proposed that DMOs have to form partnerships between the public sector, usually the local authority, and local businesses and attractions, including newly-formed Local Enterprise Partnerships. In addition, RDAs were abolished and Visit England was established to act as the new national body for English tourist firms and destinations.

These new conditions are major contributors to the changing public sector support for destinations in England, namely, the decline of state funding for DMOs (Dinan, Hutchison and Coles, 2011). What is more, DMOs are expected to have a more broadly based mandate, yet operate in a heavily resource-constrained environment (Dinan et al., 2011). Reshaped DMOs have the sole responsibility for ensuring the long-term financial sustainability of their own organisations (Department for Culture, Media and Sport, 2011). In addition, they are expected to do so by providing value to their destinations, and equally, supporting the growth of local businesses and the regeneration of host communities through exploiting opportunities to further develop tourism (Hristov and Petrova, 2015). This is usually done by forming partnership structures and working with Local Enterprise Partnerships (LEPs), the successors of RDAs (Pike and Page, 2014).

Similarly, in a global context, DMOs are gradually turning into networks of public-private partnerships (as explained in section 2.3.1.3) in order to attain a more sustainable level of performance in times of decreasing state funding. To achieve such a goal, collaboration is required and it is seen as pre-requisite for the achievement of destination marketing goals (Pike, 2016; Wang and Xiang, 2007). Thus, a DMO should act as "*a strong unifying force that is able to bring all component parts of the destination together*" (Fyall and Leask, 2006, p.51). Similarly, Fyall, Garrod and Tosun (2006) state that for destination marketing to be effective and succeed both now and in the future, DMOs need to bring all of the individual partners to cooperate and pull resources together rather than compete.

The tourism market is fiercely competitive (Pike, 2008) and tourism destinations need to differentiate their products to enhance their competitiveness (Buhalis, 2000). However, while destination competitiveness would appear to be linked to the ability of a destination to deliver goods and services that perform better than other destinations (Dwyer and Kim, 2003), differentiation and uniqueness have now become essential in the destination competitiveness (Buhalis, 2000). In particular, Pine and Gilmore (1999) argue that tourists increasingly seek out new and unique experiences rather than products or services. Accordingly, destination marketing is no longer concerned simply with representing or conveying an image of a place, but with attempting to sell an experience of a place (Hannam, 2004). Moreover, King (2002, p.106) is very critical of DMOs, particularly stating that they tend to focus on "*what the destination has to offer*" and continue to use "*mass marketing techniques more suited to the passive customer*."

For destinations, therefore, to be successful, DMOs need to be able to provide tourists with the types of experiences they are increasingly able to demand. In the same study, King (2002) advances a number of so-called "new realities" for destination marketers. These include greater emphasis on the creation and promotion of experiences that link with the needs of key customers. King (2002) states that DMOs should be connecting the experience, rather than promoting the place. Similarly, Morgan and Pritchard (2002) argue that rather than the images of sand, sea and sun, or simply price, it is an empathy with the destination that now persuades tourists to visit and revisit a particular destination. For that reason, Hannam (2004) emphasises that successful destination marketing needs to make an emotional attachment with the consumer’s lifestyle by being credible, deliverable and sustainable.

Another issue is that in recent years DMOs have been increasingly criticised for their inability to reinvent themselves in face of the radical changes occurring in their external environment (Pike and Page, 2014). The first few years of the new millennium brought extraordinary change and transformation. Arguably, the greatest agent for change in destination marketing is technology (Morrison, 2013). The Internet has become the primary means with which DMOs disseminate information and communicate with prospective tourists (Buhalis 1998, 2000; Gretzel, Yuan and Fesenmaier, 2000; Kim and Fesenmaier, 2008; Morrison, Taylor and Douglas, 2005). Many DMOs have developed websites with varying levels of interactivity (Palmer and McCole, 2000) and they are widely recognised as the official channels for providing authoritative information to tourists (Li, Robinson and Oriade, 2017). With fairly limited budgets, DMOs have been investing substantial resources to their websites (Li and Petrick, 2007). According to Morrison (2013, p.373), "*websites are the global shop windows for promoting destinations*".

However, recent studies (Hays, Page and Buhalis, 2013; Lange-Faria and Elliot, 2012; Neuhofer, Buhalis and Ladkin, 2014) argue that DMOs have not fully incorporated technology in their operations and strategies. Most DMOs have developed websites with varying levels of interactivity/sophistication, but have yet to successfully tackle the challenge of "*learning the latest things and searching for the newest technologies that 'supposedly' make the job of destination marketing easier*" (Gretzel et al., 2006, 118). In particular, the challenge of social media and peer-to-peer platforms also bring a challenge to DMOs. For example, Munar (2011) states that the traditional destination marketing structures combined with the lack of a social media knowledge result in ad-hoc approaches to social media strategy being applied by DMOs. At the same time, Dredge (2016) argues that peer-to-peer exchange of tourist goods and services, which is undertaken through digital platforms, is challenging the traditional income streams of DMOs (such as: booking fees and bed taxes).

As a result of the above, Dredge (2016) claims that DMOs are on a path to redundancy and argues that this situation requires academics and practitioners to engage more deeply in the broader shifts taking place in society in order to reconsideration the organisation of not only DMOs, but also the tourism industry more generally. Her main argument is that DMOs are still locked in, what she calls, an "industrial policy paradigm". According to Dredge (2016), under this industrial policy paradigm, DMOs have always been seen as tools and vehicles for economic development, employment and investment. What is more, by adopting a broader sociological lens, Dredge (2016) states that in the face of liquid modernity[4] (Bauman, 2000), DMOs will become increasingly obsolete. This is because the DMO's approach has always been based on the notion that tourism is a place-bound industry comprising of transport, attractions, services, accommodation and experiences (Dredge, 2016). Consequently, DMOs have always been place-based organisations. However, the challenges of increasing mobility and fluidity of people, resources, labour and capital lead to "*the spatial restructuring of destinations and a fluidity of relationships across scales*" (Dredge, 2016, p.352).

Unlike Dredge (2016) who claims that DMOs are on the path to redundancy, Munar (2016, p.356) states that "*despite these changes or maybe because of them, (…) we will see a high survival rate among existing DMOs and the establishment of new ones in emerging destinations"*. Thus, she concludes that DMOs are simply "*surviving metamorphosis*" which she explains as a concept often used to visualise the social ability to evolve from one form of organisation (or organism) into another. Similarly, Hall and Veer (2016) recognise that DMOs have been in existence, though sometimes in different forms but with a clear organisational lineage, for 40–50 years and longer. During that time many changes have taken places with respect to tourism, however, DMOs have survived. Thus, they state very bluntly, that if DMOs are "*perceived as continuing to attract tourists they will be regarded as serving a useful role by industry interests as well as other stakeholders"* (Hall and Veer, 2016, p.355). In short, they state that as long as DMOs "*continue to 'do something' and visitor arrivals increase then they are likely to survive"* (Hall and Veer, 2016, p.356).

As demonstrated above, DMOs face a set of new challenges arising from changes in the environment. It is projected that only those destinations, which recognise the changes occurring in the marketplace and proactively respond to them, will continue to be successful in the future. Thus, strategies are necessary in order to address the more demanding competitive environment.

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[4] A condition wherein the traditional order of people, objects and things is broken down. Instead, boundaries become blurred, and people, objects and ideas move more freely to continuously deconstruct and reconstruct new orders (Bauman, 2000).

2.4 Conceptual framework

The conceptual framework sets out the concepts and factors to be investigated and the links between these (Pearce, 2012). In the words of Miles and Huberman (1994, p.18):

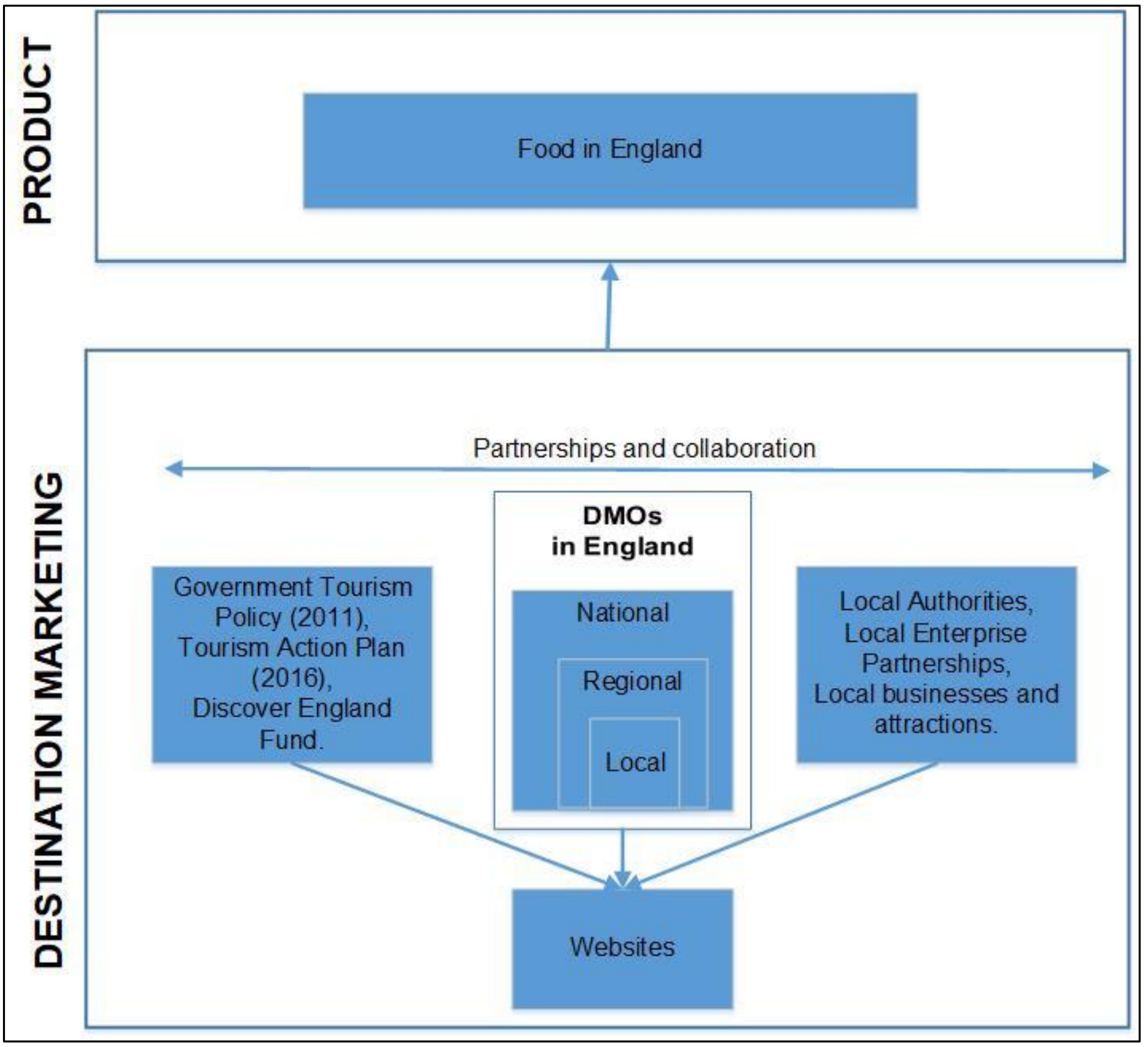
> *"a conceptual framework explains, either graphically or in narrative form, the main things to be studied – the key factors, constructs or variables – and the presumed relationships among them. Frameworks can be rudimentary or elaborate, theory-driven or commonsensical, descriptive or casual."*

In particular, conceptual frameworks identify and bind knowledge and form a context to help researchers understand a particular phenomenon (Bergman et al., 2010). It is important to note that conceptual frameworks are not intended to be theories (Pearce, 2012, p.13). Instead, Brotherton (2008, p.78) explains that "*essentially, the conceptual framework is a structure that seeks to identify and present in a logical format, the key factors relating to the phenomena under investigation*."

Having discussed the rationale for developing a conceptual framework, a proposed conceptual framework for this particular study is depicted in Figure 10 on the following page. It is based on the review of the literature. Although an elaborate conceptual framework is not generally required for an exploratory/descriptive study (Veal, 2006), which this research is, the main purpose of the conceptual framework developed for this study is to provide a visual representation of interlinked concepts that together provide a comprehensive understanding of a phenomenon under investigation. Thus, it is important to note that the proposed conceptual framework should be viewed as explorative and descriptive in nature rather than explanative.

In essence, the conceptual framework (Figure 8) provides a diagrammatic illustration of the key areas and their interrelationships in the food and tourism destination marketing process. It consists of two major components: destination marketing and product.

Figure 8. Conceptual framework developed for this study (source: author)



The conceptual framework (Figure 8) models a frame of reference that can be used as a point of departure for contextualising empirical data relevant to this research. The bottom layer represents the foundations of the destination marketing. DMOs in England operate on various levels (national, regional, local) and work alongside public and private sector organisations. This work is based upon the government tourism policy and strategy which enable and direct the execution of the destination marketing activities. These activities are increasingly undertaken through websites which are widely recognised as the official channels for providing authoritative information to tourists (Li, Robinson and Oriade, 2017) and "*the global shop windows for promoting destinations*" (Morrison, 2013, p.373).

Moreover, as can be seen in Figure 8, the foundations of the destination marketing are based upon the development of partnerships and collaboration. In particular, the government tourism policy and strategy both emphasise the importance of partnerships. This turns DMOs into networks of public-private partnerships in order to achieve a more sustainable level of performance in times of decreasing funding, as explained earlier (section 2.3.3). In addition, this literature review (section 2.2.3) has identified the activities of cooperation and networking among public and private sectors as pre-requisite to the effective implementation of food in destination marketing activities.

The middle layer of the conceptual framework represents food in England which, in essence, is a product (or element) in destination marketing. This is because the central focus of this study is on the use of food in destination marketing in selected destinations, with a particular focus on Yorkshire.

2.5 Chapter conclusion

This chapter has presented the review of literature (RO1) and the conceptual framework (RO2).

Firstly, this chapter examined the relationship between the food and tourism. Numerous definitions of food-related tourism have been presented and it was suggested that "food-related tourism" is the most appropriate for the purpose of this study. It was also explained that food, as one of the cultural products, has become increasingly important in destination marketing, as it can be used as a means of marketing destinations. Pertinent food-related literature was examined from a marketing perspective, namely as an element in destination marketing and a contributor to the overall experience of tourists.

Secondly, this chapter provided an examination of the destination marketing literature. This included exploration of the main definitions (destination, destination marketing, DMO and its role), presentation of the three phases in the development of the destination marketing literature and the challenges in destination marketing. It was noted that destination marketing, as a field of study and practice, has not only generated significant interest over the past two decades, but it has also navigated through an evolutionary conceptual journey that continues to develop today. In particular, this chapter outlined that due to the growing complexity and challenges in destination marketing, contemporary studies in Phase 3 have started to pay attention to the role of culture and sustainability which can signify a shift towards more cultural and sustainable destination marketing practices. However, regardless of the shift in focus, the literature review revealed that all of the studies reviewed had one important thing in common, namely, they emphasised the importance of reinforcing a uniqueness as well as differentiating the destination from competitors.

Lastly, this chapter presented the conceptual framework developed for this study which offers a visual representation of interlinked concepts that together provide a comprehensive understanding of a phenomenon under investigation. The main elements of the conceptual framework (destination marketing and product) provide a diagrammatic illustration of the key areas and their interrelationships in destination marketing process.

The next chapter (Chapter 3) discusses the overall research strategy and data collection methods applied in this study.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Chapter introduction

Following the formation of the conceptual framework in Chapter 2, this chapter presents the research methodology employed in the current study. In particular, this chapter contains a discussion of the methodological approach and research design used to examine the aims and objectives set out in Chapter 1. The discussion clarifies the methods, instruments, and specific processes of data collection and analysis as well as the data quality issues involved.

The discussion in this chapter is divided into six sections. Firstly, to ensure consistency between the approach being adopted for the data collection and the subsequent construction of knowledge, this chapter begins with research philosophy. Secondly, the chapter provides a description of the research strategy that underpins the research process, including the rationale behind the selection of the case study approach. Thirdly, this chapter explains a research data collection framework designed for this study. The fourth and fifth sections respectively illustrate in more detail the planning and the implementation of the qualitative content analysis and semi-structured interviews. Lastly, this chapter finishes with a summary.

3.2 Research philosophy

Research philosophy relates to a system of beliefs and assumptions about the development of knowledge (Saunders et al., 2016). Since a researcher's philosophical position shapes the research design, consideration should be given to the underlying philosophical beliefs and assumptions. It is widely acknowledged that such consideration should ensure consistency between the approach being adopted for the data collection and the subsequent construction of knowledge (Jennings, 2010). According to Saunders et al. (2016), there are five research philosophies most commonly adopted by business and management researchers: positivism, critical realism, interpretivism, postmodernism and pragmatism. These differ in terms of their ontology, epistemology and axiology.

Ontology refers to assumptions and beliefs about the nature of reality while epistemology concerns assumptions and beliefs about knowledge, what constitutes acceptable, legitimate knowledge and how knowledge is communicated to others (Hannam and Knox, 2010). The multidisciplinary context of tourism research means that different types of knowledge – ranging from numerical data to textual and visual data, from facts to interpretations, and including narratives, stories and even fictional accounts – can all be considered legitimate (Saunders et al. 2016). Axiology, on the other hand, refers to the role of value within the research process (Jennings, 2010). Table 12 presents and compares ontology, epistemology and axiology across the five research philosophies.

Table 12. Comparison of five research philosophies (source: Jennings, 2010; Saunders et al., 2016)

Research philosophy	**Ontology (nature of reality or being)**	**Epistemology (what constitutes acceptable knowledge)**	**Axiology (role of values)**
Positivism	External and independent Universal truths and laws There is a single reality	Objective Observable and measurable facts Scientific methods	Value-free research Researcher is detached and independent of what is being studied
Critical realism	Layered (the empirical, the actual and the real) External and independent	Objective albeit possibility of researcher bias is acknowledged Facts as social constructions	Value-laden research Researcher acknowledges bias by worldviews, cultural experience and upbringing
Interpretivism	Multiple realities, meanings and interpretations Socially constructed through culture and language	Intersubjective Focus on narratives, stories, perceptions and interpretations	Value-bound research Researcher is part of what is researched
Postmodernism	World is complex and changing Socially constructed through power relations	Perspectivism What counts as truth and knowledge is decided by dominant ideologies	Researcher and research embedded in power relations
Pragmatism	"What works" in the empirical world	Objective and subjective in order to solve problems Focus on research questions, practices and relevance	Value-driven Research initiated and sustained by researcher's doubts and beliefs

According to Crotty (1998), the underlying philosophical beliefs and assumptions shape the whole research process: the formulation of research questions, the methods adopted to collect the data and interpretation of findings. Thus, a consistent set of assumptions constitutes a credible research philosophy which underpins the methodological choice, research strategy, data collection techniques and analysis processes (Saunders et al., 2016). However, while research philosophies delineate fundamentally different ways of seeing the world and undertaking research, the most important determinants for this particular research design and strategy were the research aim and research objectives.

The author of this thesis did not wish to position this study within a particular, single and constrained research philosophy or a "philosophical box". This is because she felt that there are many different ways of interpreting the world and undertaking research and as such no single point of view could ever give the entire picture of the phenomenon under investigation. Consequently, the various methods, techniques and procedures available should be chosen based on "*the lens of practical adequacy*" (Johnson and Duberley, 2000, p.168). For that reason, this study is based on a pragmatic stance which focuses on freedom of methodological choice (Crotty, 1998; Saunders et al., 2016). In this way, the researcher was able to choose the methods, techniques and procedures that were seen as best suited to the research aim and objectives (Creswell, 2003; Johnson and Duberley, 2000).

What is more, a pragmatic stance is particularly appropriate to this study, as great importance was placed on data collected through face to face interviews rather than through anonymous questionnaires or Skype meetings. This was because the author places great value on personal interactions with participants, as well as on mutual understanding. According to Morgan (2007), this represents an emphasis on processes of communication and shared meaning that are central to any pragmatic approach (Morgan, 2007).

The next section provides a description of the research strategy that underpins the research process.

3.3 Research strategy

Saunders, Thornhill and Lewis (2016, p.177) define research strategy as "*a plan of how the researcher will go about answering the research questions*". On a similar note, Bryman (2012) identifies research strategy as "*a general orientation to the conduct of research*" (p.35). Thus, research strategy can be described as the overall direction of the research including the process by which the research is conducted. Moreover, Saunders et al. (2016) state that what is most important is not the label that is attached to a particular strategy, but whether it will enable the researcher to answer the research questions and meet the research objectives. Therefore, the choice of research strategy is usually guided by the research questions and objectives, the extent of existing knowledge, the amount of time and other resources available as well as theoretical underpinnings (Saunders et al., 2016).

There are various different research strategies with distinctive characteristics. However, some of the common research strategies used in business and management are: experiment, survey, archival and documentary research, case study, ethnography, action research, grounded theory and narrative inquiry (Saunders et al., 2016; Yin, 2009). From these various strategies, this research sought to adopt the case study as the appropriate strategy for this study. The following section describes the case study strategy and justifies its preference as opposed to other strategies.

3.3.1 Case study approach

A case study, as defined by Yin (2009, p. 18) is "*an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clear*." Elsewhere, Baxter and Jack (2008) define case study as an approach to research that facilitates exploration of a phenomenon within its context using a variety of data sources. Simons (2009) states that case study involves in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives of the complexity and uniqueness of a phenomenon in a real-life context. Similarly, Farquhar (2012) claims that case study allows the researcher to look at the phenomenon in context. This means that the data and evidence about the phenomenon are collected where it is actually taking place, for example: a country, an organisation or university. Swanborn (2010, p.13) provides a more detailed definition of case study according to which a case study refers to the study of a social phenomenon:

- *"Carried out within the boundaries of one case, or within the boundaries of a few cases, such as people, organisations, groups, individuals, local communities or nation-states, in which the phenomenon to be studied is taking place; in the case's natural context,*

- *by monitoring the phenomenon during a certain period or, alternatively, by collecting information afterwards with respect to the development of the phenomenon during a certain period,*

- *in which the researcher focuses on process-tracing: the description and explanation of social processes that unfold between persons participating in the process, people with their values, expectations, opinions, perceptions, resources, controversies, decisions, mutual relations and behaviour, or the description and explanation of processes within and between social institutions,*

- *where the researcher, guided by an initially broad research question, explores the data and only after some time formulates more precise research questions, keeping an open eye to unexpected aspects of the process by abstaining from pre-arranged procedures and operationalisations,*

- *using several data sources, the main ones being (in this order) available documents, interviews with informants and (participatory) observation,*

- *in which (optionally), in the final stage of an applied research case study project, the investigator invites the studied persons and stakeholders to a debate on their subjective perspectives, to confront them with preliminary research conclusions, in order not only to attain a more solid base for the final research report, but sometimes also to clear up misunderstandings, enhance internal social relations and 'point everyone in the same direction"* (Swanborn, 2010, p.13).

What the above definitions have in common, is the agreement that a case study is a research strategy which aims to explore multi-faceted research issues in their real-life settings. What is more, Swanborn (2010) emphasises that a case study is not merely a data collection method, but a comprehensive research strategy encompassing various stages of the research process. Similarly, Yin (2009, p.18) further states that a case study as an inquiry:

> *“copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points, and as a result relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion, and [it] benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis.”*

The definition above emphasises that the case study approach is not just a data collection tactic or a research design. Accordingly, the case study is an inclusive research strategy covering the steps of research design, data collection and analysis.

Yin (2009) notes that the case study approach is highly recommended as an appropriate research investigation when:

- the research questions require an elaborate and deeper description of a social phenomenon;
- the researcher has less or no power towards the studied subject matters;
- the focus of the study is within a contemporary context.

Indeed, the case study research strategy was adopted, because the research question in this study focuses on the “how” and “why” rather than “what”, which lends itself to a case study approach rather than other strategies (Yin, 2009). In addition, this study aimed to examine contemporary events over which the researcher had no control, hence case study strategy was seen as the most appropriate. Moreover, the nature of this research strategy allows for triangulation of multiple sources of data (Saunders et al., 2016) which was seen as necessary in order to meet the objectives of this research. In addition, a case study can document multiple perspectives and viewpoints (Simons, 2009). This means that this study was able to deal with a number of stakeholder groups, each with their own perceptions, interpretations, arguments and explanations (Swanborn, 2010). Accordingly, it was believed that this would allow for a better understanding of the issues under investigation.

It has to be acknowledged that case studies also have limitations. One of the greatest "traditional prejudices" is the lack of rigour, as Yin (2009, p.14) notes: "*too many times, the case study investigator has been sloppy, has not followed systematic procedures or has allowed equivocal evidence or biased views to influence the direction of the findings and conclusions*". The second frequent complaint about case studies is that while this particular research strategy allows for a lot of data to be collected, this can be very time-consuming and difficult to handle (Yin, 2009). Lastly, according to Yin (2009) and Jennings (2010), case studies are focused on specific contexts that are often subjective, and thus, generalisations of the research findings are often difficult. However, according to Simons (2009), the subjectivity of the researcher is an inevitable part of the research and essential in understanding and interpreting the case. Moreover, Simons (2009) states that in many situations in which case study strategy is conducted, as in this study, formal generalisations are not the aim. Hence, the aim is particularisation: to present a rich portrayal for a single setting in order to inform practice and to add to knowledge on the specific topic (Simons, 2009).

3.3.1.1 Case study design and selection

According to Yin (2009), there are three types of case studies: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory. The present study aimed to explore and investigate a distinct phenomenon characterised by a lack of detailed preliminary research, hence the exploratory case study strategy was adopted (Yin, 2009). Thus, the main focus of this study was on discovery rather than explanation.

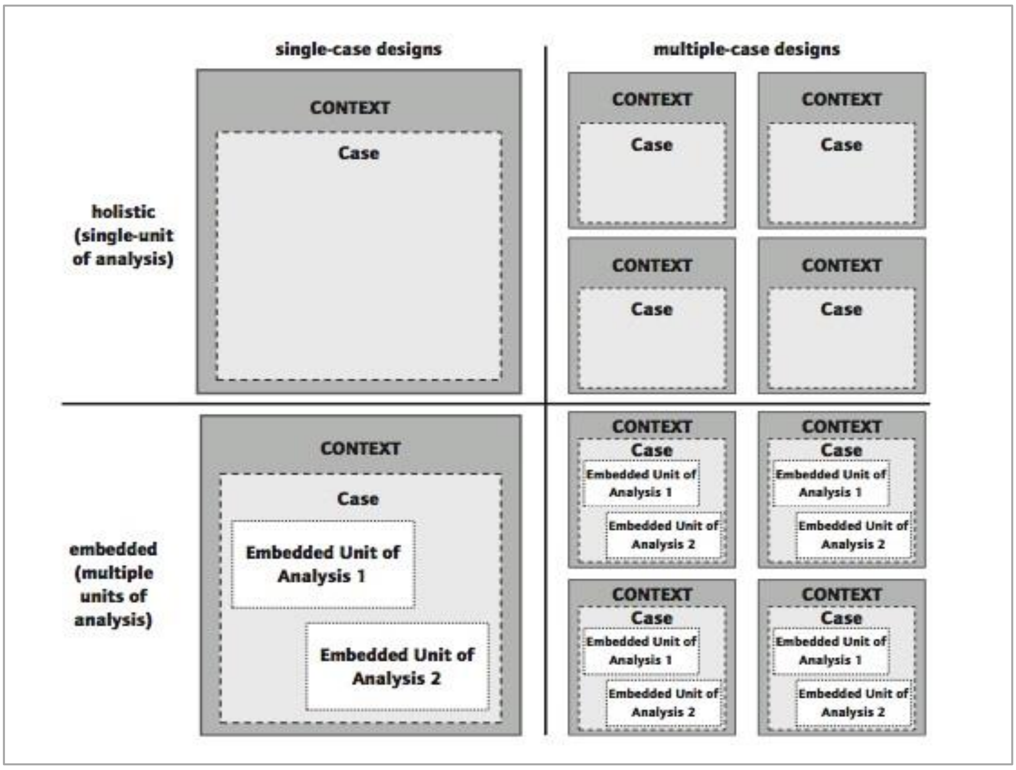
The selection of appropriate case study sites is mostly determined by research questions being addressed (Swanborn, 2010; Yin, 2009). In addition, as suggested by Rowley (2002) and Yin (2009), the availability of data/information and the willingness of key players to participate in the study were also taken into account. According to Johl and Renganathan (2010), one of greatest pitfalls in conducting research successfully is the inability to obtain access to the research field. For that reason, from the functional perspective, purposive sampling[5] was

[5] When applying purposive sampling the researcher decides who will be involved in the study based on their knowledge base and the focus of the study (Jennings, 2010).

applied (Jennings, 2010), as the researcher followed recommendations of her supervisors and selected cases where they had connections, access was granted and participants were willing to take part in interviews. In addition, a pragmatic approach to case study sampling was also adopted (Swanborn, 2010). This is because other selection factors of distance, time and money were also taken into account. In particular, due to the time and resource constraints, it was clear that the research scope would have to be within a single country, hence single case design. In other words, it was unfeasible to apply multi-case study design. This, unfortunately, limits the current research, but at the same time it opens up avenues for further research in the future. However, while this research applied a single case study approach, the decision was made to include multiple units of analysis. It was thought that this would allow for a more in-depth approach to be undertaken.

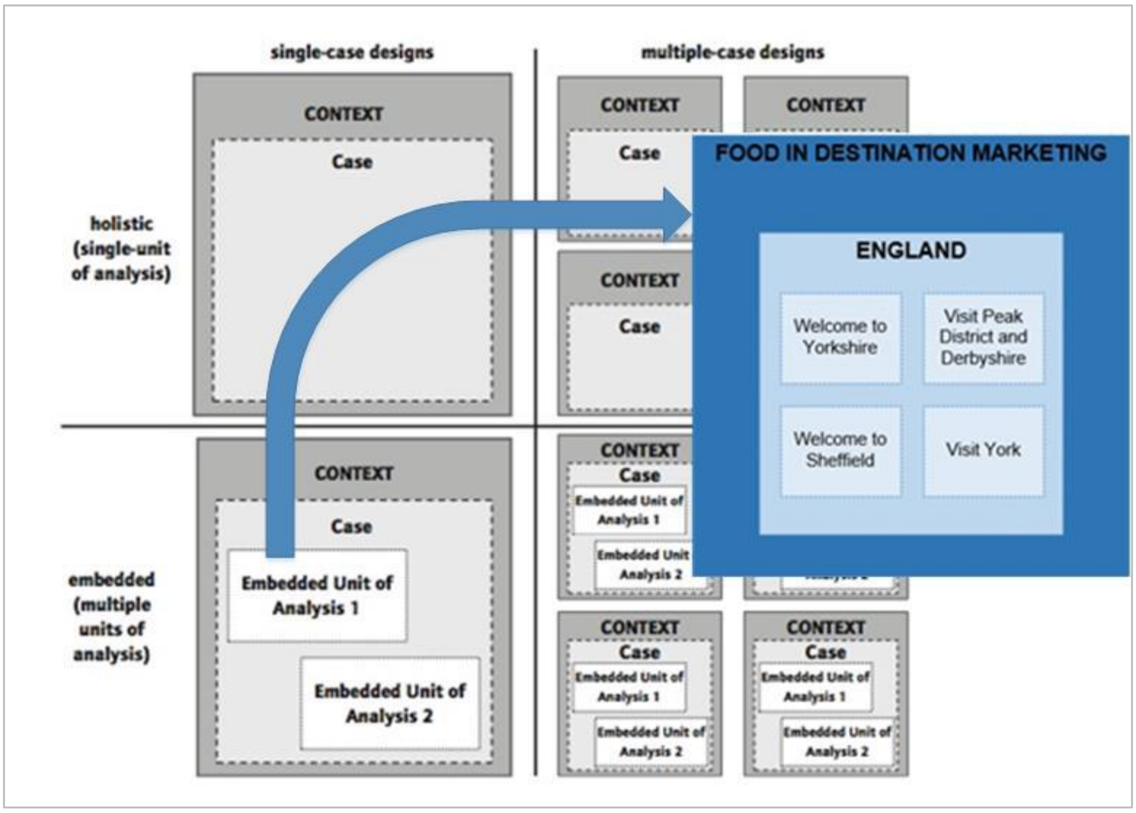
Yin (2009) describes four case study designs and positions them in a two-by-two matrix (Figure 9).

Figure 9. Four types of designs for case studies (source: Yin, 2009, p.46)



The first dimension concerns the use of single or multiple cases. The second dimension concerns the use of a single-holistic unit of analysis or the use of multiple, embedded units of analysis. Yin (2009) suggests that the choice of case design depends on the type of question that the research is asking, the degree of control that can be exercised over the case, and the focus on current or prior phenomena. Accordingly, this study involved a single case with multiple units of analysis (Figure 10), and in Yin's typology, this could be defined as a single embedded case study (Yin, 2009).

Figure 10. Single embedded case study design implemented in this study (source: based on Yin's typology)



As shown in Figure 10 the present study performed an embedded single-case study with multiple units of analysis. The context of this research reflected the background and main focus of this study intended to explore how and why food is used in destination marketing. The case selected reflected the research problem. Embedded units of analysis consisted of a number of DMOs which provided multiple perspectives on issues relevant to this research. It has to be noted that according to the literature determining what the unit of analysis is can be a challenging task both for both novice and experienced researchers (Baxter and Jack, 2008; Yin, 2009). Miles and Humberman (1994, p.25) define the unit of analysis as "*a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context"*. Accordingly, the units of analysis in this case, were DMOs. It was thought that such approach would enable the researcher to undertake a more detailed level of inquiry. In addition, it was believed that results from each unit of analysis would yield an overall picture of the phenomenon under investigation.

The following sections provide short descriptions of each unit of analysis.

3.3.2 Description and justification of cases

A single-case study provides the focal point for this research. In addition, a number of regional and local DMOs were selected for contrast and comparison: Visit York; Welcome to Yorkshire; Visit Peak District and Derbyshire and Welcome to Sheffield.

As the main focus of this study was on discovery rather than explanation, the selection of appropriate DMO websites was mostly determined by research questions being addressed (Swanborn, 2010; Yin, 2009). In particular, as suggested by Rowley (2002) and Yin (2009), the availability of data/information were taken into account. According to Johl and Renganathan (2010), one of the greatest pitfalls in conducting research successfully is the inability to obtain access to the research field. Thus, by means of purposive sampling (Jennings, 2010) the researcher selected four DMO websites: Welcome to Yorkshire, Visit Peak District and Derbyshire, Welcome to Sheffield and Visit York. The main rationale for selecting these cases was that food featured prominently on their respective websites. In addition, following recommendations of her supervisors, the researcher selected DMO websites where access was granted and participants were willing to take part in interviews, as it will be explained in section 3.6.1.1.

It has to be noted that from the functional perspective, purposive sampling had to be applied (Jennings, 2010) when selecting DMO websites. This was because England has recently witnessed a major change within the existing DMOs (Pike and Page, 2014). This has included a redefinition of the structure and funding streams of the official organisations across English destinations (Kennell and Chaperon, 2013) and the shift towards the private sector (Coles, Dinan and Hutchison, 2014). Unfortunately, as a result of this, many regional and locally-focused DMOs have been either abolished or had their funding cut as part of public sector austerity cuts (Pike and Page, 2014). Instead, the development of Local Economic Partnerships has replaced the DMOs formerly funded by the Regional Development Agencies that were abolished. At the present moment, destination marketing organisations in England are included under a wider economic development agenda, as a partnership between local authorities and businesses. Reshaped DMOs have the sole responsibility for ensuring the long-term financial sustainability of their own organisations (Department for Culture, Media and Sport, 2011). In addition, they are expected to do so by providing value to their destinations, and equally, supporting the growth of local businesses and the regeneration of host communities through exploiting opportunities to further develop tourism (Hristov and Petrova, 2015).

It is not the main focus of this research to explain and consider the issues outlined above in more detail. However, it has to be noted that because of the redefinition of the structure and funding streams of the official DMOs in England, the author of this study experienced many difficulties in selecting DMO websites. Thus, from the functional perspective, the researcher decided to follow the recommendations of her supervisory team to select DMOs where they had connections. Being based in a University situated in the county of Yorkshire, this naturally became the locus for the research.

The final sample represents a mixture of regional and local DMOs. The following sections below provide short descriptions of each DMO drawing on differences and similarities between their respective destinations.

3.3.2.1 Welcome to Yorkshire

Welcome to Yorkshire is the official DMO for the county of Yorkshire (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2017). Yorkshire is England’s largest county in the north-central part of the country between the Pennines and the North Sea (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2017b). According to the Office for National Statistics (Office for National Statistics, 2012b), the population of Yorkshire in 2011 was 5.3 million, an increase of six per cent from 4.9 million in 2001. With a population as big as Scotland's and an area half the size of Belgium, Yorkshire is the largest county in England. It has its own flag, its own dialect and its own celebration, Yorkshire

Day (1 August). In 2013 Lonely Planet put the area third in the top 10 world regions, after the Kimberley in Australia and Sikkim in India (BBC News, 2013). Yorkshire has also previously beaten Berlin, London, Edinburgh and Madrid to win the title of Europe's Leading Destination at the World Travel Awards in 2014 (World Travel Awards, 2014). What makes Yorkshire so special? According to Lonely Planet (2017), firstly, the landscape – with its moors and green dales rolling down to a dramatic coastline, Yorkshire has some of England's finest scenery. Secondly, the history, according to Lonely Planet (2017), every facet of the British experience is represented here, from Roman times to the 21st century. And last, but not least, food. According to Parkes (2017), the well-known Yorkshire pudding may be its greatest culinary claim to fame, but England's largest county, is becoming increasingly popular for its strong food identity with projects such as the Tour de Yorkshire Cuisine – a map of the top food hotspots along the Tour de Yorkshire cycle route – highlighting the benefits of partnership working and food innovation (Hitchon, 2016).

Yorkshire has a diverse landscape featuring cosmopolitan cities, traditional market towns, rugged coastline and the famous Moors and Dales, something which is reflected in the range of food and drink experiences on offer. In addition to numerous rural locations offering traditional pubs with good hearty meals and high quality local ingredients, Yorkshire has 7 cities, each with their own unique, distinct culinary delights (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2017). This variety of food on offer was captured by Sir Gary Verity, chief executive of Welcome to Yorkshire, who stated that: "*Yorkshire has some of the best food and drink producers in the world; from Michelin-starred restaurants, to award-winning breweries and artisan food producers*" (Hitchon, 2016).

Welcome to Yorkshire, as the official DMO for Yorkshire, works with its members to grow the county's visitor economy (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2017). The main priority for Welcome to Yorkshire is to make Yorkshire the most popular destination in the UK for business and leisure (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2017). According to the Welcome to Yorkshire website (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2017), tourism in Yorkshire is worth £7 billion annually and there are 216 million visits to Yorkshire each year – more than Walt Disney Attraction Theme parks worldwide. Building on the success of the regional domestic campaign "Have a Brilliant

Yorkshire", Welcome to Yorkshire's targeted campaigns underpin ten key themes: Outdoors, Heritage, Delicious, Sport, Events & Festivals, City Life, Family Fun, Indulgence, Coastal and Artistic (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2017).

3.3.2.2 Visit Peak District and Derbyshire

Visit Peak District and Derbyshire is the website of the official DMO for the Peak District and Derbyshire tasked with promoting the area nationally and internationally as well as to grow and support the visitor economy (Marketing Peak District and Derbyshire, 2017). Derbyshire is the administrative, geographic, and historic county in the East Midlands of England (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2017c) while Peak District is the hill area in the county of Derbyshire, England, forming the southern end of the Pennines, the upland "spine" of England (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2017d). However, according to the description provided, Visit Peak District and Derbyshire's activities include the entire geographic area which relates to the visitors' perception of the Peak District; this includes covering the Peak District principally in Derbyshire, but also covers Cheshire, Staffordshire and Sheffield (Visit Peak District and Derbyshire, 2016). The area is known for its breath-taking views, bustling market towns and pretty villages, historic houses, famous attractions and hundreds of traditional events, such as the unique Derbyshire custom of Well Dressing.

From the high, moorland plateaus in the north, to the steep-sided, deep dales and rolling green hills in the south of the area, the Peak District and Derbyshire has just about any landscape, making it one of the finest areas in the country to go walking. In particular, the area comprises of hundreds of bustling towns, gorgeous picturesque villages and even the bright lights of the city in metropolitan Derby. According to the Visit Peak District and Derbyshire website (2016), whilst on a break in Derbyshire or the Peak District, trying the local produce and food is a must. In particular, there are some farmer's markets and farm shops, local breweries and restaurants in Derbyshire and within the Peak District National Park. Local classics include the Bakewell Pudding and local cheese in places such as Hartington (which can be the topping to the local Derbyshire or Staffordshire oatcakes). The area also boasts some gastro pubs, both traditional and modern, which, according to Visit Peak District and Derbyshire (2016), are sure to have something to please everyone.

Visit Peak District and Derbyshire is a private sector led organisation with commercial and public sector partners. It carries out marketing, advertising and promotional campaigns to attract visitors to the area, encourage them to stay longer and explore more. The DMO's vision is:

> *"To champion the Peak District and Derbyshire as a great place to visit, live, work and play. 'A world-class destination' offering rich experiences in a cherished landscape, having an unrivalled reputation for heritage, culture, the outdoors, walking and cycling, with a year round programme of events and festivals"* (Ashworth, 2016).

The current strategy seeks to grow the visitor economy by five per cent per annum, generate an estimated additional visitor spend of £1.2bn and create 18,000 new jobs by 2023 (Ashworth, 2016).

3.3.2.3 Visit York

Visit York is the official DMO of York which is a city in Yorkshire, northern England and lies at the confluence of the Rivers Ouse and Foss, about midway between London and Edinburgh (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2017e). York is also the cathedral city and was historically the capital of northern England. The population of York in 2011 was 198,051 (City of York Council, 2017).

According to Lonely Plate (2017), nowhere in northern England says "medieval" quite like York, a city of extraordinary cultural and historical wealth. York's long history and rich heritage is woven into virtually every brick and beam, and the modern, tourist-oriented city – with its myriad of museums, restaurants, cafes and traditional pubs – is a carefully maintained heir to that heritage. As one of the urban destinations, York may still be dominated by popular restaurant chains, but the individuality and ambition of key local independents, have put the city on the culinary map (Naylor, 2017). Perhaps that is why in 2011 York was voted by TripAdvisor a top 10 European Destination for food and wine (Visit York, 2016).

Visit York is a part of Make It York, Destination Management Organisation, which brings together the work delivered by Visit York, Science City York (SCY) and City of York Council's inward investment, events and festivals teams into one new strategic and dynamic company (Visit York, 2017). However, while Make it York has broad scope of marketing the city and its surroundings – nationally and internationally – as an exciting place to live, study, visit and do business, Visit York's primary aim is to market York as a must-see world-class destination to the leisure visitor and ensure investment to develop the quality of tourism in York.

3.3.2.4 Welcome to Sheffield

Welcome to Sheffield is the official DMO website of Sheffield's DMO responsible for the marketing of Sheffield, a city in the county of Yorkshire (north-central England) which lies about 160 miles (260 km) northwest of London (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2017f). With a population of 551,800 in mid-2011 Sheffield is England's third largest metropolitan authority (Sheffield City Council, 2017). Known to the world as "The Steel City", Sheffield was famed for its industry in the prime of the 1900's and remains a city of innovation to this day (Welcome to Sheffield, 2017a). However, according to Welcome to Yorkshire (2017), "*the smoking chimney stacks are no more and instead you'll find a green, modern cityscape set against the stunning backdrop of the Peak District National Park*". Similarly, Lonely Planet (2017) states that the steel industry that made the city famous is long since gone, and after many years of decline Sheffield is on the rise again – like many of northern England's cities, it has grabbed the opportunities presented by urban renewal with both hands and is working hard to reinvent itself. This is reflected in it's the food offer, as according to Welcome to Sheffield (2016), "*whatever you want to eat you can find it in Sheffield (…) there is plenty of the familiar national chains on offer, but [also] artisan cafes, impossibly cool coffee houses, mouth-watering street food and innovative restaurants using local produce and drawing inspiration from all continents".*

Welcome to Sheffield is part of Marketing Sheffield, Sheffield City Council's official destination marketing arm, with a clear focus on priority markets (Welcome to Sheffield, 2017b). Marketing Sheffield has responsibility for:

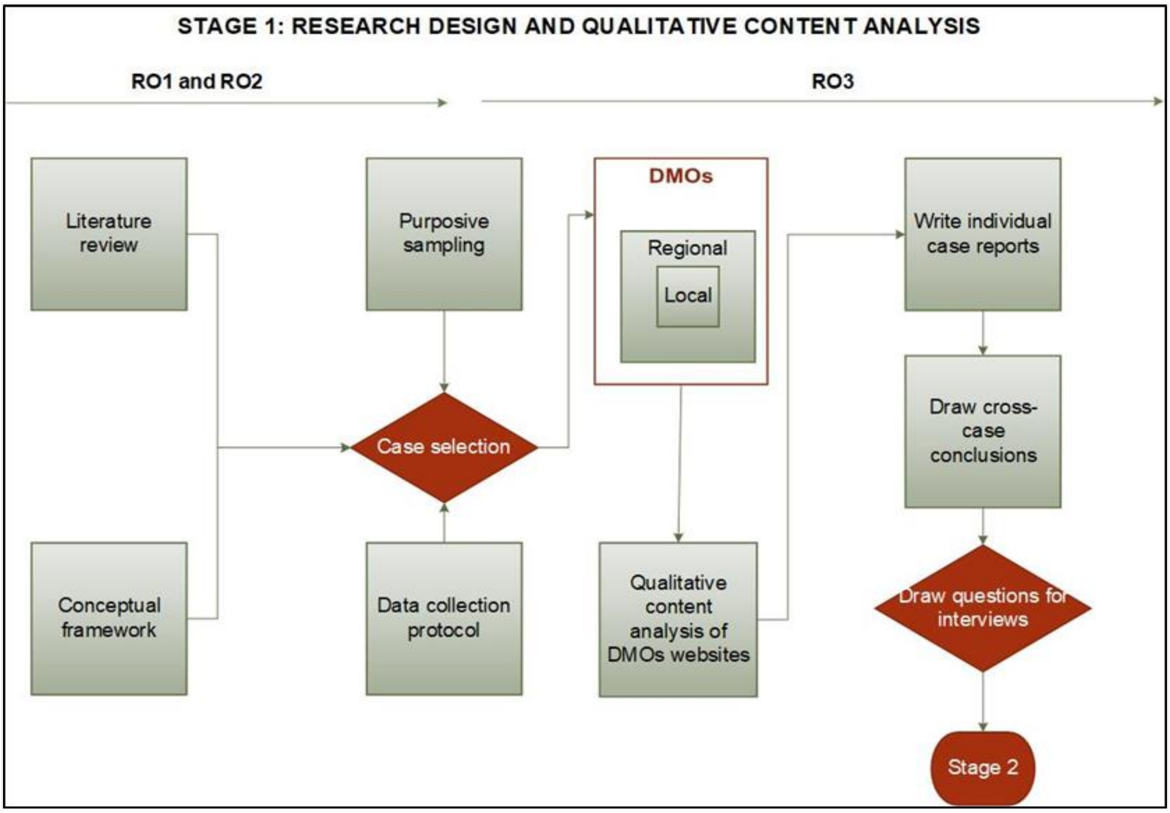
- leadership of the city's brand, working with key city stakeholder organisations;
- promoting Sheffield in the areas of Trade (Business), Talent (attraction, retention and development), and Tourism (business and leisure visitors).

In particular, Welcome to Sheffield (2017a) describes Sheffield as having a friendly, independent and alternative spirit, alongside a thriving cultural scene boasting award-winning theater, beer, music, festivals, street art and so much more.

3.4 Research framework

For the problem set forth in this study, an embedded single case study design offered the opportunity to explore, in depth, the nature and practice of using food in destination marketing. In order to achieve the objectives of the study, the methodological approach was executed in two stages. Figure 11 and Figure 12 represent two phases of the research framework where the components of each phase are outlined.

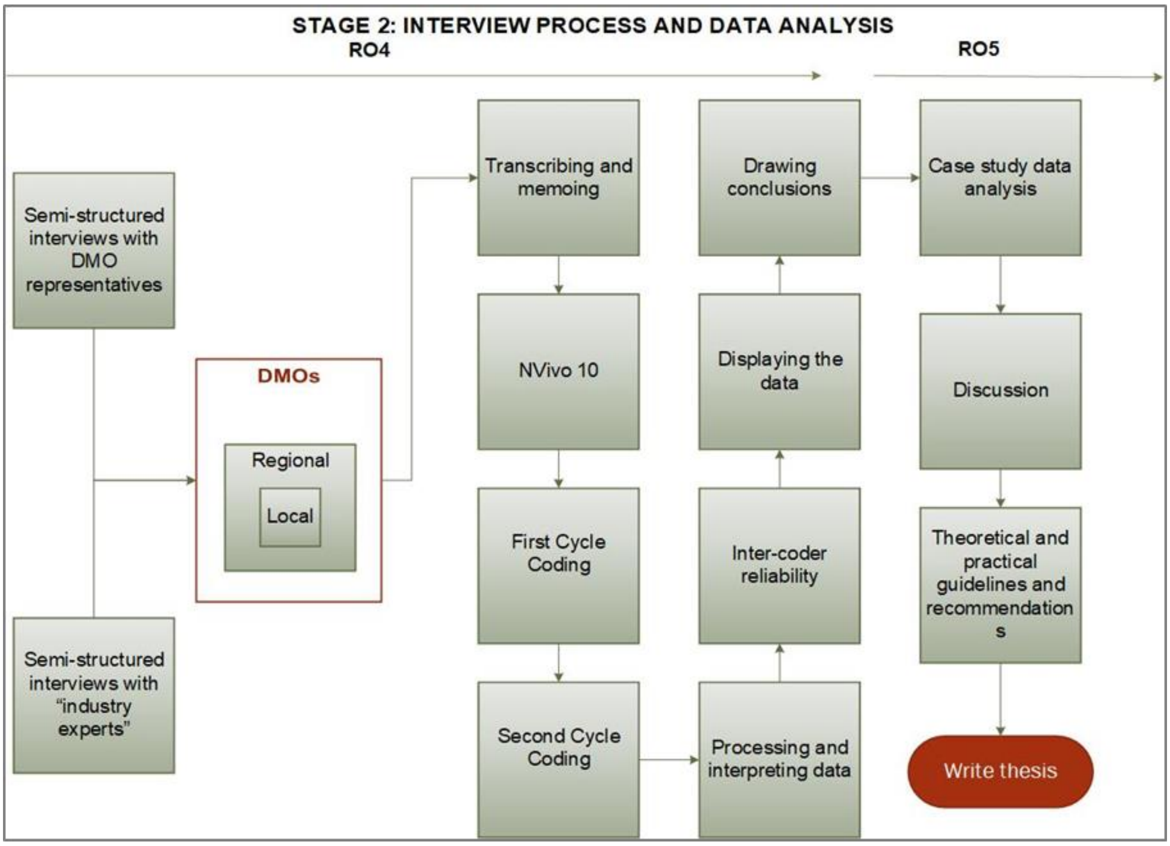
Figure 11. Research framework stage 1 (source: author)



As shown in Figure 11, in addition to the literature review and development of conceptual framework which were already described and presented earlier (Chapter 2), stage 1 involved a qualitative content analysis of DMO websites to investigate how food was used in the current marketing strategies, as utilised in other studies (such as: Frochot, 2003; Horng and Tsai, 2010; Lin et al., 2011;

Okumus et al., 2007; Okumus et al., 2013; Silkes et al., 2013). This approach enabled the researcher to evaluate textual and visual information used to represent food on the official DMO websites at regional and local levels. A range of regional and local DMO websites included: Welcome to Yorkshire, Visit Peak District and Derbyshire, Welcome to Sheffield and Visit York. This methodological approach was informed by a number of previous content analysis studies of websites and brochures with a focus on food in tourism. In keeping, in particular, with the approach of Silkes et al. (2013), open coding was applied to discover the themes and to avoid making the data fit pre-conceived categories.

Figure 12. Research framework stage 2 (source: author)



As shown in Figure 12, stage 2 included semi-structured interviews with DMO representatives and "industry experts" and aimed to seek deeper insights into the use of food in destination marketing strategies. Interview participants were chosen by means of purposive, convenience and snowball sampling. Interview questions were based on the results of the qualitative content analysis as well as the literature review. The detailed information regarding each stage of this research will be discussed in the following sections.

3.5 Stage 1

3.5.1 Qualitative content analysis

Content analysis is a common research method in social sciences (Berg and Lune, 2014; Krippendorff, 2013) and is commonly used to do research on various forms of human communication (Berg and Lune, 2014). In particular, Abbott and McKinney (2013, p.316) state that "*content analysis is the study of cultural artefacts, or the things that humans have created, rather than people themselves*". Thus, content analysis can examine anything that people have created, including comic strips, magazine articles, movies, books, pottery, meeting minutes, sales receipts, phone books, Web pages, fairy tales, song lyrics, paintings etc. Similarly, Neuman (2014) states that in a content analysis study, the researcher gathers and analyses the content of a communicated message which can be anything written, visual, or spoken that simply serves as a medium for communication. In other words, the content can be words, meanings, pictures, symbols, ideas, themes, or any communicated message, thus this includes books, newspaper or magazine articles, advertisements, speeches, official documents, films or videotapes, musical lyrics, photographs, articles of clothing, websites, works of art etc.

