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DO RICH SENSORY NARRATIVE CUES  
AFFECT AUDIENCES' FOOD TRAVEL  
VLOG NARRATIVE TRANSPORTATION,  
ATTITUDE, AND FOOD DESTINATION  
VISIT INTENTION?

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requirements of the University of Northumbria  
at Newcastle

for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

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Faculty of Business and Law

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## **Declaration**

I declare that the work contained in this thesis has not been submitted for any other award and that it is all my own work. I also confirm that this work fully acknowledges opinions, ideas, and contributions from the work of others.

Any ethical clearance for the research presented in this thesis has been approved. Approval has been sought and granted for Submission ID: 33780 and ID: 43285 by the Faculty Ethics Committee on the date of 02/08/2021 and 20/02/2022

I declare that the Word Count of this Thesis is 76,129 words.

Name: Wei Liu Hutchinson

Date: 11th October 2022

## Acknowledgements

Mark Zuckerberg used to say, “The greatest successes come from having the freedom to fail”. I believe this provides a glimpse into my existence as a PhD student. My family and I were overjoyed and delighted when I was offered a PhD position in 2018. In their eyes, their daughter is going to achieve her dream in the UK. In my eyes, it is a promise I made when I was still doing my first master's, “I am going to wear that gown!”. In my friends’ eyes, they were simply happy for me that there will be a “Dr” before my name.

All these cool thoughts and excitement faded away when I started my first year. Doing research is a solitary journey. Sometimes I feel like a monk practising Zen isolated in my attic study. Having experienced changing research topics and supervisors, my research is delayed. The stress from the graduated peers, financial insufficiency, self-doubting, and my dad’s cancer condition hurdle me from believing who I am and who I want to be. But there was a voice in my heart, telling me never to give up and don’t forget why I wanted to do it in the first place.

At the very end of the second year, I found this new research topic. I am so pleased and thrilled to be able to perform this research. This study is meaningful as it investigates the influence of rich narrative sensory cues in user-generated food travel vlogs, notably with the considerable situational influence of Covid-19.

After four years of hard work, I finally made it. However, the end is also the beginning of a new chapter. I want to express my deepest appreciation to my supervision team, especially my dedicated principal supervisor Dr Femi Olan. I wouldn’t have been able to complete this journey without his guidance and encouragement. He encouraged and inspired me when I was in the darkest tunnel. This kind of positive support and recognition also encouraged me to think about how to engage my students if one day I become a supervisor. Moreover, I am also incredibly grateful to my parents Yukui Liu and Xiaoqing Liu

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### **Dedication**

To my parents Yukui Liu and Xiaoqing Liu in China who encourage me to pursue a better life, and to my husband Max Laurie Hutchinson, my soulmate and life partner. I hope I made you all proud.

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## Abstract

*Keywords:* Mental imagery processing, sensory-rich language, online sensory experience, narrative transportation, pandemic travel craving

User-generated travel vlog content is one of the information sources that influence pre-travel decisions and watching experiences. Food travel vlogs provide audiences with not only rich visual and auditory stimuli evoking their “daydreaming” in destinations but also provide them with user-generated original narrative travel stories. Applying the theories of embodied cognition as the research approach, the purpose of the current study is to explore the influence of food travel vlog scripts on audiences’ food sensory experience and behavioural intention. A stimulus-based survey is conducted to examine the influence of rich sensory script-induced virtual food sensory experience. Mental imagery processing and narrative transportation theory are incorporated into an integrated model that illustrates how mental imagery affects narrative transportation, post-attitude, behavioural involvement with food, intention to taste and visit intention. Three hundred and fifty-four questionnaires were collected via Amazon Turk Mechanism and structural equation modelling is adopted to analyse the data. The results show that mental imagery quantity and modality have positively influenced audiences’ feeling of being hooked, and mental imagery quantity, modality and valence have a positive influence on audience attitude. The feeling of being hooked has a direct positive influence on visit intention. The post-attitude indirectly positively influences visit intention via food involvement and intention to taste. The results also show that pre-attitude and familiarity negatively moderate two sets of relationships, mental imagery and being hooked, mental imagery and post-attitude. Craving positively moderates food involvement, intention to taste and visit intention. Last but not the least, the significant

influence of the co-variants such as gender, novelty seeking, food neophobia and prior experience are also correlated to the feeling of being hooked and post-attitude. Based on these findings, a range of recommendations is proposed.

## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

### **1.1 Introduction**

*“The senses are a kind of reason. Taste, touch and smell, hearing and seeing, are not merely a means to sensation, enjoyable or otherwise, but they are also a means to knowledge – and are, indeed, your only actual means to knowledge.”*

- St. Thomas Aquinas

This chapter will begin by providing an overview of the research rationale. Subsection 1.3 discusses the aims and objectives of the research. The discussion of the prospective research contribution can be found in subsection 1.4. In the following subsection 1.5, an overview of this investigation is provided at the end of this chapter.

### **1.2 Research rationale**

In the notion of the experience economy, Pine and Gilmore (1998) explain the shift in the economy from consuming goods and services to enjoying staged memorable experiences. The importance of sensory-informed experience and the role of senses in the tourism experience is recognised and gaining increasing attention (Agapito, Mendes, & Valle, 2013; Kim & Fesenmaier, 2017; Agapito, Pinto, & Mendes, 2017; Cohen & Cohen, 2019; Lv, Li, & McCabe, 2020; Le, Scott & Lohmann, 2019). As a very important dimension of the tourist experience, the sensory experience has gained increasing popularity (Agapito, Pinto, & Mendes, 2017; Xiong, Hashim, & Murphy, 2015). Sensory experience is defined as an experience that engages five senses including sight, hearing, touch, taste and smell and arouses aesthetical pleasure, excitement, satisfaction and a sense of beauty (Gentile, Spiller, & Noci, 2007).

The earliest bodily experience applied in tourism is the concept of tourist gaze which acknowledges the existence of multisensory encounters in tourism (Urry, 1990, 1992; Urry & Larsen, 2011). Urry (1992) claims that tourism experience is gained through the representation, tangible semiotics, and visual consumption of landscape. Although the tourist gaze provides a seminal concept for contemporary tourism discussions (Franklin, 2001), there is increasing acknowledgement of embracing wider and more active embodied encounters involvement such as tastescape, smellscape, soundscape and touchscape. (Crouch, 2002; Kastenholz, Carneiro, Marques, & Lima, 2012)

Food tourism is regarded as an embodied form of tourism which is a “ process of experiencing, making sense, knowing through practice as a sensual human subject in the world ” (Crouch, 2000, p.68), which should go beyond the visual gaze (Everett, 2008). Food and tourism are intricately intertwined, beginning with food that supplies the body with energy and essential nutrients (Mak, Lumbers, & Eves, 2012) to a peak experience that gratifies all five senses (Kivela & Crofts, 2006), offering tourists’ sensory pleasure’s that can fulfil the experiential part of the tourist experience (Hjalager & Richards, 2002), a symbol of culture and an experience of “authenticity” (Mkono, Markwell, & Wilson, 2013; Quan & Wang, 2004).

Sensory experiences include physical sensations that can be not only gained directly via the five senses (Rahman, 2019), but also through imagination based on second-hand information (Weathers, Sharma, & Wood, 2007). The concept of sensory perceptions is normally used to describe a sensory experience obtained from direct sensory cues whereas the concept of mental imagery is used to describe the imaged experience when the real sensory cues are not present (Kim, Kim, Park, & Yoo, 2021; Kosslyn, Ganis, & Thompson, 2001). These types of direct and indirect sensory experiences are explained as the online and offline embodiment in the theories of embodied cognition. According to the theories of

embodied cognition, the process of an embodiment may occur independently of the existence of external stimuli. Online embodiment occurs when a consumer interacts directly with a real external stimulus, while offline embodiment occurs when symbols that allude to real stimuli but are not physically present are employed (Niedenthal, Barsalou, Winkielman, Krauth-Gruber, & Ric, 2005; Wilson, 2002). In other words, online embodiment moulds cognition directly from the present sensory inputs of an object, such as sight, hearing, smell, taste, and touch (Carruthers, 2008). In contrast, offline embodiment changes cognition by recalling an item from memory and picturing comparable physical reactions to those with the thing present (Brouillet, Heurley, Martin, & Brouillet, 2010). In an offline embodiment, the stimulus is missing or represented by a word or an image, and consumers' reactions are influenced by their ability to build an image of the stimulus (Niedenthal et al., 2005).

With the advancement of sensory-enabling technology, an offline embodiment in an online environment has attracted increasing attention in marketing research and industry (Petit, Velasco, & Spence, 2019). Offline embodiment disassociates consumers from the real-world environment however without losing the emotional senses and it delivers richer multisensory online experiences for consumers. For example, the embodied mannequin pictures arouse greater embodied mental stimulation and higher attractiveness in the online shopping context (Bagatini, Rech, Pacheco, & Nicolao, 2022). The virtual reality wine tour video evokes a higher intention to purchase and wiliness to pay than the traditional videos (Petit et al., 2019; Wen & Leung, 2021).

A considerable number of recent studies focused on the influence of sensory-enabling technologies such as head-mounted displays, haptic gloves and other wearables (Xi & Hamari, 2021) which facilitate the integration of sensory inputs and provides consumers with enhanced immersive multisensory experience (Flavián, Ibáñez-Sánchez, & Orús, 2021; Tussyadiah, Jung, & tom Dieck, 2018; Yung, Khoo-Lattimore, & Potter, 2021). Although

sensory-enabling technologies do provide a more immersive multisensory experience in the digital environment, the current digital experiences are still mainly based on audio-visual stimulation (Petit et al., 2019).

The user-generated content, especially user-generated vlogs (video blogs) allows individuals to capture and share their experiences and attractive sites through the lens of a smartphone or any camera device. User-generated vlogs also offer a unique proposition of digital storytelling (Peralta, 2019). Travel vlog as an audio-visual variant of a travel blog has become increasingly popular in recent years. YouTube, as a fast-growing video content community, has more than 2 billion users (almost a third of the internet users), generating 1 billion hours of video views daily (YouTube, 2020). The views of pre-defined video categories, “Travel & Event”, increased by 41% in August and September 2018 compared to 2017 (Google, 2018). Crowel, Gribben, and Loo (2014) utilise YouTube data, finding that potential tourists spend more time watching online videos than ever before, with year-over-year (YoY) views of travel-related content up 118%. This online experience of mental escapism helps the audience get away from reality and lose themselves in a virtual world that brings them pleasure and future travel ideas (Le, et al., 2019). With the increasing popularity of vlog research among scholars, travel vlog is defined as tourist-generated video content that is publicly accessible online; and it is a representation of the creator’s travelling experience (Xu, Chen, Pearce, Mohammadi, & Pearce, 2021).

Food travel vlog has become a trend as the increasing demand for experiencing gastronomy tourism (Li, Xu, Song, & He, 2020) and the experiential pleasure of food (Batat et al., 2019). Food is an important motivation factor for tourists to travel (Chang, Morrison, Lin, & Ho, 2020) and a path to uncovering a destination’s culinary identity, cultural heritage, shared gastronomy value and lifestyle (Boniface, 2017; Brulotte & Di Giovine, 2016). Food travel vlogs record the whole experiential pleasure of a food journey where the vloggers

contemplate the sensory pleasure, connecting with audiences and telling their own food travel stories (Batat et al., 2019). By watching the food travel vlogs, audiences vicariously experience the multisensory food experience and emotionally engaged. A few studies have investigated the influences of food travel vlogs on audience engagement and behavioural intention (Li et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2021). Some like Briliana, Ruswidiono, and Deitiana (2020) believe that a food vlog is a type of electronic Word-of-Mouth (eWoM) that reflects the vlogger's evaluation of food which cognitively affects the audiences' perceived usefulness of the content and purchase decisions. Li et al. (2020) propose a similar conclusion in the context of destination image which indicates that short food vlogs can significantly influence the destination cognitive, affective, and conative image. Undoubtedly food travel vlog is a type of eWoM, but what a food travel vlog can offer to the audiences and scholars is far more than a review. Due to the audio-visual modality and narrative nature, a travel vlog would be an ideal user-generated information source that contains rich sensory descriptions and positive comments to attract audience attention (Coker, Flight, & Baima, 2021), evoke audience mental imagery (Simmonds, Bogomolova, Kennedy, Nenycz-Thiel, & Bellman, 2020) and affect audience emotions (Mehraliyev, Kirilenko, & Choi, 2020) and behavioural intention (Kim et al., 2021). Mental imagery processing, a perceptual representation of nonverbal information in working memory, has been explored in marketing research as an important information processing mechanism of marketing stimulus (Bone & Ellen, 1992; MacInnis & Price, 1987). Many studies have extensively investigated mental imagery stimuli in textual, pictorial and audio-visual marketing materials in enhancing tourists' visit intention by selling tourism dreams (Bogicevic, Seo, Kandampully, Liu, & Rudd, 2019; Lee & Gretzel, 2012). Yet the role of a user-generated vlog as the organic information source (Muda & Hamzah, 2021) in facilitating imagery is a gap worth further investigation. The power of verbal communication shouldn't be underestimated in user-generated audio-visual

communication. According to Paivio's (1986) dual coding theory, information that an individual hears, or views will be encoded and stored in both the verbal system and visual systems. Studies like Peralta (2019) have investigated the visual features of travel vlogs, yet the auditory features, especially the embodied language in narrative scripts have attracted much less attention (Mehraliyev et al., 2020). Undeniably the quality of the sound and certain food-related sounds (e.g. the sizzling sound) can positively influence the perception of the food experience (Spence, Reinoso-Carvalho, Velasco, & Wang, 2019), but the sensory-rich and emotion-arousal verbal descriptions of food travel experience worth more attention especially in the virtual environment. Because these descriptions contain rich embodied stimulation involving five senses that can evoke mental imagery, the ease of generating related imagery and vivid imageries (Chang, 2013; Kuzmičová, 2014; Le et al., 2019). Especially in the online environment when smell, tactile and gustatory senses are completely missing. The sensory descriptions, from literal sensory descriptions to synaesthetic metaphors (Lievers, 2015; Winter, 2019), contribute to the rich elaboration of the stimulus and compensate for the lack of certain senses with linguistic cues. Vloggers describe their food taste and flavour and their emotion. The rich sensory descriptions allow audiences to have bodily feelings (Kuzmičová, 2014) and feel aroused (Kim, Kim, & Bolls, 2014). Some taste and smell words do not only stimulate the imagination but are also closely linked to emotional processing. For example, “pungent” and “delicious” have strong emotional valence (Winter, 2016). Kronrod, Hammar, Lee, Thind, and Mangano (2021) also indicate that figurative language such as metaphor can induce pleasure and food enjoyment. This type of linguistic cues-induced emotion research has been applied in online restaurant reviews to customer rating (Mehraliyev et al., 2020), which found that sensory experience has an impact on customer rating. Scholars attempt to find correlations between sensory linguistic cues on food enjoyment and emotions which further coincides with the importance of this study.



Especially in the context of user-generated content, it will contribute to sensory marketing research with the stimulus of narrative verbal communication. Although there are studies examined the user-generated sensory lexicons in wine reviews (Lefever, Hendrickx, Croijmans, Van den Bosch, & Majid, 2018) and whiskey reviews (Hamilton & Lahne, 2020), they are focused on the product property and flavour profile instead of the implication in consumer behaviour.

Apart from sensory descriptions, food travel vlogs also contain many emotion-loaded words (Whitelaw, Garg, & Argamon, 2005). Positive words play a vital role in engaging and influencing readers (Wu, 2018). The positive aspect is important in user-generated travel reviews reflecting personal positivity and affection and further revealing the perception of the destination images (Estela Marine-Roig, 2019; Marine-Roig, Ferrer-Rosell, Daries, & Cristobal-Fransi, 2019). Although studies have identified the importance of positive aspects in user-generated content, there is little research has investigated the consequences of the emotion-loaded food travel vlog script stimuli on mental imagery valence, and behavioural intention.

The narrativity of food travel vlogs enables audiences to engage in their user-generated stories and get transported to the food destinations via vlogs. Narrative transportation theory (Green & Brock, 2002) explains the narrative elements such as imaginable plot and identifiable characters, that contribute to persuasiveness, especially in a hedonic experience like travel. Narrative stories are better understood than arguments, attract attention, help audiences get “hooked” on the story, reduce the counter-argument, and change audience beliefs, attitudes, and intentions (Escalas, Moore, & Britton, 2004). Although, a few studies have investigated storytelling in the digital environment. Van Laer, Feiereisen, and Visconti (2019) identify the stories that are generated by users have stronger narrative persuasion. A food travel vlog script is a typical example of user-generated storytelling with

rich sensory cues neglected. The embodied rich sensory cues and narrative storytelling give audiences two ways to imagine, by sensory mental imagery and imagining with the storyline. These two imagery approaches do lead to similar attitudinal consequences such as a change in belief and behavioural intention. Although the extended-transportation-imagery (Van Laer, De Ruyter, Visconti, & Wetzels, 2014) attempts to explore the antecedents and consequences of narrative-evoked mental imagery and the moderating effect of stimuli modality. However, the two imagery approaches both exist in food travel vlogs, but they can't be explained by one single model. Therefore, this research bridges these two imagery approaches by introducing the narrative consequence construct of "being hooked" to the mental imagery model, which further extends the theories of embodied cognition and narrative transportation.

The Covid-19 pandemic travel restrictions have delayed many travelling plans and emotionally "imprisoned" us like caged birds. Although physically bound at home, people still constantly dream about having a leisure trip elsewhere. The travel-deprived tourists crave online, technology-mediated, contactless travel experiences to help them fly "free" by using their imaginations (Irimiás & Zoltán Mitev, 2021). Travel craving is a concept proposed by from the elaboration intrusion theory (May, Andrade, Kavanagh, & Hetherington, 2012; May, Kavanagh, & Andrade, 2015), as "a travel-focused cognitive-emotional event with aversive or incentive properties experienced when a person who wishes to travel cannot do so, for reasons beyond their control" (Mitev and Irimiás, 2021, p.2). Travel craving is not equal to travel intention or a precursor of actual travel, instead, travel craving is a deprived state of mind that the travel desire cannot be satisfied. Travel cravings can be strengthened by external stimuli such as emotion-focused communication stories or consumer narratives (Irimiás & Zoltán Mitev, 2021). A food travel vlog is a type of visual stimulus that contains rich sensory cues and storytelling. As a recently defined concept, there are only limited studies investigating the antecedents of travel cravings. Irimiás and Zoltán Mitev (2021) call

for an investigation of the influence of travel craving in future research. Therefore, this research responds to the call by examining the moderating effect of travel craving on food involvement, intention to taste and visit intention.

### **1.3 Research aims and objectives**

In this study, food travel vlog scripts are seen as narrative sensory stimuli that evoke audience mental imagery processing. The gap in mental imagery processing research is the lack of studies on stimuli affecting emotion and behavioural intention (Zheng, Chen, Zhang, & Guo, 2021). It is urgent and important to explore the food travel vlog scripts in evoking mental imagery processing, emotion, and behavioural intention because of the increasing popularity of travel vlogs and the influencer culture (Abad & Borbon, 2021). In addition, food travel vlogs are also an important source for tourists' decision-making on the intention to visit and the intention to taste. Especially in the context of the Covid-19 Pandemic, when physically visiting some destination become impossible, the lockdown captivity and wanderlust enhanced the audience's travel craving (Irimiás & Zoltán Mitev, 2021). In addition, a few food tourism-related research examines food tourist-related factors in investigating factors such as food neophobia (Dimitrovski & Crespi-Vallbona, 2017), and novelty seeking (Dimitrovski & Crespi-Vallbona, 2017) in consuming local/ethnic food. It is unknown whether these factors also potentially affect audiences' attitudes and behavioural intention in a virtual imagery local food experience. This research will consider these factors in a stimulus-based imagery food experience.

This research explores how audiences respond to a sensory-rich and positive narrative food travel vlog script of Japan. To gain a deeper understanding of the interaction between mental imagery and narrative transportation by proposing to use "being hooked" as a

narrative consequence of the mental imagery process. Furthermore, this research provides new insights into the online sensory experience and proposes an advanced conceptual framework

Given the importance of the food travel vlog experience (Li et al., 2020) and the discussed research gaps, this study seeks to understand the underlying processes of how food travel vlog scripts influence emotion and behavioural intention via bodily imagery in the pandemic context. This study is designed to use a food travel vlog script that is rich in sensory and positive emotion and aims to investigate the core research questions: How would audiences respond to sensory-rich positive narrative stimuli? This general research question consists of the following two sub-questions:

(1) How do the sensory-rich positive narrative stimuli induce audiences mental imagery, and what are the post-attitude and behavioural consequences of the mental imagery?

(2) Do tourist food-personality-related, information-processing-related, pre-attitude-related and pandemic-related factors influence audiences being hooked level, their attitude and behaviour?

To answer the questions above, this study aims to propose an integrated conceptual model to explain how audiences respond to the sensory rich narrative stimuli in food travel vlog and which are the factors influence their responses. In order to achieve this overall research aim, consumers's mental imagery will be examined in terms of mental imagery quantity, quality, modality and valence. Consumers' attitude and behavioural consequences will be examined in terms of different levels of key constructs developed in the literature including post-attitude, being hooked, behavioural involvement with food, intention to taste, visit intention. This leads to the following specific research objectives:

(1) To investigate the quantity, quality, modality and valence of audiences' mental imagery that evoked by the sensory rich narrative stimuli.

(2) To explore the role of mental imagery in post-attitude and behavioural consequences based on the mental imagery processing.

(3) To explore the role of being hooked on attitude and behavioural consequences.

(4) To examine the impact of travel craving on the intensity of the behavioural consequences.

(5) To test whether pre-attitude and familiarity with the food destination moderate the attitude and behavioural change.

(6) To test whether information processing style and transportation ability directly affect mental imagery processing.

(7) To test whether food tourists' factors on local food consumption co-variate with pre-attitude and familiarity with the food destination. This study also responds to the call for more studies on high-elaboration imagery processing that enables tourists to experience narrative imagination (Le et al., 2019).

The study shows that the differences in using rich sensory and positive tones in narrative stimuli can result in differences in imagery. Meanwhile, to respond to the call from Irimiás and Zoltán Mitev (2021) for a better understanding of tourists' elaboration of travel thoughts and imagery under the pandemic context, this study tests the travel craving as an alternative concept to travel intention when travel is impossible. To address these issues, the related theories and literature are reviewed, and three preliminary studies are conducted to support the narrative script choice and validate the potential constructs of the primary research. The language (narrative sensory description) -mental imagery-attitude-behavioural model is proposed and validated through online survey data and followed by a discussion of the theoretical and managerial implications of the study.

## 1.4 Research contributions

Despite an increasing number of schools developing more interest in food travel vlogs, the influence of verbal narration as language cues evoking audiences' mental imagery process and their behavioural intention are under-researched. The contribution of this research can be five-fold. Firstly, this research will contribute to the theories of embodied cognition and sensory marketing by applying mental imagery processing in a food travel vlog context. According to the theories of embodied cognition, conscious bodily sensations can predict judgment and behaviour (Niedenthal et al.,2005). Applying the theory of embodied cognition and sensory marketing literature suggests that the integration of sensory inputs shapes consumers' experiences and further affects their judgments and behaviours (Krishna & Schwarz, 2014). Specifically, studies on food multisensory experiences affect consumers' food and drink experiences (Wen & Leung, 2021). Thus, it will be interesting to explore whether the user-generated food travel vlog script will make a difference in consumers' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards destination food.

User-generated food travel vlog is a hedonic and decision-making information source. It is also seen as an important marketing strategy in tourism. Subsequently, substantive research on digital travel vlogs may assist tourism marketers to leverage this medium. The present study seeks to establish a holistic understanding of the mechanism of mental imagery processing stimulated by sensory-rich positive narrative stimuli on online food travel destinations and its affective and behavioural consequences. Although a great number of studies on digital sensory experience have acknowledged the role of sensory-rich stimuli in enhancing attitude and visit intention in audio-visual contexts or more immersive contexts such as virtual reality. The role of mental imagery in a sensory-rich, positive narrative as well as the relationship with narrative transportation has been under-researched. The current main survey study will expand existing knowledge on the impact of mental imagery on audiences'

decision-making by examining the important role of mental imagery in enhancing audiences' positive post-attitude, behavioural involvement with food, intention to taste and visit intention. The study also integrates the influence of narrative persuasion by investigating the mediating role of being hooked. This proposed model integrates narrative consequences, being hooked to mental imagery processing consequences which contribute to the development of language-induced mental imagery processing on the imagery food tourism experience. Moreover, the study will answer the call for more research on narrative stimuli and their effect on online tourist behaviour (Le et al. 2020).

Secondly, the food tourist-related factors that influence local food consumption including age, gender, food neophobia and novelty-seeking are widely recognised in food tourism studies. This research acknowledges these influential factors and extends the knowledge on whether these factors also have influence even in an imagery food experience. In addition, due to the natural process of choosing a food travel vlog to watch, audiences tend to choose food destinations that interest them or have a positive pre-attitude. This research is set as stimulus-based research where audiences are not able to choose based on their interest. However, this on the other hand will test the moderating effects of familiarity and pre-attitude on consumers, which will contribute to the knowledge that how mental imagery processing affects the destination food attitude, behavioural involvement with food, intention to taste and visit intention, which will fill in the research gap and contributes to the food tourism literature. The findings of the study will both contribute to our knowledge of technology-mediated food travel experience and provide timely suggestions to the vloggers and tourism industry to make the most of the user-generated vlog content.

Thirdly, travel craving is a travel-focused cognitive-emotional event with unpleasant or motivating features experienced when a person who aspires to travel is prevented from doing so due to circumstances beyond his or her control (Irimiás & Zoltán Mitev, 2021;

Mitev & Irimiás, 2021). This research integrates the travel craving influence from the lockdown captivity in affecting audiences' behavioural intention which extends the elaborated intrusion theory on desire. The study provides empirical evidence to support how sensory-rich positive narrative script induces destination food mental imagery. By investigating the psychological effect of travel craving, this study responds to the call from Sigala (2020) call for a close examination of the psychological and behavioural responses of (non)tourists to the Covid19 pandemic. In addition, this research also responds to the call from that Shahriari, Torres, Zúñiga, and Alfayez (2019) on further research on different imagery stimuli evoke food craving. This study investigates food craving in a travel context by identifying whether travel craving will enhance destination food attitude, behavioural involvement, intention to taste and visit intention.

Fourthly the research demonstrates the use of mixed methods research to develop mental imagery processing in the context of a food travel vlog script. The research explores language-induced mental imagery by analysing linguistic patterns in popular food trip vlogs, which contributes to the perceptual symbol theory by extending the knowledge of language cues in terms of user-generated content.

Fifthly, practically speaking, the findings will be beneficial for food travel vloggers, destination marketing organisations advertisements, and Virtual Reality destination marketing narrations in enhancing effective sensory rich narrative storytelling.



## **1.5 Outline of the study**

This thesis is broken down into six different chapters. To begin, the introduction presents the research backdrop to acquire a general grasp of the setting in which the research was conducted. Following that, a presentation and discussion of the research's aims, objectives, the significance of the study, and primary contributions take place.

Chapter 2 first provides a review of related literature on food tourism, and food tourist-related factors affecting local food consumption, followed by a review of senses, embodied cognition, and perceptual symbols system. Mental imagery processing, the narrative consequences, and moderators (individual and situational) are reviewed. Based on the extant literature, each relevant construct is defined and the relationships between rich sensory narrative content, narrative transportation, attitude, and behavioural intention are established based on narrative transportation theory and mental imagery processing theory. However, these relationships are impacted by a wide variety of factors, including the consumers' processing style, transportation ability, pre-attitude, novelty-seeking motivation, level of food neophobia, and prior familiarity with the destination.

In Chapter 3, the specific methods that were used to conduct the empirical stage of the study for both the data collection and the data analysis stages are presented. A pilot survey is used to confirm the latent variables generated from the literature that might have an impact on consumers' narrative engagement, attitude, and behavioural intention in response to the selected narrative stimulus. For data collection, a questionnaire survey is used, and structural equation modelling (SEM) is utilised for the purpose of data analysis.

In Chapter 4, three preliminary netnographic studies are conducted based on 192 sample food travel vlogs with two software Leximancer and LIWC. By identifying the qualitative and quantitative language style in the popular food travel vlogs, study 1 and study 2 laid a grounded foundation for choosing suitable narrative stimuli for the primary survey.

Study 3 validates the potential consequential constructs from the literature by conducting a thematic analysis from the audience comments.

The findings and discoveries of the descriptive and explorative data, as well as the testing of the hypotheses, are presented in Chapter 5. SPSS, PROCESS macro and AMOS are employed throughout the statistical analysis process.

In Chapter 6, the results are broken down, analysed, and interpreted both on their own and in relation to previous research. The concluding chapter provides a synopsis of the most important research findings as well as some recommendations. In addition, both theoretical and practical perspectives on the research contributions are analysed and discussed. In addition, the conclusion includes a discussion of the limitations of the study along with recommendations for further research. Figure 1.1 illustrates the flow of this research.

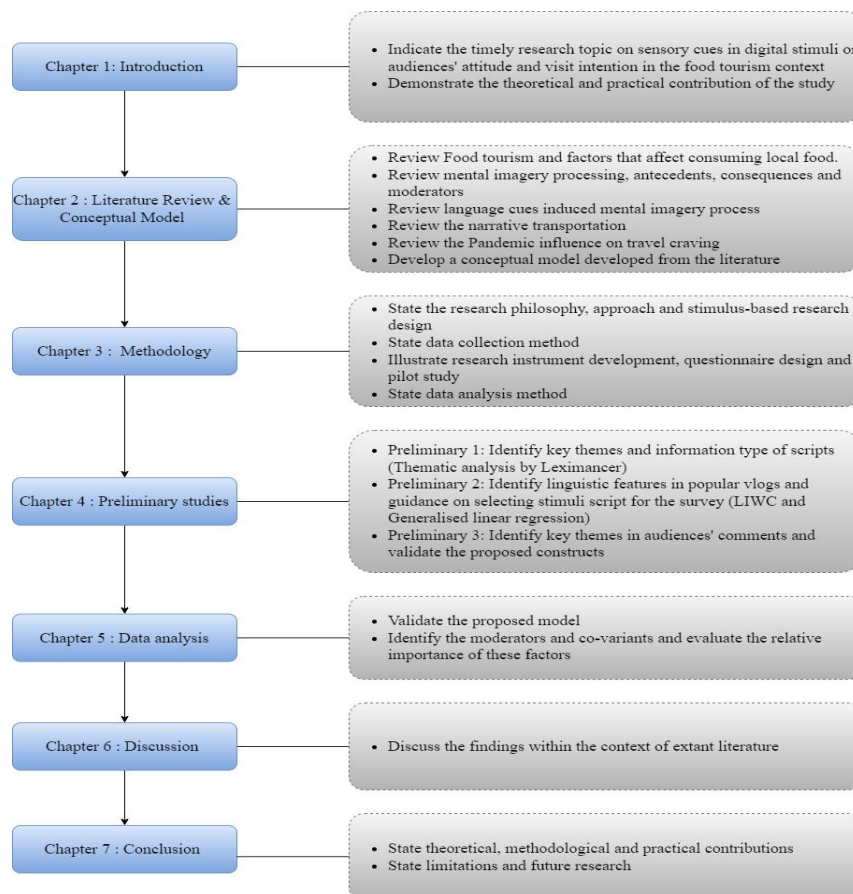


Figure 1.1 The flow of this research

## **Chapter 2: Literature review and conceptual model**

### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter aims to provide a systematic review of the extant literature in neuropsychology, linguistics, marketing and tourism to gain a comprehensive understanding of the research objectives.

Section 2.2 focuses on providing an overall picture of the food tourism-related research and where this research positions. A detailed overview of potential factors that influence tourists' local food consumption. By identifying these factors, it acknowledges the individual factors and situational factors that affect the online food travel experience. Section 2.3 presents the theoretical foundation of the mechanism of digital stimuli and the existing studies on different types of stimuli evoking mental imagery. A special focus, on language sensory cues and the supporting theory, perceptual symbol theory is reviewed. Based on the narrative nature of food travel vlog verbal content, the narrative persuasion effect, being hooked is reviewed. The consequences of mental imagery processing are presented. The moderators including the individual-related moderators and situational pandemic-related moderators are proposed. Meanwhile, the conceptual model is proposed based on the findings of the literature in section 2.3. Last but not the least, section 2.4 summarise the findings and the gaps in the literature.

The literature review adopts the integrated approach (Agapito, 2020), where guiding criteria methods and bibliometric methods are both used to reduce the subjective selection bias and better identify the relevant works in the research field.

The literature review starts with the development of search protocol following the criteria for two themes. Theme one is concentrated on literature related to food tourism, food

tourist and factors affecting local ethnic food consumption. It follows three criteria as follows:

The first criterion focuses on providing an overview picture of general food tourism and food tourist experience rather than food tourism destination marketing from the perspective of the destination marketing organisations (DMOs), the search protocol utilised is “food tourism” or “food tourist” or “gastronomic tourism” or “culinary tourism” or “food experience” or “food travel”, not “food destination marketing” nor “food destination image”.

Secondly, the criterion helps narrow down the focus on the digital food experience instead of the on-site food experience by using keywords including “food vlog” or “food travel vlog” or “food review” or “food short video”, or “food VR”.

Thirdly, the criterion focuses on identifying the factors that influence local ethnic food consumption. Although there are cognitive attributes such as food price and food safety, because of the nature of imagery information processing, these factors are not significant in the context of digital media-induced food travel imagery experience. Therefore, the search protocol utilises the keywords “factors influence local ethnic food consumption” or “pandemic food travel craving” or “Covid-19 food craving” and excludes the cognitive attributes such as “food price” and “perceived food risk”.

The second theme is focused on literature concerning senses, embodied cognition, sensory marketing and the cognitive linguistic approach. The detailed criteria entail:

Fourthly, the senses as a component of the tourism experience as well as individual sensory modality, the search protocol utilised are “senses” or “sensory” or “multisensory” or “multi-sensory”

Fifthly, concerning the language-induced sensory experience, the keywords include “language-induced mental imagery” or “embodied cognition AND words” or

“neuropsychology AND words” or “sensory experience AND words” or “narrative transportation” or “being hooked”.

Sixthly, for the mental imagery-related literature, the keywords include “mental imagery”, or “mental imagery in tourism”, “destination imagery”, “mental imagery in marketing”, “food imagery”, or “food sensory imagery”.

These criteria are followed to search for publications in the peer-reviewed scientific database Scopus as the advantage of large coverage of social science articles which is more appropriate to generate a sample of publications for analysis (Wijesinghe, Mura, & Bouchon, 2019). Following the recommendation that “bibliometric studies should not focus only on leading journals” in the field (Koseoglu, Rahimi, Okumus, & Liu, 2016), the journals and publication dates are not filtered. The titles, abstracts and keywords are screened manually to guarantee no duplicates or articles without full text. A bibliometric relational search procedure is in place by using “Researchrabbitapp.com” (Research Rabbit, 2022) which uses an AI algorithm to help generate similar works and co-citation networks by searching on the keywords identified in the six criteria. The search is finalised in September 2022. As a result, the final list includes 398 articles.

## **2.2 Food tourism and related research**

### **2.2.1 Food tourism and similar terms**

When discussing food-related activity in tourism, there are three major terms “food tourism”, “culinary tourism” and gastronomic tourism” (Ellis, Park, Kim, & Yeoman, 2018; Horng & Tsai, 2012; Sánchez-Cañizares & López-Guzmán, 2012). These three terms are very similar and are used interchangeably in many kinds of literature (Ellis et al., 2018). Food tourism refers to visitations to food-related activities such as visiting a restaurant, street food stall or food festivals and the primary motivation of the trip is to try special local food (Hall & Sharples, 2003). Tourists desire to experience a certain type of food or related food

experience and motivate by that destination choice (Bertella, 2011; Ellis et al., 2018; Hall & Sharples, 2003; Lee, Alexander, & Kim, 2014). “Culinary tourism” on the other hand, highlight food as a cultural bridge between insider and outsider (Silkes, Cai, & Lehto, 2013). In the relevant literature, the “culinary tourism” term implies an undeniable and essential connection between food and culture, which distinguishes it from other related terms (Ellis et al., 2018). Although “food tourism” and “culinary tourism” have been used to comprehend tourists' desire and food activities, “food tourism” is more focused on the physical sensory embodied experience driven by a desire or motivation to engage with local cuisine (Everett & Slocum, 2013; Kim, Park, & Lamb, 2019; Lin & Mao, 2015; Rahman, Khalifah, & Ismail, 2017). But the culinary tourism is focused on the cultural knowledge obtained from physical experience (Ellis et al., 2018). Compared with these two terms, “gastronomic tourism” is less common in literature. Hegarty and O'mahony (1999) defined “gastronomy” as the place of food within the culture and lifestyle of the society from a host-driven perspective. Beverages such as beer or wine tourism are included in gastronomic tourism (Dixit, 2019; Kivela & Crofts, 2006). In this research, the term “food tourism” is adapted as this research emphasises the embodied sensory aspect of food-related tourism activity. This research follows the cultural anthropology approach proposed by Ellis et al. (2018) where food tourism is seen as a cultural experience grounded in the experience economy. Food is also seen as a unique element contributing to the culture, acting as a metaphoric representation of ethnicity, cultural identity and history like haggis and Scotland, kimchi and Korea, and sushi and Japan (Ellis et al., 2018). Tourists interact with places through the medium of food.

### 2.2.2 Overview of food tourism research

Food tourism studies are gaining increasing popularity in tourism studies. The extant literature on food tourism research has mainly focused on five aspects, including destination foodscape, food tourist-related studies, on-site multisensory gastronomic experience and behavioural intention, technology-mediated food travel information or experience and related behavioural consequences and the food tourism sustainability and Covid-19 post-pandemic recovery. Figure 2.1 illustrates how this research is posited in the extant literature in red.

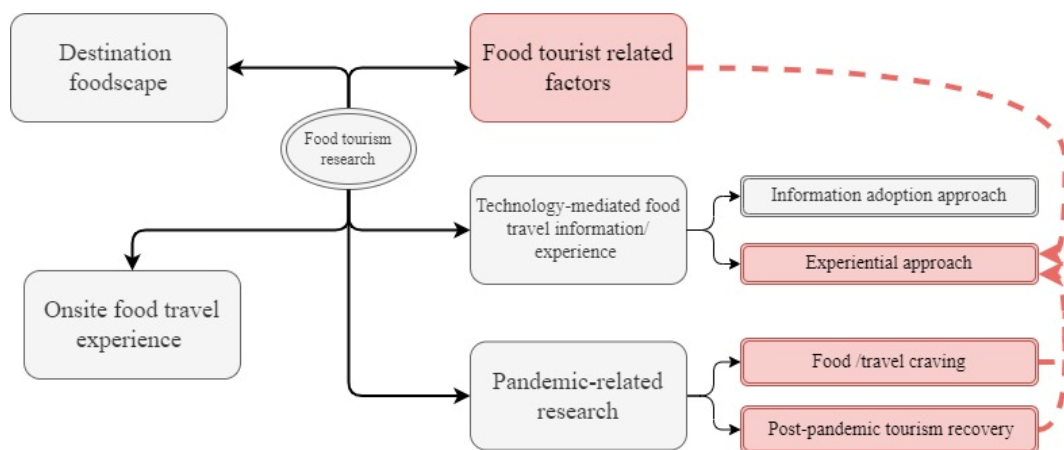


Figure 2.1 Food tourism relevant studies

The first stream of research adapts the well-known “experiencescape” perspective which entails how the physical service environment can influence service providers and consumers (Pine & Gilmore, 1998) in tourism as foodscape or tastescape. These studies emphasise local foodscape as a marketing dimension (Björk & Kauppinen-Räsänen, 2019; Park & Widyanta, 2022) to promote gastronomic experience (Bernardo, Agapito, & Guerreiro, 2021) in a regional unique food destination proposition in different regions (Fusté-Forné, 2020; Bendegul Okumus, 2020; Rachão, Breda, Fernandes, & Joukes, 2019) or opportunities for service providers (Bowen, 2021). Although destinations play a vital role in promoting food tourism, the second stream of the food tourism research highlights the importance of tourism, the tourist’s factors that affect food travel visit intention such as their prior

knowledge, and food involvement experience (Omar, Ab Karim, Isa, & Omar, 2020) food-related personality (e.g., food neophobia), local food consumption value (Rousta & Jamshidi, 2020), motivation to consume local food (Hassan, Yazeed, & Abdullah, 2020; Kim et al., 2019), novelty-seeking motivation (Chang, Kim, & Kim, 2018) and food travel planning style (Levitt, Zhang, DiPietro, & Meng, 2019). The third stream of food tourism research where research explores onsite multisensory food travel experience and its attitude and behavioural consequences. For example, Esau and Senese (2022) emphasise the emotional connection and experience of the memorable association with the senses of wine tourism. Leong, Karim, Awang, and Abu Bakar (2017) gastronomy attractiveness positively directly affect tourists' satisfaction and behavioural intention. Most of the studies in this stream investigate the relationship between the local food-tasting experience and the attitudinal consequences such as destination loyalty, satisfaction, intention to taste, food involvement (Robinson & Getz, 2016) and visit intention (Lim, Ng, Chuah, Cham, & Rozali, 2020). Some of the studies also examine the moderating role of food neophobia and previous tasting experience (Badu-Baiden, Kim, Xiao, & Kim, 2022), variety-seeking and food involvement (Lim et al., 2020) in predicting the attitude and behavioural consequences. The fourth stream is related to technology-mediated food tourism experience and online food tourism-related information. One of the approaches treats online food tourism-related information as an information source that affects consumers' decision-making. For example, gastronomy online reviews motivate consumers to consume ethnic food by providing attractive and useful content that includes price, food tradition, ingredients, and food health value (Lim et al., 2020). Similar results are found in food vlogger reviews that positively affect consumers' behavioural intention (Briliana et al., 2020). The need for cognitive information and the credibility of the information source is heavily emphasised in this approach. As it assumes consumers rational decision-makers and makes decisions based on the attributes of the food destination. The



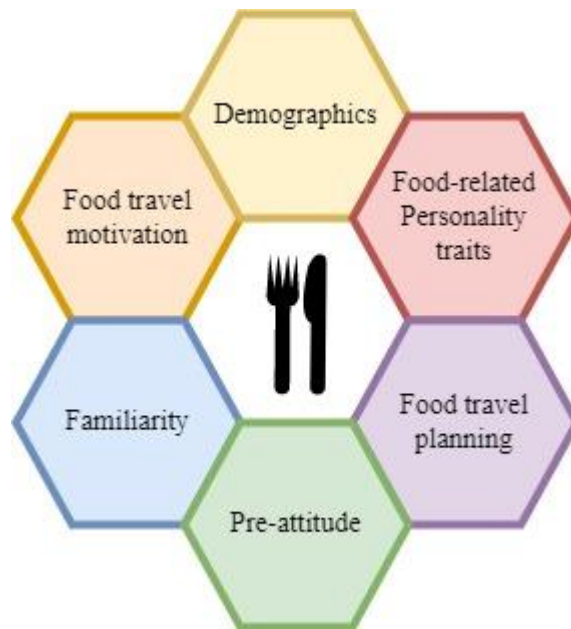
theory of planned behaviour, the technology acceptance model, uses & gratification theory are mostly used to explain the consumer's technology adoption and behavioural intention in this approach (Shahab, Ghazali, & Mohtar, 2021). This cognitive attribute-based approach fits into the elaboration likelihood model in persuasion where technology-mediated information is adopted as a cognitive type of electronic word-of-mouth (eWoM) which builds a logical argument to change consumers' attitude and behavioural consequences (Leong, Hew, Ooi, & Lin, 2019). The other approach views online food tourism from an experiential perspective which is a technology-mediated embodied and storytelling experience (Le et al., 2019). For example, Brochado, Stoleriu, and Lupu (2021) see online wine video as a digitally embodied experience that can enhance the purchase intention and willingness to pay. With this second approach, online food tourism information is seen as stimuli that enable audiences to imagine with them from the sensory cues and the story plots. This embodied experiential perspective is based on the theories of embodied cognition and sensory marketing (Ha, Huang, & Park, 2019) and the narrative transportation effect (Van Laer, Edson Escalas, Ludwig, & Van Den Hende, 2019; Van Laer, Feiereisen, et al., 2019) are widely adopted in general online tourism experience studies but under-researched in the food tourism context. However, the online food travel experience should not only focus on the mental imagery and narrative transportation effect in the generic tourism experience but also consider food tourists as a different tourist segmentation group due to their tourist-related local food consumption factors. In this research, the second approach is adopted which claims that the food travel vlog is far more than a cognitive attribute-based eWoM. Instead, it is a rich sensory and emotion-loaded narrative story that evokes audiences' mental imagery processing and narrative transportation. The literature related to mental imagery processing and narrative transportation consequences is reviewed in detail. Last but not the least, the fifth stream focuses on food tourism sustainability, especially in the context of the Covid-19 pandemic.

Research suggests that online food tourism experiences or virtual tours are a means to an end post-Covid recovery, which can positively increase tourists' visit intention (Said & Aziz, 2022). This research posits itself as an exploration of the technology-mediated online food travel experience with the consideration of food tourists' local food consumption factors and situational pandemic influence.

### **2.2.3 Food tourist-related factors affecting food destination choice**

#### ***2.2.3.1 Food tourists and local ethnic food consumption***

Although food tourism is gaining increasing popularity, food tourism is not for everyone especially when comes to consuming local food. The geographically unique local food is called "ethnic food". In a narrow sense, ethnic food is defined as food that gathers the legacy, heritage and culture that originated from an ethnic group that utilises their knowledge of local ingredients and food sources. In a broader sense, ethnic food is also seen as a cultural or social cuisine representation of an ethnic group or a country that is accepted outside of the respective ethnic group (Kwon, 2015). Several studies investigated the factors affecting tourists. However, for tourists to choose to consume ethnic food is depending on a few factors such as tourists' novelty-seeking motivation, and food trait personality (i.e., food neophobia level). Figure 2.2 summarises the tourist's related factors that influence local food consumption from the literature.



*Figure 2.2 Tourist's factors influence local ethnic food consumption*

### **2.2.3.2 Demographics**

Kim, Eves, and Scarles (2009) propose that gender, age, and education are the key demographic factors influencing tourists' local food consumption. Females, highly educated consumers, with good disposable income tend to show interest in food tourism (Chen & Huang, 2018). For example, Generation Y likes to share their local food experiences through social media and spend a lot of money on good food while travelling (Alliance & Present, 2015). Kim, Choe, and Lee (2018) find Generation Y shows significantly more food involvement than non-generation Y when they are exposed to food promotional videos. Kim, Lee, and Yoon (2012) identify that age and gender affect tourists' intention to try ethnic restaurants. Males are inclined to be more interested in cultural experience and local food consumption but females are interested in interpersonal relationships in shared dining experiences (Kim, Eves, & Scarles, 2013). Gender difference and age difference are two factors that interact with food neophobia, which further leads to differences in travel food preference (Bendegül Okumus, Dedeoğlu, & Shi, 2021). Age, gender and income factors are

related to food travel motivation (Su, Johnson, & O'Mahony, 2016) and food neophobia (Kim et al., 2013). In addition, evidence of ethnicity differences also results in the different levels of local food safety risks. Non-Asians are more concerned about food safety risks, which decreases their visit intention (Yeung & Yee, 2019). Ethnicity is also closely related to food familiarity and food neophobia level.

### ***2.2.3.3 Food travel motivation***

Many studies have investigated the travel motivations of food tourism. Following the traditional push-pull framework proposed by Crompton (1979), Su, Lester, and Barry (2020) conducted an online survey on foodies, and find that push factors that affect food tourist travel include the taste of food, socialisation, cultural experiences, and the pull factors include core food-tourism appeals, traditional food appeals and local destination appeals. Kim et al. (2009) apply a grounded approach and find nine similar motivational factors that affect local food consumption namely, an exciting experience, escape from routine, health concerns, acquiring knowledge, an authentic experience, togetherness, prestige, sensory appeal, and physical environment. and tourists' novelty-seeking motivation are the key to the local food consumption. Lee and Crompton (1992) offered a spectrum from novelty seekers to novelty avoiders to describe the range of interest in new experiences among tourists. Those who suffer from anxiety or discomfort while experiencing new environments, such as when visiting a foreign nation, may find solace in eating foods they are used to eating on holiday. To fulfil their want for novelty and diversity, sensation seekers, on the other hand, could try out novel food. It is found that people with higher novelty-seeking motivation are more satisfied with the food experience (Ji, Wong, Eves, & Scarles, 2016). Li and Su (2022) indicate that novelty-seeking motivation influences youth tourists' attitude toward night market food and the pursuit of food authenticity. The evidence suggests that novelty-seeking motivation can potentially affect tourist travel food choices. Seeking novelty in food has been

recognized as one of the drives of food consumption (Quan & Wang, 2004) highly related to food-related personality traits in human behaviour (Mak, Lumbers, Eves, & Chang, 2017). In this sense, Quan and Wang (2004) argued that food consumption is derived from both motivation (novelty seeking) and memorability. Furst, Connors, Bisogni, Sobal, and Falk (1996) point out the food adventurousness of tourists affects their food consumption choice. Dimitrovski and Crespi-Vallbona (2017) summarise that novelty is a representation of heterogenous experience and food. Tourists consider a novel aspect of a food destination is nicer than familiar food destinations.

#### ***2.2.3.4 Food-related personality: Food neophobia and neophilia***

To approach new and unusual food, the theory of the omnivore's paradox (Fischler, 1980; Rozin, 1976) defines two types of eaters, food neophilia tourists who prefer diverse and innovative food choices and food neophobic are conservative and suspicious of new food. Cohen (1979) proposes the tourist typology based on the food consumption preference for novelty or familiarity as food-neophobia and neophilia. Extant literature focuses on food neophilia's positive connection to satisfaction and enhances the diversity of purchase behaviour among tourists (Dimitrovski & Crespi-Vallbona, 2017). Bendegül Okumus et al. (2021) claim that tourists' food neophilia differs between gender and generation groups. Generation Y male is more food neophilia than female and generation Z is not as neophilia as generation Y. Food neophobia level also differs among ethnicities. According to Wolff and Larsen (2019), North Americans are most adventurous and willing to try novel food whereas Asian and European tourists are more conservative and scared of unfamiliar food. Food neophilia is a motivational construct that moderates the food involvement experience (Dimitrovski & Crespi-Vallbona, 2017) and it also affects food consumption value and attitude (Hussain et al., 2022). Mitchell and Hall (2004) use cultural distance to explain the influence of cultural similarity or low cultural distance in influencing tourist food

involvement. Plog (1974) uses allocentric/ventures tourists to describe tourists who have a higher level of food neophilia and intent to explore local cuisine. Research also examines food neophobia and the degree tourists are interested in local food consumption (Mak, Lumbers, Eves, & Chang, 2017). Chung et al. (2012) demonstrated that Koreans showed higher food neophobic tendencies than Americans.

#### ***2.2.3.5 Food travel planning style, familiarity, and pre-attitude***

Food travel planning style is how much a tourist's destination choice and itinerary are influenced by opportunities to partake in food-related activities, such as eating at restaurants, attending food festivals, seeing food-related businesses, or shopping at specialist stores. Stone and Migacz (2016) categorise tourists based on their food travel planning behaviour into three types “deliberates”, “opportunists” and “accidentals”. Levitt et al. (2019) identify that high motivation and involvement in food tourists have the most positive attitudes and strongest intentions to consume local cuisine and they are most likely to select a destination based on the availability of food-related activities.

Cohen and Avieli (2004) have proposed the concept of a “culinary environmental bubble” that protects tourists from the difficulties associated with consuming “foreign” food and beverages, such as difficulties identifying and ordering local dishes, unfamiliarity with the ingredients and their names, and the risk of foreign food traps. Fan, Zhang, Jenkins, and Tavitiyaman (2017) categorise tourists into five types of dependents, conservatives, criticizers, explorers, and belonging seekers. This typology categorisation encompasses the entire tourist spectrum, from those who have few contacts with locals and whose experiences rarely cross secure familiarity boundaries to those who seek more intensive and less superficial encounters with locals as part of their quest for novel and authentic experiences. The influence of familiarity on the destination was also found positively affect destination choice. For example, Chen and Lin (2012) find that Chinese tourists have a positive image and

stronger intention when they visit Taiwan as it is a familiar destination. Tan and Wu (2016) find that information familiarity positively enhances tourist visit intention. Seo, Kim, Oh, and Yun (2013) claim that experiential and informational familiarity increase consumers' intention to certain food.

Although food attractiveness is moderated by individual factors such as the effects of the food-related personal trait (e.g. food neophobia) (Ji et al., 2016), food interest (Björk & Kauppinen-Räsänen, 2017), food involvement, food knowledge and past food experience (Leong, Karim, Awang, & Bakar, 2017), plentiful studies indicate that past food experience significantly influences tourists' destination affect, destination satisfaction, and destination loyalty (Lai, 2020; Ozcelik & Akova, 2021). Pre-attitude is suggested to influence the post-attitude towards destination attitude or attitude towards services (Liu, Wong, Tseng, Chang, & Phau, 2017; Sheng & Chen, 2012).

## **2.3 Literature related to the mental imagery process**

### **2.3.1 Senses**

The terms "common sense" and "Aristotelian senses" are often used interchangeably to refer to the human senses of sight, hearing, touch, taste, and smell. The five different kinds of sensory experiences that can be distinguished by using common sense are vision, touch, hearing, smell, and taste. It would appear that this categorization is applicable across all cultures (Casati, Dokic, & Le Corre, 2014; Nudds, 2004). The most prevalent model in research is the folk model based on the five senses. In philosophy, Casati et al. (2014) summarise that it is deeply rooted in four criteria for distinguishing between the various faculties of the senses. To begin, "qualia," which is a term that refers to the qualitative or phenomenal features of a sensory experience that decide "what it is like" to have this experience. These qualitative and phenomenal characteristics determine "what it is like" to have this experience. For example, it is generally accepted that the "phenomenal character" of

an auditory experience is distinct from the "phenomenal character" of a visual encounter. The experience of hearing a word is objectively different from the experience of seeing the same word. Secondly, the content criterion emphasises the qualities that are mirrored in the experience, specifically the content that is either intentional or instructive. The distinction that Aristotle made between two different kinds of sensory objectives serves as the foundation for this criterion. For example, the primary object of vision is colour, the primary object of hearing is sound, and the primary object of taste is flavour. Thirdly, the criterion for the stimulus is a physical criterion since it summons the sense through the type of sensory stimulation that is the genesis of the experience. This makes it a physical criterion. The sensory organ is the fourth requirement that must be satisfied. It is reasonable to assume that each sense corresponds to a sense organ that, from a functional standpoint, converts particular forms of physical energy - specified by the stimulus criterion - into perceptual states and representations. According to the five-senses concept, these senses correlate to different sensory organs. The eye for vision, the ear for hearing (excluding the vestibular system), the skin for touch, the tongue for taste, and the nose for olfactory perception.