Similarly, Berg and Lune (2014) state that content analysis is designed to code the content as data in a form that can be used to address research questions. In other words, content analysis can be viewed as a coding operation and data interpreting process (Berg and Lune, 2014). Thus, this research views content analysis as a careful, systematic, detailed explanation and interpretation of a particular body of material in an effort to identify patterns, themes and meanings (Neuendorf, 2002, Neuman, 2014). Abbott and McKinney (2013) state that, as a research method, content analysis is valuable in allowing to examine communication systematically by providing answers to the following questions: what does a set of communicated messages tell us about how, to whom, why, and what is communicated? For that reason, it was believed that such approach would enable the researcher to evaluate textual and visual information used to represent food on the official DMO websites.

It has to be acknowledged that the academic literature advocates a range of both benefits and limitations that have to be considered when applying content analysis. For example, according to Neuendorf (2002), the application of this method depends on the skills, appropriate training and substantial planning of the researcher. While Neuendorf (2002, p.8) states that all people can potentially be valid “human coders”, an appropriate training is required. What is more, Abbott and McKinney (2013) consider reliability and validity as serious concerns of content analysis (more on this in section 3.5.3). This is because researchers impose codes and categories in many different ways which makes it difficult to ascertain if they are reliable or not. Thus, the task of the researcher is to be diligent in the analysis in order to fully and clearly articulate the patterns, substantiating them with the data (Abbott and McKinney, 2013).

Despite criticism, content analysis has an established position as a research method and offers researchers several major benefits. One of these is that the researcher can study large amounts of data “at a distance” without the need for travelling (Neuman, 2014). For that reason, costs can be kept low and the materials necessary for conducting content analysis are easily accessible (Berg and Lune, 2014; Duriau, Reger and Pfarrer, 2007). Duriau et al. (2007) note that content analysis provides a replicable methodology which can be reproduced in future studies by other researchers, particularly when publications include a wider description of procedures and criteria used to conduct the research. Another benefit is its flexibility in terms of research design and the fact that it can be used with qualitative or quantitative data; furthermore, it may be used in an inductive or deductive way (Elo and Kyngäs, 2008).

Researchers argue that the types of content analysis can be positioned within the broad classification of qualitative and quantitative stances (Berg and Lune, 2014; Camprubí and Coromina, 2016; Neuman, 2014). For example, some researchers consider that if the method involves counting, then it should be considered as a quantitative method (Brotherton, 2015). In particular, Neuendorf (2017) specifically states that content analysis involves systematic, objective and quantitative analysis of message characteristics. In contrast, Kracauer (1952) argues against the practice prevalent in the quantitative content analysis based on equating the coding frequency of a given theme with its importance. This is because, as Kracauer (1952) points out, the meaning is very often complex and context dependent. Similarly, others state that content analysis looks for the meaning of the text, and thus maintains a qualitative approach (Elo and Kyngäs, 2008; Elo, Kääriäinen, Kanste, Pölkki, Utriainen and Kyngäs, 2014). However, it has to be noted that some researchers blend both quantitative and qualitative approaches to content analysis (for example: Okumus et al., 2013). Similarly, Berg and Lune (2014) note that content analysis is neither quantitative nor qualitative, as it can be both at the same time.

To avoid ambiguity, this research applied qualitative content analysis. The quantitative content analysis was seen as not suitable for this study, as it is mostly used to verify and confirm hypothesised relationships, unlike qualitative content analysis which aims to provide a detailed description of the material under analysis (Altheide, 1987; Schreier, 2013). In a similar vein, Elo and Kyngäs (2008) state that the purpose of the study defines the type of inductive or deductive approach to content analysis. If there is not enough former knowledge about the phenomenon or if this knowledge is fragmented, as in this study, then the qualitative and inductive approach is recommended in which categories are derived from the data (Elo and Kyngäs, 2008). Deductive content analysis, on the other hand, is used when the structure of analysis is operationalised on the basis of previous knowledge and the purpose of the study is theory testing (Elo and Kyngäs, 2008).

The purpose of the current study was to explore the topic on which there is a limited knowledge, hence qualitative content analysis was seen as more suitable. Moreover, the qualitative content analysis allows for some initial categorisation, but there is greater potential for refinement of those categories and the generation of new ones; unlike quantitative content analysis which typically entails applying predefined categories (Bryman, 2012). Schreier (2013) states that while the focus of quantitative content analysis continues to be on the manifest content[6], qualitative content analysis can also be applied to the latent content[7].

[6] Manifest coding involves the visible, surface content in a text (Neuman, 2014).
[7] Latent coding looks for the underlying, implicit and subjective meaning in the content of a text (Neuman, 2014).

3.5.2 Data collection and analysis process

In recent years, an increasing number of studies in the tourism field have used content analysis (Camprubí and Coromina, 2016). Thus, this methodological approach was informed by a number of previous content analysis studies of websites and brochures with a focus on food in tourism. For example, Okumus, Okumus and McKercher (2007) used content analysis of brochures, booklets and websites of Hong Kong and Turkey in order to compare how both destinations use food in their marketing activities. In their study, a five-stage content analysis model was used based on the previous studies by Finn, Walton and Elliott-White (2000), Hodson (1999) and Neuman (2003) and the coding scheme was developed prior to the collection of data. Elsewhere, Horng and Tsai (2010) compared the government tourism websites of Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Singapore, Taiwan and Thailand with the focus on the culinary tourism dimension. The study analysed, using content analysis, the marketing strategies by means of which these websites used national, regional and local culinary cultures in their effort to attract tourists. In particular, Horng and Tsai (2010) devised a five-stage content analysis model based on previous studies. Moreover, in their study, the coding scheme was developed prior to the collection of data. Similarly, Okumus, Kock, Scantelbury and Okumus (2013) also applied qualitative content analysis to compare how four small islands – Aruba, the Dominican Republic, Jamaica and Martinique – used their cuisines to promote their destinations. They also applied a five-stage model which was used based on the previous studies and it entailed application of the coding scheme developed based on an in-depth literature review.

As it can be seen, all studies mentioned above applied a coding scheme which was developed prior to the data collection. However, for the purpose of this study, the decision was made not to develop a coding scheme prior to the data collection. The main reason for this was to keep the relevant codes and themes true to the essence of the data and to avoid making data fit pre-determined categories. This was in line with previous studies supporting the choice of analysis for the present study (such as: Frochot, 2003; Lin et al., 2011; Silkes et al., 2013). In keeping in particular with the approach of Silkes et al. (2013) an open coding was applied to discover the themes and to avoid making the data fit pre-conceived categories. Open coding involved breaking down data into smaller parts, examining them and comparing in terms of similarities and differences (Saldana, 2016).

Given that different yet overlapping approaches to qualitative content analysis exist (such as for example: Altheide and Schneider, 2013; Krippendorff, 2013; Richards and Morse, 2013; Schreier, 2012) certain similarities were noted that tend to recur in the application of this particular research method. In particular, the protocols identified by Finn et al. (2000) and Berg and Lune (2014) were used to facilitate this qualitative content analysis (Table 13).

Table 13. Qualitative content analysis protocol (before the pilot study)

QUALITATIVE CONTENT ANALYSIS PROTOCOL	
Steps	**Stage of research**
1. Generate a research question	PILOT STUDY
2. Select a small number of DMO websites for pilot study	
3. Become familiar with each unit of analysis (the content of each website's "Food and Drink" section)	
4. Generate PDF files of each unit of analysis	
5. Print off each pdf document for pilot study	
6. Become familiar with each of documents	
7. Begin open-coding on a small number of documents (3-4) by generating some categories that will guide the collection of data	
8. The emerging codes are then collected from the documents on to the Word/Excel	
9. Test the protocol by using it for collecting data from a number of documents	
10. Revise the protocol	
11. Select core cases for content analysis	CORE RESEARCH
12. Open-coding	
13. Codes are transformed into categories	
14. Reviewing categories, selection and elimination of equal/similar codes	
16. Reporting the results	

To ensure the methodological rigour of the content analysis process, the pilot study was undertaken in April 2015. In particular, the pilot study set out to achieve the following three aims:

- to test the content analysis protocol;
- to decide whether or not the open coding technique was appropriate and effective;
- to determine whether the planned timeline was feasible.

By means of purposive sampling (Jennings, 2010) the researcher selected four DMO websites: Barcelona, Copenhagen, Singapore and Vienna. The main rationale for selecting these cases was that food featured prominently on their respective websites. In particular, the contents of the food and gastronomy sections were downloaded, saved in pdf formats and then printed for manual analysis.

Open coding meant that notes and headings were written in the text while reading it. The written material was read through again and as many headings as necessary were written down on the sides to describe all aspects of the content (Elo and Kyngäs, 2008). The researcher also began to write down what seemed to be relevant category labels for sorting the data.

However, at the very early stages of the pilot study, it became clear that the manual analysis on printed documents was not effective. Firstly, the process of coding resulted in large numbers of codes. And secondly, it was very time consuming and simply not an effective way of managing such large amounts of codes. Thus, NVivo 10 was used to assist the researcher in organising, managing and coding data in a more efficient and organised manner (Bazeley and Jackson, 2013). Following this change, the content analysis protocol was updated accordingly (Table 14).

The findings from the pilot study were used to prepare a paper which was submitted for the EuroCHRIE conference in Manchester. The paper went through the blind review process by two academic peers and was accepted for presentation in November 2015. Following the pilot study, the feasibility of an open-coding technique was confirmed and the updated content analysis protocol (Table 14) was deemed as realistic and workable.

Table 14. Qualitative content analysis protocol (after the pilot study)

QUALITATIVE CONTENT ANALYSIS PROTOCOL	
Steps	**Stage of research**
1. Generate a research question	PILOT STUDY
2. Select a small number of DMO websites for pilot study	
3. Become familiar with each unit of analysis (the content of each website's "Food and Drink" section)	
4. Generate PDF files of each unit of analysis	
5. Upload each pdf document to NVivo 10	
6. Become familiar with each of documents	
7. Begin open-coding on a small number of documents (3-4) by generating some categories that will guide the collection of data	
8. The emerging codes are then stored in NVivo 10	
9. Test the protocol by using it for collecting data from a number of documents	
10. Revise the protocol	
11. Select core cases for content analysis	CORE RESEARCH
12. Open-coding in NVivo 10	
13. Codes are transformed into categories	
14. Reviewing categories, selection and elimination of equal/similar codes	
16. Reporting the results	

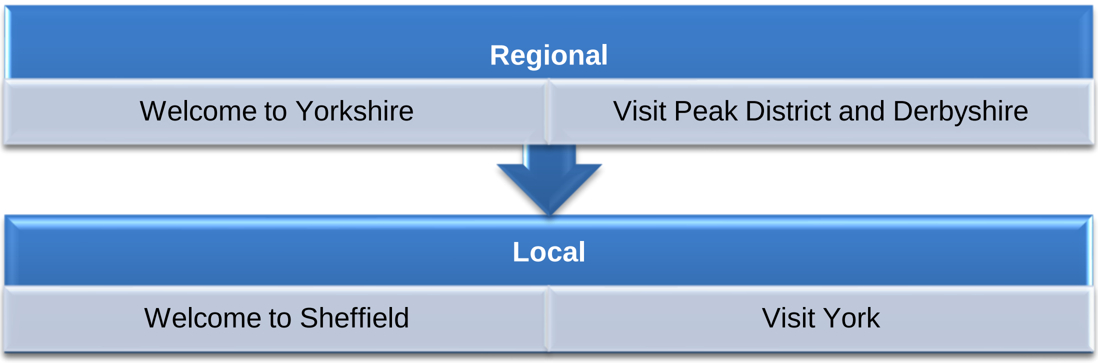
The final content analysis process involved the following steps:

1. Generate a research question
2. Sample selection
3. Open-coding
4. Transforming codes into categories
5. Reviewing categories
6. Reporting results

Stage one of the content analysis entailed the identification of the aim. In this case, the aim of the content analysis was to ascertain how food was used in the context of the destination marketing of selected destinations. This included an analysis of the presentation of food promoted in each destination; an assessment of the range and diversity of food images presented in each destination; and an assessment of the current role of food in marketing these destinations.

The second stage involved the selection of the sample to be used in the research. As the content analysis was going to be undertaken at regional and local levels, the purposive sample (Jennings, 2010) for this study consisted of the official DMO webpages, as illustrated in Figure 13.

Figure 13. The official DMO websites selected for content analysis (source: author)



The regional and local DMO websites included: Welcome to Yorkshire, Visit Peak District and Derbyshire, Welcome to Sheffield and Visit York. In January 2016, the official DMO websites were manually scanned to identify food-related content. Sections containing information on food were downloaded, saved in a pdf format and uploaded to NVivo 10. Content with information on drinks, such as for example “Vineyards and wine tasting”, “Breweries and distilleries“ or “Drinking in Yorkshire” were excluded from the content analysis, as wine tourism, and the more recent phenomenon of craft beer tourism, are studied and marketed independently (Mintel, 2014). Moreover, while everyone must eat, not everyone drinks.

In the third stage, qualitative content analysis began to identify and explore the dimensions of food in the destination marketing strategy. An open coding technique was applied to keep the relevant codes true to the essence of the data (Silkes et al., 2013). This process involved unrestricted coding of the data, and codes that emerged were entirely tentative (Strauss, 1987). In total, as it can be seen from Table 15, 421 pages of textual material and 731 images were analysed using NVivo 10 which allowed for more efficient data management (Bazeley and Jackson, 2013).

Table 15. Total text and images of the five destinations analysed during the content analysis (source: author)

DMO website	Number of pages	Number of images
Welcome to Yorkshire	98	67
Visit Peak District and Derbyshire	27	63
Welcome to Sheffield	83	92
Visit York	71	155
TOTAL:	**279**	**377**

The textual material was examined line-by-line and sometimes word-by-word, as can be seen from Figure 14.

Figure 14. Example of NVivo open-coding (source: author)

Photographs were coded by first describing what the photograph depicted (as shown in Figure 15) and then allocating it to a code that appeared to best represent the photograph.

Figure 15. Photographs coding process in NVivo (source: author)

The coding stripes that can be seen on the right in Figure 19 represent the initial codes that were allocated to the photograph. These were: cooking class, education/observation, consumption, food-related activity, co-creation, active participation, smiling. In essence, the multiple codes were attached which were thought to represent what the photograph depicted. Thus, open coding at this stage involved breaking the data apart and creating codes to stand for interpreted meanings of raw data. For the purpose of this research codes were identified through an analysis of the manifest content (those elements that are physically present), as well as the latent content (the symbolism, hidden meanings and messages underlying the physical data) (Neuman, 2014).

In stage four, when open coding was completed, the researcher started searching for themes and patterns in the data. During this stage, all codes were examined to identify broader patterns of meaning and then transformed into categories. In essence, the categories were grounded in the data and developed to organise the data (Berg and Lune, 2014), as illustrated in Figure 16.

Figure 16. Example of categorical themes initially developed following open-coding process (source: author)

Name	Sources	References	Created On
Acclaimed recognised place	5	11	25/01/2016 21:48
Afternoon tea	1	17	26/01/2016 13:09
Artisan	2	4	26/01/2016 15:16
Bakery	1	1	26/01/2016 15:17
budget foodies cheap eats	1	1	25/01/2016 18:30
Celebrity chef	4	9	25/01/2016 12:33
City	1	1	25/01/2016 12:30
Cuisines	1	1	25/01/2016 13:29
Cultural interaction	0	0	10/02/2016 17:29
Culture_Tradition_Authenticity_History	2	6	26/01/2016 11:53
Destinations	1	1	25/01/2016 12:31
Food descriptors	1	2	25/01/2016 12:34
Food tourism activities	0	0	25/01/2016 22:27
Food tourism descriptors	1	1	25/01/2016 13:33
Food types	1	2	25/01/2016 13:22
Gourmet	1	1	26/01/2016 14:59
Market	2	8	26/01/2016 11:34
Michelin starred	3	8	25/01/2016 14:19
Teashop	1	1	26/01/2016 15:50
Terroir	1	3	25/01/2016 18:40
Unique special different experience	2	11	25/01/2016 13:20
Veggie vacation	1	3	25/01/2016 18:12

Stage five involved reviewing categories through the identification of similar themes, patterns, relationships, similarities and differences. This stage also included deciding on a definitive name for each theme. The themes identified in Table 16 provided a basis for understanding how food is used to attract tourists in selected destinations.

Table 16. Content analysis main categories (source: author)

Category	Definition/ description
Style	The format and style in which information on food was presented
Location	Geographical location of food
Food types	Types of food promoted
Food experiences	Types of food-related activities and experiences
Information	The range of information about food given in destination websites (for example restaurant guides, local dishes and recipes)
Descriptions	Key words and adjectives used as description
Theme(s)	The context in which food was presented

It has to be noted that at no stage were numbers assigned to any category. According to Krane, Andersen and Strean (1997, p.214), placing a frequency count "*is tantamount to saying how important it is*", however, in some cases, the rare finding may be the most enlightening one. For that reason, word clouds (a type of data visualisation) assisted in accentuating the main points of text-based information (Baralt, Pennestri and Selvandin, 2011; Ramsden and Bate, 2008). A word cloud can be described as a special visualisation of text in which the more frequently used words are effectively highlighted by occupying more prominence in the representation (McNaught and Lam, 2010). Thus, a word cloud highlights the main ideas by presenting words used in a text in the shape of a cloud, with the biggest words being those that were most frequently employed in the text.

While a number of word cloud programmes are available, this research used Wordle which is one of the most popular word cloud generators (Baralt et al., 2011; McNaught and Lam, 2010). In particular, Williams, Parkes and Davies (2013) describe Wordle as a free visual presentation software application that allows researchers to produce word clouds which provide an understanding of narrative. McNaught and Lam (2010) believe that Wordle "*demonstrates a fast and visually rich way to enable researchers to have some basic understanding of the data at hand*" (p. 630). Thus, Wordle application was selected for use in this research due to its speed of use and visually appealing nature. This was seen as a more appropriate way of displaying the data rather than using and displaying a frequency count.

As a conclusion to the final stage, the content analysis findings are described by the content of the categories describing the phenomenon under investigation (Elo et al., 2014). Hence, the results are presented in a descriptive format. This was believed to be the most suitable format, as the aim of this exploratory study was to provide some insights into an area on which there is limited empirical evidence. These findings are presented in the next chapter (Chapter 4).

3.5.3 Validity and reliability

Validity in research is concerned with the accuracy and truthfulness of scientific findings and reliability is concerned with the consistency, stability and repeatability of the informant's accounts as well as the investigators' ability to collect and record information accurately (Miles, Huberman and Saldana, 2014). However, both concepts can be seen as contested terms, as there has been considerable debate among qualitative researchers for decades (Miles et al., 2014). Some argue that they have been borrowed from the traditional quantitative inquiry and for that reason, they have no place in qualitative research. For example, Wolcott (2001) rejects validity and proposes “careful reporting” instead. This includes providing sufficient detail about how the data was obtained and analysed.

What is more, some qualitative researchers avoid the terms validity and reliability altogether and use other terms instead such as credibility, trustworthiness, consistency and confirmability, when referring to criteria for evaluating the scientific merit of qualitative research (Elo et al., 2014; Schwandt, Lincoln and Guba, 2007). However, there is a general consensus that qualitative researchers need to demonstrate that their studies are credible (Creswell and Miller, 2000). This is very important in the case of qualitative content analysis, because if a single researcher performs the task of coding (as in the case of this study), then the coder’s judgments may be seen as highly subjective (Oleinik, Popova, Kirdina and Shatalova, 2014). However, Potter and Levine-Donnerstein (1999) state that this is unavoidable and it should not render the coding process as unreliable and invalid.

There are several different recommendations on how to ensure reliability and validity of the quantitative content analysis, such as for example: Neuendorf (2017), Potter and Levine-Donnerstein (1999), Rourke and Anderson (2004), to cite just a few. However, this is not the case for qualitative content analysis. Although the qualitative content analysis is a commonly used research method, the quality criteria of its use have not yet been systematically evaluated. Thus, a more focused discussion about the quality of qualitative content analysis is needed (Elo et al., 2014). Clearly, there is an ongoing demand for effective and straightforward strategies for evaluating qualitative content analysis studies.

While multiple debates exist, this only adds to the uncertainty that surrounds the issues of reliability and validity in qualitative content analysis. This is further evidenced in the question posted by Hussey on ResearchGate in December

2014: "*Does anyone have any advice on reliability and validity using content analysis for a lone researcher as part of PhD?"* (Hussey, 2014). The answers that follow consist of multiple suggestions. However, this plurality creates some confusion: do these various suggestions and recommendations replace or complement one another? It may be that there is no one method that can be identified as the nature of qualitative inquiry makes it difficult to reach agreement on criteria for assessing its quality (Whitehead, 2014).

To this date, a common and unified approach to describing the criteria for quality of qualitative content analysis has clearly not emerged. However, from the perspective of validity, Schreier (2012) states that it is important to report how the results were created, so the readers should be able to clearly follow the analysis and resulting conclusions. In case of reliability, Oleinik, Popova, Kirdina and Shatalova (2014) state that content analysis necessitates paying special attention to reliability-reproducibility defined as "*the degree to which a process can be reproduced by different analysts, working under varying conditions, at different locations, or using different but functionally equivalent instruments*" (Krippendorff, 2013, p. 271). Taking this into consideration, to ensure credibility and methodological rigour of content analysis, the author of this study followed two recommendations:

- Thick, rich description (Creswell and Miller, 2000): the process of writing using thick description is to provide as much detail as possible. With this vivid detail, the researchers help readers understand that the account is credible. The rich description also enables readers to make decisions about the applicability of the findings to other settings or similar contexts.
- Expert consensual validation from others (Brink, 1993): involves independent analysis of the data by others (for example: research colleagues, a judging panel or participant informants).

In terms of thick description, the researcher strived to present the content analysis method clearly by a detailed description of the procedures from the beginning to the end. In particular, the content analysis protocol was devised which precisely outlines and thoroughly describes all stages of the process. It was believed that thick description would ensure that any reader or another researcher can follow the progression of actions in this study and understand their logic.

Another procedure used to establish credibility in this study was expert consensual validation from others, as suggested by Brink (1993). Expert consensual (external audit or peer checking in Creswell and Miller, 2000) was based on independent analysis and review of the content analysis process by others with no connection to this study. This was achieved by submitting papers and presenting at three different conferences.

Apart from already mentioned EuroCHRIE conference, a research paper was also submitted and accepted for the 8th World Conference for Graduate Research in Tourism Hospitality and Leisure. The paper was subject to a careful and rigorous double-blind review process. In total, the paper was reviewed by nine individual reviewers and scored the total mark of 80 out of 100. In particular, the reviewers confidentially evaluated the quality of the methodological approach as well as the value of the study. Feedback from the reviewers confirmed the validity and reliability of the qualitative content analysis process.

It has to be acknowledged that due to high levels of concentration required by content analysis, the potential threats to reliability were also considered and appropriate actions as suggested by Neuendorf (2002) were implemented (Table 17).

Table 17. Possible threats to reliability of content analysis and actions undertaken to prevent them (source: Neuendorf, 2002)

Threats to reliability	What was done to overcome this
A poorly executed coding process	• Researcher developed the content analysis protocol • Pilot study was undertaken • Changes were made to the content analysis protocol after the pilot test
Inadequate code training	• Relevant literature was consulted • Researcher completed pilot test to practise coding • Researcher also completed NVivo 10 training provided by Sheffield Hallam University
Coder fatigue and coder drift	• The rule of a 10-minute break after 50 minutes of continuous work was implemented • The researcher was allowed to spend only a maximum of 5 hours a day on coding

3.6 Stage 2

3.6.1 Semi-structured interviews

Adams, Khan, Raeside and White (2014) state that a popular characteristic of business and management research is that knowledge of how things are, why they happen, and what the intentions are is held by people. Thus, the authors emphasise that in order to obtain the data, it is crucial to talk to relevant stakeholders. Accordingly, the research interview can be seen as a purposeful conversation between two or more people, requiring the interviewer to ask concise and unambiguous questions to which the participant (the interviewee) is willing to respond and to listen attentively (Saunders et al., 2016). In general, interviews can be structured, semi-structured or unstructured (Fontana and Frey, 2008; Saunders et al., 2016).

In structured interviewing, the researcher uses questionnaires and asks all respondents the same series of pre-established questions with a limited set of response categories (Saunders et al., 2016). Thus, there is a little room for variation in response except open-ended questions which may also be used. In essence, during the structured interview process the researcher treats "*the questionnaires as if it were theatrical scripts to be followed in a standardised and straightforward manner*" (Fontana and Frey, 2008, p.124). Hence, all participants receive the same set of questions and there is no flexibility in the process. In comparison, the general goal of the semi-structured interview is to gather systematic information about a set of central topics, while also allowing some exploration when new issues or topics emerge (Wilson, 2013). This means that the researcher can omit some questions or add additional ones and the order of questions may also be varied depending on the flow of conversation (Saunders et al., 2016). Unstructured interviews, on the other hand, are informal and there is no pre-determined list of questions and the participant is given the opportunity to talk freely about the events, behaviour or beliefs in relation to the topic area (Saunders et al., 2016).

Although there was a range of interview types that could be used to achieve the aims and objectives of this study, it was believed that semi-structured interviews were the most appropriate for this research. The primary reason for this was that while each form of interview outlined above has a distinct purpose, semi-structured interviews are used not only to understand the “what” and the “how”, but also to place more emphasis on the “why” (Saunders et al., 2016). The specific advantages and disadvantages for the use of this research instrument are summarised in Table 18.

Table 18. Strengths and weaknesses of semi-structured interviews (source: Jennings, 2010; Wilson, 2013)

Semi-structured interviews	
Strengths	**Weaknesses**
• May uncover previously unknown issues (in contrast to a structured interview). • Address complex topics through probes and clarification. • The questions are not predetermined, so the researcher is able to ask for further clarification and pursue these issues without negatively affecting the quality of empirical materials collected. • Verbal and non-verbal cues can be recorded and included in the analysis. • Ensure that particular points are covered with each participant. • Follow-up questions may be included to further extend responses. • The semi-structured schedule provides a more relaxed interview setting. • Participants are able to use words or ideas in particular way which adds significance and depth to the data • Provide a rich and detailed data. • Allow users and interviewers to raise additional concerns and issues. • Provide a mechanism for redirecting conversations that digress too far from the main topic. • Require less training time than unstructured interviews because the interviewer has a set of specific questions available as a starting point.	• Empirical materials can be useless if the researcher has not developed good interviewing skills and does not probe and follow leads given by the participant. • Interviewers can give cues that might guide the participants into a particular answer. • Too much flexibility among interviewers might make comparisons difficult, the issue of consistency. • Rapport is necessary to gather the complexity and sensitivity of empirical materials in a trusting environment • The mixture of quantitative and qualitative data that results can be time-consuming to analyse. • The researcher may manipulate the empirical materials and bias the empirical materials by only pursuing one particular line of prompting. • The findings of semi-structured interviews might be hard to generalise because different interviewers may ask some different questions. • Interactions between the research and participant may impact on the data collected. • Time-consuming, semi-structured interviews take much longer than structured interviews. • Data quality issues.

The semi-structured interviews were also selected, because the researcher was able to narrow down some areas or topics. A completely un-structured interview had the risk of not eliciting from the participants the topics or themes more closely related to the research questions under consideration. Structured interviews were also excluded from this research, as they tend to be based on pre-determined set of questions (Jennings, 2010). In contrast, semi-structured interviews allow the researcher to probe answers, to ask for more explanations and to build on interviewees' responses. This was especially important, as this was seen as helpful for accessing individuals' attitudes and opinions; issues that cannot necessarily be observed or revealed in a formal questionnaire (Byrne, 2004). What is more, semi-structured interviews allowed the researcher to lead the discussion into areas that perhaps were not considered previously, but which may help to address research questions and objectives. What is more, due to the research issues being subjective in nature, it was more suitable to undertake semi-structured interviews, which incorporate a degree of flexibility within a pre-designed interview structure (Everett and Aitchison, 2008).

In qualitative studies, non-probability sampling methods[8] are often used to select the sample (Saunders et al., 2016). In this thesis, three different non-probability sampling approaches were adopted. The selection of individuals with knowledge regarding food and destination marketing was done by means of purposive, convenience and snowball sampling. According to Jennings (2010, p.139), when applying purposive sampling the researcher decides who will be involved in the study based on their knowledge base and the focus of the study, as was the situation in this study where two groups of participants were selected: DMO executives and senior staff as well as "industry experts". The selection of the interview participants in this research was determined by a number of factors. Firstly, the study was based on the English tourism industry, and as such, this provided the sampling frame from which to draw suitable interview candidates. In addition, participants were selected by the researcher based on the criteria proposed by Denscombe (2014):

- relevance to the issue being investigated;
- knowledge or experience about the topic.

Purposive sampling worked well as the researcher was able to deliberately select participants who were likely to produce the most valuable data (Denscombe, 2014; Saunders et al., 2016). In addition, an element of convenience sampling

[8] Non-probability sampling is a sampling technique where the samples are gathered in a process that does not give all the individuals in the population equal chances of being selected; researcher-influenced sampling (Denscombe, 2014).

entered into sampling procedure of this research. This was because of limited money and time, the researcher had to choose the most convenient participants which, according to Denscombe (2014), is likely to happen in most research. Snowball sampling was also applied with difficult to reach participants and because the researcher was not informed about the network connections (Jennings, 2010, p.140). In this case, the researcher identified other participants on the recommendation of the initially identified participants. Thus, the researcher relied on informal networks of association between experts in the field of food and destination marketing.

Given the breadth of industrial, governmental, educational and academic experts within the industry, the selection was focused on those individuals involved with the practice of destination marketing: DMO executives and senior staff members. This was to ensure that the participants would have a comprehensive and in-depth knowledge on topics under investigation. However, to answer the research questions about destination marketing and the food component, this study also incorporated interviews with "industry experts" who were seen as people with expert knowledge regarding food and/or tourism, both locally and internationally. It was thought that such approach would help to provide in-depth information regarding the situation as well as to assist the researcher in gaining crucial information regarding the practical aspects of the phenomenon under investigation.

The following two sections provide more information regarding the two types of interview participants.

3.6.1.1 DMO executives and senior staff

It was a logical choice that DMO executives were first considered as the main participants in this research. This is because they were seen as being directly involved in the process of destination marketing, hence responsible for the destination marketing function and activities in a destination. In order to ensure the response rate and success of the research, high-level DMO staff members who were involved in the process of destination marketing were also considered as participants.

However, the researcher experienced several difficulties in trying to reach relevant DMOs. One of the possible reasons could be the fact that England has recently witnessed a major change within the existing DMOs (Pike and Page, 2014). This has included a redefinition of the structure and funding streams of the official organisations across English destinations (Kennell and Chaperon, 2013) and the shift towards the private sector (Coles, Dinan and Hutchison, 2014). Unfortunately, as a result of this, many regional and locally-focused DMOs have been either abolished or had their funding cut as part of public sector austerity cuts (Pike and Page, 2014). Instead, the development of Local Economic Partnerships has replaced the DMOs formerly funded by the Regional Development Agencies that were abolished.

At the present moment, destination marketing organisations in England are included under a wider economic development agenda, as a partnership between local authorities and businesses. Reshaped DMOs have the sole responsibility for ensuring the long-term financial sustainability of their own organisations (Department for Culture, Media and Sport, 2011). In addition, they are expected to do so by providing value to their destinations, and equally, supporting the growth of local businesses and the regeneration of host communities through exploiting opportunities to further develop tourism (Hristov and Petrova, 2015).

It is not the main focus of this research to explain and consider the issues outlined above in more detail. However, it has to be noted that because of the redefinition of the structure and funding streams of the official DMOs in England, the author of this study experienced many difficulties in reaching participants. Figure 17 illustrates one of the rejection emails. As it can be seen from the email reply (Figure 17), the DMO approached by the researcher had ceased business which proved difficult for the researcher.

Figure 17. Email example (source: author)

RE: Research project on food tourism and destination marketing.

Visit Cornwall [VisitCornwall@truro.gov.uk]

Sent: 25 March 2015 14:16

To: Stalmirska, Anna M [A.Stalmirska@shu.ac.uk]

Categories: Important

Many thanks for your email. Due to funding cuts within Cornwall Council, Visit Cornwall's activities are ceasing in April 2015. I understand that a new private partnership will be in place then to take over the work which was carried out by Visit Cornwall but we do not have details at present.
You may want to contact the organisers of the Cornwall Food & Drinks festival. Here is the link to their website for your information.

I trust this is of help.
Best wishes
Visit Cornwall
Tel: [01872] 322900

The researcher also experienced several problems in making contact with relevant people through the official organisational websites. The inability to obtain access to the research field is one of the greatest pitfalls in conducting research successfully, as reported by Johl and Renganathan (2010). Thus, from the functional perspective, the researcher decided to follow the recommendations of her supervisory team to select DMOs where they had connections. Through purposive and convenience sampling, the access was granted and seven participants were recruited.

3.6.1.2 Industry experts

Semi-structured interviews were also conducted with "industry experts" who were identified by the researcher. The idea for the inclusion of industry experts was drawn from the PhD thesis by Du Rand (2006). The overall purpose of Du Rand's (2006) study was to determine the role of food tourism as a key component of tourism in South Africa and to assess the current use and future potential of local and regional food as a tool in destination marketing in South Africa. In the first phase of her research, Du Rand (2006) carried out "a situational analysis" which included two elements:

- a self-administered survey questionnaire completed by a representative sample of local and regional destination marketing organisations in South Africa;

- expert opinion interviews conducted in the food tourism industry, with both local and international experts, using in-depth interviews consisting of a number of open-ended questions.

In her thesis, Du Rand (2006) defines experts as people who have specialist knowledge with which to make informed opinions or comments. According to Du Rand (2006), the main reason for the inclusion of “experts” in her study was that the experts were seen as able to help to define the situation more definitely and assist the researcher in gaining important information. In total, Du Rand (2006) selected twenty local and ten international experts from the areas listed below:

- food tourism event planner and coordinator;
- local and regional champion in the food tourism industry;
- leading chefs;
- media specialists in the food tourism area;
- tourism and hospitality leaders utilising food tourism as promotional tools;
- leading company person responsible for food tourism development and marketing;
- culinary heritage specialists;
- local community leaders/organisations utilising local and regional food as a marketing tool;
- leading academics in the food tourism field.

Having considered Du Rand’s (2006) approach, the author of this study also considered the Delphi technique which was referred to and consulted in order to gain an insight into the concept of “experts”. In short, the Delphi technique is a multi-stage survey technique that includes an anonymous expert opinion (Bowles, 1999; Keeney, Hasson and McKenna, 2011). Despite the Delphi technique relying on experts, there are no exact criteria currently listed in the literature concerning the selection of Delphi “expert” participants. In general, individuals are considered eligible to be invited to participate in a Delphi technique study, if they have somewhat related backgrounds and experiences concerning the target issue and are seen by the researcher as capable of contributing helpful inputs (Adler and Ziglio, 1996; Keeney et al., 2011; Pill, 1971; Skulmoski, Hartman and Krahn, 2007). In terms of tourism research, Jennings (2010, p.140) states that industry experts are usually people who have specialist knowledge with which to make informed opinions or comments.

Thus, having considered a range of definitions, in this study industry experts were seen as people with knowledge regarding food and tourism, both locally and internationally. It was vital to interview industry experts who would help to define the situation more clearly and assist the researcher in gaining important information regarding the practical and technical aspects of the phenomenon under investigation. As such, the selection of individuals with expert knowledge regarding food and/or tourism, both locally and internationally, was done by means of purposive and snowball sampling. According to Jennings (2010, p.140), when applying purposive sampling the researcher decides who will be involved in the study based on their knowledge base and the focus of the study, as was the situation in this study where experts in the field of food and tourism were selected. Snowball sampling was also used with difficult to reach participants (Jennings, 2010). Consequently, the researcher managed to identify other industry experts on the recommendation of the initially identified participants.
In total, 12 industry experts were interviewed from the areas listed below:

- food tourism event planners and coordinators;
- local and regional champions in the food tourism industry;
- leading chefs;
- tourism and hospitality leaders utilising food tourism as promotional tools;
- leading company representatives responsible for food tourism development and marketing;
- food heritage specialists;
- local community leaders/organisations utilising local and regional food as a marketing tool;
- leading academics in the food tourism field.

3.6.2 Data collection process

The initial collection of data started in April 2016. At the beginning, messages were sent to the potential participants to enquire about their willingness to take part in this research via email. However, email addresses were not obtained for all potential participants. Consequently, alternative routes were necessary to find and contact those individuals that would inform this research. The solution in this instance was to draw upon the ever-expanding resource of social media. In some cases, LinkedIn was used to send an inquiring message to ask about the willingness of potential participants to join in the research.

The initial message (email or LinkedIn) briefly introduced the background of the researcher and the study. The aim of the research was mentioned in order to highlight the importance of this study. The potential participants were asked to get in touch with the researcher if they were willing to join the research. The main reason for using email and LinkedIn messaging to get in touch with participants was the convenience of online technology, to both the researcher and participants. The unique benefit of using email and online messaging is that it can save significant amounts of time for both the researcher and participants.

From this first stage, 10 replies were received, and the interviews were arranged between June and August 2016. Other interview participants (DMOs and Industry Experts) were recruited through snowball sampling on the recommendation of the initially identified participants. The final sample of participants is shown in Table 19 on the next page.

The importance of piloting all aspects of the interviews – the questions, structure, timing, recording, execution, and analysis – cannot be emphasised enough. Saunders et al. (2016) strongly recommend that interviews should be piloted, as piloting of the interview process focusses on the researcher’s skills. Accordingly, the aim of pilot interviews in this study was to: evaluate the interviewing technique; assess the effectiveness of the interview questions; assess the methods of recording.

Table 19. Background of the interviewees and their respective businesses (source: author)

Participant	Interview location	Type of business	Relationship to business
P1	Leeds	DMO (regional)	Senior official
P2	York	DMO (local)	Senior official
P3	Sheffield	DMO (local)	Senior official
P4	Chesterfield	DMO (regional)	Senior official
P5	Sheffield	DMO (local)	Senior official
P6	York	DMO (local)	Senior official
P7	Bradford	DMO (local)	Senior official
P8	Sheffield	Food shop	Business owner; local and regional champion in the food industry
P9	York	Guided food trails and pop-up dinners	Food tourism event planner and coordinator; chef
P10	York	Guided food trails and pop-up dinners	Food tourism event planner and coordinator
P11	Bakewell	Food shop	Local and regional champion in the food tourism industry
P12	Sheffield	Academia	Leading academic in the food and hospitality field; hospitality professional; food historian and forecaster; chef
P13	Malton	Food tourism development and marketing	Food tourism event planner and coordinator; local and regional champion in the food tourism industry; leading company person responsible for food tourism development and marketing; local community leader utilising local and regional food as a marketing tool
P14	Sheffield	Academia	Leading academic in the food tourism field
P15	York	Food journalist	Food and travel journalist; local and regional champion in the food industry; food heritage specialist
P16	Sheffield	Restaurant	Restaurateur; food tourism event planner and coordinator
P17	Sheffield	Restaurant	Leading chef
P18	Sheffield	Restaurant	Restaurateur; food tourism event planner and coordinator
P19	Baslow	Hotel and Restaurant	Restaurateur; food tourism event planner and coordinator; local and regional champion in the food tourism industry

In particular, to ascertain the feasibility of this research method, a number of key questions were asked at the pilot stage, as advocated by Adams et al. (2014, p.146):

- How comprehensive is the list of questions?
- Is the language appropriate?
- Are there any other problems such as double meaning or multiple issues in one question?

Three separate pilot interviews were carried out in April 2016 to address the above aims. The researcher used convenience sampling when selecting participants for the pilot study. Prior to conducting the pilot interviews, the questions were checked by two tourism industry educators for meaning and applicability and then piloted on two university educators and one tourism industry representative. All three pilot interviews were conducted face-to-face and took place in Sheffield. Participants were allowed to choose the settings for the interviews they were most comfortable with.

The first interview provided the opportunity to refine, rephrase and clarify some questions in the interview schedule. For example, the term “destination” was not clear to the participant. For that reason, the researcher revised the questions and replaced the term “destination” with the name of a particular geographic location (Sheffield/Yorkshire etc.) depending on the context of the question. The respondent was known to the researcher and this proved beneficial, as he was more open to the discussion and offered valuable suggestions.

The second pilot interview helped to prioritise topics, and indicate those questions that were redundant and those that needed rethinking or rewording (Gillham, 2000, p. 22). Piloting the second interview also indicated how long it would take to conduct. On this occasion, the researcher was slightly nervous and forgot about the consent form. For that reason, the decision was made to add a new section (“Steps prior to the interview”) to the interview schedule to remind the researcher of the main areas to cover prior to each interview.

Following the second interview, the researcher also decided to introduce photographs as interview prompts. It was believed that this would help to avoid ambiguity and bias when asking the question about the marketing of food in urban areas. Such an approach, called photo elicitation, is described as "*the simple idea of inserting a photograph into a research interview*" (Harper, 2002, p.13). However, as Harper (2002) remarks, this method is not confined to using only photographs, as any visual image can provoke a response during an interview. Accordingly, the researcher used printed screenshots of DMO websites depicting marketing of food and food-related experiences available in chosen destinations. The three images constituted the final sample and can be found in Appendix 1. The main aim of using this technique was to aid the researcher when asking particular questions and to reduce areas of misunderstanding (Collier, 1957).

The third pilot interview validated the changes made to the interview schedule, as it was evidenced by the nature of answers and information provided by the participant. In particular, this interview was very valuable, as it helped the researcher to assess the method of recording. On this occasion, the dictaphone failed to record. Thus, the decision was made to introduce the second recording device (a mobile phone), as well as to take written notes in consequent interviews. Moreover, this interview was conducted in a busy coffee shop with background noise. This was not an ideal place and the decision was made that it was crucial for future interviews to find a space without too much noise and distractions.

During all three pilot interviews, participants were encouraged to provide feedback regarding the questions and all comments were accommodated in the revision of the interview schedule. From the pilot study, the researcher was able to ensure that the terms were understandable, that the question flow was logical and that the time required to complete the interview was acceptable. Table 20 illustrates all issues encountered during this stage and solutions implemented.

Following the pilot interviews, the core interviews were arranged face-to-face between June and August 2016. In total, seven DMO representatives and 12 industry experts were interviewed. Audio recording devices were used, with the permission of the participants, and this enabled the researcher to pay close attention to the discussion and to take supporting notes. Each interview lasted approximately 45-60 minutes.

Table 20. Pilot interviews: issues and solutions (source: author)

	Issues encountered	Solutions implemented
Interviewing technique	On one occasion the researcher was nervous and forgot about the consent form. One interview was arranged in a busy café; background noise.	At the beginning of the interview schedule, a new section was introduced "Steps prior to the interview" reminding the researcher of the main areas to cover prior to each interview. For each interview the decision was made to find a space that was available for use, convenient and accessible to participant and researcher, where the researcher would avoid interruption and make an adequate sound recording of the conversation. Each site was checked for background noise prior to the interview.
Interview questions	Participants were asked for comments and feedback in order to identify ambiguities and difficult questions. According to feedback, some questions were too long and not clear.	Some questions seen as ambiguous and too long were re-worded. The introduction of additional interview prompts: photographs (photo-elicitation) to avoid ambiguity and bias. Changes to the interview schedule (running order).
Methods of recording	On one occasion the dictaphone failed to record.	The second recording device was introduced: a mobile phone with a reliable recording software Smart Recorder v 1.8.0. The decision was made to use both audio and written notes.

The interview questions were designed based on the review of the literature and based on the initial findings from the content analysis (which will be presented in Chapter 4). In particular, a list of questions was informed by the frameworks proposed in the food-related tourism literature (for example: Du Rand et al., 2003), but more focused on marketing strategy and development. Table 21 illustrates how interview questions were developed. At the beginning of each interview, the researcher explained the aim and importance of the study to the participant. The participant information sheet (Appendix 2) was given to the interviewee prior to the meeting, however, it was once again handed over to the participant at the beginning of the interview.

Table 21. Development of interview questions (source: author)

Theme	Question	Question source
1. The understanding and scope of destination marketing in practice	DMO: Marketing or Management?	Pike and Page (2014), Pearce (2015), Presenza, Sheehan and Ritchie (2005), Wang and Pizam (2011),
	The main challenges in destination marketing	Bennett (1999), Buhalis (2000), Dredge (2016), Fyall and Garrod (2005), Fyall, Garrod and Tosun (2006), Fyall and Leask (2006), Gretzel et al., (2006), Hall and Veer (2016), King (2002), Munar (2016),
	Has destination marketing changed over the last decade?	Hristov and Petrova (2015), King (2002), Pike and Page (2014), Wang and Pizam (2011)
2. Food in tourism		
	Views on food as a tourist attraction?	Boniface (2003), Cohen and Avieli (2004), Henderson (2009), Hjalager and Richards (2002), Horng and Tsai (2012a, 2012b), Kim and Eves (2012), Scarpato (2002), Tikkanen (2007),
	Views on food as a tourist attraction in England?	Content analysis
	The value of food-related tourism	Chaney and Ryan (2012), Harrington and Ottenbacher (2010), Kivela and Crotts (2005), McKercher et al. (2008), UNWTO (2012),
	English cuisine and food culture	Content analysis, Bell and Valentine (1997), Groves (2001),
	What kind of experience/s can food provide to visitors?	Everett (2008), Quan and Wang (2004),
	Food and culture. How does food reflect culture?	Brulotte and Di Giovine (2014), Hjalager and Richards (2002), Montanari (2006), Richards (2012), Trubek (2008),
3. Strategies that are employed to promote food in destination marketing		
	How does your organisation view the role of food in the marketing of (destination)?	Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen (2014), Du Rand et al. (2003), Henderson (2009), Hjalager and Richards (2002b), Horng and Tsai (2010, 2012a, 2012b), Okumus et al. (2007),
	Why do you use food in the marketing of (destination)?	Ab Karim and Chi (2010), Okumus et al. (2007)

	How important is food in your destination marketing?	Content analysis
	Do you have a specific food marketing strategy/food campaigns?	Content analysis, Du Rand et al. (2003), Okumus et al. (2007), Horng and Tsai (2010)
	Working with “food stakeholders” (food producers, festival organisers, restaurant owners etc.)?	Horng and Tsai (2012b), Mak, Lumbers and Eves (2012)
	Working in partnership with other DMOs to promote food.	Boyne, Hall and Williams (2003), Mak, Lumbers and Eves (2012),
4. Food marketing: local vs global		
	“Local” food: definition, importance in tourism and destination marketing	Content analysis
	Marketing of international cuisines in urban and rural areas	Content analysis
	Could this result in increasing sameness across urban destinations?	Heeley (2014; 2015a; 2015b),
	Views on Bradford as England’s Curry Capital	Content analysis
5. Opportunities, challenges and suggestions	Opportunities associated with the use of food in destination marketing?	Du Rand et al. (2003), Fox (2007), Haven-Tang and Jones (2005), Kivela and Crotts (2006), Okumus et al. (2007)
	Challenges associated with the use of food in destination marketing?	Harrington and Ottenbacher (2010), Hashimoto and Telfer (2006),
	Suggestions regarding the development, organisation and marketing of food in England/Yorkshire?	Du Rand and Heath (2006), Kivela and Crotts (2006), Mak, Lumbers and Eves (2012),

The participants were assured that the information recorded would be used only for the academic purposes of the study and that all information given was confidential and anonymous. All respondents were given the opportunity to ask any questions. They were also asked to sign the consent form (Appendix 3) guaranteeing anonymity. A range of questions was asked in order to ascertain the background, number of years' experience and professional capacity of each interviewee and:

1. Understanding and scope of destination marketing in practice.
2. Views on and opinions about food in tourism (including the value of food-related tourism, the perceptions of English cuisine).
3. Analysis of the activities employed to promote food in destination marketing.
4. Marketing of food in rural and urban areas (local and global).
5. Opportunities and challenges associated with the use of food in destination marketing as well as suggestions regarding the development, organisation and marketing of food in England/Yorkshire.

Two sets of interview schedules were developed (please see Appendix 4 and 5). Apart from the interview schedule, during the interviews the researcher also used photographs as prompts (Appendix 1). This method worked well, as in the words of Flynn and McDermott (2016, p.156) "*the strangeness of the interview situation was adverted*". What is more, photos helped to ensure longer and more comprehensive answers, but at the same time, it was believed that they helped participants overcome the fatigue of conventional interviews (Harper, 2002, Matteucci, 2013).

During the interviews, the participants were free to expand on the topic and to relate their own experiences and views. The interviewer intervened only for clarification of concepts and ideas. The semi-structured interviews worked well, as they allowed for full exploration of the topic, yet there was a certain structure which helped to navigate the interview and helped to ensure that all areas of interest were covered (Saunders et al., 2016). Immediately following each interview, the researcher completed the Interview Summary Form (Appendix 6) as advocated by Miles et al. (2014). This was a very simple and straightforward way to not only summarise an interview, but it also allowed for reflection while still fresh in the researcher's mind.

All interviews were transcribed by the researcher as soon as possible after each interview. This was a very long process, but very valuable one, as the researcher was able to really get to know the data. The interview transcripts were created and formatted in NVivo 10 which significantly helped to facilitate the process of organising, re-arranging and managing the considerable amount of data (Bazeley and Jackson, 2013). The appropriate formatting of the interview transcripts from the beginning helped to organise the data efficiently and thus facilitated the analysis of the interviews. While transcribing, the researcher also created memos (as shown in Figure 18) which contained a wide range of concepts, insights and thoughts related to the project. This was then used to aid the process of coding during which memos were linked to the data and external resources such as websites and reports.

Figure 18. Memos created in NVivo 10 (source: author)

Memos

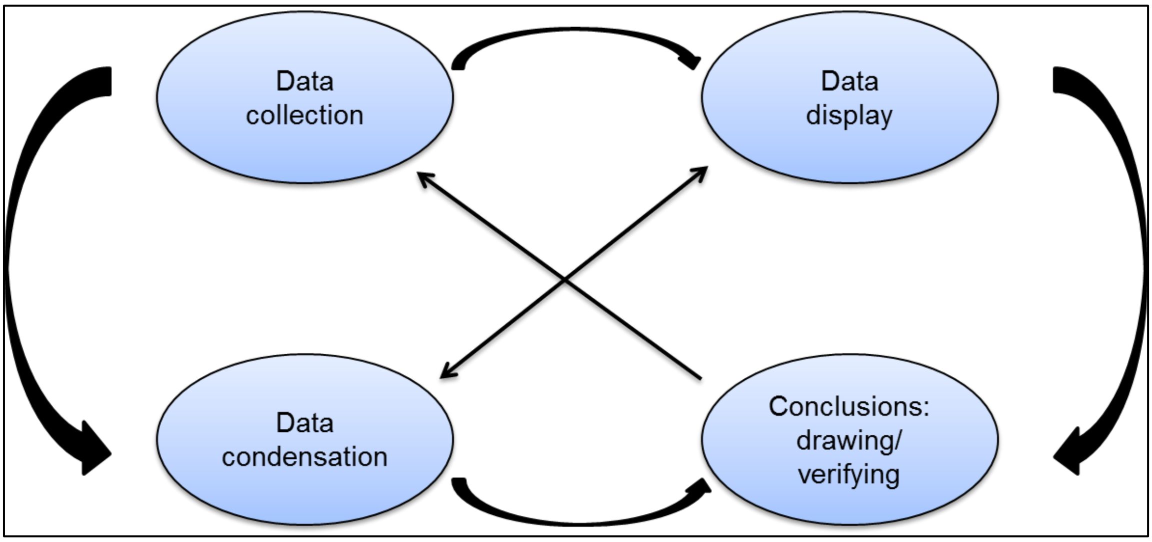
Name	Nodes	References	Created On
An emergent or existing theory	0	0	10/08/2016 17:43
Analysis notes	0	0	08/08/2016 14:50
Any problems with the study	0	0	10/08/2016 17:43
Challenges and constraints in marketing food	1	1	18/08/2016 22:21
Chinese tourists food preferences	0	0	08/08/2016 14:49
Code choices and their operational definitions	0	0	10/08/2016 17:44
DMO structural changes	0	0	10/08/2016 13:17
Future directions for the study	0	0	10/08/2016 17:43
Local food notes	1	1	10/08/2016 21:32
Political_economic_local food	1	1	10/08/2016 21:20
Suggestions_ ideas_recommendations for food and tourism development	0	0	09/08/2016 00:03
Yorkshire bid for food tourism fund	0	0	19/08/2016 14:44

Memos enabled the researcher to reflect on the work, but also to capture the thinking process and deeper insights about the research (Saldana, 2011). The writing of memos (memoing) was particularly useful as this helped the researcher to keep a note of thoughts without the pressures of having to immediately determine how ideas fitted within the overall research findings and analysis (Birks, Chapman and Francis, 2008). Thus, memoing allowed the freedom to jot down and store ideas so that these could be sorted, categorised or discarded at a later point in time.

3.6.3 Data analysis process

In general, data analysis means to systematically organise, integrate and examine the data in the search for patterns and relationships (Neuman, 2014, p.477). NVivo 10 was used to support all essential activities of data analysis: reading, reflecting, coding, annotating, memoing, discussing, linking and visualising (Bazeley and Jackson, 2013). In particular, the systematic procedures as suggested by Miles et al. (2014) were applied, as illustrated in Figure 19.

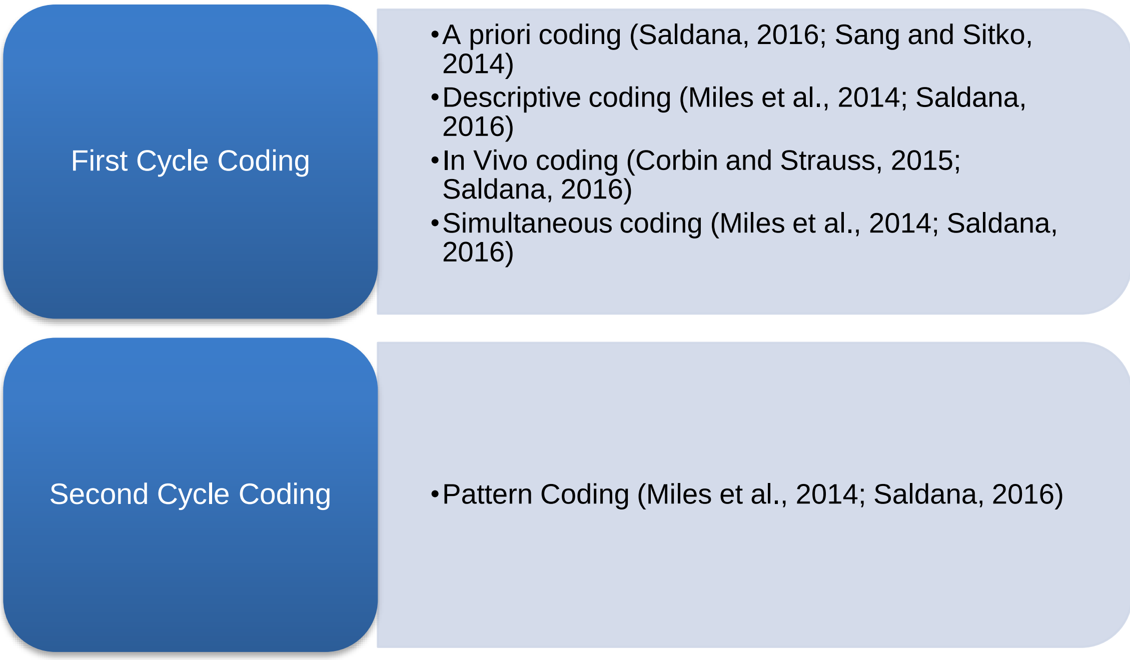
Figure 19. Data analysis interactive model (source: Miles, Huberman and Saldana, 2014, p.14)



At first, data condensation was performed during which the interview transcripts were read, re-read and broken down into distinct meaningful units on a sentence-by-sentence basis through simple coding. The term "data condensation" is used intentionally as opposed to "data reduction" which can imply weakening or losing something in the process (Miles et al., 2014). What is more, it has to be noted that while some researchers view coding as a preparatory stage for data analysis, this research views coding as an integral part of the data analysis process. As Miles et al. (2014, p.72) note "*coding is a deep reflection about, and, thus, deep* *analysis and interpretation of the data's meanings*". To avoid ambiguity, in this study codes are understood as a researcher-generated labels or constructs which symbolise and convey interpreted meaning for each individual unit of analysis: sentence, phrase or word (Saldana, 2016).

During this stage "The coding manual for qualitative researchers" by Saldana (2016) was consulted. In particular, Saldana (2016) advocates two coding cycles. During the first cycle, the researcher undertakes the process of initial coding. The second cycle coding is much more challenging and advanced as it involves classifying, prioritising, integrating, synthesising, abstracting and conceptualising. However, while Saldana (2016) provides an array of different coding techniques (26 First Cycle and 6 Second Cycle coding methods), the author states that no one method can claim final authority on the best way to code qualitative data (Saldana, 2016, p.69). What is more, several of these coding techniques overlap and can be "mixed and matched". Thus, after a careful consideration the researcher decided to apply not one, but a range of different coding methods to capture the complex phenomena in the data (Figure 20).

Figure 20. Coding methods applied to interview transcripts (source: author)



During the first cycle coding, each transcript was read meticulously to identify smaller meaningful words or phrases that were relevant to the research questions and labelled with a code. The researcher applied a priori codes which were generated based on prior reading, content analysis, theoretical understanding and interview questions. This was useful as a starting point, as this generated a number of primary codes ("parent codes"). However, it has to be clarified, that a priori codes were flexible and not fixed codes. The researcher was aware that by focusing on data that fit a priori codes, there was a danger of overlooking new information that did not relate to them. There was also a danger of trying to force data to fit into pre-existing codes. To prevent this, a priori codes were treated as tentative and being subject to redefinition or removal. For example, "definition of local food" was used as a priori code, as this was one of the open-ended questions that all participants were asked.

Inductive codes were also developed by the researcher by directly examining the data. In particular, descriptive coding was applied by summarising in a word or short phrase the basic topic of a passage of data (Saldana, 2016). The emergent first cycle codes reflected captured ideas conveyed by the participants. Figure 21 provides an example of initial descriptive coding for "local food definition_meaning" code.

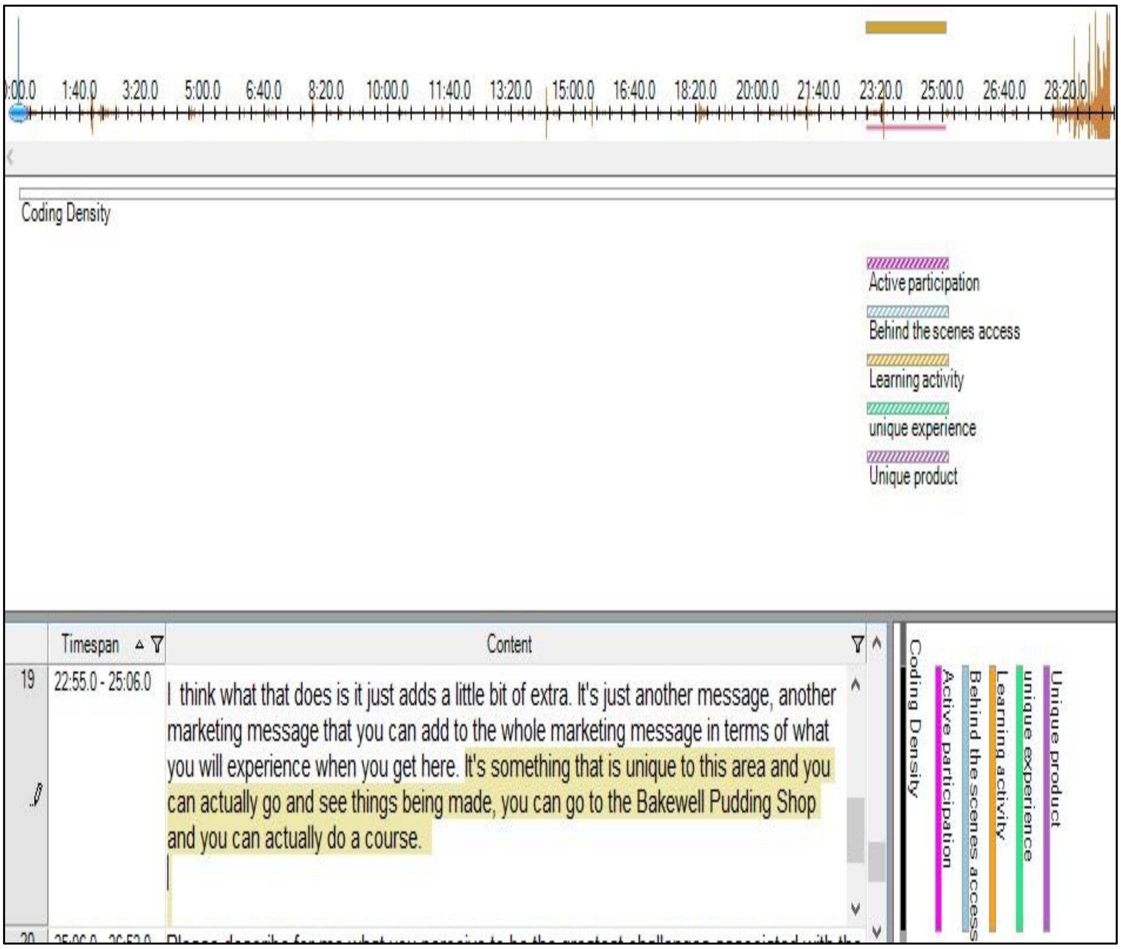
Figure 21. Example of initial coding for "local food definition_meaning" code (source: author)

Nodes

Name	Sources	References	Created On	Created By
Local food definition_meaning	0	0	17/06/2016 17:40	AS
close connection with food_local suppliers	1	1	01/08/2016 12:30	AS
confusing	3	5	17/06/2016 17:42	AS
debate	1	1	01/08/2016 12:37	AS
distinctive	1	1	01/08/2016 14:07	AS
food miles_distance	8	10	17/06/2016 21:05	AS
from here	3	3	03/08/2016 15:17	AS
high quality	1	1	01/08/2016 14:06	AS
lack of definition	2	2	17/06/2016 17:42	AS
local as from Yorkshire food	1	2	01/08/2016 12:35	AS
local food not important to all tourists	1	1	01/08/2016 16:42	AS
locally produced	1	1	02/08/2016 15:01	AS
locally sourced	1	1	02/08/2016 15:37	AS
locally sourced and produced	1	1	02/08/2016 16:39	AS
misleading	1	1	01/08/2016 16:42	AS
problematic because of complex supply chain	1	1	01/08/2016 16:36	AS
produced in the area	1	1	02/08/2016 18:35	AS
produced or farmed here	1	1	03/08/2016 15:38	AS
provenance	4	7	17/06/2016 21:05	AS
quality, provenance and food miles	1	1	02/08/2016 13:38	AS
subjective concept_personal	1	1	01/08/2016 16:34	AS
too generalised	2	2	01/08/2016 12:33	AS
tourist trap	2	2	06/07/2016 19:14	AS

At times, two or more different codes were applied to a single unit of qualitative data. This technique, called simultaneous coding (Saldana, 2016), was seen as appropriate when the data's content suggested multiple meanings that necessitated and justified more than one code (Miles et al., 2014). Figure 22 illustrates an example of multiple different codes applied to a single unit of qualitative data by the researcher.

Figure 22. Example of transcript showing application of multiple codes to a single unit of qualitative data (source: author)



In the example above (Figure 22), the participant was asked to describe the main opportunities that come with the use of food in destination marketing. In the highlighted unit of analysis, the participant used an example of the Bakewell Pudding. She said:

> *"It's something that is unique to this area and you can actually go and see things being made, you can go to the Bakewell Pudding Shop and you can actually do a course"* (P11).

Coding stripes visible on the right represent codes applied to this sentence. As it can be seen 5 different codes were applied:

- active participation;
- behind the scenes access;
- learning activity;
- unique experiences;
- unique product.

Such an approach of multiple codes used simultaneously allowed the researcher to review each component individually, as advocated by Bazeley and Jackson (2013).

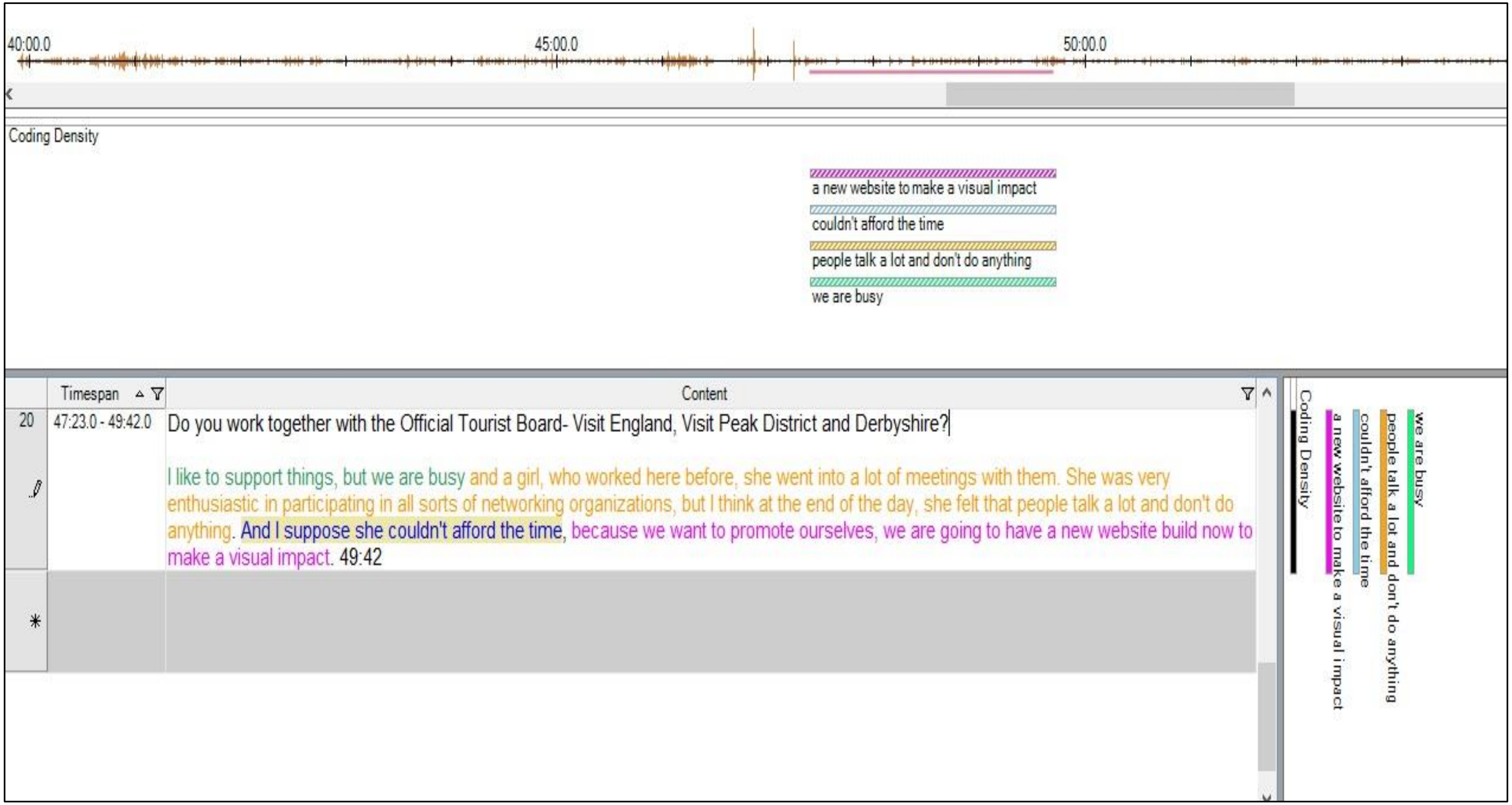
Inductive coding at this stage also involved In Vivo coding which was based on assigning a code to a section of data using a word or short phrase taken directly from that section of the data (Miles et al., 2014), as shown in Figure 23 on the following page. The participant was asked about working in partnership with DMOs. The data was coded by assigning a code to a section of data using a word or short phrase taken directly from that section of the data:

- “we are busy”;
- “people talk a lot and don’t do anything”;
- “couldn’t afford the time”;
- “a new website to make a visual impact”.

The aim of this technique was to ensure that concepts stayed as close as possible to participants' own words and they captured key elements of what was being described.

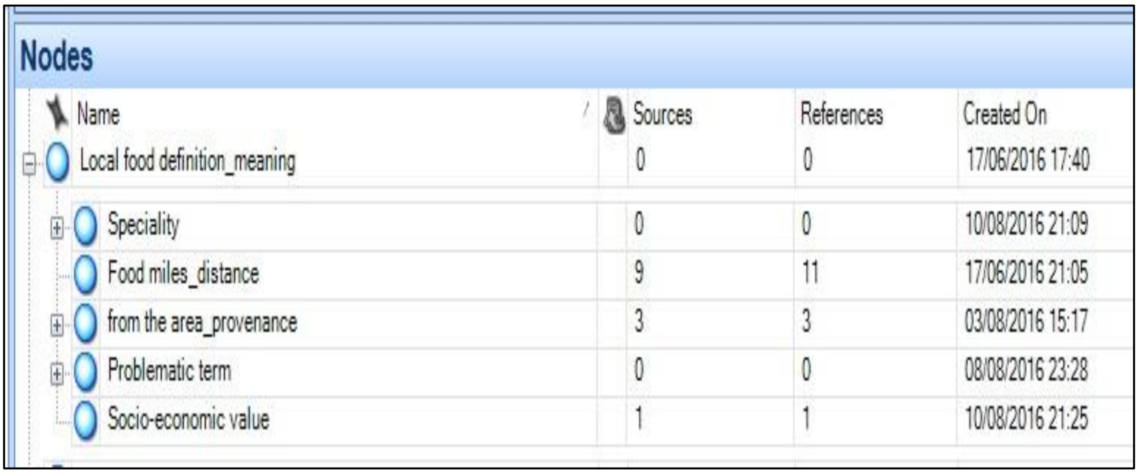
The process of first cycle coding was continued until all data was coded. During the next stage (second cycle coding) of the data condensation process, pattern coding was applied in order to group codes into a smaller number of categories (Saldana, 2016, p.236). While pattern coding, the data was examined carefully by asking key questions such as: What is happening here? What is trying to be conveyed? What are the similarities? What are the differences? By asking those questions, the researcher was able to explore the similarities, but also the differences and peculiarities.

Figure 23. Example of In Vivo coding in the interview transcript (source: author)



Similar codes were collated and organised into broader and more encompassing categories (see Figure 24). Data were continually refined until saturation was reached or no more new categories or concepts could be extracted from the data (Fusch and Ness, 2015).

Figure 24. Example of pattern coding of responses for “local food definition_meaning” code (source: author)



Nodes

Name	Sources	References	Created On
Local food definition_meaning	0	0	17/06/2016 17:40
Speciality	0	0	10/08/2016 21:09
Food miles_distance	9	11	17/06/2016 21:05
from the area_provenance	3	3	03/08/2016 15:17
Problematic term	0	0	08/08/2016 23:28
Socio-economic value	1	1	10/08/2016 21:25

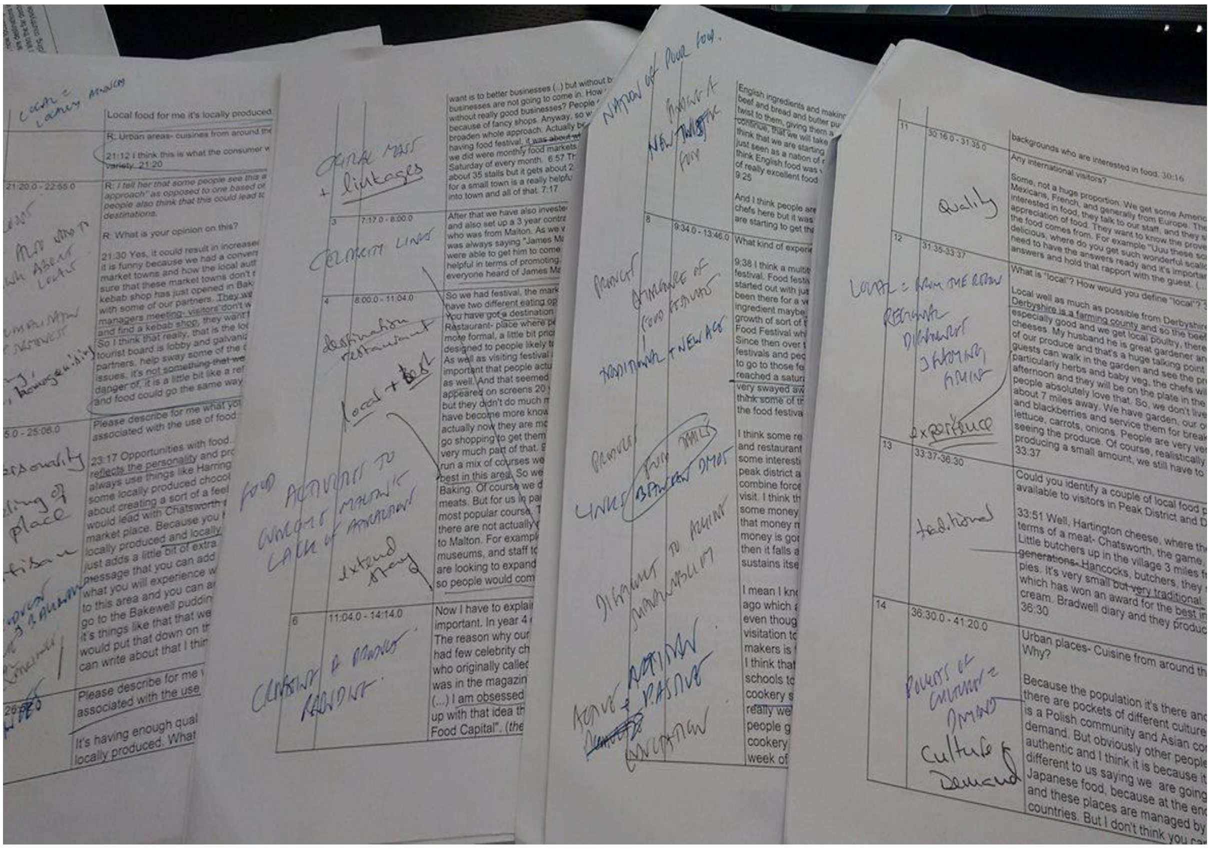
It is important to state that at no stage were numbers assigned to any category. As Krane, Andersen and Strean (1997, p.214) suggest:

> *“Placing a frequency count after a category of experiences is tantamount to saying how important it is; thus value is derived by number. In many cases, rare experiences are no less meaningful, useful, or important than common ones. In some cases, the rare experience may be the most enlightening one.”*

It has to be noted that while the researcher was working alone as a sole researcher, during the coding process two research supervisors were frequently consulted about the coding and analysis, as advised by Saldana (2016). Much has been written about inter-coder reliability which can be used an indicator of coding consistency. It requires that two or more equally capable coders operating in isolation from each other select the same code for the same unit of text (Krippendorff, 2013). However, Campbell, Quincy, Osserman and Pedersen (2013) note that surprisingly little has been written about it for coding text based on semi-structured interviews. The authors also state that prominent researchers using interview data do not generally report in their publications whether they assessed the reliability of their coding. Moreover, even if they do report the level of inter-coder reliability, they typically do not explain how they determined it.

In order to ensure consistency of the coding process, a sample of interview transcripts was coded by two research supervisors. Each of them looked at the same six transcripts and marked any portion of text regardless of length to which they believed a code applied (Figure 25).

Figure 25. Example of the coding process undertaken during the inter-coder reliability check (source: author)



As it can be seen from Figure 25, the supervisors coded any portion of text which they believed a code applied to: a word; a sentence; full paragraph. After this, the meeting was arranged during which codes were compared and any disagreements were discussed in an effort to reconcile them and arrive at a final version. Finally, a group consensus was reached and the codes were finalised (Saldana, 2016).

The third step was displaying the data, seen as the process in which relevant data were presented to provide an organised structure of information that allows for the conclusions to be made. Berg and Lune (2014) state that the qualitative data can be displayed in the form of tables, tally sheets of themes, summaries of various statements, phrases or terms. In this research, the identified themes are displayed in the form of figures (this will be demonstrated in Chapter 5).

The final step of the qualitative data analysis process was based on drawing conclusions. It began with deciding what things meant, noting regularities, patterns and explanations.

3.6.4 Validity and reliability

According to Saunders et al. (2016), data quality issues have to be considered, as the whole process of preparation and undertaking interviews is influenced by the need to avoid these issues. This is because unlike quantitative research which deals primarily with numerical data and their statistical interpretations under a reductionist, logical and strictly objective paradigm, qualitative research handles non-numerical information which is inextricably tied in with subjectivity (Leung, 2015). Thus, it is imperative that all qualitative researchers incorporate strategies to enhance the credibility of a study during research design and implementation (Noble and Smith, 2015).

In general, the data quality issues are related to reliability, forms of bias, generalisability and validity (Saunders et al., 2016). Reliability is concerned whether alternative researchers would gain similar results and thus refers to exact replicability of the processes and the results (Leung, 2015). Generalisability is the extent to which the findings of a research are applicable to other settings. Validity refers to “appropriateness” of the tools, processes, and data as well as the extent to which the researcher has gained access to a participant’s knowledge and experience and is able to infer meanings that the participant intends from the language used by that person (Leung, 2015).

In addition to the above, according to Saunders et al. (2016), there are four types of bias. The first issue of bias – interviewer bias – occurs when the comments, tone or non-verbal behaviour of the interviewer creates bias in the way that interviewees respond to the questions being asked. This could include imposing the researcher's own beliefs through the questions. It is also possible to demonstrate bias in a way the responses are interpreted. Response bias may be caused by perceptions about the interviewer or perceived interviewer bias. Interviewees may choose not to reveal and discuss an aspect of the topic, because this could be seen by them as intrusive and sensitive. The outcome could be that the researcher provides only a partial picture of the situation. Lastly, participation bias is the reduction in willingness to take part in an interview which may bias the sample from whom data are collected.

According to Adams et al. (2014), the best protection against quality errors is an understanding of the various types of potential data quality issues. Indeed, the researcher reviewed the relevant literature and familiarised herself with the potential data quality issues prior to undertaking interviews. What is more, the researcher implemented a series of different methods that aimed to reduce the risk of interview data quality issues, as presented in Table 22 on the following page. It is hoped that measures undertaken in Table 22 ensured the rigour with which interviews were undertaken and analysed by the researcher.

3.7 Chapter conclusion

This chapter has explained and justified the methodology used for the collection of data in order to answer the research questions identified in Chapter 1.

In the first stage of the data collection process, the qualitative content analysis was undertaken on a range of DMO websites. Following this, the second stage involved semi-structured interviews with DMO representatives and industry experts to capture data regarding the perceptions of food in destination marketing.

The results and analysis from the data obtained through qualitative content analysis and semi-structured interviews are provided in the following two chapters (Chapter 4 and Chapter 5).

Table 22. Interview data quality issues and measures undertaken to overcome them (source: Adams et al., 2014; Creswell and Miller, 2000; Noble and Smith, 2015; Saunders et al., 2016)

Data quality issues	Measures undertaken to overcome data quality issues
Reliability (consistency of the analytical procedures)	- Research rigour was applied; detailed data presentations. - Pilot study was undertaken. - Inter-coder reliability was applied during the coding process. - Meticulous record keeping, demonstrating a clear decision trail and ensuring interpretations of data were consistent and transparent. - Inclusion of deviant responses and use of tables to present the data (Silverman, 2016).
Forms of bias (interviewer bias, response bias, participation bias)	- Approach to questioning was carefully considered. - The researcher aimed to establish rapport and trust at the beginning of each interview. - The importance of interviews was explained to participant, as well as their contribution to the study. - All interviews took place in suitable locations. - The researcher used appropriate questioning techniques: unbiased questions, clarifying issues and assisting individuals via probing. - Leading questions were avoided; attentive listening by the researcher. - Data was audio recorded and carefully transcribed.
Generalisability (applicability of the findings to other settings)	- Data was collected from a number of destinations. - Consideration was given to whether findings can be applied to other contexts, settings or destinations.
Validity (credibility of interpretations)	- The researcher probed meanings and sought to clarify responses. - "Member checking" (Creswell and Miller, 2000): if concerns arose, the data and interpretations were taken back to the participants in the study, so that they could confirm the credibility of the information and narrative account. - "Thick, rich description" (Creswell and Miller, 2000): describing the setting, the participants, and the themes in rich detail. - "Peer debriefing" (Creswell and Miller, 2000): the data and interview process was reviewed by two senior academics who were familiar with the research and the phenomenon being explored. The reviewers provided support, played devil's advocate, challenged the researcher's assumptions and asked hard questions about methods and interpretations. - Emerging interview themes were discussed with research team members who had qualitative research expertise where assumptions were challenged and consensus reached.

Chapter 4: Content analysis

4.1 Chapter introduction

This chapter aims to address the third research objective (RO3) of the study which is to explore how food is promoted on the official DMO websites of selected destinations. Thus, this chapter presents the key findings from the content analysis of the official DMO websites of Welcome to Yorkshire, Visit Peak District and Derbyshire, Welcome to Sheffield and Visit York. Firstly, the findings from each case are presented in a descriptive format. This was believed to be the most suitable format, as the aim of this exploratory study was to provide some insights into an area on which there is limited empirical evidence. Secondly, the findings and implications for the interviews are presented. Finally, the chapter ends with a summary and conclusion outlining the overall outcomes from this chapter.

4.2 Content analysis findings

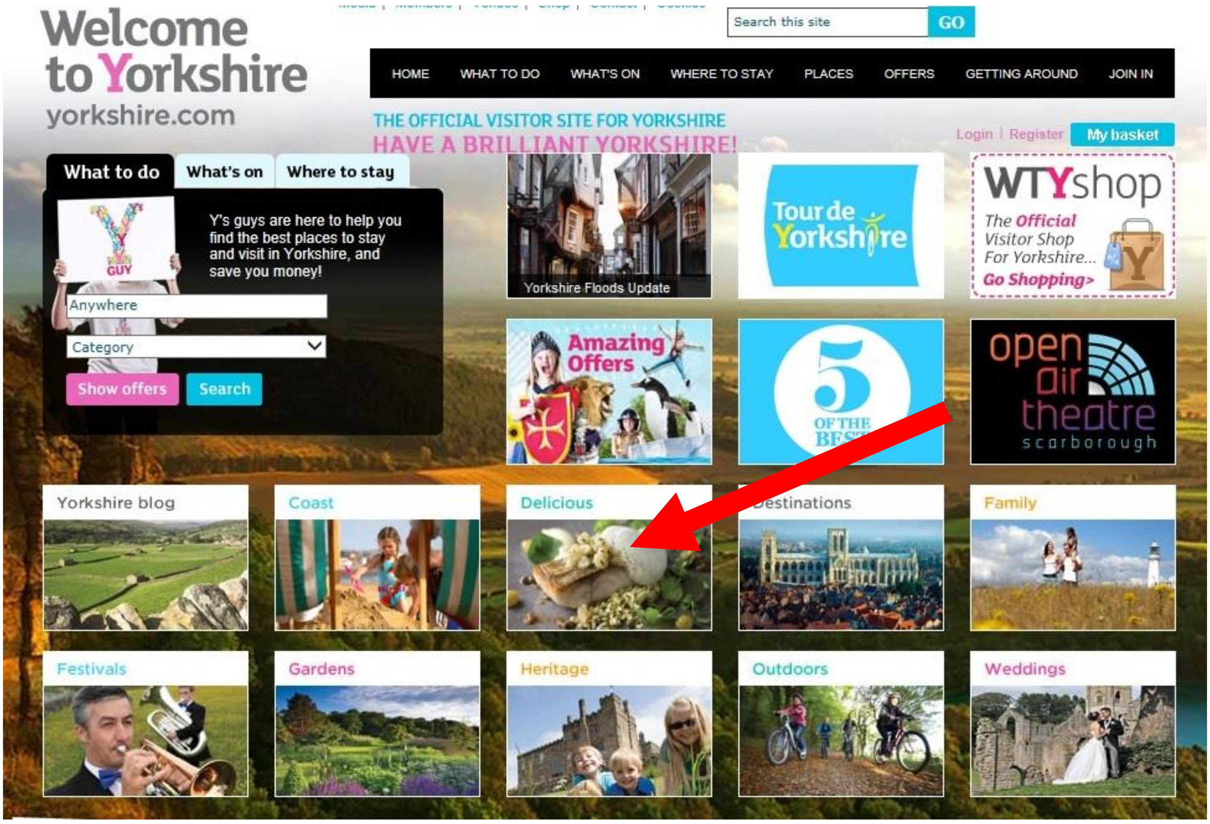
As described in Chapter 3, in recent years, an increasing number of studies in the tourism field have used content analysis (Camprubí and Coromina, 2016). Thus, the methodological approach applied in this chapter was informed by a number of previous content analysis studies of websites and brochures with a focus on food in tourism. In particular, qualitative content analysis was used, as there was not enough former knowledge about the phenomenon under investigation (Elo and Kyngäs, 2008). In addition, for the purpose of this study, the decision was made not to develop a coding scheme prior to the data collection. The main reason for this was to keep the relevant codes and themes true to the essence of the data and to avoid making data fit pre-determined categories. This was in line with previous studies supporting the choice of analysis for the present study (such as: Frochot, 2003; Lin et al., 2011; Silkes et al., 2013). It has to be restated that at no stage were numbers assigned to any category. According to Krane et al. (1997, p.214), placing a frequency count "*is tantamount to saying how important it is*", however, in some cases, the rare finding may be the most enlightening one.

The following sections present the content analysis findings in a descriptive format. This was believed to be the most suitable format, as the aim of this exploratory study was to provide some insights into an area on which there is limited empirical evidence.

4.2.1 Welcome to Yorkshire

The food and drink section was clearly featured on the main page of the Welcome to Yorkshire website (Figure 26).

Figure 26. Welcome to Yorkshire landing page and ten key marketing themes (source: Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016)



As it can be seen in Figure 26, "Delicious" was identified as one of the ten key marketing themes which immediately positioned food as an important and distinct element in destination marketing. The content analysis revealed that, in general, the emphasis was placed on regional "Yorkshire" products. This was evident throughout different sections on the website. For example, the opening statement of the food section stated that: "*Yorkshire's famed food and drink can be found in abundance across the region's numerous markets, farm shops and restaurants*" (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016). Moreover, the site was informing the potential visitor of the abundance and diversity of food on offer: "*from Michelin to madras,* *rhubarb to real ale, Yorkshire Wensleydale to wine, Yorkshire is simply delicious*!" (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016).

Emphasis was placed on regional and local produce. Speciality food products that featured on the website included: Puckett's Pickles, Wensleydale cheese, Yorkshire Parkin, Yorkshire Provender Soups, The Yorkshire Pudding and The Yorkshire Sausage. In appealing to an audience interested in food, the Welcome to Yorkshire website described the properties of food as mainly "local", "fresh" and "seasonal" (Figure 27), for example: "*Yorkshire is famous for providing the finest local produce"* (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016).

Figure 27. A word cloud of food descriptors for Welcome to Yorkshire (source: author)

Apart from proclaiming that "*Yorkshire has some of the best food and drink*", the website also boasted of "*fantastic food producers in Yorkshire, who produce truly delicious food*" (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016). This included:

- Wensleydale Creamery: an award-winning cheese producer and visitor centre described as being full of "*passion, tradition and plenty of good old Yorkshire determination*" (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016);
- Womersley Food: an artisan company producing a range of products made from only natural ingredients, using locally sourced fruit. According

to the description provided, they have been using family recipes for more than 30 years;

- Puckett's Pickles: producer of pickles and chutneys described as "*natural, gloriously colourful and joyfully British"* (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016);
- Yorkshire Provender: producer of Yorkshire Provender Soups; their soups are made using the best seasonal ingredients sourced directly from local and British farms and cooked by a small team. Their recipes "*represent the best of classic British flavours*" (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016);
- Fancie: independent bakery based in Sheffield specialising in cupcakes, savoury muffins and other treats;
- Lottie Shaw: bakery whose products are based on a one hundred-year-old family passion for baking.

A unique feature of Yorkshire's DMO website was that it featured a series of "Delicious Trails" (Figure 28) which are discussed below.

Figure 28. Delicious trails featuring on Welcome to Yorkshire website (source: Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016)

Each trail presented in Figure 28 contained a map and descriptions of places to visit and acted as a tool for potential visitors to discover some delicious products and eat their way around the county. For example, the “Fish and chips” trail featured a culinary tour of some of the fish and chip shops and restaurants in the county (Figure 29 and 30).

Figure 29. Fish and chips trail part 1 (source: Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016)

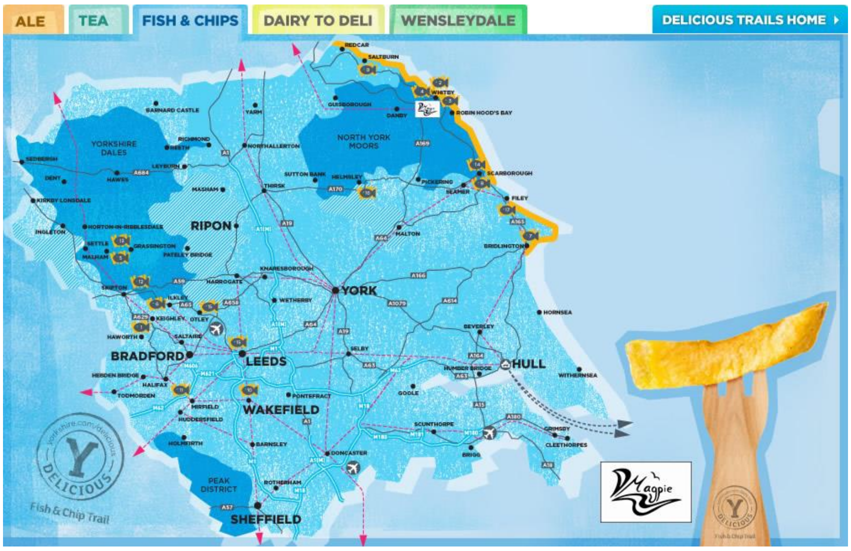
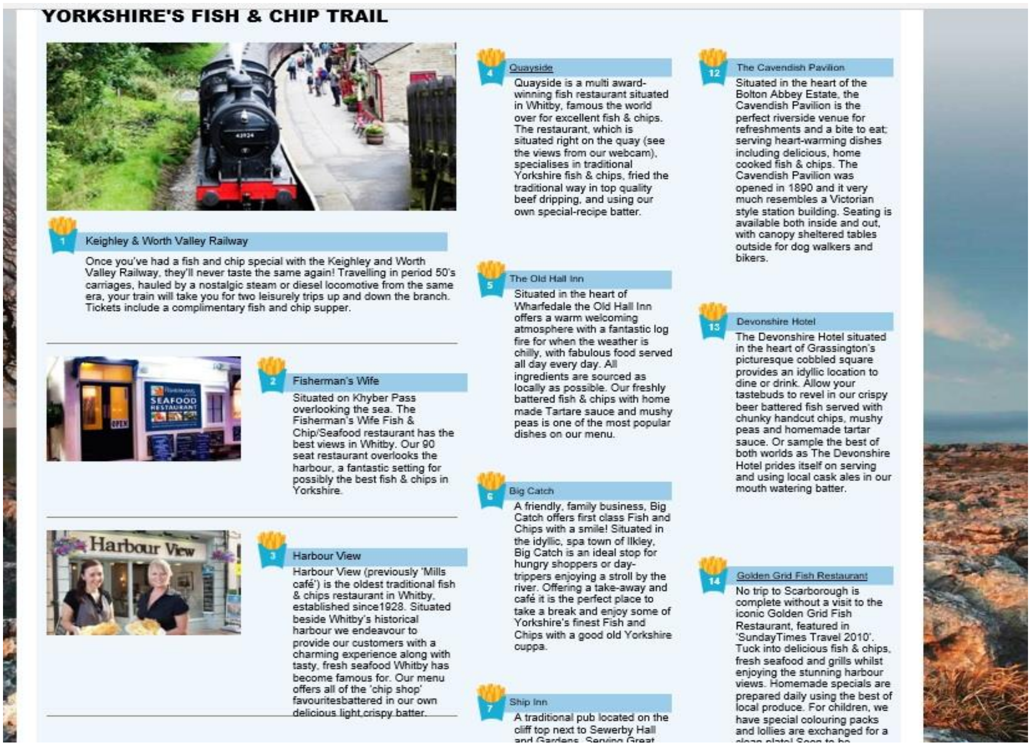


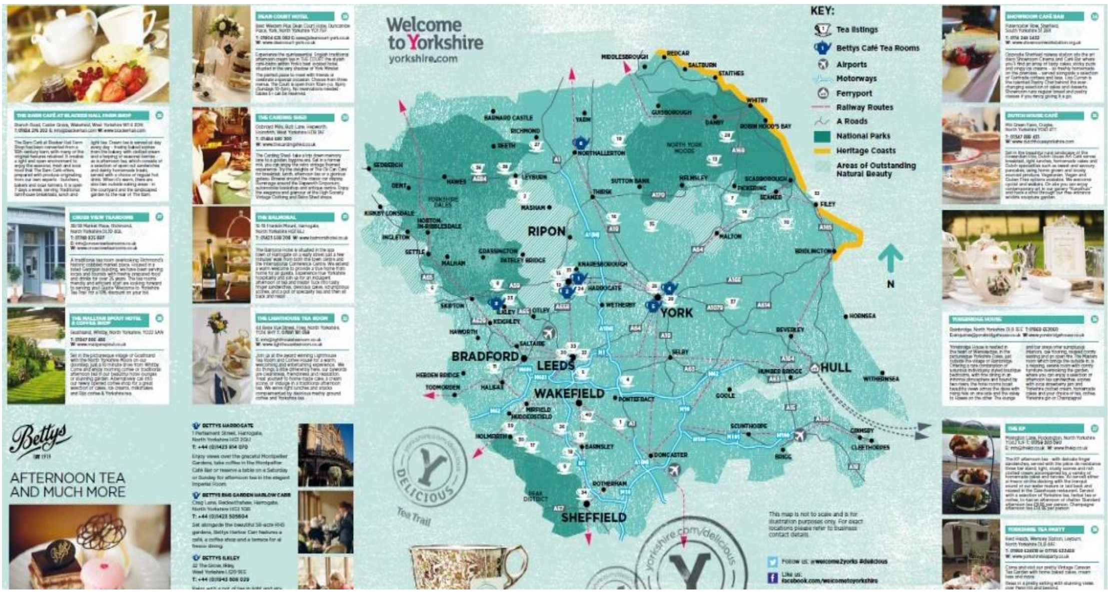
Figure 30. Fish and chips trail part 2 (source: Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016)



According to the information provided on the website, fish and chips are one of the Great British institutions, whether eaten straight from the paper or from a plate, with mushy peas or a nice glass of wine. The trail also claimed that Yorkshire is home to some of the finest fish and chip restaurants and takeaways in the world.

The “Tea” trail (Figure 31) on the other hand explained that the afternoon tea represents a very English tradition.

Figure 31. The tea trail (source: Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016)



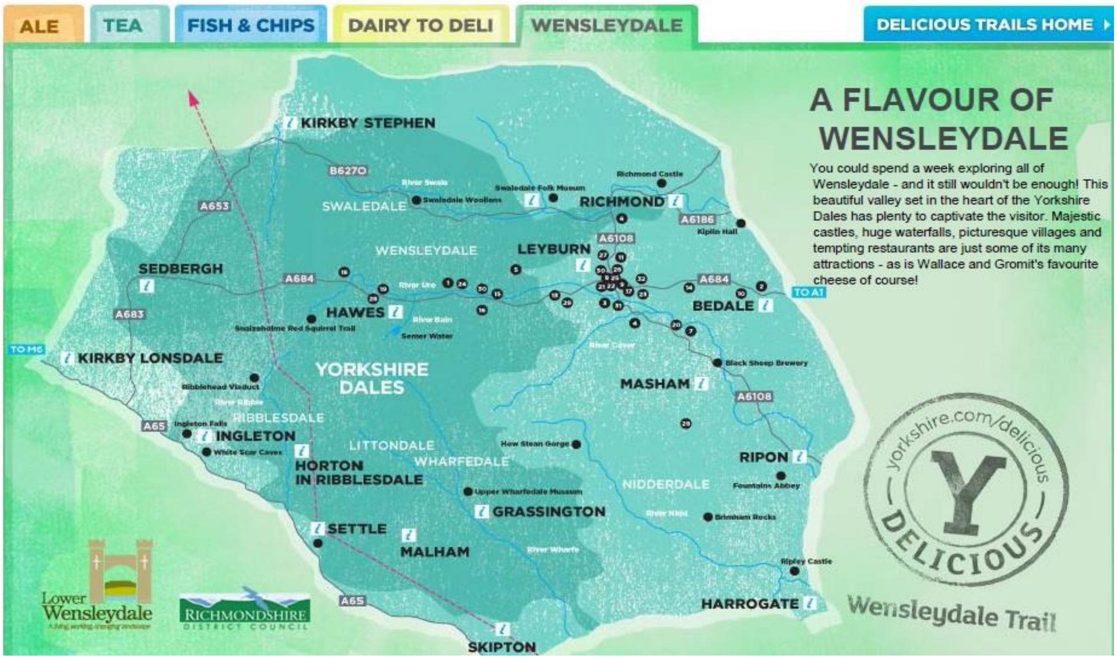
Yorkshire was described as being fortunate to have some of the very best purveyors of afternoon tea the country has to offer. The trail featured everything from information on the producers and tea companies to places with perfect surroundings where tourists can enjoy a good brew while they “*marvel at the county’s beautiful landscapes*” (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016).

The “Dairy to deli” trail (Figure 32) was also called “A flavour of Yorkshire” and promised to deliver “*a journey around some of the great places where (…) [tourists] can try some authentic tastes of Yorkshire*”.

Figure 32. “Dairy to deli” trail (source: Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016)

In addition to the “Diary to deli” trail, Wensleydale cheese had its own separate trail (Figure 33).

Figure 33. Wensleydale trail (source: Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016)



The last trail, “Michelin Experience” (Figure 34), stated that Yorkshire has the largest number of Michelin Starred restaurants of any other county in England outside of London.

Figure 34. Michelin Experience trail (source: Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016)

Yorkshire now boasts the largest number of Michelin Starred restaurants than any other county

Yorkshire now boasts the largest number of Michelin Starred restaurants than any other county in England outside of London. Here's the 6 that make up Yorkshire's Michelin Star experience:

The Box Tree, Ilkley - has retained its Michelin Star for the 10th year running. The modern French classical menu and extensive wine cellar offer food lovers an unforgettable experience.

Yorke Arms, Nr Harrogate - Michelin Star Chef, Frances Atkins' cooking is based on simple ideas and well-tried combinations, but still contrives to introduce new twists and original touches. Recently listed in the Top 50 restaurants in The Good Food Guide 2010.

The Pipe and Glass, South Dalton - Michelin starred for 5 years in now (and 6th time in total)! Winner of the 'Taste of England' Award at the 2009 Enjoy England Awards for Excellence. Other awards include being voted one of the top 40 restaurants outside of London. 'Caterer and Hotelkeeper' said of the restaurant "If East Yorkshire was once a culinary desert, The Pipe & Glass is very definitely its new foodies oasis."

The Black Swan at Oldstead, a Michelin Star, and 3 AA Rosette, pub and restaurant with rooms, 20 miles north of York. Michelin says of chef/owner, Tommy Banks, who is believed to be Britain's youngest Michelin Star Chef, 'cooking is modern and highly skilled but satisfyingly unpretentious" . The AA says 'Chef Tom cooks with the seasons and with a great deal of passion and flair', 2014.

The Star Inn at Harome, Situated in a picturesque village on the edge of the North York Moors National Park, a couple of miles outside the market town of Helmsley, this much loved inn has origins believed to date back to the 14th Century. This restaurant is owned by Andrew Pern and the Head Chef is Steve Smith.

This trail provided information on six Yorkshire chefs providing the Michelin Star experience. In addition to the Michelin starred chefs, another section called "Fine Food and Award Winning Chefs" introduced profiles of other celebrity chefs stating: "*we have some of the best chefs in the UK demonstrating a real passion for cooking in kitchens across the county*" (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016). This could be seen as an attempt designed to attract more overly gastronomic visitors.

The website also provided information on other food-related activities and experiences such as farmer's markets which were described as becoming increasingly popular as a means of buying locally produced food. Additionally, cookery schools were promoted as "*delicious and educational treats*" which have something to offer for everyone, whether a novice or a kitchen professional (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016). Another separate section included information on "perfect places for food shopping" ranging from the region's farm shops to markets and specialist delis offering a multitude of delights such as mature grass-fed beef, Dales lamb, rhubarb, apples, chocolates and beer. The site also recommended the potential visitor to buy "A Little Taste of Yorkshire" cookbook containing an eclectic mix of recipes that have been collected from local independent businesses in Yorkshire and showcasing culinary gems from across the region.

Another distinctive aspect of the Welcome to Yorkshire website was the recipe for Yorkshire's best-known speciality: Yorkshire Sausage. According to the website excerpt, in the past Yorkshire did not have a namesake sausage which was seen as a shortcoming since other regions in England, such as Lincolnshire, Cumberland and Suffolk, all have distinctive sausages named after them. What is more, according to the website "*sausages are rooted in their local history and celebrated across the country as mealtime favourites*" (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016). For that reason, the award-winning butcher in partnership with Welcome to Yorkshire, launched a campaign to find an official Yorkshire Sausage. In an effort to "*give the sausage lovers of Yorkshire a banger they can be proud of*", a series of Yorkshire-wide street sampling roadshows was arranged. With all the votes counted and verified the winning sausage was announced during the Yorkshire Day in 2011 (Figure 35).

Figure 35. Yorkshire Sausage (source: Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016)

The special feature on Yorkshire Sausage also listed all the ingredients and step-by-step procedures, so that online visitors can make this dish at home, thereby bringing this regional product to the world.

In addition to local and regional specialities, international cuisines were also present in the restaurants' section, however, they were not as actively promoted as in other destinations. This included restaurants offering Indian, Chinese, Mediterranean, French, and Brazilian cuisine.

To conclude, food featured on the main website as one of the 10 key marketing themes which immediately positioned food as an important and distinct element in destination marketing. The content analysis revealed that, in general, the emphasis was placed on regional "Yorkshire" products. Apart from proclaiming that "*Yorkshire has some of the best food and drink*", the website also boasted of "*fantastic food producers in Yorkshire, who produce truly delicious food* (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016). A unique feature of Yorkshire's DMO website was that it featured a series of "Delicious Trails": fish and chips, tea trail, "dairy to deli", Wensleydale and Michelin Experience trail. Particular emphasis was placed on celebrity chefs which could be seen as an attempt designed to attract more overly gastronomic visitors. Apart from providing information on food-related activities and experiences such as farmer's markets, food festivals and cooking schools, Welcome to Yorkshire website also recommended the potential visitor to buy "A Little Taste of Yorkshire" cookbook containing recipes collected from local independent businesses in Yorkshire and showcasing culinary gems from across the region. In addition, there was a special feature and recipe for Yorkshire Sausage thereby bringing this regional product to the world.

4.2.2 Visit Peak District and Derbyshire

Content analysis revealed that Visit Peak District and Derbyshire website tended to promote a range of restaurants and places to eat rather than providing information on the type of food products and experiences available. This can be seen from the first sentence opening the food section:

> *"Dining out in the Peak District & Derbyshire is a gourmet delight. With a huge variety of venues ranging from Michelin-starred restaurants to country pubs and traditional tea rooms to city bistros, you will be spoilt for choice"* (Visit Peak District and Derbyshire, 2016).

Apart from English cuisine, other foreign cuisines mentioned on the website included Italian, Indian, Chinese, Contemporary European, Japanese and Greek. References to food included the vast array of meat, poultry and game, as well as home-cooked meats and pies, fresh bread and cakes. In a similar vein to previous destinations, food was mainly described as “local”, “fresh” and “delicious” (Figure 36).

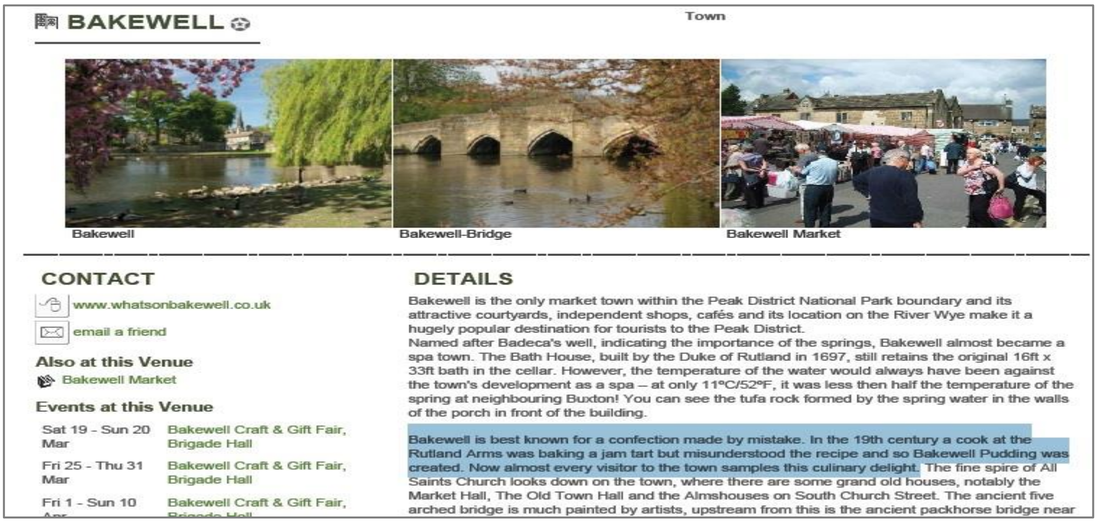
Figure 36. A word cloud of food descriptors for Visit Peak District and Derbyshire (source: author)

The section dedicated to farms and food shops appeared to be chaotic and there was a limited information provided (Figure 37).