Senses are also in line with neuroscience embodiment studies which believe that senses are an integration of body and mind. Damasio (2011) states that individuals refer to an object or make decisions based on the sensory images that come to mind. These sensory images include not only the five senses which provide information on the external environment (exteroceptive senses) such as visual, auditory, tactile, olfactory, and gustatory but also internal body awareness (interoceptive senses) such as pain and pleasure. The interoceptive system consists of the proprioceptive sense (from which kinesthesia, the sensation of movement, is derived through the musculoskeletal system), the vestibular sense (balance), the visceral sense, and the sense of the interior environment (pain, temperature) (Arthur, 2003; Damasio, 2011). Human sensory sensors receive external sensory stimuli no



matter whether the stimuli are present or imagined. The recalling process entails not only an evaluation of these perceptual pictures but also a reinterpretation and reconstruction of the events experienced (Damasio, 2011)

From the perspective of psychology, traditional psychologists back in the 1970s believe that information stored in human semantic memory is amodal which is independent of the modality. However, with increasing evidence found in imagery (Paivio, 1971), Kosslyn, Thompson, and Ganis (2006) emphasizes that mental imagery is a multisensory modal representation. This embodied cognition approach addresses the importance of bodily experience as the information source (Schwarz, 2012).

### **2.3.2 Embodied cognition and sensory marketing**

The theories of embodied cognition are seen as a paradigm or an approach which is primarily anchored on naturalism and phenomenology (Mark, 2006; Nuwan & Lucian, 2014). All things, including the body and mind, are naturally emergent, as opposed to non-material, according to philosophical naturalism (Aikin, 2006). Consequently, all explanations must be deducible from the natural (Aikin, 2006). On the other hand, phenomenology focuses on perceiving meaning and so derives explanations from subjective experience (Gallagher & Zahavi, 2020). Embodied cognition studies how people generate concepts from their natural world experience. The fundamental premise of the conceptualisation account is that the nature of an organism's body determines, in some way, the range and features of conceptions that organism has (Shapiro, 2014). This concept is applied in theories based on grounded cognition. Grounded cognition is a collection of ideas unified by two key assumptions: (1) that cognition includes physical bodily interactions with the environment, and (2) that these interactions are reflected in the brain (Barsalou, 2008; Lakoff, Johnson, & Sowa, 1999). Some grounded cognition theories such as Lakoff et al. (1999) postulate that “picture

schemas” associated with bodily interactions in the environment are active during the processing of abstract conceptual knowledge. Most grounded cognition theories presume that representations are stored in the brain's putative “experiential system,” which encompasses the sensorimotor, proprioceptive, introspective, and emotional systems. During cognitive processing, the bodily sensations captured by these systems are supposedly replicated or “simulated” (Barsalou, 1999; Gallese & Lakoff, 2005).

The theories of embodied cognition explain the relationship among sensory perceptions, situated action and bodily state, which is without consciously realising, individuals’ bodily sensation can predict their emotions, attitude, and behaviour (Niedenthal et al., 2005). Krishna and Schwarz (2014) extend the embodied cognition approach to consumer behaviour and spawn a new marketing concept, sensory marketing, which asserts that the integration of sensory inputs shapes customers' bodily experiences and influences their judgements, perception and behaviour. The core premise of sensory marketing is to influence customers' decision-making processes via sensory attributes of products, advertisements, and retail settings (Krishna, 2012). Krishna’s sensory marketing framework (2012) explains that when sensory organ receptor cells receive a stimulus, a biochemical and neurological sensation is received including haptics, olfaction, audition, taste, and vision from the surrounding world. Upon receiving sensations, individuals consciously retrieve sensory information from their sensory working memory and apprehend the sensory information as sensory perception. Sensory perception leads to neural activation of corresponding regions of the brain that activates grounded cognition and grounded emotion. Grounded cognition and grounded emotion subsequently impact consumer attitudes by resulting in consumer self-generated desirable attributes and actions (Krishna & Schwarz, 2014). This deductive engagement is perhaps more persuasive than a deliberate statement (Sengupta & Gorn, 2002).

Embodied cognition separated online and offline embodiment effects in cognition, attitude, and behaviour (Wilson, 2002). Online embodiment occurs when a consumer interacts directly with a genuine external stimulus, while offline embodiment occurs when symbols that allude to real stimuli but are not physically present are employed (Niedenthal et al., 2005; Wilson, 2002). Online embodiment shapes cognition directly from the present sensory stimuli such as in the retail sensory marketing context (Kim, Kim, Yoo, & Park, 2020). In contrast, offline embodiment changes cognition by recalling an item from memory and picturing comparable physical reactions to those with the thing present (Brouillet et al., 2010). In an offline embodiment, the stimulus is missing or represented by a word or an image, and consumers' reactions are influenced by their ability to build an image of the stimulus (Niedenthal et al., 2005). This kind of offline embodiment can be widely found in sensory enabling technologies such as VR which enables users to decouple from the real world but remain sensorially and emotionally engaged (Bogicevic, Seo, Kandampully, Liu, & Rudd; Brochado et al., 2021; Kang, 2020; Yu & Sun, 2019; Yung, Khoo-Lattimore, Prayag, & Surovaya, 2021).

Language also can stimulate individuals to recall sensory perception from the working memory. Not much research has been undertaken on how language from user-generated content could influence audiences' sensory experience and subsequent behavioural consequences. The next section reviews the theoretical foundation of the mechanism of language-induced offline embodiment.

### **2.3.3 Language cues and cognitive linguistic approach**

The central tenet of this research lies in the language cues induced taste mental imagery process. Under the theories of embodiment cognition approach, perceptual symbol systems theory (PSS) (Barsalou, 1999) is a synthetic approach that integrates the standard

symbolic functionality of traditional theories with embodied cognition. The PSS theory claims that concepts are grounded in the sensory-motor system. It explains the two mechanisms: a symbolic functional recording system, which explains how the sensory experience is stored in a sensory modality manner in the memory. A retrieving process that is triggered by language stimulations as a sensory representation. Based on the theory, the higher-level perception of sensory representation is stored in the working memory. The schematic perceptual symbols are extracted from the previous event and then integrate into a frame that is stored in long-term memory, later triggering stimulations that produce perceptual completion and repetition priming. A frame is multimodal, and it is an integrated system of perceptual symbols that are used to establish specific stimulations of a category. A frame is also introspective that includes representational state, cognitive operations, and emotional states. Individuals can use introspective processing to first categorise the representation of an entity in its absence, and then rehearse, elaborate, search, retrieve, compare and transform the representation. In addition to that, emotional states, such as moods and affects are also in the memory for later use as a symbol. Figure 2.3 illustrates a process of how perceptual states are extracted as perceptual symbols, and the concept of Japanese ramen is retrieved from a frame and simulator. The perceptual symbols extracted to form a ramen experience are integrated into a frame for the ramen experience, which contains multimodal perceptual symbols extracted from previous conscious experiences or activities such as the texture of the noodle and emotions when having the ramen. When an individual is evoked by sensory and affective simulators, the motor system becomes engaged and mental imagery retrieves from the working memory.

PSS theory further explains how language works as a simulator for recognising and imagining a perceived event. Language is linguistic symbols that develop in association with perceptual symbols. Same to a perceptual symbol, a linguistic symbol is also a schematic

memory of a perceived event, where the perceived event is a spoken or a written word. A food travel vlog is a perceptual symbol and linguistic symbol representing the actual sensory event that the food travel vlogger experienced. By focusing on the linguistic simulators, a stimulation process is in place for individuals to recognise and imagine the event. A food travel vlog script is a verbalised experience, which evokes audiences to integrate and link to the subsets of a frame. The simulator words are associated with different aspects of stimulation, especially sensory-motor stimulation, and affective stimulation (Barsalou, 2008). Empirical evidence shows that language can activate the stimulation of motor and affective stimulation in food (Muñoz-Vilches, van Trijp, & Piqueras-Fiszman, 2020; Papies & Barsalou, 2015). For example, Papies, Barsalou, and Rusz (2020) show that food and drink words triggers spontaneous eating and drinking stimulations, which further affect their desire and eating experience (such as cravings, salivation, and taste ratings).

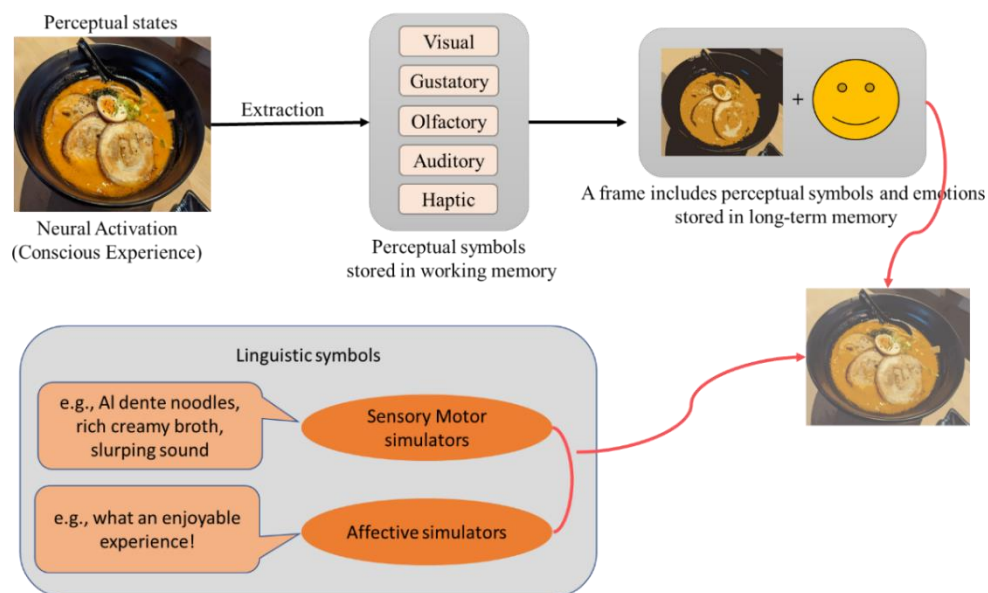


Figure 2.3 An application of perceptual symbol systems in this research

The rich sensory information extracted from previous eating experiences enables individuals to re-experience the pleasurable sensory content which re-activates reward signals in the brain and triggers the desire for the associated food (Papies & Barsalou, 2015). Winter (2016) finds that the embodied sensory simulators especially taste and smell words are deeply related to the human reward system and emotional processing in the brain. In addition, odour memories have a close connection with emotions. He found the taste and smell words such as fragrant, and yellow are deeply affective loaded.

The PSS provides a good foundation to understand how language induces mental stimulation where sensorimotor system processes play a role in an undirected context. However, to understand this process in the marketing research context, another similar concept, mental imagery is needed to explain more deliberate processing. Mental stimulation happens when a language user may not be consciously performing imagery. Mental imagery uses the same sensorimotor system but a more deliberate, conscious activation of perceptual content. Mental imagery is a more commonly used concept in sensory marketing and sensory experience. In the following subsection, mental imagery processing including the consequences and moderators is discussed.

### **2.3.4 Mental imagery processing**

#### ***2.3.4.1 Mental imagery processing definition and development***

Mental imagery has been widely used in understanding sensory experience and sensory marketing (Krishna, 2012) where mental imagery affects consumers' decision choices, especially their emotions, learning, attitude, and behavioural intention. Mental imagery is defined as “a mental process not a structure by which sensory information is presented in working memory” (Macinnis and Price 1987, p473). Kosslyn et al. (2006) highlight the importance of quasi-experience and the absence of real stimuli and propose that

mental imagery is a quasi-perceptual experience exhibited in the absence of actual stimuli as picture-like sensory representations in the human mind. In another word, traditionally mental imagery is seen as a visual stimulation response to different types of stimuli (Babin & Burns, 1997; Bogicevic et al., 2019; Petrova & Cialdini, 2008). Therefore, some scholars believe that mental imagery only contains two dimensions, elaboration, and quality (Walters, Sparks, & Herington, 2007). Elaboration of mental imagery encapsulates the number of pictures created in the mind and the level of the individual's engagement with the fantasy imagery (Yoo & Kim, 2014). The quality of imaging describes how bright, intense, clear, and sharp mental pictures are; it is comparable to the concept of “vividness” (Babin & Burns, 1998; Ellen & Bone, 1991) Empirical evidence is found that the high elaboration and quality sensory stimuli do enhance the mental imagery processing such as Yoo and Kim (2014). However, Miller, Hadjimarcou, and Miciak (2000) argue that mental imagery should include four dimensions namely, quantity, modality, vividness (quality), and affective tone (valence). Different from the traditional dimensions of vividness and quality, Miller et al. (2000) acknowledge the emotional factor and the non-visual imagery in the mental imagery process. This modality dimension gives evidence of non-visual imagery, particularly auditory, olfactory, and gustatory imagery. Empirically findings support that mental imagery involves one or more than one sensory modalities (Nanay, 2018) such as vision (Pearson, 2019), smell(Young, 2020), and taste (Tiggemann & Kemps, 2005). It is believed that there are significant mental imagery quality differences among different sensory modalities. Vision and audition are the highest vividness whereas smell is the lowest (Schifferstein, 2009).

Although previous research has focused heavily on visual imagery (Andrade, May, Deeprouse, Baugh, & Ganis, 2014; Taylor & Keating, 2018), mental imagery is multisensory (Elder & Krishna, 2022). Gustatory imagery is widely used in sensory advertisement imagery of the taste of the food item, leading to more positive taste thoughts and more positive taste

evaluations than an advertisement that focuses on the one sense (Elder & Krishna, 2010). Multisensory imagery can lead to both food reducing and inducing. For example, multisensory imagery can positively help consumers reduce food consumption but enjoy the smaller portion more (Cornil & Chandon, 2016). Sensory-rich traditional video and VR wine video enable consumers to have a better sensory experience. Compared with traditional video, the more immersive VR video evokes better imagery of wine taste and finish via presence (Wen & Leung, 2021). Sensory imagery cues including visual, olfactory, gustatory and auditory play an important role in evoking food craving if the perceived desirable food is unavailable (Shahriari et al., 2019).

#### ***2.3.4.2 Antecedents induce mental imagery processing***

Mental imagery has been widely used in understanding sensory experience and sensory marketing (Krishna, 2012) where mental imagery affects consumers' decision choices, especially their emotions, learning, attitude, and behavioural intention. With the advancement of technology, researchers investigate the technology-mediated offline embodiment in a digital context. The sensory-enabling technologies enable consumers to decouple from the real world while remaining engaged emotionally and sensorially. It provides consumers with a richer multisensory online experience (Petit et al., 2019). Different representation forms of sensory cues can elicit different levels of mental imagery (Babin & Burns, 1997; Woojin Lee, Gretzel, & Law, 2010; Petrova & Cialdini, 2008), and will affect consumers' cognitive, emotional, attitudinal, and behavioural responses (Yagci, Biswas, & Dutta, 2009). Le et al. (2019) summarise three key elements of successful stimuli design namely, representation forms (e.g., visual cues, gustatory cues), message content (e.g., levels of details, familiarity, authenticity) and the presence/absence of an instruction to imagine. Vivid and elaborated sensory cues are widely used in advertising. Pictures of



products and instructions to images from printed advertisements can vividly stimulate mental imagery than an advertisement with fewer pictures or no pictures Babin and Burns (1997). The advertisement contains visual cues, auditory cues, gustatory, olfactory, and haptic cues that affect mental imagery in a destination. For example, the auditory cues from radio advertisements can evoke mental imagery among three auditory strategies, sound effects have the strongest impact, vivid verbal messages, are the second and instructions to imagine, and the weakest can evoke mental imagery (Darryl, Darryl, & Lawrence, 1997). Verbal instructions can free recall tourists' favourite and dream destinations from working memory by using destination imagery (Cardoso, Dias, de Araújo, & Andrés Marques, 2019). It is evident in the literature that the higher elaboration, the more vivid the stimulus is, and the better the mental imagery effect will be. The uni-modal stimuli, the stimuli with higher-level imagery elaboration that encode information in sensory forms such as pictorial stimuli, rich narrative or will be more likely to be processed (Le et al., 2019). Research also finds that cross-modal imagery exists and affects product perception and behavioural intention. For example, high-imagery radio advertisements evoke visual imagery despite visual stimuli being absent (Paul, 2002). Visual stimuli including visual photos and sensory descriptions can induce tactile imagery and enhance online shoppers' purchase intention. Verbal descriptions are recognised as an extension of the images and make the visual stimuli more impactful, clear and lasting (Bhatia, Garg, Chhikara, & Singh, 2022). Similar findings are also seen in high-pitch auditory stimuli associated with the products which affect the perceptions of size through a cross-modal influence on visual mental imagery (Lowe & Haws, 2017). Cho, Mattila, Bordi, and Kwon (2019) suggest that when two stimuli had congruent arousal quality, the product evaluation will be higher than incongruent ones.

Multimodality stimuli generate better mental imagery than uni-modality stimuli. For example, audio-visual videos are better at generating mental imagery, arousal and memory

recall when compared with audio stimuli (Kim et al., 2014). Websites with narrative text, pictures and sound presence enhance attitude strength and confidence and reduce attitude resistance (Lee & Gretzel, 2012). Advanced sensory enabling technologies such as virtual reality tour provides higher elaboration compared with 360-degree tour and image and stimulates tourists to have a better “daydreaming” experience (Bogicevic et al., 2019). Alyahya and McLean (2022) compared VR and websites and conclude that the more immersive stimuli and the higher levels of sensory information in VR do have a significant influence on mental imagery, attitude towards the destination and visit intention.

A group of scholars extend the stimuli to a more specific context, user-generated digital narratives including reviews, blog and vlog-induced mental imagery and related behavioural consequences. Shared user-generated video acts as a mediator of tourist experience which reflects the authenticity of the trip as well as a travel story. The additional authenticity cues and narrative story cues make user-generated digital narratives stand out from other stimuli. Shared user-generated videos provide mental pleasure for audiences by stimulating tourists’ daydreams and fantasies (Tussyadiah & Fesenmaier, 2009). Gastronomy blogs encourage gustatory imagery which enhances audiences’ intention to taste (Wang, 2011). Although travel vlogs are recognised as a new form of a virtual tour due to the narrative cues (Chakravarty, Chand, & Singh, 2021) and sensory cues (Li, Kim, Scarles, & Liu, 2022; Zhang, 2020), the related research is under-researched. Therefore, two preliminary studies are conducted on real food travel vlogs to identify the main themes and sensory-rich language patterns.

#### ***2.3.4.3 Consequences of mental imagery processing***

Despite the types of stimuli, the significant influence of mental imagery has been found in attitude and behavioural intention. For example, the mental imagery of

advertisements can facilitate purchasing decisions (Walters et al., 2007). Le et al. (2019) systematically review that the mental imagery process leads to direct consequences including cognitive, and affective consequences and indirect consequences such as behavioural intention regardless of using different types of stimuli. Zheng et al. (2021) claim that mental imagery affects tourists' visit intention via cognition learning and decreases the negative emotions in virtual tourism. Woojin Lee and Gretzel (2012) state that mental imagery eliciting website affects consumer attitude strength, confidence, and attitude resistance. Tourist imagery processing influences tourists' experiential decision-making by engaging their positive emotions (Goossens, 2000; Kwortnik & Ross, 2007). Tourists will approach positive emotions such as joy, and avoid negative emotions such as disappointment (Baumeister, Vohs, Nathan DeWall, & Zhang, 2007). Although some research use emotion as a separate construct that mediates the destination attitude, or even uses it as an affective destination image forming. However, this research adapts the mental imagery concept from Miller et al. (2000) which includes a valence dimension which measures the positive and bad affect.

In this study, mental imagery processing is conceptualised as a conscious mental stimulation in response to a sensory-rich and positive narrative food travel vlog script within a destination. Although mental imagery processing has been examined in a variety of stimuli, the sensory-rich and positive narrative script from user-generated sources has not been examined. Therefore, the hypotheses are:

**H1:** Rich sensory and positive narrative script-induced mental imagery has a positive influence on post-attitude

**H1a:** Rich sensory and positive narrative script-induced mental imagery quantity has a positive influence on post-attitude

**H1b:** Rich sensory and positive narrative script-induced mental imagery modality has a positive influence on post-attitude

**H1c:** Rich sensory and positive narrative script-induced mental imagery quality has a positive influence on post-attitude

**H1d:** Rich sensory and positive narrative script-induced mental imagery valence has a positive influence on post-attitude

#### ***2.3.4.4 Consequences from a narrative stimulus***

The narrative has been a research topic across different disciplines such as education, public health communication and advertising. Compared with rigorous logical paradigmatic thought, narrative thought is the imprecise world of aesthetic intentions (Bruner, 2004). Escalas (1998) emphasises two important elements of narrative structure, chronology, and causality. Time in narratives is configured with a distinct perception of events having a beginning, middle, and end. The pieces of a narrative are organised in an orderly framework that combines general knowledge about human goal-oriented action sequences and allows causal inferences.

Unlike non-narrative messages, which are built on rhetorical arguments or factual information presented in a logical sequence, narratives are stories with plots and chronological sequences of events. Rather than constructing arguments for readers to evaluate, narratives frequently invite readers into story actions and immerse them in the real or plausible life experiences of others, which are frequently difficult to disagree with or dispute (Dal Cin, Zanna, & Fong, 2004). Rather than directly giving factual facts to convince, narratives are frequently viewed as informative or entertaining. Narratives are seen as the most likely medium to depict human experience as it is lived in context and through time (Craig, 2007). Stories are a type of narrative which includes a plot, characters, a climax and

an outcome (Green & Brock, 2000). The receiver of a narrative can be engrossed in a transformative experience (Phillips & McQuarrie, 2010). Storytelling is a unique human activity that enables both the storyteller and the receiver to share and integrate their individual experiences via the medium of words and actions (Bassano et al., 2019; Woodside, 2010)

The term “narrative transportation” is the one that has gained the most popularity to describe the feeling of being transported those results from reading narratives. The metaphorical illustration of “participatory responses” originated from Gerrig (1999) who introduces the idea of “transportation response” as a conceptual metaphor to drive exploratory studies related to reading. Gerrig (1999) propose using a physical travel concept of “transport” and six elements of being transported. He describes that the traveller (reader) is transported by some means of transportation including novels, anecdotes, and movies by reading narratives. Because of experiencing a narrative world, the traveller goes some distance from the world of origin. During experiencing transportation, the real world of origin is accessible. By returning to the world of origin, travellers are somewhat changed by the journey. Transportation is defined as “an immersion into a text” (Green & Brock, 2000, p. 701) and is conceptualized as “a convergent process, where all mental systems and capacities become focused on events occurring in the narrative”. In a narrative, transportation incorporates the processes of attention, imagery, and feelings (Green and Brock 2000).

Narrative transportation theory explains the process that story receivers immerse and become “lost” in a fictional world, the narrative story may bring real-world beliefs and attitude changed (Green & Brock, 2000). Van Laer et al. (2014) conclude a model that includes antecedents and consequences of narrative transportation. The model summarises the consequences of consumers’ narrative transportation including enhancing affective response and narrative thought, reducing critical thought, and developing story-consistent belief,

attitude, and behavioural intention. Based on the extended transportation-imagery model (Van Laer et al., 2014), narrative transportation can be partially operationalised as the construct of being hooked, which will lead to more favourable attitudes toward the story plot. The more narrative in structure the content is, the stronger the effect of being hooked on the content and the more affective responses to content. It can always lead to behavioural responses (Coker et al., 2021; Escalas et al., 2004; Kim, Ratneshwar, & Thorson, 2017). The narrative persuasion effect has been widely tested in marketing and destination marketing. For example, narrative transportation influence consumer engagement, brand evaluation (Kim, Lloyd, & Cervellon, 2016), social media sharing and recommendation intention (Coker et al., 2021).

With the increasing popularity of video content, narrative transportation theory has been extended to video content. The narrativity in the video also positively enhances destination attitude and visit intention. Tussyadiah and Fesenmaier (2009) find that destination videos transport audiences to foreign landscapes and socioscapas while stimulating fantasies and daydreams. Cao, Qu, Liu, and Hu (2021) investigate the narrativity in short destination videos and identify that the narrative of short videos positively promotes destination attitude by reducing individuals' psychological reactance and enhancing their immersive experience. Irimiás, Mitev, and Michalkó (2021) identify that by escaping and immersing in the destination TV series, the audiences' travel intention will increase.

Although many of the studies have looked into commercial narrative content such as advertisement by applying narrative transportation, Van Laer, Feiereisen, et al. (2019) further investigate narrative transportation in a digital context with the influence from the domain, story-creator and the story-receiving model. They conclude that the narrative transportation effect is stronger when the story is created by users, from a commercial domain platform and is received alone. Despite advances in the application of transportation theory in user-

generated content, there is little research investigating the narrative transportation effect in user-generated vlog narrative storytelling (script).

Narrative vlog script is an elaborated story content where audiences can gain a feeling of being hooked by being fully immersed in the story (Escalas, 2004; Escalas et al., 2004) and capture audiences' attention and induce a positive, story-consistent affect response (Escalas, 2007). The construct "being hooked" describes a form of experiential involvement with the ad to which viewers are drawn into. Viewers feel more upbeat and warmer and this reduces disinterested or uneasy feelings. It primes narrative persuasion has a positive effect on attitude (Coker et al., 2021). It is also suggested as an operationalisation of the construct that includes attention, interest, and experiential dimensions (Escalas, 2007).

In this research context, the food travel vlog script contains not only a food travel story that can give audiences a feeling of being hooked due to the narrative transportation but also contains sensory cues that can evoke audiences' mental imagery. Escalas (2004) investigates the relationship between mental stimulation and narrative transportation. As the mental stimulation is narrative structured, people who are engaged by stimulation can be transported by their self-generated stories. Mental stimulation affects audience attitude and brand evaluations via narrative transportation. Therefore, a rich sensory positive narrative script positively influences audiences' attention by creating the being hooked feeling and enhancing their story-consistent attitude:

**H2:** Rich sensory and positive narrative script-induced mental imagery has a positive relationship with the narrative transportation (the feeling of being hooked)

**H2a:** Rich sensory and positive narrative script-induced mental imagery quantity has a positive relationship with the narrative transportation (the feeling of being hooked)

**H2b:** Rich sensory and positive narrative script-induced mental imagery modal has a positive relationship with the narrative transportation (the feeling of being hooked)

**H2c:** Rich sensory and positive narrative script-induced mental imagery quality has a positive relationship with the narrative transportation (the feeling of being hooked)

**H2d:** Rich sensory and positive narrative script-induced mental imagery valence has a positive relationship with the narrative transportation (the feeling of being hooked)

**H3:** The feeling of being hooked positively affects post-attitude.

### ***2.3.4.5 Conceptualised behavioural consequences in this research***

#### ***2.3.4.5.1 Behavioural involvement with food***

Involvement is an important construct in explaining related behavioural relationships (Cui & Wu, 2016). Houston's (1978) model identifies three types of involvement including situation involvement, enduring involvement, and response involvement. Situation involvement defines the consumer's reaction to objects or things in certain settings when non-personal variables predominate. Situation involvement defines the consumer's reaction to objects or things in certain settings when non-personal variables predominate. Whereas enduring involvement focuses on the long-term attention an individual gives to an object or things. Response involvement is the mix of non-personal involvement and personal involvement components that lead to complicated cognitive and behavioural consumer decision-making (Huang, Chou, & Lin, 2010).

According to Andrews, Durvasula, and Akhter (1990), involvement has three main characteristics: intensity, orientation, and persistence. They also specify that personal factors and contextual factors are both important in determining the likelihood of involvement. Xin Jean Lim, Ng, Chuah, Cham, and Rozali (2019) applied the conceptualisation of Andrews et al. (1990) by investigating behavioural involvement in gastronomy online reviews and behavioural intention to ethnic food. This research adapts this definition, involvement is “an



unobservable state of motivation arousal or interest towards the consumption (activity) of a product category (object)". Studies find that if tourists are highly involved in tourism activities, they will be more satisfied with their whole trip (Lu, Chi, & Liu, 2015). Similarly, audience involvement is positively related to tourists' on-site tourism experience (Kim, 2012). Xu et al. (2021) also examine the audience involvement in travel vlogs as a format of bullet comments, which are closely related to visit intention. Inconsistent with the original conceptualisation from Andrews et al. (1990). The involvement concept is the immediate predictor of behavioural intention. For instance, higher level involvement will increase behavioural intention to purchase travel products (Huang et al., 2010) behavioural intention to try organic food (Teng and Lu, 2016) and behavioural intention towards online retailers (Kim, Fiore, & Lee, 2007). Kim et al. (2018) investigate the food value video clips and their influence on behavioural involvement with Hong Kong food. The findings confirm that food values such as global food, attractive food and realistic restaurants have a strong effect on the behavioural involvement with Hong Kong food and the visit intention of generation Y. Based on Kim et al. (2018), behavioural involvement with food is defined as "consumers' interest in food, information search effort and communication with people about the destination food". Research indicates that involvement is positively related to the destination and actual visits.

In this research, the sensory-rich positive narratives affect audiences' behavioural involvement with food by altering their post-attitude. This leads to our following hypothesis:

**H4:** Destination post-attitude has a positive relationship with behavioural involvement with food.

**H5:** The feeling of being hooked has a positive relationship with behavioural involvement with food.

#### 2.3.4.5.2 *Intention to taste*

Intention to taste is a construct to investigate consumers' intent or willingness to try some new or unfamiliar food. Wang (2011) investigate the factors of gastronomy blogs that affect tourists' behavioural intention to taste. Gastronomy blogs inspire audiences to have the taste desire by enabling them to experience sensory appeal and generate empathy feelings. Mainolfi, Marino, and Resciniti (2021) find the significant positive effects of blog engagement on the intention to taste and visit. Therefore, the antecedents to the intention to taste are hypothesised:

**H6:** Destination post-attitude has a positive relationship with the intention to taste.

**H7:** The feeling of being hooked has a positive relationship with the intention to taste

#### 2.3.4.5.3 *Visit intention*

Behavioural intention is an indirect consequence of both mental imagery processing and narrative transportation via emotion and attitude change (Green & Brock, 2000, 2002; Krishna, 2012; Krishna et al., 2016; Van Laer et al., 2014). It is also the main antecedent of actual consumer behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Intentions represent the desire of users to engage in certain behaviours. Intentions represent the desire of users to engage in certain behaviours. Evidence shows the connection between intention and actual behaviours (Casaló, Flavián, & Ibáñez-Sánchez, 2017).

Plentiful examples can be found that mental imagery processing shapes consumers' behavioural consequences. Jeong (2008) suggest that visual metaphorical and verbal message have a greater influence on behavioural intention. Bolls and Muehling (2007) find that the high imagery radio advertisement can also lead to more favourable behavioural intention to purchase. Prior research has shown that greater sensory information may have a favourable influence on the attitudes and behaviour of customers (Krishna & Schwarz, 2014; Woojin Lee

et al., 2010; Meert, Pandelaere, & Patrick, 2014). Recent studies investigate the technologically embodied sensory-rich stimuli such as Virtual Reality (VR) headsets or virtual tours can virtually transport audiences to the destination, and provide an immersive experience, which leads to positive visit intention (Tussyadiah, Wang, Jung, & Dieck, 2018; Yung et al., 2021).

Meanwhile, according to the extended narrative transportation model (Van Laer et al., 2014), the more narrative transportation is, the more story-consistent intentions increase. Consumers tend to show a stronger purchase intention when exposed to a narrative advertisement (Dal Cin et al., 2004). Coker et al. (2021) find that by exposing to digital narrative video advertisements, viewers have a stronger intention to view, share, promote and spread positive words about the video. Wong, Lee, and Lee (2016) investigate the different themes of narrative content in affecting destination image formation and find that narrative content significantly influences readers' intention to visit. Lim et al. (2019) claim that online gastronomy reviews positively enhance viewers' behavioural intention through involvement. Therefore, the hypotheses are

**H8:** Destination post-attitude has a positive relationship with visit intention.

**H9:** Being hooked has a positive relationship with visit intention

**H10:** Behavioural involvement with food has a positive relationship with the intention to taste.

**H11:** Behavioural involvement with food has a positive relationship with visit intention

**H12:** Intention to taste has a positive relationship with visit intention

**H13a:** Destination post-attitude has a positive relationship with the intention to taste via behavioural involvement with food.

**H13b:** Destination post-attitude has a positive relationship with visit intention via behavioural involvement with food.

**H13c:** Destination post-attitude has a positive relationship with visit intention via intention to taste.

**H13d:** Destination post-attitude has a positive relationship with visit intention via behavioural involvement with food and then intention to taste.

**H14a:** Being hooked has a positive relationship with the intention to taste via behavioural involvement with food.

**H14b:** Being hooked has a positive relationship with visit intention via behavioural involvement with food.

**H14c:** Being hooked has a positive relationship with visit intention via intention to taste.

**H14d:** Being hooked has a positive relationship with visit intention via behavioural involvement with food and then intention to taste.

### **2.3.5 Moderators of mental imagery processing**

#### ***2.3.5.1 Individual related moderators***

The core of human behaviour is imagination (Jankowska & Karwowski, 2015), which has led to the development of race and several historical discoveries. “Imagination is the capacity to envision something that does not exist or may exist but cannot be experienced.” (Hsu, Peng, Wang, & Liang, 2014). The capacity to imagine is very subjective and varies according to individuals, their experiences, and their professions (Bhatia et al., 2022). Therefore, mental imagery consequences can be varied depending on a variety of individual differences (Fennis, Das, & Fransen, 2012). A few similar constructs that emphasise the moderation effect of the need for cognition such as imagery fluency (Chang, 2013), transportation ability (Green & Brock, 2000), and style of processing (Sadoski & Paivio, 2013) highlight the imagery ability of individuals from different perspectives. The subjective experience of the ease or difficulty with which information consumers comprehend images is

characterised as processing imagery (Schwarz, 2004). Comprehension fluency and imagery fluency reflects the accessibility of mental imagery and moderate the mental imagery consequences (Chang, 2013; Fennis et al., 2012; Petrova & Cialdini, 2005),

Transportation ability or transportability is defined as “a story-receiver’s chronic propensity to be transported, which functions independently of any particular story or genre.” (Van Laer et al., 2014). Green and Brock (2000) employ transportation ability to assess the differences in the psychological states of being immersed in a narrative. The influence of transportation ability is evident in mental imagery processing (MacInnis & Price, 1987). Ha, et al. (2019) find that transportation ability moderates the direct effect of the elaboration of mental imagery on brand SNS attitude. But the moderating effect is inconsistent in mental imagery quality on positive affect and SNS attitude. Different from transportation ability or imagery fluency, style of processing (SOP) measures how individuals prefer to acquire and utilize information. Style of processing shares the common assumption in dual-coding theory which is sensory information can be encoded verbally and non-verbally as a mental representation of external stimulation (Sadoski & Paivio, 2013). This means that information stored in memory can be in either non-verbal (visual) or verbal format. People may employ verbal or visual cues in cognition, depending on the information type and their cognitive styles, making them either verbalizers or visualizers (Rayner & Riding, 1997). High verbalising is defined by a focus on words and a preference for reading about concepts and word games. High visualising is characterised by picture orientation, preference for being shown, and enjoyment of visual activities such as jigsaw puzzles (Mendelson & Thorson, 2004). According to Rossiter and Percy (1978), the impact of image-oriented print ads on customer emotions differs according to SOP, with visualizers having higher visual imagination when exposed to visual pictures than verbalizers. Yoo and Kim (2014) further

validate visualiser experience greater elaboration of mental imagery if exposes to concrete pictures of online products.

Considering the stimuli script is narrative, verbal sensory information is embedded. Transportation ability and SOP are likely to have significant implications for mental imagery processing. Based on prior research we hypothesize that verbalisers will perform better in mental imagery and narrative transportation compared with visualisers.

**H15:** Transportation ability has a direct effect on mental imagery a) quantity, b) modality, c) quality, d) valence and e) the feeling of being hooked.

**H16:** Verbalisers experience greater a) quantity, b) modality, c) quality, d) valence of mental imagery and e) the feeling of being hooked

Besides the individual imagery ability, openness to a different culture (Kim & Jang, 2016), cultural background (Liang & Cherian, 2010) and ethnicity (Wang & Sparks, 2016), psychological distance and familiarity with the destination (Ding & Keh, 2017; Hung & Wyer, 2011). These factors coincide with some of the food-related factors influencing local food consumption. Therefore, in the mental imagery in the food travel context, the moderating effects from both mental imagery and food travel-related factors are addressed in the proposed model:

**H17:** Destination familiarity moderates the relationship between mental imagery and a) destination post-attitude; b) the feeling of being hooked.

**H18:** Destination pre-attitude moderates the relationship between mental imagery and a) destination post-attitude; b) the feeling of being hooked.

Age, gender, education, SOP, transportation ability, food travel planning type, Japan experience, novelty seeking, and food neophobia are co-varying to the two moderators, familiarity, and pre-attitude.

### ***2.3.5.2 Pandemic influence and travel craving***

Pandemic travel bans make people feel like caged birds which people in a state where the intense desire to travel can't be fulfilled. Mitev and Irimiás (2021) define this travel craving as “a travel-focused cognitive-emotional event with aversive or incentive properties experienced when a person who wishes to travel cannot do so, for reasons beyond their control.” The concept of travel craving is rooted in the elaborated intrusion theory which normally is used to explain addictions that undergo conditioned withdrawal (Savci & Griffiths, 2019). Although travel is not an addiction, the deprived cognitive and emotional state has influenced many people. Irimiás and Zoltán Mitev (2021) acknowledge the psychological effects of travel deprivation and find that the lockdown captivity feeling is one of the key determinants of travel craving. The research uses a sensory-rich positive narrative as an external cue to evoke audiences' imagery and generate elaborated desired thoughts. When the audiences' travel craving is not satisfied, audiences will either be triggered to have a strong powerful affective reaction or a keen sense of deficit. The pandemic lockdown inevitably suppresses consumers' desire to travel or taste food.

The theoretical foundation of travel craving is the Elaborated Intrusion (EI) theory of desire. EI is used to explain the unconscious cognitive processes of craving for certain substances, such as alcohol, and food. A craving starts with a spontaneous intrusive thought that is triggered by a variety of cognitive, emotional, or physiological associations to thoughts (in this research we are interested in their associations to destination food sensory cues). When intrusive thoughts are elaborated, they become desires (Kavanagh, Andrade, & May, 2005). According to EI, the triggered associated thoughts are initially enjoyable, as they share some cognitive properties of the actual desired item or activity. Individuals elaborate on the thoughts and retrieve the cognitive association and create mental imagery of the targeted item or activity. If other cognitive demands permit, this imagery can take over and dominate the

chain of thought and experience. If the desire cannot be fulfilled, the mental imagery experience turns unpleasant, as the tension between the existing state of lack and the desired state becomes more obvious. When deprivation is severe and cannot be alleviated, the subsequent deterioration of mood promotes more vivid imagery in a negative cycle with transient spikes of pleasant imagery leading to heightened awareness of deficiency and deteriorating mood. Eventually, a way to break the cycle must be found via either pursuing the object and satiating the desire or by cognitively ending the pattern via distraction or thinking redirection. The second path will not lead to instant consumption, but the trigger will be still possible for future episodes (May et al., 2012).

In food craving, Food-related cues include the sensory features of the specific food such as food smell, taste, texture, and mouth feeling, which are seen as the antecedents that trigger food mental imagery and food craving. Cognitive psychologists explain how food-related cues evoke craving via working memory. Working memory in this context is defined as a limited-capacity system that enables the temporary storage and processing of information required for comprehension, learning, and reasoning (Baddeley, 2000). The model proposed by Baddeley (2000), contains a central executive, an attentional control system, a phonological loop, which holds verbal and acoustic information and a visuospatial sketchpad, which maintains visuospatial material. Although based on the model, both verbal and acoustic information and visual information can induce food mental imagery and food craving via working memory, Harvey, Kemps, and Tiggemann (2005) empirically test the model and find that food craving induced by visual images more significant than those induced by verbal and auditory information. Tiggemann and Kemps (2005) further confirm that craving intensity is closely related to the vividness of food images and the sensory modalities especially the visual, gustatory, and olfactory. Mental imagery plays a vital role in both associative and elaborated mental representations preceding states of desire. When the mental imagery



stimuli are vivid, the food craving intensity will be higher (Harvey et al., 2005). Multisensory stimulation may increase desire even more than taste stimulation alone (Elder & Krishna, 2010). Shahriari et al. (2019) suggest only when the perceived availability of food is not available, the mental imagery stimuli especially visual, olfactory and gustatory cues will induce food craving. In another line of work visual and olfactory mental imagery unrelated to food has been shown to reduce food cravings, implicating a causal role of visual and olfactory imagery in food cravings (Kemps & Tiggemann, 2007).

The research uses a sensory-rich positive narrative as an external cue to evoke audiences' imagery and generate elaborated desired thoughts. Due to the pandemic travel restrictions were in place, and audiences' thoughts on travel and food destinations are not satisfied, audiences will either be triggered to have a strong powerful affective reaction or a keen sense of deficit. The moderating effect of travel craving on attitude and behavioural responses is proposed as below with the lockdown captivity as a co-variate to travel craving. The research design is not completed until the lockdowns are finished. However, the captive and travel craving feelings are still remembered. Thus, this study expects:

**H19a:** Travel craving moderates the relationship between post-attitude and behavioural involvement with food

**H19b:** Travel craving moderates the relationship between post-attitude and visit intention to taste.

**H19c:** Travel craving moderates the relationship behavioural involvement with food and the intention to taste

**H19d:** Travel craving moderates the relationship between post-attitude and visit intention

**H19e:** travel craving moderates the relationship between behavioural involvement with food and visit intention

**H19f:** Travel craving moderates the relationship between the intention to taste and the visit intention.

### **2.3.6 Summary of the hypotheses**

In this chapter, a thorough literature review is conducted aiming to provide a theoretical foundation and empirical evidence from the literature. Subsection 2.2 provides an overview of food tourist-related factors affecting local food consumption. Subsection 2.3 explains the antecedents, moderators, and consequences of the mental imagery process. 19 hypotheses are proposed based on the literature review. Figure 2.4 illustrates the conceptual model with dark green colour coded as relationships identified from the literature. The light green colour ones are constructs from the literature yet not tested.

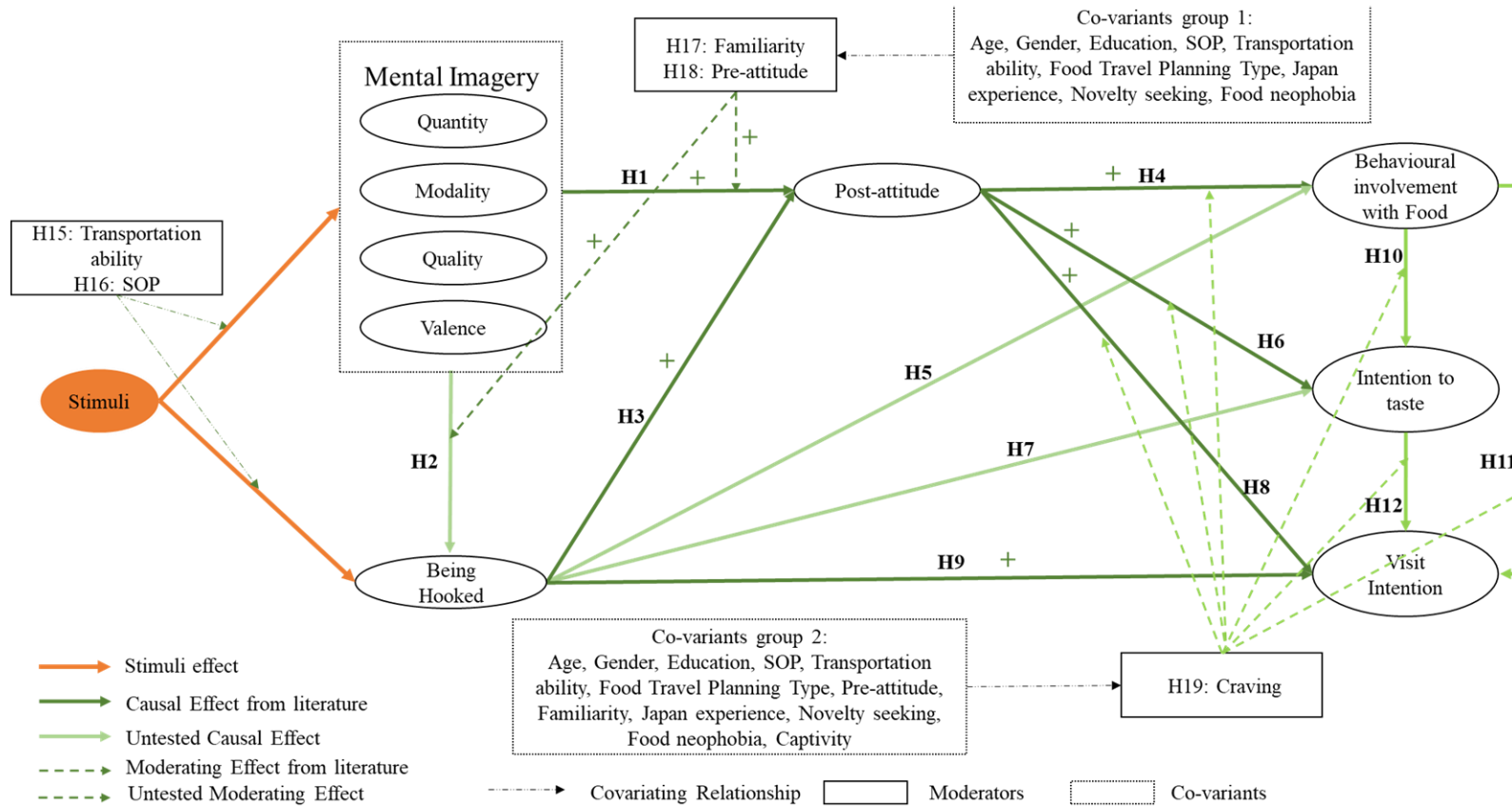


Figure 2.4 Conceptual model of the proposed Language-mental imagery-transportation model

Note: H13(a, b, c, d) and H14(a, b, c, d) state the indirect relationships among post-attitude/being hooked, behavioural involvement with food, intention to taste and visit intention. They are not visually marked for better readability.

## **2.4 Summary of the literature review**

This chapter systematically reviews the literature concerning the research topic. Firstly, food tourism, food tourist and factors influencing local ethnic food consumption are reviewed to gain a comprehensive and in-depth understanding of the research context. It also provides a starting point to set up the appropriate research design. Secondly, relevant theories are reviewed to address the research problem and establish the conceptual framework. The perceptual symbol system theory and mental imagery processing are reviewed to describe the interrelationship among rich-sensory language stimuli, post-attitude, and behavioural consequences. In addition, the concept of being hooked by narrative transportation theory is used as a consequence induced by narrative language stimuli. Finally, the individual-related and pandemic-influenced moderating factors are reviewed to gain insights into how attitude and behaviour would vary based on these influential factors.

## **Chapter 3: Methodology**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter focuses on the methodology of achieving the research objectives set out in Chapter 1. This research aims to develop and test a model of audiences' attitude change and behavioural response to the sensory-rich and high emotional valence textual stimulus. The chapter starts with the research philosophy and approaches, followed by a highlight of research objectives and a detailed explanation of the current research design. As the stimulus-based approach is adopted, the chapter covers the rationale behind the choice of textual stimulus. The sampling strategy, measurements of constructs, data collection procedures, and data analysis methods are discussed later in this chapter. A preliminary survey is conducted to identify the suitable food travel vlog scripts to be selected as the textual stimulus in the primary survey. Subsequently, the process of questionnaire development for the primary survey is shown. The research instruments are drawn from extant literature with good validity and reliability. A pilot study is conducted to improve the validity of the questionnaire. Lastly, the statistical method that is employed for data analysing is explained.

### **3.2 Research philosophy and approach**

Research philosophy is “a system of beliefs and assumptions about the development of knowledge” (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2019, p. 130) There are a lot of assumptions are made at every stage of the research consciously or unconsciously (Burrell & Morgan, 2017) including ontological assumptions

epistemological assumptions and axiological assumptions that influence the research process, methods and finding interpretation (Crotty, 1998). Therefore, researchers need to be aware of the philosophical commitment they make through their research strategy, as this will have a significant impact on their work and how they manage their research (Johnson & Clark, 2006). According to Saunders et al. (2019), three common philosophical approaches are identified in the literature, namely, epistemology, ontology, and axiology.

Ontology is the study of how researchers interpret the nature of the world and reality. Your ontological assumptions shape the objects and phenomena of your research and how you approach them. Epistemology is the study of knowledge assumptions, including how we know what we claim to know, what constitutes acceptable, valid, and legitimate information, and how we might convey knowledge to other humans. The type of contribution to the knowledge you can make as a result of your research is determined by your epistemological assumptions. Axiology refers to the role of values and ethics in the research process, which includes questions regarding how we, as researchers, deal with our own values as well as those of our participants. Ontology is the study of how researchers interpret the nature of the world and reality. Your ontological assumptions shape the objects and phenomena of your research and how you approach them. Epistemology is the study of knowledge assumptions, including how we know what we claim to know, what constitutes acceptable, valid, and legitimate information, and how we might convey knowledge to other humans. The type of contribution to the knowledge you can make as a result of your research is determined by your epistemological assumptions. Axiology refers to

the role of values and ethics in the research process, which includes questions regarding how we, as researchers, deal with our own values as well as those of our participants. Saunders et al. (2019) explain how research philosophies can be distinguished from one another based on where their assumptions lie on the continuum between objectivism and subjectivism. The presumptions made by the natural sciences are incorporated into objectivism. It is characterised by a realist ontology (which maintains that social entities exist in reality in a manner that is external to and independent from social actors), an epistemology that emphasises the discovery of truth through the use of facts that are observable and measurable, and axiology that asserts to be value-free and objective. The assumptions of the arts and the humanities are incorporated into subjectivism. It entails a nominalist ontology, an epistemology focused on the opinions, narratives, interpretations, and perceptions that social actors have that convey these social realities and claims to have value-bound, reflexive axiology. The nominalist ontology maintains that social phenomena are created through the language, perceptions, and consequent actions of social actors.

According to Benton and Craib (2017), the combination of a researcher's beliefs regarding ontology, epistemology, and methodology (relating to the tools and techniques of research) influences both the researcher's perspective of the world and how they go about conducting their research. The nature of the research problems should guide the selection of the appropriate research philosophy. Table 4.1 illustrates a comparison of five main research paradigms cited by Saunders et al. (2019) which provides guidelines for selecting appropriate methods for data collection and data analysis.

Table 3.1 Comparison of five research paradigms

Research Philosophy	Ontology	Epistemology	Axiology	Typical methods
Positivism	Real, external, independent One true reality (universalism) Granular (things) Ordered	Scientific method Observable and measurable facts Law-like generalisations Numbers Casual explanation and prediction as the contribution	Value-free research Research is detached, neutral and independent of what is researched The researcher maintains an objective stance	Typically deductive, highly structured, large samples, measurement, typically quantitative methods of analysis, but a range of data can be analysed
Critical realism	Stratified/layered (the empirical, the actual and the real) External, independent intransient Objective structures Causal mechanisms	Epistemological relativism Knowledge historically situated and transient Facts are social constructions Historical causal explanation as the contribution	Value-laden research The researcher acknowledges bias by world views, cultural experience and upbringing The researcher tries to minimise bias and errors The researcher is as objective as possible	Retrodictive, in-depth historically situated analysis of pre-existing structures and emerging agency. Range of methods and data types to fit the subject matter
Interpretivism	Complex, rich Socially constructed through culture and language Multiple meanings, interpretations,	Theories and concepts too simplistic Focus on narratives, stories, perceptions and interpretations	Value-bound research Researchers are part of what is researched, subjective Researcher	Typically, inductive. Small samples, in-depth investigations, and qualitative



Research Philosophy	Ontology	Epistemology	Axiology	Typical methods
Postmodernism	and realities The flux of processes, experiences, practices Nominal Complex, rich Socially constructed through power relations Some meanings, interpretations, and realities are dominated and silenced by others The flux of processes, experiences, practices	New understandings and world views as the contribution What counts as “truth” and “knowledge” is decided by dominant ideologies Focus on absences, Silences and oppressed/repressed meanings, interpretations, and voices Exposure of power relations and challenge of dominant views as the contribution	interpretations key to the contribution Researcher reflexive Value-constituted research Researcher and research embedded in power relations Some research narratives are repressed and silenced at the expense of others Researcher radically reflexive	methods of analysis, but a range of data can be interpreted Typically deconstructive-reading texts and realities against themselves In-depth investigations of anomalies, silences, and absences Range of data types, typically qualitative methods of analysis
Pragmatism	Complex, rich, external “reality” is the practical consequence of ideas The flux of processes, experiences and practices	The practical meaning of knowledge in specific contexts “True” theories and knowledge are those that enable successful action Focus on problems, practices, and relevance Problem-solving and informed future practice as the contribution	Value-driven research Research initiated and sustained by the researcher’s doubts and beliefs Researcher reflexive	Following research problem and research question Range of methods: mixed, multiple, qualitative, quantitative, action research Emphasis on practical solutions and outcomes.

Adopted from (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 145)

The natural scientist's philosophical perspective is positivism. This necessitates dealing with observable social reality, and the resulting generalisations can be akin to those in the physical and natural sciences. The primary objective of this study is to examine how rich sensory and assessment language narrative cues produce mental imagery and to identify the components that influence their attitude, narrative engagement, and behavioural intent. For this study, the need to observe and measure consumer-related factors (e.g., food neophobia, novelty-seeking motivation, processing style, and transportation ability), destination-related factors (e.g., pre-attitude, prior knowledge), and situational-related factors (e.g., lockdown captivity and travel craving) justifies a positivist methodology.