Figure 37. Farms and food shops on the Visit Peak District and Derbyshire website (source: Visit Peak District and Derbyshire, 2016)

One of the surprising findings was that the Bakewell Pudding – a type of English dessert consisting of a flaky pastry base with a layer of sieved jam and topped with a filling made of egg and almond paste (Bakewell Baking Festival, 2017) – was only briefly mentioned on the Visit Peak District and Derbyshire website. There was a very short information explaining the history of the Bakewell Pudding, as illustrated in Figure 38.

Figure 38. Information on Bakewell Pudding (source: Visit Peak District and Derbyshire, 2016)



In addition, the Bakewell Pudding was mentioned once again in the "Restaurants" section where the Old Original Bakewell Pudding Shop was promoted (Figure 39).

Figure 39. The Old Original Bakewell Pudding Shop (source: Visit Peak District and Derbyshire, 2016)

Such limited information on the Bakewell Pudding was very surprising, as the Bakewell Pudding has a national reputation for originating from this area (Visit England, 2016). According to the legend in the 19th century a cook at the Rutland Arms was baking a jam tart, but misunderstood the recipe and so Bakewell Pudding was created (Bakewell Online, no date; Derbyshire Dales District Council, 2012; Peak District Online, 2017). Nowadays Bakewell Pudding is a popular tourist attraction in its own right and tourists come from near or far to sample this delicacy (Derbyshire Guide, 2016; The D2N2 Local Enterprise Partnership, 2014).

What is more, in 2014 the Bakewell Pudding featured in England's Hall of Fame campaign designed by the Visit England (Hawley, 2014). The main aim of the campaign was to celebrate everything that England has contributed to the world ranging from the Beatles, Harry Potter and James Bond to Wallace and Gromit, and the Magna Carta (Rowe, 2014). Members of the public could nominate their own suggestions based under the following categories:

- The Great, The Good and the Notorious;
- Inventions and Discoveries;
- Food and Drink;
- History and Heritage;
- Culture and Entertainment;
- Sport and Leisure;
- People's Choice.

A panel of experts awarded a bronze, silver and gold across all six categories, to celebrate the best of what England has brought to the world and what makes the country such a diverse and fascinating place to visit and explore (Rowe, 2014). The Bakewell Pudding took a Bronze award in the Food and Drink category, third only to the sandwich (Gold) and England's oldest gin distillery in Plymouth (Silver). According to the news release published by Visit England and Visit Peak District and Derbyshire (2014, no page), David James, Chief Executive of Visit Peak District and Derbyshire at that time, said:

> *"It's no surprise that the Bakewell Pudding has been selected as one of the prize-winning ingredients in England's Hall of Fame –*

it's been enjoyed by residents and tourists for more than 150 years, and today is dispatched all over the world for people to savour. This is a great accolade for the Peak District, whose fine local food and drink offer is perhaps not as well-known and appreciated outside the area as it deserves to be. We hope the Bakewell Pudding's success will pave the way to a higher profile for other examples of our delicious and wide-ranging produce."

However, despite the Bakewell Pudding's recognition and award as one of the most famous English food products, there was a very little information on this on the official Visit Peak District and Derbyshire website.

Most images tended to show empty restaurants, dishes on their own classically displayed in a restaurant style (set up on a table cloth with glasses) or tables set up for dinners, as can be seen in Figures 40 and 41.

Figure 40. Example of empty restaurant featured on the Visit Peak District and Derbyshire website (source: Visit Peak District and Derbyshire, 2016)

Figure 41. Example of food featured on the Visit Peak District and Derbyshire website (source: Visit Peak District and Derbyshire, 2016)

As shown in Figures 40 and 41, social interactions were missing, as chefs, restaurants' staff and other stakeholders in the pictures were under-represented. Overall, the quality and depth of information was not presented to the same standard as the other websites analysed nor was the same level of sophistication evident in how images were constructed.

To conclude, the content analysis revealed that the Visit Peak District and Derbyshire DMO website tended to promote a range of restaurants and places to eat rather than providing information on the type of food products and experiences available. The limited and chaotic information on food included descriptors such as "local", "fresh" and "delicious". The Bakewell Pudding was only briefly mentioned on the Visit Peak District and Derbyshire website which was very surprising, as it has a national reputation for originating from this area and it also featured in England's Hall of Fame campaign designed by the Visit England to celebrate everything that England has contributed to the world. It can be concluded that, in this case, food was not used as prominently as a theme in the destination marketing as it was in the case of other websites analysed in this study. Substantial differences were noted between the use, importance and presentation of food as well the construction of images. Admittedly, many of these differences relate to better composed food webpages, reflecting higher professional standards and greater levels of investment or expenditure on web-design. This could suggest that food, although being important, may be a secondary product receiving lower priority compared to other products.

4.2.3 Visit York

According to the "Food and Drink" section on the Visit York website, in 2011 York was voted by TripAdvisor a top 10 European Destination for food and wine. In addition, the opening statement stated that "*York is the foodie capital of the county*" which immediately positioned food as an important element in their destination marketing (Visit York, 2016).

The content analysis of the Visit York website indicated that York's food and its production was marketed as a unique "Taste York" experience, as illustrated in Figure 42.

Figure 42. Taste York section (source: Visit York, 2016)

In particular, the DMO website stated that York's geographical positioning at the very heart of one of the most diverse food producing regions in the UK ensures a wealth of produce. Moreover, the Visit York website compared York to the city of Lyon in France stating that: "*York, like Lyon in France, is surrounded by geographical diversity: the moors and dales, the coast, the vale of York*" (Visit York, 2016). According to the information provided, the position of the city as the traditional market town of Yorkshire supposedly gives York glorious and diverse produce famous for its amazing tastes. What is more, this implied uniqueness stemming from the geographical location was often blended and entwined with heritage, as demonstrated in the quote below:

> *"York is the foodie capital of the county. Where else can you dine beneath the soaring spires of the largest gothic cathedral in northern Europe?"* (Visit York, 2016).

It can be argued that Visit York sought to convey a unique sense of place by taking advantage of its heritage and provenance. In comparison to the other destinations in this study, Visit York illustrated a strong cultural history which was combined with showcasing the foods unique and special to York. In particular, there was a great emphasis on chocolate heritage. According to the DMO website:

> *"While other northern centres made their wealth from wool, cotton and steel, York went its own sweet way and built a city from chocolate. York truly is the home of chocolate and this great*

tradition continues to this day. All over the city are echoes of York's chocolate past" (Visit York, 2016).

In a distinct section dedicated to the chocolate heritage, "Something Sweet", Visit York provided York's Chocolate Trail (Figure 43). The map can be downloaded and printed off helping the visitor to start "*a journey of discovery around the chocolate city*" (Visit York, 2016). According to the information featured on the map, tourists can discover how chocolate shaped York by visiting an array of themed cafés and individual chocolate shops all around the city.

Figure 43. Chocolate Trail in York (source: Visit York, 2016)

In addition to the map, Visit York website also provided information on chocolate breaks in York, chocolate events and festivals as well as "Choctastic Facts about York" which included some entertaining and interesting facts about chocolate in York. Moreover, the chocolate section was accompanied by a video where Becky Hayes, presenter and self-proclaimed "chocolate lover", discovered York's chocolate trail and tasted some delicious samples along the way (Figure 44).

Figure 44. York's chocolate trail video (source: Visit York, 2016)

In addition to marketing chocolate heritage, the DMO website also promoted another English tradition – afternoon tea. In particular, the DMO website stated that York is renowned for serving up quintessentially English afternoon tea. According to Visit York "*if you think you've tasted the best afternoon tea, think again and savour afternoon tea decadence at Bettys"* (Visit York, 2016). The website tended to promote Betty's as a must-visit attraction by stating that a trip to York would not be completed without a visit to this supposedly famous café and that only "*few visitors to York fail to visit Bettys*" (Visit York, 2016).

Another component of the destination marketing materials was the focus on "local". Thus, not surprisingly, food was mostly described as "local", "fresh" and "homemade" (Figure 45).

Figure 45. A word cloud of food descriptors for Visit York (source: author)

The Visit York website had whole pages dedicated to local produce encouraging visitors to discover fresh Yorkshire fruit and vegetables, cheeses, fish and meat in York's many delicatessens, farm shops and regular Farmers' Market. This was further emphasised in the section on “local foodie heroes” which contained interviews with York restaurateurs, Food Festival Organisers and Chocolate Makers. The section was also accompanied by named photographs of these individuals and their contribution to food in the city.

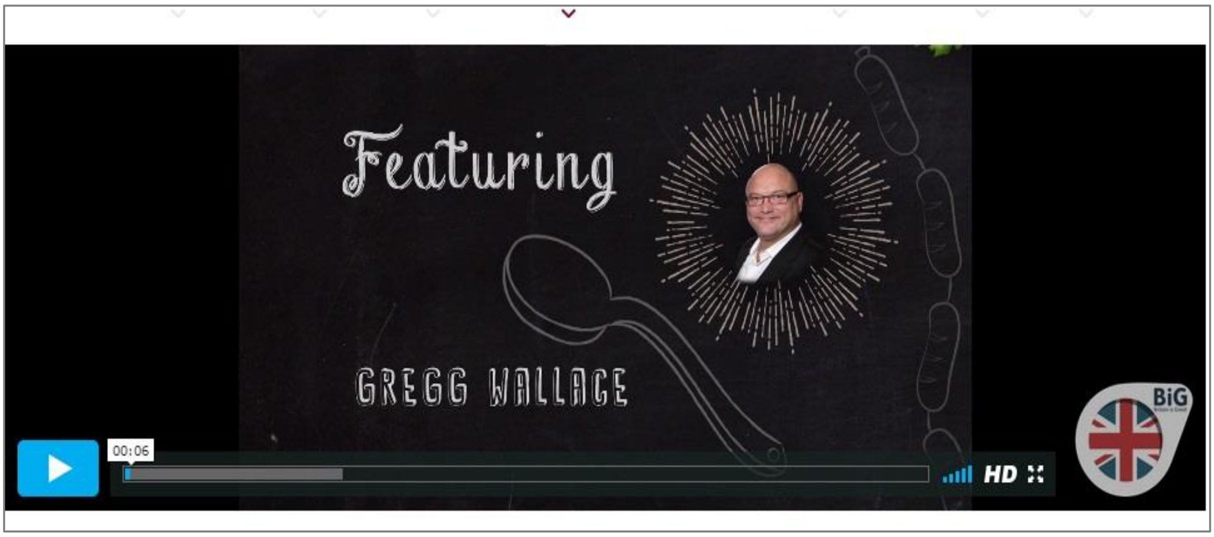
Interestingly, Visit York’s website was the only one which had a special feature on the local market. According to the information provided, Shambles Market was described as “*one of the north of England’s largest open-air markets* (…) *tucked away at the back of York’s famous cobbled street”* (Visit York, 2016). It supposedly features a range of stalls selling a selection of fresh, locally sourced food seven days a week. The section encouraged tourists to visit Shambles Market and create their own dishes using the best ingredients York has to offer which further emphasised the importance of local food.

While in general there was a strong focus on local produce, Visit York’s website also featured other international cuisines. In the section called “*From the Four Corners*” Visit York promised that there is something to satisfy every craving of each visitor ranging from “*Nepalese curries, Mexican fiestas or even delicious Spanish tapas. Cuisine from around the world – all in one city*!” (Visit York, 2016). Indeed, the section promoted a wide range of different cuisines such as: Italian, Indian, Chinese, Contemporary European, French, Japanese, Spanish, Mexican, Thai, American, Brazilian and Turkish. Perhaps this presence of international cuisines is the reason why Visit York decided to describe York as the city “*where the traditional meets the contemporary”* (Visit York, 2016).

Content analysis indicated that another distinctive aspect of York’s DMO website was the organisation and presentation of the “York Food and Drink Festival” section which was described as the biggest food festival in the UK celebrating its 20th year in 2016. In particular, a whole section was dedicated to the food festival which included a wealth of information and highlighted the main features of the festival such as: market and street food, demonstrations, evening food and wine events, kids’ activities, live music and cookery school. The section also contained a video in which Dr Annie Gray, the food historian, explained the history and background of the trifle which was described as one of the most famous English desserts.

A unique feature of York's DMO website was the use of food experts – celebrity chefs, local "food heroes" and academics – who featured extensively on the DMO website. For example, there was a video (Figure 46) with Gregg Wallace (an English television presenter known for co-presenting MasterChef) who showcased the wealth of produce in York by sampling tasty ingredients ranging from cheese to chocolate and enjoying afternoon tea at the Grand Hotel & Spa.

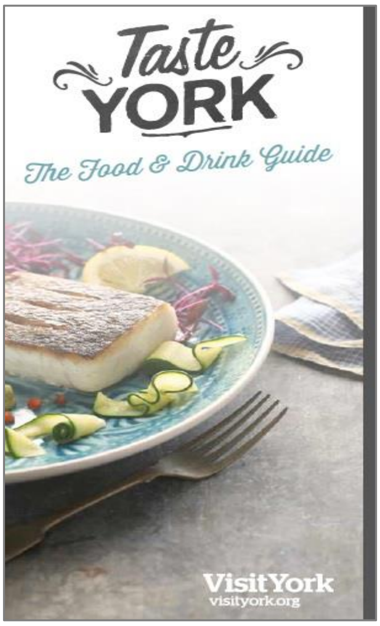
Figure 46. York Great Food Adventure video (source: Visit York, 2016)



It can be argued that the use of food experts and celebrities was probably designed to add a sense of authenticity and authority to the food section by reinstating the quality and the variety of food experiences available in the city. In addition, this could be seen as a celebrity endorsement strategy.

Another unique feature in York's destination marketing was a "Taste York Guide", as shown in Figure 47.

Figure 47. Taste York guide (source: Visit York, 2016)



According to the DMO website, the main purpose of the guide was to whet the appetite of the visitor by showcasing York's restaurants and bars, cafés and bistros, real ale pubs and food festivals. The guide included an overview of what each eatery serves up, their opening times and contact details as well as brief information about venues' accessibility levels.

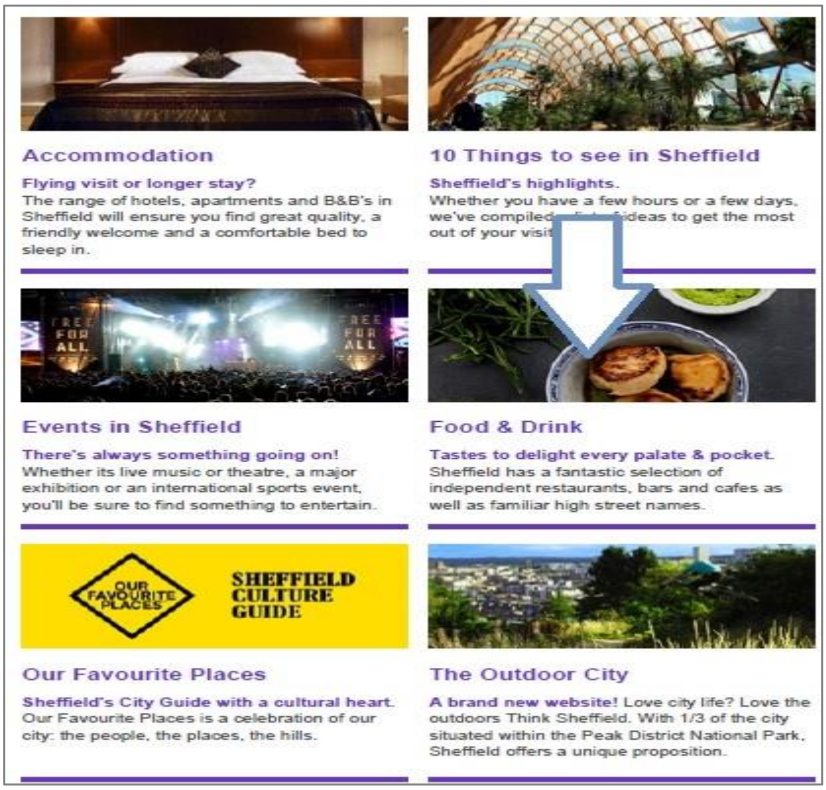
To conclude, the content analysis revealed that in 2011 York was voted by TripAdvisor a top 10 European destination for food and wine. In addition, the opening statement stated that "*York is the foodie capital of the county*" which immediately positioned food as an important element in their destination marketing. In comparison to the other destinations in this study, Visit York illustrated a strong cultural history which was combined with showcasing the foods unique and special to York, such as for example chocolate heritage which featured prominently on the DMO website. Another component of the destination marketing materials was the focus on "local". The Visit York website had whole pages dedicated to local produce, "local foodie heroes" and local markets. Thus, not surprisingly, food was mostly described as "local", "fresh" and "homemade". While in general there was a strong focus on local produce, Visit York's website also featured other international cuisines (Italian, Indian, Chinese, Contemporary European, French, Japanese, Spanish, Mexican, Thai, American, Brazilian and Turkish). A unique feature of York's DMO website was the use of food experts –

celebrity chefs, local “food heroes” and academics – who featured extensively on the DMO website.

4.2.4 Welcome to Sheffield

The final website that was analysed was that of Sheffield. The food section was positioned in the central place on the main page of Welcome to Sheffield. As can be seen in Figure 48, “Food and Drink” section promised to deliver “*tastes to delight every palate and pocket*” (Welcome to Sheffield, 2016). In other words, the main focus was on emphasising the wide range of food on offer.

Figure 48. Food and drink section on the main page of Welcome to Sheffield (source: Welcome to Sheffield, 2016)



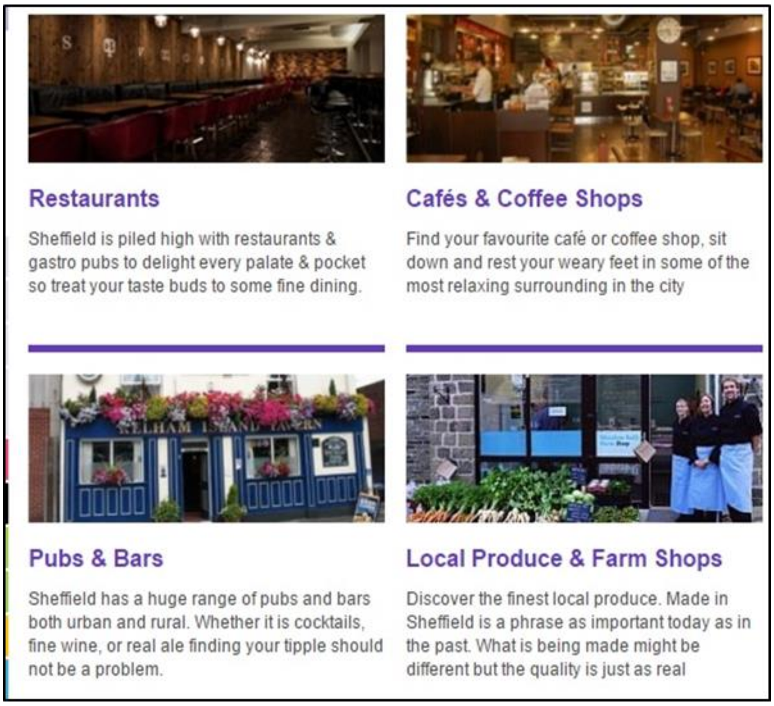
In addition, Sheffield was also described as a destination that suits not only individual tastes, but also budgets. This was demonstrated in the quotes below:

> *“Sheffield has a fantastic selection of independent restaurants, bars and cafes as well as familiar high street names”* (Welcome to Sheffield, 2016);
>
> *“Sheffield is piled high with restaurants & gastro pubs to delight every palate & pocket so treat your taste buds to some fine dining”* (Welcome to Sheffield, 2016);

> *"You'll find highly visible High Street names across the city, with independent and authentic cuisine being cooked in great little places that might need a little more searching out, but are well worth looking for"* (Welcome to Sheffield, 2016);
>
> *"Whatever you want to eat you can find it in Sheffield"* (Welcome to Sheffield, 2016);
>
> *"There is a great selection- independent restaurants using local produce, national chains you'll easily recognise or quick-stop coffee shops for a cheeky slice of freshly baked cake"* (Welcome to Sheffield, 2016).

The information provided on the DMO website was restricted to only four sections, namely: "restaurants", "cafes and coffee shops", "pubs and bars" and "local produce and farm shops", as demonstrated in Figure 49.

Figure 49. Main sections on the "Food and Drink" webpage (source: Welcome to Sheffield, 2016)



The "Restaurants" section emphasised a wide choice of international cuisines available in the city, such as: Chinese, Cuban, French, Indian, Italian, Japanese, Lebanese, Mediterranean, Mexican, modern British, modern European, Oriental, Thai and Turkish. The images in this section tended to show either the outside view of restaurants or inside view of empty restaurants, as it can be seen in Figures 50-52.

Figure 50. Outside views of restaurants (source: Welcome to Sheffield, 2016)

Figure 51. Photograph showing an empty restaurant (source: Welcome to Sheffield, 2016)

Figure 52. Photograph showing an empty restaurant (source: Welcome to Sheffield, 2016)

It was very surprising that social interactions were not shown. Even though the DMO website stated that Sheffield is a vibrant and lively city with a wide range of food products, images presented on the website did not support such statement and were rather generic and bland.

The only locally-distinctive feature of Sheffield's DMO website was a reference to the Made in Sheffield quality mark which is one of the world's brands, famous internationally as a mark of origin and quality of the city's manufactured products (Made in Sheffield, 2013). According to the DMO website *"The city is proud of its independent and authentic atmosphere, which is supported by the wonderful 'Made in Sheffield".* In particular, Sheffield's DMO website promoted three food products that hold this accreditation:

- Henderson's Relish: a part of Sheffield history for over 125 years and the iconic heritage food of Sheffield (Made in Sheffield, 2013);
- Moss Valley Fine Meats: family-run farm producing pork, hand-cured bacon, ham and hand-made sausages and burgers in their own butchery (Welcome to Sheffield, 2016);
- Our Cow Molly Dairy Ice Cream: working farm's own ice cream parlour and shop with indoor and outdoor seating and farm animals (Welcome to Sheffield, 2016).

Other local producers represented on the website included:

- the Sheffield Honey Company: an award-winning artisan producer of premium quality local English honey and the finest beeswax product;
- Mr Pickles' Yorkshire Food Emporium: food shop set up to make good food convenient, selling only good quality Yorkshire produce;
- Whirlow Hall Farm: a working farm selling a variety of meat, free range eggs, soft fruit and vegetables in season as well as a variety of local jams, chutneys, drinks (alcoholic and non-alcoholic) homemade cakes and artisan cheeses.

However, Sheffield's DMO website gave very limited and superficial information about local and regional foods available in the city. This was surprising, as food was, once again, mostly described as "fresh", "local" and "seasonal" (Figure 53).

Figure 53. A word cloud of food descriptors for Welcome to Sheffield (source: author)

To conclude, the content analysis revealed that even though food was mostly described as “fresh”, “local” and “seasonal”, Sheffield’s DMO website gave very limited and superficial information about local and regional foods available in the city. Instead, there was a strong emphasis on marketing a wide choice of international cuisines available in the city. Thus, the main focus appeared to be on emphasising the wide range of food on offer. Moreover, Sheffield was described as a destination that suits not only individual tastes, but also budgets.

In general, the information on food and food-related experiences was very limited and bland. The only locally-distinctive feature of Sheffield’s DMO website was a reference to the Made in Sheffield quality mark which is famous internationally as a mark of origin and quality of the city’s manufactured products. Overall, the quality and depth of information were not prepared to the same level of detail and quality as other destinations in this study. It was also very surprising that social interactions were not shown in the photographs. Even though the DMO website stated that Sheffield is a vibrant and lively city with a wide range of food products, images presented on the website did not support such statement. Perhaps the potential of food as a marketing element for Sheffield has yet to be fully developed.

4.3 Discussion and implications for interviews

Following the content analysis, as was the intention, the process of content analysis raised some interesting issues and questions to be further explored. Table 23 illustrates the key points that have emerged from the content analysis of DMO websites and which are going to be investigated further during the interviews.

First of all, the content analysis indicated that the most often used food descriptor was "local" which can suggest that the primary focus of DMOs food-related promotion is on marketing locally sourced food products. This is not surprising, as according to the literature, local food can help differentiate destinations by offering tourists unique and authentic experience (Du Rand and Heath, 2006). What is more, local food is fundamental to creating a sense of place and providing visitors with a unique and distinctive experience potentially not available elsewhere (Haven-Tang and Jones, 2005). However, this begs the rather more tricky questions of:

- What is "local"?
- Is "local" authentic?
- And what is "authentic"?

Despite a recent increase in the number of studies on local food and tourism, some basic tenets have not yet been established. In particular, there has been no precise definition for the term "local" food (Coit, 2008; Tovey, 2008). A number of previous studies on local food (such as for example: Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014, 2016; Boesen, Sundbo and Sundbo, 2017) do not even address this issue. For example, Sims (2009) argues that "local" food has the potential to enhance the visitor experience by connecting consumers to the region and its perceived culture and heritage. In particular, she argues that "local" food has the potential to play a central role within the sustainable tourism agenda. However, in the article, Sims (2009) does not explain what it is meant by "local" food. Instead, by referring to a number of previous studies she briefly acknowledges that there is the ambiguity around the concept of "local" food, however, the author does not engage in the discussion nor does she provide the definition of the term.

Table 23. Summary of the key findings from the content analysis and implications for interviews (source: author)

Website	Key findings	Implications for interviews and potential questions to ask
Welcome to Yorkshire	The emphasis was placed on regional and "local" products.	What is "local"?
	Apart from proclaiming that "*Yorkshire has some of the best food and drink*", the website also boasted of "*fantastic food producers in Yorkshire, who produce truly delicious food (Welcome to Yorkshire, 2016).*	
	A unique feature of Yorkshire's DMO website was that it featured a series of "Delicious Trails".	Food as a motive to explore?
	Particular emphasis was placed on celebrity chefs.	Celebrity endorsement?
	Wide range of food products and food-related experiences (farmer's markets, food festivals and cooking schools, "A Little Taste of Yorkshire" cookbook, Yorkshire Sausage)	Food as an experience?
Visit Peak District and Derbyshire	Marketing of a range of restaurants and places to eat rather than providing information on the type of food products and experiences available.	Marketing of DMO members rather than promoting the destination experience?
	The limited and chaotic information on food included descriptors such as "local", "fresh" and "delicious".	What is "local"?
	The Bakewell Pudding was only briefly mentioned on the DMO website.	Is food a secondary product receiving lower priority compared to other products?
	Food was not used as prominently as a theme in the destination marketing as it was in the case of other websites analysed in this study.	Could this be linked to: • financial constraints • marketing constraints • a "lack of knowledge regarding local and regional food"

		• poor communication between stakeholders?
Visit York	The opening statement stated that "*York is the foodie capital of the county*". Cultural history was combined with showcasing the foods unique and special to York (chocolate heritage). Focus on the "local" (local produce, "local foodie heroes" and local markets). Not surprisingly, food was mostly described as "local", "fresh" and "homemade". Use of food experts (celebrity chefs, local "food heroes" and academics) who featured extensively on the DMO website. Visit York's website also featured other international cuisines (Italian, Indian, Chinese, Contemporary European, French, Japanese, Spanish, Mexican, Thai, American, Brazilian and Turkish).	What is the value of food in tourism? Uniqueness and difference? Food heritage? What is "local"? Celebrity endorsement? Does this reflect the global character of contemporary tourism and the multicultural nature of cities? "The *marketing of everything approach*" as opposed to one based on uniqueness and difference? Could this lead to an increasing sameness and identikit urban destinations? Predictability? "Sanctuary" for tourists?
Welcome to Sheffield	Food was mostly described as "fresh", "local" and "seasonal", but very limited and superficial information about local and regional foods available in the city. The quality and depth of information were not prepared to the same level of detail and quality as other destinations in this study.	What is "local"? Perhaps the potential of food as a marketing element for Sheffield has yet to be fully developed?

	The DMO website stated that Sheffield is a vibrant and lively city with a wide range of food products, but images presented on the website did not support such statement. A strong emphasis on marketing a wide choice of international cuisines available in the city. Sheffield was described as a destination that suits not only individual tastes, but also budgets. "Made in Sheffield".	Could this be linked to: • financial constraints • marketing constraints • a "lack of knowledge regarding local and regional food" • poor communication between stakeholders? Does this reflect the global character of contemporary tourism and the multicultural nature of cities? "The *marketing of everything approach*" as opposed to one based on uniqueness and difference? Marketing to all audiences? Quality mark? Branding?

Even though some studies do define the “local”, the definitions seem to be basic and ambiguous. For example, Kim and Eves (2012) establish a 26-item scale to measure the factors motivating tourists to consume local foods in tourist destinations. However, despite their study adding to a growing body of literature on tourist consumption of local food at tourist destinations, Kim and Eves (2012) do not provide a comprehensive definition of “local” food. The authors briefly define local food as being produced in the local area (Kim and Eves, 2012, p.1461), however, their definition only adds to the confusion over what “local” is. This is alarming, as a good starting point to a discussion including local food in tourism and the marketing thereof would be to define the concept of “local”, yet it appears that some studies leave this to the interpretation, or confusion, of the reader.

Secondly, the content analysis indicated that not every destination investigated has fully and effectively utilised the potential of food as an element in their destination marketing. This was evident in the case of Welcome to Sheffield and Visit Peak District and Derbyshire. In analysing the reasons why food is not promoted as a key or supportive attraction, Du Rand, Heath and Alberts (2003, p. 108) conclude that there may be financial or marketing constraints or a “*lack of knowledge regarding local and regional food*”. One potential constraint in the adequate marketing of food in the tourism materials could be attributed to poor communication between stakeholders, resulting in a less than cohesive approach (Choi, Lehto and Morrison, 2007).

Another finding from the content analysis was the clear differences that were noted in the marketing of food in rural and urban destinations. In rural areas, there was a strong emphasis on locally sourced and unique ingredients reflecting the place. This could be linked to the concept of the “terroir” (an untranslatable French word that connotes the local spaces and soils). Terroir can be simply defined in environmental terms, however, the origins and significance of the phrase may be located within much wider philosophical, historical, social and cultural debates that define a particular destination (Tresidder, 2015). While Croce and Perri (2017) propose that the terroir is the combined effect of soil, topography, subsoil and climate, others propose that it also includes the customs and ceremonies of the people who produce local dishes (Hammer, 2011). As such, the concept of terroir can be seen in food products associated with a specific place and underpinned by a particular set of production and consumption practices that are directly informed by local traditions and then reinforced by institutions to shape the ways that taste comes to define a place and its people (Trubek, 2008).

In the context of the above, one could argue that marketing of food in rural destinations was shown as rooted in the environment and culture of a destination and reinforced by its local traditions. This could be seen as a counteracting process to an apparent erosion of food distinctiveness in the face of globalisation pressures (Everett, 2016). Food was clearly presented as being embedded in the landscape and local traditions and potentially in opposition or contrast to the dominant Fordist production regime (Fonte, 2002).

On the other hand, in urban destinations the abundance and global variety of food available were heavily promoted. To take this argument even further, the marketing of food in urban destinations can be seen to possibly reflect the global character of contemporary tourism and the multicultural nature of cities. Indeed, it has been claimed that patterns of migration have led to England becoming a more multicultural society which in turn has influenced its culture and cuisine (Panayi, 2008). Moreover, contemporary urban destinations are not only places of large scale movement and agglomeration of people, but other types of intersecting and coalescing flows also occur. In particular, the new mobilities paradigm (Sheller and Urry, 2006) considers flows of visitors, residents, workers, goods, capital, images and information. From this perspective, food in urban places can be seen as a medium reflecting encounters, intersections and "contaminations" among several mobility processes creating a global sense of place. Not surprisingly then, England appears "*to have reached a situation where "multicultural" food is the norm, reflecting contemporary society*" (Panayi, 2008).

While the new mobilities paradigm allows for an understanding of food practices in global cities, it can still be claimed that the marketing of food in urban destinations had some degree of predictability (Ritzer, 2013) evidenced in the wide choice of cuisines. Predictability is one of the key components of McDonaldisation (Ritzer, 2013) which highlights how the dominance of global franchised operators, such as McDonalds and Starbucks, can lead to predictability of products and services in destinations. Ritzer (2013) sees this as far-reaching homogenisation and considers McDonaldisation as being equivalent to previous broad shifts in production and consumption, such as Taylorism and Fordism.

Although the nature of customer service and experience in each place may be different, the choice of cuisines in urban areas incorporated some degree of predictability which could potentially lead to an increasing sameness and identikit destinations rather than delivering uniqueness and difference. However, one could argue that this predictability of food in urban destination marketing may offer tourists a sense of security. This is because when travelling and seeking food in unfamiliar environments, one often wants predictable forms of goods and services (Kellner, 1999). Predictability may seem dull and lead to increasing sameness, however as Ritzer (2008, p.97) said: "*it also provides a sanctuary for those feeling lost*".

Nevertheless, the central question of the role of food and its uniqueness in destination marketing still remains. It can be argued that while DMOs aim was to promote urban destinations as cosmopolitan, there was a tendency to market the same set of international cuisines alongside standardised marketing messages: every urban destination claimed to have something for every taste, budget and occasion etc. Could this be seen as a clear example of "*the marketing of everything approach*" (Heeley, 2015a), as opposed to one based on uniqueness and difference? This uniformity and standardisation are surprising given that, according to theoretical "best practice" (section 2.3.2), destination marketing is quintessentially a process of achieving a competitive superiority through marketing uniqueness and difference. This discontinuity suggests that there may be a possible gap between the theory and practice of destination marketing. This is because the assumption is made in the academic literature that just about every destination can identify and market unique assets achieving a point of difference against competitors, yet this does not appear to be a case in urban destinations in this study which tended to use the same set of marketing messages.

Lastly, according to the content analysis, Bradford (a city in Yorkshire) has been named England's curry capital five times in a row since 2012. This was an unexpected finding, as with its long industrial heritage, Bradford was once the wool capital of the world (Visit England, 2016). According to the literature, curry has now become partly stripped of its foreign aspects to become appropriated within newly reconfigured constructions of Bradford's and Yorkshire's heritage (Buettner, 2008). Thus, familiarised and localised, curry's popularity and growing economic presence in and around Bradford made it "*the positive side of the city's multiculturalism*" (Cope citied in Buettner, 2008, p.888). This then raises the following question: could Bradford's multicultural community have a major impact on the cultural life of the city which has been recognised and embraced in destination marketing?

To summarise, this section discussed the key points that have emerged from the content analysis of DMO websites. The findings of the qualitative content analysis displayed in Table 23 are potentially of value to future researchers, as they provide a clearer and better understanding of the use of food as an element in destination marketing.

4.4 Chapter conclusion

Chapter 4 presented the findings of the qualitative content analysis undertaken on five DMO websites. The findings of this chapter have contributed to a better understanding of how food is used in destination marketing and promotional strategies across selected destinations in Yorkshire.

The findings indicate that although all of the websites analysed do promote food, not every destination has fully and effectively utilised the potential of food as an element in their destination marketing. In particular, clear differences were noted in the marketing of food in rural and in urban destinations. In rural areas, food was shown as rooted in the environment and culture of a destination and reinforced by its local traditions while urban destinations had more of an international focus in the marketing of food and tended to promote similar standardised marketing messages. The findings also established that food was consistently promoted as "local", although the literature indicates the ambiguity and confusion over what counts as “local”. Thus, a range of implications and themes for the subsequent interviews emerged as a result of the content analysis.

The next chapter (Chapter 5) presents the findings from the semi-structured interviews with DMO executives and senior staff and industry experts.

Chapter 5: Interviews

5.1 Chapter introduction

This chapter focuses on the findings of the semi-structured interviews and aims to address the fourth research objective (RO4). Thus, this chapter aims to provide in-depth insight into the stakeholders' opinions regarding the use of food in destination marketing in the selected case study examples.

The structure of this chapter is as follows: firstly, the discussion focuses on the scope of destination marketing in practice. This includes the role/functions of DMOs and identification of the main challenges in destination marketing. Secondly, stakeholders' views and opinions on food, tourism and destination marketing are presented. Lastly, opportunities and challenges associated with the use of food in destination marketing are presented followed by the stakeholders' suggestions and recommendations regarding the development, organisation and marketing of food in selected destinations. The chapter finishes with a conclusion which summarises the findings of the semi-structured interviews.

5.2 Interview findings

As described in Chapter 3, the interviews were undertaken with two groups. They were:

- DMO executives and senior staff;
- Industry experts.

They were identified as being the main food and tourism stakeholders and their views were seen as essential to developing responses to the research objectives established in Chapter 1. As noted in Chapter 3, representatives from each group were interviewed in order to provide in-depth information regarding the situation as well as to assist the researcher in gaining crucial information regarding the practical aspects of the phenomenon under investigation. As a result of the data analysis process previously explained in section 3.6.3 of this thesis, the findings are presented in 10 sub-sections; each representing a different interview question.

5.2.1 What is the role/purpose of DMO?

As demonstrated in the literature review (section 2.3.1.3), many different terms have been used to describe the roles and functions of the DMO. These include: destination marketer, destination image developer, destination promotion coordinator and advocate, supporter and facilitator of tourism projects in the local community. However, as noted here, these definitions of the role and functions of DMOs are normative and descriptive and mainly based on the observations and interpretations of the researchers rather than supported or confirmed by empirical data. Thus, it was thought to be a timely question to ask DMO representatives the following question: “What is the role/purpose of a DMO”.

What is more, as explained earlier (section 2.3.1.3), there is also an ongoing debate regarding the recent trend by some academics and scholars to refer to DMOs as destination *management* organisations rather than *marketing* organisations (for example: Elbe et al., 2009; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015, Presenza et al., 2005; Sheehan and Ritchie, 2005), or as destination *marketing and management* organisations (for example: Gretzel et al., 2006; Morrison, 2013; Wang and Pizam, 2011). The issues highlighted here appear to be not simply ones of semantics, but also questions of the extent and remit of work undertaken by DMOs. For that reason, the author also asked DMO representatives to clarify whether they viewed their organisations as destination marketing or management organisations or both. The answers received were mixed and demonstrate that a range of different approaches are adopted across DMOs. More detailed presentation of the data analysis process is displayed in Appendix 7 and Appendix 8.

The general views concerning the purpose and role of a DMO focused on the recent shift from destination marketing to destination management. For example, when talking about recent restructure and shift from marketing to management P3 stated:

> *“DMOs have most recently been made partnership organisations between public and private sector. One of the difficulties is that private sector organisations do not have any statutory remit for managing a destination. Whereas the public sector has virtually all statutory remit for managing that, so roads, infrastructure,*

> *planning permissions, licensing and all things that help to make a destination work"* (P3).

The same participant further elaborated on the issue by stating that everything depends on a situation and who "*they are talking to*":

> *"It depends on who we are talking to; if we are sitting with our DMO peers we are very much that marketing organisation, but actually, because we are part of that public sector local authority (…) [which] actually has a quite strong position as a Destination Management Organisation. So, actually yes. This is quite confusing! <u>I would suggest to the outside world, that we are actually a destination marketing organisation</u>* [emphasis added by the author]" (P3).

Another participant from the same DMO stated that her organisation could be defined as both marketing and management:

> *"In terms of the management we undertake an element of that, we work with a lot of different stakeholders, organisations across the city and we work collaboratively with them, but working on behalf of the local authority, we are in a position, you could say that we take a role of managing those organisations together"* (P5).

Elsewhere, P2 stated that Visit York is part of Make it York which is York's Destination Management Organisation. Make it York has an overarching remit to market and manage the city and its surroundings – nationally and internationally – as an exciting place to live, study, visit and do business. P2 explained that in the past Visit York operated solely as a destination marketing organisation, as the main responsibility was to market and promote York in order to increase the number of visitors. However, the formation of Make It York in April 2015 created a city-wide initiative, "*hence management rather than just marketing*" (P2). However, the same participant stated that a DMO cannot claim to be solely a "management" organisation, because there are always issues such as transport, security or parking which a DMO cannot control.

Interestingly, another participant from the same organisation provided a similar answer:

"Well, personally I like it more as a marketing side, because that is what we are here to do. It is quite difficult, because originally we were York Tourism Bureau and then we became Visit York, and now we are part of Make it York, so it has gradually moved more towards destination's management. However, I would say that our primary role is to market the city for visitors, residents, students, businesses as a good place to study, work and live. I think it is more marketing, but I guess different people think differently" (P6).

Elsewhere, P1 stated that the role of DMOs is not just based on promoting and marketing tourism destinations but, more importantly, steering a destination's development:

"We are split into few different functions here. Our job as the destination management organisation is to promote Yorkshire. Originally, we were a tourist board (...), but increasingly it has become more about looking at the quality of life agenda and getting people to appreciate that it is not only a great place to come over on a holiday, but also it is a great place to stay, to live, to work. That is our main remit as an organisation" (P1).

When prompted to clarify her answer, the same participant stated:

"Hmmm management and marketing, as we do both really. We do not just do marketing, we are quite unique in terms of what we do as Welcome to Yorkshire. A lot of other DMOs just focus on the marketing side of things and we focus more on marketing and management, so we have things like Tour the Yorkshire which is large international race and our chair is organising the great exhibition of the North which is a massive 20milion pound government project, so it is all management – managing the brand of Yorkshire" (P1).

When asked the same question, P4 explained that her DMO can be defined as both marketing and management, because of the structure and functions of two different teams within the organisation: a marketing team and an industry support team:

"There are two sides to the team, we have a marketing campaigns team and we have our industry side of the team, so they are doing more visitor economy sector, business support services, and that is where the management comes from. They are there to provide business support and workshops that our

> *businesses might require, so we go out and seek funding to support those sorts of initiatives (…) so, we do develop sector specific business support workshops that they can attend. We get the funding for it, so they can attend for free. So we do not just do the marketing, we do that business support element as well"* (P4).

The last respondent stated, in a similar vein to previous participants, that there has been a lot of confusion regarding the role of DMOs as marketing and/or management organisations. In particular, she stated that her DMO can be seen as a mixture of both:

> *"We are a public sector organisation. My role is very managerial, because I manage the tourism and development, the marketing and visitor and information centre. So it is a mixture. Officially, it is marketing, but the thing is, with such big organisation, you have got that management structure, so yes, I think there has been a lot of confusion with that as well"* (P7).

As can be seen from the above comments, respondents did not provide clear and definite answers. This perhaps demonstrates not only the confusion and ambiguity over the basic functions of the DMOs, but also over the remit of their work. A similar dilemma can be noted in the literature, as many different terms have been adopted to describe the roles and functions of the DMOs, for example: destination marketer, destination image developer, destination promotion coordinator and advocate, supporter and facilitator of tourism projects in the local community (Gartrell, 1994; Presenza et al., 2005, Ritchie and Crouch, 2003). This range of different terms represents recent debate on the core functions of the DMO (Blumberg, 2005; Elbe et al., 2009; Ford and Peeper, 2007; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Morgan, 2012; Pechlaner et al., 2014). However, as noted earlier by the author, these discussions on the role and functions of DMOs are normative and descriptive and mainly based on the observations and interpretations of the researchers rather than supported or confirmed by empirical data (Wang, 2011).

Overall, according to interview participants, it appears that DMOs fulfil several roles and functions including: destination marketing and brand management, industry and business support, income generation, stakeholder management as well as operating as an interface between public sector tourism initiatives and private sector businesses. Thus, these findings confirm those observed in earlier studies. In particular, four key categories of the role and purpose of DMOs can be identified:

- Destination image and brand development;
- Destination and community marketing/promotion;
- Destination management;
- Economic driver.

Although broad in scope, each category consists of multiple sub-categories (as displayed in Appendix 7 and Appendix 8 and reflects participants' perceptions and experiences regarding each DMOs scope and remit. These categories are similar to those of Morrison, Bruen and Anderson (1997) who identified five primary DMO roles:

- An economic driver: generating new income, employment, and taxes contributing to a more diversified local economy;
- A community marketer: communicating the most appropriate destination image, attractions, and facilities to selected visitor markets;
- An industry coordinator: providing a clear focus and encouraging less industry fragmentation so as to share in the growing benefits of tourism;
- A quasi-public representative: adding legitimacy for the industry and protection to individual and group visitors;
- A builder of community pride: enhancing the quality of life.

However, while a range of different roles and purposes of DMOs have been identified, the findings of this study indicate a range of different views regarding the meaning of the "M" in DMO. On the one hand, participants indicated that the core function of a DMO is marketing rather than management. This finding is in line with the previous studies (for example: Dore and Crouch, 2003; Pike and Page, 2014) emphasising that the core mandate of a DMO is to promote visitation in their destination. On the other hand, however, DMO representatives also indicated that, in addition to marketing, DMOs are increasingly required to act as industry coordinators and manage the destination stakeholders. Interestingly, a number of DMO representatives stated that DMOs are required to market and manage destinations not only as places to visit, but also as places to live, study and do business. This finding corroborates other studies advocating the transition of the “M” in DMO to refer to “management” (for example: Blumber, 2005; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015) or “marketing and management” rather than just “marketing” (Wang and Pizam, 2011). In particular, these studies claim that over the past years, DMOs have undergone a number of transformations, and from typically marketing organisations, they have been transformed into entities with a more comprehensive remit in the sphere of tourism management (Presenza et al., 2005). In particular, Elbe et al. (2009) state that the DMO has to be skilful in building and maintaining relationships with stakeholders in order to fulfil its tasks, hence management rather than just marketing.

However, what is surprising, is that although participants acknowledged the shift from marketing to management, they also admitted that DMOs cannot claim to be solely management organisations, because there are always issues such as transport, security or parking over which a DMO has no control. Similar points have been noted in the tourism literature and were highlighted earlier (section 2.3.1.3). On this side of the debate, the common perception is that DMOs simply have insufficient control over their mandate or resources to effectively manage destinations (Howie, 2003; Line and Runyan, 2014; Page and Hall, 2003; Pike and Page, 2014). This means that DMOs are very limited in terms of what they can undertake and achieve in a destination and, ultimately, the DMOs role is confined to marketing with “*their hands tied behind their backs*” (Wang and Pizam, 2011, p.x).

Moreover, while in both theory and practice it appears that DMOs work remit is changing, the DMO – as a tool and vehicle to organise and progress tourism interests – is not without its problems. It can be argued that DMOs, therefore, face a double challenge. As indicated in this study, they are required to respond to the rising expectations and manage a much wider work agenda while facing numerous pressures. One of those key issues was related to the funding regimes. For example, P4 stated: “*The biggest challenge is the funding landscape and how we have to work more cleverly to make the money go further”* (P4).

The discussion above considers DMOs evolution from marketing to management organisations and presents a highly diverse and complex story, one that appears to be in a constant flux, which supports the view of Gretzel et al. (2006) who claim that the role of the DMO is constantly evolving. This debate possibly demonstrates not only the confusion and ambiguity over the basic functions of the DMOs, but also possibly indicates a broader remit of DMOs work than just the visitor economy. Thus, it appears that, in both practice and in theory, this debate remains unresolved.

5.2.2 What are the main challenges in destination marketing?

According to the literature review in section 2.3.3 of this thesis, destination marketers are likely to face considerable challenges in the future. Indeed, the semi-structured interviews produced a range of responses. More detailed data analysis process is displayed in Appendix 9 and Appendix 10.

When asked about the main challenges in destination marketing, all DMO representatives stated that the lack of funding is the main issue. For example, P4 stated:

> *"The main challenge is finding the funding to do what we want to do. We are having to become more commercial, so our work side has to become more commercial. We are having to find more advertising income, more membership paying income, so our commercial manager is working far harder"* (P4).

P4 continued:

> *"When we were first set up as Regional Development Agencies, they had tourism department that had a pot of money that could be distributed amongst the partners. That money was spent by us to go out and do what we wanted, but now we have got to find that money from other areas, so I guess that the biggest challenge is the funding landscape and how we have to work more cleverly to make the money go further"* (P4).

The same participant explained that her organisation relies heavily on public sector subsidies as well as on a private sector money. Both income streams create "*the DMO's marketing pot*". However,

> *"That pot is diminishing, because the public sector money is diminishing, so we have to work more creatively and do more for our money. We are working harder than perhaps we are used to"* (P4).

In particular, P4 outlined how the lack of funding affects staff resources:

> *"We used to be a team of 17, we are now a team of 10. So that gives you an idea of just how our core pot has reduced, so we can't pay the amount of salaries we have paid before. We are all working harder"* (P4).

Elsewhere, when asked about the main challenges in destination marketing P5 provided a similar answer:

> *"Budget! Certainly, we are part of the local authority (…) we work purely on co-funding. We used to have more substantial amount from central government which is then filtered out to the local authority and local authority assigns us a budget each year, but given the recession and ever since then our local authority's budget has shrunk and shrunk and shrunk. So now we are in a position where we are trying to source other streams of funding"* (P5).

She then stated that not having a core budget is difficult and most DMOs in England are facing this issue at the present:

> *"Budget for us is the biggest challenge. For what I believe a lot of DMOs in the country are struggling at the moment and with recent developments politically, we are not sure how that landscape is going to affect organisations and the jobs within the sector"* (P5).

P5 also said that lack of stable funding could push some DMOs to try to adopt a different business model or cease the business altogether:

> *"In certain way not having a core budget that is secure on the rolling basis is a major challenge for us at the moment and it is a trend, I think, nationwide that you have seen a lot of those destinations' DMO organisations shrink, or have to change the way they deliver (…) It is an interesting time for DMOs, because some of them die out because of this sort of economic effect. It is a little bit sad, because some of them may not be here in years to come"* (P5).

Similarly, P6 stated that due to the lack of public funding, her DMO now has to rely heavily on a private sector funding, because "*the level of investment is not there*":

> *"For us, as an industry, you can't rely on council funding, you have got to get your own private sector funding and that is why we are quite different. We have 700 members, although we are council owned, we are also a private sector organisation. Our 700 private sector businesses, they all pay membership and they pay to be in advertising etc. We are always looking at the ways to sustain us as a body, because the level of investment is not there"* (P6).

Another participant (P1) repeated comments made by previous respondents:

> *"Well, I think that something that always is a challenge- funding. So looking at different funding streams. It was quite easy up until 2012, but we have to become much leaner in terms of our operations. Our workforce was probably reduced by 25% and we had to look for different funding streams and different initiatives"* (P1).

As illustrated in the above section, the lack of funding was mentioned by all DMO representatives as the key challenge in destination marketing. The DMO representatives were unanimous in their opinion that the lack of funding is the main issue which affects their ability to deliver. This particular issue was also discussed in a seminar organised in 2016 by the Tourism Society and Edinburgh Napier University. The session was entitled "*Destination Organisations: Fit for Purpose and Ready for what the Future Holds?*". The delegates concluded that the current set up of short term, project-based funding means that many DMOs have insufficient staff resources, and their staff are spending an increasing proportion of their time chasing funding rather than delivering. Thus, this means that the current situation, reliant on short term project-based funding, is not sustainable. The delegates felt that without an element of core funding, DMO staff spend too much time chasing other sources of future funding which means they do not have enough time to spend on projects, even less to support stakeholders or local businesses.

In addition, the competition was also mentioned as one of the key issues. For example, P2 stated that although tourism is one of York's most successful and important industries, "*the competition is fierce and there is no room for complacency*". In particular, P2 pointed out competition from emerging destinations such as for example market towns which explore and market their own heritage – Malton. Similarly, P6 repeated comments made by the previous participant:

> *"Our main challenge is to sustain the visitors' numbers (…) we do want to grow the lengths of the stay and the spend to make sure that we are up there. There is so much voice in the marketing world and so much competition and to make sure that our brand is very strong"* (P6).

In a similar vein, P3 stated:

> *"Biggest challenge to the domestic market is that we are competing and destinations are investing all the time. It is about profile raising as much as anything else. Reasons for visiting and people's lifestyles change- all influence which destination might be more successful at any given time"* (P3).

Interestingly, the same participant also pointed out that competition arises not only from other destinations, but also from other priorities within the city:

> *"Our biggest competitor is the fact that tourism and destination marketing are not a high priority in the city. Business investment and business growth is very high priority, however they are intrinsically linked (...) <u>our competitors are not necessarily other destinations, its other priorities in the city [</u>emphasis added by the author]"* (P3).

In addition to the lack of funding and increasing competition, DMO representatives stated that the recent vote to leave the European Union is also one of the current challenges. For example, P3 said:

> *"The single biggest challenge I think now is the UK coming out of the EU. The whole Brexit thing which has left so much uncertainty. In the international market obviously looking at European markets, the value of the pound, the perception that European visitors are not welcomed here. All the things that we are seeing in the news are actually, it appears to be starting to influence the whole decision-making process"* (P3).

DMO representatives referred to Brexit as "*the elephant in the room*" (P2). They expressed their concerns that Brexit could lead to negative perceptions of England as a xenophobic place where tourists are not welcomed. This was also echoed by one of the industry experts who considered the impact of Brexit on agricultural policy:

> *"We are very lucky in this country, we have got great history, great culture, great heritage, great landscape, and our farming industry is still quite buoyant even though it does struggle. It would be interesting to see what happens with the changes of Brexit if things as agricultural policy are going to change"* (P14).

Focussing specifically on the industry experts, most of them indicated the lack of faith in DMOs, as according to them, DMOs "*talk a lot and do not do anything*" while charging "*ridiculous amounts for their membership*" (P15). For example, P16, P17 and P18 admitted that they used to be part of the regional DMO, however, their resturant had to cease partnership with Welcome to Yorkshire due to the high costs and lack of guaranteed results, as explained by P16 below:

> *"We were part of Welcome to Yorkshire, but they charge ridiculous amount (…) you spend a lot of money on something that is not a guaranteed result. The money that you have to spend on that could be spent better"* (P16).

Another participant, when asked if he was familiar with the work of the local DMO, stated that in his opinion DMOs plan short-term and are "*more interested in chasing funding rather than delivering*" (P8). Moreover, he questioned the effectiveness of DMOs and the value for money, as he was not sure "*how many people use official tourism websites when going away on holiday to book or looking for information about different places*" (P8). The full interview quote is presented below:

> *"In terms of DMOs everything is changing. Local tourism organisations, again, they have financial difficulties, and only plan short term which is not viable. <u>DMOs are more interested in chasing funding rather than delivering</u> [emphasis added by the author]. This short-term thinking is not what we as a small business are looking for. We do not want to pay a substantial amount of money just for our name to be put on their website. So, the difficulty is that they have to find an income stream and I am not sure how many people use official tourism websites when going away on holiday to book or looking for information about different places"* (P8).

Elsewhere, another participant expressed her reservations towards DMOs as potentially biased towards the members, as illustrated in the comment below:

> *"I quite initiate (sic) it [marketing of food in tourism] with Welcome to Yorkshire, because it is a membership organisation. But because only people who join this organisation, they get promoted. So you can look at their website and it looks as if these are the best places to eat or the best places to buy food. But this is excluding the whole of people who do not join them and I can see that is the problem. But as the tourist organisation they are not, in my view, representing tourism in Yorkshire, they are representing their members"* (P15).

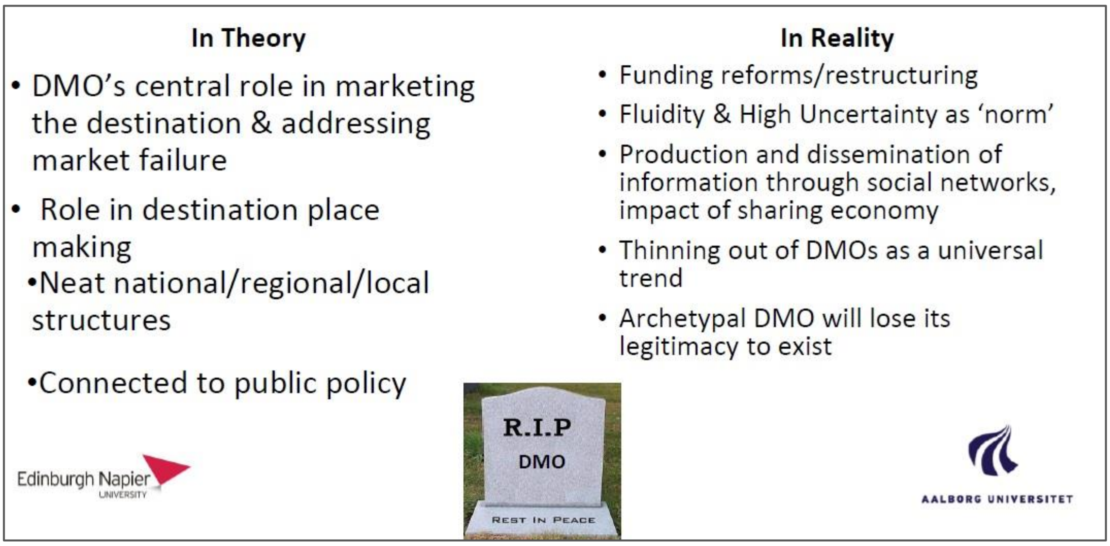
In addition to the issues above, participants in the present study drew attention to the way in which social media is challenging traditional destination marketing practices. They indicated that it is becoming more and more difficult to manage and control their marketing and branding efforts in a digital world. This is, again, in alignment with Gretzel et al. (2006, p.118) who found that for DMOs the challenge of technology:

> *"lies in constantly learning the latest things and searching for the newest technologies that 'supposedly' make the job of destination marketing easier".*

Similar issues were reported by Munar (2011, 2012) confirming the challenging nature of social media. In particular, Munar (2011) states that the traditional destination marketing structures combined with the lack of a social media knowledge base result in ad-hoc approaches to social media strategy being applied by DMOs. Interestingly, the present study also indicated that a number of interview participants viewed online accommodation providers such as Airbnb and booking.com as competitors to their marketing activities. This finding supports the ideas of Dredge (2016) who states that peer-to-peer exchange of tourist goods and services, which is undertaken through digital platforms, is challenging the traditional income streams of DMOs (such as: booking fees and bed taxes). What is more, this situation is potentially making visitor information services redundant due to the growth in the availability of digital technology as an alternative way to obtain information for visitors rather than using services provided by DMOs.

At this point in the discussion, the following question emerges: are DMOs fit for purpose or are they on the path to redundancy? This question aligns with the recent propositions by some academics and practitioners expressing doubts over the future of DMOs. For example, in the previously mentioned seminar entitled "*Destination Organisations: Fit for Purpose and Ready for what the Future Holds?*", the questions were asked whether DMOs are still relevant and "fit for purpose" or if they are undergoing a transformation and transition to new forms of stakeholder relationships, roles and remits. In particular, the differences between the theory and practice were considered, as demonstrated in Figure 54.

Figure 54. Issues discussed during the seminar "Destination Organisations: Fit for Purpose and Ready for what the Future Holds?" (source: author's personal correspondence)



As demonstrated in Figure 54, the delegates discussed at length the numerous pressures that DMOs face, including the need to reconsider their business focus, governance arrangements, set up, funding sources and efficiency. The session concluded that, although in theory, DMOs have neat roles and structures and are connected to public policy, in future only the fittest DMOs will survive. What was clear during the session, was the agreement among delegates that there is no "one size fits all solution" and thus there will be a variety of different DMO models based more on local needs or industry characteristics.

In a similar vein, as explained earlier (section 2.3.3), a number of scholars have started to question whether DMOs are on the path to redundancy. Dredge (2016) in particular, supports this notion and argues that this situation requires academics and practitioners to engage more deeply in the broader shifts taking place in society in order to reconsider the organisation of not only DMOs, but also the tourism industry more generally. What is more, Dredge is very dismissive regarding the new developments in the destination marketing literature (section 2.3.2.3) based on more encompassing notions of social responsibility, culture, stewardship and sustainability (for example: Morgan, 2012; Morgan and Pritchard; 2014; Morrison, 2013; Pike, 2016). She simply states that these literature developments "*are misplaced because they fail to acknowledge the traditional industrial ontology underpinning such organisations and assume that DMOs can readily realign their values*" (Dredge, 2016, p.348). In other words, Dredge (2016) argues that DMOs operate based on a corporate culture and rigid managerial structure which can prove incompatible with accommodating wider and more encompassing agendas.

Furthermore, by adopting a broader sociological lens, Dredge (2016) states that in the face of liquid modernity[9] (Bauman, 2000), DMOs will become increasingly obsolete. This is because the DMO's approach has always been based on the notion that tourism is a place-bound industry comprising of transport, attractions, services, accommodation and experiences (Dredge, 2016). Consequently, DMOs have always been place-based organisations. However, the challenges of increasing mobility and fluidity of people, resources, labour and capital lead to "*the spatial restructuring of destinations and a fluidity of relationships across scales*" (Dredge, 2016, p.352). Thus, the solid and rigid organisation of DMOs is increasingly under pressure. Dredge (2016) also notes that not only are DMOs changing, but the structure of the tourism industry is also evolving. Dredge (2016, p.352) also notes that "*classifications such as tourist and resident, home and away, origin and destination are increasingly blurred*". She concludes her discussion stating that DMOs are on the path to redundancy and:

> *"given the magnitude of change occurring (…) it is incumbent upon academics and practitioners to engage more deeply in the broader structural and political shifts taking place in society in*

[9] A condition wherein the traditional order of people, objects and things is broken down. Instead, boundaries become blurred, and people, objects and ideas move more freely to continuously deconstruct and reconstruct new orders (Bauman, 2000).

> *order to rethink the organisation of tourism"* (Dredge, 2016, p.352).

Munar (2016), in her reply to Dredge (2016), states that DMOs roles and tasks have always been polemic and fluid, because they do not act on the interests of the tourism industry alone, but they also respond according to changing political circumstances. What is more, Munar (2016) states that the DMOs often encounter challenges in development, policy and marketing activities including issues around community involvement and creating unique and attractive brands in an increasingly competitive environment, to the issues of digital marketing and social media. In a similar vein to Dredge (2016), Munar (2016) acknowledges that DMOs are further challenged by the mobile and fluid nature of capital, people, information and the interconnectedness of the spatiotemporal dimensions of tourism. However, unlike Dredge (2016) who claims that DMOs are on the path to redundancy, Munar (2016, p.356) states that "*despite these changes or maybe because of them, (…) we will see a high survival rate among existing DMOs and the establishment of new ones in emerging destinations"*. Thus, she concludes that DMOs are simply "*surviving metamorphosis*" which she explains as a concept often used to visualise the social ability to evolve from one form of organisation (or organism) into another.

Hall and Veer (2016), in their response to Dredge (2016), state that DMOs are undoubtedly a significant component of the tourism system. However, they continue, stating that DMOs provide "*a potentially redundant artefact of the organisation of tourism*" (Hall and Veer, 2016, p.354) which then they use to discuss both the future and the past of tourism, including the embeddedness of tourism and its study within the context of political and structural shifts in contemporary society. They acknowledge, in a similar vein to Dredge (2016) that DMOs have come to be seen as integral to destination growth, usually defined in terms of the number of visitor arrivals and their expenditure. Thus, according to them, most literature fails to recognise a range of large scale, transcendental social, political and economic changes. However, in a similar vein to Munar (2016), Hall and Veer (2016) recognise that DMOs have been in existence, though sometimes in different forms but with a clear organisational lineage, for 40-50 years and longer. During that time many changes have taken places with respect to tourism, however, DMOs have survived. Thus, they state very bluntly, that if DMOs are:

> *"perceived as continuing to attract tourists they will be regarded as serving a useful role by industry interests as well as other stakeholders. This also includes with respect to the attraction of public funds for tourism promotional and other campaigns that would otherwise not be obtainable to support industry"* (Hall and Veer, 2016, p.355).

In short, they state that as long as DMOs "*continue to 'do something' and visitor arrivals increase then they are likely to survive"* (Hall and Veer, 2016, p.356). In conclusion, they counter Dredge (2016) by stating that the majority of DMOs are not on the path to redundancy in the foreseeable future, as long as they continue to adapt and change to political and commercial perceptions and circumstances. Hall and Veer (2016, p.356) state, in a similar vein to Munar (2016) that DMOs, like many other tourism organisations, already are examples of "*fluid organisational forms as they have come to adapt to changing circumstances while still maintaining a commitment to visitor/economic growth*".

It is important to note, that although Hall and Veer (2016) and Munar (2016) both consider DMOs as "*fluid organisational forms*" in the process of "*metamorphosis*", this fluidity may be problematic for destination marketing activities undertaken within the confines of a DMO framework based on geographical boundaries. This is because, as noted by Dredge (2016), DMOs are static and territorially fixed vehicles to organise tourism. This means that they operate based on administrative and geographical boundaries. However, to add more to this discussion, a question of – what is a "destination"? – has to be revisited. As explained earlier (section 2.3.1.2) a growing body of literature proposes that a "destination" is a dynamic and fluid concept. In particular, the concept of "variable geometry" (Beritelli, Bieger and Laesser's, 2014) proposes a dynamic view of destinations according to which destinations, in the same way as aircraft wings, adapt to the changing conditions. Thus, in theory, a destination is seen as a flexible place comprised of different supply networks and delineated by various tourist movements. However, as pointed out earlier (section 2.3.1.2), in practice it appears that this can be problematic for destination marketers who operate on the basis of administrative boundaries that very often limit an accurate conceptualisation of the destination (Jenkins et al., 2011).

The discussion above suggests that DMOs are subject to a range of problems in terms of their operations. In particular, there is a range of more complex challenges as tourism continues to move towards a more liquid form characterised by increased mobilities and the increasing uptake of social media. The question of whether the DMO, as a static and territorially fixed tool to organise tourism, is on a path to redundancy has never been more pertinent. In a general public agency setting Boin, Kuipers, and Steenbergen (2010) observed that with respect to organisational survival, there are no magic solutions that will guarantee organisational survival. What is more, they reported that "*the name of the game is not design for survival but design for adaptation*" (Boin et al., 2010, p. 404). It appears then that the notion of change that DMOs need to adopt "*is one of being both rapid and abrupt*" (Gretzel et al., 2006, p.125). Consequently, "*whether DMOs decide to adapt to or shape the future, these decisions need to be informed and require proactive approaches as well as commitment to learning and change* (Gretzel et al., 2006, p.126).

5.2.3 How important is food in destination marketing?

In order to ascertain the status of food, all interview participants were asked about the current role of food in destination marketing. More detailed data analysis process illustrating the range of responses to this particular interview question is displayed in Appendix 11 and Appendix 12.

All respondents agreed unanimously that food is vital in destination marketing, because even when outside the usual environment tourists need to eat, as food is vital for physiological needs and fundamental to survival, as evident in the following statements:

> *"Food sits alongside landscape, cultural landscape, food is the fuel of life"* (P9);
>
> *"Food is the fundamental part of the York experience. Even if tourists do not come here solely for food, they still have to eat"* (P2);

> *"I think food is very important because whether you are going away for a week or just for a weekend you will want something to eat (…) It [food] is just an integral part of the offer really. It goes without saying that you automatically tie it in with everything, because people are going to want to have food when they are here"* (P7);

> *"I love it, it is brilliant, because everyone needs to eat and drink and I think for me, this is one of the reasons behind our campaign, because we have got so many local specialties ranging from Yorkshire Pudding to Yorkshire tea, chocolate, beer; it is kind of integral to what people do when they visit"* (P6);

Moreover, participants stated that food plays an essential role in destination marketing, as it is an integral part of the overall tourist experience. For example, P4 stated:

> *"I think food is very significant, because whenever you go you think about where you are going to sleep, you think about getting around and your traveling and your attractions and experience there and food is very much part of that"* (P4).

The comment above was echoed in other responses which are displayed in Table 24.

Table 24. Interview quotes supporting the view that food plays important role in destination marketing (source: author)

	Interview quote
P1	*"Everyone needs to eat and drink and I think for me, this is one of the reasons behind our campaign, because we have got so many local specialties ranging from Yorkshire Pudding to Yorkshire tea, chocolate, beer, it is kind of integral to what people do when they visit."*
P9	*"Food is vital [in destination marketing] because I think it is such an important tool to attract people to experience what it is about Yorkshire. People come to Yorkshire for the scenery, they come for the people, but they do come for the food and we got so many different aspects of food to offer here."*
P19	*"It [food] is part of the being away experience, isn't it?"*
P15	*"First of all, when you go on holiday, you want to eat out, so you want somewhere nice to stay and something nice to eat. So restaurants are really important."*
P5	*"I think it [food] is very significant, because whenever you go you think about where you are going to sleep, you think about getting around and your traveling and your attractions and experience there and food is very much part of that."*
P3	*"There is a strong argument suggesting that food is part of the whole visitor experience in a destination."*
P16	*"I think it [food in destination marketing] is essential, if people come to a city or a county to visit then they are going to eat and drink, so I think it's a big part of the experience. They might not come here in particular [for food], but once they are in Sheffield then they have to eat and drink somewhere, so I think it plays a big part."*

Additionally, numerous DMO representatives (P1, P2, P4, P6 and P7) stated that food acts as a “hook” in destination marketing. Participants explained that food is used as a hook in order to stimulate interest in a destination and entice prospective tourists to visit. For example, P1 said that food is used as a “hook”, as it is one of the ten key marketing themes in destination marketing, “*however, even though it is a theme on its own, it also underpins everything else that we do in terms of visitor experience. So, it is vital”* (P1).

Moreover, when discussing the role of food in Yorkshire’s destination marketing, P1 stated that Welcome to Yorkshire has put together a set of “Delicious Trails” for tourists to follow across Yorkshire covering everything from where to find a decent pint to where to buy some Yorkshire cheese. Thus, tourists are able to follow the maps and explore Yorkshire’s food and drink offer. Welcome to Yorkshire also has the Tour de Yorkshire Cuisine – a map of the top food hotspots along the Tour de Yorkshire cycle route – which, according to P1, highlights the increasing importance of food in Yorkshire’s destination marketing.

According to interview participants, food is gaining more importance in destination marketing, as it becomes a tool to increase tourism spending and thus was seen as a lucrative or, as McKercher et al. (2008, p.137) would say, “*a viable market*”. For example, both representatives from York’s DMO stated that food is indeed very important in destination marketing, as everyone has to eat. However, at the same time, it is a valuable market segment. P2 and P6 both stated that in York food and drink is the number one area of spending, followed closely by shopping; in 2014 leisure visitors spent £135m on food and drink and £130m on shopping, up from £120m and £107m reported in 2013.

Unfortunately, other DMO representatives were unable to provide exact figures of the value of food in tourism. However, P3 and P5 both indicated that food is gaining more importance in terms of destination marketing in Sheffield City tourism. During the interview P3 stated:

> *“Yesterday I have looked at some of the analytics of our website. We have seen a 73% rise in first 6 months of this year compared to last year in people who are viewing the food and drink pages on the website, so it is clearly becoming more important and popular”* (P3).

In a similar vein, P5 added:

> *"So, for us, it [food] is a significant thing and if we look at the analytics of our website the food and drink page is one of the highest visited pages on there in terms of search. So, from taking that intelligence, we can only sort of look at that and think that food is significant. The traffic and the people that are visiting the site, then that needs to be a major focal point for us to promote the city, so we are undergoing some work to re-develop our website at the moment, so food and drink will have a much bigger presence when we undertake that work"* (P5).

While other DMO representatives indicated that there is still no systematic analysis of the economic impact of food in the context of tourism, they all considered that the value of food as a component of tourism revenue in destinations is very significant and growing, at around 30%, and that destinations have a potential to capitalise on this trend. This finding is consistent with previous studies (such as: Chaney and Ryan, 2012; Du Rand et al., 2003; McKercher et al., 2008; Nield et al., 2000; Sparks et al., 2003) and suggests that food is an important area of tourism spend which is crucial for DMOs facing the challenge of managing their already small budgets and simultaneously protecting their funds from even further government erosion justified by other local priorities, as explained earlier (section 2.3.3). This finding is also particularly important for destinations with high numbers of day visitors. For example, one of the participants stated: "*sometimes the only spend that they [tourists] do when they come is on food and drink, so it is a good way to engage with people"* (P6).

However, this study also found that food is much more than sustenance or a source of economic advantage. Participants believed that food "*tells the story about a place"* (P1), "[*food] is heart and soul of the destination"* (P4) and *"food also helps to distinguish a personality of a destination as well"* (P4). It can be argued that food, therefore, was perceived as a cultural facet which supports previous studies which view food as a window onto and representation of another culture (Brulotte and Di Giovine, 2014; Mintz, 1996). In addition, these findings agree with earlier observations (section 2.2.2), which showed that a growing number of tourism researchers (such as: Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014, 2016; Hall and Mitchell, 2001; Hjalager and Richards, 2002; Horng and Tsai, 2012a, 2012b; Kalenjuk et al., 2015; Richards, 2001) have argued that food is a key part of all cultures, a major element of cultural heritage and an increasingly important cultural attraction for tourists.

Interestingly, some participants stated that food is something that connects people and brings people together. Thus, food could be linked to the higher order needs which accords with findings reported by Tikkanen (2007) who evaluated food-related tourism through the lens of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. He suggested that food-related tourism can fulfil not only the basic psychological and safety needs, but also social needs which relate to experiences where food is part of the social mix. Tikkanen (2007) also claimed that esteem needs become fulfilled in food-related tourism by visitor's experiences when they become familiar with new tastes in the new cultures' culinary offerings, while self-actualising needs can be realised in the form of trade fairs and conferences that increase the visitor's knowledge and competences related to food and which then heightens his or her self-respect and can act as means of distinction.

In summary, interview participants stated that food plays a very important role in destination marketing, because it is essential to human survival and also because it is an important means of generating and increasing tourist spend.

5.2.4 What are the trends driving food in destination marketing?

As illustrated in the previous section, all participants agreed that food plays an important role in destination marketing. Because of that, the researcher asked interview participants the following question: "Why is food becoming important in destination marketing?". A more detailed data analysis process illustrating the range of responses to this particular interview question is displayed in Appendix 13 and Appendix 14.

The socio-cultural changes were identified as one of the major factors contributing to the increase in food-based destination marketing strategies. This includes not only socio-demographic changes, but also changes in eating and cooking habits, increasing mobility, demand factors and the influence of the media. For example, according to P19 "*young professionals and even younger people than that are interested in food (...) they are not high-fliers, they are just people from all walks of life and all backgrounds who are interested in food*". This could relate to recent changes in eating and cooking habits, as pointed out by another participant:

> *"People like us [younger generation] generally love a bit of sushi and it is becoming so common now everywhere you look there are different cuisines and people are getting bored of eating the same things. So they [younger generation] like to go out and have curry one night and Chinese the other night"* (P16).

The above quote is closely related to the issue of mobility, as all participants stated that travelling has made a real difference and there is more emphasis on trying new things. In addition, interview participants stated that, in general, the knowledge of food has improved due to the influence of media. Table 25 presents the supporting interview comments.

Table 25. Interview comments regarding mobility and the influence of media (source: author)

	Interview quote
P19	*"I think because people are traveling more and they are experiencing other cultures (…) because everyone has the opportunity to travel and there is a lot of emphasis on trying new things and because people have experienced those things elsewhere they want them here, so there is a big need to import which is feasible and we can have strawberries all year round. There is not a reason not to have something on a shelf in the supermarket now and people are used to that."*
P14	*"I think there is a bit more knowledge, because most people have read magazines and watch things on television so I think that when they do go on holiday now I think people will actively, not everybody, but there is a proportion of population who will actively seek out a good place to eat while they are there."*
P15	*"I think so many people enjoy food, because they have watched it on the television. And [she pauses] they [she pauses again] well, I was going to say that they cook, but a lot of people don't cook. They are sort of mad enthusiasts who cook and who want to eat out and get quite obsessed with restaurants, even more obsessed than me who does it for a job. They photograph their food and start blogs and sometimes you think 'It is only food, you know, calm down'".*
P13	*"In Britain, I think we have started with TV and food shows and now it's more beyond TV. Food festivals! We have got one hundred food festivals in Britain, and 10 years there was probably just Ludlow, Abergavenny and now there is one every weekend and everywhere."*

Furthermore, interview participants indicated that the Internet and social media, in particular, are responsible for the growing interest in food experiences. For example, P19 stated that because of the Internet people can research in advance places to eat as well as food experiences available, before embarking on their trip. At the same time, P5 noted that: *"if we look at things like Instagram, some of the most popular content on there is completely about food".*

In addition to socio-cultural changes and the influence of the ICTs, participants indicated that experience economy also acts as one of the main drivers for food in destination marketing. Desire for uniqueness and difference were frequently mentioned, as the main factors which are important for tourists. For example, P9 stated: "*What people really like is the feeling that they are getting something unique*". Moreover, active participation, co-creation and educational aspects of food experiences were also noted. For example, P14 simply stated that: "*People like to get involved and do things*". In particular, the same participant gave an example of cooking schools providing not only a unique experience, but also active participation and learning experience. Similarly, P9 outlined the importance of food stories: *"they [tourists] like learning the stories about people who aren't open to the public. It is about being nosy if you like".*

Indeed, it is increasingly acknowledged that the focus of many tourists has changed from the classic "must see" physical sights such as museums, landscapes or monuments, towards a "must experience" desire to consume intangible expressions of a destination (Richards, 2012). This means that superior products or services are no longer enough for differentiating destinations and hence experiences can act as a further form of differentiation (Pine and Gilmore, 1999). As such, consumers seek out unique experiences, because a consistent and high level of a product of service quality is seen as a necessary pre-requisite in the purchase decision-making process and can no longer be used as a means to differentiate (Oh, Fiore, Jeoung, 2007).

In the context of above, Pine and Gilmore (1999) emphasise that experiences are intrinsically sensory. As such, what a tourist can see, hear, touch, smell and taste helps in the shaping of impressions and consequently of experiences. As they say: "*The more effectively an experience engages the senses, the more memorable it will be*" (p.59). This approach is entirely opposite to the "gaze" perspective (Urry, 1990; 2002), which for many years championed a detached stance (Cohen and Avieli, 2004). Several scholars have stated that other senses are at least equally important (Dann and Jacobsen, 2003; Pan and Ryan, 2009; Son and Pearce, 2005; Tresidder, 2015). Subsequently, food can aid DMOs in the creation of multidimensional experiences transcending ocular engagement (Everett, 2008). This is increasingly important, as in recognising the significance of other senses apart from the visual within the tourism experience, Dann and Jocobsen (2003, p.19) note that: *“the successful tourist destination (…) does not rely on sight alone."* However, Andersson (2007, p.46) states that:

> *“tourist experiences can’t be bought. They can only take shape in the mind of the tourist. No one but the tourist can have any control over the experiences and, in most cases, not even the tourist is fully able to have such control.”*

Thus, the role of DMOs and other tourism stakeholders is to provide opportunities for visitors to be able to create memorable experiences, or in the words of interview participant: “*you have got to give them [tourists] theatre”* (P13).

5.2.5 What are the characteristics of food in urban destination marketing?

The content analysis in Chapter 4 revealed that urban destinations tended to market the same set of international cuisines alongside, what appeared to be, standardised marketing messages. In particular, every website analysed had a wide range of international cuisines on offer, claimed to have something for every taste, budget and occasion etc. This uniformity and standardisation are surprising given that, according to theoretical “best practice” (section 2.3.2), destination marketing is quintessentially a process of achieving a competitive superiority through marketing uniqueness and difference. Hence, marketing of food in urban destinations could potentially be seen as more in accordance with Heeley’s (2015a) “marketing of everything” approach. As such, one of the pressing and burning questions in this study was to find out if this was a clear example of “*the marketing of everything approach*” (op cit.) as opposed to one based on uniqueness and difference. A more detailed data analysis process illustrating the range of responses to this particular interview question is displayed in Appendix 15 and Appendix 16.

To remind the reader, Heeley (2014; 2015a; 2015b) proposed that majority of destinations promote a standardised set of messages and imagery rather than uniqueness and difference, hence the “marketing of everything” approach as opposed to one based on differentiation through uniqueness. However, while Heeley (2015a) questioned the validity and relevance of the current state of destination marketing theory, the validity and reliability of his approach are also open to question. This is because Heeley (2015a) failed to specify the nature and the process of his "*online investigation*", consequently leaving his methodological approach ambiguous and questionable. This is because, he did not provide, unlike this present study, a rich and thick description of the methods employed. It can be assumed that Heeley (2015a) undertook some form of content analysis, however the lack of information on this put in question the credibility of his findings. What is more, while Heeley (2015a) found that, in his study, the majority of destinations promoted a standardised set of messages and imagery rather than uniqueness and difference (the "what" and "how" of destination marketing), he failed to consider the context or meaning of such messages and images; he did not even consider why DMOs adopted such practices (the "why" of destination marketing), unlike the present study.

In contrast to Heeley's (2015a) approach, the author of this study sought to get answers in order to establish "why" DMOs apply such standardised marketing messages across urban destinations. Thus, during the interviews, the author was able to dig deeper into the thoughts of the participants which then allowed to understand the situation. Consequently, this study found that DMO representatives agreed unanimously that the marketing of international cuisines in urban destinations is a reflection of demand and this is exactly what the consumer apparently/supposedly wants. P4 stated bluntly: "*I think this is what the consumer wants. The consumer wants variety*", while other participants explained in more detail:

> *"I think it is all about supply and demand. If the demand was not there, then they [international restaurants] would not survive. This is what cities are, they are not just the local people, there is demand for all these multicultural facilities, shops etc. providing to meet that demand"* (P19);

> *"I think there has been a mix of different cuisines that has just grown up in different places, even in small towns (…) and people have been very happy to accept that and almost expect that"* (P14).

Another DMO representative admitted that such an approach is linked to the ever increasing competition across urban destinations:

> *"I think it is all very much aligned, so I think that the same thing that Manchester promotes and something that we promote, are*

the same things that visitors are seeking out. So I think it is a sort of supply and demand and there is competitiveness. We probably would look into other destinations to see what they are doing as well and see where we can match up" (P5).

Even though DMO representatives acknowledged that this type of marketing can lead to the increasing sameness across urban areas, they believed that it is important to offer a variety of places to eat in order to cater to all travellers. For example, P3 stated:

> *"Every city uses that "there is something for everyone" phrase one way or another. It is not a great phrase but it is a kind of simple solution to the suggestion 'Do not think that you will struggle to find something to eat here, because you will find something'"* (P3).

DMO representatives explained that this need for variety is particularly important for international visitors who sometimes prefer to eat familiar foods when they visit England. In particular, Chinese visitors and foreign students were used as examples. P1 explained that even if Chinese visitors are eager to try out various local delicacies, they cannot continuously eat local food because it cannot satisfy their physiological needs. As such, DMO representatives believed that marketing of international cuisines is vital to the needs of international travellers.

However, while participants stated that there is a need for variety, at the same time they admitted that this could also lead to the increasing sameness across urban destinations. For example, P14 stated that there are certain food chains and food providers that can be found in every major city around the world which leads to increasing sameness across urban destinations. In particular, participants compared this situation to the high street shops, as illustrated in the comments below:

> *"If you travel anywhere in the UK you go to the high street and you see the same shops – Next, H&M – because these large companies are coming to our cities and it is hard to find those things that are different. So yes, there is sameness"* (P14);

> *"I think we all travel and we go to cities and they are very much provided for by all sorts of things that people probably have in their own countries like McDonald's and so on"* (P19);

"I agree, we are in a danger of, it is a little bit like a retail high street, it is all looking the same and food could go the same way if we are not careful" (P4).

Marketing of international cuisines was also linked to the cosmopolitan and multicultural nature of cities, as demonstrated in the comments in Table 26.

Table 26. Interview quotes regarding the cosmopolitan nature of cities (source: author)

	Interview quote
P5	*"Even though every destination has somewhere where you can get a burger or pizza, it is part of that catering to all different audiences (…), it is a sign of a cosmopolitan city that pretty much anything that you want you can get it somewhere within that city (…) I think it is just reflection of what we want as a society and that sort of demand for it."*
P10	*"There is a street in York and down that street, there must be over 20 independent restaurants providing worldwide cuisine- Argentinian steak house, Italian pizza place, Indian Restaurant, Polish restaurant. All sorts of restaurants. And that reflects the makeup of the city and who is living in York which I think is brilliant."*
P14	*"Cities have always – London, Manchester, and Birmingham etc. – have always been more cosmopolitan. You have got a different mix of people. You have got people coming from all over the world. I think there has been a mix of different cuisines that has just grown up in different places, even in small towns. I live in Chesterfield, we have got Indian restaurants and Chinese restaurants and all sorts of Italian restaurants. And people have been very happy to accept that and almost expect that". [Participant emphasised the words: accept and expect].*
P15	*"There are more people around, more people probably will be adventurous, and there is a mix of nationalities and cultures."*
P19	*"Cities tend to be very multicultural and they will always be an element of people whose families have lived there for generations."*
P14	*"So, even though English food and local food is growing in England, if a place like York would just have English restaurants I think people would not appreciate that. We have come now to expect a mix of different restaurants who have all gradually came in and joined as part of our English heritage."*
P19	*"In urban areas, there are pockets of different cultures. I mean in Sheffield there is a Polish community and Asian community, so there is this demand. But obviously other people would want to try that authentic and I think it is because it is authentic and it is quite different to us saying we are going to cook Italian food or Japanese food, because at the end of the day we are British and these places are managed by people from these countries."*

However, what is “cosmopolitan” and “multicultural”? According to the Oxford Paperback Thesaurus (Waite, 2012), “cosmopolitan” is an adjective synonymous to multicultural, multiracial, international, worldwide, global, cultured, sophisticated and fashionable. What is more, according to a different definition (Oxford Dictionaries, 2017), “cosmopolitan” can be defined as:

- being familiar with and at ease in many different countries and cultures;
- including people from many different countries for example: immigration transformed the city into a cosmopolitan metropolis;
- having an exciting and glamorous character associated with travel and a mixture of cultures.

In etymological terms, “cosmopolitan” comes from Greek “kosmos” which means “world” and “polis” which means “city” (Tomlinson, 1999). Thus, a cosmopolitan stands for a citizen of the world. Hopper (2007) explains that becoming a cosmopolitan means being open to different cultures and cultural experiences. Similarly, Hannerz (1990) claims that cosmopolitans seek to engage with other cultures. “Multiculturalism”, on the other hand, refers to the presence of ethnic, religious or sexual differences in cities or to claims for the recognition of cultural otherness (Joppke and Lukes, 1999, p.1). This is in contrast to cosmopolitanism which evokes the idea of world citizenship and promotes identities which are not territorially-based (Breckenridge, Pollock, Bhabha and Chakrabarty, 2002).

It can be noted from all above definitions that “cosmopolitan” is closely linked to “multicultural” and “multi-ethnic”. Indeed, it has been claimed that as societies are now becoming more multicultural and multi-ethnic, many people are taking advantage of the chance to experience different cultures and as a result, they become more cosmopolitan (Germann Molz, 2007). Thus, cosmopolitan can be seen as a cultural disposition and reflection of multicultural structures of urban destinations which were indeed noted by participants.

To take this discussion even further, the question of cultural homogenisation and heterogenisation in relation to marketing of food in urban areas can be explored. It can be argued that marketing of food in urban areas represented a form of cultural homogenisation (Hopper, 2007) which was visible in the uniformity and predictability of content. This predictability is one of the key components of

McDonaldisation (Ritzer, 2013) which highlights how the dominance of global franchised operators, such as McDonalds and Starbucks, can lead to predictability of products and services in destinations. Ritzer (2013) sees this homogenisation as being far-reaching and considers McDonaldisation as being equivalent to previous broad shifts in production and consumption, such as Taylorism and Fordism. This predictability can potentially lead to an increasing sameness and identikit destinations rather than delivering uniqueness and difference. This was noted by the interview participants who compared this situation to the high streets which are significantly dominated by chain stores. For example, P4 stated: "*It is a little bit like a retail high street, it is all looking the same and food [in destination marketing] could go the same way if we are not careful*" (P4). It is widely believed that homogeneity, in general, leads to universal cultural uniformity (Hopper, 2007). In particular, cultural homogenisation is seen as a vehicle for "global cuisine" and "global palate" where foods and dishes can be found anywhere in the world (Richards, 2002; Scarpato and Daniele, 2003).

In addition, participants indicated that independent restaurants have the advantage of being able to provide a unique experience for visitors in urban destinations, as illustrated in the following comments:

> *"Every city it is going to have Indian, Chinese, Italian blah blah blah. But every city will also have things like this, that are different, so there is going to be stuff that is the same and there is also going to be places like this- local, independent places that offer something a little bit different"* (P16);
>
> *"I think going forward we will concentrate more on the kind of individual type of restaurants, because you are right, yes, <u>you could expect to find that kind of range of international restaurants in any urban city, but this does not provide a kind of unique proposition at all</u> [emphasis added by the author]"* (P3);
>
> *"I think now if you look at Sheffield compared to what it was 20 years ago you can find pockets of interesting and independent restaurants and shops. So, if you look in Sheffield there are places like Ecclesall Road or Sharrow Vale Road or up near Devonshire Green which are places where independent restaurants and food shops are celebrated more now and they are successful more now than they were"* (P14);

"I think the uniqueness comes within establishments, it can come within the actual people that are working there that are offering nice, friendly welcome and that's something Sheffield gets ranked for continually for being happy and friendly place. So that comes with customer service and its uniqueness" (P5).

5.2.6 What are the characteristics of food in rural destination marketing?

As previously discussed in section 4.3, one of the findings from the content analysis were clear differences that were noted in the marketing of food in rural and urban destinations. In particular, food in rural destinations was shown as rooted in the environment and culture of a destination and reinforced by its local traditions. It can also be argued that marketing of food in rural destinations was shown as rooted in the environment and culture of a destination and reinforced by its local traditions. Food was clearly presented as being embedded in the landscape and in local traditions which can be linked to Trubek's (2008) notion of terroir, as explained earlier (section 2.2.2). To clarify this finding, one of the interview questions was focused on the difference in marketing of food in urban and rural destinations. More detailed data analysis process illustrating the range of responses to this particular interview question is displayed in Appendix 17 and Appendix 18.

According to interview participants, food in rural destinations tends to be supply driven due to the lack of footfall, but also because of lack of diverse populations living in the countryside. For example, P19 stated that restaurants serving international cuisines are not feasible in rural destinations, because there are not a lot of visitors during the weekdays. Moreover, P11 added that rural areas tend to lack diverse and multicultural populations. Because of this, rural places were seen as having smaller and independent producers, for example P13 stated: "*We have independent food producers, they are Made in Malton food producers. None of them are chain*" (P13).

In addition to the above, participants believed that visitors to rural areas do not want fast food associated with urban living, but rather they desire local and traditional, as demonstrated in the comments below:

> *"Visitors do not want to turn up to a lovely market town and find a kebab shop, they want locally produced food"* (P4);

> *"The Peak District is a very beautiful area and it attracts people who are interested in being outdoors, outdoor pursuits, enjoying nature. I think those people generally are the ones who like more quality food. I do not think there is a lot of demand here for fast food"* (P19).

Moreover, P19 added: *"It [food in rural destinations] is a little bit like nostalgia-going to rural places, looking for that tradition and history, going back in time"* (P19). Elsewhere, comparing food in urban and rural areas another participant stated:

> *"City life is so different to life out here in the countryside. People come here [to countryside] looking for pubs, they want to be in a traditional pub and that again is an English, something English, along with the Yorkshire pudding and fish and chips, we do have a few things that are still around"* (P19).

Participants also pointed out on the close connection between landscape and food in rural destinations. For example, P13 stated that: "*People can come and eat wonderful food, eat ice cream and all wonderful sweet things and then they can go on a 5-mile hike in the moors*". Thus, food in rural destinations was seen as part of the jigsaw puzzle of the place, as demonstrated in the quote below:

> *"Across our rural landscape if you can link the food back to the landscape and people can actually start to understand that the food on their plate, has been grown locally and it is seasonal, that just adds that additional bit of quality and it is a part of the jigsaw puzzle of the place"* (P4).

More comments focussed around better knowledge of food in rural areas due to it being local. For example, P13 simply stated that "local" food in rural areas is easier to define and simply means "*from our fields here*".

The close connection between food and its economic impacts in rural areas was also noted. For example, P8 stated that food production networks in rural areas support local economy and therefore there is a wider effect in the community:

> *"[Rural] food production networks support local economy (…) What is missing from the debate on food and tourism is that local food supports local jobs, so there is a wider effect"* (P8).

5.2.7 What is "local" food?

Content analysis of adjectives used to describe food on the DMO websites indicated that there appears to be a focus on the marketing of local foods and local food experiences. This finding is consistent with those of other studies (for example: Bessiere, 1998; Kim et al., 2009; Mak, Lumbers, Eves and Chang, 2012; Tellstrom et al., 2005) according to which "local" food is becoming increasingly more prominent in destination marketing.

However, due to the lack of consensus on the definition of "local" food, as explained in section 4.3 of this thesis, it was rational that the researcher asked interview participants to try to define "local" food. Thus, such question was a timely one in the view of the ongoing uncertainty and confusion over "local" food. More detailed data analysis process illustrating the range of responses to this particular interview question is displayed in Appendix 19 and Appendix 20.

While all participants believed that local food and local food experiences are of increasing importance to visitors in selected destinations, at the same time they agreed that "local" is extremely difficult to define. For example, P9 stated: "*Local food is important to us, however it is really difficult to put a cast iron definition on what is local*". Interviews confirmed that there is no accepted definition of "local", as all participants provided different answers.

A similar situation can be noted in the literature, as this study identified that there has been no precise definition for the term "local" food (Coit, 2008; Tovey, 2009). As previously explained (section 4.3), a number of earlier studies on local food (such as for example: Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2014, 2016; Boesen et al., 2017) do not even address this issue. What is more, even when some studies do define the "local", the definitions seem to be generic and ambiguous. For example, Kim and Eves (2012) briefly define "local" food as being produced in the local area (Kim and Eves, 2012, p.1461), however, their definition fails to be precise on what counts as a local area.

Most recently, in an edited book “Reinventing the local in tourism” (Russo and Richards, 2016) scholars from Europe, New Zealand and Dubai provide 15 essays which examine how the “local” is shaped and negotiated through tourism and the role of travel-sharing platforms (such as Airbnb) in hospitality and tourism services and in changing the tourist experience. However, as pointed out by Di Giovine (2017, p.126): “*Reinventing the Local in Tourism is mistitled*”. This is because although the main focus of the book appears to be on the “local”, there is no explanation of what “local” means, except a short sentence stating that ‘‘*not only is the ‘local’ difficult to define, but also often difficult to make distinctive*” (p 260). It seems that the editors have chosen the term simply as a synonym for ‘‘destination” or “place” (Di Giovine, 2017). This is alarming, as a good starting point to a discussion including “local” (food) in tourism and the marketing thereof would be to define the concept of “local”, yet it appears that most studies leave this to the interpretation, or confusion, of the reader.

It should also be noted that outside of the academic literature, the term “local” food has also permeated all types of public discourse on food and eating. Best-selling books (such as: Hix, 2006; Mason, Brown and Fearnley-Whittingstall, 2006), newspaper articles (for example: Wilson, 2016), magazines (for example: Delicious Magazine, Chilterns Food Magazine), food festivals (for example: Malton Food Lovers Festival, York Food Festival, Wakefield's Festival of Food, Drink & Rhubarb), radio programmes (for example: BBC Radio 4: A Taste of Britain Revisited – Yorkshire) and TV stories (for example: The Great British Bake Off, Great British Menu, A Taste of the Yorkshire Dales, the Great British Food Revival) have all been devoted to local foods. In addition, there have also been online communities devoted to local food such as for example Great Food Club which was launched in 2010 and sprang out of Great Food Magazine (Great Food Club, 2017). The club acts as a guide to local restaurants, pubs, delicatessens and farm shops in 16 regions in England.

Although the examples above illustrate a considerable upwards trend in interest in local foods, the conceptualisation of what “local” actually means remains inconsistent. Thus, in the absence of an academic definition of “local”, the present study asks the following question – is there a legal definition of “local”? The review of the grey literature indicates that in England there is no legally binding definition of “local” food, unlike the term “organic” (DEFRA, 2016b). However, while there is no precise definition of “local” in terms of food legislation in England, the Food Law Code of Practice (Food Standards Agency, 2011), referring to Food Hygiene Regulation 853/2004 Recital 13, states that Food Authorities in England should interpret both “localised” and “local” as meaning: “*sales within the supplying establishment’s own county plus the greater of either the neighbouring county or counties, or 30 miles/50 kilometres from the boundary of the supplying establishment’s county*” (Food Standards Agency, 2011, p.121).

However, while the Food Standards Agency provides a recommendation for the interpretation of “local”, it is not a legally binding definition. Consequently, the various food and tourism stakeholders have all developed their own definitions and guidelines. For example, the National Farmer’s Retail & Market Association (FARMA), which is a not-for-profit association that assesses farmers’ markets in the UK, has developed the Farmers’ Market Certificate which aims to give confidence to consumers who want a wide range of quality, locally reared or produced and ethically retailed foods (DEFRA, 2013). According to their website, “local” food is defined as “local” if “*ingredients sourced by a producer in the production of their goods are found as locally as possible to the market and producer*” (National Farmer’s Retail & Market Association, 2017). Elsewhere, the Campaign to Protect Rural England (CPRE) defines “local” food as “*raw food, or lightly processed food (such as cheese, sausages, pies and baked goods) and its main ingredients, grown or produced within 30 miles of where it was bought*” (Campaign to Protect Rural England, 2012, p.13).

The difficulty in identifying a single definition of “local” can also be illustrated by different research projects and consultations on local food in England. For example, in 2002 The Working Group on Local Food was commissioned by DEFRA to undertake consultation on “local” food (DEFRA, 2003). The aim of the project was to assist with the development of government policy on local food as appropriate. The consultation included bringing out together work carried out to date and discussions with key stakeholder groups in the local food sector (DEFRA, 2003). The Working Group sought to gather as many views as possible from a wide breadth of stakeholders and made visits to the food sector establishments in all the administrative regions of England, concluding that there is no single agreed definition of “local” food. The study also found that there was a small difference between regional and local foods (dominantly seen as an expansion in the area from which the food comes and perhaps an increase in the scale of production) and a number of participants believed that “local” simply meant British.

However, while different views on “local” exist, the author developed four key dimensions of “local” food. The dimensions in Table 27 represent different perceptions and judgments about what counts as “local”, as identified from the content analysis, interviews, review of academic and industry literature.

The first dimension – “local in” – refers to food from a confined geographic area that is seen as in close proximity to the consumer (within a defined radius/distance). This is supported by participants’ comments indicating that this dimension of “local” has a strong geographic connotation. For example, P14 stated:

> *“The definition that I have always used is one that probably came from farmer's market association quite a number of years ago now where local should be something within 30 miles radius.”*

Another participant (P12) said:

> *“My definition of local food is from within 10 miles. That is my own personal opinion. If you look at all associations, especially the Soil Association, I think they extend it to about 50miles or something like that”.*

Elsewhere, when describing local food, P13 stated that: *“in England when we say local, we probably mean within 30 or 40 miles”.*

These findings match those observed in earlier studies. For example, Groves (2005) surveyed 1,000 British consumers and found that “local” food is predominantly concerned with a geographic distance. In her study, the majority of respondents associated “local” with food produced within 30 miles from either where they lived or 30 miles from where they bought the product. What is more, Groves (2005) also found that some respondents associated “local” with the county in which they lived.

Table 27. Dimensions of "local" food (source: author)

Dimension	Description	Interview quotes/examples	Literature/industry examples
"Local in"	Local food as from a confined geographic area that is seen as in close proximity to the consumer (within a defined radius/distance).	"*My definition of local food is from within 10 miles*" (P12). *"In England when we say local, we probably mean within 30 or 40 miles"* (P13).	EU's Protected Geographical Indication (PGI)[10] Adams and Adams (2011); Chambers, Lobb, Butler, Harvey and Traill, (2007); DEFRA (2003); Groves (2005); Khan and Prior (2010);
Cultural	Produced from local ingredients that are rooted in the soil and climate and transformed through the specific skills of local people.	*"It is about how it is created in the first place (…) As much as the 'where'* (P10). *"It means locally sourced and produced, but also cooked well. In Yorkshire local food reflects Yorkshire mentality"* (P2).	EU's Protected Designation of Origin (PDO)[11] Durham, King and Roheim (2009)
Socio-economic	Local food as part of community's economic development.	*"Local food production networks support local economy and all businesses (in Yorkshire) should use local produce as it keeps not only local economy stronger, but also traditions alive and going" (P8).*	Dunne, Chambers, Giombolini and Schlegel (2011); Kneafsey, Lambie, Dowler and Inman (2008); Lang, Stanton and Qu (2014); Mintel (2013, 2015); Zepeda and Leviten-Reid (2004);
"Local to"	A distinctive food product associated by name with a particular location through the means of branding or accreditation schemes.	Yorkshire Pudding, Wensleydale Cheese, Yorkshire Forced Rhubarb, Pikelets, Parkin Cake, Liquorice sweet, chocolate in York, Bakewell Pudding.	EU's Traditional Speciality Guaranteed (TSG)[12]

[10] Product protected under PGI must be produced, processed or prepared in the geographical area which it is associated with (DEFRA, 2017).
[11] Product protected under PDO must be produced, processed and prepared in one area and have distinct characteristics from this area. PDOs differ from PGIs in that all 3 production stages must take place in the area. The EU will only give a product PDO status if they decide it was made using distinct local knowledge (DEFRA, 2017).
[12] Product protected under TSG must have a traditional name and characteristics that distinguish it from other similar products. Once protected, a TSG product can be produced in any country within the EU (DEFRA, 2017).

However, beyond this general geographic definition, there is little agreement on the geographic proximity. For example, in the present study some participants stated that the geographic distance may vary in different locations. For example, P13 stated:

> *"We had some American guests who came the other day from Chicago and they define local food as anything from a 100miles radius. But then they are in America which is an enormous country"* (P13).

Similarly, P14 indicated that definition of "local" changes for urban agglomerations, such as for example London or Manchester where the distance "*can be expanded to 50 or 60 miles. So if you are holding a farmer's market in a suburb of London you could say anything within 50-60 mile radius, this could be seen as loca*l" (P14).

This finding appears to be consistent with other studies (such as: Durham et al., 2009; Feldmann and Hamm, 2015; Zepeda and Leviten-Reid, 2004) which claim that distance is usually subjectively selected and individuals exhibit great variation in the distance they consider to be local. In general, in the literature, the distance specifications tend to range from 10 to 30 miles up to 100 miles (Adams and Adams, 2011; Chambers et al., 2007; Khan and Prior, 2010) which is consistent with the findings of this study.

Another difficulty in identifying a single geographic definition of "local" can perhaps also be illustrated by a question of where the 'local' area ends and another area begins. This can be very subjective and dependent on the context (density of populations, and rural or urban character etc.) as illustrated in the interview quotes below:

> *"You can look at it in two ways. First one, from a specific distance, or you can do it geographically by region. But then you get Yorkshire which is a very big area, South Yorkshire which is close to the Dales"* (P12).

> *"We sometimes have debated here [about the geographic proximity of local food], because sometimes we have been offered suppliers that are in Derbyshire, but that is not Yorkshire. And then we say – Derbyshire is closer than Scarborough, for example. So we have had that debate between us. Me*

> *personally, Chesterfield is local, but the way our business defines itself as local is just Yorkshire. So I guess to some people it may not be. (…) As long as we can say everything is from Yorkshire, they should accept that as being local"* (P16).

To add to this discussion surrounding geographic proximity and "local" food, the present study found that although interview participants very often described "local" based on geographic distance, at the same time they also expressed doubts regarding such an approach due to the complexity of the food supply chain. In particular, one of the participants posed a series of interesting questions: "*Is it grown there? Is it produced there? Is it manufactured there?*" (P14). The issue emphasised here is that of the complexity of the food supply chain which also accords with questions posed by Sims (2010, p.107) "*can gingerbread – a popular local speciality in the county of Cumbria – ever be considered a local product in the UK if the sugar and spices used to make it come from overseas*"? This could indicate that adopting a geographical definition of "local" can be complicated by the distinction between the origin of the ingredients and the place of production.

It is interesting to note that the European PGI (Protected Geographical Indication) regulation neatly sidesteps the problem of geographic proximity. This is because, according to the PGI regulations, to get a product protected under PGI, it must be produced, processed or prepared in the geographical area in which it is going to be associated with (DEFRA, 2017). What is more, the EU will only give a product the PGI mark if they decide it has a reputation, characteristics or qualities that are a result of the area it is to be associated with. In the UK, Yorkshire Wensleydale cheese, Cornish sardines and Traditional Grimsby smoked fish are examples of foods protected with the PGI mark (DEFRA, 2017).

As shown in Table 27 (p.227), another important consideration in the definition of "local" food that of the "local" as a cultural concept. Some interview comments supporting this dimension included P18 who stated that "local" food brings together geographic and cultural aspects of the place which, combined together, create a unique taste. The participant (P18) explained that in terms of the place where she works, local food helps to deliver "*a true Yorkshire dining experience*" which embraces ingredients grown or foraged across the county which is then served with “*relaxed Yorkshire hospitality*.” She also said that all members of staff regularly visit farms and suppliers where they “*listen to stories about food*”. As such, staff has knowledge about food that they serve and they are able to deliver “*a true field to plate experience”* (P18).

This finding matches those observed by researchers and industry leaders who have proposed a new dimension to define “local” – one based on cultural factors (Durham et al., 2009). Within this dimension, the mixture of geographical and cultural characteristics influences food and this creates a unique “local” product. This could be illustrated in the quote below where Stead (citied in Bell and Valentine, 1997) captures the way Yorkshire Pudding is seen to reflect particular Yorkshire characteristics:

> *“Yorkshire pudding is tarred with the brush of the county character. Yorkshiremen were notorious for their sharp practices (…) Yorkshire hospitality was fabled. So Yorkshire pudding is a triumphant marriage of those conflicting aspects of the Yorkshire character- meanness and liberality. It is cheap and hugely filling (…) The fact that they [Yorkshire puddings] require spanking hot fat, explosions as the batter hits it, fierce heat, and crisp results, may explain why it has often been said that only Yorkshire folk – those possessing Yorkshire temperament – can make a true Yorkshire pudding”* (Stead citied in Bell and Valentine, 1997, p.159).

The examples and comments above illustrate how this cultural dimension of “local” food defines food as embedded in the landscape, and influenced by local traditions and other intangible elements. As a result, “local” food can be seen as capturing the essence of the place and its distinctive geographical and cultural characteristics. “Local” food here can be seen as not relying on whether the product has been produced within a defined radius from the point of sale, but that it has been produced in a distinct area defined by the presence of a unique combination of soils, topography, climate, and locally embedded skills and knowledge. This can be further explained using the concept of “terroir”:

> *“Rooted in French word terrer, or land, terroir encapsulates the idea that a particular interplay of geography, history and human factors imbues foods with a particular taste that cannot be recreated elsewhere. In the past, the term was closely*

> *associated with European wines, these days it is used in the popular press to describe artisanal foods from different continents (…) France has long used the notion of terroir to instil pride (…) and to promote its own culinary authenticity among citizens and tourists alike"* (Musgrave, 2009, p.158).