Based on the different customers' mental imagery levels, it is possible to forecast consumers' attitudes and behavioural intentions, which implies consumers' behaviour may be described in terms of cause and effect. Existing theories are used as a basis for developing the hypotheses and conceptual model following the positivist principle; the evidence is collected to verify and confirm the hypotheses, and then the existing theory is expanded (Saunders et al., 2019). This process exemplifies the nature of the present study challenge; hence, a positivist perspective was selected to explain how consumers react to rich sensory and evaluation language narrative cues.

According to Saunders et al. (2019), there are three approaches to research: deduction, induction, and abduction. When a theory and hypothesis (hypotheses) are developed, the deductive method is mostly employed to test

hypotheses. If the premises are true, then follows that the conclusion must also be true. The deductive methodology is strongly associated with positivism, in which the researcher generalises from the general theory to the context.

The inductive method enables researchers to gather data and derive a hypothesis from qualitative results. It modifies the reasoning that uses known premises to produce unproven conclusions. Those who employ an inductive methodology generalise individual facts to a broader context. It is a particularly effective method for investigating phenomena, identifying themes and patterns, and developing a conceptual framework.

The third method is abduction, which assumes that testable conclusions are derived from known premises. This abductive methodology enables researchers to investigate a phenomenon, find themes and patterns, place them inside a conceptual framework, and then verify this framework via future data collecting.

The present study begins with a review of relevant psychological theories (sensory marketing framework derived from the Stimulus-Organism-Response model and theory of embodied cognition), communication theory (narrative transportation theory and the extended transportation-imagery model), and previous research on the digital sensory tourism experience, which serves as a foundation for developing the conceptual model and proposing the hypotheses. All the variables and their relationships depicted in the model, including mental imagery, attitude, narrative engagement (Being hooked), food involvement, intention to taste, and visit intention, are deduced from the literature in order to determine how audiences would respond to narrative cues containing rich sensory and positive language. It is evident that positivistic quantitative methodologies are

frequently used for theory validation in business and marketing literature. Deductive methods are perfectly suited to the generalisation of results via quantitative analysis, which bolsters the positivist methodology. The study tests the model and validates the theory by adopting a deductive strategy.

The positivist perspective and deductive technique provide the most compelling scientific data and law-like generalisations. However, the deduction is restricted since it is based on the researcher's own epistemological assumptions, which might lead to neglecting reality's rich and complex insights. The concept of food travel vlogs is an emerging trend that has generated considerable scientific attention. Although scholars have examined the metrics of audience engagement in terms of "likes count", "view rate", "comments count", and "danmaku" in various tourism settings (Munaro, Hübner Barcelos, Francisco Maffezzoli, Santos Rodrigues, & Cabrera Paraiso, 2021; Xu et al., 2021) there is a lack of knowledge on the para-social interaction between vloggers and audiences. Although one conceptual study focused on the significance of para-social interactions in food vlogs (Abd Razak & Zulkifly, 2020), it is not backed by empirical evidence.

Nastasi, Hitchcock, and Brown (2010) argue that pragmatism might be a suitable methodological approach since it considers the nature of the research question, the research context, and the anticipated research outcomes to be driving factors. Pragmatists choose methods based on whether they enable the collection of credible, reliable, and pertinent data to answer the research question.

To address research questions, a pragmatic strategy is utilised. This method overcomes the constraints of positivism by using an interpretative inductive technique to get a deeper knowledge of the nature of the issue, uncover

more in-depth ideas, and assist in the development of a more clinical study design. As previously mentioned, the research context is unique and lacks relevant literature. According to Creswell (1999), if the study issue is novel or has little current literature, it is preferable to produce data using an inductive approach to acquire broad and informed perspectives.

In addition to the main quantitative deduction research, a preliminary interpretative and inductive study is conducted to compensate for the constraints of the positivistic and deductive techniques by using thematic analysis on audience responses. By employing a mixed method approach, the breadth and depth of the study are improved, and the validity of the research results is enhanced.

### **3.3 Overall research design**

The research design is the overarching strategy for linking the conceptual research challenge to applicable and feasible empirical research. It gives a strategy or structure for data collecting and analysis. It exposes the study's kind (e.g., exploratory, descriptive, or causal) and the researcher's priorities. In contrast, research procedures relate to the strategies employed to acquire and analyse data (Ghauri, Grønhaug, & Strange, 2020). Therefore, a well-defined research design is essential for the success of a study.

#### **3.3.1 Types of research design**

There are four types of research designs exploratory, descriptive, explanatory, and evaluative designs. An exploratory study is a useful tool for

asking open-ended questions to uncover what is happening and acquire insight into a subject of interest. It is likely, to begin with, “what” or “how”, which are questions asked during data collecting to investigate a problem, issue, or phenomenon. It is especially beneficial if you need to clarify your knowledge of a certain topic, problem, or phenomenon. Traditional methods include expert interviews, in-depth individual interviews, and focus groups. These methods are probably unstructured, and the quality of findings largely depends on the contribution of the participants, however, exploratory research is advantageous in its flexibility

In the context digital environment, netnographic research methods are widely used to explore the massive volume of content online. Rooted in ethnography, netnography is defined as participant-observational research only focused on online fieldwork (Kozinets, 2002). It is the study of online social communications and interactions from a human point of view (Kozinets, 2002; Wu & Pearce, 2014). Using computer-aided communications as a data source, researchers can understand and interpret cultural or communal phenomena ethnographically (Kozinets, 2009). Netnography also benefits from ethnography’s flexibility and open-ended quality. In line with the advantages of ethnography, netnography allows researchers to immerse themselves in online conversations naturally and unobtrusively (Mkono, 2016). It has been found powerful in gaining “insiders’ perspectives” on consumer behaviour (Tavakoli & Wijesinghe, 2019).

The second type, descriptive research aims to compile an accurate profile of the subject of the study, by asking questions such as “Who”, “What”, “Where”,

and “When”. It serves as a precursor to explanatory research (Saunders et al., 2019).

The third type of research is known as explanatory research, and it utilises research questions that inquire about “why” or “how” to determine the causal linkages that exist between different variables (Saunders et al., 2019).

The purpose of the fourth kind of study, often known as evaluative research, is to determine how well something operates. It is used in management and business settings to examine the effectiveness of an organisational or corporate strategy, policy, programme, initiative, or process (Saunders et al., 2019).

### 3.3.2 The research design of this study

This study is designed to use combination studies that facilitate exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory research to achieve its objectives. Table 3.2 illustrates the details of different research activities

*Table 3.2 Research phases and research plan details*

Research Phase	Research Plan Details
1. Exploratory	1. Literature review in marketing, psychology, and communication 2. Preliminary research 1: thematic analysis on food travel vlog scripts. 3. Preliminary research 2: LIWC analysis on Influence of language style; Linear regression analysis on linguistic style and audience engagement (view, like, dislike, comments count). 4. Preliminary research 3: The thematic analysis of audience comments in food travel vlogs. 5. Pilot survey
2. Descriptive	Primary survey: Frequencies of descriptive statics
3. Explanatory	Primary survey: Structural equation modelling

This study is designed to use combination studies that facilitate exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory research to achieve its objectives.

In the first step, a thorough literature review and preliminary study are undertaken to determine the most important effects of mental imagery processing, based on both existing literature and user-generated data. The data crawling technique is applied on YouTube food travel vlogs to acquire vlog-related metrics (i.e., vlog destination, vlogger subscriber count, view rate, likes, dislikes count, comment count), food travel vlog scripts and comments for exploratory study. To further obtain the key themes of audience comments, the ready-made thematic analysis software, Leximancer, is used to perform an analysis of the netnographic information (for details, see Chapter 4). The pilot survey aims to test the efficiency of the chosen stimulus in promoting attitude and behaviour change. The purpose of the pilot survey is to test the effectiveness of the chosen narrative cues in inducing mental imagery and bringing attitude and behaviour change. It also serves the purpose to check the readability of the questionnaire for further primary surveys. To investigate how consumers would react to rich sensory and positive language narrative cues, a survey approach was used for the current research. The main survey approach is used to explore the causal relationship among mental imagery, attitudes, narrative engagement, food participation, intention to taste, and intention to visit. In addition, the primary survey questionnaire is used to provide a descriptive profile of respondents including demographic information, transportation ability, style of information processing, food neophobia level, previous knowledge, novelty-seeking motive, and pre-attitude.



### 3.3.3 Stimulus-base or memory-base

As mentioned in Chapter 2, mental imagery is defined as “a process by which sensory information is represented in the working memory” (MacInnis and Price, 1987, p.473). The key to activating the representation in the working memory is to expose to a stimulus (Kim et al., 2014). Mental imagery varies in terms of quantity, vividness, affective meaning, and sensory modality (Miller & Stoica, 2004). Therefore, scholars attempt to explore a different type of stimulus (i.e. Verbal instructions, pictures, videos, quasi-experiment, Virtual Reality, etc.) to evoke their sensorial representation.

Most of these imagery-evoked studies adopt a stimulus-based approach by supplying respondents with stimulus in a different modality. Cardoso, Araújo Vila, de Araújo, and Dias (2020) adopt the memory-based approach by asking verbally stimulating questions such as “what type of tourism do you usually prefer?”

Even so, Le et al. (2019) highlight the risk of using instruction to imagine in an experiment and experiential advertisement such as “imagine yourself ...” because the design could suffer from a lack of visual appeal (Chang, 2012; Walters et al., 2007) or it will be hard to imagine for people have lower imagery ability (Petrova & Cialdini, 2005).

With this consideration, this research aims to investigate the influence of rich sensory positive language food travel vlogs on audience attitude and behavioural intention. Due to the following considerations, the stimulus-based method is preferable: (1) if respondents were asked to recall their memories based on their previous food travel vlog-watching experience, the variables such as vlog choice, destination choice and the richness of the vlog narration contention are

uncontrollable. Instead, it is more appropriate to provide respondents with a carefully chosen stimulus. (2) the complexity of a food travel vlog, it would be more unmanageable if choose a selected food travel vlog in a vlog format than a plain narration. Because the respondents can be influenced by the picture quality, vloggers' credibility and favourability are not the focus of this study. (3) The differences between verbal narration and written narration also bring to the reconsideration of narration type. The influences of the vlogger's pronunciation, tone, pause, pitch, and gender may potentially affect respondents' preferences which are also beyond the scope of this study. Therefore, a plain narration is used for this study. The other variables such as the linguistic features of auditory narration and vloggers' credibility can be considered in the future study. In Chapter 4, a detailed preliminary study of the process of stimulus selection is presented.

### **3.4 Research ethics**

Saunders et al. (2019) emphasise the significance of research ethics because it influences how researchers formulate and clarify the research topic, design the research, collect data, process, and store the data, analyse the data, and synthesise the findings ethically and responsibly. There are ethical concerns throughout the entire research process. The primary ethical concerns for this study involve two issues: open data from an online platform and internet-mediated survey data obtained through virtual access.

First, according to Kozinets (2002) and Townsend and Wallace (2017), the ethics of utilising social media is based on whether social media data is private or public, informed consent, anonymity, and risk of harm. All food travel vlogs are

accessible to the public. The YouTube food vlog's scripts, comments, and audience engagement metrics (view count, like count, etc.) are accessible to everyone. The vloggers and commenters are aware that everyone has access to their messages (informed consent).

As a non-participatory, non-interview-based netnography, the identities of users are irrelevant; however, all comments are quoted anonymously (anonymity). Since the content was not sensitive and no one was in danger, there are no ethical concerns.

One of the scripts is selected as the narrative stimulus for the subsequent survey. The vlogger is notified via email of the research purpose, along with a detailed explanation of data usage, data storage, anonymity, and future work accessibility. There is no danger associated with the YouTuber from the survey.

The Internet-mediated survey adheres to the same ethical guidelines as the traditional survey. Saunders et al. (2019) note that participants must be informed of their right to withdraw, the anonymity of data collection, and the potential risks associated with the research activities. This survey adheres to these guidelines, beginning with a participant information sheet and a single “yes” button to initiate the survey. Both the internet open data study and the internet-mediated survey have received ethical approval from Northumbria University and adhere to its research ethics guidelines.

### **3.5 Data collection methods**

The most appropriate method of data collection for quantifying causal relationships in the proposed conceptual model using quantitative data is the

survey questionnaire. By analysing secondary data, three exploratory preliminary studies. Preliminary 1 focuses on identifying the key themes of scripts and identifying the information types in the scripts. Preliminary 2 focuses on examining the linguistic patterns of popular vlogs and justifies the choice of stimulus. Preliminary 3 investigates secondary data on food travel vlog comment themes which provides insights and are utilised to validate the constructs and strengthen the model's validity. Then, a pilot survey was conducted to determine the effectiveness of the selected script in inducing mental imagery, attitude change, narrative transportation, and behavioural change. The pilot survey also tests the questionnaire's reliability and validity. In addition, the language used in the survey is reviewed with a textual feedback function at the end of the pilot survey. The survey language readability is examined. The structural equation modelling was adopted to test the goodness of fit of the model. The entire procedure is depicted in Figure 3.1 below.

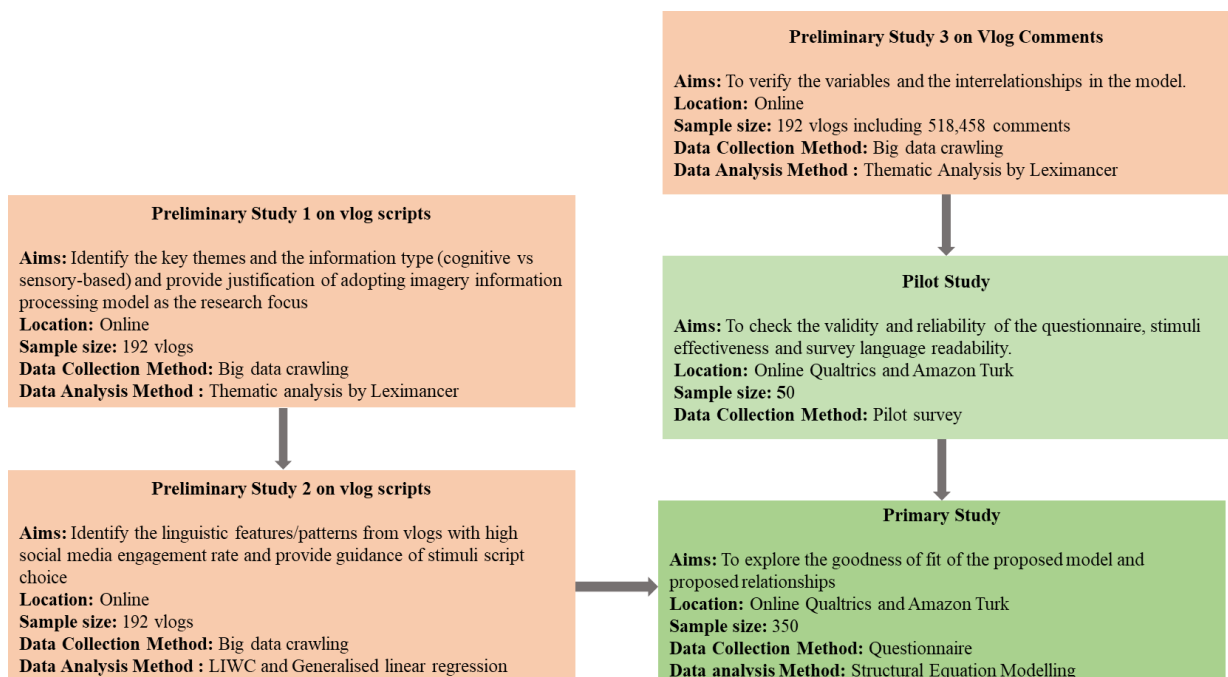


Figure 3.1 Relationships among preliminary studies, pilot study, and primary study

### **3.5.1 Sampling strategy**

Sampling is a technique (procedure or device) employed by a researcher to systematically select a relatively smaller number of representative items or individuals (a subset) from a pre-defined population to serve as subjects (data source) for observation or experimentation as per the objectives of his or her study.

Due to budget and time restrictions, it is impractical to survey the whole population. Sampling is employed as a technique to select a smaller representative subset that can be used for observation or experimentation based on researchers' objectives. There are a variety of ways to sample a subset of the whole population. Nonetheless, the representativeness and generalizability of the sample to the whole population of interest are the primary issues (Malhotra, Nunan, & Birks, 2017). However, given the defined target population for this study, there is no viable sampling frame that can be used to represent the target population precisely. Since the research aims at individuals over 18 years old and who had watching experience on travel vlogs or food travel vlogs. It is impossible to obtain a probability sampling in this case as the sampling frame is unavailable. There is no sampling frame available, it is difficult to obtain a probability sample in this research. As a result, a non-probability sample was adopted. According to Saunders et al. (2019), non-probability sampling approaches are less costly, less time-consuming, and more convenient. The bulk of marketing studies uses a non-probability sampling approach due to the inability of researchers to afford the expense of collecting a probability sample in most instances. The findings derived

from non-probability samples should be regarded with caution owing to selection bias.

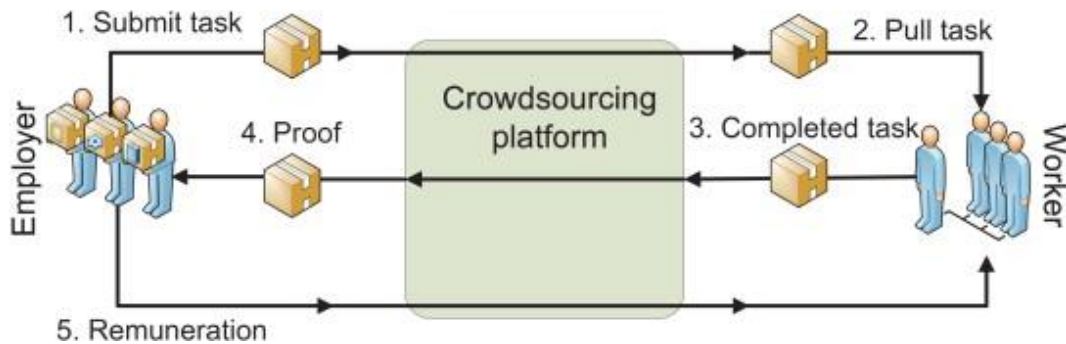
Several criteria, such as the nature of the study, the number of variables, and the techniques employed for data collecting and analysis, determine the sample size (Saunders et al., 2019). Using structural equation modelling for data analysis, the study aimed to evaluate the research model. Hoelter (1983) suggests that the optimal sample size for ML estimation is 200 since ML enhances the sensitivity as the sample size grows. Nevertheless, Kline (2015) suggests that a complicated model often needs a higher sample size since it has more parameters to be evaluated. In addition, for the current research, the sample size should be sufficient to better reflect the population to account for the non-probability sampling bias. In addition, taking cost, time, feasibility, and the data analysis method into consideration, the sample size for the current research was 355 respondents from the Amazon Turk crowdsourcing platform. The next section will focus on how recruitment is conducted.

### **3.5.2 Recruitment method**

Amazon Turk crowdsourcing platform is used for recreating respondents. The author submits a task with the online questionnaire link. Eligible Amazon Turk workers who had experience in watching travel vlogs or food travel vlogs, aged between 18-65, accept the tasks. It is worth noticing that although people over 65 years old might still watch food travel vlogs, however, extant studies support that using social media as an information source for travel decision-making or using it as a new form of virtual tourism is more widely seen in the

younger generations such as Millennials and generation Z (e.g., Chakravarty, 2021; Du, Liechty, Santos & Park, 2022; Wang & Park, 2022; Xu, Qiao & Hou, 2022). Therefore, the over 65 years old group is not included in this study.

Upon completion, the respondents will receive a unique random code which serves as an authentication token for the researcher to verify the responses. Once confirmed, the respondents will receive 50p per respondent remuneration. The whole process is illustrated below:



*Figure 3.2 Amazon Turk Respondent recruitment process*  
Adopted from (Hirth, Hoßfeld, and Tran-Gia, 2013)

A mechanism in Qualtrics for detecting multi-submitter or robot respondents is applied. The unfinished responses are not considered the final sample data. The questionnaire is set as a non-skip question mode where there is no missing data. However, a manual screening process is conducted by filtering out the low-quality responses.

### **3.6 Questionnaire design and measurement development**

#### **Mental imagery**

Because of the complexity of the mental imagery construct, many approaches have been proposed to measure this construct based on different research focuses. For example, Ellen and Bone (1991) examine the focal character and plausibility of radio advertisements and propose vividness and clarity to measure mental imagery. Babin and Burns (1997) identify the vividness and elaboration dimension of mental imagery from instruction to imagine and pictures. Walters et al. (2007) further advance the two-dimension mental imagery scale by examining the five 7-point semantic differential items to measure elaboration and seven items to measure the quality of mental imagery. (e.g., “The mental images that came to mind made me feel as if I was actually experiencing the featured brand”) that were rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). The elaboration and quality of mental imagery scales have been validated in many studies with good reliability and validity (Bogicevic et al., 2019; Ha et al., 2019; Yoo & Kim, 2014). Another measurement is the fluency of consumption imagery, which “the ease of imagining” seems to be the key to the measurement. Chang (2013) applies the imagery fluency construct in a narrative advertisement context, which highlights the narrative accessibility to readers. This means that the higher accessibility of narratives, the easier for readers to understand, therefore easier for readers to imagine. Miller et al. (2000) design and validate a multidimensional scale to measure the properties of advertisement-evoked mental imagery. Different from other scales, Miller et al. (2000)’s scale is designed to measure four dimensions including vividness, quantity, valence, and



sensory modality of mental imagery. The sensory modality dimension acknowledges the existence of non-visual imagery, especially auditory, olfactory, and gustatory imagery. Meanwhile, Elder and Krishna (2010) highlight the importance of multiple senses stimuli in affecting sensory thoughts and perceived taste. Hence, Miller et al.'s (2000) four-dimension mental imagery scale is suitable for this study. Lee and Gretzel (2012) apply this scale to the narrative, pictorial and auditory information from destination websites measuring Quality, quantity, valence, and modality. Quantity (Cronbach's Alpha=.92) and modality (Cronbach's Alpha=.82) were measured using seven-point rating scales ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree), including three items for quantity and two items for modality, only taste and scent were tested as modalities. The Quality and valence scales were measured using seven-point semantic differential scales, including five items for Quality (e.g., "Vivid-Vague") (Cronbach's Alpha=.93), five items for valence (e.g., "pleasant-unpleasant") (Cronbach's Alpha=.96). This study adopts the scale (Woojin Lee & Gretzel, 2012) with a minor change of modality questions asking about mental imagery on food presentation, flavour, food texture and food smell. See table 3.4

### **Being Hooked**

Although there are other ways to measure attention such as focused attention (An, Choi, & Lee, 2021), or cardiac activities such as measuring skin conductance, and heartbeat (Kim et al., 2014), the construct of "being hooked" was measured by using five items from the established eight-item, 7-point Likert Being hooked Scale by Escalas et al. (2004) who reported the scale's Cronbach's

alpha as .90. The items are as follows “This script really intrigued me.”, “If I had seen this script at home, I'd have watched the whole thing.”, “This commercial reminded me of experiences or feelings I've had in my own life.”, “I felt as though I was right there in the commercial experiencing the same thing”, and “I would like to have an experience like the one shown in the script.”

### **Post-attitude**

There are a few scales that are widely used in marketing research on attitude. For example, some generalised 7-point bipolar scale measuring “unfavourable-favourable”, “negative-positive” (Ha et al., 2019). Instead of adopting a general approach on post-attitude, the destination post-attitude scale (Lee et al., 2010) is adopted with reported Cronbach’s alpha of .81 with minor revision on the language. The scale included the three items, 7-pointed Likert agree-disagree, “Based on the script I read, the food destination is very attractive.” “Based on the script I read, I would love to visit this destination if given the opportunity.” “Based on the script I read, I am very confident that the destination will deliver the promised experience.”

### **Behavioural involvement with food**

Food involvement is measured by four items 7-point Likert agree-disagree scale behavioural involvement with food from Kim et al. (2018). The scale is modified from the original food involvement scale (Bell & Marshall, 2003) and the involvement scale in the food tourism context (Getz, Robinson, Andersson, & Vujicic, 2014) with reported Cronbach’s Alpha =.92. The scale includes the following items “I’d like to watch more food travel vlog concerning this

destination after reading this script.”, “I’d like to search for more information on this destination after reading this script.”, and “I became interested in the kinds of this destination foods after reading this script.”

### **Intention to taste**

The intention to taste adapts Wang's (2011) three items 7-point Likert agree-disagree scale with reported Cronbach's Alpha =.92. The language is adjusted to the food travel vlog context. The items include “After reading the script, I would like to taste Ramen/Japanese food within 6 months.”, “After reading the script, I will taste Ramen/Japanese food suggested by the script in the future”, and “After reading the script, I think I will taste Ramen/Japanese food within the next year.”

### **Visit intention**

Visit intention is measured by Alvarez and Campo's (2014) three items 7-point Likert agree-disagree scale with reported Cronbach's Alpha =.92. The language is adjusted to food travel vlog context. The items include “In the future, I intend to visit Japan.”, “I would choose Japan for my next holidays”, “I would prefer to visit Japan as the food destination as opposed to other similar destinations”

### **Style of Information Processing (SOP)**

The influence of individual differences in understanding information in mental imagery processing has been widely acknowledged. The original style of

processing (SOP) that propose 22 items with a four-point Likert scale of “always false” as 1 and “always true” as 4 are adopted from Burns, Biswas, and Babin (1993). Ramsey and Deeter-Schmelz (2008) propose a reduced SOP scale that contains 5 visual and 5 verbal component statements with the same four-point Likert scale of “always false” as 1 and “always true” as 4. The reduced SOP scale is adopted (Cronbach’s Alpha is .69 and .76). See table 3.4

### **Transportation ability**

An Individual’s imagery ability affects the mental imagery process. The imagery ability-related scale has different development in visual stimuli and narrative context. For example, Chang (2013) uses Pacini and Epstein’s (1999) 40-item rational-experiential inventory to measure experiential and versed rational processing on pictures (Cronbach’s alpha = .83) Fennis et al. (2012) adapts Marks’ (1973) vividness of visual imagery questionnaire to differentiate individuals’ visual imagery on picture stimuli with a 16 items unipolar 1–5 scale ranging from 1 (no image at all) to 5 (a very clear image in mind).

In this study, however, the stimulus is a narrative script rather than a visual stimulus such as a picture or a vlog. The transportation scale for narrative content is more appropriate for this study. Green and Brock (2000) suggest a narrative transportation scale with a Cronbach’s alpha between .77 and .78 that is designed to quantify transportation at a certain moment in response to a specific narrative.

Dal Cin et al. (2004) offer a similar scale, the individual transportability scale. There are two variants of a transportability scale, one for assessing the transportability of reading materials and the other for assessing the transportability

of visual resources. In contrast to Green and Brock's (2000), the individual transportability scale is appropriate for generalised narratives and contexts.

A shortened transportation scale from Appel, Gnambs, Richter, and Green (2015) based on Green and Brock's original scale (2000) with six items covering cognitive, general, emotional and imaginative facts with a seven points Likert scale from 1(not at all) to 7 (very much) is adapted (Cronbach's Alpha is .87) with two statements that are original story related characters removed. See table 3.4

### **Familiarity**

To measure familiarity, the prior knowledge scale from Guan & Jones (2015) focuses on how much tourists know about the area's gastronomy. Pieniak, Verbeke, Vanhonacker, Guerrero, and Hersleth (2009) measure how familiar the specific food is to the audience and its food consumption history which is more appropriate for this study. Therefore, the scale from Pieniak et al. (2009) is adapted with 3 items 7-point Likert agree-disagree scale with reported Cronbach's Alpha.74. The language is slightly adjusted to fit the research context, including three items "I am very familiar with this food destination.", "Japanese food is what I usually eat.", "Japanese food is like the food I ate when I was a child."

### **Prior experience**

Different from the existing scales on prior knowledge or familiarity, prior experience is a categorical question to identify the specific experience on Japan. Therefore, a drafted single question is proposed by the author with "What is \_\_\_ (destination name) to you?" and seven choices, "1) A destination that I will never

visit nor be interested in; 2) A destination that I will never visit physically but feel curious; 3) A destination I have never visited but dreamt of; 4) A destination for casual hedonic watching. 5) A destination I am currently planning and trying to get some inspiration. 6) A destination visited and look for new ideas for revisit; 7) A destination visited, and I want to reminisce”

### **Pre-attitude**

The audiences can have a specific attitude prior to reading the script because the cuisine is a transportable product (Guan & Jones, 2015) This construct investigates the audience's past experiences of the specific local cuisine (i.e. Japanese food in this study). The construct of attitude toward Japan is measured by a three-item 7-point bipolar scale with reported Cronbach’s Alpha =.91 (Coker et al., 2021; Ha et al., 2019) “bad to good”, “unfavourable to favourable”, and “dislike to like”.

### **Food Neophobia**

Food neophobia is originally designed with 10 items that measure the trait of food neophobia in humans (Pliner & Hobden, 1992). However, Ritchey, Frank, Hursti, and Tuorila (2003) argue that the scale, Pliner and Hobden’s scale (1992) measures food looks rather than a willingness to consume. De Kock et al. (2022) propose an alternative food neophobia scale. This 10 items food neophobia alternative scale is adapted (Cronbach’s Alpha is .82) including “New food eating experiences are important for me.”, “I am afraid to eat things I have never had before.”, “I don’t trust new foods”, “New foods mean an adventure for me. ”, “I

like to challenge myself by trying new foods.”, “ It is exciting to try new foods when travelling.”, “Foods from other cultures look too weird to eat.”, and “Foods that look strange scare me.”

### **Food Tourist Travel Planning Behaviour**

For food tourist travel planning behaviour, a single-item categorical question from Levitt et al. (2019) is adapted with these items, “For most of those trips, the availability of food-related activities was a factor in choosing between potential destinations.”, “For most of those trips, I researched food-related activities prior to travel, but they were not a factor in choosing between destinations.”, “For most of those trips, I did not research activities prior to travel, but participated after arriving simply because they were available.”, and “I have never participated in any food-related activities.”

### **Novelty Seeking Motivation**

Instead of measuring general pull and push culinary tourism visit motivation (Smith, Costello, & Muenchen, 2010), Li and Su (2022) measure how novelty-seeking an individual will be in terms of approaching or avoiding new experiences. The scale is suitable for this study considering Ramen is still an exotic food for the western population. The three items 7-point Likert agree-disagree scale reported Cronbach’s Alpha = .86. “I want to experience customs, and cultures different from those in my own environment when travelling.”, “I want to experience new and different things when travelling.”, “I enjoy the change of environment which allows me to experience something new.”

### **Lockdown Captivity**

Lockdown captivity adapted the measurement proposed by Irimiás and Zoltán Mitev (2021) but simplified as one question with a seven-point Likert scale, “how much do you feel trapped by the current travel restriction situation (1=not at all, 7 very much)”

### **Travel Craving**

food travel craving is also used in the measurement from Irimiás and Zoltán Mitev (2021) but adjusted the wording with the influence of the stimuli. The questions are “after reading all the scripts, I am craving for the food or the destinations mentioned in the scripts (1=I was not craving at all, 7=I was craving very much)”



Table 3.3 Summary of key constructs and measurements

Part	Construct	Measurement	Measurement Scale	Reported Reliability	Sources
Main SEM constructs	Mental imagery	1) quantity:	7-point Likert scales (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)	0.92	(Woojin Lee & Gretzel, 2012)
		Many images came to my mind;		0.83	
		A lot of images came to my mind; I experienced various images in my mind		0.93	
		2) modality		0.96	
		I imagined a food presentation.			
		I imagined food texture			
		I imagined smell			
		I imagined flavour			
		3) Quality			
		Vivid--Vague			
Clear--Unclear					
Sharpe--Dull					
Intense--Weak					
Well-defined --Fuzzy					
4) valence					
Pleasant--Unpleasant					
Goode--Bad					
Nice--Awful					
Likable--Not likeable					
Positive-Not positive					

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Narrative engagement (Being Being hooked scale)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. This script really intrigued me.</li> <li>2. If I had seen this script at home, I'd have watched the whole thing.</li> <li>3. This commercial reminded me of experiences or feelings I've had in my own life.</li> <li>4. I felt as though I was right there in the commercial experiencing the same thing.</li> <li>5. I would like to have an experience like the one shown in the script.</li> </ol>	7-point Likert scales (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)	0.90	Escalas et al. (2004)
Post-attitude	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Based on the script I read, the food destination is very attractive</li> <li>2. Based on the script I read, I would love to visit this destination if given the opportunity.</li> <li>3. Based on the script I read, I am very confident that the destination will deliver the promised experience.</li> </ol>	7-point Likert scales (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)	0.86	(Woojin Lee et al., 2010; Bizer, Tormala, Rucker & Petty, 2006)

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Food involvement	<p>1. I'd like to watch more food travel vlogs concerning this destination after reading this script.</p> <p>3. I'd like to search for more information on this destination after reading this script.</p> <p>4. I became interested in the kinds of this destination foods after reading this script</p>	<p>7-point Likert scales (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)</p>	0.86	(Kim et al., 2018)
Intention to taste	<p>1. After reading the script, I would like to taste Ramen/Japanese food within 6 months.</p> <p>2. After reading the script, I will taste Ramen/Japanese food suggested by the script in the future</p> <p>3. After reading the script, I think I will taste Ramen/Japanese food within the next year.</p>	<p>7-point Likert scales (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)</p>	0.92	(Wang, 2011)

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	Visit intention	1. In the future I intend to visit Japan. 2. I would choose Japan for my next holidays 3. I would prefer to visit Japan as the food destination as opposed to other similar destinations	7-point Likert scales (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)	0.91	(Alvarez & Campo, 2014)
Demographic constructs	Age Gender Education and Food origin	Age: 18-24; 25-34;35-44;45-54;55-65 Gender: Male/ Female Education: high school or below; college; undergraduate; postgraduate or higher Food origin: African cuisine; North American Cuisine; South American Cuisine; Asian Cuisine; European Cuisine; Others		--	

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Information-processing related constructs	Style of processing (Reduced Style of processing)	<p>Visual Component:</p> <p>1. There are some special times in my life that I like to relive by mentally “picturing” just how everything looked.</p> <p>2. I like to daydream. (R)</p> <p>3. I find it helps to think in terms of mental pictures when doing many things. (R)</p> <p>4. When I have forgotten something, I frequently try to form a mental “picture” to remember it. (R)</p> <p>5. My thinking often consists of mental “pictures” or images. (R)</p> <p>Verbal Component</p> <p>1. I enjoy doing work that requires the use of words.</p> <p>2. I enjoy learning new words.</p> <p>3. I like to think of synonyms for words.</p> <p>4. I like learning new words.</p> <p>5. I spend very little time attempting to increase my vocabulary. (R)</p>	Always True; Usually True; Usually False; Always False	0.69 0.76	(Ramsey & Deeter-Schmelz, 2008)
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Individual differences in destination-related constructs	Transportation ability (Shorted transportation ability scale)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I could picture myself in the scene of the events described in the narrative.</li> <li>2. I was mentally involved in the narrative while reading it.</li> <li>3. I wanted to learn how the narrative ended.</li> <li>4. The narrative affected me emotionally.</li> </ol>	7-point response scale from 1 (not at all) to 7 (very much).	0.87	Reduced to four items based on (Appel et al., 2015)
	Familiarity	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The food is familiar</li> <li>2. The food Is what I usually eat</li> <li>3. Is like the food I ate when I was a child</li> </ol>	7-point Likert scales (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)	0.74	(Pieniak et al., 2009)
	Prior experience	<p>What is __ (destination name) to you?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1) A destination that I will never visit nor am interested in.</li> <li>2) A destination that I will never visit physically, but feel curious about.</li> <li>3) A destination I have never visited but dreamt of;</li> <li>4) A destination for casual</li> </ol>	Cluster	--	Author created

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		hedonic watching. 5) A destination I am currently planning and try to get some inspirations. 6) A destination visited and look for new ideas for revisit; 7) A destination visited, and I want to reminisce			
	Pre-attitude	Bad–Good Unfavourable–Favourable Dislike–Like	7 -point bipolar scale	0.91	(Coker et al., 2021)
Food personality-related constructs	Food neophobia (Food neophobia scale-alternative)	1. New food-eating experiences are important for me. (R) 2. I am afraid to eat things I have never had before. 3. I don't trust new foods. 4. New foods mean an adventure for me. (R) 5. I like to challenge myself by trying new foods. (R) 6. It is exciting to try new foods when travelling. (R)	7-point Likert scales (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)	0.82	(De Kock et al., 2022)

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- 7. Foods from other cultures look too weird to eat.
  - 8. Foods that look strange scare me."

Food tourist travel-planning behaviour

Think about your prior travels where you participated in a food-related activity:

- 1 = For most of those trips, the availability of food-related activities was a factor in choosing between potential destinations.
- 2 = For most of those trips, I researched food-related activities prior to travel, but they were not a factor in choosing between destinations.
- 3 = For most of those trips, I did not research activities prior to travel but participated after arriving simply because they were available.
- 4 = I have never participated in

Cluster

(Levitt et al., 2019)

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any food-related activities.

	Novelty seeking motivation	1. I want to experience customs, and cultures different from those in my own environment when travelling. 2. I want to experience new and different things when travelling. 3. I enjoy the change of environment which allows me to experience something new.	7-point Likert scales (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)	0.86	(Li & Su, 2022)
Situational constructs	Lockdown captivity	1. How much do you . . . Feel trapped by the lockdown situation (1=very much; 7=not at all) 2. Wish you could just run away (1=very much; 7=not at all) 3. Wish you could break out of the lockdown situation (1=very much; 7=not at all)	7-point semantic differential scales 1=not at all, 7, extremely	0.81	(Irimiás & Zoltán Mitev, 2021)

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Food travel craving	<p>1. How often have you thought about travel or how good would travel make you feel? (1=never; 7=nearly all of the time)</p> <p>2. At its most severe point, how strong was your craving for travel? (1=none at all; 7=very strong)</p> <p>3. Please rate your overall travel craving. (1=I was not craving at all, 7=I was craving very much)</p>	<p>7-point Likert scales (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)</p>	0.90	<p>Reduced to 3 items scale based on (Irimiás and Zoltán Mitev, 2021)</p>
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### **3.7 Pilot study**

The pilot study was undertaken before the primary survey aiming to increase the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. To begin, five native English speakers are invited to examine the explicit and clarity of the questionnaire. Any implicit or unclear language has been revised or removed. Secondly, a pilot study is applied to examine the reliability and validity of the scale. According to Sudman (1976), pilot research with a sample size of 20–50 should be sufficient to reveal the major questionnaire flaws. As a result, 50 of the author's friends and academic colleagues are invited. Both English-native respondents and non-native English-speaking respondents are included to ensure that the questions are clear and easy to understand. Cronbach's Alpha is used to determine the reliability of the scales. Considering the feedback from respondents and data from the pilot survey, some questions have been revised or removed. See Appendix: Questionnaire.

### **3.8 Data analysis methods**

This study has three types of data descriptive, explorative, and casual. Descriptive data in this study include three aspects of information: (1) the participant's demographic background (e.g., age, gender, education, and food origin), (2) the personal-related information, including participants' information processing style, narrative transportation ability, novelty seeking level and food neophobia level, (3) the destination-related information including previous-experience, pre-attitude, familiarity with Japan.

The explorative data, including mental imagery, being hooked, post-attitude, intention to taste, and visit intention are analysed. Followed by casual data, which aims to investigate the explanatory relationship among variables proposed in the research model.

SPSS 27 is applied to analyse the frequencies, means, and standard deviation for descriptive and explorative data. SPSS 27 is also used to examine the reliability of each construct measurement by using Cronbach's Alphas.

The causal relationship proposed in the research model is investigated by applying Amos 28. The mediating and moderating effect is examined by adapting SPSS macro-PROCESS (Hayes, 2017). The research aim is to explore how consumers respond to the sensory-rich user-generated travel vlog script stimulus. Therefore, the hypotheses which test the relationships are the focus of the study.

SEM has gained increasing popularity due to its data-analytic strength, the capacity to design latent variable models that yield independent estimates of the relationships among latent constructs and their manifest indicators (the measurement model) as well as the relationships among constructs (the structural model) (Tomarken & Waller, 2005). It is commonly argued, researchers can assess the psychometric properties of measures and estimate relations among constructs that are corrected for biases attributable to random error and construct-irrelevant variance (Bollen & Lennox, 1991)

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a statistical model that attempts to explain the relationships among multiple variables. This method of SEM is based on an analysis of only common variance and begins with calculating the covariance matrix, and is often referred to as covariance-based SEM. These

equations depict all of the relationships among constructs (the dependent and independent constructs also known as exogenous and endogenous constructs) involved in the analysis. Constructs are unobservable or latent factors represented by multiple variables (much like variables representing a factor in factor analysis). Thus far each multivariate technique has been classified either as an interdependence or dependence technique.

Similar to multiple regression, SEM allows the expression of a regression equation for each separate endogenous construct. The endogenous construct is the dependent variable, while the constructs with arrows leading to the endogenous construct are the independent variables. In SEM, a construct that functions as an independent variable in one connection can function as a dependent variable in another relationship; all the relationships can be estimated simultaneously in SEM (Hair, 2019). To use SEM properly, a hypothesised model must be specified prior to the test based on the previous theories and studies. The test results are reflected with integrity. If any modification is needed to make based on the proposed model, a new sample should be used (Hair, 2019). Two types of variables, latent variable and manifest variable are used in SEM. Latent variables are referred to variables that cannot be observed directly and manifest/observed variables that can be collected via different measurements or scales. Two types of models, the measurement model and the structural model are used in SEM analysis. The measurement model specifies the relationships between the latent variable and its indicators, whereas the structural model evaluates the relationships between latent variables. As a statistical technique, SEM integrates factor analysis to test the measurement model and path analysis to test the structural model. (Kline, 2015).

In the literature, two types of measurement models are identified: reflective measurement model and formative measurement models, which suggest different assumptions of the causal relationship between a latent variable and its indicators. A formative measurement model claims that the variation in the construct does not cause variation in the measures, but the measures cause variation in the construct (Bollen & Lennox, 1991). A reflective measurement model means a causal relationship flows from the latent construct to the measurement (Jarvis, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003).

An alternate strategy advocated by (Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001) is to combine a number of indicators to generate a construct without any assumptions of inter-correlation between these items, often known as formative or causal measurement models (Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000). In this instance, the indicator has a causal relationship with the construct. Although it is possible for there to be a substantial connection between formative markers, this is not typical. Consequently, Cronbach's Alpha and confirmatory factor analysis, which are typically used to verify the consistency among indicators for reflecting measurements, are not suitable for formative measurements. according to (Jarvis et al., 2003), in most investigations, the measuring model is designed to be reflective without considering the formative nature of the constructs (Borsboom, Mellenbergh, & Van Heerden, 2004).

Misspecification may result in poor scale validity, and SEM values may be severely skewed (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Jarvis, 2005). Consequently, it is vital to guarantee that the measurement model's specifications are accurate while employing SEM (Coltman, Devinney, Midgley, & Venaik, 2008)

In the present research, the model consists of six latent variables mental imagery, being hooked, post-attitude, behavioural involvement with food, intention to taste and visit intention all of which have three or more than three indicators for measurements. The indicators of the six latent variables, adapted from the literature, were reflective measurements. The scale reliability was verified in both previous studies in the literature and the pilot study of the current research by achieving a reliable Cronbach's Alpha. Besides, the scale reliability was tested again in the primary survey by using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). Factors including demographic (age, gender, education and food origin), information processing (transportation ability, and style of processing), the individual difference in destination (familiarity, prior experience, and pre-attitude) and food personality (food neophobia level, food travel planning style and novelty-seeking motivation) are measured interactive effects of mental imagery. Situational factors (lockdown captivity and travel craving) are measured for the moderating effect on behavioural consequences.

This study adopted a rigorously confirmative methodology, in which one pre-specified model was examined to determine the model fit. Statistical model fit indicators were utilised to quantify the level of goodness of fit. Schumacker and Lomax (2004) outlined a collection of fit indices that should be reported and interpreted in SEM analysis, including the model chi-square, the root means the square error of approximation (RMSEA), the comparative fit index (CFI), and the standardised root means square residual (SRMR), normed fit index (NFI), and Tucker Lewis Index (TLI). However, there are certain flaws and restrictions with the SEM technique. For example, it is not its strength to analyse interaction

hypotheses (Tomarken & Waller, 2005). Therefore, to tackle this issue, this research applies the SPSS PROCESS macro to test moderating and interactive effects.

To examine the moderating influence of variables, the relationship between them must vary when the moderator variable is altered. The inclusion of the interaction in the model should result in a better explanation of the outcome variance than if it were omitted (Hayes, 2017).

Although there is disagreement in the literature regarding whether the independent variables must be significant predictors of the outcome variables in order to test for an interaction effect, it is possible to test for an interaction effect if the independent variables are significant predictors of the outcome variables. According to Aiken, West, and Reno (1991), the first step in testing the moderating effect is to evaluate the significance of the proposed model without moderators. Only if the model suggested without moderators is significant can the moderators be included in the second step. However, according to Bennet (2000), the independent factors do not need to be significant predictors of the outcome variable to test for an interaction effect. The moderator effect exists if the interaction outcome explains a significant amount of variance in the dependent variable.

This study adopts Aiken, West, and Reno's approach (1991). Two steps are adapted to test effect: Firstly, a simple regression model test is conducted between the predictor and moderator, both effects and explained variance ( $R^2$ ) of the model should be significant. Secondly, the regression model with added interaction effect is investigated to see the significance of the change in  $R^2$  of the model. The



moderation effect occurs when a third variable, known as a moderator, influences the direction, strength, or relationship between an independent and a dependent variable. The moderation effect occurs when a third variable, known as a moderator, influences the direction, strength, or relationship between an independent and a dependent variable. The moderation effect occurs when a third variable, known as a moderator, influences the direction, strength, or relationship between an independent and a dependent variable (Wu & Zumbo, 2008).

Although the mediating effects have been tested in Amos, SPSS PROCESS macros is used to validate whether the mediation effect is statistically significant by using the Sobel test (Sobel, 1982). The specific model used for examining the interaction effects is presented in Section 5.3.3 for interaction effect analysis.

### **3.9 Research biases**

Random error and systematic error are biases associated with most of the research. Random errors refer to the statistical fluctuations in the measured data, while systematic errors or biases refer to systematic deviation from what would be the most effective route to one goal because of commitment to another (Hammersley, 2000). These two errors can jeopardise and diminish the validity of the research. However, the biases from random errors can be minimised through the use of statistical analysis of repeated measurements, whereas most systematic errors cannot be avoided due to the fact that they arise from a variety of sources and can exist at each phase of the research process.

Other types of research biases are found in the stage of research design, measurement development, research procedure and sampling. For example, the selection bias relates to the sample representativeness of the research population. This research uses random sampling with specific criteria of 18-65 years old and who had travel vlog/food travel vlog experience. The samples are obtained via amazon Turk workers. 350 respondents are considered as a medium-sized sample and representative as all the respondents must meet the compulsive requirements. Another type of bias, measurement bias, refers to how the constructs are measured. The constructs are extracted from the literature but also are validated by using thematic analysis of audiences' comments. The research biases do exist, but the author tries to diminish the biases by validating from a different source.

Straub et al. (2004) suggest that construct validity, reliability, manipulation validity, and statistical conclusion validity are compulsory validity checks. Additionally, the common method biases check is advised. Common method bias also referred as method halo or methods effect, may occur when data are collected via only one method and/or collected at the same time (Straub et al., 2004). Padsakoff et al. (2003), identify four common method biases including common rater effects, item characteristic effects, item context effects, and measurement context effects. Common method bias is considered one of the most significant causes of measurement error that jeopardise the construct's reliability and validity (Baumgartner & Steenkamp, 2001). Straub et al. (2004) advocate avoiding the common methods bias by getting data for the independent variables and dependent variables from several methods sources, or by using SEM if only one technique is employed.

For the present research, Harman's single-factor approach (Podsakoff et al., 2003) is adopted to assess the risk of common method bias. In order to determine whether the majority of the variance can be explained by one general factor, a Confirmatory Factor Analysis was performed for the single-factor model and the six-factor model (mental imagery, being hooked, post-attitude, food involvement, intention to taste and visit intention). If the problem caused by common method bias is serious, the single-factor model will result in a good and better model fit than the six-factor model. On the contrary, if the single-factor model leads to a poor model fit and is much worse than the six-factor model, the common method bias is not a problem. However, there are some limitations to this method. For example, it can neither identify the specific causes of the method variance nor statistically control them. Hence, this method can only be used to assess whether common method bias greatly influences the hypothesized relationships. In addition, some other actions were taken during the process of research design to overcome the effects of bias and thus increase the reliability and validity of the research. Within the current study, due to the lack of an explicit sampling frame, non-probability sampling was employed, which means the representativeness of the population and the generalization of the results are yielded. However, the limitation of the sampling method can be compensated by a large sample size. In total 355 respondents participated in the primary survey to improve the sample representativeness. In addition, taking time, cost, and feasibility into consideration, the sample was selected based on the available responses on the Amazon Turk Mechanism platform. However, the age and watching experience do eliminate the potential respondents that are not qualified for the research, which improves a

certain level of representativeness. Moreover, measurement bias exists when the effects of data collection and measurement are not controlled. Bias can be reduced by improving the quality of the measurements. Most of the measures used in the study were taken from the literature with high reliability and confirmed validity. Besides, the expert panel, pilot survey and real-time audiences' comments are adopted to test the validity and reliability of the measurements before the primary survey. Finally, the answers given by the respondents might not be the same reaction as in real life as the respondents can't choose a food travel vlog script based on their preference. Therefore, the pre-attitude and familiarity with destination food can be significant moderators for this study.

### **3.10 Summary**

The research philosophies and approaches are first described in this chapter. Positivism with a deductive approach was mainly adopted for theory verification according to the nature of the research problems. In addition, interpretivism with an inductive approach was used in combination with positivism to gain a more comprehensive and in-depth understanding of the research problem and to help formulate a more clinical and valid research design. Then the research design and the specific strategies used to select the sample and collect the data were considered. Exploratory research was adopted to gain a better understanding of the research problem and to identify the relevant factors and their relationships. Moreover, descriptive research was adopted to obtain the demographic information of the respondents, investigate their perceptions and attitude, and test the hypothesised relationships among variables.

As to the data collection, preliminary studies are first conducted to support the stimuli script choice and verify the variables and the interrelationships in the model (see chapter 4). Subsequently, the whole process of the questionnaire developed for the main survey was demonstrated. Then a pilot survey is employed to examine whether the selected stimuli can evoke mental imagery and conducted to examine the validity and the reliability of the questionnaire. In addition, the statistical methods employed for data analysis are described. Finally, the issues regarding the research biases in the current study are discussed.

## Chapter 4: Preliminary research

### 4.1 Introduction

As mentioned in Chapter 3, three preliminary studies have been conducted before the primary research. An explanation of the preliminary research method is presented in section 4.2., followed by a discussion of food and destination choice and the sampling procedure in section 4.3. A preliminary study 1 based on the selected 192 food travel vlog scripts is performed to help the author understand what information is presented to the audiences, and it guides what type of information processing model should be focused on for the primary survey. It also provides a blueprint for the type of qualitative sensory description that should be included in the narrative stimuli script which can induce more mental imagery, attitude, and behavioural change.

Preliminary study 2 is a linguistic pattern analysis based on the Linguistic Inquiry Word Count (LIWC) serves as the basis of linguistic patterns for food travel vlog scripts. A generalised linear regression estimate is conducted to identify the relationship between linguistic patterns and social media engagement rate (i.e., likes, shares, comments, and view counts). By identifying the social media engagement rate inducing linguistic patterns, preliminary study 2 provides a pipeline for survey narrative script stimuli design.

Preliminary study 3 is to consolidate the constructs from the literature on consequences of mental imagery processing, a thematic analysis of audiences' comments extracted from 192 food travel vlogs is performed in preliminary study 3.

## 4.2 Preliminary research method

Three preliminary studies using online open data. Netnography is considered an appropriate methodology to search for the research objectives of this part of the study. Therefore, this section reports the issues related to netnography and discusses the data analysis method adapted for data analysis. Ethnography is a powerful mainstream anthropological method that is often used in marketing and consumer research. It is also the basis of netnography. Ethnography is defined as

*A methodology which privileges observation as its primary source of information. This purpose is also served, in a secondary and ancillary manner, by other sources of information used by ethnographers in the field: informal conversations, individual or group interviews and documentary materials (diaries, letters, essays, organizational documents, newspapers, photographs and audiovisual aids). (Gobo, 2008, p. 4)*

A significant reason for ethnography's popularity is its open-ended nature and the content richness of its findings. Furthermore, since ethnography has a great deal of flexibility, it can be used to understand individual behaviours in various contexts (Kozinets, 2012).

Because ethnography relies heavily on "the acuity of the researcher as an instrument" (Sherry, 1991), "observation" is the pivotal cognitive mode of ethnographic methodology. Due to the pivotal cognitive mode of ethnography, and observation, ethnographers must have the capacity to interpret subtle, metaphorical, and hermeneutic information. The ethnographic methodology comprises both non-participant observation and participant observation strategies.

As a non-participant observation, the researcher observes the subjects without interacting. The researcher can use informational conversation and individual or group interviews for participant observation.

Following this ethnographic stream, netnography is defined as participant-observational research only focused on online fieldwork (Kozinets, 2002). It is the study of online social communications and interactions from a human point of view. (Kozinets, 2002; Wu & Pearce, 2014). It adapts computer-aided communications as a data source to ethnographically understand and interpret cultural or communal phenomena (Kozinets, 2009). Originating from ethnography, netnography also benefits from ethnography’s flexibility and open-ended quality. In line with the advantages of ethnography, netnography allows researchers to immerse themselves in online conversations naturally and unobtrusively (Mkono, 2016). It is a good way to get “insiders' perspectives” on how people act as a consumer (Tavakoli & Wijesinghe, 2019).