In particular, the concept of terroir, as previously explained (section 2.2.2), places an emphasis on the combined effect of soil, topography, subsoil, climate, and it also includes the customs and ceremonies of the people who produce local dishes (Hammer, 2011). Thus, it can be claimed that this cultural dimension includes local food which is seen as rooted in the environment and culture of a destination and reinforced by its local traditions (Croce and Perri, 2017). What is more, it has to be noted that closely associated with this dimension of "local" food is European Union's Protected Designation of Origin (PDO) mark according to which food products must be produced, processed and prepared in one area and have distinctive characteristics from this area (DEFRA, 2017). This legally enforced system neatly sidesteps the issue of defining the "local", by insisting that the crucial point of the definition is whether a food product's characteristics are attributable to the features of a distinct – and usually relatively small – geographical area. Therefore, in accord with the cultural dimension in the present study, PDO indicates not whether the product has been produced within a defined radius from the point of sale, but that it has been produced in a distinct area defined by the presence of a unique combination of soils, topography, climate, and locally embedded skills and knowledge.

The third dimension of "local" food, the socio-economic, is based on perceived sociol and economic benefits to the locality. The participants associated "local" food as a necessary element to support the local economy and vital for local communities. For example, P8 stated: "*local food supports local jobs, so there is a wider effect*" (P8). He then stated that all businesses (in Yorkshire) should use local produce as it keeps not only local economy stronger, but also traditions alive and going. Other participant provided an example of a struggling local food business that was saved by becoming a tourists' attraction and as a result "*its contribution to the city and region can hardly be overstated"* (P5).

This finding is in accord with the findings of other studies (such as: Kneafsey, Lambie, Dowler and Inman, 2008; Mintel, 2013, 2015; Zepeda and Leviten-Reid, 2004) in which “local” food is about more than proximity and traceability, but it is also seen as a vector for delivering social and economic benefits. In particular, “local” food is seen as contributing to the local economy through job creation and retention (Dunne, Chambers, Giombolini and Schlegel, 2011). Within this socio-economic dimension, the “local” is not attributed to a specific spatial scale, but the key point is that the control of economic activity is retained locally and that a range of benefits is delivered. These potential benefits are based on participants’ perceptions of certain desired characteristics in the production of “local” food, such as: production by small family run business or farm, conservation of traditional skills, preservation of small and independent businesses. This finding matches those observed in earlier studies. For example, Lang, Stanton and Qu (2014, p.1810) claim that most individuals associate “local” foods with a range of particular characteristics including for example: smaller independent growers or manufacturers, non-industrial and non-corporate growers or manufacturers, family owned and operated growers or manufacturers, businesses that are part of community etc. This also accords with the earlier observation by Everett and Aitchison (2008) who found a correlation between increased levels of food-based tourism and an increase in social and cultural benefits celebrating the production of local food and the conservation of traditional heritage, skills and ways of life. Thus, this dimension of “local” food is based on associations with socio-economic benefits.

The last dimension of “local” food represents particular types of food being seen as a distinctive product associated by name with a specific geographical area. In other words, this could include food specialities that have come to be accepted as the names of specific types of food, without the need for further explanation. Yorkshire Pudding was frequently cited as an example during the interviews. However, it has to be noted that the named geographical location used to describe the food product in this dimension, does not always provide a link to the location of production. As a result, the specific geographical location used in the name of food product, and the actual place of production, may be different. For example, Barnsley Chop is a butchery term to describe a double-lamb chop made by cross-cutting through a saddle of lamb (Local Government Regulation, 2011). The meat does not have to originate from Barnsley, however, it has to be prepared in that particular way in order to be seen as the Barnsley Chop. Closely related to this dimension of “local” is European Union’s Traditional Speciality Guaranteed (TSG) mark according to which food product must have a traditional name and characteristics that distinguish it from other similar products (DEFRA, 2017). However, once protected, the TSG product can be produced in any country within the EU and it highlights a traditional production process, unlike PDO or PGI.

At this point in the discussion, it should be acknowledged that the use of PDO, PGI and TSG labels has become a marketing strategy and a source of competitive advantage (Fields, 2015). According to Fotopoulos and Krystallis (2003), such labels imply originality and authenticity and give food products a competitive advantage similar to that of a brand name. This is particularly important for destination marketing as, according to Everett (2016, p.181), food labels provide “*a powerful marketing scheme and reassurance to the consumer*” and thus can act as effective means of achieving a uniqueness and difference. However, while research on gastronomic brands in tourist destination promotion is a separate area of study (Gordin and Trabskaya, 2013) and thus remains outside the scope of this study, at the same time this opens avenues for future research.

The four dimensions of “local” food presented above in Table 27 (p.227) indicate that there is no single universally agreed or adopted definition of “local” food. As outlined in this section, “local” is very often associated in relation to geographical proximity. However, the question of where the 'local' area ends and another area begins is subjective, depending on context (density of populations, and rural or urban character etc.). Another important issue in this debate includes the complexity of the food supply chain as well as the distinction between the origin of the ingredients and the place of production. Interview participants associated “local” food with positive socio-economic outcomes, while others saw “local” food as embedded in the landscape and local culture and reinforced by its local traditions or as a particular speciality of the place.

This lack of consensus and absence of an agreed definition of “local” is concerning, as interview participants indicated that this could be misleading to tourists. For example, P12 stated: “*visitors/tourists can get pulled in, by country pubs for example, saying that they sell only local food and yet you see outside a truck delivering frozen food*”. In a similar vein, P14 explained that there are food businesses (restaurants, pubs, bars etc.) that have used the word “local”, however because of lack of specific definition or regulation, products that they offer may not be “local” at all. This finding appears to be consistent with media stories and industry reports which have highlighted instances where individuals have clearly been misled about the nature of the food they have purchased. For instance, Hickman (2010) reports that Lancashire County Council undertook restaurant inspections and visited 41 randomly selected outlets. According to Hickman (2010), one in seven dishes described as “local” could not be proven to be so by the business. Among the food scams were "handmade" tarts bought from a wholesaler, defrosted "fresh mussels" and "fresh tuna steak", a "home-made" soup made from a dry-pack mix and "local" samphire vegetables imported from 2,000 miles away in Israel.

Similarly, in 2011 the Local Government Regulation carried out a survey of 558 “local” food products on sale in 300 shops, restaurants, markets and production centres in England and Wales (Local Government Regulation, 2011). As part of the survey, the documentary confirmation was sought from the businesses to confirm that the claims were accurate. If there was no confirmation or where the information provided was false, the researcher would further investigate those who had supplied the food. The study found that 18% of “local” claims were "undoubtedly false", with a further 14% unverifiable and therefore assumed to be false (Local Government Regulation, 2011). According to the final report, restaurants had the highest rate of false claims (19%), while manufacturers were found to have the lowest (11%). Citing particular misleading “local” food products, the study established that meat sold as “Welsh lamb” was from New Zealand, "Somerset butter" was from Scotland, "Devon ham" from Denmark and "West Country fish fillets" had been caught in the West Country, but filleted in China (Fallon, 2011).

To conclude this section, the findings of this study suggest that there appears to be a very vague view of what "local" means. Thus, the increasing use of "local" food in destination marketing adds to this lack of clarity and confusion. In addition, this is further supported by evidence that food organisations and government-led projects use different definitions for different schemes. Consequently, this makes it difficult to focus on exactly what "local" food means. As such, there is a danger of businesses misusing the term "local" food, as a marketing tool in order to increase the number of customers. This lack of transparency could be a form of "tourist trap", as described in this study by P12, P14 and P16. To put this in the words of Allen and Hinrichs (2007): "*the ambiguity about what local means . . . allows it to be about anything and, at the margin, perhaps very little at all*" (Allen and Hinrichs, 2007, p. 269).

5.2.8 What are the main opportunities and challenges of using food in destination marketing?

Participants were asked to describe potential opportunities and challenges regarding the promotion and marketing of food as a tourist attraction in their destinations. More detailed discussion of the data analysis process illustrating the range of responses to this particular interview question is displayed in Appendix 21 and Appendix 22.

A variety of issues and constraints presenting barriers to the development and marketing of food in tourism destinations were identified by interview participants. For example, participants stated that the lack of stable funding is the main issue preventing development and marketing of food experiences, as demonstrated by the comments below:

> *"Unfortunately, we have submitted a European project recently which is now on hold, because of the referendum and that had a whole section that was going to work on Derbyshire products, Peak District products and market towns. The idea about that [project] was to encourage our market town businesses to use locally grown food and offer that as part of their menu to visitors with the idea being that that is more sustainable and visitors then obviously have that experience of seasonality- what we grow here, meats, cheeses and things like that. So we do not have that money at the moment and the challenges are finding the resources and the funding to work with businesses to take on*

this idea. With a little bit of encouragement, you always find that there are champion businesses, pioneer businesses and ambassadors that are doing it well already they can sort of pass on that best practice. And that was the idea behind that project, which unfortunately is sat on hold at the moment" (P4);

"If you are running a campaign in terms of trying to do things it is harder in the food sector, because many of them are pubs and smaller restaurants and they can't necessarily afford to buy into a campaign and that is why we want big sponsors (…) Bigger attractions have huge budgets e.g. the Dungeons, so it is more difficult to fund and get people behind you just from a day to day point of view" (P6);

"I think there needs to be some money being put into a [food] project to get that up and running, but then that money maybe lasts only 2-3 years and then maybe when that money is gone and the project officer is not there to promote, then maybe then it falls apart a little bit. So trying to build something sustainable that can sustain itself I think is quite hard work. I know that there was a project in the Peak District about 10 years ago which was very good, but 3-4 years later the funding stops and then even though the project is still there it has sort of fallen apart" (P14).

Another issue reported by interview participants is a lack of a food strategy which prevents development and marketing of food and food experiences, as demonstrated in the comments below:

"A cohesive food strategy for Yorkshire. That is what are we are missing as a destination and having a body of people who are leading a food strategy forward" (P1);

"As far as I can tell there is no overall food and drink strategy for Yorkshire that policy makers and the people at the sharp end of what we create can collectively shout about and deliver as one. There is no unifying approach that we can all get behind that puts Yorkshire at the forefront of the nation's culinary map" (P9);

"I believe that we need a food and drink strategy that collectively maximises the opportunities to develop, promote and emblazon Yorkshire's food and drink offer in a way that nationally and internationally recognises us as a 'must visit' culinary destination" (P9).

Moreover, participants stated that there are many organisations and businesses involved in food and tourism which proves difficult as everyone has different views on how food should be promoted:

> *"There are too many people, what we feel, just doing their own thing. And the politics does get in the way and personalities get in the way as well. What we are saying is that there is a lot of good stuff going on in here, but if it was more joined up it would be even better. It would be even more on a world stage than we are. Because we have got the potential to be"* (P9).

This lack of coordination in terms of a strategic direction results in everyone "*doing its own thing*" which leads to fragmentation in the industry, as illustrated by the following comments:

> *"East Yorkshire Local Food Network is a group led by a local chancellor who is very passionate about what he does (...) so they are trying to bang the drum for their stuff in East Yorkshire. Then we have Deliciously Yorkshire who are banging the drum across the county, across the wider county. Then you have got Welcome to Yorkshire who really do get why food is important in terms of the tourism and economy and then you have got Visit York and we are members of as well"* (P10).

The same participant continued:

> *"Well, you have got those food bodies and then there is apparently a new body called Agrifood Network Yorkshire or Yorkshire Agrifood Network. (...) My initial understanding is that the Agrifood Network in Yorkshire sees itself as leading what happens to food in Yorkshire and what we are saying is no, it does not! The Agrifood has a part to play, but it does not take into account for example of the hospitality element and we want to really get to grips with, you know, what food offers you in Yorkshire whether it is in tourism or anywhere else. Everybody needs to be on the same page"* (P10).

One of the most surprising findings was that DMO representatives stated that they very often struggle to work with restaurant businesses. For example, P3 stated:

> *"They [restaurants] are usually quite small, a limited number of covers, sometimes late time openings, difficult to contact. During*

business hours when we might want to speak with them or journalists may want to speak with them or marketers, they are not at work, because they are not in work until the afternoon and then they are busy prepping and then they are into service and then they go home. So it is a quite difficult sector to actually work with because there is no real champion for that sector and there is no industry association to work with, there is no central point of contact" (P3).

The same participant concluded her point:

> *"And I think the biggest challenge is also to get them [restaurants] to understand that they are a part of the tourism offer within the destination. Because they go about doing what they are doing which is running the restaurant, they are not great marketers, they do not engage with the whole destination"* (P3).

In a similar vein, P6 stated:

> *"Because we need to engage with the different parts of the tourism industry, we have not really done a lot with pubs and restaurants (…) I think sometimes they feel like they are left out because it is all about the attractions"* (P6);

> *"When you are in the office in the daytime, the restaurants' managers and the chefs they might not be in the office at the same time. So it is difficult to get to a person to try to reach an agreement on something. But with other attractions we have probably stronger relationships"* (P6).

Elsewhere, when asked about working with restaurants P5 stated: "*It is hard, because there is such high turnover of bars and restaurants, we have to choice pick the best ones that we pluck out and really sort of primary promote on our pages*".

At the same time, industry experts were asked about their experience of working with DMOs. Only two interview participants were happy with the work of the regional DMO, as demonstrated in the comments below:

> *"Welcome to Yorkshire has a very large and committed set of members who don't mind the fee that they pay, because you get out a lot more out of it than if we actually put this in cash terms. That has been an experience for us right from the beginning. Whether it is the image that we need to help us to convey, the*

story or advice or getting help with finding people to come on our trails they [Welcome to Yorkshire] have always been there for us" (P9);

"We have been invited to help Welcome to Yorkshire to submit some application for a grant funding from the UK government which is good and to focus on food and tourism" (P10).

The rest of the participants expressed a lack of faith in their local and regional DMOs, as according to them, DMOs "*talk a lot and don't do anything*" while charging "*ridiculous amounts for their membership*". For example, P15 stated:

"We are not members of the tourist board. What we are finding really is that people seek us out because of food and with the Internet again we do not really advertise or spend any money participating with other organisations. We have been members in the past. I like to support things, but we are busy and a girl, who worked here before, she went to a lot of meetings with them [the local DMO]. She was very enthusiastic in participating in all sorts of networking organisations, but I think at the end of the day, she felt that people talk a lot and don't do anything. And I suppose she couldn't afford the time, because we want to promote ourselves, so we are going to have a new website build now to make a visual impact."

P16, P17 and P18 admitted that they used to be part of the regional DMO, however their organisation had to cease partnership with Welcome to Yorkshire due to the high costs and lack of guaranteed results, as explained by P16 below:

"We were part of Welcome to Yorkshire, but they charge ridiculous amount (…) you spend a lot of money on something that is not a guaranteed result. The money that you have to spend on that could be spent better" (P16).

Another participant when asked if he was familiar with the work of the local tourism board replied:

"In terms of DMOs everything is changing. Local tourism organisations again they have financial difficulties, and only plan short term which is not viable. <u>DMOs are more interested in chasing funding rather than delivering</u> [emphasis added by the author]. This short term thinking is not what we as a small business are looking for. We do not want to pay a substantial amount of money just for our name to be put on their website.

> *So, the difficulty is that they have to find an income stream and I am not sure how many people use official tourism websites when going away on holiday to book or looking for information about different places"* (P8).

Elsewhere, another participant expressed her reservation towards the regional DMO as being potentially biased towards the members, as illustrated in the comment below:

> *"I quite initiate (sic) it [marketing of food in tourism] with Welcome to Yorkshire, because it is a membership organisation. But because only people who join this organisation, they get promoted. So you can look at their website and it looks as if these are the best places to eat or the best places to buy food. But this is excluding the whole of people who don't join them and I can see that's the problem. But as the tourist organisation they are not, in my view, representing tourism in Yorkshire, they are representing their members. So I don't know if there is anyone else marketing food other than individuals marketing themselves, and I think that I surely difficult"* (P15).

Other participants stated that DMOs *work could be better*:

> *"I think it could be better. I think it could be more active. I am not a great fan of advertising a product in an area where people already know you. So to our people who live around here, they know about Bakewell Pudding. So maybe a little bit further afield"* (P11);
>
> *"We work with Welcome to Yorkshire. Last week we had Welcome to Yorkshire event here at the hotel and that was for their members to meet up and network. They help us promote more of what we are trying to do, and they need stories, they need content, you know what you are promoting in Yorkshire, it is not just Malton, but Malton is part of the story within Yorkshire, they use us to promote [Yorkshire]. It is kind of frustrating and we wish we could do a little bit more with them, but anyway..."* (P13).

Overall, participants felt that food-related stakeholders had not yet grasped the importance of joined-up approach. Thus, collaboration and close relationships among stakeholders or the lack thereof were seen as the most important areas of focus to achieve success regarding the development and implementation of food in destination marketing activities. Such a view is supported by Page (2016) who states that destination marketing is based on "*promotion, leading the development and implementation of collaborative marketing communication strategies that match internal (destination) resources with macro environment (market) opportunities."* Similarly, Fyall and Leask (2006, p.51) emphasise that collaboration, although one of the biggest challenges facing DMOs, is key to the achievement of destination marketing targets which means that DMOs should act as *"a strong unifying force that is able to bring all component parts of the destination together*".

Thus, destination marketing can be seen as a collaborative, partnership-based exercise which supposed to bring together multiple public and private sector stakeholders. In such a context, destination marketing practice should reflect the interests of all stakeholders. However, participants indicated difficulties in partnership work between DMOs and food-based organisations. Such a situation is alarming, as according to the government's tourism policy, which was published in September 2011 (as described earlier in section 2.3.3), DMOs have responsibility to form partnerships between the public sector, usually the local authority, and local businesses and attractions. This was implemented in line with the aim to "*modernise and update local tourism bodies to become focused and efficient Destination Management Organisations (DMOs) which are led by and, increasingly, funded through partnership with the tourism industry itself*" (Department for Culture, Media and Sport, 2011, p.21). As previously noted in the literature review, collaboration and partnerships have been identified as a valuable strategy for destinations to embrace (Hashimoto and Telfer, 2006). However, this study identified that although the new tourism agenda is based on collaboration and partnerships, this appears to be problematic in terms of practice.

In addition, participants also stated that England's perception as having a poor quality food is one of the deeply ingrained challenges in terms of marketing of food. Interviews indicated that there is a stereotype of English food as the world's worst – boring, bland and boiled. However, while participants acknowledged the poor reputation of English food which could potentially act as an impediment to rather than an attraction for tourism, they stated that this situation is changing and food is becoming an increasingly important element in destination marketing in this country.

In particular, interview participants believed that immense damage to English cuisine was inflicted throughout two world wars. They pointed out that it is from these years that England gained a reputation for poor food and became a gastronomic joke worldwide. This was echoed in the comments presented in Table 28.

Table 28. Interview quotes regarding a poor quality food (source: author)

Participant	Interview quote
P15	*"I think we are still plagued with that brush of English food being awful and the joke. But I think it is changing and improving."*
P4	*"Unfortunately we do not have the greatest reputation [for food]."*
P3	*"I think that there are some stereotypes, one of our best assets around food tourism is pub food – traditional English, good quality food. However, I do think that we have a reputation for mediocre food."*
P2	*"For many years England has suffered a perception of bad food."*
P1	*"From the international perspective it is massively important, because the food in England has always had fairly poor reputation (…) it is very important for Yorkshire and we are very lucky that we have got such great regional provenance up here."*

According to participants, English cuisine's fall from grace had much to do with the residual effects of two world wars and strict rationing in particular. For example, P13 said that until the beginning of the Second World War British chefs were world class and England had several of the best restaurants in the world. The country also had "*many incredibly deep and rich old traditions of food products*" (P13). However, with the food rationing introduced in 1940 people were limited with what they could eat or cook due to the lack of ingredients. For example, foods rationed included meat, fats, cheese, butter, milk and eggs. However, bread, potatoes and vegetables were never rationed and became staple foods in English diet. According to P13, because of 14 years of food rationing people were used to the idea of poor quality food cooked very simply, because that was all they had access to until about 1950s-1960s. What is more, the same participant stated that this probably also contributed to English cuisine's bad reputation of being uninspiring and tasteless. Moreover, P13 stated that the era of food rationing cemented the stereotype of bad English food. What is more, P13 also noted that because of the wars and food rationing, "*traditions of making food e.g. cheese, were lost and not cultivated*" (P13).

Although, interview participants stated that there is a stereotype of English food, at the same time there is a recent trend of positive change, as illustrated in the comments below:

> *"I think around the world now we are not just seen as a nation of really poor food where we were, people did not think English food was very good, whereas you know there are pockets of really excellent food in London and other places around the country. And I think people are starting to acknowledge that there are some good chefs here"* (P14);
>
> *"Even though we have been on the bottom of many peoples' jokes about food, England does produce some excellent meat, cheese, local beers, cider and we have started to sort of appreciate that more now. We have to make sure that we do not lose some of those skills and some of those local products"* (P14);
>
> *"There is a growing trend that has started to change this perception. It happens when people get to try food in England and they realise that we have got a good quality product. As most people have low expectations of English food, when they actually get a chance to try it, their experience is very positive, and it changes perceptions of food. So it is a positive trend"* (P2).

Elsewhere, P13 emphasised that "*it is quite difficult to encourage tourism, national tourism or international tourism, if the quality [of food] is not there*."

In terms of potential opportunities and benefits regarding the promotion and marketing of food as a tourist attraction in their destinations, all participants were unanimous that food can provide unique experiences to tourists. For example, P9 said that what tourists and visitors "*really like is the feeling that they are getting something unique. And that they are getting something that is not ordinarily available to anybody*" (P9).

When explaining how food delivers unique experiences to tourists, P13 provided an example of Butterbees Butter Parlour which is the only place in the UK where visitors can go and watch fresh artisan butter "*being hand churned and made in front of you. And that is something unique and not being done anywhere else*" (P13).

Another respondent made a comment that tourists enjoy "*learning the stories*":

> *"What we found with people is that they like learning the stories about people who are not open to the public. It is about being nosy if you like. We have got people who we work with who have got amazing stories to tell, really interesting things to tell. People love to learn about that. They feel that they are getting something different and it makes them feel a little bit special"* (P10).

This was also emphasised by another respondent who stated that tourists come from near and far to sample the local delicacy – Bakewell Pudding. However, according to P11, what tourists enjoy the most is a certain amount of mystery and legend surrounded by the origins of this particular dish which results in a sense of uniqueness:

> *"The fact that there is a bit of mystery behind it [Bakewell Pudding] with the secret ingredient, we do not divulge particularly how we make it, so we make it to our own method. And I do not particularly talk about that method (…) There is nothing quite like it [Bakewell Pudding] out there. So it [Bakewell Pudding] is very different and unique"* (P11).

However, as P3 noted: "*It [food] can make a very memorable experience, either positive one or negative one*".

Another participant detailed the importance of food products as souvenirs for visitors/tourists:

> *"It can give them something to take away home, for example like we get a lot of business people from outside of England, if you give them a bottle of Henderson's Relish they are like 'Wow!'. You can't get that anywhere else, so it is something for them to take back to their families and something unique, very Yorkshire product"* (P16).

However, according to participants, it is not only about eating and consuming food. Respondents also indicated that food can provide visitors with the opportunity to learn about the local food culture and food history and as a result, it can also act as a perfect medium for enabling tourists to gain a clearer knowledge and understanding of a place. For example:

> *"You can understand the locality and freshness of food. The fact that all the food can come from the same farm, you can understand what is on your plate and as a result, it will make you understand about the area"* (P18).

P14 explained that tourists consuming food in a destination "*start to understand the culture and the history of that region*". In particular, the same participant stated:

> *"It is about adding to the experience and people understanding more about the region, because of the food they eat when they are there and identifying with the landscape where that food is produced and grown"* (P14).

Similarly, P6 explained that food provides an opportunity to enjoy the local culture in a slow and more appreciative way "*rather than running around and sightseeing":*

> *"When you go abroad you want to sample something that is from the area and just kind of get to know the area. For example, Andrew Pern when he set up the Star Inn I remember that Simon from the Independent [newspaper] came and he did a video and they used to serve their bread in a flap cap, so bread would come instead of a bowl or plate in a flap cap and then he ate the bread and put hat on his head and it was in the video and it just made everyone laugh, because that is so traditional sort of Yorkshire – flap cap and whippet – and they used that as a kind of 'taking the tradition along with the food'. I think it is a kind of slow-moving way of enjoying the local culture rather than running around and sightseeing"* (P6).

This was also supported by P1 who said: "*I think it [food] really tells the story about a place*".

In addition, participants also talked about how cookery classes can provide tourists with a learning opportunity. For example, P14 explained:

> *"People can go and stay for a week or few days and sort of learn how to prepare fish or make bread. It is a fabulous experience and you get to know about the cuisine of that particular place while you are there things like even collecting mushrooms for the weekend. People like to learn and I think that there are lots of producers now and people are getting on that learning experience which I think is important"* (P14).

Similarly, P13 stated that tourists visiting festivals and markets, they also want to "*roll their sleeves up and learn to cook as well*".

On a different note, P9 stated that food can be used as a vital tool to increase the number of visitors and in particular it is a vital way to "*attract people into experiencing what it is about Yorkshire*". Participants noted that food can provide not only active participation, but also engagement and co-creation with other stakeholders. For example, P14 noted:

> *"People like to get involved and do things. And I think that increased dramatically, so people are going to cookery schools to learn how to produce things and there are places like artisan cookery school in Welbeck near here which is a huge success and done really well. People like to learn about things and they like getting involved"* (P14).

Participants also agreed that positive food experiences can result in repeated visitation, and can also contribute to word-of-mouth marketing. For example, P4 explained that tourists and visitors who experience the food offered in a destination usually tell their family, friends and colleagues about the experience:

> *"I think it [food] is something that you do talk about and it is something that you do recommend. If you go to a great restaurant, the first thing you do is tell your nearest and dearest and all your best friends and likewise, if you had a terrible meal it is like 'Oh my God, do not go there!' (…) I think if you go to a place and the food is great you are more likely to return"* (P4).

As such, respondents indicated that positive food experiences can also result in repeated visitation and repeated purchase. For example, P14 stated:

> *"I think that can result in repeated purchase when people keep coming back to region, because they found a great restaurant and they want to bring their friends back and they say 'We need to go back there, because this is great'* (P14).

In a similar vein, P13 said:

> *"If you go on a holiday that is incredibly beautiful and really lovely, but you come back and say that the food was a bit crap, I think that you are unlikely to go back there again. Because it is one of these things that it is so much a part of the experience"* (P13).

P14 made another important point stating that "*it [food] can attract people to destinations in the quieter seasons and I think that is quite important and good way of extending the season*." Similarly, P10 explained:

> *"What this [food] does is that it changes the dynamic in winter. From October when the pheasant comes in season through to the end of January you will expect the weekdays to be quiet in the hotel trade, however they are not. If you are a country house hotel, then it is the busiest time of the year"* (P14).

P14 further elaborated on the idea of using food to extend the season and bring the tourists to destinations at different times of the year:

> *"Well I mean particularly it [food] can attract people to destinations in the quieter seasons and I think that is quite important and a good way of extending the season. People will often go to a place in the summer holidays anyway, so they might visit York in the summer, because it is a beautiful place and people who travel from overseas or from around the country and they would go there. Or going to a seaside place like Scarborough or Whitby in those summer holidays. We have got a lot of accommodation that is sitting there and could be empty in between the seasons, so I think food is something that does not have to be just around the summer. And that is why Ludlow has started their festival in September, because they realised that in the summer they were busy anyway, accommodation was busy anyway, so now they have two food festivals, one in early May and one in mid-September. So then you are getting people to come to a destination throughout the seasons. I think that is something that is one of the very simple ones, bring people to destinations at different times of the year"* (P14).

All of the participants were unanimous in declaring that marketing of food in tourism could serve to promote local development. In specifying how they believed it could help, participants mentioned not only the potential impact of the activity on enhanced job opportunities, but also potential to protect traditional heritage and skills. For example, P8 acknowledged that local food production networks support the local economy. He stated that "*what is missing from the debate on food and tourism is that local food supports local jobs, so there is a wider effect*". He then said that all businesses (in Yorkshire) should use local produce as it keeps not only local economy stronger, but also food traditions alive and going.

Elsewhere, P13, organiser of Malton's acclaimed Food Lovers Festival and a major landowner in Malton and the surrounding area, explained how the development of food-related tourism has helped to revitalise and support the local economy:

> *"About 10 years ago we were looking at town and thinking that there were a lot of empty shops and we thought 'Oh the business is bad, we want to fill the shops up'. So we were thinking around for a theme, basically a way of promoting the town. We thought what is the theme that we are going to do? We looked at various things. Malton is known as a racing town, but the problem is that it is difficult to get people to come to the centre. And whatever we were going to do, we had to try to get people to come to the centre, not to the edge, not to the outskirts, but actually the centre. So food was something that was already being done really well in this area (...) So the whole idea we would like Malton to be, its reputation to be a food town"* (P13).

P13 then explained a brief history of Malton which started with a food festival:

> *"So we thought that the first thing for us to do is a food festival. Because at least that gives us a way of bringing everybody together from world of food from this area and it is a great way of promoting. In year 1 we invited all of the food producers from the area, it was all about the local produce, we had about a thousand people who came and we had 25-30 stalls. It was pretty small, but to us it felt huge. And then 8 years on we had 30,000 people who came and more than 160 stalls. I think the festival is the first part of it. But we realised that is only one weekend a year. So 51 other weeks of the year and we were thinking how we are going to get people to come to town? The crux of the project is footfall (...) So the next thing we did were monthly food markets and that is on the second Saturday of every month. That is much smaller and only has about 35 stalls*

> *but it gets about 2,000-3,000 people each time and that for a small town is a really helpful injection of extra footfall and money into town and all of that"* (P13).

P13 continued to tell about the development of food-related tourism in the destination. After setting up a successful food festival, monthly markets, cookery school and signing a 3-year contract with celebrity chef James Martin, P13 stated that he was "*very serious about this and really wanted to change the whole economy of the town and really try to attract food tourists*." As such, P13 said that currently the next part of the food-related development is to attract food producers:

> *"We want to attract food producers to come in (…) I think if we said that 8 years ago when we had our first food festival 'Come along and move in' I think they would be like 'Why? Are you crazy? Why come here?'. But after 6-7 years of it (…) now we have got an ice cream gelato maker, butcher, bakery, fresh pasta maker, coffee roastery, and in other parts of the town, it is not just there, but we want to have it across town, we have two other breweries, a butter parlour which is completely unique and apparently the only one in Britain. We have, not signed yet, but I hope that in the next few months we will sign a pie maker who is moving his entire production from [inaudible] (…) And we have got gin distiller interested and even a whiskey distiller who wants to create Yorkshire's first whiskey. So all of this is part of the idea that we want Malton to be the centre of excellence in Yorkshire, but also British food and drink. You know, yes we are in Yorkshire, but we have always been trying to be ambitious, so when people look North and they think excellent in British food I want them to consider that"* (P13).

Elsewhere, P3 stated that food in destination marketing can help to achieve community cohesion, particularly in destinations which tend to be multicultural:

> *"We are a city with lots of different ethnic groups living in the city. It is less about integrating them, but is about showing that they are part of the city and part of the city life"* (P3).

Similarly, when talking about food festivals P14 said:

> *"That [food festival] is something that is good for the community and it might be a good reason to hold it. So it may not be about bringing people from all over the region, but it may be a good*

> *thing for our community in bringing groups of people together, making them feel good, educating them about food, so that might be another good reason to have it"* (P14).

It can be argued here that opportunities attributed to the use of food in destination marketing reflect a more encompassing notion of sustainability. This concept was not explicitly used by interview participants, however they all described the main pillars of sustainability in relation to food in tourism: social (inclusive of all ethnic groups, bringing community together), economic (destination loyalty, overcoming seasonality, supporting local jobs), environmental (slow tourism, enjoying the landscape) and cultural (destination narrative, beyond the gaze, enjoyment of local culture, cultural exchange).

Apart from benefits and opportunities that have been already mentioned above, DMO representatives stated that food in destination marketing "*is just another marketing message*":

> *"I think what that does is, it [food] just adds a little bit of extra. It is just another message, another marketing message that you can add to the whole marketing message in terms of what you will experience when you get here"* (P4).

Similarly, P6 indicated that food is a very attractive tourist product and a very profitable one:

> *"That is a very easy way to market what the local offer is and get some visitors spending. It is just a different angle because not everybody, depends on what sort of demographic they are, but everybody has to do that [eat] and sometimes the only spend that they do when they come is on food and drink, so it is a good way to engage"* (P6).

Elsewhere, P2 stated:

> *"Food is one of the pillars of tourism experience. It plays significant part (…) Food is easy to package and promote a whole city"* (P2).

Other participants noted that food can also help to differentiate destinations from its competitors by marketing unique and differentiated food products. For example, P14 stated that unique food products have been attracting tourists from overseas for many years. The participant provided example of South West and

Cornish afternoon tea or Devon afternoon tea. According to P14, tourists travel to Cornwall to try "*traditional scone and jam and clotted cream*." Moreover, P14 stated:

> *"[food can provide] a cutting edge differentiation from somewhere else (…) by being known as a center of excellence, like Rick Stein is so successful in Padstow (…) He has demonstrated how by putting the food in a destination and doing something that is really great people will go there and that can be true of every place"* (P14).

5.2.9 Suggestions, ideas and recommendations for food and tourism development

Participants once again emphasised the fact that the food product itself needs more attention. In particular, the quality of food was seen as essential. Participants stated that food hygiene ratings and accreditation schemes could ensure the quality, consistency and reliability of food products. What is more, they said that food accreditation schemes would help not only with quality, but would also guarantee the uniqueness which is supposedly desired by tourists, as demonstrated in the quote below:

> *"What about developing a "Taste of Yorkshire" accreditation scheme that recognises the quality assurance of our producers, growers, restaurants, cafés and other food businesses in a way that such a badge of honour becomes recognisable as a quality mark to all who see it?"* (P9).

Moreover, participants stressed the fact that it is necessary to develop pride. They felt that English food still suffers from negative perceptions, not only among international tourists, but also among domestic visitors and residents. Participants stated that formation of stories about food could help people to understand where food comes from and how it is created. They also felt that food stories could improve a sense of belonging and develop local pride. In addition, participants stated that food should be linked with experiences rather than marketed as a standalone product. For example, P7 stated: "*You have got to try to tie the experience to food and that is what works better in destination marketing*".

These findings concur with Morgan, Watson and Hemmington (2008) who argue that for many travellers in various circumstances, it is background stories, such as the source and origins of a particular food, which may appeal more than the food itself. In addition, the findings in this study suggest that food stories play important role not only in achieving uniqueness and difference in destination marketing strategies, but they also potentially link all stakeholders in the destination. For example, one of the participants gave a lengthy answer stating that all members of staff regularly visit farms and suppliers where they "*listen to stories about food*". As such, this helps to create closer relationships among restaurant staff and their suppliers which in turn improves visitor experience by enabling the restaurant staff to deliver "*a true field to plate Yorkshire dining experience*" (P18). Thus, it can be argued here that food stories potentially provide a means of linking together stakeholders in the destination and can help to form much closer and meaningful relationships between them.

The findings above corroborate the ideas of Haven-Tang and Jones (2005), Horng and Tsai (2012a, 2012b) and Sims (2009), who suggested that food conveys stories that reveal some aspects of local culture. In particular, Horng and Tsai (2012a, 2012b) argued that food should be used in destination marketing and branding strategies as a background for storytelling. They emphasised that this should be based on the most representative and popular food product which must be situated in the cultural context of local food for storytelling purposes. Horng and Tsai (2012a) also claimed that such approach can potentially lead to cooperative networks, enhance the relationship among the stakeholders and provide more meaningful food-related experiences. This particular view is supported by Sims (2009) who stated that local food initiatives based on stories can offer an enhanced visitor experience, encourage the development of products and services that boost sustainability and benefit not only visitors, but also residents.

This finding has important implications for the development of an effective and consistent destination marketing strategy which is both culturally and socially informed. This is because, as was emphasised earlier (section 2.3.2.3) destination marketing has been conceptually elevated and regarded with a close connection to broader, more expansive and consequential notions such as these of culture and sustainability. This means that destination marketing should be built on "*assets or associations which uniquely connect a destination to the audience*" (Morgan and Pritchard, 2014, p.414). Thus, within this concept, the local community and residents can help to tell the destination's story. In this sense, destination marketing based on stories can be seen as a tool serving both tourists and residents equally. As a result, destination marketing based on stories can be seen as a form of a more holistic or, as Morgan (2012, p.9) would say, "mindful" approach which DMOs should adopt.

Such an approach was adopted by tourism managers in Australia in the "There is nothing like Australia" campaign launched in 2012 and aimed to promote Australia through social networking (Sanin, 2015). Australians were invited to take part in the campaign by sharing their favourite place or experience, because ultimately, they were seen as the experts on what makes the country unique. They were asked to upload photos to a DMO website and complete the line: "there's nothing like ...". Such involvement on the behalf of residents can be seen as the proof to visitors that the stories are locally based and that they have authentic qualities (Olsson, Therkelsen and Mossberg, 2016). This can also have the potential of contributing to an increased sense of community belonging, cohesion and pride.

Indeed, within recent years, storytelling has gained some attention as a means of competitive destination marketing (Kim and Youn, 2016). For example, De La Barre and Brouder (2013) examined the role of food in the Arctic tourism experience by focussing on the practice of storytelling. They found that following food-related tourism trends developing around the world, the unique attributes of the circumpolar food are being recognised in destination marketing strategies and used to enhance the appeal of northern destinations. In particular, De La Barre and Brouder (2013) reported that as part of destination marketing activities, food was used to embrace the rich storytelling traditions of circumpolar people, both the indigenous people who have always lived with the land, as well as more recent newcomers who have made "the North" their home.

However, destination food stories do not necessarily have to be verbal. One way to create stories is to combine food-related activities to deliver experiences. This is because, active participation in activities could lead to tourists' understanding and appreciating the story beyond simply listening (Pine and Gilmore, 1999). Thus, active participation is important rather than simple and passive consumption (Andersson, 2007; Smith and Xiao, 2008) which was also noted by interview participants: "*people like to get involved and do things*" (P14). In addition to active participation, co-creation and educational aspects of food experiences were also emphasised as important elements.

In addition, participants viewed service as an important aspect of the visitor's experience. Thus, customer service was seen as something that still needs more attention:

> *"Food and drink they are absolutely essential to the visitor's experience, but also the service that goes with it and the welcome that people provide in our food and drink establishments (…) I think it is the two together that is the key and knowing that they are not just serving local residents, that these are people, you know, they are the icing on the cake when it comes to their turnover"* (P4).

Other participant indicated that it is important to give visitors a theatre: "*People now shop online a lot, so it is quite difficult to get people to come to towns, or shops. So you have got to give them theatre"* (P13).

Training was regarded as an important aspect. Participants felt that tourism professionals should be better informed about the availability of food and acquire knowledge regarding the food products and food-related activities. Moreover, participants said that training was also needed among other tourism providers such as for example food suppliers or restaurant staff. Recommendations were made regarding the importance of product knowledge as well as additional training and support with marketing activities, as indicated in the quotes below:

> *"In tourism information offices if you are a stranger and coming to a place (…) you want people to be there who are trained that know where the good restaurants are, where the good pubs are, that can give you a local food experience. Are there any food trails that people could go on?"* (P14);

> *"People really have excellent food and it needs to be supported (…) and not just financially, I mean by education – how they can market their product and bring it to the marketplace"* (P14).

The establishment of partnerships between stakeholders was seen as an approach that could strengthen the impact of an appropriate marketing strategy. According to a number of partcipants (P9, P10, P14), the underlying problem was that there were no real champions and no specific strategy for the development of food-related tourism. In addition, participants felt that food-related stakeholders had not yet grasped the importance of joined approach. Thus, participants stated that there is a need for a food strategy which should be set at the national level and run by the national DMO. Moreover, collaboration and close relationships among stakeholders were also seen as necessary, as demonstrated in the quotes below:

> *"It has to be nationally and joined up thinking within destinations about what are the things that are important to us nationally, what are the things that are important to us regionally and locally"* (P14);

> *"There are too many people, what we feel, just doing their own thing. And the politics does get in the way and personalities get in the way as well. What we are saying is that there is a lot of good stuff going on in here, but if it was more joined up it would be even better. It would be even more on a world stage than we are. Because we have got the potential to be"* (P9).

Moreover, P10 was very passionate about sweeping aside organisational barriers in order to discuss and devise a unified approach to marketing food in Yorkshire:

> *"Sweep aside organisational barriers and boundaries, so that the likes of Welcome to Yorkshire, Make it York, Deliciously Yorkshire, the East Yorkshire Local Food Network, Local Enterprise Partnerships, Yorkshire's food experts from production and retail can sit round a table and collectively discuss how we can all work together for the common good in a unified approach that puts Yorkshire food and drink even more on the map"* (P10).

Access to funds and financial sustainability were also seen as important factors in the strategy playing a crucial role in all types of promotional initiatives geared to promoting food-related tourism.

Lastly, participants believed that visitors have to be provided with information as they enter the country or a specific region or locality, hence points of entry were regarded as crucial. In particular, P14 considered the role of airports and tourist information offices:

> *"The other thing is point of entry; looking at things like airports. You are arriving in Portugal and you see shops at the airport which are about Portuguese food, and that again is getting better in our airports, but one time you could get off a plane in Heathrow or Manchester airport and there was no one food destination-English food shop"* (P14);

> *"Maybe a stand in that tourist information office that showcases some of the local food, so in Bakewell you would expect to see some Derbyshire honey, some Derbyshire cheese"* (P14).

Websites were also mentioned and participants stated that they should be kept up to date. In addition, participants (P14, P16, P17, and P18) proposed that the national DMO should list key food products, so that prospective visitors could get more understanding about them before their arrival. P14 indicated that a list of 10 key foods that are special to the UK should be promoted. However, the participant did not specify what the key 10 foods were. Instead, she wondered:

> *"Maybe a list of 10 key things about the UK that are winning products like for example in France where you would expect to have champagne, their cheeses etc. Things that when you think about France, you think 'Yes! These are the top 10 key things that I want to try!'. What are those things in the UK? What are those products, special things that we want to bring to the marketplace?"* (P14).

In relation to the points of entry, P8 stated that communication is the key, because very often visitors are not aware of what is on offer in destinations:

> *"Yorkshire produces some of the best food in the country, however people are not aware of how much we have got on offer. From beef to buffalo, cheese to chorizo, lemongrass to lemon tart ice cream. The county has been world famous for its rhubarb for many years, and there are Yorkshire folk now growing produce that would normally be associated with warmer climates such as tomatoes, peppers and lemongrass. There is even a variety of garlic that is only grown here in Yorkshire, called*

> *Yorkshire Garlic. <u>So it is about communication letting people know what is happening</u> [emphasis added by the author] in different parts of Sheffield, not just Kelham Island, but also Abbedydale Road (the Antiques Quarter)"* (P8).

The initiatives and actions proposed by the participants for food and tourism development are displayed in Appendix 23 and Appendix 24.

5.3 Chapter conclusion

Chapter 5 presented the results of the semi-structured interviews conducted with two stakeholder groups: DMO executives and senior staff as well as industry experts. This chapter also discussed the main findings of this study in relation to the issues identified in the literature review and practical implications that they present. The outcomes of this chapter are central to the objective four of this study. Several findings emerged from the data and helped to explain and interpret the initial findings from the first phase of this research during which qualitative content analysis on a number of DMO websites was undertaken.

As presented in this chapter, interview findings indicated that there is an ongoing confusion and ambiguity not only over the basic functions of DMOs, but also over their work remit. What is more, in addition to the issues and challenges facing DMOs which were already noted in the literature review, interview findings indicate difficulties in partnership work between DMOs and food-based organisations. Industry stakeholders appeared to have no confidence in the work of DMOs, while DMO representatives stated that they find it difficult to work and engage with food sector businesses.

Interviews also indicated that socio-cultural changes, impacts of ICTs and the emergence of the experience economy all contribute to the ongoing trend of increased interest in and demand for food-related tourism which plays a vital role in destination marketing. Participants believed that food in urban destinations reflects the demand for variety, as well as the cosmopolitan and multicultural nature of urban places. However, it was identified that this could lead to increasing sameness across urban destinations rather than uniqueness and difference. Food in rural destinations on the other hand, was described as "a part of the jigsaw puzzle of the place" which links other elements in the destination: its landscape, culture, heritage and traditions, and other tourism activities.

Although all participants were confident that "local" food is of increasing importance to destinations, the interviews indicated that there is no single agreed definition over what counts as local. This chapter also outlined a range of opportunities and challenges associated with using food in destination marketing. In addition, suggestions, ideas and recommendations for food and tourism development were also defined.

To conclude, the findings of the semi-structured interviews provided in-depth information associated with the use of food in destination marketing. The next chapter, Chapter 6, brings together the findings of Chapters 4 and 5 and summarises them to respond to the research objectives of this study that were outlined in Chapter 1.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to explore the use of food in destination marketing at selected destinations, to address this gap in knowledge surrounding this matter, and to develop recommendations for destination marketers and other industry stakeholders to assist in planning and utilising food as a cultural resource more effectively at the destination level. This aim was explored through qualitative content analysis of DMO websites as well as semi-structured interviews with DMO representatives and “industry experts”.

The study commenced with a review of the literature relevant to food-related tourism and destination marketing. The review, as provided in Chapter 2, was undertaken to establish the current state of knowledge and determine to what extent gaps in the knowledge existed. Whilst the importance of food in tourism has been increasingly acknowledged by DMOs and researchers alike, there appears to be a relative lack of studies exploring the use of food as an element in destination marketing in European destinations. What is more, while there has been an expansion in the number of food-related tourism activities, there has been no recent, detailed study on the current use of food as a component in destination marketing activities in selected destinations. Therefore, the results of the literature review directed the focus of the study towards an exploration of the current use of food in destination marketing in a number of destinations, with a focus on the region of Yorkshire.

The study applied a two stage approach, as described in Chapter 3, consisting of the qualitative content analysis at stage 1 and semi-structured interviews at stage 2. The findings of the research have been reported in detail in Chapters 4 and 5.

Based on the findings and their discussion (Chapter 4 and 5), it was established that while DMOs’ work remit is changing and moving beyond the visitor economy, at the same time, DMOs face a range of problems in terms of their operations ranging from financial struggles to more complex challenges characterised by increasing mobilities and uptake of social media. In particular, clear differences were noted in the marketing of food in rural and urban areas, potentially reflecting cultural homogenisation and heterogenisation. The results of this study also indicate that the concept of “local” food still appears to be vague and ambiguous despite the increasing use of “local” food in destination marketing. Lastly, the findings suggest that collaboration and close relationships among stakeholders, or the lack of thereof, were seen as the most important areas of focus to achieve success regarding the development and implementation of food in destination marketing activities. Thus, this study suggested that food stories can act as vehicles for more inclusive and well-coordinated destination marketing practices.

This final chapter reflects on the research approach developed and applied (Chapter 3) that was employed to address the main research aim and objectives (section 1.3). The discussion proceeds with the relationships amongst the aim of the study, research objectives, and the major findings. This chapter also outlines the contributions made to the academic knowledge based on the findings (Chapter 4 and 5). Lastly, limitations of this research and recommendations for future endeavours are outlined.

6.2 Review of the overall goal and objectives of this study in relation to the key findings

This section is devoted to describing how the findings revealed in the work presented here have addressed the aim of the study and the research objectives. Table 29 (p.249) illustrates the main points which are going to be discussed in more detail in the following.

> **RO1: To explore the literature on food and destination marketing. This will contribute to setting the context for the research and identify gaps in the academic knowledge.**

In order to develop the conceptual framework, a literature review was undertaken by examination of prior research and theory related to the use of food in destination marketing (Chapter 2). Firstly, the literature review outlined the increasingly important role of food as an element in destination marketing. It was explained that food, as one of the cultural products, is increasingly employed in destination marketing activities, demonstrating that this type of approach is gathering momentum in destination marketing. However, the literature review revealed that although there have been numerous studies on marketing tourism destinations, the empirical evidence on how food is utilised in tourism and destination marketing is still relatively scarce (Lee and Scott, 2015; Okumus et al., 2007).

Secondly, the review of the destination marketing literature in Chapter 2 presented the evolution of the literature, covering its historical and recent developments. Moreover, it described the development of the destination marketing literature from merely an economic perspective (phase 1) towards destination branding (phase 2) and more cultural and sustainable destination marketing practices (phase 3). It was acknowledged that as a growing area of study developing over a period of 40 years (Pike, 2016), the destination marketing literature is still evolving. Hence, this research found that the extant theory remains fragmented based on the lack of established terminology to describe its various associated phenomena, which puzzles academics and practitioners alike (Skinner, 2008 p.45).

RO2: To create a conceptual framework to guide the research and justify the case study chosen having drawn upon the literature review and identified potential research gaps.

Having drawn upon the literature review, it was noted that there has been a relative lack of studies exploring the use of food as a destination marketing tool and the utilisation of food as an element of destination marketing in European destinations, and in England, in particular. This supplied a justification for the utilisation of a case study. In order to fill these gaps, the present PhD study identified a need to focus on the exploration of food as an element in destination marketing across a number of destinations in the region of Yorkshire, England.
Taking into consideration the literature review and having identified potential research gaps, a conceptual framework was developed (section 2.4). In essence, the conceptual framework provided a diagrammatic illustration of the key areas and their interrelationships in the food and tourism destination marketing process. It consisted of two major components: destination marketing and product. It offered a visual representation of the interlinked concepts that, taken together, provided a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. Therefore, it was created to be explorative and descriptive in nature rather than explanatory.

Table 29. Fulfilment of the research objectives (source: author)

Aim: to explore the use of food in destination marketing in selected destinations and to develop recommendations for destination marketers and other industry stakeholders to assist in planning and utilising food as a cultural resource more effectively at the destination level.			
Research objective	**How was it achieved?**	**Outcomes**	**Chapter reference**
RO1: To explore the literature on food and destination marketing. This will contribute to setting the context for the research and identify gaps in the academic knowledge.	A literature review was undertaken by examination of prior research and theory related to the use of food in destination marketing. This included an exploration of the relationship between food and tourism and a review of the destination marketing literature.	The review uncovered the gaps in the knowledge. Whilst the importance of food in tourism has been increasingly acknowledged by DMOs and researchers alike, there has been a relative lack of studies exploring the use of food as a destination marketing tool and the utilisation of food as a destination attraction in European destinations. There has also been an expansion in the number of food-related tourism activities in England, but no previous detailed study on the current use of food as a destination marketing tool in selected destinations. In addition, the literature review indicated the changing nature of destination marketing and DMOs. Therefore, the results of the literature review directed the focus of this study.	Chapter 2
RO2: To create a conceptual framework to guide the research and justify the case study chosen having drawn upon the literature review and identified potential research gaps.	Following the literature review, the conceptual framework was designed to bind the knowledge and form a context to assist the researcher understand the phenomenon under investigation.	The conceptual framework provided a visual representation of interlinked concepts that, taken together, offer a comprehensive account of the phenomenon under investigation. Thus, the proposed conceptual framework should be viewed as explorative and descriptive in nature rather than explanative. The conceptual framework consisted of two major components: destination marketing and product. It demonstrated that the foundations of destination marketing are based on policy and strategy that enable the execution of the activities involved in marketing of food in destination marketing.	Chapter 2
RO3: To explore how food is promoted on the official DMO websites of selected destinations in Yorkshire, England.	Qualitative content analysis was undertaken with four DMO websites at regional and local levels.	The findings indicated that although all of the websites analysed promoted food, not every destination had fully and effectively utilised the potential of food as an element in their destination marketing. Clear differences were noted in the marketing of food in rural and urban destinations. The findings also highlighted that food was consistently promoted as “local”. Thus, a range of implications for interviews emerged as a result of the content analysis.	Chapter 3 and 4

RO4: To investigate and identify stakeholders' opinions regarding the use of food in destination marketing in the selected DMOs.	19 semi-structured interviews were carried out with DMO representatives and industry experts to capture data regarding the perceptions of food in destination marketing.	The interview findings indicated that there was an ongoing discussion and ambiguity not only surrounding the basic functions of DMOs, but also based on their work remit. In addition, a range of challenges facing DMOs was identified. Participants believed that while food in urban destinations reflects the demand for variety as well as a multicultural nature of urban places, this could lead to increasing sameness. Food in rural destinations was described as "a part of the jigsaw puzzle of the place", which links other elements in the destination. Participants were confident that "local" food was of increasing importance to destinations, but the interviews indicated that there was no single agreed-upon definition of what counted as local. Furthermore, a range of opportunities and challenges associated with using food in destination marketing was also identified in addition to suggestions, ideas, and recommendations for food and tourism development.	Chapter 3 and 5
RO5: To identify theoretical and practical guidelines and recommendations to assist planning for the use of food as a cultural resource more effectively at the destination level.	The initiatives and actions proposed by the participants for food and tourism development were outlined in the interview findings. This was further elaborated upon in the discussion section.	The guidelines and recommendations assisting in planning and utilising food as a cultural resource more effectively at the destination level were identified. The findings of this study suggested that collaboration and close relationships amongst stakeholders along with the lack thereof were seen as the most important areas of focus to achieve success regarding the development and implementation of food in destination marketing activities. Accordingly, this study suggested that food stories can act as vehicles for more inclusive and well-coordinated destination marketing practices. This has important implications for the development of an effective and consistent destination marketing strategy that is both culturally and socially informed.	Chapter 5 and 6

RO3: To explore how food is promoted on the official DMO websites of selected destinations in Yorkshire, England.