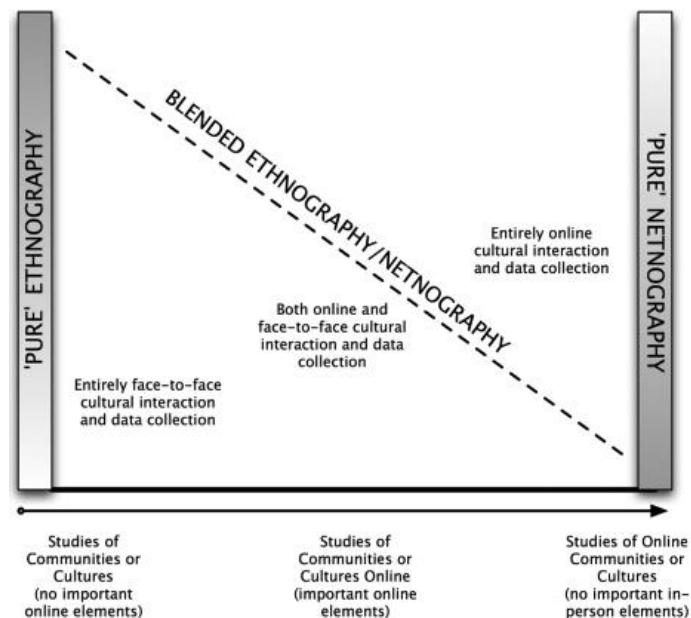


Figure 4.1 Coordinating Online and Face-to-face Interaction and Data Collection

( Kozinets, 2012)



Kozinets (2012) further illustrated the relationship between ethnography and netnography regarding data collection and the application context in Figure 5.1 coordinating online and face-to-face interaction and data collection methods. For pure ethnographic studies, face-to-face data collection such as face-to-face individual or group interviews is used in offline settings. In contrast, blended methods combining both online and offline data collection methods are more commonly seen in a computer-aided online and offline environment. This study falls into the third category, which is only focused on online context, in this case, the food travel vlogs on the YouTube platform. The data collection method is pure, non-participatory, non-intrusive, observatory textual data collection due to the nature of vlogs. This available open data, including scripts, descriptions, view count, like count, average rating, and comments, are informative and reflect close to reality (not considering the advertisement effect on vlog Search Engine Optimisation).

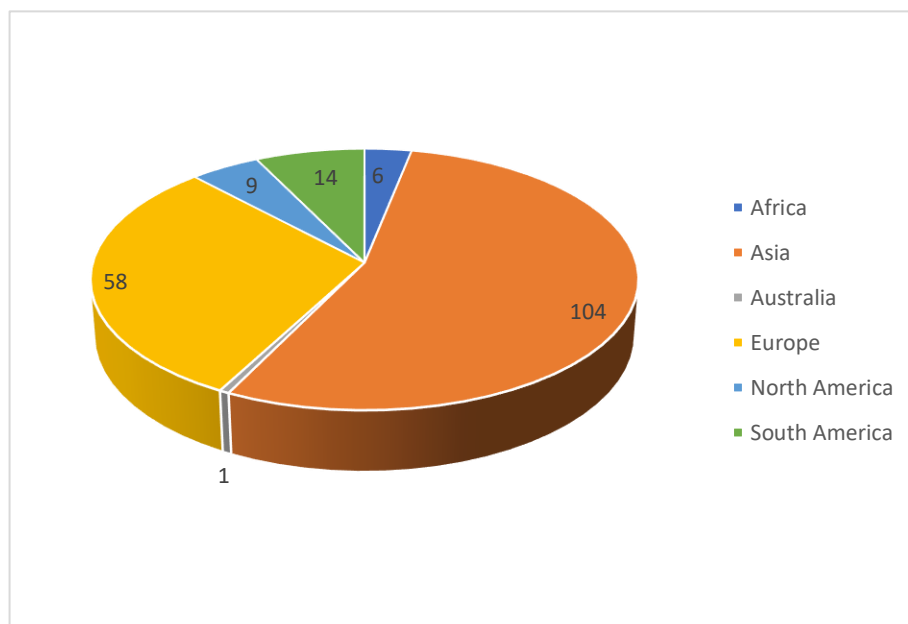
With the rapid development of the internet and social media platforms, netnography has been extended to tourism destination marketing studies. A significant amount of netnographic tourism studies is conducted in the context of web 1.0 (static and read-only form websites), web 2.0 (social web such as TripAdvisor) and web3.0 virtual reality-related tourism experience (Zeng, Cao, Lin, & Xiao, 2020). For example, in the web 1.0 context, many scholars investigated the influence of user-generated textual content such as travel blogs on destination images (Mohammad Sadegh, Jean-Michel, Jean Michel, Jean-Michel, & Jean-Marc, 2021), reviews on destination images (Mariné-Roig, 2017). Many

studies investigate travel reviews on tourism experience and its influence on destination attitude and behavioural intention (Brochado et al., 2021; Lee, Law, & Murphy, 2011; Srivastava & Kalro, 2019). This user-generated content also sheds light on designing a better tourism experience for marketers (Thanh & Kirova, 2018). Scholars are increasingly interested in conducting thematic analysis on YouTube videos to better understand the participatory culture and tourist experiences (Briciu & Briciu, 2020). Tolkach and Pratt (2021) state that audience engagement such as likes and comments is an important metric to reflect whether the content is valuable and understood by the audience. Because of the likes and comments, the videos show up higher in search results, which helps more people see them.

### **4.3 Information of sampled vlogs and vloggers**

To gain a better picture of food travel vlogs on YouTube, 192 food travel vlogs are selected based on the keyword search “food travel vlog” on YouTube with a further manual examination of the audience engagement and audience involvement. Based on the concept of destination foodscape (Björk & Kauppinen-Räsänen, 2019), the food tourism experience reflected in food travel vlogs is not limited to staged food experiences provided by the service provider such as dining in a restaurant. Instead, activities that reflect day-to-day life and practice also represent the destination foodscape. Hence the experience of participating in the cooking process and visiting local food markets are also investigated. With the development of experiential food tourism, cooking with locals is one of the most important ways to experience authenticity (Walter, 2017). With more vloggers

inviting local fans or friends to dine with them while filming, a varied experience in both the staged environment and daily food experience is reflected in the selected food travel vlogs. Vloggers are purposively sampled from different demographic backgrounds and subscriber counts. Dishes mentioned in these vlogs are famous or popular as national dishes or popular regional dishes within that area. The sample data are collected between 1 August to 20 August 2021. All the general statics of the selected food travel vlogs, such as “view count”, “likes count”, “subscribers count” and “comments”, are extracted on 21 August 2021 to guarantee the data integrity and unity. Most of the vlogs are chosen under the criteria of an average rating of at least 4.5 (out of 5).



*Figure 4.2 Overview of the Continental Distribution of Food Travel Vlog Destinations*

Illustrated in Figure 4.2, among these 192 food travel vlogs, there are 104 vlogs (54.2%) destined in Asian countries, 58 vlogs focusing on European countries, another 14 vlogs with south American destinations, 9 vlogs on North American food destinations, 6 vlogs on African destinations and 1 vlog on Australia. Noticeably, the samples cover six different continents but are not evenly

distributed. The main reason for this choice is that the natural food travel vlog data is not evenly distributed. Asian street food vlogs have a significant amount than the other regions, especially in Thailand, Philippines, India, and China. The push-pull theory can interpret this phenomenon (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981). The vloggers are food lovers; “foodies” are passionate about food and travel for food (Yeoman & McMahon-Beatte, 2016); existential gastronomy tourists are attracted by food knowledge and local culture. Therefore, they will proactively seek local and traditional destination food and participate in food-related activities (Hjalager, 2003). Because of their openness to food from different cultures, the push factors from the vloggers themselves initiate them to explore food “far from home”. Most of the sampled vloggers are based in western countries like America, Canada, or some European countries. They portray tasting food “far away from home” as a new, exotic sensory experience.

Meanwhile, pull factors are also from the destination countries. Countries such as Thailand, the Philippines and Italy market themselves as a food paradise, the “food tourism appeals” to attract tourists worldwide (Su, Johnson, & O’Mahony, 2020). Fig. 4.3 illustrates the geographical distribution of food travel vlog destinations. The darker the grey colour, the more vlogs are selected from that country. For example, 12 food travel vlogs from the Philippines, followed by 11 vlogs from Italy and Thailand, with China and India ranking fourth and fifth with 10 and 11 vlogs. Other Asian countries such as South Korea (9 vlogs), Japan (7 vlogs), Pakistan (7 vlogs), Turkey (7 vlogs) and Vietnam (6 vlogs). Table 4.1 presents the distribution of sampled vloggers.

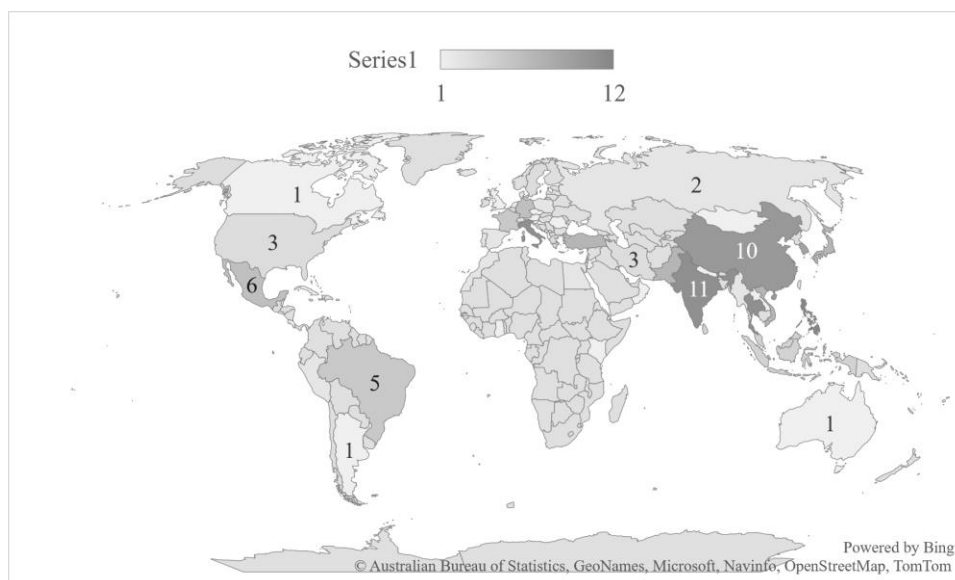


Figure 4.3 Food Travel Vlog Destination Distribution by Country

Table 4.1 Count and subscriber count of selected vlog samples

Vlogger name	Subscriber	count
absent abroad	22,200	1
Best Ever Food Review Show	7,220,000	7
Briddy Li	389,000	1
Chonnyday	681,000	1
CupofTJ	449,000	2
Daneger and Stacey	153,000	10
Dauidsbeenhere	882,000	1
Divert Living	293,000	1
Donal Skehan	1,010,000	1
EmJustLikeYou	116,000	1
Ethan Chlebowski	704,000	1
EURO TROTTER	45,800	9
Fearless & Far	670,000	2
Flying The Nest	1,050,000	2
Jade Billington	144,000	1
Janet Newenham	63,500	1
JohnandMalie	97,200	1
Kara and Nate	2,510,000	3
Kristen & Siya	320,000	1
Kritika Goel	326,000	2
Kyle Le Dot Net	242,000	1

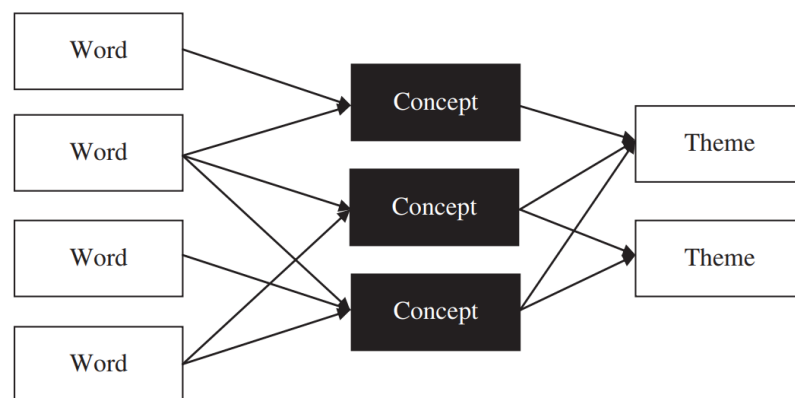
Vlogger name	Subscriber	count
LivingBobby	2,070,000	2
Luke Martin	1,190,000	5
Making it happen Vlog	532,000	1
Mark Abroad	693,000	3
Mark Wiens	7,930,000	60
Miss Mina	1,090,000	1
Naick & Kim	82,300	1
Ordinary Adventures	202,000	1
Paolo fromTOKYO	2,420,000	1
Pick Up Limes	3,550,000	1
Rachel Ama	615,000	1
Rated V For Vegan	1,730	1
Run The Atlas	18,600	1
Samuel and Audrey Travel and Food Videos	377,000	1
Spain Revealed	115,000	2
Strictly Dumpling	3,830,000	14
The Endless Adventure	498,000	13
The Food Ranger	5,230,000	19
The Global Expats	7,050	1
The Travelbum	50,600	1
The Try Guys	7,650,000	1
Timezone Junkies	36,000	1
Travel Beans	138,000	3
TREAD the globe	57,800	1
Two Broskis	24,700	1
vagabrothers	1,100,000	3
WAY AWAY	228,000	1
Whimsy & Wonder	2,510	1
Total		192

#### 4.4 Preliminary study 1- thematic analysis of scripts

To achieve the goals of this study, it is not the best practice to manually code and analyse 192 vlog scripts. After carefully examining the methods and software in the literature, Leximancer is considered suitable, cost-efficient, and effective in generating interpretable results. More detailed operational processes are illustrated in the next subsection.

#### 4.4.1 Thematic analysis procedure and software

Leximancer is a text-mining software, a lexicographic tool to analyse textual data and visually display the results (Leximancer, 2021; Crofts & Bisman, 2010). Unlike Nvivo, ATLAS.ti and CATPAC, which apply the word frequency approach, Leximancer uses its algorithms to analyse text meanings by extracting concepts and main themes quantitatively (Indulska, Hovorka, & Recker, 2012). By transferring lexical co-occurrence information from natural language data, Leximancer employs nonlinear dynamics and an unsupervised machine learning process (Smith & Humphreys, 2006). Rooted in Bayesian statistical theory, Leximancer predicts what could likely happen by analysing fragmented evidence (Smith & Humphreys, 2006). By using two-stage co-occurrence information extraction (semantic and relational), Leximancer builds upon the word occurrence and co-occurrence frequency to produce a word co-occurrence matrix based on the identified concepts. Then Leximancer group these main concepts into themes based on how often they travel together in the text (in this case, the food travel vlog scripts). Fig.4.4 shows the simplified model of semantic pattern extraction in Leximancer adopted from Crofts and Bisman (2010)



*Figure 4.4 Simplified model of semantic pattern extraction in Leximancer*

(Crofts & Bisman, 2010)

The advantages of Leximancer for researchers who are not experts in computer science are two folds. On one hand, researchers are allowed to

customise parametric on text cleaning, seed concept generating, thesaurus combining, and compound concept re-grouping based on their research needs. On the other hand, the visualised concept mapping statistical results are automatically generated based on customised settings in minutes which provides researchers with a very effective overview of major themes on massive data. It has been widely used to understand large volumes of qualitative data in various research settings. For example, it is an efficient tool for content analysis (Biroscak, Scott, Lindenberger, & Bryant, 2017). It has been employed to identify particular concepts in the literature review (Le et al., 2019), and public health (Watson, Smith, & Watter, 2005). It has gained increased popularity in analysing user-generated content. Online user-generated reviews as an important information source for both marketers and consumers. However, they are very challenging to be interpreted due to their unstructured and unsystematic nature. Robson, Farshid, Bredican, and Humphrey (2013) propose that Leximancer can be an effective tool to make sense of consumer reviews. Followed by that, scholars investigated travel reviews from Tripadvisor to gain views of specific tourist experiences (Wu, Wall, & Pearce, 2014), destination images (Tkaczynski, Rundle-Thiele, & Cretchley, 2015; Tseng, Wu, Morrison, Zhang, & Chen, 2015). Although scholars have shed light on applying Leximancer in the travel review context, user-generated vlog narration lacks investigation. It is vital to identify what are the main themes in the scripts because it can further validate the information type embedded in scripts. It is an effective way to understand what the information is that audiences receive from food travel vlogs.

To obtain interpretable results, several operational procedures have been applied to extract the theme map. The flow chart is as below in figure 4.5:

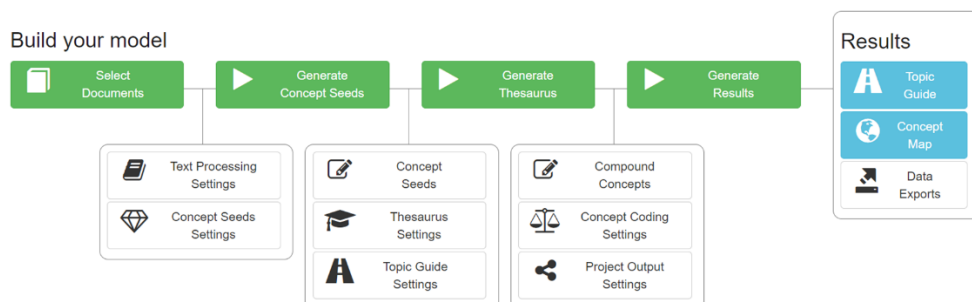


Figure 4.5 Flow chart of generating theme concept by Leximancer



Firstly, by selecting the default English stopword list in the “Text Processing Settings”, articles and pronouns words such as “a”, and “the” that have no significance in information retrieval and classification have been removed. This removal process used the default setting by Leximancer. Secondly, in the scripts data cleaning process, a customized stop list including the vloggers’ names and “music” is added to the “Text Processing Setting”. Because all the selected vlogs contain background music, it shows as the word “music” in scripts which is insignificant to the main theme mapping. Thirdly, a customized configuration and concept seeds and thesaurus are set up for semantic information. Fourthly, repeated steps of exploring and modifying settings till discovering the main themes within the text. Lastly, the relationships between relevant concepts are presented.

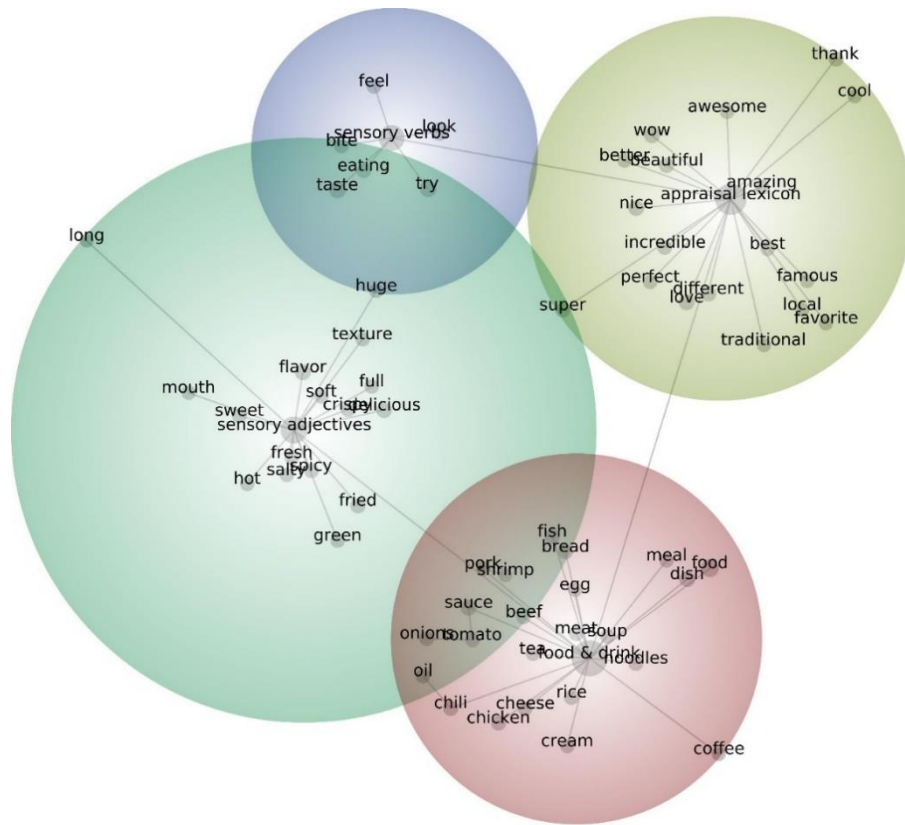
Leximancer extracts the primary themes in scripts. It is vital to identify whether scripts are analytic or more experiential and narrative in nature because it deeply affects the audience's information processing. Based on dual processing theory, digital consumers adopt a cognitive dual-process model to process online information. The message is processed in two routes, the central processing route and the peripheral processing route. The central processing route is tended to persuade people through easily observable such as word count, or latent variables that are embedded within the message such as writing style, and message valence (Srivastava & Kalro, 2019). People will adopt this model when they are highly motivated and looking for detailed information. They will consider and elaborate on all the available information and carefully examine all the attributes. By contrast, Munaro et al. (2021) investigate 11,000 YouTube videos, and the result shows the more analytical the video is, the fewer like and view rates it will get. People tend to adapt peripheral processing routes in watching hedonic videos. But in food travel vlogs, people are not only seeking hedonic pleasures, sometimes, they are also looking for detailed information. It is important to explore the analytical style of both scripts and descriptions and whether these two textual contents serve different purposes.

#### 4.4.2 Leximancer results

Leximancer automatically groups concepts that appear together in the same text to attract one another strongly and the software automatically settles near one another in the map space (Leximancer, 2021). To present all the concepts, with a threshold of 60% importance theme size, figure 4.6 is presented below to illustrate the main theme concept map that explores the underlying themes of the scripts.

To present the major themes clearly and straightforwardly, figure 4.6 describes theme mapping with a threshold of 60% theme size, which is presented below to illustrate the main theme concept map that explores the underlying themes of the vlog scripts. The four themes are the most influential aspects of the food vlog script. Figure 4.6 shows the themes and associated concepts. In the Leximancer output, the smaller grey nodes are the concepts grouped with different rainbow-coloured themes. The themes are colour-coded in a heat-map manner to show their relative importance. The Hits show the number of text blocks in this project associated with the main themes (Leximancer 2021). The warm colours are more heat topic. The most critical theme *food & drink* in this research is assigned the colour red, and then in descending order of importance, the remaining themes are identified by dark green, light green and blue. Sixty-two concepts were identified by Leximancer. The more concepts placed within a theme, the richer the meaning the theme expresses.

An initial interpretation of table 4.2 might suggest that the main aspects including *food & drink* (10,745 hits) and *appraisal lexicon* (8,645 hits) of food are the most important themes of vlog scripts, followed by general *sensory verbs* (5,843 hits) and *sensory adjectives* (5,820 hits). It suggests that in spoken vlog scripts, vloggers focus on describing the food ingredients, taste and visual presentation and evaluate the food experience.



*Figure 4.6 Theme mapping on scripts*

From the theme mapping on scripts, it is not hard to see that most of the

themes in the vlogs are related to sensory descriptions and emotion-related appraisal language on food and drink. Instead, content related to cognitive logic reasoning is not found in the themes. In other words, food travel vlogs tend to show more sensory-rich, emotional valence content instead of cognitive knowledge on introducing cultural differences, and food price. This may also indicate that when audiences receive this information from vloggers, they tend to adopt mental imagery information processing model other than elaborative cognitive processing.

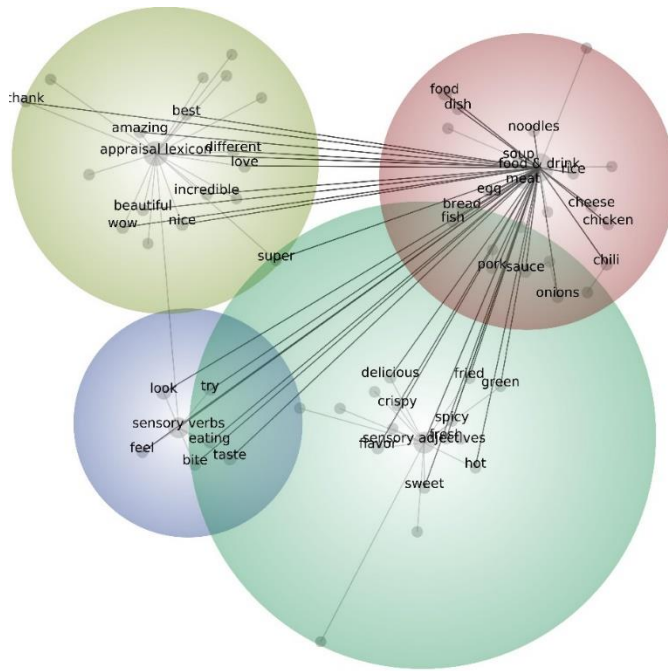
*Table 4.2 Main themes, hits and included concepts in scripts*

Main Themes	Hits	Included Concepts
<i>food &amp; drink</i>	10745	<i>beef, bread, cheese, chicken, chilli, coffee, cream, dish, egg, fish, food, meal, meat, noodles, oil, onions, pork, rice, sauce, shrimp, soup, tea, tomato</i>
<i>evaluative lexicon</i>	8645	<i>wow, love, nice, different, amazing, beautiful, thank, best, incredible, super, awesome, local, perfect, cool, favourite, better, traditional, famous</i>
<i>sensory verbs</i>	5843	sensory verbs, look, try, taste, feel, bite, eating, huge
<i>sensory adjectives</i>	5820	flavour, delicious, fried, sweet, spicy, fresh, hot, crispy, green, full, salty, texture, mouth, soft, long

### ***food & drink as the most important theme***

*food & drink* is the most important theme in the food vlog narration scripts which contains 23 concepts listed in table 4.2. Most of the *food & drink* theme concepts are connected to food ingredients such as *meat, egg, onions, and shrimp*, or beverages such as *coffee* or *tea*.

This theme is particularly strongly connected with concepts such as *green* (46% likelihood), *fried* (41% likelihood), *traditional* (32% likelihood), *spicy* (28 % likelihood), *local* (26% likelihood), *delicious* (26% likelihood) *fresh* (26% likelihood), *hot* (26% likelihood), *different* (26% likelihood) *salty* (25% likelihood), *favourite* (24% likelihood), *famous* (24% likelihood), *super* (23% likelihood) *incredible* (23% likelihood), *crispy* (23% likelihood) and *love* (22% likelihood). From the likelihood percentage, it can be identified that when describing food, the most likely used words are sensory adjectives such as green, fired, spicy, delicious, fresh, hot, salty, and crispy, followed by evaluative lexicons such as traditional and local. Vloggers attempt to describe food vividly from food sensory attributes such as colour, freshness, and cooking methods such as fried, as well as their sensory feelings such as salty and crispy. A few sensory lexicons and metaphors have been widely used in the scripts to enhance the enjoyability and imagery. Table 4.3 presents categorised examples quoted from the scripts on the most discussed food, beef dish in the vlogs. It is worth noticing that the sensory descriptions are not only limited to one modality for example only focused on taste. Instead, multi-modal sensory descriptions of food can be widely found in the scripts. When describing visual presentations, the food colour, shape, size, ingredients, and appraisal language are normally used. To describe a gustatory experience, vloggers have mostly emphasised food texture, flavour profile, ingredients and appraisal language. Olfactory experience is much less described compared with other senses. It is normally described in a format of a smell of an ingredient or an appraisal word such as amazing.



*Figure 4.7 Conceptual structure of text for the concept of food & drink*

*Table 4.3 Examples of sensory words usage in describing beef dishes*

Senses	Literal sensory lexicons examples	Figurative metaphors
Visual	<p>1. Colour: golden, green, red, wine-colour</p> <p>2. Shape and size: thick, thin, huge bite, a handful,</p> <p>3. Ingredients: mint chutney and masala powder onions</p> <p>4. look (an evaluation) : look wonderful, amazing.</p>	<p>The egg yolk is like a golden sunset.</p>
gustatory	<p>1. Texture: Tender, gooey, oily, buttery, crispy, crunchy, leathery</p> <p>2. Flavour profile: acidy, creamy, spicy, earthy, smoky</p> <p>3. Ingredients related: meaty, leathery, garlicky, vinegary, gingery, meaty, nutty, chocolatey</p> <p>4.the taste of (an ingredient)</p> <p>5. look (an evaluation): look wonderful, amazing.</p>	<p>“See, pressing chopsticks, the juice just flows. Oh year, it is so tender, hot, flavourful.”</p> <p>“You don’t need chew the beef. It breaks apart just close your mouth and squeeze it with your tongue.”</p> <p>“Oh, beef rib, yes, tender, look the meat jiggles! It is falling apart. oh wow these ribs are amazing they are tender, just fall apart. That’s just disintegrating tongue right now”</p> <p>“mouth-watering taste, worth dying for”</p>
olfactory	<p>1. smell (an ingredient or flavour</p>	<p>“wow, you can smell that</p>

Senses	Literal sensory lexicons examples	Figurative metaphors
	profile): fish sauce, star anise, spices	char. oh that is pure fatty delight. ”
	2. The aroma of (an ingredient)	
	3. smell (an evaluation): smell amazing, incredible	
Multimodality sentences	<p>“Thinly sliced grilled beef just look amazing, incredible. Let’s try. Oh, get insane aromatic spice. It is juicy, fatty, spicy, nicely thinly sliced grilled beef, it tastes extremely spicy.”</p> <p>“This beef is cooked in hot fire. You can see the crispy edges, they are shaved really thin, very crispy, salty, a little bit oily, just perfect fat. Look, look, crunchiness, golden crunchiness!”</p>	<p>“The slow cooked beef literally falls off bones. It is very hot, like beef stew. The flavour is wow, just so strong, really soaks and the vegetables cooked in tanginess, a clay thing like little teepee type thing.”</p> <p>Vibrantly chickeny</p>

Meanwhile, a significant number of participle adjectives have been used in scripts such as crushed green chillies, pounded green chilli powered, shredded papaya, finely shaved green onion top, based tomatoes, salted greens, chopped greens, fried green onions, pickled mustard greens, simmered fish. By including the participle adjective, it gives the verb-related motion in food which arouse audiences to better imagine the cooking process or imagined taste (Low, 2021; Rohwer, Lynch, Suzuki, & Levin, 1967).



Interestingly, some metaphorical terms which normally used for describing one sense but spill to a different sensory context. This kind of cross-modal synaesthetic metaphor has been widely used in marketing communication (Crisinel & Spence, 2012; Nelson & Hitchon, 1999). It is defined as “a sensory blending of tasting shapes, hearing colours and seeing smells” (Meehan, Samuel, & Abrahamson, 1998) or synaesthesia (Spence & Deroy, 2013). For example, “vibrantly chickeny” which is to describe the intense chicken flavour. It is an example of coloured taste. Similar examples such as “the smell of charcoaled fatty delight” which is synesthetic imagery with a combination of gustatory and olfactory. These synaesthetic metaphors with congruent sensory matching enhance the vividness of mental imagery (Crisinel & Spence, 2012). This cross-modal metaphor triggers mental imagery by corresponding to sensory stimulation in a different sense modality (Nanay, 2017). Metaphors are also recognised as powerful persuasion device (Charteris-Black, 2004), which is mostly used in advertising. The richer the source domains of the employed metaphors are, the more audiences will be engaged (Citron & Goldberg, 2014). Metaphors play a crucial role in influencing customers’ perceptions, contributing to favourable attitudes and purchase intention (Bertele, Feiereisen, Storey, & van Laer, 2020; Burgers, Konijn, Steen, & Iepsma, 2015; McQuarrie & Mick, 1999; Phillips & McQuarrie, 2009).

Meanwhile, these sensory descriptions in vlogs contain strong emotional valence. For example, words like sweet taste, pleasant flavour, golden colour, and delicious contain positive emotions. This finding coincides with Winter’s (2016) claim that sensory words especially taste words and smell words contain are

emotionally flexible. It can be both good and bad. These imaginable words and words with a pleasant taste and smell can be processed faster (Amsel, Urbach, & Kutas, 2012), which in a way contributes to the ease of mental imagery.

Apart from the sensory words, evidence of spatial image descriptions is found when vloggers describe the unique design of a restaurant. For example, “Oh look, they have these private ramen booths...I’m in a secret society where some random mysterious person just handed me ramen from a window. I mean because I don't see their face. All I can see from the window is a 90-degree bow.” A spatial description of the layout vividly paints the picture of what a classic Japanese ramen shop looks like. This is supported by that spatial images can help enhance mental imagery (Huttenlocher, 1968).

#### **4.4.3 Summary**

Instead of the dual processing model proposed by Zheng et al. (2021), the primary research will concentrate solely on mental imagery processing based on the results of a thematic analysis of scripts. Because few cognitive-related themes can be identified in food travel vlog scripts. Audiences cannot comprehend logical reasoning in the absence of analytical information. Instead, the selected samples are replete with emotionally loaded sensory lexicons, metaphors, and spatial image descriptions that can activate mental imagery processing in the audience. In the primary research, only mental imagery processing and its effects on attitude and behavioural intention should be investigated. Also, as the results are consistent with the earlier studies, sensory lexicons, metaphors, and descriptions

of spatial pictures should be considered for inclusion in the narrative stimuli script for future primary research.

#### **4.5 Preliminary study 2- the choice of narrative script stimuli**

As aforementioned, the main goal of preliminary study 1 is to choose the appropriate stimuli, factors including food and destination, vlogger's profile and the language pattern taken into consideration. It is supported by a literature review and 192 food travel vlog data evidence.

##### **4.5.1 Choice of food and destination**

The traditional "sightseer" is the prototype of "the tourist" which prioritises the visual sense over other senses (Cohen & Avieli, 2004), such as Urry (1990) in *The tourist's Gaze*. But some people may like to explore the destinations with more than just visual but also other bodily involvements such as taste in local food and drinking. Cohen (1972) categorises the tourist typology based on novelty-seeking and strangeness-avoiding. In the spectrum of familiarity, the people who need most of the familiarity to enjoy their experience need an "environmental bubble" while travelling and "drifters" venture away from any accustomed to home. Fischler (1988) applies "neophobic" and "neophylic" inclinations in taste to familiarity and strangeness in the context of food. According to Fischler, people may have both inclinations. They detest or are suspicious of novel and hence unfamiliar cuisines and dishes. Or they often seek out unique and unusual foods. Cohen and Avieli (2004) suggest westerners are

increasingly seeking out new foods and recipes in recent years. However, people could tend to be more neophobic than neophylic.

With the increasing influence of pan-Asian cuisine, western society is getting used to a selection of oriental food and flavour profiles. According to a survey conducted in the UK by Wing Yip Group, among the respondents, Chinese (87%), Thai (39%), Japanese (20%), Vietnamese (7 %), Malaysian (8%), Indonesian 7%, Korean 7%, and other cuisines 6%. The top five favourite dishes include sweet & sour chicken, Thai green curry, chicken chow mein, sushi and crispy duck (WingYip, 2016). With easy access to soy sauce, oyster sauce and tofu in English supermarkets, and the accelerated popularity of franchise pan-Asian cuisine-inspired restaurants like Wagamama, the western pallets are more “open-minded” to the “novel” food.

This study targets the populations that live in western countries mainly in the US and UK. Pan-Asian food can be a good choice to evoke respondents’ mental imagery based on the following reasons: (1) most of the population in the west had a taste of pan-Asian food, which embedded them with a working memory of how the sensory food experience would be like in terms of flavour and presentation. With this base, it would not be the case that the researcher is asking respondents to imagine based on nothing they don’t know at all; (2) compared with western food, such as French food or Italian food, oriental food is not daily consumption, nor a homemade regular. It remains some mystery for people to imagine the taste, flavour, smell, and presentation. (3) Pan-Asian food is gaining increasing popularity on the YouTube platform of the quantity of Asian destination

food travel vlogs and the enormous view rates, likes and comments from these food travel vlogs.

For this research, Japan is selected as the food destination based on the popularity and quantity of Japanese food travel vlogs. Although Indian food is also very popular in ranking, the western population is very much used to Indian food such as curries or buttermilk chicken. It is worth noticing that the author purposely avoids choosing China as the food destination stimulus regardless of its popularity and familiarity. This decision is based on the comments from the selected sample vlogs that seem to be politically biased which can potentially interfere with future research findings. Philippine food, Korean food and Malaysian food are emerging trends which may increase the difficulty of imagining.

As the respondents are designed to be induced by a written narrative description. It is less engaging than a picture of food, or an interactive food travel vlog. The food selection should be something that can easily associate with their working memory of the five senses, and their long-term memory of the food perception.

Noodle is a very common food that is consumed by the majority. Japanese ramen is a noodle dish as well as ethnic food. Selecting a narration on Japanese ramen can help respondents associate the ramen taste with their previous sensory experience with noodle dishes in their working memory to help them imagine. Meanwhile, if they had ramen before, by exposing to the stimulus, their long-term memory of Japanese ramen can be also recalled. That is also the reason why that

Thailand is not chosen as the destination due to the unique ingredients and names (such as galangal, instead of ginger) that might increase the difficulty to associate.

#### **4.5.2 Choice of the language style**

The choice of vlogger and his or her language style is vital to this research as it provides the basis for drafting or adopting as the narrative stimuli. The persuasiveness of vloggers implied on consumers is studied in various aspects, including popularity (such as subscribe count) (Munaro et al., 2021), credibility (Chu & Kamal, 2008), perceived usefulness (Briliana et al., 2020). The narrative content for example the narrative structure (Van Laer, Edson Escalas, et al., 2019) and linguistic style, emotional valence (Munaro et al., 2021), also influence engagement and persuasion. So far, there is not enough knowledge on food travel vloggers, their language styles and their relationship in literature. Therefore, there is a need to identify the language style that helps boost the number of views, likes and comments and identify the language style that guides the narrative stimulus of this research.

The language style is measured by machine-learning software by the Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count software (LIWC) from Boyd et al. (2022). It is adapted to analyse the language style, especially the key measures including analytic thinking, clout, authentic, personal pronoun, adverb, verb and adjective. Followed with the language style investigation, a quantitative generalised regression, a negative binomial distribution with maximum likelihood estimates by following the same method and procedure of Munaro et al. (2021) is conducted. This approach is suitable for the current explorative study based on (1) the view

counts, likes and other metrics in this study are overdispersed distributed which is ideal for the negative binomial distribution with maximum likelihood estimates (Hughes, Swaminathan, & Brooks, 2019; Van Laer, Edson Escalas, et al., 2019); (2) the study aims to explore the generalised regression between language patterns and engagement metrics with the controlled influence of subscriber count and author.

#### **4.5.3 LIWC investigation**

LIWC-22 is a software created for studying verbal and written speech textual content. It was first developed as a part of language and disclosure (Francis & Pennebaker, 1992). LIWC-22 contains up-to-date software and a dictionary-22 that includes the latest words and new directions in text analysis (Boyd, Ashokkumar, Seraj, & Pennebaker, 2022). LIWC has been widely used in social research linguistic studies such as physician-patient conversations (Fridman et al., 2021) and political languages (Tumasjan, Sprenger, Sandner, & Welpe, 2010). Furthermore, using LIWC in user-generated content, especially online reviews, have gained increasing popularity. For example, Agnihotri and Bhattacharya (2016) measure the sentiment aspect of online reviews by using LIWC and find the curvilinear relationship with helpfulness. Munaro et al. (2021) examine the linguistic style, analytic thinking, subjectivity and emotional valence used in popular YouTube videos. Berger, Rocklage, and Packard (2021) measure emotional valence using LIWC “affect” and examine the difference in emotional attitude under different expressive modalities.

*Table 4.4 LIWC investigation variables and descriptions*

	Categories	Description
Language style	Analytic	Metric of logical, formal thinking
	Clout	Language of leadership, status
	Authentic	Perceived honesty, genuineness
	Emotional Tone	Degree or positive (negative) tone
Linguistic feature	1 <sup>st</sup> person singular	I, me, my, myself
	1 <sup>st</sup> person plural	we, our, us, lets
	2 <sup>nd</sup> person	you, your, u, yourself
	3 <sup>rd</sup> person singular	he, she, her, his
	3 <sup>rd</sup> person plural	they, their, them, themselves
	adjectives	more, very, other, new
	verbs	is, was, be, have
Emotional valence	adverbs	so, just, about, there
	Positive	good, love, happy, hope
	Negative	bad, hate, hurt, tired

Adopted from (Boyd et al., 2022)

Based on the psychometric properties of the LIWC-22 manual (Boyd et al., 2022), four language style variables, including analytic thinking, clout, authenticity, and emotional tone and three linguistic features including pronouns, adverbs, verbs and adjectives are measured. The summary variables are scaled on a 100-point scale from 0 to 100. Logical hierarchical thinking is shown in analytic thinking. The more analytic, formal, and hierarchical thinking there is, the higher



the score. Clout demonstrates knowledge and assurance. If the speaker receives a high score, they are very knowledgeable and confident. The little amount of clout points to a modest and unsure manner. Authentic level demonstrates sincerity on a personal level. Otherwise, a lower number suggests that the conversation may be more reserved, distant, or pre-staged (Boyd et al., 2022). The more honest and intimate it is, the higher the authentic score is. Literature also suggests the individual-focused personal pronoun tends to be more self-focused while social personal pronouns such as you and we have more influence in social interaction. (Jordan, Sterling, Pennebaker, & Boyd, 2019; Munaro et al., 2021). Based on this evidence, personal pronouns are also investigated.

There are two similar variables, tone, and emotion. These two are different measurements based on LIWC-22. The newly revised emotion measurement on LIWC-22 overcomes two previously widely highlighted shortcomings of (a) not up-to-date emotion language and (b) did not distinguish emotion words from sentiment and true emotions. The tone measure is only used to measure sentiment, whereas emotion is only restricted to true emotion labels In LIWC-22 (Boyd et al., 2022). In this study, the sentiment of the words is measured by tone, positive and negative tone in detail. Emotional relevance is measured by positive and negative emotions.

The descriptive statics of the scripts' LIWC findings are shown in Table 6.4. The average analytic thinking score is 28.99 out of 100, which indicates that these vlogs are often more interested in narrative storytelling than scripts that rely on logical arguments. The clout mean is 60.33, indicating that, generally speaking, the vloggers presented their vlogs with assurance and showed a fair amount of

professionalism while travelling for food. It's interesting to note that the mean for authenticity is less than 50, indicating that, on average, vlogs are more likely to be pre-staged or scripted than they are to be spoken naturally like a chat between friends. The typical vlog's tone is lively, pleasant, and thrilling with a mean tone of 60.33. Personal pronouns such as I, YOU, and WE are used more frequently than she, he and they. In the next subsection, a quantitative generalised regression with a negative binomial distribution with maximum likelihood estimates is conducted to test the hypotheses between the LIWC results and audience engagement metrics.

*Table 4.5 LIWC results on scripts*

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
WC	192	526	5,843	2,711.21	1,149.98
Analytic	192	5	91	28.99	13.75
Clout	192	6	97	60.33	18.03
Authentic	192	10	88	42.71	17.48
Tone	192	15	96	72.65	11.66
i	192	0	9	2.87	1.42
we	192	0	5	2.00	1.12
you	192	0	4	2.10	0.68
shehe	192	0	3	0.37	0.36
they	192	0	2	0.79	0.36
adverb	192	5	11	8.20	1.27
verb	192	14	24	18.25	1.92
adj	192	4	11	7.23	0.95

#### 4.5.4 Findings of generalised linear regression

With the hypotheses below, a modified model based on Munaro et al. (2021) framework is proposed. Although the original model includes categorical variables such as the time of the video post, and the date of the video post, this model didn't include these variables because of the smaller sample size and purposive sample strategy. Instead, based on the observation of food vlogs, there can be a potential influence from subscriber count and author.

The number of adjectives, adverbs and verbs used in the food travel vlogs are proposed as an addition to the original model due to the nature of the food travel vlog. When describing food, a lot of adjectives are applied to describe the sensory modality of the food (Akpınar & Berger, 2015; Winter, 2016). Meanwhile, sensory-related verbs and adverbs are also playing a significant role in describing food experience (Diederich, 2015; Winter, 2019).

H1a. The more (less) analytic language used in a food travel vlog, the less (more) view count is.

H1b. The more (less) analytic language used in a food travel vlog, the less (more) like count is.

H1c: The more (less) analytic language used in a food travel vlog, the more (less) dislike count is.

H1d: The more (less) analytic language used in a food travel vlog, the less (more) comment count is.

H2a. The more (less) clout language in a food travel vlog, the more (less) view count is.

H2b. The more (less) clout language in a food travel vlog, the more (less) like count is.

H2c. The more (less) clout language in a food travel vlog, the less (more) dislike count is.

H2d. The more (less) clout language in a food travel vlog, the more (less) comment count is.

H3a. The more (less) authentic language in a food travel vlog, the more (less) view count is.

H3b. The more (less) authentic language in a food travel vlog, the more (less) like count is.

H3c. The more (less) authentic language in a food travel vlog, the less (more) dislike count is.

H3d. The more (less) authentic language in a food travel vlog, the more (less) comment count is.

H4a. The more positive (negative) tone language in a food travel vlog, the more (less) view count is.

H4b. The more positive (negative) tone language in a food travel vlog, the more (less) like count is.

H4c. The more positive (negative) tone language in a food travel vlog, the less (more) dislike count is.

H4d. The more positive (negative) tone language in a food travel vlog, the more (less) comment count is.

H5a. The higher (lower) the level of social personal pronouns in a food travel vlog, the more (less) view count is.

H5b. The higher (lower) the level of social personal pronouns in a food travel vlog, the more (less) like count is.

H5c. The higher (lower) the level of social personal pronouns in a food travel vlog, the less (more) dislike count is.

H5d. The higher (lower) the level of social personal pronouns in a food travel vlog, the more (less) comment count is.

H6a. The higher (lower) the level of the adverb in a food travel vlog, the more (less) view count is.

H6b. The higher (lower) the level of the adverb in a food travel vlog, the more (less) like count is.

H6c. The higher (lower) the level of the adverb in a food travel vlog, the less (more) dislike count.

H6d. The higher (lower) the level of the adverb in a food travel vlog, the more (less) comment count is.

H7a. The higher (lower) the level of verbs in a food travel vlog, the more (less) view count is.

H7b. The higher (lower) the level of verbs in a food travel vlog, the more (less) like count.

H7c. The higher (lower) the level of verbs in a food travel vlog, the less (more) dislike count is.

H7d. The higher (lower) the level of verbs in a food travel vlog, the more (less) comment count is.

H8a. The higher (lower) the level of adjectives in a food travel vlog, the more (less) the view count is.

H8b. The higher (lower) the level of adjectives in a food travel vlog, the more (less) like count is.

H8c. The higher (lower) the level of adjectives in a food travel vlog, the less (more) dislike count is.

H8d. The higher (lower) the level of adjectives in a food travel vlog, the more (less) comment count is.

H9a. The more positive (negative) emotion revealed in a food travel vlog, the more (less) view count is.

H9b. The more positive (negative) emotion revealed in a food travel vlog, the more (less) like count is.

H9c. The more positive (negative) emotion revealed in a food travel vlog, the less (more) dislike count is.

H9d. The more positive (negative) emotion revealed in a food travel vlog, the more (less) comment count is.

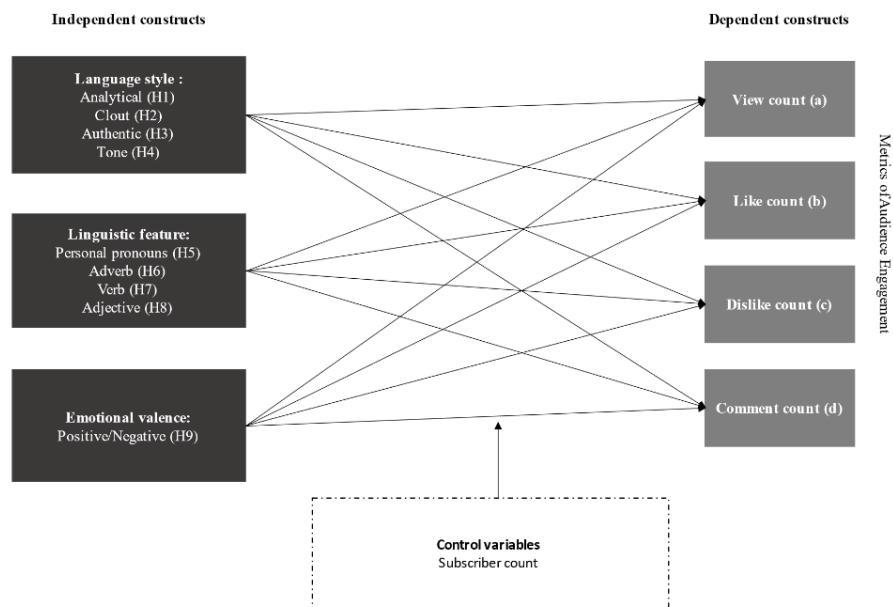


Figure 4.8 Proposed generalised linear regression model

Table 4.6 presents the overview of descriptive statistics of selected vlog samples. The mean average rating is 4.86 (out of 5); the mean view count is 2.8 million; the mean like count is 38,601; the mean dislike count is 1,600; the mean subscriber count is 3.8 million. Despite an inevitable issue of the YouTube algorithm which is that popular videos get pushed to higher positions to be seen by more audiences, a generalised linear regression model is applied to identify the potential correlations among the independent variables and dependent variables.

*Table 4.6 Descriptive statistics of social media engagement metrics*

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
View count	192	1,189.00	30,576,069.00	2,849,226.90	3,705,511.97
Like count	192	67.00	411,254.00	38,493.80	46,530.59
Dislike count	191	2.00	34,869.00	1,579.15	3,146.60
subscriber count	192	1,730.00	7,930,000.00	3,845,252.03	3,357,684.34
comments count	192	5.00	427,137.00	4,426.29	30,706.14

The Pearson (2-tailed) correlation results show that subscriber count is significantly related to view count (0.535,  $p < 0.01$ ), like count (0.589,  $p < 0.01$ ), dislike count (0.354,  $p < 0.01$ ) and comment count (0.546,  $p < 0.01$ ). The subscriber count displays strong positive correlations with audience engagement metrics, which would interfere with the findings between the language style, linguistic features and emotions and the engagement metrics. The subscriber count is set as an offset value of “1”.

## Analysis findings

The omnibus test on four models ( view count, like count, dislike count and comment count) on (intercept), analytic, clout, authentic, tone, I, we, you, shehe, they, adverb, verb, adjective, tone positive, tone negative, emotion positive, emotion negative and offset variable subscribe is all significant, which means the all the independent variables collectively improve the model over the intercept-only model significantly. The coefficient beta and exponentiated value of the coefficients (the “Exp(B) column) are used to interpret the results.

*Table 4.7 Results of generalised linear regression*

variable	View count	Like count	Dislike count	Comment count
(Intercept)	18.99(2.78)***	12.32(2.82)***	12.39(2.81)***	8.04(2.75)**
Analytic	-0.04(0.02)**	-0.02(0.02)	-0.04(0.02)**	-0.03(0.02)*
Clout	0.05(0.01)**	0.04(0.02)**	0.04(0.01)**	0.05(0.02)**
Authentic	-0.02(0.01)**	-0.02(0.01)*	-0.02(0.01)**	0(0.01)
Tone	-0.12(0.04)**	-0.1(0.04)**	-0.16(0.04)***	-0.1(0.04)**
i	0.15(0.15)	0.18(0.14)	0.02(0.15)	0.06(0.15)
we	-1.1(0.22)***	-0.96(0.22)***	-1.03(0.22)***	-0.93(0.23)***
you	-0.7(0.2)***	-0.53(0.2)**	-0.61(0.21)**	-0.47(0.21)**
shehe	0.11(0.29)	0.21(0.29)	0.35(0.3)	0.24(0.29)
they	-0.61(0.29)**	-0.53(0.29)*	-0.71(0.29)**	-0.58(0.3)*
adverb	-0.24(0.12)**	-0.1(0.12)	-0.29(0.12)**	-0.13(0.13)
verb	0.01(0.08)	0.04(0.08)	0.06(0.08)	0.03(0.08)
adj	0.45(0.1)***	0.34(0.1)**	0.51(0.11)***	0.43(0.11)***
tone_pos	1.35(0.5)**	1.14(0.5)**	1.84(0.5)***	1.21(0.54)**
tone_neg	-1.8(0.68)**	-1.76(0.67)**	-2.96(0.64)***	-1.79(0.7)**
emo_pos	0.24(0.25)	0.11(0.26)	0.19(0.25)	-0.08(0.26)
emo_neg	-1.74(0.99)*	-1.46(1.01)	-0.31(0.85)	-0.32(0.95)
(Scale)	1a	1a	1a	1a



variable	View count	Like count	Dislike count	Comment count
(Negative binomial)	1a	1a	1a	1a
AIC	5,948.66	4,334.73	3,040.40	3,270.78
BIC	6,004.03	4,390.11	3,095.69	3,326.15

Dependent Variable: view count, like count, dislike count, and comment count  
Model: (Intercept), Analytic, Clout, Authentic, Tone, I, we, you, shehe, they, adverb, verb, adj, tone\_pos, tone\_neg, emo\_pos, emo\_neg, offset = 1"

*Note:* For dummy variables, the results were compared with the baseline variables but are not reported in the table. Number of betas ( $\beta$ ), and standard errors are in parentheses. AIC= Akaike information criterion; BIC=Bayesian information criterion.

\* $p < .10$ . \*\* $p < .05$ . \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
(\log\lambda_{ij})\gamma_{ij} = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 (\text{analytical}_j) + \beta_2 (\text{clout}_j) + \beta_3 (\text{authentic}_j) \\
& + \beta_4 (\text{tone}_j) + \beta_5 (\text{ppronoun}_j) + \beta_6 (\text{adverb}_j) \\
& + \beta_7 (\text{adjective}_j) + \beta_8 (\text{verb}_j) + \beta_9 (\text{subscribercount}_j) + \epsilon_{ij}
\end{aligned}$$

where  $\log\lambda_{ij}$  is the rate of the negative binomial distribution process, and  $\epsilon_{ij}$  is the distributed error terms for dependent variables  $\gamma_{1j}$ ,  $\gamma_{2j}$ ,  $\gamma_{3j}$ ,  $\gamma_{4j}$

**View count.** The effect of analytic thinking in the language is significant and negative ( $\beta=-0.04$ ,  $p=0.02$ , exponentiated value =0.96). which shows that a more formal, argument-based, or logical language style reduced the view count. This result supports H1a.

The clout language style is significant and positive ( $\beta=0.05$ ,  $p=0.00$ , exponentiated value =1.05). It shows that if the language tends to be more

professional and the confidence increases the view count by 5%. This result supports H2a.

The effect of authentic language is significant and negative. It means that a more genuine language style decreases the view count by 2% ( $\beta=-0.02$ ,  $p=0.05$ , exponentiated value =0.98). It shows the opposite correlation, rejecting H3a.

The effect of positive tone increases the view count ( $\beta=1.35$ ,  $p=0.01$ , exponentiated value =3.85), whereas the negative tone( $\beta=-1.80$ ,  $p=0.00$ , exponentiated value =0.17) decreases the view count. This result supports H4a

The effects of personal pronoun “we” ( $\beta=-1.10$ ,  $p=0.00$ , exponentiated value =0.33), “you” ( $\beta=-0.70$ ,  $p=0.00$ , exponentiated value =0.53) and “they” ( $\beta=-0.61$ ,  $p=0.03$ , exponentiated value =0.54) are significant and negative on view count. However, the personal pronoun “I”, and “shehe”, are insignificant. This suggests that a more social-focused style is not appreciated, rejecting H5a

The effect of adverbs ( $\beta=-0.24$ ,  $p=0.04$ , exponentiated value =0.78) implies that the adverb used in the vlog decreases the view count by 12%, which rejects the H6a.

The effect of verbs is insignificant, rejecting the H7a.

The effect of adjectives is significant and positive ( $\beta=0.45$ ,  $p=0.00$ , exponentiated value =1.56). It implies that the adjective used in the vlog increases the view count by 56%, which supports the H8a.

In terms of emotional valence, the negative emotion has a significant negative correlation on view count ( $\beta=-1.74$ ,  $p=0.08$ , exponentiated value =0.18). However, positive emotion shows an insignificant influence on view count. H9a is partially supported.

**Like count.** The effect of analytic thinking on language is insignificant. Whether the language is more narrative or more logical, it does not affect the like count. This result rejects H1b.

The clout language style is significant and positive ( $\beta=0.04$ ,  $p=0.00$ , exponentiated value =1.05). It shows that if the language tends to be more professional and with confidence increases the like count by 5%. This result supports H2b.

The effect of authentic language is significant and negative. It means that a more genuine language style decreases the like count by 2% ( $\beta=-0.02$ ,  $p=0.06$ , exponentiated value =0.98). It shows the opposite correlation, rejecting H3b.

The effect of the positive tone increases the like count ( $\beta=1.14$ ,  $p=0.02$ , exponentiated value =3.11), whereas the negative tone ( $\beta=-1.76$ ,  $p=0.01$ , exponentiated value =0.17) decreases the like count. This result supports H4b.

The effects of personal pronoun “we” ( $\beta=-0.96$ ,  $p=0.00$ , exponentiated value =0.38), “you” ( $\beta=-0.53$ ,  $p=0.01$ , exponentiated value =0.59) and “they” ( $\beta=-0.53$ ,  $p=0.07$ , exponentiated value =0.59) are significant and negative on like count. However, the personal pronoun “I”, “shehe”, are insignificant. This suggests that a more social-focused style is not appreciated, rejecting H5b

The effect of adverb and verb is insignificant on like count, rejecting the H6b and H7b.

The effect of adjectives is significant and positive ( $\beta=0.34$ ,  $p=0.00$ , exponentiated value =1.40). It implies that the adjective used in the vlog increases the like count by 40%, which supports H8b.

In terms of emotional valence, the effect of neither *negative* nor *positive emotion* on like count is significant, rejecting H9b.

**Dislike count.** The effect of analytic thinking in the language is significant and negative ( $\beta=-0.04$ ,  $p=0.00$ , exponentiated value =0.96). which shows that a more formal, argument-based, or logical language style reduced the dislike count. This result rejects H1c.

The clout language style is significant and positive ( $\beta=0.04$ ,  $p=0.01$ , exponentiated value =1.04). It shows that if the language tends to be more professional and with confidence increases the dislike count by 4%. This result rejects H2c.

The effect of authentic language is significant and negative. It means that a more genuine language style decreases the dislike count by 2% ( $\beta=-0.02$ ,  $p=0.04$ , exponentiated value =0.98). It shows the opposite correlation, supporting H3c.

The effect of the positive tone increases the dislike count ( $\beta=1.84$ ,  $p=0.01$ , exponentiated value =6.29), whereas the negative tone( $\beta=-2.96$ ,  $p=0.00$ , exponentiated value =0.05) decreases the dislike count. This result rejects H4c

The effects of personal pronoun “we” ( $\beta=-1.03$ ,  $p=0.00$ , exponentiated value =0.36) , “you” ( $\beta=-0.61$ ,  $p=0.00$ , exponentiated value =0.54) and “they” ( $\beta=-0.71$ ,  $p=0.02$ , exponentiated value =0.49) are significant and negative on view count. However, the personal pronoun “I”, “shehe”, are insignificant. This suggests that a more social-focused style is not appreciated, supporting H5c

The effect of adverb ( $\beta=-0.29$ ,  $p=0.01$ , exponentiated value =0.75). It implies that adverbs used in the vlog decreases the view count by 25%, which supports the H6c.

The effect of verb is insignificant, rejecting the H7c.

The effect of adjectives is significant and positive ( $\beta=0.51$ ,  $p=0.00$ , exponentiated value =1.67). It implies that the adjective used in the vlog increases the view count by 67%, which rejects the H8c.

In terms of emotional valence, the effect of neither negative nor positive emotion is significant, rejecting H9c.

**Comment count.** The effect of analytic thinking in the language is significant and negative ( $\beta=-0.03$ ,  $p=0.07$ , exponentiated value =0.97). which shows that a more formal, argument-based, or logical language style reduced the comment count. This result supports H1d.

The clout language style is significant and positive ( $\beta=0.05$ ,  $p=0.00$ , exponentiated value =1.05). It shows that if the language tends to be more professional and confident, increases the comment count by 5%. This result supports H2d.

The effect of *authentic* language is insignificant and negative, rejecting H3d.

The effect of the positive tone increases the view count ( $\beta=1.21$ ,  $p=0.03$ , exponentiated value =3.35), whereas the negative tone( $\beta=-1.79$ ,  $p=0.01$ , exponentiated value =0.17) decreases the comment count. This result supports H4d

The effects of personal pronoun “we” ( $\beta=-0.93$ ,  $p=0.00$ , exponentiated value =0.40), “you” ( $\beta=-0.47$ ,  $p=0.02$ , exponentiated value =0.63) and “they” ( $\beta=-0.58$ ,  $p=0.06$ , exponentiated value =0.56) are significant and negative on

comment count. However, the personal pronoun “I”, “shehe”, are insignificant. This suggests that a more social-focused style is not appreciated, rejecting H5d

The effect of *adverbs, verbs, and adjectives* is insignificant on the comment rate which rejects the H6d, H7d, and H8d.

In terms of emotional valence, the effect of neither negative nor positive emotion on comment count is significant, rejecting H9d.

### **Summary and implication on narrative script stimuli choice.**

This preliminary study 2 demonstrates that not all proposed variables increase the number of views, likes, dislikes, and comments in the same way. As suggested by the dual processing model, this study demonstrates that different linguistic styles elicit distinct information processing routes. For instance, analytic thinking measures the language's narrative quality. It demonstrates that narratives are more engaging to the audience, as measured by the number of views, likes, and comments. The analysis results contribute to the understanding and application of the dual processing model in the context of food travel vlogs. This also provides guidelines for the choice of stimulus, which should be a narrative-based vlog script as opposed to a logical argument.

Secondly, the positive effect of clout language on view count, like count and comment count also expands the knowledge of the credibility of influencers in terms of their language influence. This also enables the researcher to select a stimulus that projects higher confidence and professionalism.

Thirdly, the level of authenticity not only implies the non-deceptive nature of the language but also refers to whether the conversation is spontaneous (LIWC,

2022). However, the negative effect of authentic language on view count, like count, and comment count implies that audiences may prefer a staged “show” with prepared scripts to a spontaneous conversation between close friends. This finding coincides with the extant literature about tourism primarily selling a “staged “experience (Sternberg, 1997). Tourists are not seeking real authenticity, instead, they are seeking “staged authenticity” (MacCannell, 1973), which is the semblances of the authentic experience they seek. This phenomenon is witnessed in the food travel vlog context where audiences are already looking for a staged authentic experience presented by food travel vloggers prior to travelling. This extends the knowledge in experiential marketing at the pre-travel stage by using online user-generated storytelling in creating a “staged-authentic” experience.

Fourthly, the effect of tone and the sentiment of the scripts positively influences the view count, like count, and comment count. This is in accordance with Duncan, Chohan, and Ferreira (2019), who acknowledge the positive effect of a higher tone in brand reviews. This also guides the stimulus choice by suggesting choosing a more uplifting tone.

Fifthly, the effect of social pronouns shares the same negative effect as previous studies such as Aleti, Pallant, Tuan, and Van Laer (2019), that food travel vlogs with an externally focused style are less likely to be liked, which is different from the finding of Munaro et al. (2021).

Table 4.8 Summary of supported hypotheses

Hypotheses	a) View count		b) Like count		c) Dislike count		d) Comment count	
	Support	Relationship	Support	Relationship	Support	Relationship	Support	Relationship
H1: analytic	Yes	(-)	No	X	No	(-)	Yes	(-)
H2: clout	Yes	(+)	Yes	(+)	No	(+)	Yes	(+)
H3: authentic	No	(-)	No	(-)	Yes	(-)	No	X
H4: Tone	Yes	(+)	Yes	(+)	No	(+)	Yes	(+)
H5: pronoun	No	(-)	No	(-)	Yes	(-)	No	(-)
H6: adverb	No	(-)	No	X	Yes	(-)	No	X
H7: verb	No	X	No	X	No	X	No	X
H8: adjective	Yes	(+)	Yes	(+)	No	(+)	No	X
H9: emotion	Partially Yes	(+)	No	X	No	X	No	X

Note: X=insignificant

Sixthly, the impact of adjectives is strongly correlated with the number of views, likes, and comments. This is consistent with research on sensory descriptors that promote sensory mental imagery and sensory emotion in food (Winter, 2016). This result directs the researcher to emphasise the sensory adjectives in the selection of stimulus.

Finally, the tone which emphasises the sentiment of the scripts appears to be more predictive than emotional valence. Another emphasis should be placed on the consideration of positive language in the food trip vlog stimulus.



#### **4.5.5 The final choice of the stimulus**

With the suggestions from the preliminary study, narrativity, adjectives and tone sentiment are the key to audience engagement. Meanwhile, with acknowledgement of the importance of the extant literature in Chapter two, the chosen stimulus script is selected from a real YouTube food travel vlog which contains 1) rich sensory adjectives in five sensory modalities; 2) metaphors that related to the five senses; 3) rich positive language that contains positive sentiment; 4) a story of food travel experience on Japanese ramen dish; 5) preferably with spatial image descriptions. Please refer to the appendix: questionnaire for the detailed stimulus.

#### **4.6 Preliminary study 3 – thematic analysis on the audience comments**

To consolidate the constructs from the literature, a thematic analysis on audience comments is conducted by using Leximancer and the same data analysis process is followed as preliminary study 1. 518,458 audience comments from 192 vlogs are extracted by using a python-based webpage, [exportcomments.com](http://exportcomments.com)

##### **4.6.1 Leximancer thematic analysis**

To present the major themes clearly and straightforwardly, a Fig 4.9 descriptions theme mapping with a threshold of 60% theme size, is presented below to illustrate the main theme concept map that explores the underlying themes of the comments. The five themes are the most influential aspects of the food vlog comments. Table 4.9 shows the themes and associated concepts. In the Leximancer output, the smaller grey nodes are the concepts grouped with different

rainbow-coloured themes. the themes are colour-coded in a heat-map manner to show their relative importance. The Hits show the number of text blocks in this project associated with the main themes (Biroscak et al., 2017). The warm colours are more heat topic The most critical theme food & drink in this research is assigned the colour red based on the frequency (Hits) of the concepts that occur, and then in descending order of importance, the remaining themes are identified by dark green, light green and blue. Sixty-one concepts were identified by Leximancer. The more concepts placed within a theme, the richer the meaning the theme expresses.

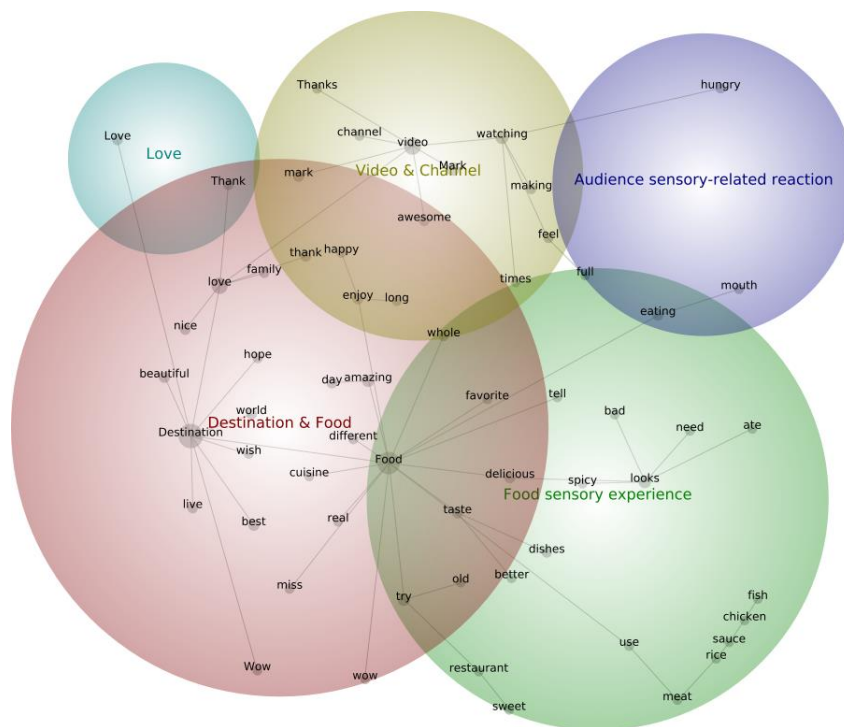


Figure 4.9 Theme mapping on audience comments

An initial interpretation of Figure 4.9 suggests that main aspects including *destination and food* (227,726 hits), *video and channel* (114101 hits), *food sensory*

*experience* (89,842 hits), *love* (20,362 hits) and *audience sensory-related reaction* (13,417 hits).

Table 4.9 Themes and concepts in audience comments

Theme	Concepts
Destination and food	Destination, Food, love, amazing, try, best, enjoy, beautiful, world, nice, day, live, hope, different, family, miss, wish, Wow, real, wow, cuisine
Video and channel	video, Mark, watching, mark, thank, awesome, feel, channel, happy, Thanks, making, whole, long, times
Food sensory experience	looks, eating, delicious, taste, dishes, need, use, better, spicy, favourite, bad, tell, ate, meat, restaurant, chicken, fish, rice, sweet, old, sauce
Love	Love, Thank
Audience sensory-related reaction	hungry, mouth, full

### “Destination & Food” is the most important theme

*Destination & Food* is the most important theme in the comments. Key concepts include *destination* (count 102,376, relevance 100%), *food* (count 78598, 77%), *vlogger names* (count 25, 387, relevance 25%), *love* (13,488, relevance 13%), *thanks* (12, 289 12%).

Table 4.10 Top 15 concepts related to destination

Key concept	Related Concept	Count	Likelihood (%)
Destination	beautiful	5843	58
	world	4365	52
	different	2323	52
	hope	2422	45
	cuisine	914	43
	wish	1803	41
	thank	3280	40
	live	2680	39
	enjoy	3416	37

Key concept	Related Concept	Count	Likelihood (%)
	amazing	4962	37
	food	27984	36
	real	1119	36
	love	15509	36
	happy	1555	35
	family	1485	34

Table 4.10 lists the top 15 concepts that are most likely to appear with *destination*, including word-like concepts such as *beautiful* (co-count: 5843, likelihood 58%), *world* (co-count: 4365, likelihood 52%), *different* (co-count: 2323, likelihood 53%) *hope* (co-count: 2422, likelihood 45%) and *cuisine* (co-count: 914, likelihood 43%).

The concept, *beautiful*, is mostly used for describing the visual aesthetics of the destination or the vlog trip, along with pleasant amazement. Some of the comments also express strong visit intention. It is an appreciation (reaction-quality) (Martin & White, 2003) on vlog presented destination scenery, culture, people and food. For example, “The Tibetan culture has so much beauty within, the vibrant colours and well-crafted items are just mind-blowing, to me. Must say, this was a beautiful tour!” “This city was so unique and special! Such a beautiful and also very interesting place! I have to include it in my top next goals!”. “Beautiful... the place I really want to visit...” These comments validate that visit intention is a potential consequence of sensory stimuli, and the vlogger’s positive tone across the narration positively influences the audience’s attitude.

The concept of different reflects how audiences respect and embrace different cultures presented in vlogs. It demonstrated a certain level of narrative transportation by fully absorbed in a different travel story. “It’s crazy how cultures

are so different ♥”, “Respectful to different cultures will give you access to their treasures!”, “Very informative. Got a glimpse of a totally different culture.” It also indicates that audiences appreciate the authenticity or local features presented in vlogs. “Total different from Hong Kong Island. Super local and interesting.”

*Table 4.11 Key concept- “Real” and its related concepts*

Key concept	Related Concept	Count	Likelihood (%)
Real	taste	214	2%
	world	181	2%
	tell	51	2%
	whole	40	2%
	cuisine	32	1%

The concept *real*, as illustrated in table 4.11, can be interpreted as “authentic” and also shows a great importance in food perception. For example, “Thank you very much Mark for showing the real Peruvian street food”, and “This is the real food of México, I would like to try”. “That's real Filipino food. I am so intrigued.” This reflects the quest for authenticity from the audience, which is also supported by literature that tourists’ quest for a staged authenticity that can’t be found in their daily life (MacCannell, 2008, 2013). This can be conceptualised as two behavioural intention constructs in the food travel context, food involvement and intention to taste which have been identified in the literature.

*Video & Channel* is the second theme. Most of the comments focus on expressing appreciation of the vlog or the food tour presented, the “transported” feeling during watching and the affect towards the vlog content or vloggers. This being transported feeling is explained in literature (Green & Brock, 2000). “feel

hungry” and “mouth-watering” are frequently mentioned under the concept of *full* and *mouth*. This bodily response, the salivary flow is enhanced by vivid mental imagery processing (Spence, 2011). It can be also interpreted as an intention to taste (Moore & Konrath, 2015) or a food craving (Tiggemann & Kemps, 2005) depending on the situational factors such as lockdown captivity (Irimiás & Zoltán Mitev, 2021)

Table 4.12 Key concept- “watching” and its related concepts

Key concept	Related Concept	Count	Likelihood (%)
watching	hungry	1667	22%
	times	311	16%
	video	7615	16%
	feel	777	15%
	enjoy	1320	14%
	channel	708	14%
	eating	1267	10%
	full	195	10%
	mouth	430	10%
	long	204	9%
	whole	231	9%
	making	234	9%
	happy	380	8%
	thank	565	7%
	love	2758	6%

Shown in table 4.12, The key concept *watching* reflects that audiences appreciate the vlog, express their positive affect towards the storytelling, and further indicate a positive attitude toward destination food and intention to taste. Examples are “Thanks for your content. It is awesome!!!!”, “Thanks for making us all smile and please stay safe in these troubling times!”, “Thanks so much for this! Looks awesome! I really want to try!!”, “You make everything look sooooo delicious in every video I always get hungry watching them” “wow... awesome

show.... I would love to taste some of that”, and “Thanks for putting on this channel. I feel like I get to travel (and eat) through you.”

*Table 4.13 The key concept- “looks” and related concepts*

Concept	Related Concept	Related Kind	Count	Likelihood Percent
looks	delicious	WORD	2752	32
looks	amazing	WORD	2174	16
looks	awesome	WORD	604	10
looks	dishes	WORD	583	9
looks	fish	WORD	238	9
looks	rice	WORD	202	8
looks	chicken	WORD	234	8
looks	mouth	WORD	334	8
looks	wow	WORD	310	8
looks	restaurant	WORD	214	8
looks	spicy	WORD	212	8
looks	happy	WORD	341	8
looks	nice	WORD	737	7
looks	better	WORD	256	7
looks	beautiful	WORD	706	7

Table 4.13 shows the key concept, “looks” which indicates that audiences can imagine a new food taste based on the food travel vlog audio-visual stimuli. For example, “The taste seems sweet and creamy for me.” “He makes all the food look delicious!” “Really amazing country and delicious food, I can imagine the taste” “that look salty and good but I feel like is weird tasting it”, and “ Wow! The looks amazing and delicious food”. These imagined tastes are also loaded with story-consistent emotions.

The mental imagery-induced behavioural consequences include bodily response(salivation), behavioural involvement with food (e.g., seek for more information or watching more videos) intention to taste (food craving), visit intention and instant hedonic escapism. For instance, “I want to go and taste it”,

“The Banana Leaf feast looked absolutely amazing, my mouth was watering”.  
“Tulum indeed looks really beautiful, and that lunch made me so hungry and craving tasty Ceviche”. “I can watch this whole day! This is what I needed in this lockdown” “In a way, this reminds me of Mexican food the sauce looks like our traditional red salsa and we eat with tortillas but an amazing video I hope one day I too will be able to eat this it looks tasty”

From the comments, not only do people watch some completely new food and flavour profiles, but they also choose to watch the food that they are familiar with, memorable or related to their food origin. Familiarity casts an important role in food taste imagery. It is doubtless that the processing effort is a lot less if processing some familiar flavour as the sensory experience has already been stored in their working memory (Barsalou, 1999). Audio-visual cues can easily recall the sensory experience, allow them to reminisce flavours and enhance the re-visit intention. This finding of mental imagery effect on attitude coincides with Niedenthal et al. (2005). For example, “Just fantastic. The Shawarma sandwich reminded me of Dubai, meat, and chicken I ate in an Afghan restaurant and biryani.”, “The faluda from bombay sweet had never changed. The taste is carved into my taste buds.”, and “Omg, rigag, chips oman and spreadable cheese just show what my childhood go to dinner/ lunch it is so good, and sometimes for breakfast, we don’t have rigag, so we just use Lebanese flatbread, we add fish sauce, olive oil and spreadable cheese, man I’m just getting back memories just watching this video, and I still do it now!”

The concept, *dishes*, entails food names, destination names and cultural-related topics. It is widely seen that para-social interaction between audiences and



vloggers on cultural and food idea exchanging. This is also evident in influencer marketing research where audience comments moderate the brand credibility and purchase intention (Reinikainen, Munnukka, Maity, & Luoma-Aho, 2020; Sokolova & Kefi, 2020). For example, “Vietnam is a country that eats fish sauce on most of their dish. so, if you order a dish and they gave you fish sauce. you should know that it should be eaten together with it. the banh tam bi noodle that you order with coconut milk. am glad you figure it out at the end that you should have added to your banh tam be at the beginning before you eat it.”

*Love* is the fourth theme with 20,362 hits. Audiences express their love and affection in four ways including the food affect, the destination affect, the affect towards the vloggers and the affect towards the online food sensory experience. For example, audiences express their food affection with praise or straightforward love. “OMG, I love these foods so much.” “Vietnam is a go-to place for any foodie out there that loves Asian food.” “Man, you are killing me with that seafood plate. I love it.” The expressions tend to be focused on a specific type of food or a particular ethnic cuisine. When expressing their affection towards the destination, audiences not only mention their positive attitude toward the destination but also express the intention of further visits and the desire for more information on the destination. Audiences even treat the vlog as a credible information source for trip planning. For instance, “I love Peru and I so want to go there soon! Totally taking note of everything here!” “I’m loving Peru right now! more more!” “I love Barcelona. Are you going to Santiago de Compostela?” Meanwhile, audiences are very engaged with the story development, and are

hooked by the food sensory experience “I love the awkward atmosphere that sonny creates”. This also validates the construct of narrative transportation, being hooked.

Table 4.14 The key concept-“love” and sub-categories

Concept	Sub-category	examples
Love	Food affect	I love seafood
	Destination affect	“I love Peru and I so want to go there soon! Totally taking note on everything here!” I'm loving Peru right now! more more more! I love Barcelona. Are you going Santiago de Compostela?
	Affect on vlogger	“Omg he is hilarious. I love him” You're my handsome man. I love you sonny”; Mark well explained love ♥ ur vlog keeps rocking Mark love how you respect others' cultures. TRAVEL FOR LIFE Thanks for being such an inspired foodie, we love you! I am such a fan I would love to go with you on one of your trips
	Affect towards the vlog story	“I love the awkward atmosphere that sonny creates” I love the way you present the cultural foods of each country. I know you have to be expressive facially to describe the food but pulling those eyes like Phil Rosenthal, is quite catchy
	Affect on sensory experience from the vlogs	Mmmmm love the smell of that stew beef yummy

The bodily reactions such as hungry, food cravings, and mouth-watering feelings are widely seen in the *Audience sensory related reactions*. “Thanks, feel sooo hungry now, just by watching!”, “That calamansi and sili make me hungry Mark, my mouth spills a lot of water, #Mouthwatering”. Audiences also express their affection and appreciation on the channel, vlogger and vlog, some

indicate strong visit intention induced by vloggers. “You are the best I love your channel all food looks so good and the quality of your video is amazing can’t wait to go to *Korea* and try all that food every time I watch your video makes me hungry and want to eat what you eat thank you for opening my eyes in every country you go”, “You know when I'm alone eating dinner or lunch all I have to do just watch you the way you eat all this food make it so delicious literally my mouth drools and my stomach growls I love the way you tasting all this delicious food it's amazing I watch a lot of other people but you are the one of the best percent when you eat and the way you explaining it makes me want to eat and eat *Non-Stop* and it's so nice that you're going all over the world and showing everybody else's tradition.”

In addition, Pandemic travel restrictions enhance audiences travel craving. For example “This makes me miss my Vietnam so badly.... COVID!!!!!! I will definitely go to Ho Chi Minh City first.”

#### 4.6.2 Implications for the main survey

This preliminary study 3 plays an important role in verifying latent variables proposed in the conceptual model. The findings are fivefold:

Firstly, it is important to bear in mind the potential influence of familiarity, pre-attitude is pre-determined. In other words, those who are interested in watching these food travel vlogs and fancy interacting with the vloggers are who are open to the specific type of food, they are naturally interested in the topic, curious familiar, pre-attitude positive or natural. In addition, it needs a lot less effort to imagine familiar food. In the survey setting, audiences would not have

the chance to opt out if they don't like or are unfamiliar with Japanese food. Therefore, it is important to examine the moderating effect of pre-attitude and familiarity in inducing mental imagery and its consequences.

Secondly, if convert to script-based stimuli research, due to the modality differences, the strength of stimuli will be weaker, and the cognitive load will be heavier. The emotion from vloggers' facial expressions will be lost, which will increase the difficulty in empathising with vloggers' emotions. However, the good side would be the whole affective and behavioural consequences will be purely induced by sensory words and positive tone.

Thirdly, the findings do suggest that the mental imagery processing effect exists and affect audiences' attitude and behavioural intention. However, when turning into a script-based questionnaire, the mental imagery effect will be affected by the audience's imagination ability in the narrative context, the transportation ability, and their style of information processing.

Fourthly, the time difference should also be taken into consideration when claiming the pandemic influence significantly affect audiences' travel craving. The comments are extracted in August 2021 when the lockdown restriction is just lifted, and the tourism industry has not started recovery. Yet the survey is conducted in June 2022 when some of the audiences started travelling and the external restrictions are not a prominent factor in their travel craving.

The findings from this qualitative thematic analysis are all identified in the literature including the mental imagery-induced perceived taste, attitude change, behavioural involvement with food, intention to taste and visit intention. These constructs are empirically tested and ready for further questionnaire design.

However, the expected result is that mental imagery quantity, quality, modality, and valence may decrease due to the change of modality, the mental imagery stimulus switched from a multimodal audio-visual food travel vlog to a uni-modal sensory-rich positive narrative script. The facial expression of vloggers, the food presentation and the dining environment won't be seen by the audiences.

Therefore, in the questionnaire, the selected stimuli script should include the wordings describing the dining environment and some imaginable facial expression descriptions.

#### **4.7 Summary**

Chapter 5 includes three preliminary studies that provide an empirical foundation for the further main survey study. These netnographic studies adopt modern methods to extract large volumes of qualitative data and thematic analysis are conducted in both script and audience comments. Preliminary study 1 validates the information type of food travel vlogs as the main narrative and the mental imagery processing approach will be adopted for the survey. Preliminary study 2 applies the generalised linear regression to identify the linguistic features in popular, high social media engagement vlogs which guide the stimuli script choice. The extracted themes of audiences' comments from preliminary study 3 validate the proposed latent variables from the literature and guide moderating effects of pre-attitude, familiarity, and travel craving.

## **Chapter 5: Data analysis**

### **5.1 Introduction**

The data analysis from the primary survey is reported in Chapter 5. Section 5.2 covers descriptive statistics of the respondents' demographic data, exploratory analyses of the participants' information processing style, transportation ability, food neophobia, and destination-related features. The results of the examination of the measurement model and structural model in the context of food travel vlogs are presented in Section 5.3. It contains the mean scores, standard deviation, scale reliability and validity, skewness and kurtosis scores of the measurement items, the bootstrap technique for the non-normal multivariate distribution, testing of the research model's hypotheses, and moderation and mediation effects in the proposed model. Section 5.4 offers a summary of the outcomes of the data analysis.

### **5.2 Summary of respondents and statistical analysis**

#### **5.2.1 Frequencies of demographical statics**

Table 5.1 provides a summary of the demographic statistics of the respondents. 355 respondents, including 188 males (53.3%) and 167 females (47.0%), participated in this study. Respondents aged "25-34 years old" have the highest response rate, accounting for 43.4% of the total population, followed by respondents aged "35-44 years old" (29.0%) and respondents aged "45-54 years old" (11.8%). The other two groups, including the "18-24 years old" group (7.3%) and the "55-65 years old" group (8.5%), account for the remaining percentage

(8.5%). 43.1% of the respondents are from North American cuisine origins (24.8%), followed by South American cuisine origins (24.8%), Asian Cuisine (14.1%), European Cuisine (12.4%), African Cuisine (3.7%), and Other Cuisines (2.0%). In terms of education level, the majority of the respondents have received a bachelor's or above education, including a bachelor's degree (63.7%) and a master's or doctorate (19.2%). 10.1% of the respondents are college or associate-degree educated. 7.0% of the total is at a high school or less.

Table 5.1 Frequency of age, gender, food origin, and education level

Demographic statistics	Label	Frequency (N)	Valid Percentage (%)
Age	18-24	26	7.3
	25-34	154	43.4
	35-44	103	29.0
	45-54	42	11.8
	55-65	30	8.5
Gender	Male	188	53.0
	Female	167	47.0
Food origin	African Cuisine	13	3.7
	North American Cuisine	153	43.1
	South American Cuisine	88	24.8
	Asian Cuisine	50	14.1
	European Cuisine	44	12.4
	Other	7	2.0

Demographic	Label	Frequency (N)	Valid Percentage (%)
Education level	Highschool or below	25	7.0
	College or Associate degree	36	10.1
	Bachelor's degree	226	63.7
	Master's or Doctorate	68	19.2

*Note.* N = 355

### 5.2.2 Frequencies of information processing-related factors and food travel-related factors

This sub-section presents the results of the exploratory data analysis related to information processing and narrative transportation ability.

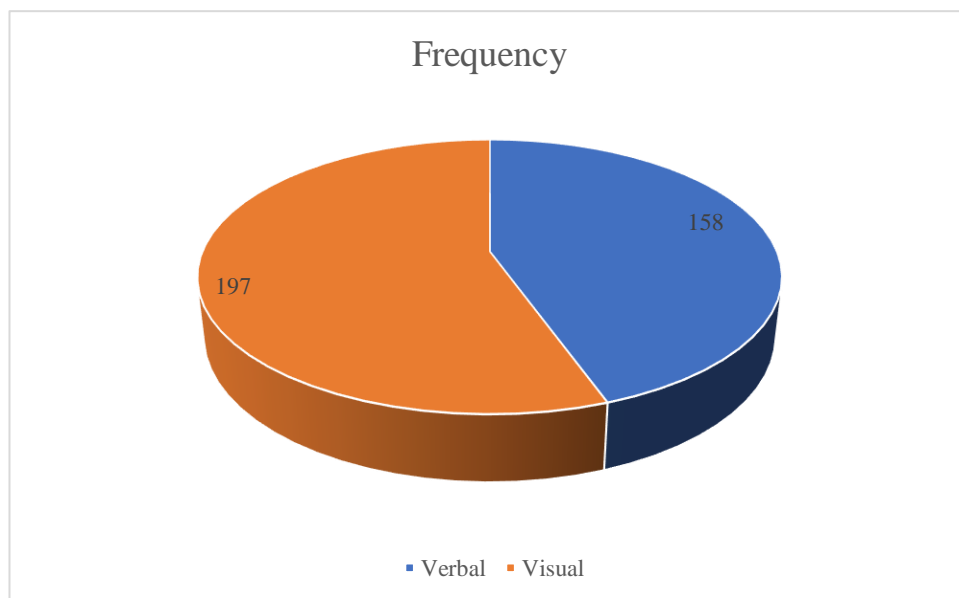


Figure 5.1 *Frequency of the style of processing*



Figure 5.1 displays the number and proportion of visual (197; 55.5%) and verbal (158; 44.5%) respondents based on the style of information processing scale. Table 5.2 illustrates the frequency of transportation ability of the respondents. The findings indicate that 69% of the respondents agree that they can visualise themselves in the narratively described scene of events. About half of the respondents agree that they can mentally engage with narratives while reading, are curious about the conclusion, and can be emotionally influenced by the narratives.

Table 5.2 Frequency of transportation ability

Transportation ability	Not at all- very much	Frequency (N)	Valid Percent (%)	Cumulative Percentage (%)
6a: I could picture myself in the scene of the events described in the narrative.	1	10	2.8	2.8
	2	16	4.5	7.3
	3	21	5.9	13.2
	4	63	17.7	31.0
	5	95	26.8	57.7
	6	94	26.5	84.2
	7	56	15.8	100.0
6b: I was mentally involved in the narrative while reading it.	1	10	2.8	2.8
	2	9	2.5	5.4
	3	23	6.5	11.8
	4	47	13.2	25.1
	5	94	26.5	51.5
	6	104	29.3	80.8

Transportation ability	Not at all- very much	Frequency (N)	Valid Percent (%)	Cumulative Percentage (%)
	7	68	19.2	100.0
6c: I wanted to learn how the narrative ended.	1	10	2.8	2.8
	2	9	2.5	5.4
	3	19	5.4	10.7
	4	39	11.0	21.7
	5	95	26.8	48.5
	6	115	32.4	80.8
	7	68	19.2	100.0
6d: The narrative affected me emotionally.	1	8	2.3	2.3
	2	12	3.4	5.6
	3	23	6.5	12.1
	4	51	14.4	26.5
	5	87	24.5	51.0
	6	97	27.3	78.3
	7	77	21.7	100.0

*Note.* N=355

In terms of food neophobia in figure 5.2, 69.6% of respondents tend to have higher scores than the mean (Mean=28, Standard Deviation =7.275), indicating that the majority tend to be less adventurous and more conservative when it comes to eating new foods.

Note. FNS Final = final score of food neophobia scale

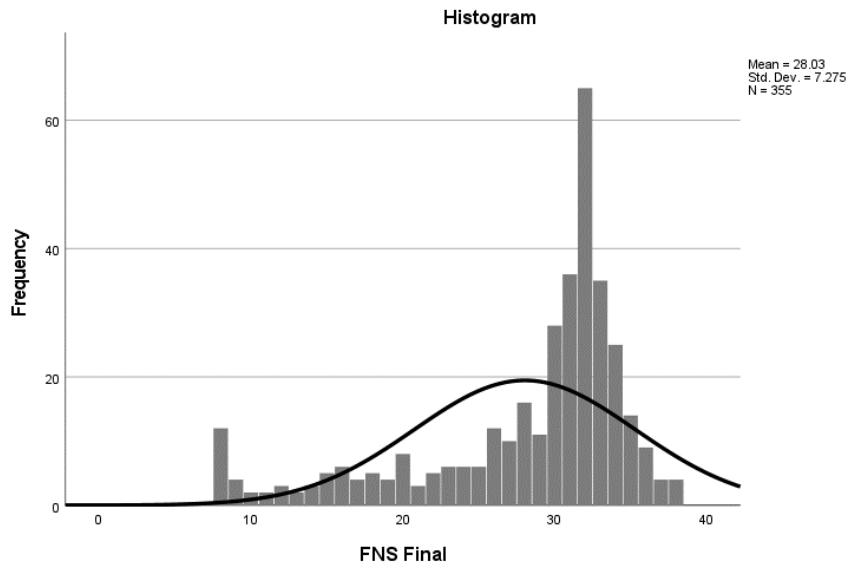


Figure 5.2 *Frequency of food neophobia score*

Table 5.3 displays the respondents' food travel planning types. Before travelling, 85.9% of respondents like to research food-related activities. 45.4 % consider food-related activities to be a deciding factor when selecting destinations.

Table 5.3 Frequency of Food Travel Planning Type

Food Travel Planning Type	Frequency (N)	Valid Percent (%)	Cumulative Percentage (%)
1. The availability of food-related activities was a factor in choosing between potential destinations	161	45.4	45.4
2. I researched food-related activities prior to travel, but they were not a factor in choosing between destinations	144	40.6	85.9
3. I did not research activities prior to travel, but participated after arriving simply because they were available	42	11.8	97.7
4. I have never participated in any food-related activities	8	2.3	100.0

According to table 5.4, the majority of respondents are receptive to new cultures, customs, and cuisines when travelling for novelty-seeking purposes. While travelling, 52.4% of respondents wish to discover diverse customs and cultures. 62.7% are interested in trying new and different foods. 91.8 % of the population desires a change of scenery and fresh experiences in general.

Table 5.4 Frequency of novel-seeking motivation

Statement	Disagree- Agree	Frequency (N=355)	Valid Percent (%)	Cumulative Percentage (%)
9a: I want to experience customs, and cultures different from those in my own environment when travelling	Strongly disagree	0	.0	.0
	Disagree	2	.6	.6
	Somewhat disagree	12	3.4	3.9
	Neither agree nor disagree	30	8.5	12.4
	Somewhat agree	125	35.2	47.6
	Agree	112	31.5	79.2
	Strongly agree	74	20.8	100.0
9b: I want to experience new and different food when travelling	Strongly disagree	0	.0	.0
	Disagree	2	.6	.6
	Somewhat disagree	6	1.7	2.3
	Neither agree nor disagree	29	8.2	10.4
	Somewhat agree	92	25.9	36.3

Statement	Disagree- Agree	Frequency (N=355)	Valid Percent (%)	Cumulative Percentage (%)
	agree			
	Agree	136	38.3	74.6
	Strongly agree	90	25.4	100.0
9c: I enjoy the change of environment which allows me to experience something new	Strongly disagree	1	.3	.3
	Disagree	3	.8	1.1
	Somewhat disagree	3	.8	2.0
	Neither agree nor disagree	22	6.2	8.2
	Somewhat agree	78	22.0	30.1
	Agree	139	39.2	69.3
	Strongly agree	109	30.7	100.0

*Note.* N=355

### 5.2.3 Frequencies of Japan-related characteristics

Figure 5.3 displays the frequency of pre-attitude toward Japan. 13.2% of respondents indicated no interest in Japan. The majority of respondents are

intrigued by Japan in many ways. 30.70% had not visited Japan but hoped to do so in the future. 23.2% identify Japan as a place they have never visited but have fantasised about visiting. 16,90% of respondents believe that Japan is a place they will never personally visit yet are fascinated by. 12.70% of respondents regard Japan as a viable travel destination for their next vacation and are seeking ideas.

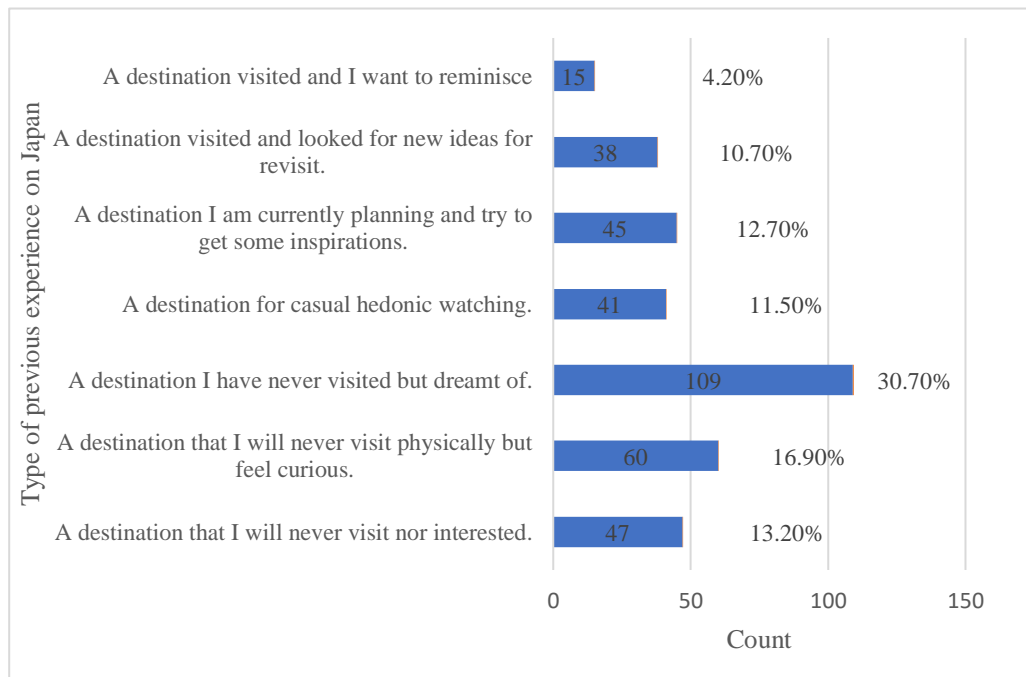


Figure 5.3 Frequency of previous experience on Japan

Another 11.50 % of respondents think Japan is a good place to go for hedonistic viewing. Around 15% of the participants have been to Japan, with 10.70% preferring to return and reminisce (4.20%).

Table 5.5 displays the frequency of familiarity with Japan and Japanese cuisine on a 7-point Likert scale. Up to 70% of respondents concur that they are acquainted with Japan as a food destination. 60% routinely consume Japanese cuisine, and up to 60% were familiar with Japanese cuisine as children.

Table 5.5 *Frequency of familiarity with Japan*

	Disagree- Agree	Frequency (N)	Valid Percent (%)	Cumulative Percentage (%)
11 a: I am very familiar with this food destination	Strongly disagree	4	1.1	1.1
	Disagree	17	4.8	5.9
	Somewhat disagree	33	9.3	15.2
	Neither agree nor disagree	50	14.1	29.3
	Somewhat agree	99	27.9	57.2
	Agree	117	33.0	90.1
	Strongly agree	35	9.9	100.0
11b. Japanese food is what I usually eat	Strongly disagree	22	6.2	6.2
	Disagree	25	7.0	13.2
	Somewhat disagree	32	9.0	22.3
	Neither agree nor disagree	63	17.7	40.0
	Somewhat	89	25.1	65.1



	Disagree- Agree	Frequency (N)	Valid Percent (%)	Cumulative Percentage (%)
	agree			
	Agree	86	24.2	89.3
	Strongly agree	38	10.7	100.0
11c. Japanese food is like the food I ate when I was a child	Strongly disagree	42	11.8	11.8
	Disagree	35	9.9	21.7
	Somewhat disagree	31	8.7	30.4
	Neither agree nor disagree	48	13.5	43.9
	Somewhat agree	76	21.4	65.4
	Agree	95	26.8	92.1
	Strongly agree	28	7.9	100.0

*Note.* N= 355

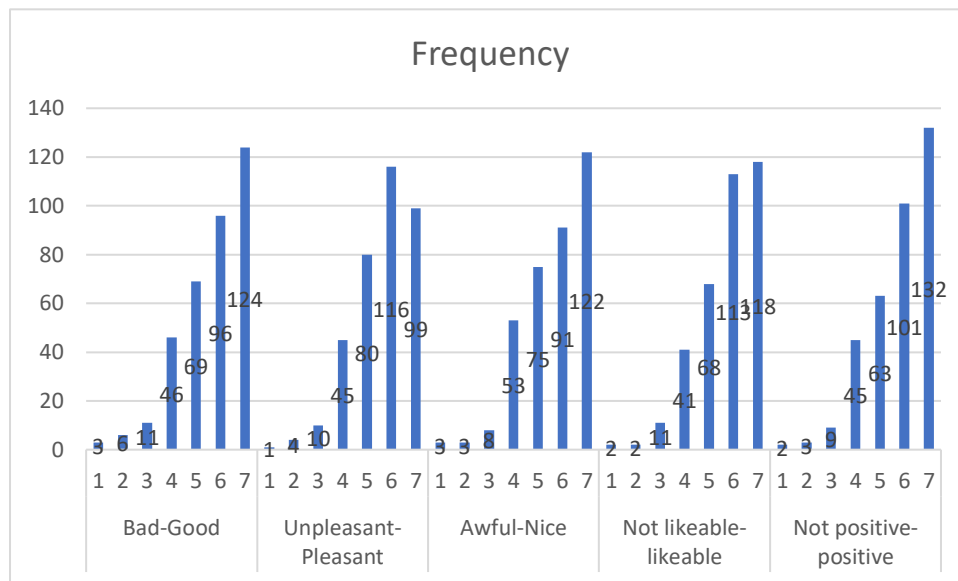


Figure 5.4 Frequency of pre-attitude to Japan

The pre-attitude of respondents toward Japanese cuisine is depicted in Figure 5.4. The majority of respondents view Japanese cuisine as good, pleasant, nice, likeable, and favourable.

#### 5.2.4 Frequency of pandemic-related characters

Figures from figure 5.5 to 5.7 illustrate the percentage of captivity that respondents perceive. As can see in figure 6.5, most of the respondents feel trapped. 15.8% feel very much trapped and 30.1% feel moderately trapped. In figure 6.6 and figure 6.7, over 70% of the respondents wish to run away, and 74.4% wish to break out of the lockdown situation. These findings suggest that even if the questionnaire was conducted after the lockdown, respondents can still remember clearly how captive they felt during the lockdown time and the overall intensity of captivity is high.

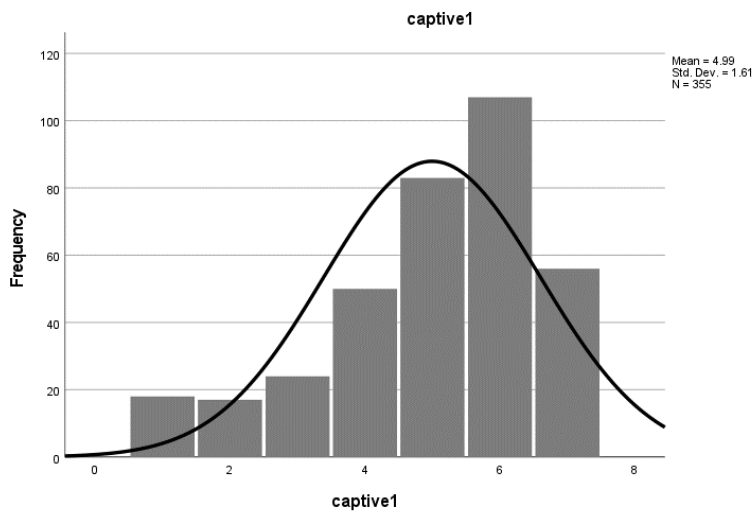


Figure 5.5 *Frequency of captive 1*

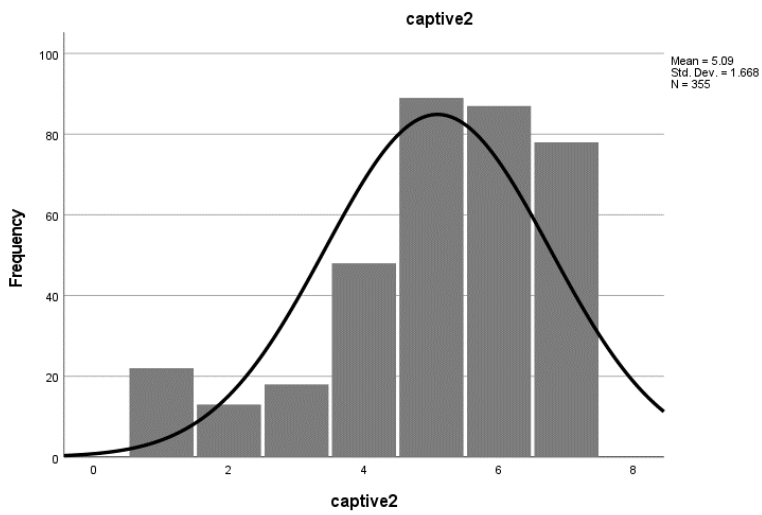


Figure 5.6 *Frequency of captive 2*

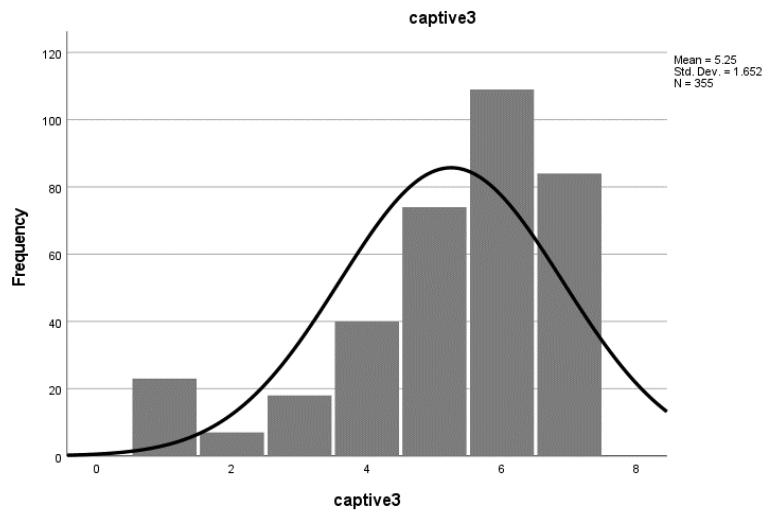


Figure 5.7 Frequency of captive 3

Figure 5.8-5.10 show the travel craving behaviour during lockdown time. In figure 6.8, 75.5% of respondents think about travel regularly. Among them, 18% of the respondents think about travel all the time. Nearly 80% of the respondents report that at the most severe point, they crave to travel to different extents. 17.5% of them crave travel extremely. In the overall craving category reflected in figure 6.10, nearly 80% of respondents describe themselves do crave travel. These findings suggest that respondents do feel captive and crave travel during lockdown time extensively.

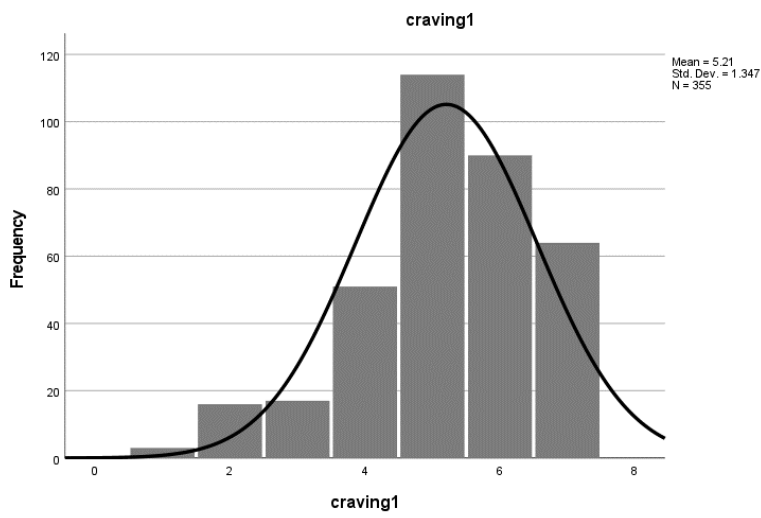


Figure 5.9 Frequency of craving 1

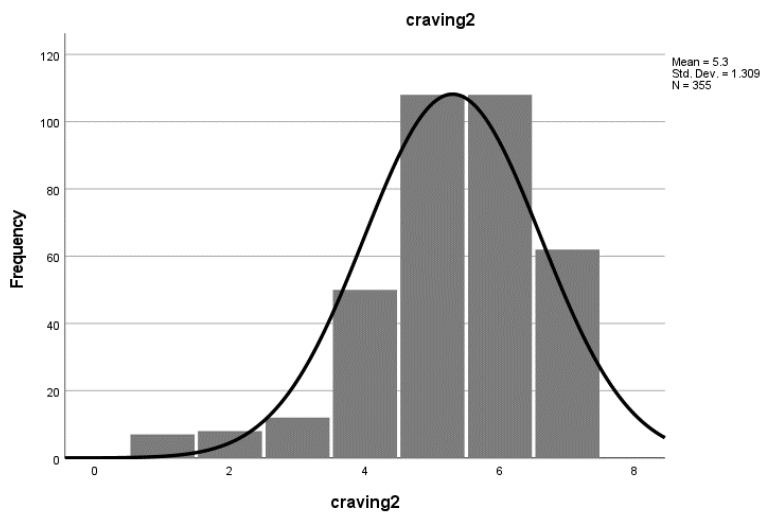
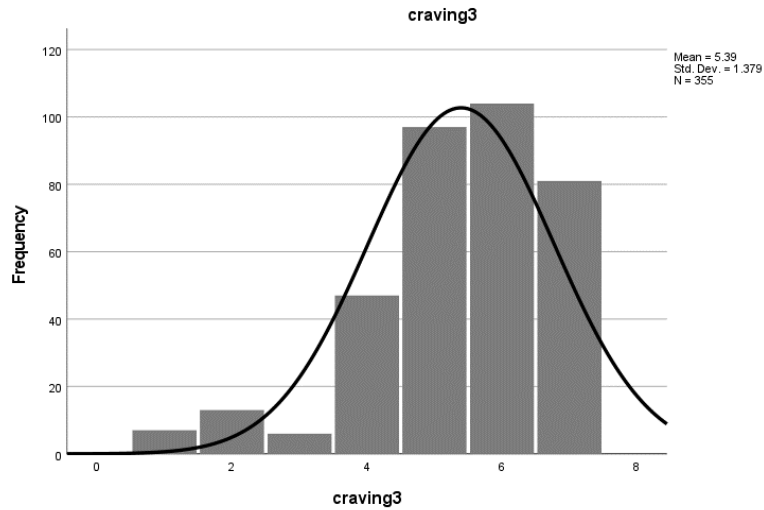


Figure 5.8 Frequency of craving 2



*Figure 5.10 Frequency of craving 3*

### **5.3 Research framework and hypotheses testing in structural equation modelling**

For testing hypotheses, the study employs three distinct phases of analysis. Prior to doing SEM testing, the normality of the data, and the reliability and validity of the constructs are examined. Second, the structural model's causal relationships among imagery, attitude, narrative engagement, and behavioural intentions are evaluated. Finally, the hypotheses regarding the moderating effect in mental imagery processing and situational factors moderating visit intention are examined.