The rationale for undertaking qualitative content analysis was presented in Chapter 3 alongside detailed information regarding the data collection and data analysis process. Validity and reliability were also acknowledged. The findings of the qualitative content analysis were presented in a descriptive format in Chapter 4. It was reported that not every destination had fully and effectively utilised the potential of food as an element in their destination marketing. Furthermore, clear differences were recognised in the marketing of food in rural and urban destinations. In rural areas, food was shown as rooted in the environment and culture of a destination and reinforced by its local traditions while urban destinations had an international focus in the marketing of food and tended to promote similar standardised marketing messages. It was also reported that food was mostly promoted as “local”. Thus, the findings of the qualitative content analysis provided a foundation for interviews.

RO4: To investigate and identify stakeholders’ opinions regarding the use of food in destination marketing in the selected DMOs.

The rationale and justification for carrying out the semi-structured interviews were presented in Chapter 3. This included a description of the sampling technique applied and the basis for undertaking interviews with DMO executives and senior staff as well as industry experts. Data collection and data analysis processes were also elaborated upon. Additionally, data quality issues were considered along with the specific measures pursued to ensure interview rigour.

The outcomes of the semi-structured interviews were presented in Chapter 5. The interview findings indicated that there was an ongoing confusion and ambiguity not only surrounding the basic functions of DMOs, but also over their remit. In particular, there appeared to be a shift from marketing towards management, which signifies the broader scope of DMOs’ work than just an orientation towards the visitor economy. In addition, the interview findings suggested there were difficulties in partnership work between DMOs and food-based organisations. Industry stakeholders appeared to have no confidence in the work of DMOs, while DMO representatives stated that they find it difficult to work and engage with food sector businesses.

Moreover, the interviews indicated that socio-cultural changes, the impacts of ICTs, and the experience economy contributed to the ongoing trend in food-related tourism, which plays a vital role in destination marketing. Urban areas were described as cosmopolitan and multicultural with a need for variety. However, it was acknowledged that this could lead to increasing sameness across urban places. Meanwhile, food in rural areas was seen as “a part of the jigsaw puzzle of the place”, linking other elements in the destination: its landscape, culture, traditions, and other tourism activities.

The interview findings also underscored that there was no agreed-upon definition of “local” food. In addition, a range of opportunities and challenges associated with using food in destination marketing were established as well as suggestions, ideas, and recommendations for food and tourism development.

RO5: To identify theoretical and practical guidelines and recommendations to assist planning for the use of food as a cultural resource more effectively at the destination level.

The guidelines and recommendations to aid in the planning of the use of food as a cultural resource more effectively at the destination level were outlined (section 5.2.9). In view of the increasingly important role of food, this study has identified the activities of cooperation and networking among the public and private sectors as a pre-requisite for the effective implementation of food in destination marketing activities. However, the participants in this study felt that these areas still require more attention and the findings herein indicate difficulties in the partnership between DMOs and food-based organisations.

As collaboration and close relationships among stakeholders, as well as the lack of thereof, were seen as the most important areas of focus in order to achieve success regarding the development and implementation of food in destination marketing activities, this study suggests that stories can act as vehicles for more inclusive and well-coordinated destination marketing practices. This is because interview participants claimed that food stories have a significant part not only in achieving uniqueness and difference in destination marketing strategies, but they also potentially link all stakeholders of the destination. This recommendation has important implications for the development of an effective and consistent destination marketing strategy that is both culturally and socially informed. This is particularly important because destination marketing has been conceptually elevated and regarded with a close connection to broader, more expansive and consequential notions, such as those of culture and sustainability.

Accordingly, it was suggested that food stories can serve as vehicles for more inclusive and well-coordinated destination marketing practices. This particular perspective is supported by a number of tourism scholars that advocate food initiatives based on stories can offer not only an enhanced visitor experience, but can also encourage the development of products and services that boost sustainability and benefit not only visitors, but residents, as well. Furthermore, it was suggested that destination food stories do not necessarily have to be verbal – active participation in activities could lead to tourists' understanding and appreciating the story beyond simply listening.

The following section describes contributions to the knowledge this study has made.

6.3 Contributions of the study

Throughout this study, the central focus was on the role of food as an element of destination marketing, thereby placing this study concurrently in the field of destination marketing and food tourism. As food, however, reflects culture, the work presented here is also of interest in the field of cultural and heritage tourism practitioners and researchers. Particular contributions of this study are listed and then discussed in more detail below.

1. While most previous studies have been dominated by Asian perspectives, this study approaches the matter from the under-researched European perspective. In addition, the study focuses on the under-researched supply-side of tourism, not the demand-side.

It was noted in the literature review (section 2.2.3) that there has been a relative lack of studies exploring the use of food as a destination marketing tool and the utilisation of food as a destination attraction in European destinations. Specifically, most research on DMO websites has been dominated by Asian perspectives. This, hence, raised the question of the applicability of the findings of non-Western-based research to Western markets and thus represented a gap in the existing knowledge. It was explained that research on food-related tourism marketing via official DMO websites is especially limited in Western context. Therefore, this study explored this research gap and contributed to knowledge in this area by focusing on a number of destinations. In particular, this study added to the knowledge by evaluating the role of food in destination promotion on the supply-side. As noted, the majority of studies have investigated the promotional issues of food-related tourism from the demand-side, concentrating on visitors' and tourists' perspectives. With the adoption of a different research perspective, i.e., from the supply-side, it is suggested that the current study assists in filling the existing research gaps.

To date, this is the first piece of formal research on food and destination marketing across a number of destinations in Yorkshire, England. Although a similar study was conducted by Boyne, Hall, and Williams (2003), their scope was limited to evaluation of food-related tourism initiatives in the UK promoted on official tourism websites. Further, Boyne, Hall, and Williams (2003) did not conduct interviews with industry stakeholders, unlike the present study. At the time of writing, Boyne, Hall, and Williams (2003) stated that food and gastronomy-related tourism initiatives were at an early stage of the product development life cycle in the UK and, consequently, food initiatives were not suitably represented on the websites of their respective official local tourist boards. Given that nearly 15 years have passed since then, the current study provides up-to-date information on the current use of food as a destination marketing tool in English destinations. As presented here, over the last decade, there has been an expansion in the number of food-based tourism activities in England and elsewhere. This has highlighted a need for more information on this phenomenon, and this study therefore makes a noteworthy and timely contribution to this end by developing the corpus of knowledge on the topic.

2. This study established that there is no definition of “local” food and proposed four key dimensions of “local” food, as identified from the content analysis, interviews along with the review of the academic and industry literatures.

The current study found that destination marketing efforts appear to be concentrated on the marketing of “local” food products and “local” food experiences. This finding is consistent with those of other studies, according to which “local” food is becoming increasingly more prominent in destination marketing. However, as previously outlined in section 4.3, despite a recent increase in the number of studies on local food and tourism, it was observed that certain basic and fundamental tenets have not yet been established. In particular, this study identified that there had been no precise definition for the term “local” food. The most striking result to arise from this investigation was that the term ”local” food, appeared to be used very widely and loosely, but in many ways which defy definition. Thus, the increasing utilisation of “local” food in destination marketing adds to this lack of clarity and general confusion. Based on the findings from the content analysis, interviews, and the review of the academic and industry literatures, this study contributed to the knowledge by identifying four key dimensions of “local” food: “local in”, “cultural”, “socio-economic”, and “local to”.

3. This work supplies empirical evidence and discusses the changing remit of DMOs and the challenges they face in providing value to consumers and stakeholders.

This study explored the question of whether DMOs are redundant or not, and supplied empirical evidence on the changing nature of DMOs, the role which they play, and the challenges they face in providing value to consumers and stakeholders. In particular, the changing remit of DMOs was established – they are required to market and manage destinations not only as places to visit, but also as places in which to live, study, and do business. At the same time, the results suggested that DMOs are very limited in terms of what they can undertake and achieve for a destination, based on inadequate control of resources, but also owing to complex and worsening financial circumstances. The discussion also suggested that there is a range of more complex issues as tourism continues to move towards a more liquid form that is characterised by increased mobilities, and the rising uptake of social media. Thus, the question of whether the DMO, as a static and territorially-fixed tool to organise tourism, is on a path to redundancy was evaluated.

4. Methodologically speaking, this study applied a two-step data collection procedure that can be reapplied in future studies.

In particular, as was identified earlier (section 1.2), most previous studies have tended to evaluate the utilisation of food by destinations either through the analysis of official destination booklets, brochures, and websites (Boyne et al., 2003; Horng and Tsai, 2010; Jalis et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2009; Okumus et al., 2007; Okumus et al., 2013), through interviews or surveys with destination marketers (Harrington and Ottenbacher, 2010), or the combination of both (Du Rand et al., 2003; Du Rand and Heath, 2006; Horng and Tsai, 2012a; Horng and Tsai, 2012b; Lin et al., 2011). Thus, although the research methods of this study were not new, they have been combined in novel ways that only a few studies have done previously. Consequently, this study established a two-step data collection procedure that can be reapplied in future work.

As was explained earlier, during the first phase, qualitative content analysis was undertaken. This approach was informed by a number of previous content analysis studies of websites and brochures with a focus on food in tourism. In particular, this study noted that in recent years, an increasing number of investigations in the tourism field employed content analysis. However, while there are several different recommendations for how to ensure reliability and validity of quantitative content analysis, herein, it was discovered that this is not the case for qualitative content analysis. Hence, this study featured a more focused discussion on the quality of qualitative content analysis and established two strategies to ensure credibility and the methodological rigour of qualitative content analysis: thick, rich description (Creswell and Miller, 2000) and expert consensual validation from others (Brink, 1993). Moreover, the process of content analysis raised a number of interesting issues and questions to be further explored which were used as the foundation for the semi-structured interviews (phase 2). This permitted more focused research, which, in turn, contributed to detailed data that led to a rich portrayal of the use of food in destination marketing.

In spite of the contributions of this study, it is also important to identify the limitations and need for future research as will be dealt with in the following sections.

6.4 Limitations

This study has ventured into an area of research which is still relatively new. To manage this challenge, a two-stage data collection approach was applied based on qualitative content analysis and semi-structured interviews in order to generate in-depth information on the use of food as an element in destination marketing across a number of destinations in Yorkshire, England. However, certain constraints limited the potential outcomes of this work, and simultaneously created additional opportunities for future research. Thus, the findings of this study are subject to practical, methodological, and theoretical limitations. These are presented subsequently.

First of all, this study has branched into an area of research which is still relatively new with no established theoretical or conceptual frameworks, as most of the literature is still grappling with food-related tourism as a new form of tourism for destinations (Du Rand and Heath, 2006; Henderson, 2009; Lee and Scott, 2015; Okumus et al., 2007). Therefore, a conceptual framework (section 2.4) derived from the literature was constructed to guide the research, and whilst it may have its limitations, it was seen as appropriate based on the qualitative nature of this research not being intended to test a theoretical framework. However, it is fundamental to recognise that the conceptual framework developed in this study may be restricted and that through future testing of the conclusions and findings of this study, new conceptual models may emerge. In addition, this study sought to investigate a distinct phenomenon characterised by a lack of detailed primary research, thus the exploratory case study strategy was adopted. This hence prevents the work from being fully explanatory.

Secondly, as described and justified in Chapter 3, based on time and resource constraints, it was simply infeasible to apply a multi-case study design. Hence, the research herein adopted a single case approach which, unfortunately, limits this work, though simultaneously opens up avenues for further scholarly investigation in the future. However, even though this research adopted a single case study approach, the decision was made to include multiple units of analysis so as to provide a more in-depth approach. Nevertheless, there are still various limitations with this in mind.

The specific context of this single embedded case study possibly limits the applicability of the findings to other countries or tourist destinations. Hence, there is a possibility that the results from this work may not apply directly to other places, such as countries under different circumstances (for example, developed vs. developing countries or countries with a strong food reputation, like France or Italy). What is more, it is also likely that the structure and role of DMOs may vary according to divergent political regimes. However, whilst generalising the findings of this study was not the intent, further case studies in other destinations could be executed to further appraise not only the findings of this study, but also the tools that were developed here.

Thirdly, this study predominantly utilised a qualitative research strategy. While each research strategy has its own unique limitations, qualitative research strategies are often criticised for their potential for research bias and subjectivity that may prejudice the types of questions asked and the data analysed by the researcher. However, to ensure validity and reliability of content analysis and interviews, this work adopted a number of different approaches, such as thick, rich description, expert consensual validation from others, and inter-coder reliability check, just as was described earlier (sections 3.5.3, and 3.6.4). In addition, the interview questions were developed directly from the content analysis and literature (Table 21 in section 3.6.2). Furthermore, data coding was facilitated with NVivo 10, which ensured a more effective and organised process.

A fourth limitation was the scope of this project – this study did not address the question of demand. However, as noted in Chapter 1, most of the earlier studies concentrated on the demand-side, which is arguably, at present, the most common approach to the exploration of food in destination marketing. A series of complementary studies could be undertaken to deal with aspects of visitor characteristics and their perceptions of food as an element in destination marketing.

It is believed that the aforementioned limitations do not detract from the strengths of this study, but, in fact, do provide a platform for future research which will be addressed in the following section.

6.5 Future research

In addition to the contributions and limitations of this study outlined, this section suggests a number of recommendations for future research.

Most of the previous research on the role of food in destination marketing was conducted from the demand-side, however, as demonstrated in the present study, there is little knowledge regarding this phenomenon in the specific context of Yorkshire, England. Thus, the opinions from tourists and visitors (demand-side) would be beneficial and add more understanding to the research topic. Food choices, not only in tourism but also in general, result from a complex set of circumstances, including factors such as age, gender, religion, socio-cultural background, and nationality (Meethan, 2015). Therefore, it is important to explore how these are perceived and acted on, which would help establish how tourists perceive and consume food products as well as their food preferences and the importance that they attach to the availability of food. This will potentially provide information on the value of food as a promotional tool for destinations and gauge future food-related destination marketing strategies.

Research is also required to grasp the food-related needs of different tourist groups, like, for example, international visitors, and how best to offer food-related experiences that contribute to the overall enjoyment of their stay. This will supply deeper insights into the viability of linking food and tourism and the usefulness of food as a marketing tool for the tourism industry. Future studies may apply netnography and utilise social media, such as Trip Advisor, Facebook, Twitter, and blogs, to obtain comments surrounding and learn about the food-related experiences of tourists when they visit tourist destinations. Photos uploaded by tourists that portray food and food-related experiences in a destination could also be content analysed in future research. This would help to evaluate tourists' positive and negative perceptions of food and recognise both the strengths and weaknesses in the promotion of food in destination marketing.

Additionally, the perspectives of local communities on integrating food-related tourism activities into the wider umbrella of destination marketing activities need to be explored. Such research could identify the potential of food-related activities that involve local communities being linked to tourism and gauging locals' willingness to participate in broader destination marketing food-related activities.

Future studies could also explore the issues of stakeholder collaboration and partnership to comprehend in greater depth, for example, how to better incorporate stakeholders 'expectations into the destination marketing process for partnership and networking purposes and activities. It is also vital to understand the degree of satisfaction of members of DMOs, what influences their satisfaction, and why some potential members are not involved. Initially, a survey of stakeholders is suggested. This could be followed up with semi-structured interviews specifically designed to elicit a deeper understanding of the practicalities and constraints that may be faced by DMO members and non-members. It would be useful if future studies could involve a researcher as part of a DMO team to experience the entire process of integrating food into destination marketing strategies. This would allow a researcher to observe the dynamics between various stakeholders, especially at the planning stage. In addition, this would serve as an opportunity for future research to identify and examine the social networks between the various stakeholders. However, it has to be noted that this may not be feasible for a single researcher unless they are able to undertake an ethnographic study with long-term immersion in the process.

The current study found that destination marketing efforts appear to be focused on the marketing of “local” food products and “local” food experiences. This finding is consistent with those of other studies (for example, Bessiere, 1998; Kim et al., 2009; Mak, Lumbers, Eves and Chang, 2012; Tellstrom et al., 2005) according to which “local” food is becoming increasingly more prominent in destination marketing. However, in light of the lack of definition and ambiguity over what counts as “local”, as revealed in this study, more research is necessary to investigate visitors' and residents' perceptions of “local” food. This would yield greater insights into the motivations to consume local food and factors influencing consumption of local food products.

The research findings indicated that food-related tourism has a number of positive characteristics associated with sustainable development: economic benefits remain within the local economy, food-related tourism has the environmental advantage of reducing food miles, and in terms of socio-cultural benefits, food products and dishes may have positive effects on local residents' sense of community as well as potentially enhancing tourists' understanding of the destination. Therefore, it can be argued that food-related tourism can play a significant role in contributing to destination's sustainability goals and help secure the '"triple bottom line" of economic, social, and environmental sustainability. Hence, the role of food as a tool for sustainable tourism and destination development is another area offering possibilities for extensive research.

Moreover, the work presented here has suggested that food stories can act as vehicles for more inclusive and well-coordinated destination marketing practices. This finding has important implications for the development of an effective and consistent destination marketing strategy that is both culturally and socially informed. However, it must be noted that while recent advances in the marketing field indicate the importance of stories (Woodside 2010), research is scarce on this topical area within tourism. In particular, the design and delivery of destination food stories to effectively attract tourists have not been discussed. To address this shortcoming, more research is required.

Lastly, as this research concentrated on exploring one region of one country, it is therefore recommended that future studies should be conducted in other destination contexts and/or cultural settings.

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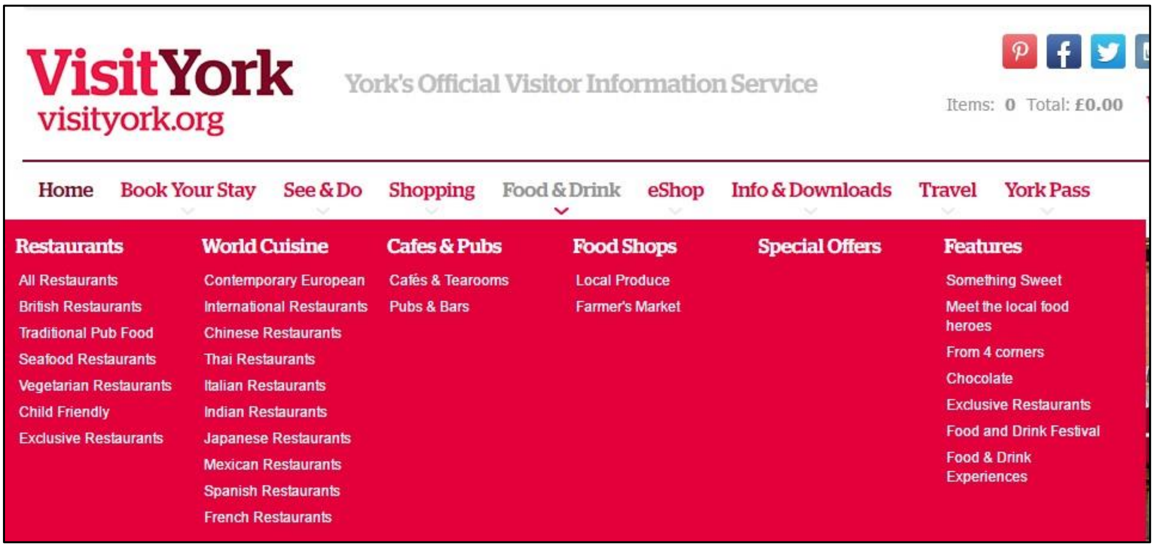
Appendices

Appendix 1. Photos used during the interviews



From the Four Corners

York has something to satisfy every craving. If you fancy food from further afield, we have restaurants offering Nepalese curries, Mexican fiestas or even delicious Spanish tapas. Cuisine from around the world – all in one city!

Featured International Restaurants

Côte Brasserie

Bon appétit: Fine French cuisine is yours at Côte Brasserie.

Byron

A taste of America: Byron – Proper Hamburgers serves up fresh Scottish beef in a soft, squishy bun.

Kapadokya

Turkish delight: Kapadokya's open charcoal cooking creates wonderful, smoky flavours.

Appendix 2. The participant information sheet

INFORMATION ABOUT THIS STUDY AND YOUR PARTICIPATION

Title of Project: Food in destination marketing: an exploratory case study of England.
Name of researcher: Anna Stalmirska
Project supervisors: Dr Peter Whalley and Dr Paul Fallon

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide whether or not to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully.

Purpose of this research

This research is carried out as part of a PhD degree undertaken at Sheffield Hallam University. The purpose of the research is to understand the role of food in England tourism at national, regional and local levels.

How are people chosen to be asked to be part of the study?

Participants in the study are selected based on relevant industry experience, expertise and position and include hospitality and tourism representatives, contacts and officials.

Do I have to take part?

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason.

What happens in the study?

Participants are invited to take part in an interview process consisting of about 20 questions to gather your thoughts and views on the use of food in destination marketing.

The interview will probably last about 40 minutes, depending on how much time you have available and how much information you want to share. I will audio record the interview with your permission. The recordings will be written up in the form of transcript.

Will my information be kept confidential?

All of data you provide will be kept highly secure and confidential from others. The researcher and Sheffield Hallam University will comply with the Data Protection Act (UK) 1998.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

The information that participants provide will be analysed and used to complete a doctoral thesis, aspects of which may result in publication. It is hoped that participants will enjoy the interview process.

What are the potential risks of participating in this project?

There are no expected risks from participation. Your participation in the questionnaire survey is voluntary. If you think you would like to withdraw or not answer certain questions, you may do so and it will not affect you directly or indirectly whatsoever.

How do I join the study?

Please complete the consent to participation form and return to the researcher, Anna Stalmirska, by email:a.stalmirska@shu.ac.uk

What are the costs of participating in the project?

There are no direct costs attached to participating in this project, however, the interview will require about one hour of your time.

Who has reviewed the study?

The research has been approved by the University Research Ethics Committee, Sheffield Hallam University.

Researcher

Anna Stalmirska

PhD student at Sheffield Hallam University

E-mail: a.stalmirska@shu.ac.uk

Project Supervisors

Dr Peter Whalley (PhD supervisor), Sheffield Hallam University

Dr Paul Fallon (PhD supervisor), Sheffield Hallam University

Thank you for reading this information sheet, and if it is possible, participating in the study.

May 2016

Appendix 3. The consent form

Title of Project: Food in destination marketing: an exploratory case study of England.

Name of researcher: Anna Stalmirska

Project supervisors: Dr Peter Whalley and Dr Paul Fallon

	Please initial box
1. I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for the above study.	☐
2. I confirm that I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the study.	☐
3. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving reason.	☐
4. I confirm that I have been given full information regarding the aims of the research and have been given information with the Researcher's names on and a contact number and address if I require further information.	☐
5. I agree to take part in the above study.	☐

Please tick box

	Yes	No
6. I agree to the interview being audio recorded.	☐	☐
7. I agree to the use of anonymised quotes in publications.	☐	☐

"This study has been explained to me to my satisfaction, and I agree to take part. I understand that I am free to withdraw at any time."

Name of Participant	Date	Signature

Name of Researcher	Date	Signature

Researcher contact details: Anna Stalmirska, Sheffield Hallam University, email address: A.Stalmirska@shu.ac.uk

Appendix 4. DMO interview schedule

<u>Steps prior to the interview:</u>

- Confirm that the interviewee is comfortable.
- Confirm that the interviewee has read the “Information to Participants” and has signed the “Consent Form”.
- Re-state the objectives and the intended research outcomes. Ask if the participant is happy to go ahead with the interview.
- Ask permission to record the interview.
- Turn on voice recorder after explaining that the responses and recording will remain confidential.

0. Professional status
The background, number of years’ experience and professional capacity

1. The professional status and responsibilities within the DMO
2. Number of years in the tourism industry

1.0 The understanding and scope of destination marketing in practice

3. DMO: Marketing or Management?
4. DMO Strategy Plan
5. The main challenges in destination marketing
6. Has destination marketing changed over the last decade?

2.0 Food in tourism

7. Views on food as a tourist attraction?
    a. What do you think about food as a tourist attraction in England?
8. The value of food-related tourism
9. English cuisine and food culture
10. What kind of experience can food provide to visitors?
11. Food and culture. How does food reflect culture?

3.0 Strategies that are employed to promote food in destination marketing

12. How does your organisation view the role of food in the marketing of (destination)?
13. Why do you use food in the marketing of (destination)?
14. How important is food in your destination marketing?
15. Do you have a specific food marketing strategy/food campaigns?
16. Working with “food stakeholders” (food producers, festival organisers, restaurant owners etc)?

17. Working in partnership with other DMOs to promote food.

4.0 Food marketing: local vs global

18. "Local" food: definition, importance in tourism and destination marketing
19. Marketing of international cuisines in urban areas
    a. Marketing of everything approach? Increasing sameness?
20. Views on Bradford as England's Curry Capital

5.0 Opportunities, challenges and suggestions

21. What you perceive to be the greatest opportunities associated with the use of food in destination marketing?
22. What you perceive to be the greatest challenges associated with the use of food in destination marketing?
23. Suggestions regarding the development, organisation and marketing of food in England and/or (destination)?
24. Any other comments?

Appendix 5. Industry experts interview schedule

<u>Steps prior to the interview:</u>

- Confirm that the interviewee is comfortable.
- Confirm that the interviewee has read the “Information to Participants” and has signed the “Consent Form”.
- Re-state the objectives and the intended research outcomes. Ask if the participant is happy to go ahead with the interview.
- Ask permission to record the interview.
- Turn on voice recorder after explaining that the responses and recording will remain confidential.

0.0 Professional status, business

The background, number of years’ experience and professional capacity of each interviewee

1. The professional status/title?
2. How many years in the food and/or tourism industry?

2.0 Food in tourism

3. Views on food as a tourist attraction?
    a. What do you think about food as a tourist attraction in England?
4. English cuisine and food culture
5. What kind of experience can food provide to visitors?
6. Food and culture. How does food reflect culture?

3.0 Strategies that are employed to promote food in destination marketing

7. How does your organisation view the role of food in the marketing of (destination)?
8. How important is food in the marketing of (destination)?
9. Awareness of any specific food marketing strategy/food campaigns?
10. Working with any other organisations or “food stakeholders” to promote food (food producers, festival organisers, restaurant owners etc)?
11. Working in partnership with DMOs to promote food.

4.0 Food marketing: local vs global

12. “Local” food: definition, importance in tourism and destination marketing
13. The importance of “local” food and “local” food experiences in (name of the place)?

14. Why do you provide “local” food?
15. Marketing of international cuisines in urban areas
    a. Marketing of everything approach? Increasing sameness?
16. Views on Bradford as England’s Curry Capital

5.0 DMO marketing

17. The greatest opportunities associated with the use of food in destination (place) marketing?
18. The greatest challenges associated with the use of food in destination (place) marketing?
19. Suggestions/recommendations regarding the development, and marketing of food in England and or (name of the place)?
20. Any other comments?

Appendix 6. Interview summary form following each interview
Location:

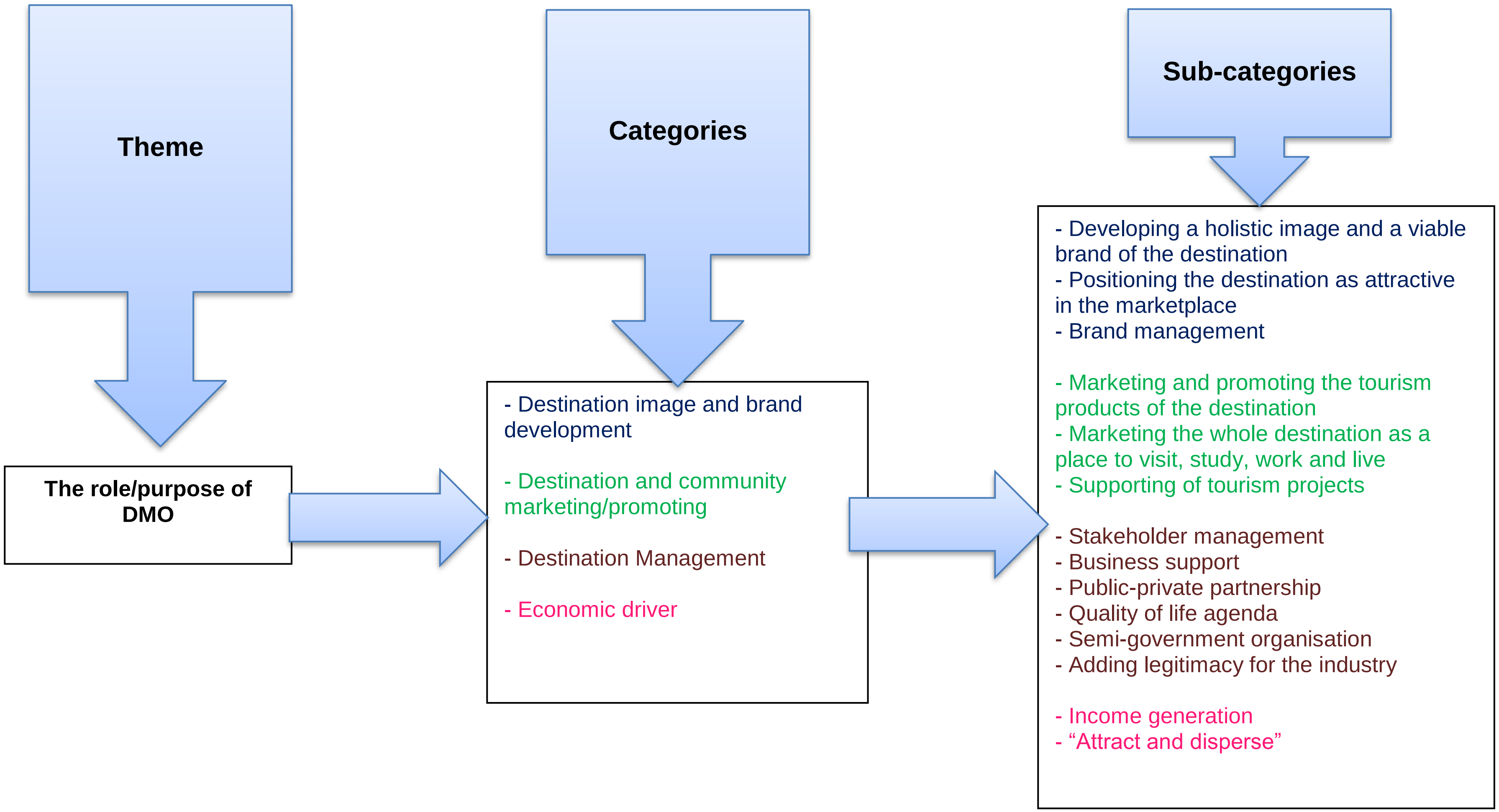
Participant:

Date:

1. How would I describe the atmosphere and context of the interview (e.g. was I able to establish a good rapport)?
2. What were the main points made by the participant during this interview?
3. What new information did I gain through this interview compared to previous interviews?

4. Was there anything surprising? Or was there something that made me think differently?
5. Any ideas for new questions for the next interview?
6. Any problems with the questions (e.g. wording, order of topics, missing topics) during this interview?

Appendix 7. The role/purpose of DMO: emerging sub-categories and categories



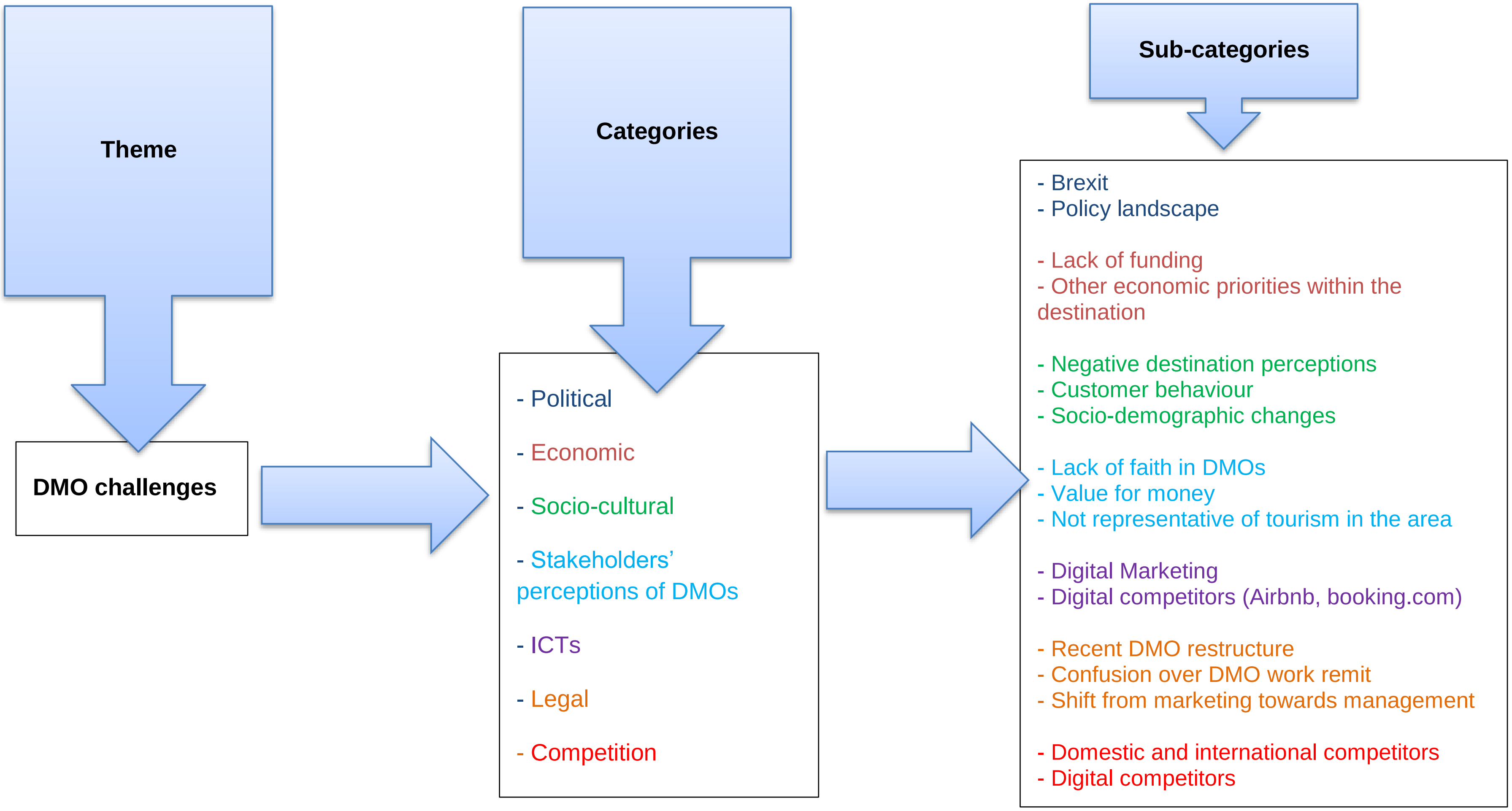
Appendix 8. The role/purpose of DMO: coding process (source: author)

Second cycle coding		First cycle coding	
Categories	**Sub-categories**	**Initial codes**	**Interview quotes**
Destination image and brand development	Developing a holistic image and a viable brand of the destination Positioning the destination as attractive in the marketplace	Deals with perception Branding Business and visitor marketing	*"[DMO] deals with perception and branding of the city and deals with business and visitors marketing and tourism basically"* (P5).
	Brand management	Brand management Managing the brand of Yorkshire	*"It's all brand management- managing the brand of Yorkshire"* (P1).
Destination and community marketing/promoting	Marketing and promoting the tourism products of the destination	To market the city as a good place to study, work and live Not just in the tourism context	*"I would say that our primary role is to market the city for visitors, residents, students, businesses as a good place to study, work and live"* (P6).
	Marketing the whole destination as a place to visit, study, work and live	Marketing the city Selling the city	*"We are very much about marketing the city- selling the city"* (P5).
	Supporting of tourism projects	Promoting local businesses Campaigns	*"We support, market and promote a lot of food and drink festivals (…) We will do a big push holistically on them and promote them. We do individual campaigns to drive people to the pubs and bars and restaurants"* (P1).
		Marketing platform for local businesses Providing return on investment	*"Individually businesses cannot market themselves in international marketplace so our job is to attract more private sector businesses to come together because they are far greater than sum of their pots"* (P4).

Destination Management	Stakeholder management	Collaborative work with stakeholders On behalf of the local authority Managing stakeholders	*"We work with a lot of different stakeholders, organisations across the city and we work collaboratively with them, but working on behalf of the local authority, we are in a position, you could say that we take a role of managing those organisations together"* (P5).
	Business support	Networking platform Knowledge sharing platform	*"We get people together to knowledge share and network"* (P1).
	Public-private partnership	Advocate of local businesses To attract private businesses To facilitate cooperation Attract funding	*"We now have stakeholders not just from the public sector and local authority partners, but also a number of private sector partners that are also looking for the return on their investment"* (P4).
		Business support Not just marketing	*"We do develop sector specific business support workshops that they can attend. We get the funding for it, so they can attend for free. So we do not just do the marketing, we do that business support element as well"* (P4).
	Quality of life agenda	Quality of life agenda Destination not just for tourists Great place to stay, live, work	*"Increasingly it has become more about looking at the quality of life agenda and getting people to appreciate that it is not only a great place to come over on a holiday, but also it is a great place to stay, to live, to work. That is our main remit as an organisation"* (P1).
		Marketing and management of the city	*"Overarching remit is to market and manage the city and its surroundings – nationally and internationally – as an exciting place to live, study, visit and do business"* (P2).
	Semi-government organisation Adding legitimacy for the industry	Working with government bodies Lobbying them Product development	*"We also work with big government bodies, so, for example, we work with DEFRA UK; we work with them in terms of lobbying and trying to get new products for them. This is why we call ourselves Destination Management Organisation really, because our remit is so broad, we have a huge breath of work"* (P1).

Economic driver	Income generation	To create economic spend	*"All our work is about attracting people to visit the city and then to create an economic spend as a result of that"* (P5).
		To double the value of tourism Facilitating creation of new jobs	*"The current plan is to double the value of tourism to the economy. This means a £1billion industry creating an additional 2,000 high-quality jobs by 2024"* (P2).
	"Attract and disperse"	Get people to come here Get people to move around the county	*"Our job is about getting people to come here, but also getting people to move around the county"* (P1).

Appendix 9. DMO challenges: emerging sub-categories and categories



Appendix 10. DMO challenges: coding process (source: author)

Second cycle coding		First cycle coding	
Categories	**Sub-categories**	**Initial codes**	**Interview quotes**
Political	Brexit Policy landscape	Brexit Political uncertainty Industrial policy	*"The whole Brexit thing, because that has left so much uncertainty*" (P3). *"For what I believe a lot of DMOs in the country are struggling at the moment and with recent developments politically, we are not sure how that landscape is going to affect DMO organisations and the jobs within the sector"* (P5).
Economic	Lack of funding Other economic priorities within the destination	Lack of core budget DMOs are shrinking Finding ways to deliver Funding is diminishing Have to work more creatively Stretching resources Working harder Competing priorities in the destination Looking for new ways of funding Level of investment is not there	*"Not having a core budget that is secure on the rolling basis is a major challenge for us at the moment and it is a trend, I think, nationwide that you have seen a lot of those destinations, DMO organisations, shrink, or have to change the way they deliver"* (P5). *"That pot [DMO funding pot] is diminishing, because the public sector money is diminishing, so we have to work more creatively and do more for our money. We are working harder than perhaps we are used to"* (P4). *"Our competitors aren't necessarily other destinations, its other priorities in the city"* (P3). *"We are always looking at the ways to sustain us as a body because the level of investment is not there"* (P6).
Socio-cultural	Negative destination perceptions Customer behaviour Socio-demographic changes	Perception that EU visitors are not welcomed Customer journey has changed Lifestyle changes	*"In the international market obviously looking at European markets (…) the perception that European visitors are not welcomed here"* (P3). *"Customer behaviour has changed- the way they look for, the way they access information"* (P3).

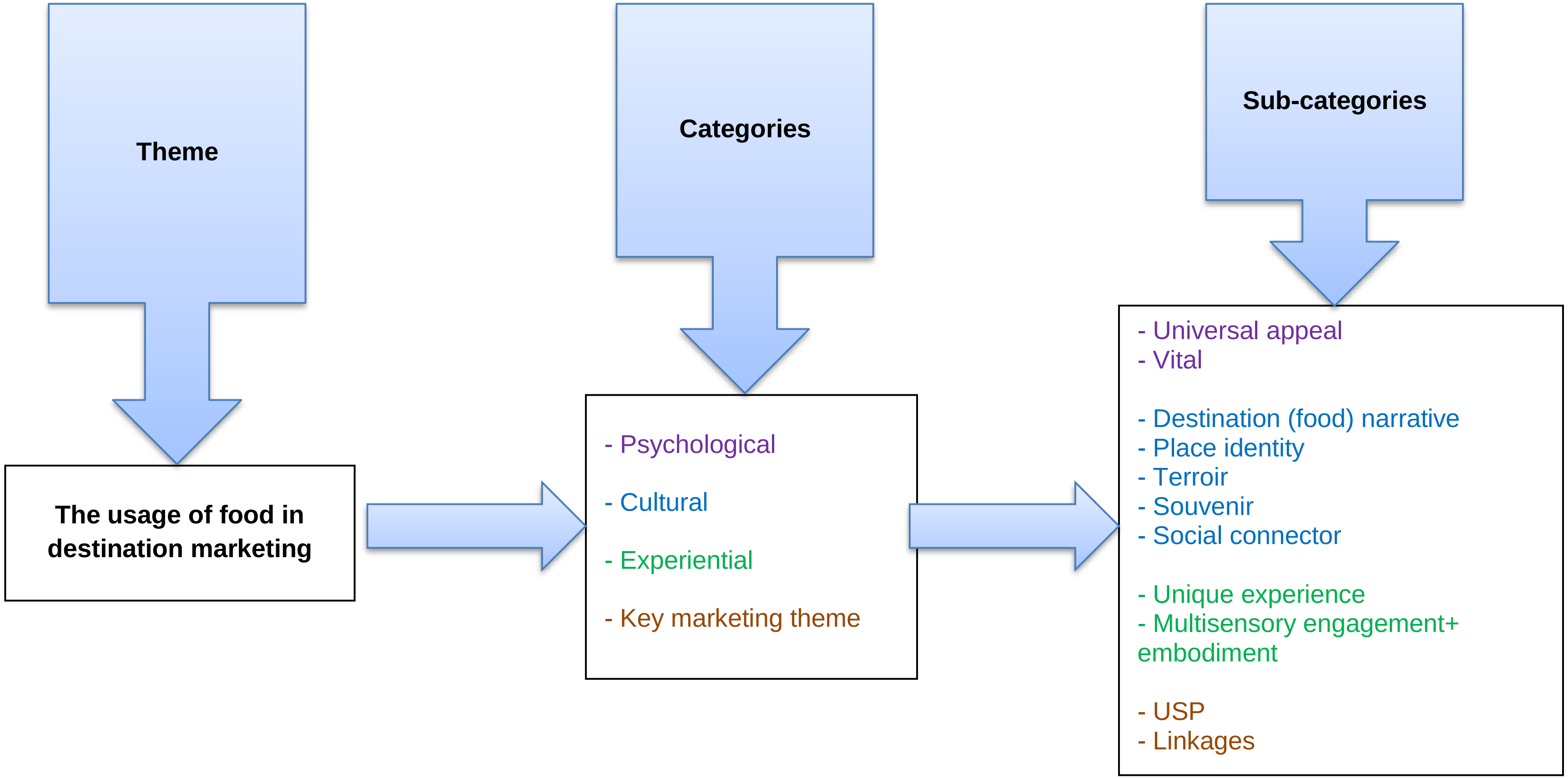
		Reasons for visits change	*"Reasons for visiting and peoples' lifestyle change; all influence which destination might be more successful at any given time"* (P3).

Stakeholders perceptions of DMOs	Lack of faith in DMOs	DMOs financial difficulties DMOs plan short term DMOs more interested in chasing funding than delivering	*"Local tourism organisations again they have financial difficulties, and only plan short term which is not viable. DMOs are more interested in chasing funding rather than delivering. This short term thinking is not what we, as a small business, are looking for. We do not want to pay a substantial amount of money just for our name to be put on their website"* (P8).
	Value for money	Not sure if tourists use DMO websites	*"The difficulty is that they have to find an income stream and I am not sure how many people use official tourism websites when going away on holiday to book or looking for information about different places"* (P8).
		DMOs talk a lot and do nothing Can't afford the time A lot of meetings New website to make visual impact	*"I like to support things, but we are busy and a girl, who worked here before, she went to a lot of meetings with them [DMOs]. She was very enthusiastic in participating in all sorts of networking organisations, but I think at the end of the day, she felt that people [DMOs] talk a lot and do not do anything. And I suppose she couldn't afford the time, because we want to promote ourselves, we are going to have a new website build now to make a visual impact"* (P19).
		No guaranteed results Expensive	*"You spend a lot of money on something that is not a guaranteed result. The money that you have to spend on that could be spent better"* (P16).
	Not representative of tourism in the area	Main focus on Michelin-starred restaurants	*"Welcome to Yorkshire like to say 'We have 6 Michelin starred restaurants'. Well, good for them! But there is plenty of others who are struggling. If you are going to promote them, promote the ones who are really good, but do not necessarily have a star"* (P15).
		Representing members only Not representative of the whole tourism industry Biased towards members	*"As the tourist organisation they are not, in my view, representing tourism in Yorkshire, they are representing their members"* (P19).

ICTs	Digital Marketing (including social media, eWoM and blogging) Digital competitors (Airbnb, booking.com)	DMOs have to get better at using social media Traditional marketing platforms are not enough Marketing platforms have changed Shift to online marketing Emphasis on social media Online competition Online booking agents Airbnb Booking.com	*"It is not just about generating press release and hoping that somebody publishes it, it is about making sure that you are really hooked on social media"* (P1). *"Marketing platforms have changed much more looking now at online marketing rather than more traditional forms of media and exhibition marketing"* (P3). *"When I started [working at the DMO] we were quite dependent on traditional PR and there is now much more emphasis on using social media"* (P5). *"Obviously there is online competition- online booking agents, Airbnb, booking.com"* (P4).
Legal	Recent DMO restructure Confusion over DMO work remit Shift from marketing towards management	DMOs are shrinking DMOs have had to change the ways they deliver New business models Membership organisations Restricted Biased representation Shift towards management Marketing city for visitors, residents, students and businesses Destinations as places to visit, live and work Different people think differently	*"Nationwide we have seen a lot of DMOs shrink, or they have had to change the way they deliver, so some of them that were local authority then had to move to be membership organisations where they can take that completely different business plan, but then you have limitations on a membership basis you are restricted, because you are obligated to promote people who bought a membership with you, so that sort of can be restrictive of representing a fully right sort of unbiased representation of the destination"* (P6). *"It has gradually moved more towards destinations management (…) I would say that our primary role is to market the city for visitors, residents, students, businesses as a good place to study, work and live (…) but I guess different people think differently"* (P6).

Competition	Domestic and international competitors	Competition Destinations are investing	*"Biggest challenge to the domestic market is that we are competing and destinations are investing all the time"* (P3).
		Sustaining visitors' numbers Increasing the lengths of stay and spend	*"Our main challenge is to sustain the visitors' numbers (…) we do want to grow the lengths of the stay and the spend"* (P6).
		Fierce competition	*"The competition is fierce and there is no room for complacency"* (P2).
	Digital competitors	Online competition	*"Obviously there is online competition- online booking agents, Airbnb, booking.com"* (P4).

Appendix 11. The usage of food in destination marketing: emerging sub-categories and categories



Appendix 12. The usage of food in destination marketing: coding process (source: author)

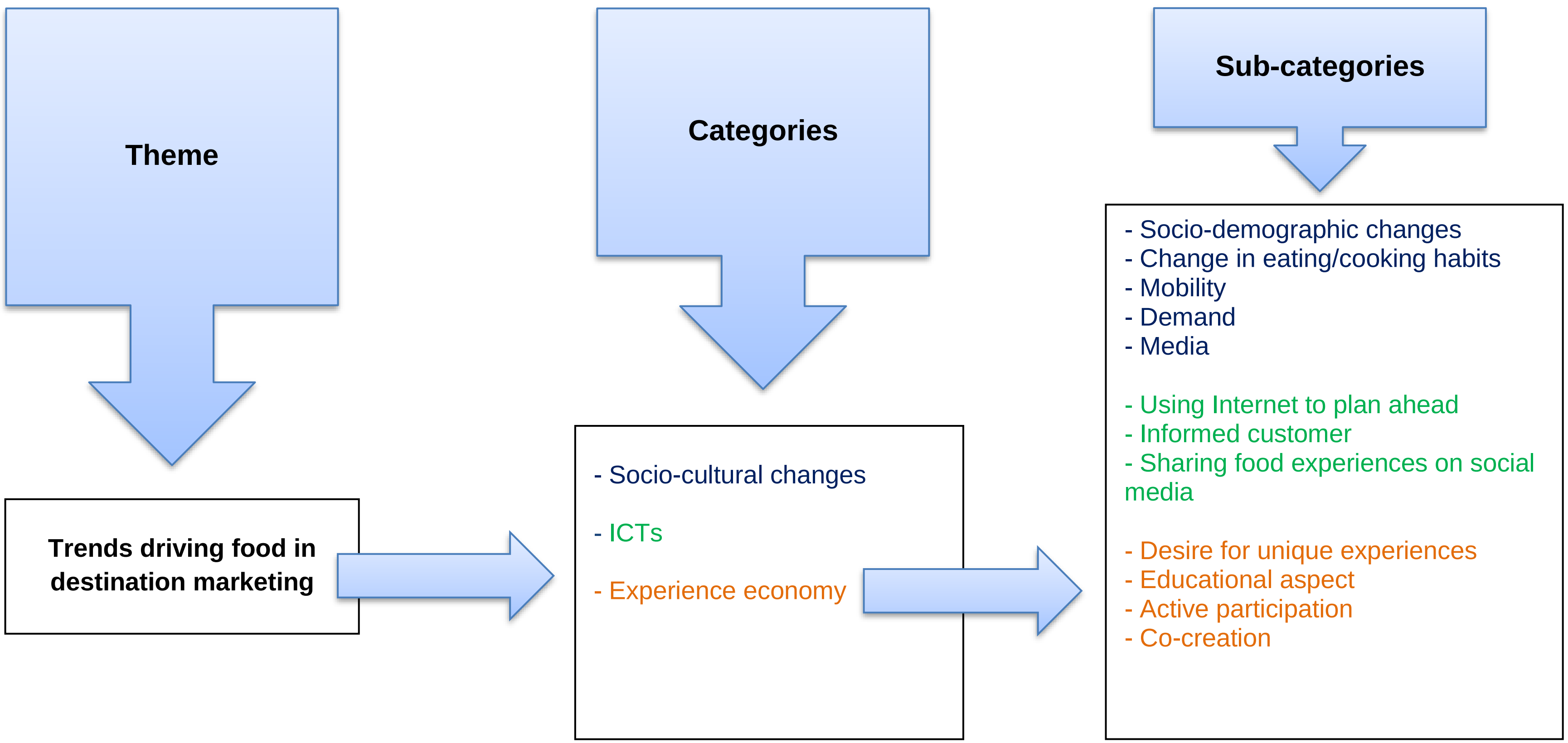
Second cycle coding		First cycle coding	
Categories	**Sub-categories**	**Initial codes**	**Interview quotes**
Psychological	Universal appeal	Provides or adds to the experience	*“I think it is essential. It provides or it adds to the experience”* (P4).
		Universal appeal Everyone has to eat	*“It [food] is part of our day to day and it is very much at the forefront of people's minds (…) it has that universal appeal”* (P5).
	Vital	Everyone has to eat Part of experience	*“Everyone needs to eat and drink (…) it is kind of integral to what people do when they visit. Everyone who comes to York what they are doing is that they stroll around the city and the ambiance of the city and underneath that is the eating and drinking and sampling”* (P6).
		Underpins experience	*“It [food] also underpins everything else that we do in terms of visitor experience. So, it is vital”* (P1).
		Important for international visitors	*“Food is very important to our foreign visitors especially America, France and Germany and then Netherlands which are huge for us. The Chinese less so, because they just want to eat Chinese food when they come to the UK”* (P1).
		Vital/ psychological needs	*“Every visitor needs to eat, so there is a synergy there with the tourism industry”* (P3).

Cultural	Destination (food) narrative	Tells the story about a place USP	*"I think it [food] really tells the story about a place"* (P1).
		Heart and soul of the destination	*"For us it [food] is heart and soul of the destination"* (P4).
	Place identity	Destination personality Brand personality	*"Food also helps to distinguish a personality of a destination as well"* (P4).
		Something very Yorkshire attached to food traditions Enjoying local culture	*"I think that there is something very Yorkshire attached to some of the dishes and food traditions that we have. It is very important"* (P1).
	Terroir	Part of the jigsaw puzzle of the place Part of landscape Story	"*Across our rural landscape if you can link the food back to the landscape and people can actually start to understand that the food on their plate has been grown locally and it is seasonal, that just adds that additional bit of quality and it is a part of the jigsaw puzzle of the place"* (P4).
		Links with history and heritage	*"I think it is fascinating because chocolate, for example, links the history and the heritage with tourism and with the fact that everyone likes eating and drinking"* (P6).
	Souvenir	Souvenir Symbol Take home gift	*"We had the "Sheffield Cookbook" out and we had that massive group of international customers and the guy from Switzerland just bought it and he has taken it home to his family"* (P18).
		Something to take home Unique product	*"It [food] can give them something to take away home, for example like we get a lot of business people from outside of England, if you give them a bottle of Henderson Relish they are like 'Wow!'. You can't get that anywhere else, so it is something for them to take back to their families and something unique, very Yorkshire product"* (P16).
	Social connector	Connects people Brings people together	*"Everybody needs food whether they want something quick or they want to make it a nice leisure experience. And it is the one thing that connects the whole world, it does*

			not matter what language you are in you can see something and it does bring everybody together" (P7).
Experiential	Unique experience	Food as experience	*"Food is something that underpins the visitor's experience. It does not matter what you have got on offer, because if food is bad people will not come back. And I think that people now see going out for dinner as an experience"* (P1).
		Unique experience of the destination	*"We are trying to market places where they source that food locally and they source through regional suppliers so that has a truly unique experience of the destination (...) That is the whole unique experience of the destination"* (P5).
		Food enhances the visitor experience Aspirational	*"Where there are established identifiable food products they help to enhance the experience of a visitor and in some instances, kind of high end, Michelin-starred restaurants which are run by celebrity chefs probably have some draw"* (P3).
	Multisensory engagement+ embodiment	Multisensory experience Enhanced experience Beyond the gaze Identifying and understanding the place	*"People come to the region and start to understand the culture and the history of that region (…) It is not only about going to see that history, it is about adding to the experience and people understanding more about the region, because of the food they eat when they are there and identifying with the landscape where that food is produced and grown"* (P14).

Key marketing theme	USP	Another marketing message Adds a little bit extra	*"I think what that does is it just adds a little bit of extra. It is just another message, another marketing message that you can add to the whole marketing message in terms of what you will experience when you get here"* (P4).
		USP	*"It [food] is a USP of the destination, isn't it?"* (P4).
		Active, not passive Unique	*"It is something that is unique to this area and you can actually go and see things being made, you can go to the Bakewell Pudding Shop and you can actually do a course"* (P4).
		Marketing hook Marketing theme	*"We use food as a hook, so it is one of our ten marketing themes. So we have a theme called 'Delicious' which is all about food"* (P1).
		Tourist spend generator Easy to market Different angle Marketing hook	*"It [food] has to be part of the day, everyone has 3 meals and drinks, so that is a very easy way to market what the local offer is and get some visitors spending. It is just a different angle, because everybody has to do that [eat and drink] and sometimes the only spend that they do when they come is on food and drink, so it is a good way to engage with people"* (P6).
	Linkages	Raising profile of region through food PR Food fam trips	*"It is important for us to raise the profile of our region. Last year we had about 250 press trips of that nature. We have got the event in Paris on the 24th July so we are doing a Yorkshire Afternoon Tea at the ambassador's residence in Paris and this will be the third or fourth time when we are doing a similar event"* (P1).
		Food and (cycling) events Food as catalyst for other events/campaigns	*"More recently we have done a campaign with DEFRA and that was using a cycling event Tour the Yorkshire as a catalyst for a campaign about culinary tour of Yorkshire and we have looked at all sorts of businesses from Michelin-starred to country pubs to fish and chips shops to pickles and brought them together. And then we have inserted this into Waitrose magazine"* (P1).

Appendix 13. Trends driving food in destination marketing: emerging sub-categories and categories



Appendix 14. Trends driving food in destination marketing: coding process (source: author)

Second cycle coding		First cycle coding	
Categories	**Sub-categories**	**Initial codes**	**Interview quotes**
Socio-cultural changes	Socio-demographic changes	Young professionals Millennials? Younger people are interested in food Not high fliers People from all walks of life interested in food	*"I am seeing more young professionals coming to stay or just for lunch or dinner and even younger people than that who are interested in food. (...) they are not high-fliers, they are just people from all walks of life and all backgrounds who are interested in food"* (P19).
	Change in eating/cooking habits	Grandparents didn't travel Generation gap_ different lifestyles Younger generation more adventurous People getting bored of eating the same things Have curry one night and Chinese the other night Men are cooking now	*"Our grandparents, for example, hardly ever left the UK, they could not afford to, they were on rations and they ate what they were given. Whereas people like us generally love a bit of sushi and it is becoming so common now everywhere you look there are different cuisines and people are getting bored of eating the same things. So they like to go out and have curry one night and Chinese the other night"* (P16). *"It is not just cooking to eat, men are cooking now"* (P19).
	Mobility	Travel People having food experiences elsewhere More open minded Want to try things Interest in cooking Everyone travels Emphasis on trying new things Demand for foods Importing foods Supermarkets People are used to that	*"Travel really has made a real difference. People having experiences and becoming more open minded and wanting to try things and people are really interested in cooking"* (P19). *"Everyone has the opportunity to travel and there is a lot of emphasis on trying new things and because people have experienced those things elsewhere they want them here, so there is a big need to import which is feasible and we can have strawberries all year round. There is not a reason not to have something on a shelf in the supermarket now and people are used to that"* (P19).

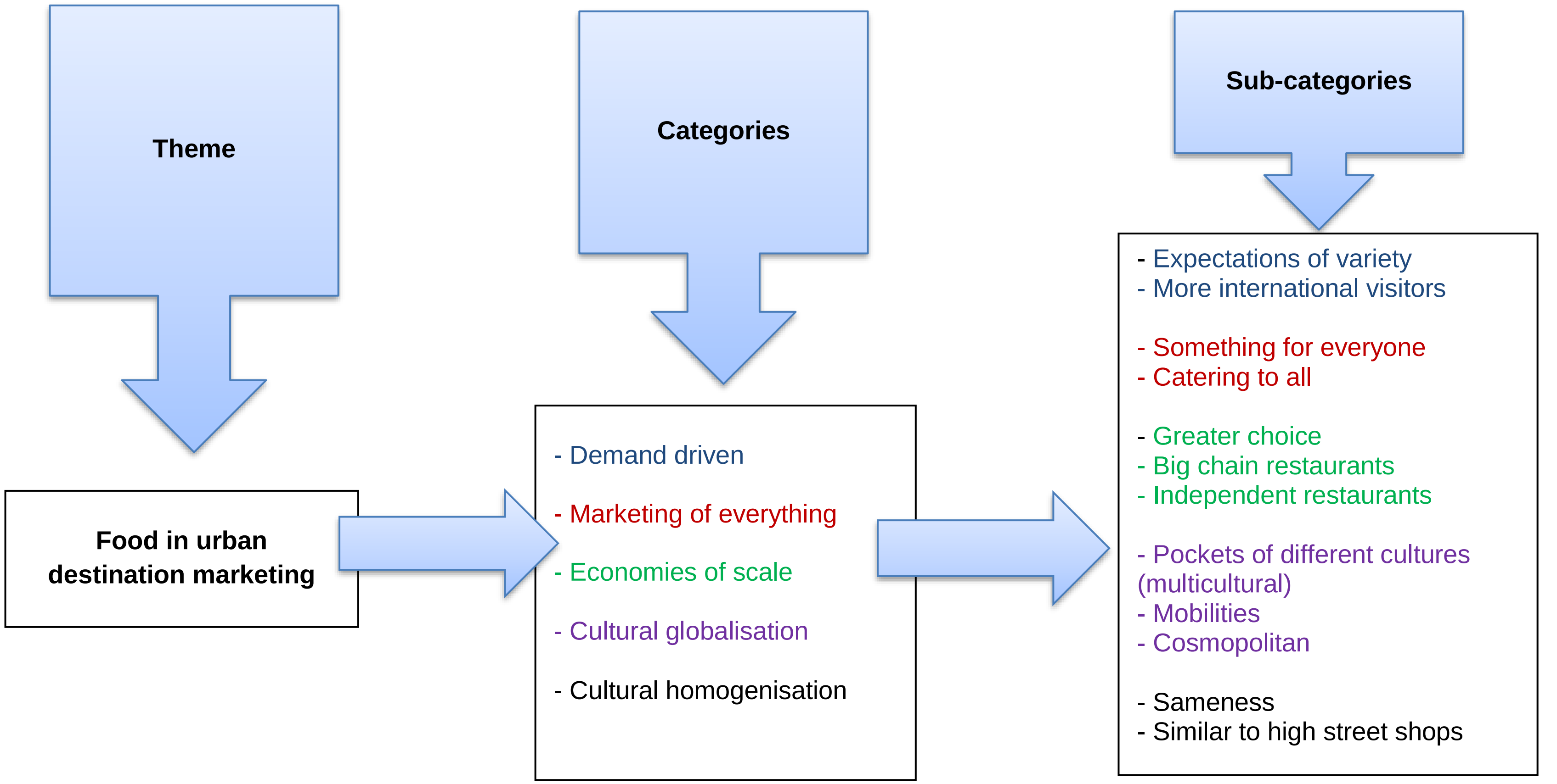
	Demand	Demand for variety Tapas Italian Used to be only 3 meals a day More thought on food Dining out part of lifestyle	*"We want something different every time. We go here for tapas, we go there, because it is Italian"* (P19). *"It used to be 3 meals a day and it used to be what was available and now people are putting a lot more thought and dining out is very much a part of people's lifes"* (P19).

		Knowledge on food has improved Cookery books Trendy? Fashion? Food magazines Food TV	*"I think the knowledge about food has generally improved. I think there are some people who probably buy a lot of cookery books, but never cook anything or they like buying nice ingredients, but they do not really use them, but they like the idea of it. So I think there is a bit more knowledge, because people have read magazines and watch things on television, so I think when they go on holiday now I think people will actively, not everybody, but there is a proportion of population who will actively seek out a good place to eat while they are there"* (P14).
		Growing interested in food Millennials? Food as part of lifestyle TV chefs Food programs Master Chef Trying new recipes Trendy?	*"I think now there is a growing interest in food generally, not just as a tourist attraction, but particularly younger people, food has become part of their lifestyle with all things like television chefs, TV programs, Master Chef. I think a lot of people have a real interest in food now, they are really interested in buying different ingredients, and they are trying recipes"* (P14).
	Media	Jamie Oliver More knowledgeable about food Food TV Interested in ingredients People cook	*"When Jamie Oliver first appeared on screens 20 years ago, everyone watched programs, but they did not do much more. But over the years I think people have become more knowledgeable. People still watch food programs, but actually, now they are more interested in ingredients, they actually go shopping to get them and they cook"* (P13).
		People obsessed with food Food photography Food blogging	*"People get quite obsessed with restaurants, even more obsessed than me who does it for a job. They photograph their food and start blogs and sometimes you think 'It is only food, you know, calm down'"* (P15).
		TV food shows Food festivals 100 food festivals Food festivals everywhere, every weekend	*"In Britain, I think, we have started with TV and food shows and now it is more beyond TV. Food festivals! We have got one hundred food festivals in Britain, and 10 years there was probably just Ludlow, Abergavenny and now there is one every weekend and everywhere. Food has got better, people are more knowledgeable"* (P13).

		Food got better People are more knowledgeable Food aspirational	*"You could say that food is slightly aspirational"* (P13).
ICTs	Using Internet to plan ahead	Planning ahead Researching places to eat Internet as source of information	*"I do think people plan ahead, they do not just arrive somewhere and think 'Oh, I wonder where we can go and eat'. With the Internet now it is all researched. We find that people are not waiting until they get here, they know, because they have looked on the Internet and they also know where they are going to eat. They do not leave it to chance which I agree with, because I am the same"* (P19).
	Informed customer	Using internet to plan every stage of holiday Getting the maximum enjoyment out of the experience	*"Before you would go away somewhere, somewhere new, you would waste time looking around for things and where things where. But we do not need that now, because of the Internet. It means we can plan every stage of our days and get the maximum enjoyment out of the experience"* (P19).
	Sharing food experiences on social media	Instagram Food on social media	*"Going back to the digital marketing, if we look at things like Instagram, some of the most popular content on there is completely about food"* (P5).
Experience economy	Desire for unique experiences	Desire for uniqueness Learning the stories Being nosy Getting something special	*"What people really like is the feeling that they are getting something unique. And that they are getting something that is not ordinarily available to anybody (...) What we found with people is that they like learning the stories about people who are not open to the public. It is about being nosy if you like. We have got people who we work with who have got amazing stories to tell, really interesting things to tell (…) People love to learn about that. They feel that they are getting something different and it makes them feel a little bit special"* (P9).

	Educational aspect Active participation Co-creation	People like getting involved Active not passive Co-creation? Learning how to produce things Cookery schools Learning	*"People like to get involved and do things. And I think that increased dramatically, so people are going to cookery schools to learn how to produce things and there are places like artisan cookery school in Welbeck near here which is a huge success and done really well. People like to learn things and they like getting involved and people go to Rick Stein cookery school in Padstow or one of the other cookery schools. It is a fabulous experience and you get to know about the cuisine of that particular place while you are there things like even collecting mushrooms for the weekend"* (P14).

Appendix 15. Food in urban destination marketing: emerging sub-categories and categories



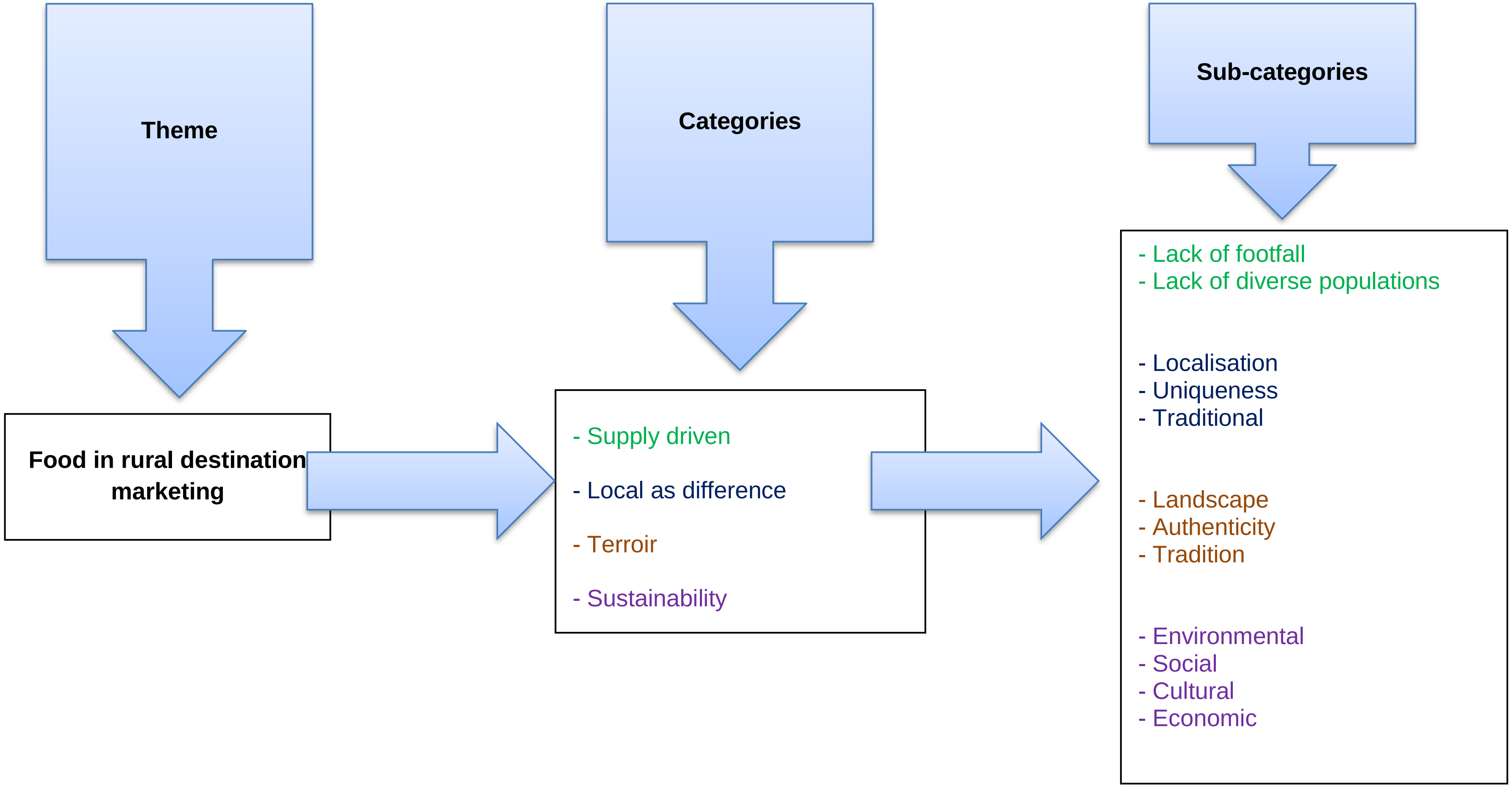
Appendix 16. Food in urban destination marketing: coding process (source: author)

Second cycle coding		First cycle coding	
Categories	**Sub-categories**	**Initial codes**	**Interview quotes**
Demand driven	Expectations of variety	Mix of different cuisines People accept that and expect that	"*I think there has been a mix of different cuisines that has just grown up in different places, even in small towns (…) and people have been very happy to accept that and almost expect that"* (P14).
	More international visitors	More people around More adventurous people Mix of nationalities Mix of cultures	*"There are more people around, more people probably will be adventurous, and there is a mix of nationalities and cultures"* (P15).
Marketing of everything	Something for everyone	Part of catering to all audiences Sign of cosmopolitan city Anything you want, you can get Demand for variety	*"Even though every destination has somewhere where you can get a burger or pizza, it is part of that catering to all different audiences and making sure, it is a sign of a cosmopolitan city that pretty much anything that you want you can get it somewhere within that city and it is then taking the best ones that offer that and promoting this to the audience. I think it is just reflection of what we want as a society and that sort of demand for it"* (P5).
	Catering to all	Something for everyone Simple solution to satisfy needs of all travellers	*"Every city uses that there is something for everyone phrase one way or another. It is not a great phrase but it is kind of simple solution to the suggestion 'Do not think that you will struggle to find something to eat here, because you will find something'"* (P3).

Economies of scale	Greater choice Big chain restaurants Independent restaurants	Greater concentration of choice Every city has Indian, Chinese, Italian Every city has Independent places Independent restaurants as a source of difference Pockets of independent restaurants	*"The great thing about urban areas is that there is a greater concentration of choice"* (P1). *"Every city it is going to have Indian, Chinese, Italian blah blah blah But every city will also have things like this that are different, so there is going to be stuff that is the same and there are also going to be places like this – local, independent places – that offer something a little bit different"* (P16). *"I think now if you look at Sheffield compared to what it was 20 years ago, you can find pockets of interesting and independent restaurants and shops"* (P14).

Cultural globalisation	Pockets of different cultures (multicultural)	Independent restaurants Worldwide cuisine It reflects the makeup of the city	"*There is a street in York and down that street, there must be over 20 independent restaurants providing worldwide cuisine- Argentinian steak house, Italian pizza place, Indian Restaurant, Polish restaurant. All sorts of restaurants. And that reflects the makeup of the city and who is living in York which I think is brilliant*" (P10).
		Pockets of different cultures Demand for worldwide cuisine Different ethnic groups living in cities Showing that they are part of the city life	"*Usually in urban areas there are pockets of different cultures. I mean in Sheffield there is a Polish community and Asian community, so there is this demand*" (P19). "*We are a city with lots of different ethnic groups living in the city. It is less about integrating them, but it is about showing that they are part of the city and part of the city life*" (P3).
	Mobilities	Cities tend to be multicultural Movement of people Mobilities Demand for multicultural facilities	"*Cities tend to be very multicultural (…) with the movement of people because of jobs and coming in from other countries (…) this is what cities are, they are not just the local people, there is demand for all these multicultural facilities, shops etc. providing to meet that demand"* (P19).
	Cosmopolitan	Cosmopolitan Different mix of people	"*Cities have always – London, Manchester, and Birmingham etc. – have always been more cosmopolitan. You have got a different mix of people*" (P14).
Cultural homogen isation	Sameness Similar to high street shops	It is like a retail high street It is all looking the same	"*It is a little bit like a retail high street, it is all looking the same and food could go the same way if we are not careful"* (P4).

Appendix 17. Food in rural destination marketing: emerging sub-categories and categories



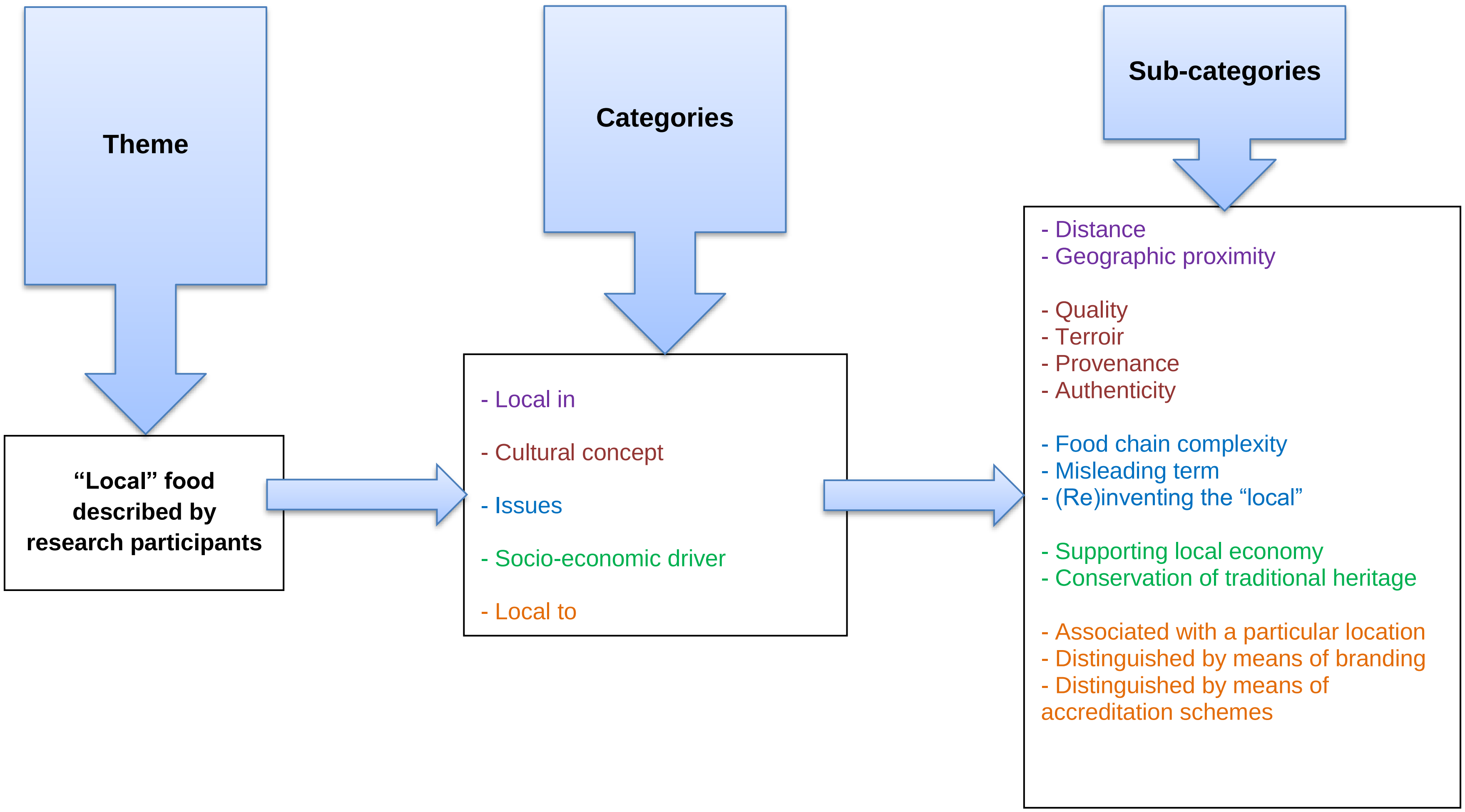
Appendix 18. Food in rural destination marketing: coding process (source: author)

Second cycle coding		First cycle coding	
Categories	**Sub-categories**	**Initial codes**	**Interview quotes**
Supply driven	Lack of footfall	International restaurants not feasible in rural places Not enough footfall	*"You cannot open one of those [international restaurant] in the countryside, because although we are busy at the weekend, always throughout the year, there are not a lot of people around the week, and to make a business viable you need people all the time"* (P19).
	Lack of diverse populations	Lack of diverse cultures They can't afford to live there	*"It would be hard to pick diverse cultures in Bakewell, because they can't afford to live here"* (P11).
Local as difference	Localisation	Visitors don't want kebab shops Visitors want local food	*"Visitors do not want to turn up to a lovely market town and find a kebab shop, they want locally produced food"* (P4).
	Uniqueness	Different villages offer different experiences Uniqueness	*"I think if you are going to different villages, then you are going to get different experience (…) All the different villages around offer something that is very different to somewhere else in the UK. Derbyshire is very famous for its good tasting local produce"* (P11).
	Traditional	Linking food with other experiences Back to nature	"*People can come and eat wonderful food, eat ice cream and all wonderful sweet things and then they can go on a 5-mile hike in the moors*" (P13).

	Landscape	Part of the jigsaw puzzle of the place Part of landscape Story Place narrative Seasonal	*"Across our rural landscape if you can link the food back to the landscape and people can actually start to understand that the food on their plate has been grown locally and it is seasonal, that just adds that additional bit of quality and it is a part of the jigsaw puzzle of the place"* (P4).
	Authenticity	Authenticity	
		Traditional Pubs English food Authenticity Nostalgia	*"City life is so different to life out here in the countryside. People come here [to countryside] looking for pubs, they want to be in a traditional pub and that again is an English, something English, along with the Yorkshire pudding and fish and chips, we do have a few things that are still around"* (P19).
Terroir	Tradition	Nostalgia Seeking tradition Going back in time	*"It [food in rural destinations] is a little bit like nostalgia- going to rural places, looking for that tradition and history, going back in time"* (P19).
		Knowledge about food Shopping for local food Local butcher Local farm shops	*"In rural areas people know more where the food comes from, because they probably shop in the local farm shop, from local butcher etc."* (P10).
		Terroir Need better English equivalent	"*That word 'terroir' is exactly what we are about, we just need a better English equivalent"* (P13).

Sustainability	Environmental	Food from fields Local as from down the road	*"When we say 'local' [food] we mean from our fields here (…) We can say that a lot of stuff from the menu, ice cream or coffee or beer, comes from down the road. So that is local that is only 50 feet"* (P13).
	Social	Tasting the place Part of the experience	*"You literally go from place to place and you taste along the way and you taste sweet things and savoury things and drinking beer. And it is just fun"* (P13).
		Added value dimension Difficult to get people to come to rural areas	*"But the point of their production units is that people should be able to go in and see bread being baked, or coffee roasted, or butter churned. That for us was absolutely crucial. People now shop online a lot, so it is quite difficult to get people to come to towns"* (P13).
	Cultural	Independent producers Artisan	*"We have independent food producers, they are Made in Malton food producers. None of them are chain"* (P13).
		Outdoors Landscape Enjoying nature Lack of demand for fast food	*"For example, the Peak District is a very beautiful area and it attracts people who are interested in being outdoors, outdoor pursuits, enjoying nature. I think those people generally are the ones who like more quality food. I don't think there is a lot of demand here for fast food"* (P19).
		Regional produce	*"People are very interested now in eating regional produce"* (P19).
		Local produce	*"We have a garden, our own strawberries, and blackberries and serve them for breakfast or desserts, lettuce, carrots, onions. People are very, very appreciative seeing the produce"* (P19).
	Economic	Supporting local economy Supporting local jobs Multiplier effect	*"[Rural] food production networks support local economy (…) What is missing from the debate on food and tourism is that local food supports local jobs, so there is a wider effect"* (P8).

Appendix 19. "Local" food: emerging sub-categories and categories (source: author)



Appendix 20. "Local" food: coding process (source: author)

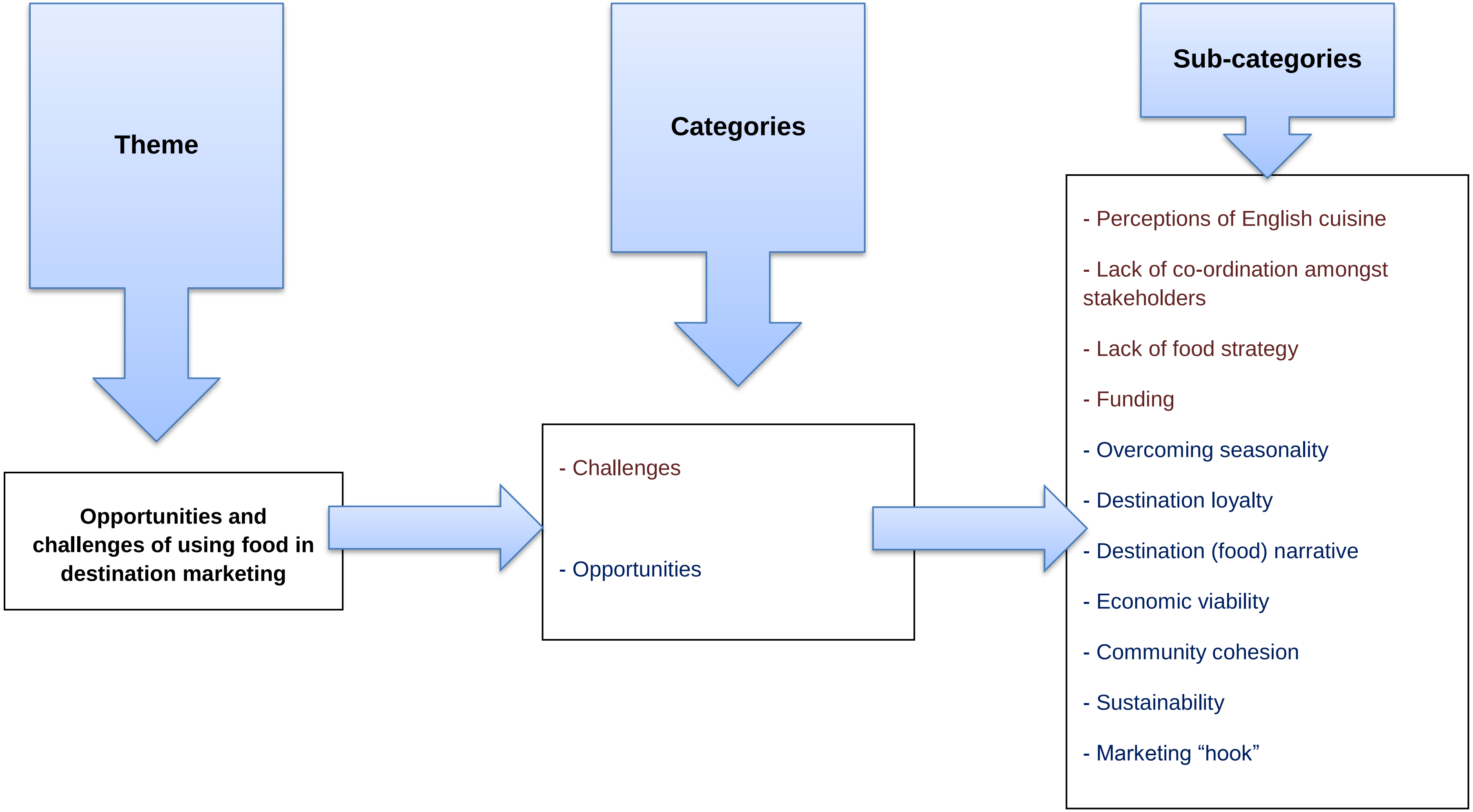
Second cycle coding		First cycle coding	
Categories	**Sub-categories**	**Initial codes**	**Interview quotes**
Local in	Distance	Within 30 miles radius	*"The definition that I have always used is one that probably came from farmer's market association quite a number of years ago now where local should be something within 30 miles radius"* (P14).
		Within 10 miles	*"My definition of local food is from within 10 miles. That is my own personal opinion"* (P12).
		Within 30 or 40 miles	*"In England when we say local, we probably mean within 30 or 40 miles"* (P13).
		Local in America; from 100mile radius	*"We had some American guests who came the other day from Chicago and they define local food as anything from a 100miles radius. But then they are in America which is an enormous country"* (P13).
		50-60 miles radius in large agglomerations	"*So if you are holding a farmer's market in a suburb of London you could say anything within 50-60 mile radius, this could be seen as local"* (P14).
	Geographic proximity	Local as from Yorkshire	*"We sometimes have debated here [about the geographic proximity of local food], because sometimes we have been offered suppliers that are in Derbyshire, but that is not Yorkshire. And then we say- Derbyshire is closer than Scarborough, for example. So we have had that debate between us. Me personally, Chesterfield is local, but the way our business defines itself as local is just Yorkshire. So I guess to some people it may not be. (…) As long as we can say everything is from Yorkshire, they should accept that as being local"* (P16).
		From our fields	*"When we say 'local' we mean our fields here, but sometimes we go a little bit further in Yorkshire"* (P13).

		Produced in vicinity From down the road	*"I suppose local to me means that the product that you are producing, or the majority of it, or all of it is produced in the vicinity of the area and once you have gone more than 50 miles away then ... Ideally, it is from down the road"* (P13).
		Produced in Yorkshire Made from Yorkshire ingredients	*"For us local is anything that is produced in Yorkshire, that is made from Yorkshire ingredients so I would say anything that has been produced or farmed here"* (P1).
		10 miles Distance specific Local as from the region	*"My definition of local food is from within 10 miles. That is my own personal opinion. If you look at all associations especially the soil associations, I think they extend it to about 50miles or something like that. You can look at it in two ways. First one, from a specific distance, or you can do it geographically by region. But then you get Yorkshire which is a very big area, South Yorkshire which is close to the Dales"* (P12).
		Grown close to Sheffield From the region	*"Local food could mean food that was grown close to Sheffield and within our region. However, it is difficult to specify the distance of local food (…) 6 miles, 10 miles, 20 miles or 50 miles?"* (P8).
		From as close as possible	*"I do define local produce as being made or produced in this area and also sourced from this area. So if you are producing, like we produce, a Bakewell Pudding but there are no local eggs in there, but for example the eggs are from abroad I do not think that you can define that as being local. I think you can get everything as close as possible to where you are producing that then it becomes a local product. Other than that if you are not using local flour you can't call that local product"* (P11).

Cultural concept	Quality Terroir Provenance	Important HOW food is created It is about provenance Food supply issues Food can travel for long miles	*"Local food is important to us. It is really difficult to put a cast iron definition on what is local. It is about how it is created in first place, it is what is important for us. As much as the 'where'. We joke that food that we use is from Yorkshire, apart from lemons"* (P10). "*You can have pigs that have been imported long way. Is it Yorkshire pork if it happens to be that pigs are slaughtered near Hull? It is not. It is about provenance. One of the issues is that local for meat can mean a lot of different things. We know a butcher in York and we know that his beef, his lamb we know where it all comes from. We know where it is slaughtered"* (P10).
	Authenticity	Local as quality food Reflecting mentality and personality of a place Quality Provenance Quality Distinctiveness Uniqueness	*"It means locally sourced and produced, but also cooked well. In Yorkshire local food reflects Yorkshire mentality"* (P2). *"For us local food, when we talk about local food, we talk in terms of quality of local product and around provenance and food miles rather than local dish"* (P3). *"First of all, it has to be about quality. There is no point if it is not good, even if it is local. So, I think my definition would be quality and distinctive, something that you can't get easily anywhere else"* (P14).
Issues	Food chain complexity Misleading term	Food chain complexity Is it grown there? Is it produced there? Is it manufactured there? Food miles Tourists can get pulled in	*"And of course it is about: is it grown there, is it produced there, is it manufactured there? You know, we have got to look at that definition [of local] because for something like meat it is quite obvious that when you get from the farm that has been slaughtered nearby and then comes back directly to the farmers market and farm shop or local butcher. We know that with the complex food supply chain, that things can travel for many, many miles before they actually get to our plate"* (P14).

	(Re)inventing the "local"	Tourist trap Misleading term Question of authenticity Coffee beans not local It's local, but it's just another cuisine International cuisine can be local The new "local" Trendy People interested in local	*"Visitors/tourists can get pulled in by country pubs, for example, saying that they sell only local food and yet you see outside truck delivering frozen food"* (P12). *"Coffee for example. If it is roasted in York, that can be seen as local. However, the coffee beans are not from York (…) We do not grow coffee beans in England. So, what is local?"* (P10). *"In Malton, for example, it does not mean that you can't have macaroons, we have a fresh pasta guy. All his products – eggs and the flour – are from here, it is just another cuisine"* (P13). *"You can have international cuisine that is local as well"* (P1). *"Local food was something 15-20 years that nobody really talked about, there were few exceptions but gradually, gradually this has become you know local and regional has become trendy, people are actively interested in eating meat that has been sourced locally or other things that have been sourced locally"* (P14).
Socio-economic driver	Supporting local economy Conservation of traditional heritage	Keeps economy stronger Keeps traditions alive and going	*"Local food production networks support local economy and all businesses (in Yorkshire) should use local produce as it keeps not only local economy stronger, but also traditions alive and going"* (P8).
"Local to"	Associated with a particular location Distinguished by means of branding Distinguished by means of accreditation schemes		Yorkshire Pudding, Wensleydale Cheese, Yorkshire Forced Rhubarb, Pikelets, Parkin Cake, Liquorice sweet, chocolate in York, Bakewell Pudding. Participants also listed local food products associated with other places in England: Devon cream tea, Lincolnshire sausage, Lancashire hotpot, Melton Mowbray Pork Pie, Blackpool Rock.

Appendix 21. Opportunities and challenges of using food in destination marketing: emerging sub-categories and categories



Appendix 22. Opportunities and challenges of using food in destination marketing: coding process (source: author)

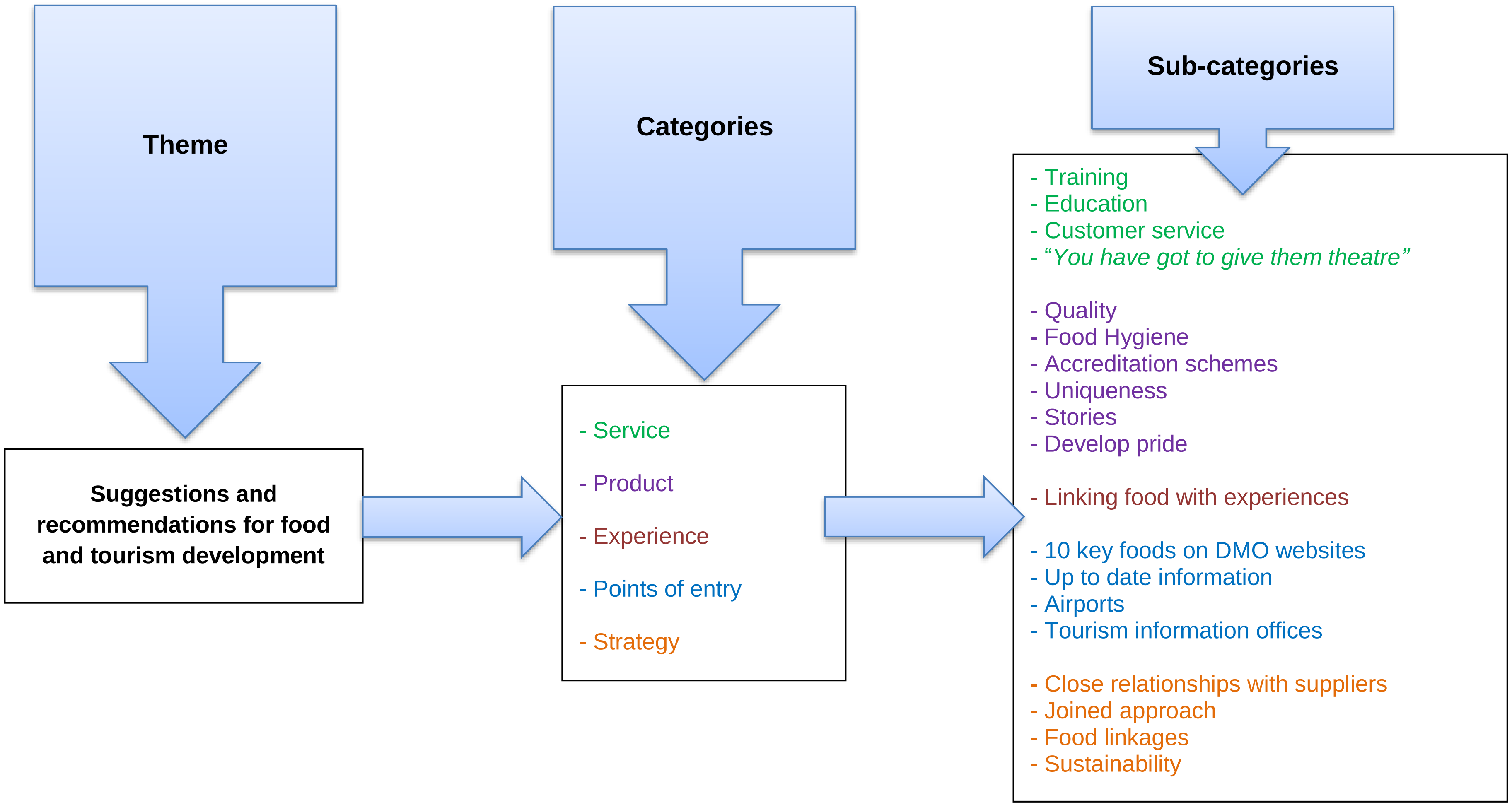
Second cycle coding		First cycle coding	
Categories	**Sub-categories**	**Initial codes**	**Interview quotes**
Challenges	Perceptions of English cuisine	English food seen as awful and joke Food stereotypes Reputation for mediocre food Poor reputation Bad quality Needs improving Poor reputation	"*I think we are still plagued with that brush of English food being awful and the joke*" (P15). "*I think that there are some stereotypes (…) I do think that we have a reputation for mediocre food*" (P3). "*Unfortunately we do not have the greatest reputation [of food]. And I think that it is something, when we talk about product development, that I think we need to raise the quality of it"* (P4). *"From the international perspective, the food in England has always had fairly poor reputation"* (P1).
	Lack of co-ordination amongst stakeholders	Too many players doing their own thing Politics does get in the way Should be joined up Restaurants opening times different to other businesses Difficult to contact	*"There are too many people, what we feel, just doing their own thing. And the politics does get in the way and personalities get in the way as well. What we are saying is that there is a lot of good stuff going on in here, but if it was more joined up it would be even better. It would be even more on a world stage than we are. Because we have got the potential to be"* (P9). *"There are a lot of people trying to do things on a micro level but we have got to overcome that challenge"* (P1). *"When you are in the office in the daytime, the restaurants' managers and the chefs they might not be in the office at the same time. So it is difficult to get to person to try to reach an agreement on something"* (P6).

		Restaurants- difficult sector to work with No real champion for the sector No central point of contact Restaurants don't feel part of the tourism industry Restaurants don't engage with the whole destination	*"They [restaurants] are usually quite small, a limited number of covers, sometimes late time openings, difficult to contact. During business hours when we might want to speak with them or journalists may want to speak with them or marketers, they are not at work, because they are not in work until the afternoon and then they are busy prepping and then they are into service and then they go home. So it is a quite difficult sector to actually work with because there is no real champion for that sector and there is no industry association to work with, there is no central point of contact"* (P3). *"And I think the biggest challenge is also to get them [restaurants] to understand that they are a part of the tourism offer within the destination. Because they go about doing what they are doing which is running the restaurant, they are not great marketers, they do not engage with the whole destination"* (P3).
	Lack of food strategy	No overall food and drink strategy No unified approach Lack of cohesive food strategy Lack of champion businesses	*"As far as I can tell there is no overall food and drink strategy for Yorkshire that policy makers and the people at the sharp end of what we create can collectively shout about and deliver as one. There is no unifying approach that we can all get behind that puts Yorkshire at the forefront of the nation's culinary map"* (P9). *"A cohesive food strategy for Yorkshire. That is what are we are missing as a destination and having a body of people who are leading a food strategy forward"* (P1).
	Funding	Lack of funding Champion businesses	*"Finding the resources and the funding to work with businesses to take on this [food campaign] idea. With a little bit of encouragement, you always find that there are champion businesses, pioneer businesses and ambassadors that are doing it well already that can pass on that best practice"* (P4).
Opportunities	Overcoming seasonality	Attracting tourists in the low season Extending season	*"It [food] can attract people to destinations in the quieter seasons and I think that is quite important and good way of extending the season"* (P14).

	Destination loyalty	Repeat purchase Repeat visits Word of mouth	"*I think that can result in repeat purchase when people come back to the region because they found a great restaurant and they want to bring their friends back and they say 'We need to go back there, because this is great'"* (P14).
	Destination narrative	Adds to the experience Identifying with the landscape Learning experience Unique experience Active Immersion in the destination Cultural exchange Producers Enhanced experience Beyond the gaze Digital marketing Food content on social media Slow tourism Enjoying local culture Not running around	*"It is about adding to the experience and people understanding more about the region, because of the food they eat when they are there and identifying with the landscape where that food is produced and grown"* (P14). "*People can go and stay for a week or few days and sort of learn how to prepare fish or make bread. It is a fabulous experience and you get to know about the cuisine of that particular place while you are there things like even collecting mushrooms for the weekend. People like to learn and I think that there are lots of producers now and people are getting on that learning experience which I think is important"* (P14). *"People come to the region and start to understand the culture and the history of that region. It is enhanced because it is not only about going to see that history, it is about adding to the experience and people understand more about the region, because of the food they eat when they are there and identifying with the landscape where that food is produced and grown"* (P14). "*Going back to the digital marketing, if we look at things like Instagram, some of the most popular content on there is completely about food, so it is then taking those sort of unique food experiences that exist and using those platforms to promote the city"* (P5). *"I think it is a kind of slow-moving way of enjoying the local culture rather than running around and sightseeing"* (P6).
	Economic viability	Supporting local jobs Supporting local economy	*"What is missing from the debate on food and tourism is that local food supports local jobs, so there is a wider effect"* (P8).

	Community cohesion Sustainability	Inclusive of all ethnic groups Bringing community together Bringing people together Educating community about food	*"We are a city with lots of different ethnic groups living in the city. It is less about integrating them, but it is about showing that they are part of the city and part of the city life"* (P3). *"That [food festival] is something that is good for the community and it might be a good reason to hold it. So it may not be about bringing people from all over the region, but it may be a good thing for our community in bringing groups of people together, making them feel good, educating them about food, so that might be another good reason to have it"* (P14).
	Marketing "hook"	Easy to market Another marketing message Easy to package Easy way to promote a destination	*"That is a very easy way to market what the local offer is and get some visitors spending"* (P6). *"Food is one of the pillars of tourism experience. (…) Food is easy to package and promote a whole city"* (P2).

Appendix 23. Suggestions and recommendations for food and tourism development: emerging sub-categories and categories



Appendix 24. Suggestions and recommendations for food and tourism development: coding process (source: author)

Second cycle coding		First cycle coding	
Categories	**Sub-categories**	**Initial codes**	**Supporting interview quotes**
Service	Training	Training the staff Food knowledge Food advocates	*"It is about training the staff so they know not just where the Chatsworth House is, but also where people can get good price local meal that will say something about that region"* (P14). *"In tourism information offices if you are a stranger and coming to a place (…) you want people to be there who are trained that know where the good restaurants are, where the good pubs are, that can give you a local food experience. Are there any food trails that people could go on?"* (P14).
	Education	Educating producers Knowledge required how to market products	*"People really have excellent food and it needs to be supported (…) and not just financially, I mean by education; how they market their products and bring it to the marketplace"* (P14).
	Customer service	Service important Service intrinsically linked with food Customer experience	*"Food and drink they are absolutely essential to the visitor's experience, but also the service that goes with it and the welcome that people provide in our food and drink establishments (…) I think it is the two together that is the key and knowing that they are not just serving local residents, that these are people, you know, they are the icing on the cake when it comes to their turnover"* (P4).
	"You have got to give them theatre"	Front stage Theatre Staged performance? Staged authenticity?	*"The point of their [food] production units is that people should be able to go in and see bread being baked, or coffee roasted, or butter churned. That for us was absolutely crucial. People now shop online a lot, so it is quite difficult to get people to come to towns, or shops. So you have got to give them theatre"* (P13).

Product	Quality	Ensuring quality Cautious about the quality	*"We have to be cautious about the quality (…) Local is important, but if it is local, but it is not that good then what do you have? You do not have very much. It is quite difficult to encourage tourism, national tourism or international tourism, if the quality is not up there"* (P13).
	Food Hygiene	Food hygiene ratings Food hygiene essential	*"There are some businesses that are very clear that scoring 5 [in the food hygiene] and maintaining the score of 5 is an essential attribute of their business. And there are others who might accept 3 stars, but if you look on local authority website, there is information on who scored very badly and there are some of those businesses that are supposed to appeal to tourists. So how do you appeal to tourists if you cannot demonstrate that you have got a food hygiene absolutely right?"* (P10).
	Accreditation schemes	"Taste of Yorkshire" Food accreditation scheme Quality accreditation scheme Badge of honour Quality mark	*"What about developing a 'Taste of Yorkshire' accreditation scheme that recognises the quality assurance of our producers, growers, restaurants, cafés and other food businesses in a way that such a badge of honour becomes recognisable as a quality mark to all who see it?"* (P9).
	Uniqueness	Local food Artisan	*"You have got to find those products that are locally produced and locally grown and artisan"* (P4).
	Stories	Something unique Learning the stories Being nosy	*"We found with our trails that what people really like is the feeling that they are getting something unique. And that they are getting something that is not ordinarily available to anybody (...) What we found with people is that they like learning the stories about people who are not open to the public. It is about being nosy if you like. We have got people who we work with who have got amazing stories to tell, really interesting things to tell"* (P9).
	Develop pride	Pride Passionate about food Secret recipe	"*Being proud and passionate about our food*" (P18). "*There is a bit of mystery behind it [Bakewell Pudding] with the secret ingredient, we do not divulge particularly how I make it, so we make it to our own method. And I do not particularly talk about that method. So it is very different and unique*" (P11).

Experien ce	Experience	Linking food with experiences	*"You have got to try to tie the experience to food and that is what works better in destination marketing"* (P7).
Points of entry	10 key foods of DMO websites	10 key foods 10 unique food products USPs?	*"Maybe a list of 10 key things about the UK that are winning products like for example in France where you would expect to have champagne, their cheeses etc. Things that when you think about France, you think yes these are the top 10 key things that I want to try. What are those things in the UK? What are those products, special things that we want to bring to the marketplace?"* (P14).
	Up to date information	Food information Up to date Someone should be responsible ICT issues	*"Really important is that this [food] information is kept up to date. I do not think it always is. It is really important that somebody is in charge of that website is championing that"* (P14).
	Airports	Airports food shops Airports showcasing food	*"The other thing is the point of entry; looking at things like airports. You are arriving in Portugal and you see shops at the airport which are about Portuguese food, and that again is getting better in our airports, but one time you could get off a plane in Heathrow or Manchester airport and there was no one food destination- English food shop"* (P14).
	Tourism information offices	Tourist information offices food stands Showcasing local food	"*Maybe a stand in that tourist information office that showcases some of the local food, so in Bakewell you would expect to see some Derbyshire honey, some Derbyshire cheese"* (P14).

Strategy	Close relationships with suppliers	Staff visit suppliers Staff should understand food Close connection with food Projecting that on customers	*"All staff go to visit local farms and places that produce the things that we sell (…) because we are local and we want to have a chat and we want to see it and we want to understand and we want our customers to understand that close connection with food that we all have"* (P17).
	Joined approach	Joined thinking Joined approach at national, regional and local levels	*"It has to be nationally and joined up thinking within destinations about what are the things that are important to us nationally, what are the things that are important to us regionally and locally"* (P14).
		Too many people doing their own thing	*"There are too many people, what we feel, just doing their own thing. And the politics does get in the way and personalities get in the way as well. What we are saying is that there is a lot of good stuff going on in here, but if it was more joined up it would be even better. It would be even more on a world stage than we are. Because we have got the potential to be"* (P9).
		Be on the same page Collective discussions Work together Common good Unified approach	*"Sweep aside organisational barriers and boundaries so that the likes of Welcome to Yorkshire, Make it York, Deliciously Yorkshire, the East Yorkshire Local Food Network, Local Enterprise Partnerships, Yorkshire's food experts from production and retail can sit around a table and collectively discuss how we can all work together for the common good in a unified approach that puts Yorkshire food and drink even more on the map"* (P10).
	Food linkages	Combining food with other activities Food and events	*"Another approach is combining local produce with other activities to draw people in; using Sheffield produce in bigger events to showcase Sheffield product, for example snooker events, Tour the Yorkshire, Sheffield Arena Events"* (P8).
	Sustainability	Finding money Financial sustainability Short term planning Getting more stakeholders involved	*"I am not a believer that we should fund food festivals, because we almost have too many of them and I think that to be sustainable they have got to fund themselves. You know giving people £15,000 to start a food festival is not very sustainable because I think places have got to find ways of how you sustain that food festival, because they need to be far better and far more rooted within that region to find local sponsors and local celebrities and local specialists to really be part of that and wanted to do it for themselves rather than just having a great lump of money"* (P14).