### 5.3.1 The measurement model

Maximum likelihood (ML) is utilised as the estimation approach in this investigation. ML is a method for producing consistent parameter estimates that "most likely" explain the observed data.

Maximum likelihood is the statistical principle underlying the derivation of parameter estimates; the estimates are those that maximise the likelihood (continuous generalisation) that the data (observed covariances) were drawn from this population. It is a normal theory method because multivariate normality is assumed for the endogenous variable population distributions. Normal distributions are unique to continuous variables. A lack of multivariate normality will result in inflated chi-square statistics, which will increase the likelihood of model rejection. If the data is non-normal distributed, an alternative estimation method is required (Hair, 2019). Therefore, the univariate and multivariate normality tests will be performed prior to the SEM analysis of primary data.

Kurtosis and skewness are the most significant indicators of the degree to which nonnormality influences the typical conclusions drawn from the analysis of variance (Scheffe, 1999). Skewness and Kurtosis values are used to evaluate the normality of the data. Skewness is the measure of the data's symmetry, whereas kurtosis is used to measure the data's peaks and valleys distribution. If skewness is greater than 0, the distribution is not symmetrical. If kurtosis is greater than 0, the distribution of tail mass and shoulder deviates from normality (DeCarlo, 1997).

To demonstrate a normal univariate distribution, asymmetry and kurtosis values between -2 and +2 are acceptable (George, 2011). According to Hair

(2009) and Byrne (2010), data is considered normal if skewness falls between -2 and +2 and kurtosis falls between -7 and +7.

Table 5.6 displays the univariate skew and kurtosis values and their critical ratios (i.e. z-value) for each of the 34 items that were measured. As shown, all skew values are negative, ranging from -1.39 to -.56, indicating that all data distributions have a longer left tail. It produces a mean univariate skew value of -.85 (Standard Deviation =.21), which is consistent with a normal univariate distribution. In the meantime, the kurtosis value ranges between -0.33 and 1.59. The mean univariate kurtosis value is .71 (Standard Deviation =.42), which also fits the univariate normal distribution. Nevertheless, the multivariate kurtosis value is 284.15, and the critical ratio is 54.10, which deviates from the multivariate normal distribution.

According to Schumacker and Lomax (2004), the scaling of variables or the limited sampling of subjects can produce nonnormal data. Resampling additional participants or utilising a bootstrapping method to estimate a model that is unrestricted by data normality constraints (Yung & Bentler, 1996; Zhu, 1997). The bootstrapping method enables the researchers to compare the variance of ML estimates across the total number of bootstrapped samples (Byrne, 2010). In this study, 355 sample data has been collected which is considered a moderate sample size and is suitable to use the bootstrap procedure (Yung & Bentler, 1996).



Table 5.6 Assessment of data normality

<b>Variable</b>	<b>min</b>	<b>max</b>	<b>skew</b>	<b>c.r.</b>	<b>kurtosis</b>	<b>c.r.</b>
HO 1	1.00	7.00	-0.88	-6.76	1.29	4.96
HO 2	1.00	7.00	-0.72	-5.55	0.52	2.01
HO 3	1.00	7.00	-0.69	-5.33	0.35	1.33
HO 4	1.00	7.00	-0.62	-4.78	0.37	1.41
HO 5	2.00	7.00	-0.63	-4.85	0.20	0.77
QT 1	2.00	7.00	-0.69	-5.27	0.53	2.04
QT 2	2.00	7.00	-0.79	-6.06	0.89	3.44
QT 3	1.00	7.00	-0.84	-6.44	1.05	4.05
MO 1	2.00	7.00	-0.59	-4.56	0.60	2.30
MO 2	1.00	7.00	-0.74	-5.67	0.67	2.56
MO 3	1.00	7.00	-0.68	-5.25	0.81	3.10
MO 4	1.00	7.00	-0.67	-5.16	0.47	1.81
QA 1	1.00	7.00	-0.96	-7.39	-0.16	-0.61
QA 2	1.00	7.00	-1.04	-8.03	0.75	2.87
QA3	1.00	7.00	-1.19	-9.18	1.16	4.47
QA 4	1.00	7.00	-1.13	-8.68	1.07	4.11
QA 5	1.00	7.00	-1.14	-8.80	1.00	3.86
VA 1	1.00	7.00	-0.92	-7.10	-0.33	-1.26
VA 2	1.00	7.00	-0.99	-7.65	0.39	1.52
VA 3	1.00	7.00	-1.28	-9.84	1.37	5.27
VA 4	1.00	7.00	-1.04	-8.00	0.59	2.26
VA5	1.00	7.00	-1.39	-10.71	1.59	6.11
PA 1	1.00	7.00	-0.77	-5.89	1.00	3.85
PA 2	2.00	7.00	-0.73	-5.61	0.55	2.12
PA 3	1.00	7.00	-0.56	-4.30	0.19	0.73
FI 1	1.00	7.00	-0.78	-5.99	0.78	3.01
FI 2	1.00	7.00	-0.83	-6.36	1.07	4.12
FI 3	1.00	7.00	-0.61	-4.67	0.31	1.19
IT 2	1.00	7.00	-0.77	-5.93	0.69	2.66
IT 2	1.00	7.00	-0.71	-5.44	0.63	2.43
IT 3	1.00	7.00	-0.72	-5.50	0.71	2.71
VI 1	1.00	7.00	-1.02	-7.81	1.29	4.96
VI 2	1.00	7.00	-1.08	-8.30	1.03	3.95
VI 3	1.00	7.00	-0.79	-6.09	0.56	2.14
Multivariate					284.15	54.10

*Note:* HO= Being hooked, QT=Quantity, MO=Modality, QA= Quality,

VA=Valence, PA=Post-attitude, FI= Food involvement, IT= Intention to taste, VI=

Visit intention

A bootstrap is performed on 2000 samples using the ML estimator to generate bias-corrected confidence intervals for each of the parameter bootstrap estimates at the 95% confidence level.

Table 5.7 Summary of bootstrap iterations

<b>Iterations</b>	<b>Method 0</b>	<b>Method 1</b>	<b>Method 2</b>
<b>1</b>	0	0	0
<b>2</b>	0	0	0
<b>3</b>	0	0	0
<b>4</b>	0	0	0
<b>5</b>	0	0	0
<b>6</b>	0	0	0
<b>7</b>	0	0	0
<b>8</b>	0	0	0
<b>9</b>	0	6	0
<b>10</b>	0	48	0
<b>11</b>	0	206	0
<b>12</b>	0	277	0
<b>13</b>	0	497	0
<b>14</b>	0	318	0
<b>15</b>	0	278	0
<b>16</b>	0	163	0
<b>17</b>	0	96	0
<b>18</b>	0	47	0
<b>19</b>	0	64	0
<b>Total</b>	0	2,000	0

0 bootstrap samples were unused because of a singular covariance matrix.  
0 bootstrap samples were unused because a solution was not found.  
2000 usable bootstrap samples were obtained.

As shown in table 5.7, method 1 is completely successful in its task of bootstrapping 2000 usable samples. None are deemed unusable. 6 bootstrap samples attain a minimum after 9 iterations. 2,000 usable bootstrap samples are obtained. Although bootstrap standard errors tend to perform less well than ML standard errors for multivariate normal data, they contain less bias than the

original ML standard error for a broad range of non-normal situations (Hancock & Liu, 2012).

In table 5.8, the "SE-SE" column provides an approximation of the standard error of the bootstrap standard error. The "SE-Bias" column indicates the approximate standard error of the bias estimation. As illustrated, these values are zeros

Table 5.8 Bootstrap standardised factor loading standard errors

<b>Parameter</b>			<b>SE</b>	<b>SE-SE</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Bias</b>	<b>SE-Bias</b>
Q13a	<---	HO 1	0.04	0.00	0.75	0.00	0.00
Q13b	<---	HO 2	0.03	0.00	0.75	0.00	0.00
Q13c	<---	HO 3	0.04	0.00	0.72	0.00	0.00
Q13d	<---	HO 4	0.03	0.00	0.74	0.00	0.00
Q13e	<---	HO 5	0.03	0.00	0.73	0.00	0.00
Q14c	<---	QT 1	0.03	0.00	0.79	0.00	0.00
Q14b	<---	QT 2	0.02	0.00	0.79	0.00	0.00
Q14a	<---	QT 3	0.03	0.00	0.74	0.00	0.00
Q15d	<---	MO 1	0.03	0.00	0.77	0.00	0.00
Q15c	<---	MO 2	0.03	0.00	0.74	0.00	0.00
Q15b	<---	MO 3	0.03	0.00	0.72	0.00	0.00
Q15a	<---	MO 4	0.04	0.00	0.69	0.00	0.00
Q16_5	<---	QA 1	0.02	0.00	0.87	0.00	0.00
Q16_4	<---	QA 2	0.03	0.00	0.85	0.00	0.00
Q16_3	<---	QA 3	0.02	0.00	0.87	0.00	0.00
Q16_2	<---	QA 4	0.03	0.00	0.82	0.00	0.00
Q16_1	<---	QA 5	0.04	0.00	0.70	0.00	0.00
Q17_5	<---	VA 1	0.02	0.00	0.90	0.00	0.00
Q17_4	<---	VA 2	0.03	0.00	0.86	0.00	0.00
Q17_3	<---	VA 3	0.02	0.00	0.90	0.00	0.00
Q17_2	<---	VA 4	0.03	0.00	0.85	0.00	0.00
Q17_1	<---	VA5	0.03	0.00	0.75	0.00	0.00
Q18a	<---	PA 1	0.04	0.00	0.71	0.00	0.00
Q18b	<---	PA 2	0.03	0.00	0.77	0.00	0.00
Q18c	<---	PA 3	0.03	0.00	0.73	0.00	0.00

<b>Parameter</b>			<b>SE</b>	<b>SE-SE</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Bias</b>	<b>SE-Bias</b>
Q19a	<---	FI 1	0.04	0.00	0.75	0.00	0.00
Q19b	<---	FI 2	0.03	0.00	0.76	0.00	0.00
Q19c	<---	FI 3	0.04	0.00	0.71	0.00	0.00
Q20a	<---	IT 2	0.03	0.00	0.77	0.00	0.00
Q20b	<---	IT 2	0.03	0.00	0.74	0.00	0.00
Q20c	<---	IT 3	0.03	0.00	0.77	0.00	0.00
Q21a	<---	VI 1	0.04	0.00	0.78	0.00	0.00
Q21b	<---	VI 2	0.04	0.00	0.78	0.00	0.00
Q21c	<---	VI 3	0.03	0.00	0.81	0.00	0.00

*Note:* HO= Being hooked, QT=Quantity, MO=Modality, QA= Quality,

VA=Valence, PA=Post-attitude, FI= Food involvement, IT= Intention to taste, VI=

Visit intention

Table 5.9 95% confidence intervals (bias-corrected percentile method)

<b>Parameter</b>			<b>Estimate</b>	<b>Lower</b>	<b>Upper</b>	<b>P</b>
Q13a	<---	HO 1	0.746	0.657	0.815	0.002
Q13b	<---	HO 2	0.746	0.674	0.803	0.002
Q13c	<---	HO 3	0.717	0.643	0.781	0.001
Q13d	<---	HO 4	0.739	0.663	0.797	0.002
Q13e	<---	HO 5	0.729	0.662	0.788	0.001
Q14c	<---	QT 1	0.788	0.721	0.843	0.001
Q14b	<---	QT 2	0.794	0.739	0.835	0.002
Q14a	<---	QT 3	0.74	0.667	0.802	0.001
Q15d	<---	MO 1	0.769	0.705	0.818	0.002
Q15c	<---	MO 2	0.739	0.674	0.791	0.001
Q15b	<---	MO 3	0.723	0.655	0.775	0.001
Q15a	<---	MO 4	0.696	0.61	0.763	0.001
Q16_5	<---	QA 1	0.865	0.814	0.901	0.002
Q16_4	<---	QA 2	0.851	0.787	0.894	0.001
Q16_3	<---	QA 3	0.87	0.826	0.905	0.001
Q16_2	<---	QA 4	0.823	0.756	0.869	0.001
Q16_1	<---	QA 5	0.704	0.627	0.776	0.001
Q17_5	<---	VA 1	0.895	0.852	0.925	0.001
Q17_4	<---	VA 2	0.858	0.792	0.9	0.001
Q17_3	<---	VA 3	0.9	0.861	0.929	0.002

Parameter			Estimate	Lower	Upper	P
Q17_2	<---	VA 4	0.849	0.79	0.887	0.002
Q17_1	<---	VA5	0.754	0.688	0.814	0.001
Q18a	<---	PA 1	0.709	0.624	0.776	0.001
Q18b	<---	PA 2	0.77	0.701	0.828	0.001
Q18c	<---	PA 3	0.73	0.663	0.787	0.001
Q19a	<---	FI 1	0.747	0.666	0.808	0.002
Q19b	<---	FI 2	0.761	0.686	0.816	0.002
Q19c	<---	FI 3	0.709	0.62	0.776	0.001
Q20a	<---	IT 2	0.774	0.7	0.831	0.001
Q20b	<---	IT 2	0.746	0.679	0.804	0.001
Q20c	<---	IT 3	0.766	0.684	0.825	0.001
Q21a	<---	VI 1	0.777	0.694	0.842	0.001
Q21b	<---	VI 2	0.779	0.69	0.843	0.001
Q21c	<---	VI 3	0.809	0.741	0.865	0.001

Note: HO= Being hooked, QT=Quantity, MO=Modality, QA= Quality,

VA=Valence, PA=Post-attitude, FI= Food involvement, IT= Intention to taste, VI=

Visit intention

Table 5.9 demonstrates that the 95 percent bias-corrected confidence interval for each parameter's factor loading ranges from 0.61 to 0.929, with the highest p value being 0.002. This indicates that the confidence interval must be at the 99.8 percent level prior to the lower limit value is zero.

In addition, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was performed to assess the measurement model. All of the factor loadings of the indicators on their latent variables are high and statistically significant (see Table 5.10), which further confirm the composite reliability (CR  $\geq 0.7$ ), average variance extracted (AVE  $\geq 0.5$ ) the constructs (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

Table 5.10 Descriptive, reliability, validity tests of measured items

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Standardised Factor Loading	Standardised factor loading with bootstrap technique
HO 1	5.37	1.12	0.85	0.86	0.54	0.70	0.55	0.71	0.75
HO 2	5.35	1.21				0.71	0.56	0.75	0.75
HO 3	5.3	1.25				0.65	0.54	0.7	0.72
HO 4	5.33	1.1				0.67	0.55	0.69	0.74
HO 5	5.48	1.13				0.61	0.52	0.72	0.73
QT 1	5.52	1.1	0.82	0.82	0.6	0.66	0.54	0.77	0.74
QT 2	5.56	1.07				0.65	0.64	0.77	0.79
QT 3	5.52	1.16				0.71	0.62	0.76	0.79
MO 1	5.62	0.98	0.82	0.82	0.54	0.59	0.49	0.69	0.7
MO 2	5.51	1.11				0.65	0.52	0.67	0.72
MO 3	5.47	1.09				0.66	0.55	0.69	0.74
MO 4	5.44	1.13				0.67	0.59	0.71	0.77
QA 1	5.01	1.9	0.91	0.91	0.68	0.67	0.5	0.71	0.7
QA 2	5.36	1.47				0.77	0.67	0.8	0.82
QA3	5.49	1.45				0.81	0.76	0.85	0.87
QA 4	5.43	1.46				0.81	0.72	0.84	0.85
QA 5	5.54	1.45				0.81	0.75	0.84	0.87
VA 1	5.05	1.97	0.92	0.93	0.73	0.73	0.57	0.73	0.75

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Standardised Factor Loading	Standardised factor loading with bootstrap technique
VA 2	5.4	1.53				0.82	0.72	0.83	0.85
VA 3	5.52	1.51				0.85	0.81	0.88	0.9
VA 4	5.5	1.48				0.82	0.74	0.84	0.86
VA5	5.63	1.51				0.84	0.8	0.88	0.9
PA 1	5.59	1.07	0.78	0.78	0.54	0.61	0.5	0.72	0.71
PA 2	5.66	1.06				0.65	0.61	0.81	0.77
PA 3	5.55	1.09				0.59	0.52	0.71	0.73
FI 1	5.47	1.15	0.78	0.78	0.55	0.66	0.56	0.69	0.75
FI 2	5.51	1.12				0.64	0.59	0.7	0.76
FI 3	5.39	1.19				0.56	0.49	0.72	0.71
IT 2	5.66	1.13	0.81	0.81	0.58	0.67	0.59	0.73	0.77
IT 2	5.51	1.13				0.62	0.57	0.74	0.75
IT 3	5.61	1.11				0.67	0.58	0.71	0.77
VI 1	5.49	1.27	0.83	0.83	0.62	0.69	0.58	0.77	0.78
VI 2	5.32	1.4				0.7	0.61	0.73	0.78
VI 3	5.22	1.27				0.68	0.68	0.83	0.81

*Note:* HO= Being hooked, QT=Quantity, MO=Modality, QA= Quality, VA=Valence, PA=Post-attitude, FI= Food involvement, IT=

Intention to taste, VI= Visit intention

Table 5.11 Correlation Matrix of Constructs

	HO	QT	MO	QA	VA	PA	FI	IT	VI
HO	1								
QT	.749**	1							
MO	.753**	.735**	1						
QA	.393**	.400**	.393**	1					
VA	.348**	.346**	.365**	.794**	1				
PA	.731**	.698**	.702**	.386**	.420**	1			
FI	.702**	.725**	.676**	.412**	.410**	.706**	1		
IT	.688**	.713**	.706**	.392**	.382**	.749**	.771**	1	
VI	.629**	.492**	.487**	.325**	.271**	.547**	.610**	.584**	1

Note: Significance of Estimates: \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , \*\*  $p < 0.010$ , \*  $p < 0.050$ , †  $p <$

0.100. HO= Being hooked, QT=Quantity, MO=Modality, QA= Quality, VA=Valence, PA=Post-attitude, FI= Food involvement, IT= Intention to taste, VI= Visit intention

Lastly, Harman’s single-factor technique of Harman (Podsakoff, 2003) is used to evaluate the threat of common method bias. A Confirmatory Factor Analysis was conducted on the nine-factor models, respectively (Being hooked, quantity, modality, quality, valence, post-attitude, food involvement, intention to taste and visit intention). The screenshot of confirmatory factor analysis is as illustrated in Figure 5.11.



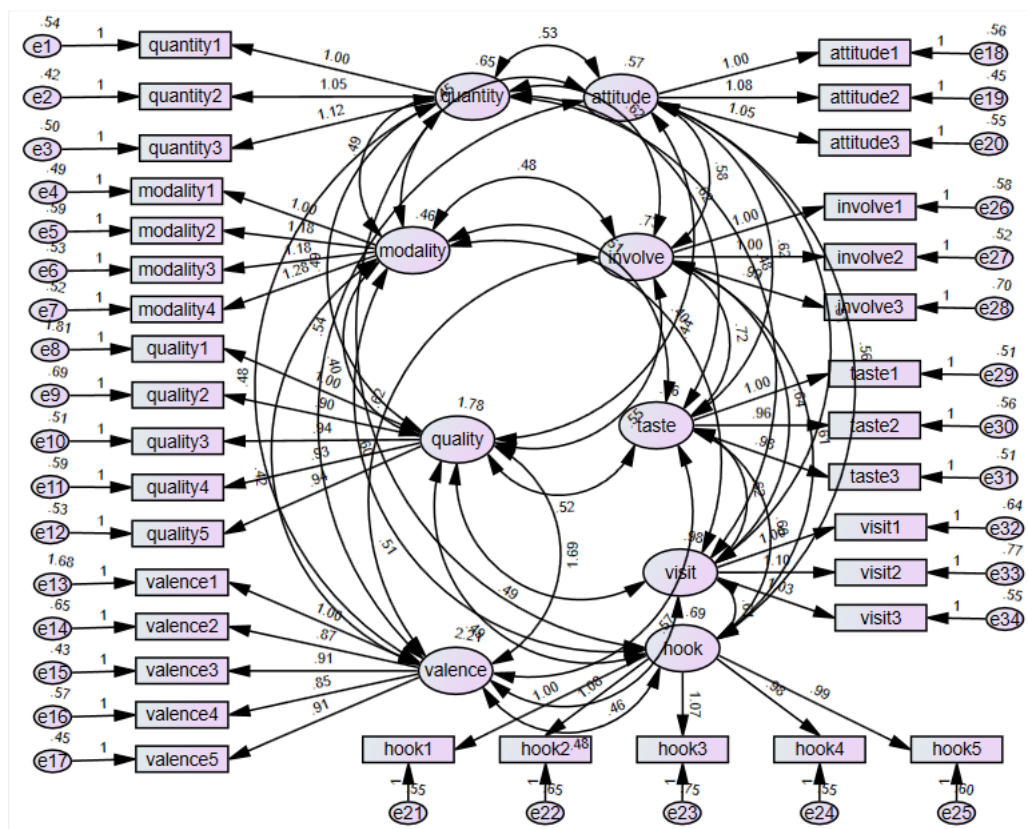


Figure 5.11 Screenshot of confirmatory factor analysis

Note: the constructs are in short names. The full names are as below: attitude = post-attitude, involve = behavioural involvement with food, taste = intention to taste, visit = visit intention, hook = be hooked

Table 5.11 summarizes the measurement model fit indices of this structural equation model. To interpret the goodness of model fit, Hair (2019) suggest that instead of using cut-off values for fit indices with magic .90 or .95, the suitable cut-off values should be based on model characteristics. A simpler model should have a more strict evaluation than a complex one. Table 5.12 shows suggested cut-off values that models contain more than 30 observed variables. This model contains 34 observables,

a very complicated model which should have less strict evaluation cut-off values.

The results show that the model fitness of data indicates good model fit ( $\chi^2 = 1187.34$  with 491 degrees of freedom,  $p = .00$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 2.42$ , CFI = .92, SRMR=0.079, RMSEA = 0.063)

Table 5.12 Model fit indices

Goodness-of-fit indices	Recommended cut-off	Indices of this model
N>250, M>=30		N=355, M=34
$\chi^2$	Significant p-values expected	1187.34 (d.f.=491, p=.00)
$\chi^2/df$	<=3.85	2.42
CFI or TLI	>=0.92	0.92
SRMR	<=0.08	0.079
RMSEA	<0.07 with CFI >=0.92	0.063

*Note:* m= number of observed variables; N applies to the number of observations

Although Lee and Gretzel suggest removing two dimensions of mental imagery, quality and valence to improve the model fit. An alternative model containing only two dimensions quantity and modality is also tested ( $\chi^2/df = 1.995$ , CFI =.953; NFI =.911; and RMSEA=0.053, M=24). Indeed, the model fit did improve. However, the AVE value of two constructs, the modality (AVE= 0.476) and food involvement (AVE =0.493) dropped below .50. Meanwhile, the valence dimension of mental imagery does have a potential relationship with attitude and narrative engagement based on the mental imagery processing, narrative transportation theory and the first model. If removing these two completely, it has an undesirable theoretical impact. Furthermore, the author also considered removing the quality dimension to enhance the model fit. However, the same issue appears with an

AVE value below 0.5 (Modality AVE= 0.476, Food involvement =0.493). Therefore, the original model is still adopted.

### 5.3.2 Structural equation modelling

#### 5.3.2.1 Structural direct effect

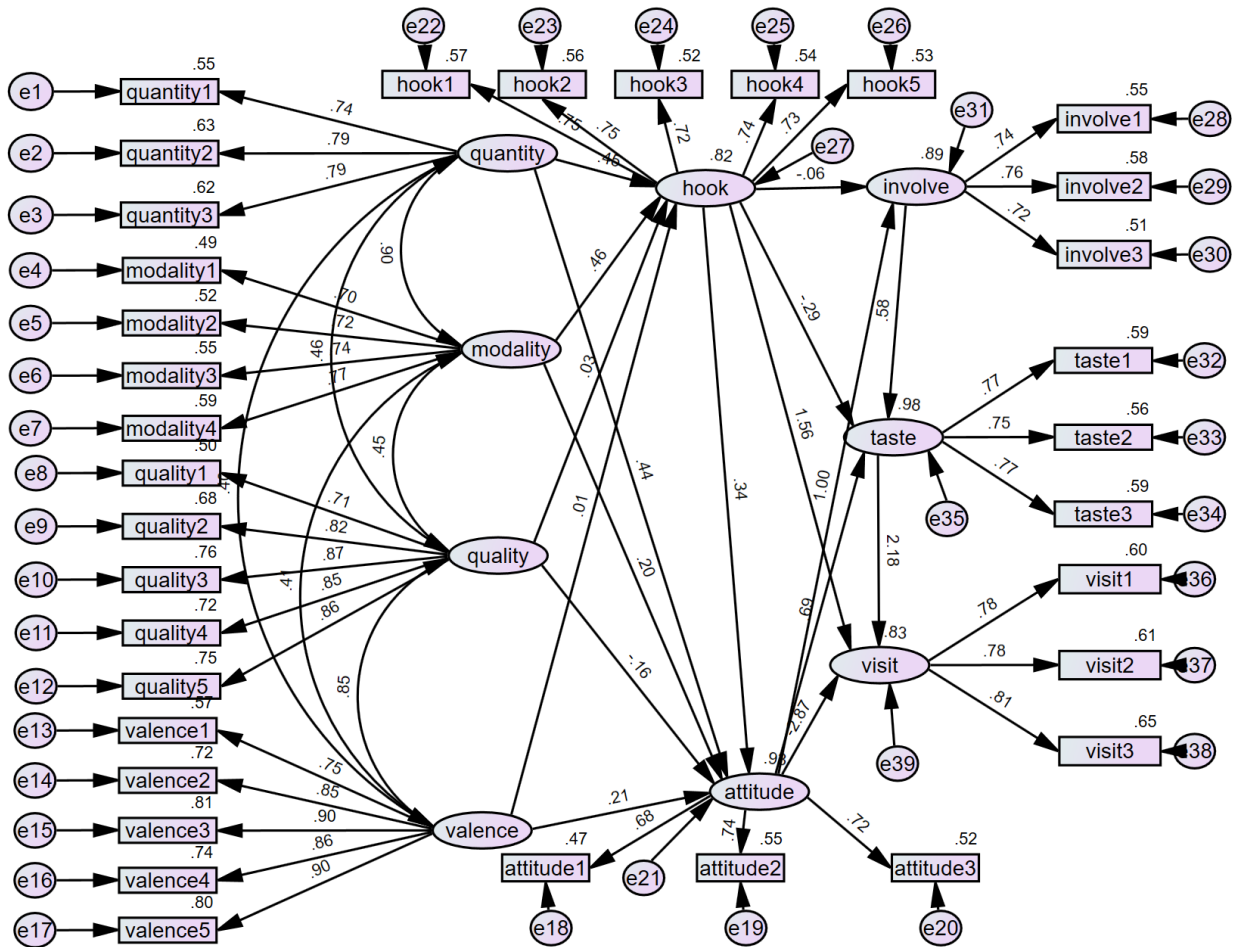


Figure 5.12 Screenshot of structural equation modelling result

Note: the constructs are in short names. The full names are as below: attitude = post-attitude, involve = behavioural involvement with food, taste = intention to taste, visit = visit intention, hook = be hooked

Table 5.13 The direct effect of Structural Equation Modelling

Path: Direct Effect	Estimate	Standardized Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	Supported?
HO <--- QU	0.415	0.45***	0.132	3.138	Yes
HO <--- MO	0.444	0.462***	0.137	3.234	Yes
HO <--- QA	0.022	0.032	0.056	0.385	No
HO <--- VA	0.003	0.005	0.050	0.064	No
PA <--- QU	0.348	0.435***	0.104	3.350	Yes
PA <--- MO	0.171	0.205†	0.095	1.801	Yes
PA <--- QA	-0.091	-0.156*	0.037	-2.423	No
PA <--- VA	0.114	0.211**	0.035	3.252	Yes
PA <--- HO	0.294	0.339†	0.107	2.736	Yes
FI <--- PA	1.159	0.999***	0.242	4.783	Yes
FI <--- HO	-0.062	-0.062	0.199	-0.312	No
IT <--- PA	0.818	0.686*	0.399	2.051	Yes
IT <--- HO	-0.305	-0.295†	0.160	-1.904	No
IT <--- IF	0.596	0.580*	0.262	2.270	Yes
VI <--- PA	-3.892	-2.868	2.524	-1.542	No
VI <--- HO	1.839	1.562*	0.935	1.967	Yes
VI <--- IT	2.481	2.178†	1.384	1.792	Yes
VI <--- IF	0.584	0.499	1.449	0.403	No

Note: Significance of Estimates: \*\*\* p < 0.001, \*\* p < 0.010, \* p < 0.050, † p <

0.100. QU=Quantity, MO=Modality, QA= Quality, VA=Valence, PA=Post-attitude, IF= Behavioural involvement with food, IT= Intention to taste, VI= Visit intention

Figure 5.12 is a screenshot of AMOS SEM figure which illustrates the standardised estimation results of structural equation model. To estimate the relationships between the variables hypothesised in the research framework, the structural model was consulted (see figure 5.13). Based on the results of the structural equation model, hypotheses H1a (Quality→Being hooked, std. estimate =0.45, p=0.000), H1b (Modality→Being hooked, std. estimate = 0.462, p=0.000) which proposed the positive relationship between mental imagery quantity and modality and

narrative engagement(Being hooked). As hypothesised, narrative engagement(Being hooked) has a weak positive trend on post-attitude (Being hooked→post-attitude, std. estimate =0.339, p=0.006), a significant positive relationship on visit intention (Being hooked→visit intention std. estimate =1.562, p=0.049).

Based on the results of the structural equation model, hypotheses H2a (Quantity→ post-attitude, std. estimate = 0.435, p=0.000), H2b (Modality→post-attitude, std. estimate =0.205, p=0.072), H2d (Valence→post-attitude, std. estimate =0.211, p=0.001)which proposed the positive relationship between mental imagery quantity, modality, valence and post-attitude. Although the three variables all positively influence post-attitude, quantity and valence are much more significant than modality which only shows a weak positive trend. As hypothesised, post-attitude has a significant positive effect on food involvement (post-attitude → food involvement, std. estimate =0.999, p=0.000) and intention to taste (post-attitude→ intention to taste, std. estimate =0.686, p=0.04).

Last but not the least, food involvement has a positive relationship with intention to taste (food involvement→intention to taste, std. estimate =0.580, p=0.023). Intention to taste has a weak positive relationship with visit intention (intention to taste→visit intention, std. estimates =2.178, p=0.073)

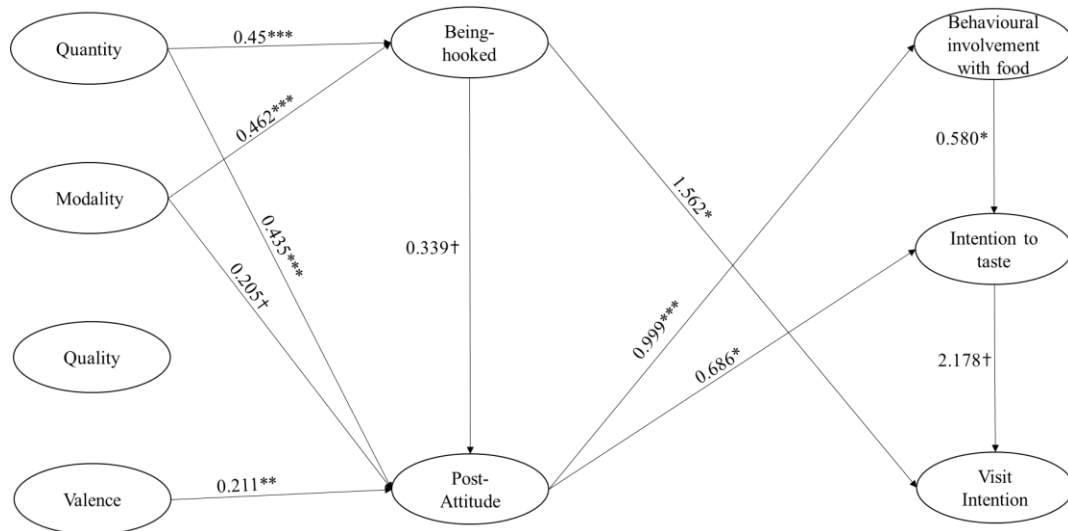


Figure 5.13 The structural equation model

Note: Significance of Estimates: \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , \*\*  $p < 0.010$ , \*  $p < 0.050$ , †  $p < 0.100$

### 5.3.2.2 Structural indirect effect

Because of the complexity of this model, there are a few indirect effect paths. However, due to the limitation of Amos, it is impossible to directly generate the estimate of each indirect effect by using the software. An Amos plugin, a customized function designed by Gaskin (2020) to automatically measure every single indirect path estimate and its significance. Table 5.14 present all the significant indirect effects. Among the significant indirect effect, two paths are very important. The path post-attitude → Food involvement → intention to taste → visit intention (std. estimate = 0.579\*\*) demonstrates that post-attitude doesn't directly affect visit intention but is mediated by food involvement and intention to taste. The path food

involvement → intention to taste → visit intention (std. estimate = 1.263\*\*) shows that food involvement positively affects visit intention via intention to taste. The other indirect paths illustrate the indirect effect of different dimensions of mental imagery.

Table 5.14 Indirect effect of Structural Equation Modelling

Indirect Path	Unstandardized Estimate	Standardized Estimate	Lower	Upper	P-Value
PA --> FI --> IT --> VI	1.711	0.579**	0.541	15.657	0.001
FI --> IT --> VI	1.477	1.263**	0.679	7.453	0.001
PA --> FI --> IT	0.69	0.579**	0.256	3.656	0.003
MO --> HO --> VI	0.817	0.722**	0.232	8.612	0.005
VA --> PA --> VI	-0.445	-0.606**	-2.784	0.172	0.005
QU --> PA --> VI	-1.355	-1.248**	-10.095	0.411	0.007
VA --> PA --> FI	0.133	0.211**	0.063	0.273	0.008
QU --> PA --> FI --> IT --> VI	0.596	0.435**	0.128	5.564	0.009
QA --> PA --> VI	0.353	0.448*	0.111	2.167	0.011
QU --> PA --> FI	0.403	0.435*	0.149	1.038	0.011
QU --> HO --> VI	0.763	0.703*	0.252	6.141	0.012
QA --> PA --> FI --> IT --> VI	-0.155	-0.156*	-1.211	0.038	0.012
VA --> PA --> FI --> IT	0.079	0.211*	0.018	0.307	0.017
QU --> PA --> FI --> IT	0.24	0.435*	0.057	1.502	0.018

Indirect Path	Unstandardized Estimate	Standardized Estimate	Lower	Upper	P-Value
MO --> HO --> IT --> VI	-0.336	-0.136*	-10.895	-0.092	0.018
HO --> IT --> VI	-0.756	-0.643*	-11.105	-0.227	0.027
QA --> PA --> FI	-0.105	-0.156*	-0.243	-0.029	0.029
PA --> IT --> VI	2.028	1.494*	0.485	25.894	0.032
MO --> HO --> PA --> IT --> VI	0.265	0.157*	0.032	13.735	0.037
QA --> PA --> FI --> IT	-0.063	-0.156*	-0.313	-0.017	0.037
QU --> PA --> IT --> VI	0.706	0.299*	0.125	10.517	0.038
HO --> PA --> IT --> VI	0.596	0.233*	0.087	17.658	0.038
QU --> HO --> PA --> IT --> VI	0.247	0.153*	0.036	6.773	0.039
QU --> HO --> PA --> VI	-0.475	0.153*	-9.647	0.071	0.039
QU --> HO --> PA --> FI --> IT --> VI	0.209	0.153*	0.031	5.386	0.041
MO --> HO --> IT	-0.135	-0.136*	-0.833	-0.032	0.041
QU --> HO --> PA --> FI	0.141	0.153*	0.031	1.686	0.043
HO --> PA --> VI	-1.144	-0.972*	-15.61	-0.141	0.043
VA --> PA --> IT --> VI	0.232	0.145*	0.048	2.867	0.046
MO --> HO --> PA --> VI	-0.508	0.157*	-9.009	0.041	0.047
MO --> HO --> PA --> IT	0.107	0.157*	0.019	1.301	0.051



Indirect Path	Unstandardized Estimate	Standardized Estimate	Lower	Upper	P-Value
QA --> PA --> IT --> VI	-0.184	-0.107†	4 - 2.15 1	5 - 0.02 8	0.05 1
HO --> PA --> IF --> IT --> VI	0.503	0.339†	0.05 3	8.39 1	0.05 1
QU --> HO --> IT --> VI	-0.314	-0.133†	- 4.05 4	- 0.03	0.05 9
QU --> HO --> PA --> IT	0.1	0.153†	0.01 1	0.96 3	0.06
HO --> PA --> IT	0.24	0.233†	0.02 9	1.65 5	0.06 1
QU --> HO --> PA --> IF --> IT	0.084	0.153†	0.01	1.89 2	0.06 2
MO --> HO --> PA --> IF --> IT --> VI	0.224	0.157†	0.00 9	4.89 4	0.06 2
HO --> PA --> IF	0.341	0.339†	0.03 6	2.30 2	0.06 3
MO --> HO --> PA --> IF	0.151	0.157†	0.00 8	1.43 7	0.06 5
QU --> PA --> IT	0.285	0.299†	0.04 8	1.00 2	0.06 7
MO --> PA --> IF --> IT --> VI	0.293	0.205†	0.03 8	2.44 3	0.06 7
MO --> PA --> VI	-0.665	-0.588†	- 5.09 4	- 0.05 2	0.07 2
HO --> PA --> IF --> IT	0.203	0.339†	0.01 1	2.85 6	0.07 8
MO --> HO --> PA --> IF --> IT	0.09	0.157†	0.00 2	1.59 3	0.08
QU --> HO --> PA	0.122	0.153†	0.00 4	0.43	0.09 2
MO --> HO --> PA	0.131	0.157†	0	0.54	0.09 9
MO --> PA --> IT --> VI	0.347	0.141†	0.00 1	4.58 3	0.09 9

*Note:* HO= Being hooked, QT=Quantity, MO=Modality, QA=Quality, VA=Valence, PA=Post-attitude, IF= Behavioural involvement with food, IT= Intention to taste, VI= Visit intention Significance of Estimates: \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , \*\*  $p < 0.010$ , \*  $p < 0.050$ , †  $p < 0.100$

### **5.3.3 Interaction effect**

Table 5.15 shows the model of audience SOP type affects mental imagery by using an independent sample t-test. Among 355 respondents, 158 respondents are verbalisers, and 197 respondents are visualisers. There are significant differences between visualisers and verbalised in mental imagery quantity (Equal variances assumed  $t = 2.268$ ,  $p = 0.024$ ) and quality (Equal variances assumed  $t = 2.015$ ,  $p = 0.045$ ), and being hooked level (Equal variances assumed  $t = 2.724$ ,  $p = 0.007$ ). Verbalisers perform better in a narrative stimuli mental imagery task, and they can be better engaged (be-hooked) in the narrative content. There is no significant difference in mental imagery modality and valence.

The influence of transportation ability on mental imagery is measured by a one-way ANOVA test presented in table 5.16. The results show that transportation ability directly affects mental imagery quantity, modality, quality, and valence. Apart from that, transportation ability also positively affects be-hooked feeling which means, the individuals who have higher transportation ability will be more likely to engage in the narrative content.

Table 5.15 Independent t-test of SOP style on mental imagery

<b>Independent Samples Test</b>		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
quantity	Equal variances assumed	0.851	0.357	2.268	353	0.024	0.22845	0.10073	0.03034	0.42656
	Equal variances not assumed			2.286	345.385	0.023	0.22845	0.09992	0.03191	0.42498
modality	Equal variances assumed	3.738	0.054	1.393	353	0.165	0.12923	0.09280	-0.05328	0.31175
	Equal variances not assumed			1.408	348.119	0.160	0.12923	0.09176	-0.05124	0.30970
quality	Equal variances assumed	1.627	0.203	2.015	353	0.045	0.28344	0.14070	0.00673	0.56015

<b>Independent Samples Test</b>										
	Equal variances not assumed			2.036	347.531	0.043	0.28344	0.13922	0.00962	0.55726
valence	Equal variances assumed	1.455	0.229	0.795	353	0.427	0.11958	0.15038	-0.17618	0.41533
	Equal variances not assumed			0.801	344.968	0.424	0.11958	0.14924	-0.17396	0.41312
being hooked	Equal variances assumed	6.153	0.014	2.724	353	0.007	0.26621	0.09773	0.07400	0.45842
	Equal variances not assumed			2.782	352.713	0.006	0.26621	0.09570	0.07799	0.45443

Table 5.16 ANOVA test of transportation ability

ANOVA				Sum of	df	Mean	F	Sig.
				Squares		Square		
quantity	Between Groups	(Combined)		87.079	23	3.786	5.412	0.000
		Linear	Weighted	34.781	1	34.781	49.721	0.000
		Term	Deviation	52.298	22	2.377	3.398	0.000
		Within Groups		231.542	332	0.700		
	Total		318.621	355				
modality	Between Groups	(Combined)		82.098	23	3.569	6.355	0.000
		Linear	Weighted	36.339	1	36.339	64.693	0.000
		Term	Deviation	45.760	22	2.080	3.703	0.000
		Within Groups		185.925	332	0.562		
	Total		268.023	355				
quality	Between Groups	(Combined)		108.935	23	4.736	3.069	0.000
		Linear	Weighted	51.797	1	51.797	33.565	0.000
		Term	Deviation	57.138	22	2.597	1.683	0.029
		Within Groups		510.793	332	1.543		
	Total		619.728	355				
valence	Between Groups	(Combined)		144.836	23	6.297	3.747	0.000
		Linear	Weighted	56.841	1	56.841	33.818	0.000
		Term	Deviation	87.995	22	4.000	2.380	0.001
		Within Groups		556.346	332	1.681		
	Total		701.182	355				
Being hooked	Between Groups	(Combined)		94.714	23	4.118	6.581	0.000
		Linear	Weighted	39.167	1	39.167	62.593	0.000
		Term	Deviation	55.547	22	2.525	4.035	0.000

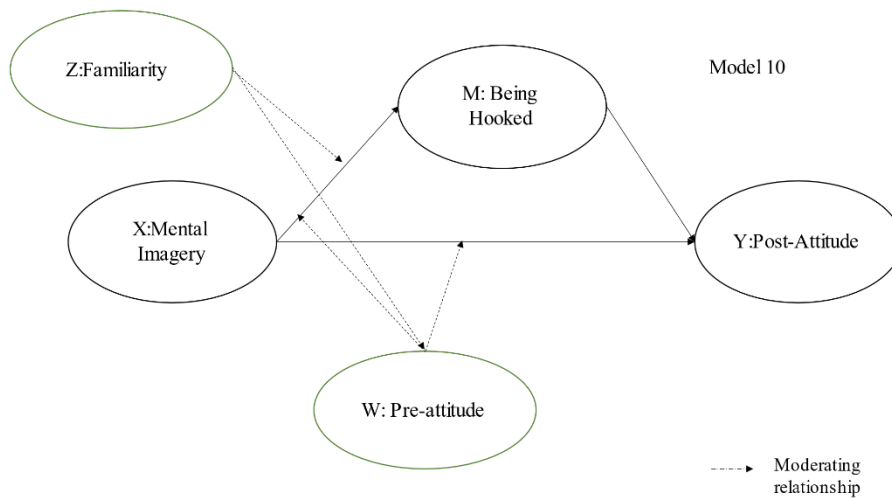
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**ANOVA**

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Within Groups	207.121	332	0.626
Total	301.834	355	

---



*Figure 5.14 Moderating effect between mental imagery and post-attitude (model 10)*

To investigate the moderating effects of pre-attitude and familiarity on two sets of relationships: mental imagery and being hooked, mental imagery and post-attitude, the SPSS PROCESS macro conditional analyses (Model 10, 5000 bootstrap samples) (Hayes, 2013) are conducted. The relationship is illustrated in figure 5.14 Model 10 in SPSS PROCESS macro allows testing two moderators W, pre-attitude and Z, familiarity in the X, mental imagery to Mediator, being hooked to Y, post-attitude.

In doing so, items including demographic factors such as age, gender, education, food origin, and pre-identified information processing-related factors including SOP and familiarity, prior experience, food neophobia level, food travel

planning and novelty seeking are controlled as covariates. Conditional effects of imagery processing were tested at the 16<sup>th</sup>, 50<sup>th</sup>, and 84<sup>th</sup> percentiles.

Table 5.17 Moderating effect between mental imagery and being hooked

	Dimensions of X	Moderator	Coefficient	SE	t	LLCI	ULCI	Moderating effect?
M: Being Hooked	X1: Quantity	W	.029	.031	.948	-.032	.090	No
		Z	-.078 (**)	.025	-3.125	-.128	-.029	Yes
	X2: Modality	W	-.009	.032	-.273	-.071	.054	No
		Z	-.039	.025	-1.517	-.089	.012	No
	X3: Quality	W	-.012	.029	-.424	-.069	.045	No
		Z	-.103(* **)	.023	-4.380	-.149	-.057	Yes
	X4: Valence	W	.047	.030	1.580	-.012	.106	No
		Z	-.151(* **)	.024	-6.245	-.199	-.103	Yes

Note: X=Mental Imagery, X1, X2, X3 and X4 are the four dimensions of X, W= Pre-attitude, Z= familiarity, M=being hooked, Y=post-attitude

Significance of Estimates: \*\*\* p < 0.001, \*\* p < 0.010, \* p < 0.050, † p < 0.100



Table 5.18 Moderating effect between mental imagery and post-attitude

	Dimensions of X	Moderator	Coefficient	SE	t	LLCI	ULC I	Moderating effect?
Y: post attit ude	X1: Quantity	W	-.0547 (†)	.030 8	- 1.778 5	-.1153	.005 8	Yes
		Z	.0180	.025 3	.7097	-.0318	.067 7	No
	X2: Modality	W	-.0620 (*)	.031 4	- 1.973 6	-.1237	-.00 02	Yes
		Z	.0327	.02 53 4	1.289	-.0172	.082 5	No
	X3: Quality	W	-.0535 (*)	.023 8	- 2.245 7	-.1004	-.00 66	Yes
		Z	-.0071	.019 8	-. .3576	-.0460	.031 8	No
	X4: Valence	W	-.0267	.024 7	- 1.082 9	-.0752	.021 8	No
		Z	-.0480 (*)	.021 1	- 2.276 6	-.0894	-.00 65	Yes

Note: X=Mental Imagery, X1, X2, X3 and X4 are the four dimensions of X, W= Pre-attitude, Z= familiarity, M=being hooked, Y=post-attitude

Significance of Estimates: \*\*\* p < 0.001, \*\* p < 0.010, \* p < 0.050, † p < 0.100

As shown in table 5.17, familiarity demonstrates a strong moderating effect on mental imagery quantity ( $\beta = -.078$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), quality ( $\beta = -.1025$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and valence ( $\beta = -.151$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). This result means that the less familiar the audience is,

the mental imagery quality, quantity and valence induce being hooked feeling will be stronger. Pre-attitude shows no moderating effect affecting being hooked.

As seen in table 5.18, the pre-attitude moderating the relationship between mental imagery quality ( $\beta = -.0547$ ,  $p < 0.1$ ), modality ( $\beta = -.0620$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) and quantity ( $\beta = -.0535$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) and post-attitude. This means that if the pre-attitude is negative, the mental imagery induced post-attitude can be enhanced by increasing the mental imagery quality, modality, and quantity. The moderating effect of familiarity is also significant in post-attitude. If the audience is not familiar with the destination, by enhancing the mental imagery valence, the post-attitude will be more positive.

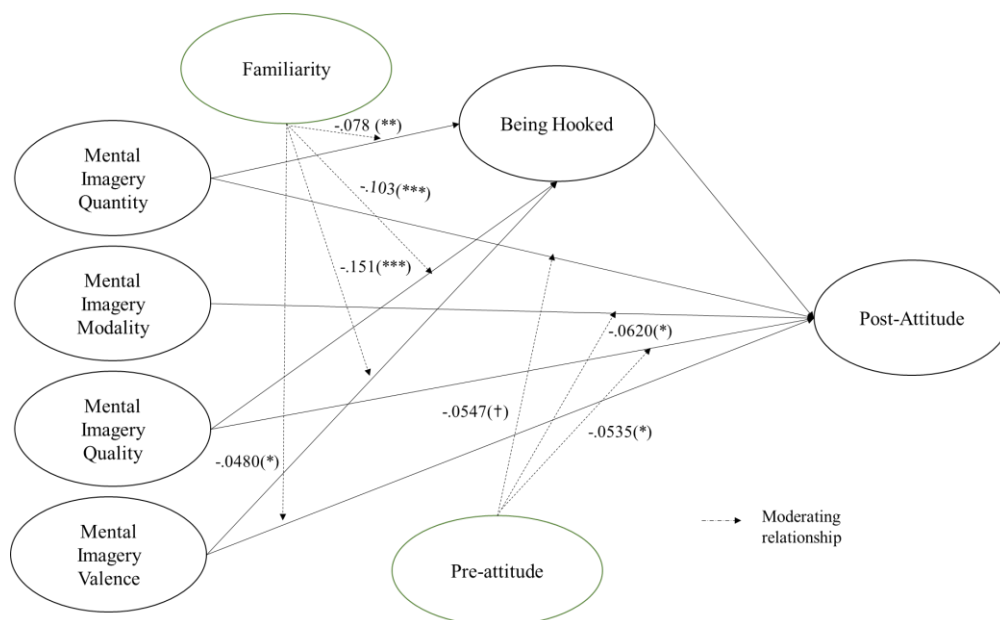


Figure 5.15 Summary of two moderators

Note: Significance of Estimates: \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , \*\*  $p < 0.010$ , \*  $p < 0.050$ , †  $p < 0.100$

Figure 5.15 is the summary of moderating effects of familiarity and pre-attitude. The significant co-variates between relationships are illustrated in table 5.19.

Table 5.19 Summary of significant co-variates

	Co- variates	Relationship	Co- efficien t	se	t	LLCI	ULCI
Quantity-- Being hooked	Gender	-(*)	-0.135	0.058	-	-	-
				6	2.303	0.250	0.019
					7	2	7
	Food travel planning	-(*)	-0.0784	0.038	-	-	-
				9	2.014	0.154	0.001
					6	9	9
	Novelty seeking	+(**)	0.1425	0.048	2.965	0.048	0.237
					5		
Quantity- post attitude	Japan Experienc e	+(†)	0.0347	0.018	1.893	-	0.070
				3	1	0.001	8
						4	
	Food Neophobia	-(*)	-0.0131	0.005	-2.321	-	-0.002
				6		0.024	
						1	
	Novelty seeking	+(*)	0.1194	0.048	2.463	0.024	0.214
				4	8	1	7
Modality- -Being hooked	SOP	-(*)	-0.1271	0.058	-	-	-
				6	2.168	0.242	0.011
					1	5	8
	Gender	-(*)	-0.1168	0.058	-	-	-
				7	1.989	0.232	0.001
					9	2	3
	Food travel planning	-(†)	-0.0677	0.039	-	-	0.009
				1	1.731	0.144	2
					6	7	
	Novelty seeking	+(**)	0.1804	0.047	3.791	0.086	0.274
				6	5	8	1
Modality- post attitude	Japan experience	+(*)	0.0387	0.018	2.119	0.002	0.074
				2	7	8	5
	Food neophobia	-(*)	-0.012	0.005	-2.153	-	-0.001
				6		0.022	
						9	
	Novelty	+(***)	0.1394	0.047	2.915	0.045	0.233

	Co- variates	Relationship	Co- efficien t	se	t	LLCI	ULCI
	seeking			8	2	4	5
Quality-- Being hooked	SOP	-(†)	.241	.036	6.737	.171	.312
	Food neophobia	-(**)	.298	.060	4.982	.180	.416
	Travel planning style	-(*)	-.019	.007	-2.670	-.033	-.005
	Novelty seeking	+(***)	-.126	.050	-2.516	-.224	-.027
Quality- post attitude	Japan experience	-(†)	0.0326	0.019	1.722	-	0.069
	Food neophobia	-(*)	-0.0144	0.005	-2.531	-	-
	Novelty seeking	+(**)	0.1564	0.049	3.154	0.058	0.254
Valence-- Being hooked	SOP	-(*)	-0.1407	0.071	-	-	0.000
	Food neophobia	-(*)	-0.0147	0.006	-	-	-
	Travel planning style	-(*)	-0.1054	0.047	-2.209	-	-
	Novelty seeking	(***)	0.2421	0.057	4.201	0.128	0.355
Valence- post attitude	Japan experience	-(†)	0.0347	0.018	1.849	-	0.071
	Food neophobia	+(*)	-0.014	0.005	-	-	-
	Novelty seeking	+(**)	0.1455	0.048	2.982	0.049	0.241

Note: Significance of Estimates: \*\*\* p < 0.001, \*\* p < 0.010, \* p < 0.050, † p <

0.100

Model 92 from SPSS PROCESS macro examines the relationship between two mediators, food involvement, and intention to taste, and one moderator, travel craving on the X, post-attitude to the Y, and visit intention. The moderating effects of travel craving are assumed in six sets of relationships in model 92. See figure 5.13. The results show that the Interaction 3 (Int3) demonstrates a strong moderating effect between food involvement and intention to taste ( $\beta = -0.07$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), Int 5 ( $\beta = -0.06$ ,  $p < 0.1$ ) and Int 6 ( $\beta = 0.11$ ,  $p < 0.1$ ) show weak moderating effect. However, based on the directing effects among these variables, the SEM results show that there is no direct relationship between food involvement and visit intention. Therefore, the moderating effect of Int5 does not exist in the complete model. In other words, if the travel craving is higher, the food involvement induces less intention to taste. If the travel craving is higher, the intention to taste can trigger a higher visit intention.

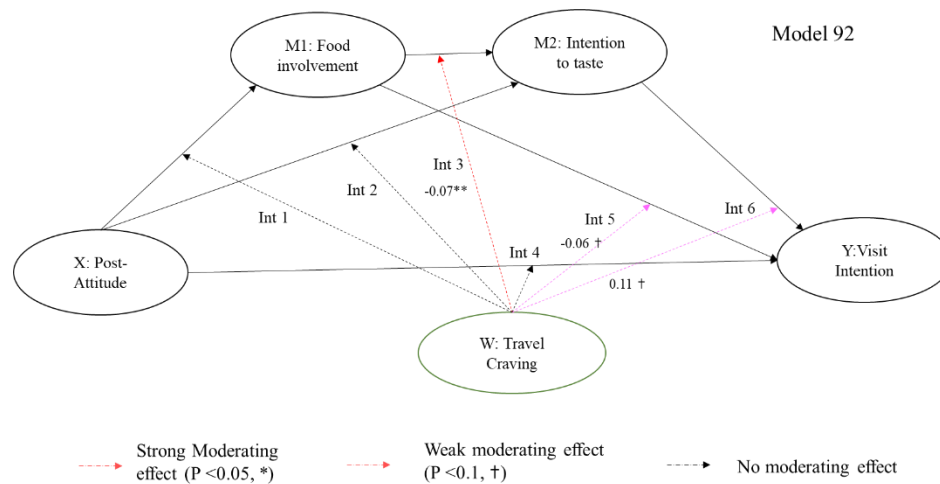


Figure 5.16 Moderating effect of travel craving

Table 5.20-5.22 illustrate the moderating effect and co-varying effect in the three constructs including food involvement, intention to taste and visit intention.

Table 5.20 Food involvement and travel craving

Effect type	Food involvement	Co-efficient	se	t	LLCI	ULCI
	constant	1.95 *	0.78	2.49	0.01	0.41
Direct	Post attitude	0.42**	0.13	3.28	0.00	0.17
	Craving	-0.14	0.15	-0.94	0.35	-0.43
Moderating	Int_1	0.03	0.03	1.30	0.20	-0.02
Co-varyating	Age	0.00	0.03	0.14	0.89	-0.06
	Gender	-0.02	0.07	-0.27	0.79	-0.16
	Food origin	-0.05	0.03	-1.61	0.11	-0.11
	Education	0.07	0.05	1.52	0.13	-0.02
	SOP	0.03	0.07	0.43	0.67	-0.11
	FNS	-0.01*	0.01	-2.11	0.04	-0.03
	Planning	-0.11*	0.05	-2.32	0.02	-0.20
	Japan experience	-0.03	0.02	-1.43	0.15	-0.08
	Transportation ability	0.07 *	0.03	2.13	0.03	0.01
	Familiarity	0.11**	0.03	3.10	0.00	0.04
	Novelty seeing	0.06	0.06	0.98	0.33	-0.06
	Pre attitude	0.03	0.05	0.61	0.54	-0.06
	Captivity	0.03	0.03	0.96	0.34	-0.03
Int_1: Post attitude x Craving						

Note: Significance of Estimates: \*\*\* p < 0.001, \*\* p < 0.010, \* p < 0.050, † p < 0.100

Table 5.21 Intention to taste and travel craving

	Intention to taste	Co-efficient	se	t	LLCI	ULCI
	constant	0.14	0.66	0.21	-1.17	1.45
Direct	Post attitude	0.13	0.14	0.93	-0.15	0.41
	Food involvement	0.78 **	0.13	6.03	0.52	1.03
	Craving	0.16	0.13	1.27	-0.09	0.41
Moderating	Int_2	0.05	0.03	1.62	-0.01	0.10
	Int_3	-0.07**	0.03	-2.79	-0.12	-0.02
Co-variating	Age	0.03	0.03	1.15	-0.02	0.09
	Gender	0.06	0.06	1.10	-0.05	0.18
	Food origin	-0.01	0.02	-0.32	-0.06	0.04
	Education	-0.02	0.04	-0.59	-0.10	0.05
	SOP	-0.05	0.06	-0.93	-0.17	0.06
	FNS	-0.01*	0.01	-2.00	-0.02	0.00
	Planning	0.00	0.04	-0.12	-0.08	0.07
	Japan experience	0.03	0.02	1.63	-0.01	0.07
	Transportation ability	0.03	0.03	1.14	-0.02	0.08
	Familiarity	0.03	0.03	0.92	-0.03	0.08
	Novelty seeking	0.03	0.05	0.70	-0.06	0.13

	Intention to taste	Co-efficient	se	t	LLCI	ULCI
	Pre attitude	0.03	0.04	0.85	-0.04	0.11
	Captivity	-0.02	0.03	-0.77	-0.07	0.03
Int_2: Post attitude x Craving; Int_3: Intention to taste x Craving						

*Note:* Significance of Estimates: \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , \*\*  $p < 0.010$ , \*  $p < 0.050$ , †  $p <$

0.100

Table 5.22 Visit intention and travel craving

	Visit intention	Co-efficient	se	t	LLCI	ULCI
	constant	-1.44	0.96	-1.50	-3.33	0.44
Direct	Post attitude	0.58 **	0.21	2.68	0.15	1.00
	Food involvement	0.63 *	0.28	2.22	0.07	1.18
	Intention to taste	-0.32	0.29	-1.10	-0.90	0.25
	Craving	0.28	0.19	1.49	-0.09	0.64
Moderating	Int_4	-0.08	0.04	-1.92	-0.17	0.00
	Int_5	-0.06 †	0.05	-1.11	-0.17	0.05
	Int_6	0.11 †	0.06	1.93	0.00	0.22
Co-varying	Age	-0.05	0.04	-1.37	-0.13	0.02
	Gender	-0.03	0.08	-0.36	-0.19	0.14
	Food origin	0.05	0.04	1.38	-0.02	0.12
	Education	0.11	0.06	1.92	0.00	0.22



Visit intention	Co-efficient	se	t	LLCI	ULCI
SOP	-0.05	0.09	-0.54	-0.22	0.12
FNS	0.01	0.01	0.80	-0.01	0.02
Planning	0.02	0.06	0.27	-0.10	0.13
Japan experience	0.07 **	0.03	2.72	0.02	0.13
Transportation	-0.02	0.04	-0.57	-0.10	0.06
Familiarity	0.19 **	0.04	4.66	0.11	0.27
Novelty seeking	-0.02	0.07	-0.35	-0.16	0.11
Pre-attitude	0.01	0.05	0.19	-0.10	0.12
Captivity	0.03	0.04	0.76	-0.05	0.10

Int\_4: Post attitude x Craving ; Int\_5: Food involvement x Craving

Int\_6: Intention to taste x Craving

*Note:* Significance of Estimates: \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , \*\*  $p < 0.010$ , \*  $p < 0.050$ , †  $p <$

0.100

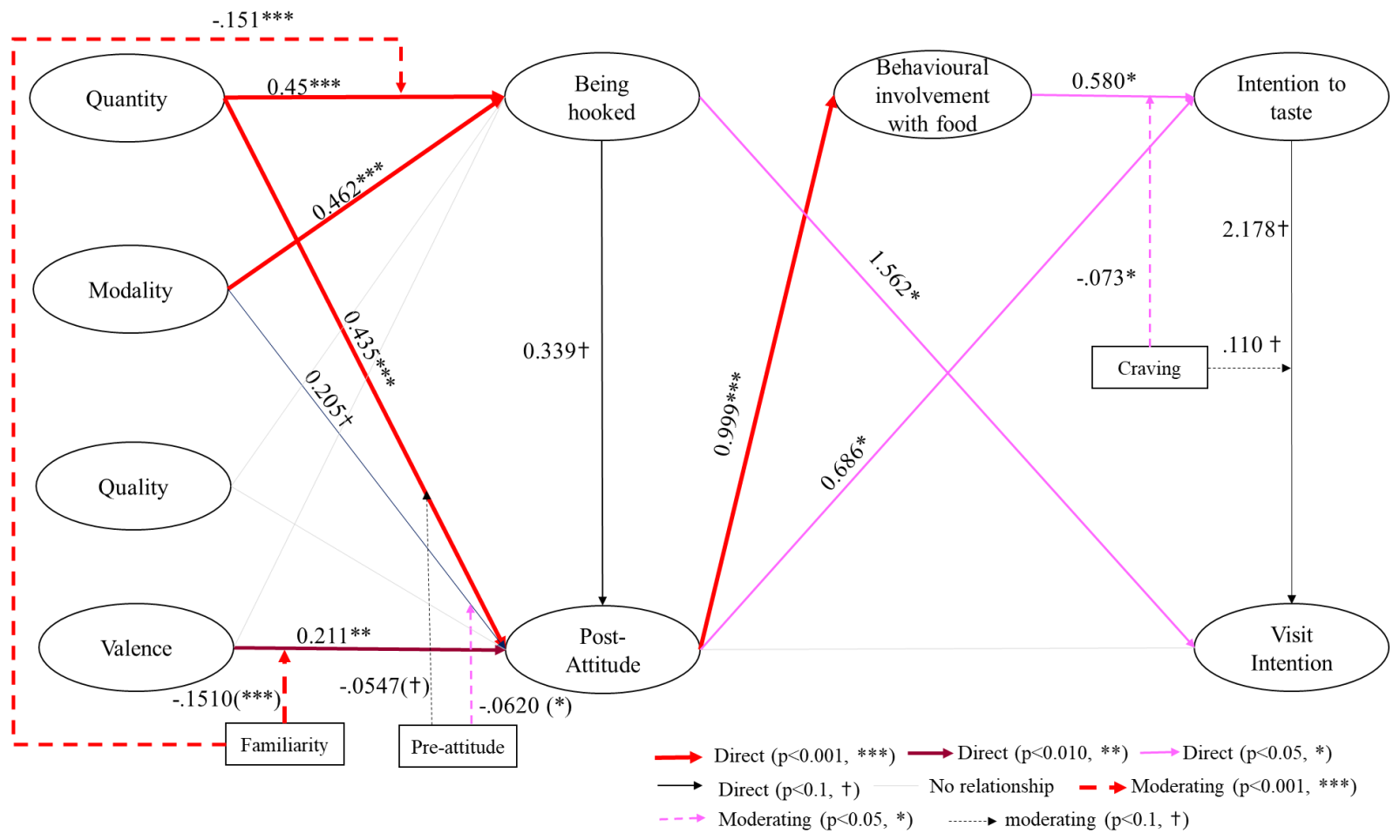


Figure 5.17 Final results of proposed model

## 5.4 Summary

This chapter presents the results generated from the descriptive analysis, exploratory analysis, and hypotheses testing. Firstly, the findings of the descriptive analysis provide an outline of the demographic profiles of the respondents. Secondly, the results of the exploratory research indicate the style of information processing and transportation ability of respondents. It is found that there are nearly equivalent respondent numbers of verbalisers and visualisers. Respondents from different transportation ability are all covered but the majority seems to have a higher transportation ability. Moreover, the respondents were tended to have a positive attitude toward Japan and happy to explore novel destinations. However, respondents also show a high food neophobia level which means if the food is unfamiliar, they tend to be less likely to try it. Then, the research model and hypotheses are examined via SEM. All of the measurements are verified to ensure reliability and validity, and common method bias is proved not an issue. Most of the hypotheses are supported and confirmed. However, no significant effect of mental imagery quality on being hooked and post-attitude. There is no direct effect between post-attitude and visit intention. Additionally, the influence of the style of processing and transportation ability on mental imagery, post-attitude and being hooked are validated. The moderation role of travel craving is supported between food involvement, intention to taste and visit intention. To conclude, most of the hypotheses are supported and the model fits the data well. Figure 5.17 illustrates the final data analysis result.

## **Chapter 6: Discussion**

### **6.1 Introduction**

This chapter aims to interpret and discuss the results generated from the data analysis in Chapter 5. In 6.2, a discussion of mental imagery consequences is presented. Followed by section 6.3, the influence of individual information processing style and transportationability are discussed. Section 6.4 provides a discussion and interpretations on the results of moderators and the covariants. The situational moderating factor travel craving is discussed in section 6.5.

### **6.2 The mental imagery, attitude and behavioural consequences**

It is found that there is a strong link between mental imagery and post-attitude toward the destination, which is consistent with the previous studies. There is a level of significant difference among the four dimensions. Among them all, mental imagery quantity is the most significant factor that positively affects the post-attitude. The mental imagery processing literature emphasises the importance of mental imagery in affecting destination attitude. Attitude is the direct affective response of mental imagery processing. This finding is in conjunction with the theories of embodied cognition that when audiences experience offline embodied sensory experience, it further brings attitude change (Niedenthal et al., 2005). The significance of mental imagery quantity-inducing attitude change coincides with Lee et al (2010). Although Walters et al. (2007) and followers tend to measure mental imagery with elaboration (quantity) and quality, the results of this research suggest that not only quantity and quality of mental imagery directly led to post-attitude change, but also mental

imagery valence. Mental imagery valence is similar to the construct of arousal which reflects the affective/emotional responses to mental imagery (Cuthbert, Schupp, Bradley, Birbaumer, & Lang, 2000; Walters et al., 2007). This on the other hand confirms mental imagery processing induces arousal, which is supported by Kim et al. (2014). It is also worth noticing that modality shows a very weak trend in favourable attitude, which means that whether the information is multisensory or uni-sensory, the influence on the post-attitude is not very significant in a verbal context.

Moreover, the results also demonstrate that mental imagery quantity and modality heavily contribute directly to the audiences' feeling of being hooked. This finding bridges the unknown relationship between mental imagery and being hooked. The result is similar to the relationship that Escalas (2004) between mental stimulation and narrative transportation, but it further extends the knowledge that audiences will be more hooked if there are higher volume and multisensory mental imagery induced. This finding coincides with studies that explain mental imagery processing and attention by using other psychophysiological measurements such as skin conductance, and heart rate. Different from the findings from Kim et al. (2014) that high-imagery audio stimuli and video stimuli don't increase participants' attention. The being-hooked feeling increases when mental imagery quantity and modality are rich. Due to the narrative nature of the chosen stimuli, this result suggests that the being-hooked scale is suitable for examining the attention induced by the narrative content.

Although a few studies confirmed the positive relationship between post-attitude and visit intention in the mental imagery processing in the tourism setting

such as Skard et al (2021), Alyahya and McLean (2022) who confirmed the positive relationship in the context of Virtual Reality evoked mental imagery, there is no direct relationship found between post-attitude and visit intention in this research. It could be due to the limitation of the textual script and the limited content of only one singular dish. Therefore the positive relationship between post-attitude and visit intention is insignificant. Post-attitude has a strong positive relationship with behavioural involvement with food, and intention-to-taste. This result is in accordance with Wang (2011) which highlights the importance of increasing the inspiring taste desire in enhancing audiences' intention to taste in the blog context. In addition, there is a strong indirect effect through post-attitude towards visit intention via both behavioural involvement with food and intention to taste. This finding is consistent with studies about food blogs (Mainolfi et al 2021). Meanwhile, the feeling of being hooked does not enhance behavioural involvement with food or the intention to taste, but it positively leads to the visit intention. It is consistent with Wang et al (2016) and Pachucki et al (2022) which emphasise the importance of tourism narratives on tourists' visit intention.

### **6.3 The influence of individual differences in information processing**

The results show that transportation ability has a direct positive influence on mental imagery processing and being hooked. Individuals with stronger transportation ability will have better mental imagery quantity, modality, quality, and valence and will be more narrative hooked by the content. However, different from the extant literature which proposes the moderating role of transportation ability (Lee & Shin,

2014; Mazzocco, Green, Sasota, & Jones, 2010) as a co-variant on the mental imagery effect on post-attitude and be-hooked is not found.

Style of processing demonstrates that verbalisers perform better by being able to produce more quantity and quality of mental imagery and are more engaged in the narrative content (being hooked). This finding lends support to previous research such as Yoo & Kim (2014). Style of processing is also shown as a co-variant that moderates the mental imagery modality, quality and valence with being hooked. This finding enriches the knowledge of how visualisers tend to imagine and get hooked in the narrative context.

#### **6.4 The influence of moderators and covariates**

Pre-attitude and familiarity are negatively moderating the mental imagery effect on being hooked and post-attitude. The result is opposite to the extended transportation-imagery model (Van Laer et al., 2014) where familiarity is believed positively moderate the narrative of transportation and the attitude. Pre-attitude is normally investigated as a controlled co-variate in literature (Ha et al., 2019). However, in this research, respondents are unable to choose a food travel vlog script based on their preferences, which leads to a diverse pre-attitude range to the destination food. The negative moderating effect shows that audiences who have negative pre-attitude are more engaged in the mental imagery processing and subsequently generated post-attitude towards the destination food. It also shows that if audiences are unfamiliar with the destination food, they are more likely to develop positive post-attitude toward the destination food.

These significant negative moderating effects can be further explained by the identified co-variants such as novelty-seeking motivation, food neophobia level, previous Japan travel experience and their own travel planning style. This implies that if an audience tends to be a novelty seeker, a verbaliser, has a food neophilia tendency (love to explore new food, opposite of food neophobia) and a food travel trip planner, then he or she would be more immersed in stories about unfamiliar destination food. Meanwhile, if an audience is more experienced in the food destination, has a food neophilia tendency, a novelty seeker, then he or she would have a positive post-attitude after reading unfamiliar food or even food that he or she had a negative pre-attitude.

In addition, demographic factors show significant differences in mental imagery processing and its consequences. Gender is significantly affecting novelty-seeking motivation, food neophobia level, mental imagery, and intention to taste. The findings show that females are prone to be more adventurous, have food neophilia, are more motivated to explore novel tourist activities, more willing to taste new food. The mental imagery level favours females in four dimensions and in mental imagery processing females tend to increase their intention to taste. A weak link shows a trend that females tend to develop positive post-attitude after mental imagery processing. For the detailed result, please see appendix, table 1: ANOVA result on gender. This result demonstrates the difference between men and women in imagery information processing, affective and behavioural consequences on their decision making. This result coincides with the finding in a physical retail store (Kim et al., 2020). The



result also coincides with Bendegül Okumus et al. (2021) females are more novelty-seeking and willing to try new food.

Age is a big factor in transportation ability. Different from the previous research findings that generation Y and generation Z show significant interest in the new media food vlog and new food (Kim et al., 2018; Bendegül Okumus et al., 2021). There is no significant difference among age groups in being hooked and mental imagery. However, the findings do suggest that the age group between 55-65 has the highest transportation ability, and the age 18-24 has the lowest transportation ability score in terms of narrative script. Younger generations tend to get their attention captured by multisensory experiences such as VR headsets or audio-visual videos and the older generation is more accustomed to traditional marketing material such as narrative written content. See supplementary table 2 for the details.

Education level also shows a significant influence on mental imagery modality. People with bachelor's degrees show less mental imagery valence when compared with people with college or associate degrees. Education level exerts its influence on familiarity, visit intention, food neophobia level and Japan-related experience. In general, people who hold bachelor's degrees or above tend to be more open-minded about new food, willing to visit a different destination, or are already familiar with the destination or had related experience with Japan and Japanese food. This finding coincides with that higher education levels tend to enable people to be more open to new opportunities (Dolnicar & Flucker, 2003). See supplementary table 3 for details.

Food origin shows that people from North American backgrounds are the least familiar with Japanese food and people from South American backgrounds and European backgrounds are more held back from trying novel food or exotic destinations. People from south American cuisine backgrounds and European cuisine backgrounds are more held back from trying novel activities. African descents have the highest novelty-seeking motivation, mental imagery quality and valence. A significant difference in mental imagery quality and valence is found among different food origins. People with European cuisine backgrounds show the lowest mental imagery quality and valence, whereas people from Africa, North America and Asia are more engaging in mental imagery quality and emotions. This finding is partially consistent with the claim from Liang and Cherian (2010) which shows Chinese tend to be more imagery than Americans when the stimuli is concrete. North Americans show the lowest food neophobia level, whereas South Americans have the highest food neophobia. People from Asian cuisine background has more experience in Japan destination, and Africans are least experienced in travelling to Japan. See supplementary table 4 for details. These findings can fill in the void of ethnicity differences in mental imagery and food neophobia level.

## **6.5 The influence of situational factor**

Travel craving as a situational factor in the Covid-19 pandemic shows a negative moderating effect in the relationship between behavioural involvement and intention to taste. However, travel craving positively moderates the intention to taste and visit intention. This result supports the claims of the elaborated intrusion theory

of desire (May et al., 2015). Sensory-rich positive narrative stimuli motivate audiences to imagine with pleasure or relief or the thought elicits a great awareness of deprivation. The influence of Covid 19 pandemic on tourism is improving yet still ongoing. When audiences expose to sensory information it makes them more acutely aware of the separation between the current state and desired state. The behavioural involvement with food includes searching for more destination information, watching more related food travel vlogs and being more interested in the destination. All these behavioural involvements make audiences more aware that trying the desired food at the destination is not possible and it causes the audiences a negative affect and physiological deficit. This explains why the higher the travel craving people have, the less they intend to taste the food. However, the weak positive moderating effect of travel craving on the intention to taste and visit intention shows that with the lockdown lifted, tourism is recovering. Sensory-rich positive narrative stimuli work as intrusive thought that evokes the associated thoughts that audiences can elaborate on their own. They will try to achieve their desire by changing the current situation, by showing intention to visit the food destination.

## **6.6 Summary**

This chapter discusses and interprets the findings of the hypotheses testing. The interrelationships among mental imagery, post-attitude, and behavioural consequences which are developed based on mental imagery processing are confirmed. The verbalisers and high transportation ability individuals are better at producing mental imagery and tend to be more hooked by the content. Pre-attitude

and unfamiliarity are negatively related to post-attitude. Co-variants such as novelty-seeking motivation, food neophobia level, and demographics have a significant influence on being hooked and post-attitude. Travel craving shows a negative moderating effect between behavioural involvement with food and intention to taste due to the negative effect of physiological deficit.

## **Chapter 7: Conclusion**

### **7.1 Introduction**

This chapter draws conclusions of the study with a summary of research findings. The next section outlines both theoretical, methodological and practical contributions of this study. The study concludes with a discussion of its limitations and suggestions for future research directions.

### **7.2 Summary of the findings**

The research answers the research questions on how audiences respond to rich sensory narrative language in the context of food travel vlog. To gain a clearer understanding of the mental imagery processing, a sensory-rich and positive narrative food travel vlog script of Japan is selected based on the findings of preliminary studies. The research is designed to test the conceptual model that entails various factors related to language-induced mental imagery processing and integrates narrative transportation by proposing to use “being hooked” as a narrative consequence of the mental imagery process. Firstly, perceptual symbol system theory from the embodied cognition theories is used as the theoretical foundation of language induced mental imagery processing. The mental imagery processing is applied in the context of language-evoked offline embodiment. The relationship among mental imagery, post-attitude and behavioural consequences (including behavioural involvement with food, intention to taste and visit intention) are tested and confirmed. There is a strong positive relationship between quantity and valence

of mental imagery and post-attitude which suggests that the post-attitude will be more positive when the audiences who are evoked with higher quantity of mental imagery and more positive mental imagery. Moreover, the behavioural consequences of mental imagery show different strengths. The result shows that the more post-attitude audiences have, the more likely they will be in involving with food related activities such as watching more related food travel vlogs or search for food information. A positive relationship is found between post-attitude and intention to taste. The more positive the audiences have, the more likely they are willing to taste. However, there is no direct relationship found between post-attitude and visit intention. A strong indirect effect through post-attitude towards visit intention via both behavioural involvement and intention to taste is found. Meanwhile, built upon the narrative transportation theory, the construct of being hooked is integrated into the conceptual model. Although being hooked does not directly enhance behavioural involvement with food or the intention to taste, it positively relates to the visit intention. A weak positive relationship is found between being hooked and post-attitude. The indirect relationship among three behavioural consequences suggest that audiences' visit intention is not a consequence of their behavioural involvement with food. However, if audiences develop more behavioural involvement with food such as the search for information or watching more related food travel vlogs, this increases their intention to taste the food and then further enhances their visit intention. Two moderators, the pre-attitude and familiarity show a negative relationship between being hooked and post-attitude which indicates the importance of the role of unfamiliarity in mental imagery processing. If provided with rich sensory stimuli that are from the unfamiliar

destination, audiences are more likely to develop positive post-attitude toward the destination food. The covariants including food neophobia level, novelty seeking motivation and food travel planning type are moderating the mental imagery and being hooked level to different extent. There are gender difference found in novelty-seeking and food neophobia level as females are more likely to be adventurous, exhibit food neophilia, are more motivated to try new food. There is no substantial difference in getting hooked and mental imagery across age groups, however there is a difference among ethnicities.

### **7.3 Research contributions**

#### **7.3.1 Theoretical contributions**

Firstly, the study links together two important research streams (mental imagery processing and narrative transportation study), thus providing insights into mental imagery processing and the role of being hooked effect in mediating the affective and behavioural consequences of mental imagery. This research contributes to the existing literature by establishing moderators during the mental imagery processing and narrative transportation and testing the model in the very much under-researched area, the sensory-rich positive narrative script context.

Most of the studies have tested consumers' affective and behavioural responses to mental imagery under audio-visual stimuli such as short videos or more sensory-enabled stimuli such as VR. These visual stimuli-focused mental imagery studies have dominated this specific area. However, sensory information is stored in both visual (non-verbal) and verbal manner. In line with the previous mental imagery studies, this research argues that verbal stimuli provide adequate sensory cues and

emotional cues that are embedded in the sensory languages and affective language will evoke mental imagery, leading to attitude and behavioural change in the context of food travel vlogging. Further, in the tourism field, very little research has been conducted on the effect of verbal narration on user-generated vlog content. Thus, the findings contribute to this body of literature. This research also considers the situational influence of the pandemic in moderating behavioural change.

An integrated language-mental imagery-attitude-behavioural model is proposed based on mental imagery processing theory and narrative transportation theory. The application of mental imagery processing provides a basic framework of the relationship among stimuli, attitude, and behavioural intention. The narrative transportation theory explains attention capture under the narrative context. By integrating these two theories, the proposed model offers a more comprehensive model for explaining sensory-rich narrative stimuli. This research further extended the behavioural intention into three dimensions by acknowledging the empirical evidence from pre-travel online information search and decision-making studies, food tourism studies, and standard tourism visit intention studies. In other words, the combined behavioural intentions provide a more detailed insight into the pre-travel food tourism marketing context.

Secondly, this study identifies two moderators the pre-attitude and familiarity for mental imagery processing and being hooked feeling. Most of the prior empirical studies emphasise the influence of transportation ability/imagine ability in mental imagery and narrative transportation. However, this research proposes transportation ability and style of processing directly affect the level of mental imagery and being



hooked. Instead, the level of pre-attitude and familiarity, together with a group of covariates from studies of mental imagery, narrative transportation and food destination choice. Because food in tourism can be an extension of daily normal life as well as a peak experience (Wang, 2011). The food personality trait such as food neophobia and novelty-seeking motivation and consumers' food origin would all affect their pre-attitude and familiarity with the specific food and their attitude to the food and food destination. In addition, in this research context, respondents are not able to choose their preferred script. Therefore, their pre-attitude and familiarity will be significant moderators for mental imagery consequences. These two moderators and the covariants in this model are vital to understanding how mental imagery processing affects the destination food attitude, behavioural involvement with food, intention to taste and visit intention, which fills in the research gap and contributes to the food tourism literature.

Thirdly, the findings from this study also shed light on the situational moderator, travel craving. In response to the call of Irimiás and Zoltán Mitev (2021), the moderating effects of travel craving are found which contributes to the elaborated intrusion theory. The research advances the elaborated intrusion theory by applying it in an imagery-based travel craving context. According to the EL theory, imagery induces temptation, and people enjoy the vivid imagination of indulging in food or tourism destinations. This research empirically contributes to the development of this theory in terms of the sensory language features and the influence of external suppression from pandemic.

Fourthly, the research illustrates the application of mixed methods research

to formulate the mental imagery processing in food travel vlog script context. By analysing the linguistic patterns in popular food travel vlogs, the research investigates the language induced mental imagery which contributes to the perceptual symbol theory by extending the understanding of language cues in terms of user-generated content. The findings of preliminary study 1 and preliminary study 2 offer empirical evidence for the perceptual symbol system theory in understanding the linguistic symbols in inducing mental stimulation. Preliminary 3 investigates the main consequences that audiences have from the food travel vlog mental imagery processing. The identified themes including affect, behavioural involvement with food, intention to taste and visit intention are then further developed into behavioural consequences in the proposed model. The sensory descriptions and emotional words are seen as linguistic symbols from perceptual symbol system theory that can be used as stimuli to test the further consequences in the later study.

### **7.3.2 Practical contributions**

The findings of this research also offer practical contributions. Firstly, for food travel vloggers, the results of linguistic features from the popular and high social media engagement rate provide insight into how to organise an effective sensory-rich narrative story.

Secondly, the model identifies the negative moderating effect of familiarity on influencing being hooked. This is an important indicator for vloggers for their choices of destination food, vlog storyline, and language style which should not be too repetitive. Once audiences get more familiar with certain food cuisine, food

destination or storyline from the same vlogger, audiences will tend to be less engaged which would further affect behavioural intention.

Thirdly, the model also identifies the negative moderating effect of pre-attitude on influencing post-attitude and being hooked. This contributes to the knowledge of consumers' information preference where even if consumers don't have high favourability on some destinations, however, if the vlog can stimulate highly elaborated, vivid, multisensory and positive mental imagery and give them a feeling of being hooked, consumers' attitude and behaviour can still be changed positively.

Fourthly, this research also provides insight into digital storytelling of enhancing bodily feelings via sensory words. This study can also be used in different contexts such as VR storytelling, and experiential destination marketing websites.

#### **7.4 Limitations**

There are limitations to this research. Firstly, a non-probability sampling method without a sample frame is adopted. Although the author tried to eliminate the issue of robot respondents or repetitive respondents by setting one-off links and a unique code system in the survey provider platform Qualtrics and crowdsourcing platform Amazon Turk Mechanism, there is an inevitable fact that the respondents are heavily located in the US and some South American nations due to the distributions of the Amazon Turk Mechanism respondents. The non-probability sampling has its practical advantages and the results have been justified thoroughly from both theoretical and practical perspectives. However, the location-specific respondents can

have some limitations on generalisability to the whole population of travel vlog watching audiences. As a melting pot society of immigrants from all over the world, the diversity of the American population could be offering a different picture to other nations which are more homogenous such as European countries. Meanwhile, the destination food is selected as Japanese ramen. The level of food neophobia, food familiarity and prior experience in Japan can vary if the respondent population is located in Asia. Therefore, a group of co-variants related to the respondents' demographic background and food personality traits are acknowledged and controlled in the proposed model.

Secondly, the research setting is not the same as the real food travel vlog experience. Respondents can only read the narrative stimuli script chosen by the author. The limitation of this approach is two folds. On one hand, the written narrative stimuli are lacking what audio-visual food travel vlogs afford, such as visual cues and auditory cues. Lack of multi-modality stimuli, the mental imagery quantity, modality, quality, and valence could be potentially lower than the rich multimodality sensory stimuli. Pure narrative imagery is a heavy cognitive task which is challenging for visualisers and people with lower transportation ability. Therefore, this research also acknowledges the difference in the style of processing (SOP) and transportation ability by addressing the direct effect of these two variables on mental imagery, attitude and being hooked. However, the limitation of narrative stimuli in evoking mental imagery is still there. On the other hand, different from the natural food travel vlog watching, respondents are not able to choose their preferred destinations, food and vloggers to watch, their pre-attitude and familiarity with the destination and food

vary. They could be not interested in Japan and not planning to visit at all in the first place. Therefore, the transportation effect and mental imagery processing could be not happening in them at all. This could be a problem reflected in the multivariate normality as the data is not normally distributed. However, the author adapts the bootstrap technique to help improve the likelihood of prediction.

Thirdly, concerning the sample of the preliminary studies, this research selected 192 food travel vlogs among 49 vloggers. Although the author selected the vlogs based on the keywords search, and other social media engagement metrics such as rate, and likes, the YouTube Algorithm inevitably automatically learned the author's preferences based on the search and watch history. Although the author tries to observe and analyse the data with machine-learning-based software such as Leximancer and LIWC, the findings can be more inclusive if more food travel vlogs are analysed. This leaves a certain degree of possibility of an inexhaustive and possibly biased pool of items.

Fourthly, in this research, only the written narrative script is used as stimuli to test the influence on mental imagery, attitude and behavioural intention. whereas in reality, the narrative script is spoken. There are potential variables regarding the spoken narrative such as voice pitch, tone, pause, emphasis, and the credibility of the vloggers that are not considered in this research. Therefore, the research findings should be viewed with caution.

Fifthly, the research only uses the positive emotion script and tests whether positive emotion that can influence audiences with a positive attitude and behavioural

intention. Other sentiments such as humorous, and disappointment are also commonly found in food travel vlogs which are not included in this study.

The nature of the research findings is preliminary. Despite these limitations, it is expected that the preliminary findings provided in this study would increase interest in food travel vlog research. In addition, it is anticipated that the current work will inspire future research that will contribute to our understanding of this aspect of consumer mental imagery processing and experiential-based consumer behaviour.

### **7.5 Future research**

The travel vlog phenomenon has attracted more and more research interest. An increasing number of studies have developed an interest in post-pandemic destination marketing by introducing travel vlogs. Yet travel vlog or food travel vlog still has great research potential in terms of experiential marketing, vlogger-audience parasocial interaction, and digital sensory marketing. Although some research has shed light on parasocial interaction (Xu et al., 2021), pre-travel decision-making (Briliana et al., 2020) and user-generated content influenced destination image (Li et al., 2020), the narrativity in the digital sensory experience of food travel vlog is not examined in the existing literature. This research provides a solid foundation for the influence of food travel vlogs on audiences' pre-travel planning through a written narrative stimuli script. The narrative stimuli script enables audiences to narratively transport to the destination and imagine the food taste, scent, and visual presentation. As aforementioned in the limitation, this research investigated the written narrative

script. Future research can build upon the current result and integrate more linguistic elements in terms of the speed, pause, and tones in the script and how those linguistic features affect audiences mental imagery. In addition, this research only focused on a singular modality, text in the vlogs. Future research can investigate the multi-modality of food travel vlogs including the visual, audio stimuli and multisensory congruence in enhancing mental imagery processing and its attitudinal consequences.

Further research on applying offline embodiment effect on audience attitude is also meaningful. The offline embodiment can not only be evoked from the script or the food travel vlog itself, but the offline embodiment is also in social information processing in this context the audiences' comments. Individuals adapt their long-term memories to engage bodily reactions even when other individuals are not present. The offline embodiment effect in social perception occurs during the activation of evaluative knowledge (Niedenthal et al., 2005). For example, the audiences might be more likely to display mouth-watering bodily reactions, and positive responses when they see other viewers (that are not physically present) are interested and positive about the food destination. Conversely, if audiences read about other online viewers who show dislike and disengagement, they will tend to produce negative responses. Therefore, future research is needed to validate whether the number of positive/negative comments and most liked/disliked comments also affect the audiences' motor bodily responses, attitudes, and behavioural intentions.

It is also noticed based on the audience comments that facial expressions from vloggers are playing a significant effect on audiences' bodily responses. In the theory of embodied cognition, people do respond to the offline, meanings of emotional

symbols such as words, but also there is a potential to understand emotions from the subliminal facial expressions from food vlogs which has a mimicry effect when they display their facial expression when watching that supports empathy (Niedenthal et al., 2005). Future research can utilise facial expressions as an offline embodied cognition source and examine what types of facial expressions from food travel vlogs can trigger bodily responses such as mouth-watering and hungry feelings.

One of the other future research directions lies in the measurement of mental imagery. As aforementioned, not all of the four dimensions of mental imagery measurement are strong indicators in the proposed model. Although the limitation of this mental imagery measurement scale has been stated in other studies (Lee & Gretzel, 2012), this study also confirms the issue with the subconstruct, mental imagery quality. It demonstrates no relationship with attitude and being hooked. Although there is another popular measurement scale of mental imagery (Walters et al., 2007) that only proposes quality and elaboration, it also has its limitation in examining the modality influence of mental imagery. A similar construct, imagery fluency is normally used in narrative content, which incorporates conceptual fluency, and comprehension fluency to investigate the readability and imagery level of narrative content. Although imagery fluency tackles the modality issue, it is lacking inclusiveness of other mental imagery dimensions such as valence, quantity and quality. Therefore, there is a need to re-examine and re-create an alternative measurement scale of mental imagery.

Furthermore, there are a group of covariants that have been identified in the proposed model. Although there are only three moderators including pre-attitude,



familiarity and travel craving in the current model, the importance of co-variates such as food neophobia level, novelty-seeking motivation, and food travel planning type as moderators can be also further investigated in a similar model.

Last but not the least, the current model is a stimulus-based study tested in the US and South American context with very typical Japanese/Asian food. Additional research is necessary to support firmly the suitability of the audiences' mental imagery processing measures and models across cultures. Therefore, the study should be replicated in other populations, larger samples, in other cultural groups, with a different type of stimulus food or even in different languages.

## **7.6 Summary**

This chapter draws conclusions based on a summary of the research findings derived from the hypotheses testing. The results imply that the measure of mental imagery quality may not be as effective as other dimensions such as valence and quality inducing a positive post-attitude. Being hooked is weakly connected to the post-attitude however it does give a strong indication that if audiences are hooked by the script content, they are more likely to visit the destination. Moreover, the moderators, pre-attitude, familiarity and travel craving show significant negative moderating effects in the proposed relationships.

Furthermore, several theoretical and practical contributions are also highlighted. The theoretical contributions are listed concerning mental imagery processing, narrative transportation theory, perceptual symbol theory, and travel craving. Additionally, the practical contributions are identified respectively for food travel vloggers, destination marketing organisations, and VR storytellers. Finally, the

limitations such as in sampling, stimuli selection and vlog choice, are presented and the related further research directions are suggested.

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Appendix: Supplementary tables

Appendix table 1: Compared means on gender

gender		Transportation	Familiarity	Novelty seeking motivation	Pre-attitude	Being hooked	Mental imagery quantity	Mental imagery modality	Mental imagery quality	Mental imagery value	Post-attitude	Behavioral involvement with food	Intention to taste	Visit intention	Captivity	Travel craving	
Male	Mean	5.141	4.7234	5.6188	5.6596	5.317	5.3635	5.3803	5.2255	5.2521	5.516	5.3865	5.4716	5.2996	5.0922	5.2234	
	N	188	188	188	188	188	188	188	188	188	188	188	188	188	188	188	188
	Std. Dev.	1.22669	1.30827	0.89798	1.02934	0.96988	0.99179	0.91754	1.3136	1.38164	0.89846	0.99111	0.98944	1.12157	1.49462	1.11265	
Female	Mean	5.2695	4.6008	5.8703	5.7916	5.4216	5.7206	5.6572	5.5257	5.6084	5.6946	5.5329	5.7265	5.3912	5.1317	5.3852	
	N	167	167	167	167	167	167	167	167	167	167	167	167	167	167	167	167
	Std. Dev	1.28006	1.52719	0.80064	1.06428	0.86763	0.8622	0.7908	1.31964	1.41632	0.87538	0.91913	0.89271	1.15585	1.5419	1.26744	
Total	Mean	5.2014	4.6657	5.7371	5.7217	5.3662	5.5315	5.5106	5.3668	5.4197	5.6	5.4554	5.5915	5.3427	5.1108	5.2995	
	N	355	355	355	355	355	355	355	355	355	355	355	355	355	355	355	
	Std. Deviation	1.25195	1.41477	0.8616	1.04652	0.92338	0.94871	0.87013	1.32312	1.40739	0.89091	0.95937	0.95241	1.13713	1.51502	1.18903	

Appendix table 2:

Multiple Comparisons: Bonferroni result on Age

Dependent Variable	(I) age	(J) age	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Transportation	18-24	25-34	-0.5903	0.26256	0.252	-1.332	0.1514
		35-44	-.78958*	0.27179	0.039	-1.5574	-0.0218
		45-54	-0.4707	0.30902	1	-1.3437	0.4023
		55-65	-.98974*	0.33181	0.031	-1.9271	-0.0524
	25-34	18-24	0.59028	0.26256	0.252	-0.1514	1.332
		35-44	-0.1993	0.15763	1	-0.6446	0.246
		45-54	0.11959	0.21557	1	-0.4894	0.7286
		55-65	-0.3995	0.24713	1	-1.0976	0.2987
	35-44	18-24	.78958*	0.27179	0.039	0.0218	1.5574
		25-34	0.1993	0.15763	1	-0.246	0.6446
		45-54	0.31889	0.22672	1	-0.3216	0.9593
		55-65	-0.2002	0.25691	1	-0.9259	0.5256
	45-54	18-24	0.4707	0.30902	1	-0.4023	1.3437
		25-34	-0.1196	0.21557	1	-0.7286	0.4894
		35-44	-0.3189	0.22672	1	-0.9593	0.3216
		55-65	-0.5191	0.29602	0.804	-1.3553	0.3172
	55-65	18-24	.98974*	0.33181	0.031	0.0524	1.9271
		25-34	0.39946	0.24713	1	-0.2987	1.0976

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		35-44	0.20016	0.25691	1	-0.5256	0.9259
		45-54	0.51905	0.29602	0.804	-0.3172	1.3553
Familiarity	18-24	25-34	0.30103	0.29916	1	-0.5441	1.1461
		35-44	0.53734	0.30967	0.836	-0.3375	1.4121
		45-54	0.01099	0.35209	1	-0.9837	1.0056
		55-65	0.39829	0.37806	1	-0.6697	1.4663
	25-34	18-24	-0.301	0.29916	1	-1.1461	0.5441
		35-44	0.23631	0.1796	1	-0.271	0.7437
		45-54	-0.29	0.24562	1	-0.9839	0.4038
		55-65	0.09726	0.28158	1	-0.6982	0.8927
	35-44	18-24	-0.5373	0.30967	0.836	-1.4121	0.3375
		25-34	-0.2363	0.1796	1	-0.7437	0.271
		45-54	-0.5264	0.25832	0.423	-1.2561	0.2034
		55-65	-0.1391	0.29273	1	-0.966	0.6879
	45-54	18-24	-0.011	0.35209	1	-1.0056	0.9837
		25-34	0.29004	0.24562	1	-0.4038	0.9839
		35-44	0.52635	0.25832	0.423	-0.2034	1.2561
		55-65	0.3873	0.33728	1	-0.5655	1.3401
	55-65	18-24	-0.3983	0.37806	1	-1.4663	0.6697
		25-34	-0.0973	0.28158	1	-0.8927	0.6982
		35-44	0.13905	0.29273	1	-0.6879	0.966
		45-54	-0.3873	0.33728	1	-1.3401	0.5655
Novelty seeking motivation	18-24	25-34	-0.2444	0.1829	1	-0.7611	0.2723
		35-44	-0.3219	0.18933	0.9	-0.8567	0.213
		45-54	-0.2906	0.21527	1	-0.8987	0.3175

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		55-65	-0.1906	0.23114	1	-0.8436	0.4624
	25-34	18-24	0.24442	0.1829	1	-0.2723	0.7611
		35-44	-0.0775	0.10981	1	-0.3877	0.2327
		45-54	-0.0462	0.15017	1	-0.4704	0.378
		55-65	0.05382	0.17216	1	-0.4325	0.5402
	35-44	18-24	0.32188	0.18933	0.9	-0.213	0.8567
		25-34	0.07746	0.10981	1	-0.2327	0.3877
		45-54	0.03128	0.15793	1	-0.4149	0.4774
		55-65	0.13128	0.17897	1	-0.3743	0.6369
	45-54	18-24	0.2906	0.21527	1	-0.3175	0.8987
		25-34	0.04618	0.15017	1	-0.378	0.4704
		35-44	-0.0313	0.15793	1	-0.4774	0.4149
		55-65	0.1	0.20621	1	-0.4825	0.6825
	55-65	18-24	0.1906	0.23114	1	-0.4624	0.8436
		25-34	-0.0538	0.17216	1	-0.5402	0.4325
		35-44	-0.1313	0.17897	1	-0.6369	0.3743
		45-54	-0.1	0.20621	1	-0.6825	0.4825
Pre-attitude	18-24	25-34	-0.2205	0.22221	1	-0.8482	0.4072
		35-44	-0.2376	0.23002	1	-0.8874	0.4121
		45-54	-0.3945	0.26152	1	-1.1333	0.3443
		55-65	-0.3964	0.28081	1	-1.1897	0.3969
	25-34	18-24	0.22048	0.22221	1	-0.4072	0.8482
		35-44	-0.0172	0.1334	1	-0.394	0.3597
		45-54	-0.174	0.18244	1	-0.6894	0.3413
		55-65	-0.1759	0.20915	1	-0.7668	0.4149
	35-44	18-24	0.23764	0.23002	1	-0.4121	0.8874

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		25-34	0.01716	0.1334	1	-0.3597	0.394
		45-54	-0.1569	0.19187	1	-0.6989	0.3852
		55-65	-0.1588	0.21743	1	-0.773	0.4554
	45-54	18-24	0.39451	0.26152	1	-0.3443	1.1333
		25-34	0.17403	0.18244	1	-0.3413	0.6894
		35-44	0.15687	0.19187	1	-0.3852	0.6989
		55-65	-0.0019	0.25052	1	-0.7096	0.7058
	55-65	18-24	0.39641	0.28081	1	-0.3969	1.1897
		25-34	0.17593	0.20915	1	-0.4149	0.7668
		35-44	0.15877	0.21743	1	-0.4554	0.773
		45-54	0.0019	0.25052	1	-0.7058	0.7096
Being hooked	18-24	25-34	0.17942	0.19612	1	-0.3746	0.7335
		35-44	0.11957	0.20302	1	-0.4539	0.6931
		45-54	-0.063	0.23083	1	-0.7151	0.5891
		55-65	0.15795	0.24785	1	-0.5422	0.8581
	25-34	18-24	-0.1794	0.19612	1	-0.7335	0.3746
		35-44	-0.0599	0.11774	1	-0.3925	0.2728
		45-54	-0.2424	0.16102	1	-0.6973	0.2125
		55-65	-0.0215	0.1846	1	-0.543	0.5
	35-44	18-24	-0.1196	0.20302	1	-0.6931	0.4539
		25-34	0.05985	0.11774	1	-0.2728	0.3925
		45-54	-0.1826	0.16935	1	-0.661	0.2958
		55-65	0.03838	0.19191	1	-0.5037	0.5805
	45-54	18-24	0.063	0.23083	1	-0.5891	0.7151
		25-34	0.24242	0.16102	1	-0.2125	0.6973
		35-44	0.18257	0.16935	1	-0.2958	0.661

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		55-65	0.22095	0.22112	1	-0.4037	0.8456
	55-65	18-24	-0.158	0.24785	1	-0.8581	0.5422
		25-34	0.02147	0.1846	1	-0.5	0.543
		35-44	-0.0384	0.19191	1	-0.5805	0.5037
		45-54	-0.221	0.22112	1	-0.8456	0.4037
Mental imagery quantity	18-24	25-34	-0.0145	0.20138	1	-0.5834	0.5544
		35-44	-0.0917	0.20845	1	-0.6806	0.4971
		45-54	-0.2735	0.23701	1	-0.943	0.396
		55-65	-0.2068	0.25449	1	-0.9258	0.5121
	25-34	18-24	0.01449	0.20138	1	-0.5544	0.5834
		35-44	-0.0773	0.1209	1	-0.4188	0.2643
		45-54	-0.259	0.16533	1	-0.7261	0.208
		55-65	-0.1924	0.18954	1	-0.7278	0.3431
	35-44	18-24	0.09174	0.20845	1	-0.4971	0.6806
		25-34	0.07725	0.1209	1	-0.2643	0.4188
		45-54	-0.1818	0.17389	1	-0.673	0.3094
		55-65	-0.1151	0.19705	1	-0.6717	0.4415
	45-54	18-24	0.2735	0.23701	1	-0.396	0.943
		25-34	0.25902	0.16533	1	-0.208	0.7261
		35-44	0.18177	0.17389	1	-0.3094	0.673
		55-65	0.06667	0.22704	1	-0.5747	0.708
	55-65	18-24	0.20684	0.25449	1	-0.5121	0.9258
		25-34	0.19235	0.18954	1	-0.3431	0.7278
		35-44	0.1151	0.19705	1	-0.4415	0.6717
		45-54	-0.0667	0.22704	1	-0.708	0.5747
Mental imagery modality	18-24	25-34	0.23539	0.18413	1	-0.2848	0.7556

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		35-44	0.0182	0.1906	1	-0.5202	0.5566
		45-54	0.0119	0.21671	1	-0.6003	0.6241
		55-65	0.06667	0.23269	1	-0.5907	0.724
	25-34	18-24	-0.2354	0.18413	1	-0.7556	0.2848
		35-44	-0.2172	0.11054	0.502	-0.5295	0.0951
		45-54	-0.2235	0.15118	1	-0.6505	0.2036
		55-65	-0.1687	0.17331	1	-0.6583	0.3209
	35-44	18-24	-0.0182	0.1906	1	-0.5566	0.5202
		25-34	0.21719	0.11054	0.502	-0.0951	0.5295
		45-54	-0.0063	0.15899	1	-0.4554	0.4428
		55-65	0.04846	0.18017	1	-0.4605	0.5574
	45-54	18-24	-0.0119	0.21671	1	-0.6241	0.6003
		25-34	0.22348	0.15118	1	-0.2036	0.6505
		35-44	0.0063	0.15899	1	-0.4428	0.4554
		55-65	0.05476	0.2076	1	-0.5317	0.6412
	55-65	18-24	-0.0667	0.23269	1	-0.724	0.5907
		25-34	0.16872	0.17331	1	-0.3209	0.6583
		35-44	-0.0485	0.18017	1	-0.5574	0.4605
		45-54	-0.0548	0.2076	1	-0.6412	0.5317
Mental imagery quality	18-24	25-34	-0.3435	0.28071	1	-1.1364	0.4495
		35-44	-0.3383	0.29057	1	-1.1592	0.4825
		45-54	-0.5443	0.33038	1	-1.4776	0.389
		55-65	-0.1072	0.35474	1	-1.1093	0.8949
	25-34	18-24	0.34346	0.28071	1	-0.4495	1.1364
		35-44	0.00514	0.16852	1	-0.4709	0.4812
		45-54	-0.2009	0.23047	1	-0.8519	0.4502

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		55-65	0.23628	0.26421	1	-0.5101	0.9827
	35-44	18-24	0.33831	0.29057	1	-0.4825	1.1592
		25-34	-0.0051	0.16852	1	-0.4812	0.4709
		45-54	-0.206	0.24238	1	-0.8907	0.4787
		55-65	0.23113	0.27467	1	-0.5448	1.0071
	45-54	18-24	0.54432	0.33038	1	-0.389	1.4776
		25-34	0.20087	0.23047	1	-0.4502	0.8519
		35-44	0.20601	0.24238	1	-0.4787	0.8907
		55-65	0.43714	0.31648	1	-0.4569	1.3312
	55-65	18-24	0.10718	0.35474	1	-0.8949	1.1093
		25-34	-0.2363	0.26421	1	-0.9827	0.5101
		35-44	-0.2311	0.27467	1	-1.0071	0.5448
		45-54	-0.4371	0.31648	1	-1.3312	0.4569
Mental imagery valence	18-24	25-34	-0.6431	0.29741	0.313	-1.4832	0.1971
		35-44	-0.5866	0.30786	0.576	-1.4562	0.2831
		45-54	-0.8608	0.35003	0.144	-1.8496	0.128
		55-65	-0.6313	0.37584	0.939	-1.693	0.4305
	25-34	18-24	0.64306	0.29741	0.313	-0.1971	1.4832
		35-44	0.0565	0.17855	1	-0.4479	0.5609
		45-54	-0.2178	0.24418	1	-0.9075	0.472
		55-65	0.01177	0.27993	1	-0.779	0.8026
	35-44	18-24	0.58656	0.30786	0.576	-0.2831	1.4562
		25-34	-0.0565	0.17855	1	-0.5609	0.4479
		45-54	-0.2743	0.2568	1	-0.9997	0.4512
		55-65	-0.0447	0.29101	1	-0.8668	0.7774
	45-54	18-24	0.86081	0.35003	0.144	-0.128	1.8496

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		25-34	0.21775	0.24418	1	-0.472	0.9075
		35-44	0.27425	0.2568	1	-0.4512	0.9997
		55-65	0.22952	0.33531	1	-0.7177	1.1767
	55-65	18-24	0.63128	0.37584	0.939	-0.4305	1.693
		25-34	-0.0118	0.27993	1	-0.8026	0.779
		35-44	0.04472	0.29101	1	-0.7774	0.8668
		45-54	-0.2295	0.33531	1	-1.1767	0.7177
Post-attitude	18-24	25-34	-0.0676	0.18977	1	-0.6037	0.4685
		35-44	-0.0311	0.19644	1	-0.586	0.5238
		45-54	-0.16	0.22334	1	-0.7909	0.471
		55-65	-0.0504	0.23982	1	-0.7279	0.627
	25-34	18-24	0.0676	0.18977	1	-0.4685	0.6037
		35-44	0.03648	0.11392	1	-0.2853	0.3583
		45-54	-0.0924	0.1558	1	-0.5325	0.3478
		55-65	0.01717	0.17862	1	-0.4874	0.5217
	35-44	18-24	0.03112	0.19644	1	-0.5238	0.586
		25-34	-0.0365	0.11392	1	-0.3583	0.2853
		45-54	-0.1288	0.16386	1	-0.5917	0.3341
		55-65	-0.0193	0.18568	1	-0.5439	0.5052
	45-54	18-24	0.15995	0.22334	1	-0.471	0.7909
		25-34	0.09235	0.1558	1	-0.3478	0.5325
		35-44	0.12883	0.16386	1	-0.3341	0.5917
		55-65	0.10952	0.21395	1	-0.4949	0.7139
	55-65	18-24	0.05043	0.23982	1	-0.627	0.7279
		25-34	-0.0172	0.17862	1	-0.5217	0.4874
		35-44	0.01931	0.18568	1	-0.5052	0.5439

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		45-54	-0.1095	0.21395	1	-0.7139	0.4949	
Behavioural involvement with food	18-24	25-34	0.02464	0.20345	1	-0.5501	0.5994	
		35-44	-0.0204	0.2106	1	-0.6153	0.5745	
		45-54	-0.2784	0.23944	1	-0.9548	0.398	
	25-34	55-65	0.10256	0.2571	1	-0.6237	0.8289	
		18-24	-0.0246	0.20345	1	-0.5994	0.5501	
		35-44	-0.0451	0.12214	1	-0.3901	0.3	
	35-44	45-54	-0.303	0.16703	0.705	-0.7749	0.1688	
		55-65	0.07792	0.19149	1	-0.463	0.6189	
		18-24	0.02041	0.2106	1	-0.5745	0.6153	
	45-54	25-34	0.04506	0.12214	1	-0.3	0.3901	
		45-54	-0.258	0.17567	1	-0.7542	0.2383	
		55-65	0.12298	0.19907	1	-0.4394	0.6853	
	55-65	18-24	0.27839	0.23944	1	-0.398	0.9548	
		25-34	0.30303	0.16703	0.705	-0.1688	0.7749	
		35-44	0.25798	0.17567	1	-0.2383	0.7542	
	Intention to taste	18-24	55-65	0.38095	0.22937	0.976	-0.267	1.0289
			18-24	-0.1026	0.2571	1	-0.8289	0.6237
			25-34	-0.0779	0.19149	1	-0.6189	0.463
35-44			-0.123	0.19907	1	-0.6853	0.4394	
		45-54	-0.381	0.22937	0.976	-1.0289	0.267	
		25-34	0.1044	0.2026	1	-0.4679	0.6767	
		35-44	0.01655	0.20972	1	-0.5759	0.609	
		45-54	-0.0623	0.23844	1	-0.7359	0.6113	

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		55-65	-0.0718	0.25603	1	-0.7951	0.6515
	25-34	18-24	-0.1044	0.2026	1	-0.6767	0.4679
		35-44	-0.0878	0.12163	1	-0.4314	0.2557
		45-54	-0.1667	0.16634	1	-0.6366	0.3032
		55-65	-0.1762	0.19069	1	-0.7149	0.3625
	35-44	18-24	-0.0166	0.20972	1	-0.609	0.5759
		25-34	0.08784	0.12163	1	-0.2557	0.4314
		45-54	-0.0788	0.17494	1	-0.573	0.4154
		55-65	-0.0884	0.19824	1	-0.6484	0.4717
	45-54	18-24	0.06227	0.23844	1	-0.6113	0.7359
		25-34	0.16667	0.16634	1	-0.3032	0.6366
		35-44	0.07883	0.17494	1	-0.4154	0.573
		55-65	-0.0095	0.22841	1	-0.6548	0.6357
	55-65	18-24	0.07179	0.25603	1	-0.6515	0.7951
		25-34	0.17619	0.19069	1	-0.3625	0.7149
		35-44	0.08835	0.19824	1	-0.4717	0.6484
		45-54	0.00952	0.22841	1	-0.6357	0.6548
Visit intention	18-24	25-34	0.11705	0.24188	1	-0.5662	0.8003
		35-44	0.17326	0.25038	1	-0.534	0.8806
		45-54	0.10623	0.28467	1	-0.698	0.9104
		55-65	0.36496	0.30567	1	-0.4985	1.2284
	25-34	18-24	-0.1171	0.24188	1	-0.8003	0.5662
		35-44	0.05621	0.14521	1	-0.354	0.4664
		45-54	-0.0108	0.19858	1	-0.5718	0.5502
		55-65	0.24791	0.22766	1	-0.3952	0.891
	35-44	18-24	-0.1733	0.25038	1	-0.8806	0.534

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		25-34	-0.0562	0.14521	1	-0.4664	0.354
		45-54	-0.067	0.20885	1	-0.657	0.523
		55-65	0.19169	0.23667	1	-0.4769	0.8603
	45-54	18-24	-0.1062	0.28467	1	-0.9104	0.698
		25-34	0.01082	0.19858	1	-0.5502	0.5718
		35-44	0.06704	0.20885	1	-0.523	0.657
		55-65	0.25873	0.2727	1	-0.5116	1.0291
	55-65	18-24	-0.365	0.30567	1	-1.2284	0.4985
		25-34	-0.2479	0.22766	1	-0.891	0.3952
		35-44	-0.1917	0.23667	1	-0.8603	0.4769
		45-54	-0.2587	0.2727	1	-1.0291	0.5116
Captivity	18-24	25-34	0.07792	0.32199	1	-0.8317	0.9875
		35-44	-0.089	0.33331	1	-1.0306	0.8526
		45-54	0.31746	0.37897	1	-0.7531	1.388
		55-65	0.12222	0.40692	1	-1.0273	1.2717
	25-34	18-24	-0.0779	0.32199	1	-0.9875	0.8317
		35-44	-0.1669	0.19331	1	-0.713	0.3792
		45-54	0.23954	0.26436	1	-0.5073	0.9863
		55-65	0.0443	0.30307	1	-0.8119	0.9005
	35-44	18-24	0.089	0.33331	1	-0.8526	1.0306
		25-34	0.16692	0.19331	1	-0.3792	0.713
		45-54	0.40646	0.27803	1	-0.379	1.1919
		55-65	0.21122	0.31507	1	-0.6788	1.1013
	45-54	18-24	-0.3175	0.37897	1	-1.388	0.7531
		25-34	-0.2395	0.26436	1	-0.9863	0.5073
		35-44	-0.4065	0.27803	1	-1.1919	0.379

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		55-65	-0.1952	0.36303	1	-1.2208	0.8303
	55-65	18-24	-0.1222	0.40692	1	-1.2717	1.0273
		25-34	-0.0443	0.30307	1	-0.9005	0.8119
		35-44	-0.2112	0.31507	1	-1.1013	0.6788
		45-54	0.19524	0.36303	1	-0.8303	1.2208
Travel craving	18-24	25-34	0.08425	0.25266	1	-0.6295	0.798
		35-44	-0.0907	0.26153	1	-0.8296	0.6481
		45-54	0.17155	0.29736	1	-0.6685	1.0116
		55-65	0.1906	0.31929	1	-0.7114	1.0926
	25-34	18-24	-0.0843	0.25266	1	-0.798	0.6295
		35-44	-0.175	0.15168	1	-0.6035	0.2535
		45-54	0.0873	0.20743	1	-0.4987	0.6733
		55-65	0.10635	0.23781	1	-0.5654	0.7781
	35-44	18-24	0.09074	0.26153	1	-0.6481	0.8296
		25-34	0.17499	0.15168	1	-0.2535	0.6035
		45-54	0.26229	0.21816	1	-0.354	0.8786
		55-65	0.28134	0.24722	1	-0.417	0.9797
	45-54	18-24	-0.1716	0.29736	1	-1.0116	0.6685
		25-34	-0.0873	0.20743	1	-0.6733	0.4987
		35-44	-0.2623	0.21816	1	-0.8786	0.354
		55-65	0.01905	0.28485	1	-0.7856	0.8237
	55-65	18-24	-0.1906	0.31929	1	-1.0926	0.7114
		25-34	-0.1064	0.23781	1	-0.7781	0.5654
		35-44	-0.2813	0.24722	1	-0.9797	0.417
		45-54	-0.0191	0.28485	1	-0.8237	0.7856
Style of processing	18-24	25-34	-0.058	0.106	1	-0.36	0.24

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		35-44	-0.092	0.109	1	-0.4	0.22
		45-54	-0.071	0.124	1	-0.42	0.28
		55-65	0.067	0.134	1	-0.31	0.44
	25-34	18-24	0.058	0.106	1	-0.24	0.36
		35-44	-0.034	0.063	1	-0.21	0.15
		45-54	-0.013	0.087	1	-0.26	0.23
		55-65	0.125	0.099	1	-0.16	0.41
	35-44	18-24	0.092	0.109	1	-0.22	0.4
		25-34	0.034	0.063	1	-0.15	0.21
		45-54	0.021	0.091	1	-0.24	0.28
		55-65	0.159	0.103	1	-0.13	0.45
	45-54	18-24	0.071	0.124	1	-0.28	0.42
		25-34	0.013	0.087	1	-0.23	0.26
		35-44	-0.021	0.091	1	-0.28	0.24
		55-65	0.138	0.119	1	-0.2	0.47
	55-65	18-24	-0.067	0.134	1	-0.44	0.31
		25-34	-0.125	0.099	1	-0.41	0.16
		35-44	-0.159	0.103	1	-0.45	0.13
		45-54	-0.138	0.119	1	-0.47	0.2
Food neophobia level	18-24	25-34	-0.8	1.545	1	-5.16	3.56
		35-44	0.023	1.599	1	-4.49	4.54
		45-54	0.639	1.818	1	-4.5	5.78
		55-65	-1.818	1.953	1	-7.33	3.7
	25-34	18-24	0.8	1.545	1	-3.56	5.16
		35-44	0.823	0.928	1	-1.8	3.44
		45-54	1.439	1.268	1	-2.14	5.02

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		55-65	-1.018	1.454	1	-5.13	3.09
	35-44	18-24	-0.023	1.599	1	-4.54	4.49
		25-34	-0.823	0.928	1	-3.44	1.8
		45-54	0.616	1.334	1	-3.15	4.38
		55-65	-1.841	1.512	1	-6.11	2.43
	45-54	18-24	-0.639	1.818	1	-5.78	4.5
		25-34	-1.439	1.268	1	-5.02	2.14
		35-44	-0.616	1.334	1	-4.38	3.15
		55-65	-2.457	1.742	1	-7.38	2.46
	55-65	18-24	1.818	1.953	1	-3.7	7.33
		25-34	1.018	1.454	1	-3.09	5.13
		35-44	1.841	1.512	1	-2.43	6.11
		45-54	2.457	1.742	1	-2.46	7.38
Food travel planning	18-24	25-34	0.022	0.162	1	-0.43	0.48
type		35-44	0.167	0.167	1	-0.31	0.64
		45-54	-0.016	0.19	1	-0.55	0.52
		55-65	0.036	0.204	1	-0.54	0.61
	25-34	18-24	-0.022	0.162	1	-0.48	0.43
		35-44	0.145	0.097	1	-0.13	0.42
		45-54	-0.039	0.133	1	-0.41	0.34
		55-65	0.013	0.152	1	-0.42	0.44
	35-44	18-24	-0.167	0.167	1	-0.64	0.31
		25-34	-0.145	0.097	1	-0.42	0.13
		45-54	-0.184	0.14	1	-0.58	0.21
		55-65	-0.131	0.158	1	-0.58	0.32

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	45-54	18-24	0.016	0.19	1	-0.52	0.55
		25-34	0.039	0.133	1	-0.34	0.41
		35-44	0.184	0.14	1	-0.21	0.58
		55-65	0.052	0.182	1	-0.46	0.57
	55-65	18-24	-0.036	0.204	1	-0.61	0.54
		25-34	-0.013	0.152	1	-0.44	0.42
		35-44	0.131	0.158	1	-0.32	0.58
		45-54	-0.052	0.182	1	-0.57	0.46
Japan experience	18-24	25-34	0.807	0.347	0.207	-0.17	1.79
		35-44	1.414*	0.359	0.001	0.4	2.43
		45-54	0.932	0.408	0.231	-0.22	2.09
		55-65	1.051	0.439	0.171	-0.19	2.29
	25-34	18-24	-0.807	0.347	0.207	-1.79	0.17
		35-44	.607*	0.208	0.038	0.02	1.2
		45-54	0.126	0.285	1	-0.68	0.93
		55-65	0.245	0.327	1	-0.68	1.17
	35-44	18-24	-1.414*	0.359	0.001	-2.43	-0.4
		25-34	-.607*	0.208	0.038	-1.2	-0.02
		45-54	-0.482	0.3	1	-1.33	0.37
		55-65	-0.362	0.34	1	-1.32	0.6
	45-54	18-24	-0.932	0.408	0.231	-2.09	0.22
		25-34	-0.126	0.285	1	-0.93	0.68
		35-44	0.482	0.3	1	-0.37	1.33
		55-65	0.119	0.391	1	-0.99	1.22



Appendix table 3:

Multiple comparisons: Bonferroni result on education level

Dependent Variable			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Transportation	High school or below	College or Associate degree	0.14056	0.32655	1.000	-0.7259	1.0070
		Bachelor's degree	0.28743	0.26437	1.000	-0.4140	0.9889
		Masters or Doctorate	0.32029	0.29337	1.000	-0.4581	1.0987
	College or Associate degree	High school or below	-0.14056	0.32655	1.000	-1.0070	0.7259
		Bachelor's degree	0.14688	0.22509	1.000	-0.4503	0.7441
		Masters or Doctorate	0.17974	0.25853	1.000	-0.5062	0.8657
	Bachelor's degree	High school or below	-0.28743	0.26437	1.000	-0.9889	0.4140
		College or Associate degree	-0.14688	0.22509	1.000	-0.7441	0.4503
		Masters or Doctorate	0.03286	0.17349	1.000	-0.4275	0.4932

Familiarity	Masters or Doctorate	High school or below	-0.32029	0.29337	1.000	-1.0987	0.4581
		College or Associate degree	-0.17974	0.25853	1.000	-0.8657	0.5062
		Bachelor's degree	-0.03286	0.17349	1.000	-0.4932	0.4275
	High school or below	College or Associate degree	0.71519	0.35475	0.267	-0.2261	1.6564
		Bachelor's degree	-0.58873	0.28720	0.247	-1.3508	0.1733
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.43569	0.31871	1.000	-1.2813	0.4099
	College or Associate degree	High school or below	-0.71519	0.35475	0.267	-1.6564	0.2261
		Bachelor's degree	-1.30392*	0.24452	0.000	-1.9527	-0.6551
		Masters or Doctorate	-1.15087*	0.28086	0.000	-1.8961	-0.4057
	Bachelor's degree	High school or below	0.58873	0.28720	0.247	-0.1733	1.3508
		College or Associate degree	1.30392*	0.24452	0.000	0.6551	1.9527
		Masters or Doctorate	0.15305	0.18847	1.000	-0.3470	0.6531

	Masters or Doctorate	High school or below	0.43569	0.31871	1.000	-0.4099	1.2813
		College or Associate degree	1.15087*	0.28086	0.000	0.4057	1.8961
		Bachelor's degree	-0.15305	0.18847	1.000	-0.6531	0.3470
Novelty seeking motivation	High school or below	College or Associate degree	-0.17037	0.22319	1.000	-0.7626	0.4218
		Bachelor's degree	0.20000	0.18069	1.000	-0.2794	0.6794
		Masters or Doctorate	0.10196	0.20051	1.000	-0.4301	0.6340
	College or Associate degree	High school or below	0.17037	0.22319	1.000	-0.4218	0.7626
		Bachelor's degree	0.37037	0.15384	0.099	-0.0378	0.7786
		Masters or Doctorate	0.27233	0.17670	0.745	-0.1965	0.7412
	Bachelor's degree	High school or below	-0.20000	0.18069	1.000	-0.6794	0.2794
		College or Associate degree	-0.37037	0.15384	0.099	-0.7786	0.0378
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.09804	0.11857	1.000	-0.4127	0.2166

Pre-attitude	Masters or Doctorate	High school or below	-0.10196	0.20051	1.000	-0.6340	0.4301
		College or Associate degree	-0.27233	0.17670	0.745	-0.7412	0.1965
		Bachelor's degree	0.09804	0.11857	1.000	-0.2166	0.4127
	High school or below	College or Associate degree	0.08711	0.27328	1.000	-0.6380	0.8122
		Bachelor's degree	0.08396	0.22125	1.000	-0.5031	0.6710
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.04165	0.24552	1.000	-0.6931	0.6098
	College or Associate degree	High school or below	-0.08711	0.27328	1.000	-0.8122	0.6380
		Bachelor's degree	-0.00315	0.18837	1.000	-0.5030	0.4967
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.12876	0.21636	1.000	-0.7028	0.4453
	Bachelor's degree	High school or below	-0.08396	0.22125	1.000	-0.6710	0.5031
		College or Associate degree	0.00315	0.18837	1.000	-0.4967	0.5030
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.12561	0.14519	1.000	-0.5108	0.2596

	Masters or Doctorate	High school or below	0.04165	0.24552	1.000	-0.6098	0.6931
		College or Associate degree	0.12876	0.21636	1.000	-0.4453	0.7028
		Bachelor's degree	0.12561	0.14519	1.000	-0.2596	0.5108
Being hooked	High school or below	College or Associate degree	-0.12244	0.24130	1.000	-0.7627	0.5178
		Bachelor's degree	-0.09260	0.19536	1.000	-0.6109	0.4257
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.11918	0.21679	1.000	-0.6944	0.4560
	College or Associate degree	High school or below	0.12244	0.24130	1.000	-0.5178	0.7627
		Bachelor's degree	0.02984	0.16633	1.000	-0.4115	0.4712
		Masters or Doctorate	0.00327	0.19104	1.000	-0.5036	0.5102
	Bachelor's degree	High school or below	0.09260	0.19536	1.000	-0.4257	0.6109
		College or Associate degree	-0.02984	0.16633	1.000	-0.4712	0.4115
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.02657	0.12820	1.000	-0.3667	0.3136

Mental imagery quantity	Masters or Doctorate	High school or below	0.11918	0.21679	1.000	-0.4560	0.6944
		College or Associate degree	-0.00327	0.19104	1.000	-0.5102	0.5036
		Bachelor's degree	0.02657	0.12820	1.000	-0.3136	0.3667
	High school or below	College or Associate degree	-0.30593	0.24716	1.000	-0.9617	0.3499
		Bachelor's degree	-0.06732	0.20010	1.000	-0.5982	0.4636
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.02216	0.22205	1.000	-0.6113	0.5670
	College or Associate degree	High school or below	0.30593	0.24716	1.000	-0.3499	0.9617
		Bachelor's degree	0.23861	0.17037	0.973	-0.2134	0.6906
		Masters or Doctorate	0.28377	0.19568	0.887	-0.2354	0.8030
	Bachelor's degree	High school or below	0.06732	0.20010	1.000	-0.4636	0.5982
		College or Associate degree	-0.23861	0.17037	0.973	-0.6906	0.2134
		Masters or Doctorate	0.04516	0.13131	1.000	-0.3032	0.3936

Mental imagery modality	Masters or Doctorate	High school or below	0.02216	0.22205	1.000	-0.5670	0.6113
		College or Associate degree	-0.28377	0.19568	0.887	-0.8030	0.2354
		Bachelor's degree	-0.04516	0.13131	1.000	-0.3936	0.3032
	High school or below	College or Associate degree	-0.34583	0.22402	0.741	-0.9402	0.2486
		Bachelor's degree	0.13518	0.18137	1.000	-0.3460	0.6164
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.06029	0.20126	1.000	-0.5943	0.4737
	College or Associate degree	High school or below	0.34583	0.22402	0.741	-0.2486	0.9402
		Bachelor's degree	.48101*	0.15441	0.012	0.0713	0.8907
		Masters or Doctorate	0.28554	0.17736	0.650	-0.1850	0.7561
	Bachelor's degree	High school or below	-0.13518	0.18137	1.000	-0.6164	0.3460
		College or Associate degree	-.48101*	0.15441	0.012	-0.8907	-0.0713
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.19547	0.11902	0.608	-0.5113	0.1203

Mental imagery quality	Masters or Doctorate	High school or below	0.06029	0.20126	1.000	-0.4737	0.5943
		College or Associate degree	-0.28554	0.17736	0.650	-0.7561	0.1850
		Bachelor's degree	0.19547	0.11902	0.608	-0.1203	0.5113
	High school or below	College or Associate degree	0.00467	0.34464	1.000	-0.9098	0.9191
		Bachelor's degree	0.08535	0.27902	1.000	-0.6550	0.8257
		Masters or Doctorate	0.34682	0.30963	1.000	-0.4747	1.1684
	College or Associate degree	High school or below	-0.00467	0.34464	1.000	-0.9191	0.9098
		Bachelor's degree	0.08068	0.23756	1.000	-0.5496	0.7110
		Masters or Doctorate	0.34216	0.27286	1.000	-0.3818	1.0661
	Bachelor's degree	High school or below	-0.08535	0.27902	1.000	-0.8257	0.6550
		College or Associate degree	-0.08068	0.23756	1.000	-0.7110	0.5496
		Masters or Doctorate	0.26148	0.18310	0.925	-0.2243	0.7473



Mental imagery valence	Masters or Doctorate	High school or below	-0.34682	0.30963	1.000	-1.1684	0.4747
		College or Associate degree	-0.34216	0.27286	1.000	-1.0661	0.3818
		Bachelor's degree	-0.26148	0.18310	0.925	-0.7473	0.2243
	High school or below	College or Associate degree	-0.30733	0.36538	1.000	-1.2768	0.6621
		Bachelor's degree	0.22910	0.29581	1.000	-0.5558	1.0140
		Masters or Doctorate	0.21718	0.32826	1.000	-0.6538	1.0882
	College or Associate degree	High school or below	0.30733	0.36538	1.000	-0.6621	1.2768
		Bachelor's degree	0.53643	0.25186	0.203	-0.1318	1.2047
		Masters or Doctorate	0.52451	0.28928	0.424	-0.2430	1.2921
	Bachelor's degree	High school or below	-0.22910	0.29581	1.000	-1.0140	0.5558
		College or Associate degree	-0.53643	0.25186	0.203	-1.2047	0.1318
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.01192	0.19412	1.000	-0.5270	0.5031

Post-attitude	Masters or Doctorate	High school or below	-0.21718	0.32826	1.000	-1.0882	0.6538
		College or Associate degree	-0.52451	0.28928	0.424	-1.2921	0.2430
		Bachelor's degree	0.01192	0.19412	1.000	-0.5031	0.5270
	High school or below	College or Associate degree	-0.05259	0.23233	1.000	-0.6690	0.5639
		Bachelor's degree	0.13735	0.18810	1.000	-0.3617	0.6364
		Masters or Doctorate	0.12824	0.20873	1.000	-0.4256	0.6821
	College or Associate degree	High school or below	0.05259	0.23233	1.000	-0.5639	0.6690
		Bachelor's degree	0.18994	0.16014	1.000	-0.2350	0.6148
		Masters or Doctorate	0.18083	0.18394	1.000	-0.3072	0.6689
	Bachelor's degree	High school or below	-0.13735	0.18810	1.000	-0.6364	0.3617
		College or Associate degree	-0.18994	0.16014	1.000	-0.6148	0.2350
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.00911	0.12343	1.000	-0.3366	0.3184

Behavioural involvement with food	Masters or Doctorate	High school or below	-0.12824	0.20873	1.000	-0.6821	0.4256
		College or Associate degree	-0.18083	0.18394	1.000	-0.6689	0.3072
		Bachelor's degree	0.00911	0.12343	1.000	-0.3184	0.3366
	High school or below	College or Associate degree	-0.45333	0.24964	0.421	-1.1157	0.2090
		Bachelor's degree	-0.23799	0.20211	1.000	-0.7742	0.2983
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.23275	0.22428	1.000	-0.8278	0.3623
	College or Associate degree	High school or below	0.45333	0.24964	0.421	-0.2090	1.1157
		Bachelor's degree	0.21534	0.17208	1.000	-0.2412	0.6719
		Masters or Doctorate	0.22059	0.19764	1.000	-0.3038	0.7450
	Bachelor's degree	High school or below	0.23799	0.20211	1.000	-0.2983	0.7742
		College or Associate degree	-0.21534	0.17208	1.000	-0.6719	0.2412
		Masters or Doctorate	0.00525	0.13263	1.000	-0.3467	0.3572

	Masters or Doctorate	High school or below	0.23275	0.22428	1.000	-0.3623	0.8278
		College or Associate degree	-0.22059	0.19764	1.000	-0.7450	0.3038
		Bachelor's degree	-0.00525	0.13263	1.000	-0.3572	0.3467
Intention to taste	High school or below	College or Associate degree	-0.30926	0.24801	1.000	-0.9673	0.3488
		Bachelor's degree	-0.03599	0.20079	1.000	-0.5687	0.4968
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.02059	0.22282	1.000	-0.6118	0.5706
	College or Associate degree	High school or below	0.30926	0.24801	1.000	-0.3488	0.9673
		Bachelor's degree	0.27327	0.17095	0.665	-0.1803	0.7269
		Masters or Doctorate	0.28867	0.19636	0.855	-0.2323	0.8097
	Bachelor's degree	High school or below	0.03599	0.20079	1.000	-0.4968	0.5687
		College or Associate degree	-0.27327	0.17095	0.665	-0.7269	0.1803
		Masters or Doctorate	0.01540	0.13176	1.000	-0.3342	0.3650

	Masters or Doctorate	High school or below	0.02059	0.22282	1.000	-0.5706	0.6118
		College or Associate degree	-0.28867	0.19636	0.855	-0.8097	0.2323
		Bachelor's degree	-0.01540	0.13176	1.000	-0.3650	0.3342
Visit intention	High school or below	College or Associate degree	-0.19074	0.29262	1.000	-0.9672	0.5857
		Bachelor's degree	-.64395*	0.23691	0.041	-1.2725	-0.0154
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.59216	0.26289	0.149	-1.2897	0.1054
	College or Associate degree	High school or below	0.19074	0.29262	1.000	-0.5857	0.9672
		Bachelor's degree	-0.45321	0.20170	0.152	-0.9884	0.0820
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.40142	0.23167	0.504	-1.0161	0.2133
	Bachelor's degree	High school or below	.64395*	0.23691	0.041	0.0154	1.2725
		College or Associate degree	0.45321	0.20170	0.152	-0.0820	0.9884
		Masters or Doctorate	0.05180	0.15546	1.000	-0.3607	0.4643

Captivity	Masters or Doctorate	High school or below	0.59216	0.26289	0.149	-0.1054	1.2897
		College or Associate degree	0.40142	0.23167	0.504	-0.2133	1.0161
		Bachelor's degree	-0.05180	0.15546	1.000	-0.4643	0.3607
	High school or below	College or Associate degree	0.33000	0.39450	1.000	-0.7167	1.3767
		Bachelor's degree	-0.04242	0.31939	1.000	-0.8898	0.8050
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.19451	0.35442	1.000	-1.1349	0.7459
	College or Associate degree	High school or below	-0.33000	0.39450	1.000	-1.3767	0.7167
		Bachelor's degree	-0.37242	0.27193	1.000	-1.0939	0.3491
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.52451	0.31233	0.564	-1.3532	0.3042
	Bachelor's degree	High school or below	0.04242	0.31939	1.000	-0.8050	0.8898
		College or Associate degree	0.37242	0.27193	1.000	-0.3491	1.0939
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.15209	0.20959	1.000	-0.7082	0.4040

Travel craving	Masters or Doctorate	High school or below	0.19451	0.35442	1.000	-0.7459	1.1349
		College or Associate degree	0.52451	0.31233	0.564	-0.3042	1.3532
		Bachelor's degree	0.15209	0.20959	1.000	-0.4040	0.7082
	High school or below	College or Associate degree	0.34741	0.31021	1.000	-0.4757	1.1705
		Bachelor's degree	0.11994	0.25114	1.000	-0.5464	0.7863
		Masters or Doctorate	0.15078	0.27869	1.000	-0.5887	0.8902
	College or Associate degree	High school or below	-0.34741	0.31021	1.000	-1.1705	0.4757
		Bachelor's degree	-0.22747	0.21382	1.000	-0.7948	0.3399
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.19662	0.24560	1.000	-0.8483	0.4550
	Bachelor's degree	High school or below	-0.11994	0.25114	1.000	-0.7863	0.5464
		College or Associate degree	0.22747	0.21382	1.000	-0.3399	0.7948
		Masters or Doctorate	0.03084	0.16481	1.000	-0.4064	0.4681

	Masters or Doctorate	High school or below	-0.15078	0.27869	1.000	-0.8902	0.5887
		College or Associate degree	0.19662	0.24560	1.000	-0.4550	0.8483
		Bachelor's degree	-0.03084	0.16481	1.000	-0.4681	0.4064
Style of processing	High school or below	College or Associate degree	-0.147	0.129	1.000	-0.49	0.20
		Bachelor's degree	0.002	0.105	1.000	-0.28	0.28
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.112	0.116	1.000	-0.42	0.20
	College or Associate degree	High school or below	0.147	0.129	1.000	-0.20	0.49
		Bachelor's degree	0.149	0.089	0.572	-0.09	0.39
		Masters or Doctorate	0.034	0.102	1.000	-0.24	0.31
	Bachelor's degree	High school or below	-0.002	0.105	1.000	-0.28	0.28
		College or Associate degree	-0.149	0.089	0.572	-0.39	0.09
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.115	0.069	0.575	-0.30	0.07



	Masters or Doctorate	High school or below	0.112	0.116	1.000	-0.20	0.42
		College or Associate degree	-0.034	0.102	1.000	-0.31	0.24
		Bachelor's degree	0.115	0.069	0.575	-0.07	0.30
Food neophobia level	High school or below	College or Associate degree	3.876	1.830	0.209	-0.98	8.73
		Bachelor's degree	-2.547	1.481	0.518	-6.48	1.38
		Masters or Doctorate	-2.533	1.644	0.745	-6.89	1.83
	College or Associate degree	High school or below	-3.876	1.830	0.209	-8.73	0.98
		Bachelor's degree	-6.423*	1.261	0.000	-9.77	-3.08
		Masters or Doctorate	-6.408*	1.449	0.000	-10.25	-2.56
	Bachelor's degree	High school or below	2.547	1.481	0.518	-1.38	6.48
		College or Associate degree	6.423*	1.261	0.000	3.08	9.77
		Masters or Doctorate	0.014	0.972	1.000	-2.56	2.59

	Masters or Doctorate	High school or below	2.533	1.644	0.745	-1.83	6.89
		College or Associate degree	6.408*	1.449	0.000	2.56	10.25
		Bachelor's degree	-0.014	0.972	1.000	-2.59	2.56
Food travel planning type	High school or below	College or Associate degree	-0.141	0.199	1.000	-0.67	0.39
		Bachelor's degree	0.039	0.161	1.000	-0.39	0.47
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.001	0.178	1.000	-0.47	0.47
	College or Associate degree	High school or below	0.141	0.199	1.000	-0.39	0.67
		Bachelor's degree	0.180	0.137	1.000	-0.18	0.54
		Masters or Doctorate	0.141	0.157	1.000	-0.28	0.56
	Bachelor's degree	High school or below	-0.039	0.161	1.000	-0.47	0.39
		College or Associate degree	-0.180	0.137	1.000	-0.54	0.18
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.039	0.105	1.000	-0.32	0.24

	Masters or Doctorate	High school or below	0.001	0.178	1.000	-0.47	0.47
		College or Associate degree	-0.141	0.157	1.000	-0.56	0.28
		Bachelor's degree	0.039	0.105	1.000	-0.24	0.32
Japan experience	High school or below	College or Associate degree	-0.376	0.428	1.000	-1.51	0.76
		Bachelor's degree	-0.732	0.347	0.214	-1.65	0.19
		Masters or Doctorate	-1.261*	0.385	0.007	-2.28	-0.24
	College or Associate degree	High school or below	0.376	0.428	1.000	-0.76	1.51
		Bachelor's degree	-0.356	0.295	1.000	-1.14	0.43
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.886	0.339	0.056	-1.79	0.01
	Bachelor's degree	High school or below	0.732	0.347	0.214	-0.19	1.65
		College or Associate degree	0.356	0.295	1.000	-0.43	1.14
		Masters or Doctorate	-0.530	0.228	0.123	-1.13	0.07

Masters or Doctorate	High school or below	1.261*	0.385	0.007	0.24	2.28
	College or Associate degree	0.886	0.339	0.056	-0.01	1.79
	Bachelor's degree	0.530	0.228	0.123	-0.07	1.13

\*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

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Appendix table 4:

Multiple Comparison: Bonferroni result on food origin

Dependent Variable			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Transportation	African Cuisine	North American Cuisine	-0.36941	0.36111	1.000	-1.4367	0.6979
		South American Cuisine	-0.13374	0.37140	1.000	-1.2314	0.9640
		Asian Cuisine	-0.17692	0.38915	1.000	-1.3271	0.9732
		European Cuisine	-0.31556	0.39458	1.000	-1.4818	0.8506
		Other	-1.11264	0.58599	0.876	-2.8446	0.6193
	North American Cuisine	African Cuisine	0.36941	0.36111	1.000	-0.6979	1.4367
		South American Cuisine	0.23567	0.16723	1.000	-0.2586	0.7299
		Asian Cuisine	0.19248	0.20362	1.000	-0.4093	0.7943
		European Cuisine	0.05385	0.21383	1.000	-0.5781	0.6858
		Other	-0.74323	0.48313	1.000	-2.1711	0.6847
	South American	African Cuisine	0.13374	0.37140	1.000	-0.9640	1.2314

Cuisine	North American Cuisine	-0.23567	0.16723	1.000	-0.7299	0.2586
	Asian Cuisine	-0.04318	0.22137	1.000	-0.6974	0.6111
	European Cuisine	-0.18182	0.23079	1.000	-0.8639	0.5003
Asian Cuisine	Other	-0.97890	0.49087	0.704	-2.4297	0.4719
	African Cuisine	0.17692	0.38915	1.000	-0.9732	1.3271
	North American Cuisine	-0.19248	0.20362	1.000	-0.7943	0.4093
European Cuisine	South American Cuisine	0.04318	0.22137	1.000	-0.6111	0.6974
	European Cuisine	-0.13864	0.25838	1.000	-0.9023	0.6250
	Other	-0.93571	0.50443	0.967	-2.4266	0.5552
	African Cuisine	0.31556	0.39458	1.000	-0.8506	1.4818
	North American Cuisine	-0.05385	0.21383	1.000	-0.6858	0.5781
	South American Cuisine	0.18182	0.23079	1.000	-0.5003	0.8639
	Asian Cuisine	0.13864	0.25838	1.000	-0.6250	0.9023

Familiarity	Other	Other	-0.79708	0.50864	1.000	-2.3004	0.7062
		African Cuisine	1.11264	0.58599	0.876	-0.6193	2.8446
		North American Cuisine	0.74323	0.48313	1.000	-0.6847	2.1711
		South American Cuisine	0.97890	0.49087	0.704	-0.4719	2.4297
		Asian Cuisine	0.93571	0.50443	0.967	-0.5552	2.4266
		European Cuisine	0.79708	0.50864	1.000	-0.7062	2.3004
	African Cuisine	North American Cuisine	0.62678	0.39913	1.000	-0.5529	1.8064
		South American Cuisine	-0.13753	0.41051	1.000	-1.3508	1.0758
		Asian Cuisine	0.08974	0.43012	1.000	-1.1815	1.3610
		European Cuisine	0.16550	0.43613	1.000	-1.1235	1.4545
		Other	-0.60073	0.64770	1.000	-2.5150	1.3136
		North American Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.62678	0.39913	1.000	-1.8064
	South American Cuisine		-.76431*	0.18484	0.001	-1.3106	-0.2180

	Asian Cuisine	-0.53704	0.22506	0.263	-1.2022	0.1281
	European Cuisine	-0.46128	0.23634	0.776	-1.1598	0.2372
	Other	-1.22751	0.53400	0.332	-2.8058	0.3508
South American Cuisine	African Cuisine	0.13753	0.41051	1.000	-1.0758	1.3508
	North American Cuisine	.76431*	0.18484	0.001	0.2180	1.3106
	Asian Cuisine	0.22727	0.24468	1.000	-0.4959	0.9504
	European Cuisine	0.30303	0.25509	1.000	-0.4509	1.0570
	Other	-0.46320	0.54256	1.000	-2.0668	1.1404
Asian Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.08974	0.43012	1.000	-1.3610	1.1815
	North American Cuisine	0.53704	0.22506	0.263	-0.1281	1.2022
	South American Cuisine	-0.22727	0.24468	1.000	-0.9504	0.4959
	European Cuisine	0.07576	0.28558	1.000	-0.7683	0.9198
	Other	-0.69048	0.55755	1.000	-2.3383	0.9574
European Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.16550	0.43613	1.000	-1.4545	1.1235



		North American Cuisine	0.46128	0.23634	0.776	-0.2372	1.1598
		South American Cuisine	-0.30303	0.25509	1.000	-1.0570	0.4509
		Asian Cuisine	-0.07576	0.28558	1.000	-0.9198	0.7683
	Other	Other	-0.76623	0.56219	1.000	-2.4278	0.8954
		African Cuisine	0.60073	0.64770	1.000	-1.3136	2.5150
		North American Cuisine	1.22751	0.53400	0.332	-0.3508	2.8058
		South American Cuisine	0.46320	0.54256	1.000	-1.1404	2.0668
		Asian Cuisine	0.69048	0.55755	1.000	-0.9574	2.3383
		European Cuisine	0.76623	0.56219	1.000	-0.8954	2.4278
Novelty seeking motivation	African Cuisine	North American Cuisine	0.15686	0.24653	1.000	-0.5718	0.8855
		South American Cuisine	0.44318	0.25356	1.000	-0.3062	1.1926
		Asian Cuisine	0.21333	0.26568	1.000	-0.5719	0.9986

North American Cuisine	European Cuisine	0.46970	0.26939	1.000	-0.3265	1.2659
	Other	-0.14286	0.40007	1.000	-1.3253	1.0396
	African Cuisine	-0.15686	0.24653	1.000	-0.8855	0.5718
	South American Cuisine	0.28632	0.11417	0.189	-0.0511	0.6238
	Asian Cuisine	0.05647	0.13901	1.000	-0.3544	0.4673
South American Cuisine	European Cuisine	0.31283	0.14598	0.492	-0.1186	0.7443
	Other	-0.29972	0.32984	1.000	-1.2746	0.6751
	African Cuisine	-0.44318	0.25356	1.000	-1.1926	0.3062
	North American Cuisine	-0.28632	0.11417	0.189	-0.6238	0.0511
	Asian Cuisine	-0.22985	0.15113	1.000	-0.6765	0.2168
Asian Cuisine	European Cuisine	0.02652	0.15756	1.000	-0.4392	0.4922
	Other	-0.58604	0.33513	1.000	-1.5765	0.4044
	African Cuisine	-0.21333	0.26568	1.000	-0.9986	0.5719
	North American Cuisine	-0.05647	0.13901	1.000	-0.4673	0.3544

	South American Cuisine	0.22985	0.15113	1.000	-0.2168	0.6765
	European Cuisine	0.25636	0.17640	1.000	-0.2650	0.7777
	Other	-0.35619	0.34438	1.000	-1.3740	0.6617
European Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.46970	0.26939	1.000	-1.2659	0.3265
	North American Cuisine	-0.31283	0.14598	0.492	-0.7443	0.1186
	South American Cuisine	-0.02652	0.15756	1.000	-0.4922	0.4392
	Asian Cuisine	-0.25636	0.17640	1.000	-0.7777	0.2650
	Other	-0.61255	0.34726	1.000	-1.6389	0.4138
Other	African Cuisine	0.14286	0.40007	1.000	-1.0396	1.3253
	North American Cuisine	0.29972	0.32984	1.000	-0.6751	1.2746
	South American Cuisine	0.58604	0.33513	1.000	-0.4044	1.5765
	Asian Cuisine	0.35619	0.34438	1.000	-0.6617	1.3740
	European Cuisine	0.61255	0.34726	1.000	-0.4138	1.6389

Pre-attitude	African Cuisine	North American Cuisine	-0.10156	0.30279	1.000	-0.9965	0.7934
		South American Cuisine	0.04615	0.31143	1.000	-0.8743	0.9666
		Asian Cuisine	-0.12185	0.32630	1.000	-1.0862	0.8426
		European Cuisine	-0.09930	0.33086	1.000	-1.0772	0.8786
		Other	-0.69670	0.49136	1.000	-2.1489	0.7555
	North American Cuisine	African Cuisine	0.10156	0.30279	1.000	-0.7934	0.9965
		South American Cuisine	0.14771	0.14023	1.000	-0.2667	0.5622
		Asian Cuisine	-0.02029	0.17074	1.000	-0.5249	0.4843
		European Cuisine	0.00226	0.17930	1.000	-0.5277	0.5322
		Other	-0.59514	0.40511	1.000	-1.7925	0.6022
	South American Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.04615	0.31143	1.000	-0.9666	0.8743
		North American Cuisine	-0.14771	0.14023	1.000	-0.5622	0.2667
		Asian Cuisine	-0.16800	0.18562	1.000	-0.7166	0.3806
		European Cuisine	-0.14545	0.19352	1.000	-0.7174	0.4265

	Cuisine					
Asian Cuisine	Other	-0.74286	0.41160	1.000	-1.9594	0.4737
	African Cuisine	0.12185	0.32630	1.000	-0.8426	1.0862
	North American Cuisine	0.02029	0.17074	1.000	-0.4843	0.5249
	South American Cuisine	0.16800	0.18562	1.000	-0.3806	0.7166
	European Cuisine	0.02255	0.21665	1.000	-0.6178	0.6629
	Other	-0.57486	0.42297	1.000	-1.8250	0.6753
European Cuisine	African Cuisine	0.09930	0.33086	1.000	-0.8786	1.0772
	North American Cuisine	-0.00226	0.17930	1.000	-0.5322	0.5277
	South American Cuisine	0.14545	0.19352	1.000	-0.4265	0.7174
	Asian Cuisine	-0.02255	0.21665	1.000	-0.6629	0.6178
Other	Other	-0.59740	0.42650	1.000	-1.8579	0.6631
	African Cuisine	0.69670	0.49136	1.000	-0.7555	2.1489
	North American Cuisine	0.59514	0.40511	1.000	-0.6022	1.7925

Being hooked	African Cuisine	South American Cuisine	0.74286	0.41160	1.000	-0.4737	1.9594
		Asian Cuisine	0.57486	0.42297	1.000	-0.6753	1.8250
		European Cuisine	0.59740	0.42650	1.000	-0.6631	1.8579
		North American Cuisine	0.23620	0.26778	1.000	-0.5553	1.0276
		South American Cuisine	0.12430	0.27542	1.000	-0.6897	0.9383
		Asian Cuisine	0.21785	0.28858	1.000	-0.6351	1.0708
		European Cuisine	0.21748	0.29261	1.000	-0.6473	1.0823
		Other	-0.13187	0.43455	1.000	-1.4162	1.1525
	North American Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.23620	0.26778	1.000	-1.0276	0.5553
		South American Cuisine	-0.11190	0.12401	1.000	-0.4784	0.2546
		Asian Cuisine	-0.01835	0.15100	1.000	-0.4646	0.4279
		European Cuisine	-0.01872	0.15857	1.000	-0.4874	0.4499
	South	Other	-0.36807	0.35827	1.000	-1.4270	0.6908
		African	-0.12430	0.27542	1.000	-0.9383	0.6897

American Cuisine	Cuisine					
	North American Cuisine	0.11190	0.12401	1.000	-0.2546	0.4784
	Asian Cuisine	0.09355	0.16416	1.000	-0.3916	0.5787
	European Cuisine	0.09318	0.17115	1.000	-0.4126	0.5990
	Other	-0.25617	0.36402	1.000	-1.3320	0.8197
Asian Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.21785	0.28858	1.000	-1.0708	0.6351
	North American Cuisine	0.01835	0.15100	1.000	-0.4279	0.4646
	South American Cuisine	-0.09355	0.16416	1.000	-0.5787	0.3916
	European Cuisine	-0.00036	0.19160	1.000	-0.5667	0.5659
	Other	-0.34971	0.37407	1.000	-1.4553	0.7559
European Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.21748	0.29261	1.000	-1.0823	0.6473
	North American Cuisine	0.01872	0.15857	1.000	-0.4499	0.4874
	South American Cuisine	-0.09318	0.17115	1.000	-0.5990	0.4126

		Asian Cuisine	0.00036	0.19160	1.000	-0.5659	0.5667
	Other	Other	-0.34935	0.37719	1.000	-1.4641	0.7654
		African Cuisine	0.13187	0.43455	1.000	-1.1525	1.4162
		North American Cuisine	0.36807	0.35827	1.000	-0.6908	1.4270
		South American Cuisine	0.25617	0.36402	1.000	-0.8197	1.3320
		Asian Cuisine	0.34971	0.37407	1.000	-0.7559	1.4553
		European Cuisine	0.34935	0.37719	1.000	-0.7654	1.4641
Mental imagery quantity	African Cuisine	North American Cuisine	-0.06553	0.27398	1.000	-0.8753	0.7442
		South American Cuisine	0.06031	0.28180	1.000	-0.7725	0.8932
		Asian Cuisine	0.25744	0.29526	1.000	-0.6152	1.1301
		European Cuisine	0.10956	0.29938	1.000	-0.7753	0.9944
		Other	-0.19780	0.44461	1.000	-1.5119	1.1163
	North American	African Cuisine	0.06553	0.27398	1.000	-0.7442	0.8753



Cuisine	South American Cuisine	0.12584	0.12688	1.000	-0.2492	0.5009
	Asian Cuisine	0.32296	0.15449	0.559	-0.1336	0.7796
	European Cuisine	0.17508	0.16224	1.000	-0.3044	0.6546
	Other	-0.13228	0.36657	1.000	-1.2157	0.9511
South American Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.06031	0.28180	1.000	-0.8932	0.7725
	North American Cuisine	-0.12584	0.12688	1.000	-0.5009	0.2492
	Asian Cuisine	0.19712	0.16796	1.000	-0.2993	0.6935
	European Cuisine	0.04924	0.17511	1.000	-0.4683	0.5668
	Other	-0.25812	0.37244	1.000	-1.3589	0.8427
Asian Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.25744	0.29526	1.000	-1.1301	0.6152
	North American Cuisine	-0.32296	0.15449	0.559	-0.7796	0.1336
	South American Cuisine	-0.19712	0.16796	1.000	-0.6935	0.2993
	European Cuisine	-0.14788	0.19604	1.000	-0.7273	0.4315
	Other	-0.45524	0.38273	1.000	-1.5864	0.6759

	European Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.10956	0.29938	1.000	-0.9944	0.7753
		North American Cuisine	-0.17508	0.16224	1.000	-0.6546	0.3044
		South American Cuisine	-0.04924	0.17511	1.000	-0.5668	0.4683
		Asian Cuisine	0.14788	0.19604	1.000	-0.4315	0.7273
	Other	Other	-0.30736	0.38592	1.000	-1.4480	0.8332
		African Cuisine	0.19780	0.44461	1.000	-1.1163	1.5119
		North American Cuisine	0.13228	0.36657	1.000	-0.9511	1.2157
		South American Cuisine	0.25812	0.37244	1.000	-0.8427	1.3589
		Asian Cuisine	0.45524	0.38273	1.000	-0.6759	1.5864
		European Cuisine	0.30736	0.38592	1.000	-0.8332	1.4480
Mental imagery modality	African Cuisine	North American Cuisine	-0.01131	0.25173	1.000	-0.7553	0.7327
		South American Cuisine	0.18204	0.25891	1.000	-0.5832	0.9472

	Asian Cuisine	0.17192	0.27127	1.000	-0.6298	0.9737
	European Cuisine	0.03715	0.27506	1.000	-0.7758	0.8501
	Other	-0.13736	0.40850	1.000	-1.3447	1.0700
North American Cuisine	African Cuisine	0.01131	0.25173	1.000	-0.7327	0.7553
	South American Cuisine	0.19335	0.11658	1.000	-0.1512	0.5379
	Asian Cuisine	0.18324	0.14194	1.000	-0.2363	0.6028
	European Cuisine	0.04846	0.14906	1.000	-0.3921	0.4890
	Other	-0.12605	0.33679	1.000	-1.1214	0.8693
South American Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.18204	0.25891	1.000	-0.9472	0.5832
	North American Cuisine	-0.19335	0.11658	1.000	-0.5379	0.1512
	Asian Cuisine	-0.01011	0.15431	1.000	-0.4662	0.4460
	European Cuisine	-0.14489	0.16088	1.000	-0.6204	0.3306
	Other	-0.31940	0.34219	1.000	-1.3308	0.6920
Asian Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.17192	0.27127	1.000	-0.9737	0.6298
	North American	-0.18324	0.14194	1.000	-0.6028	0.2363

	Cuisine					
European Cuisine	South American Cuisine	0.01011	0.15431	1.000	-0.4460	0.4662
	European Cuisine	-0.13477	0.18011	1.000	-0.6671	0.3976
	Other	-0.30929	0.35164	1.000	-1.3486	0.7300
	African Cuisine	-0.03715	0.27506	1.000	-0.8501	0.7758
	North American Cuisine	-0.04846	0.14906	1.000	-0.4890	0.3921
	South American Cuisine	0.14489	0.16088	1.000	-0.3306	0.6204
Other	Asian Cuisine	0.13477	0.18011	1.000	-0.3976	0.6671
	Other	-0.17451	0.35457	1.000	-1.2225	0.8734
	African Cuisine	0.13736	0.40850	1.000	-1.0700	1.3447
	North American Cuisine	0.12605	0.33679	1.000	-0.8693	1.1214
	South American Cuisine	0.31940	0.34219	1.000	-0.6920	1.3308
	Asian Cuisine	0.30929	0.35164	1.000	-0.7300	1.3486

Mental imagery quality	African Cuisine	European Cuisine	0.17451	0.35457	1.000	-0.8734	1.2225
		North American Cuisine	0.19336	0.37846	1.000	-0.9252	1.3119
		South American Cuisine	0.57710	0.38926	1.000	-0.5734	1.7276
		Asian Cuisine	0.27046	0.40785	1.000	-0.9350	1.4759
		European Cuisine	0.83846	0.41355	0.651	-0.3838	2.0607
		Other	0.16703	0.61416	1.000	-1.6481	1.9822
	North American Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.19336	0.37846	1.000	-1.3119	0.9252
		South American Cuisine	0.38373	0.17527	0.438	-0.1343	0.9018
		Asian Cuisine	0.07710	0.21340	1.000	-0.5536	0.7078
		European Cuisine	0.64510	0.22410	0.064	-0.0172	1.3074
		Other	-0.02633	0.50635	1.000	-1.5229	1.4702
		South American Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.57710	0.38926	1.000	-1.7276
	North American Cuisine		-0.38373	0.17527	0.438	-0.9018	0.1343
	Asian		-0.30664	0.23201	1.000	-0.9923	0.3791

	Cuisine					
Asian Cuisine	European Cuisine	0.26136	0.24188	1.000	-0.4535	0.9763
	Other	-0.41006	0.51447	1.000	-1.9306	1.1105
	African Cuisine	-0.27046	0.40785	1.000	-1.4759	0.9350
	North American Cuisine	-0.07710	0.21340	1.000	-0.7078	0.5536
	South American Cuisine	0.30664	0.23201	1.000	-0.3791	0.9923
	European Cuisine	0.56800	0.27079	0.550	-0.2323	1.3683
European Cuisine	Other	-0.10343	0.52868	1.000	-1.6660	1.4591
	African Cuisine	-0.83846	0.41355	0.651	-2.0607	0.3838
	North American Cuisine	-0.64510	0.22410	0.064	-1.3074	0.0172
	South American Cuisine	-0.26136	0.24188	1.000	-0.9763	0.4535
Other	Asian Cuisine	-0.56800	0.27079	0.550	-1.3683	0.2323
	Other	-0.67143	0.53308	1.000	-2.2470	0.9041
	African Cuisine	-0.16703	0.61416	1.000	-1.9822	1.6481

Mental imagery valence	African Cuisine	North American Cuisine	0.02633	0.50635	1.000	-1.4702	1.5229
		South American Cuisine	0.41006	0.51447	1.000	-1.1105	1.9306
		Asian Cuisine	0.10343	0.52868	1.000	-1.4591	1.6660
		European Cuisine	0.67143	0.53308	1.000	-0.9041	2.2470
		North American Cuisine	-0.02514	0.40070	1.000	-1.2094	1.1591
		South American Cuisine	0.38129	0.41213	1.000	-0.8368	1.5993
		Asian Cuisine	0.01138	0.43181	1.000	-1.2649	1.2876
	North American Cuisine	European Cuisine	0.80175	0.43785	1.000	-0.4923	2.0958
		Other	0.55824	0.65024	1.000	-1.3636	2.4801
		African Cuisine	0.02514	0.40070	1.000	-1.1591	1.2094
		South American Cuisine	0.40643	0.18557	0.438	-0.1420	0.9549
		Asian Cuisine	0.03652	0.22594	1.000	-0.6313	0.7043
		European	.82689*	0.23727	0.008	0.1256	1.5281

	Cuisine					
South American Cuisine	Other	0.58338	0.53610	1.000	-1.0011	2.1679
	African Cuisine	-0.38129	0.41213	1.000	-1.5993	0.8368
	North American Cuisine	-0.40643	0.18557	0.438	-0.9549	0.1420
	Asian Cuisine	-0.36991	0.24564	1.000	-1.0959	0.3561
	European Cuisine	0.42045	0.25609	1.000	-0.3364	1.1774
	Other	0.17695	0.54469	1.000	-1.4329	1.7868
Asian Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.01138	0.43181	1.000	-1.2876	1.2649
	North American Cuisine	-0.03652	0.22594	1.000	-0.7043	0.6313
	South American Cuisine	0.36991	0.24564	1.000	-0.3561	1.0959
	European Cuisine	0.79036	0.28670	0.092	-0.0570	1.6377
European Cuisine	Other	0.54686	0.55974	1.000	-1.1075	2.2012
	African Cuisine	-0.80175	0.43785	1.000	-2.0958	0.4923
	North American Cuisine	-0.82689*	0.23727	0.008	-1.5281	-0.1256



		South American Cuisine	-0.42045	0.25609	1.000	-1.1774	0.3364
		Asian Cuisine	-0.79036	0.28670	0.092	-1.6377	0.0570
	Other	Other	-0.24351	0.56441	1.000	-1.9116	1.4246
		African Cuisine	-0.55824	0.65024	1.000	-2.4801	1.3636
		North American Cuisine	-0.58338	0.53610	1.000	-2.1679	1.0011
		South American Cuisine	-0.17695	0.54469	1.000	-1.7868	1.4329
		Asian Cuisine	-0.54686	0.55974	1.000	-2.2012	1.1075
		European Cuisine	0.24351	0.56441	1.000	-1.4246	1.9116
Post-attitude	African Cuisine	North American Cuisine	-0.19038	0.25719	1.000	-0.9505	0.5698
		South American Cuisine	-0.05828	0.26453	1.000	-0.8401	0.7235
		Asian Cuisine	-0.02615	0.27716	1.000	-0.8453	0.7930
		European Cuisine	0.00233	0.28103	1.000	-0.8283	0.8329
		Other	-0.65568	0.41736	1.000	-1.8892	0.5779

North American Cuisine	African Cuisine	0.19038	0.25719	1.000	-0.5698	0.9505
	South American Cuisine	0.13211	0.11911	1.000	-0.2199	0.4841
	Asian Cuisine	0.16423	0.14502	1.000	-0.2644	0.5928
	European Cuisine	0.19271	0.15229	1.000	-0.2574	0.6428
	Other	-0.46530	0.34410	1.000	-1.4823	0.5517
South American Cuisine	African Cuisine	0.05828	0.26453	1.000	-0.7235	0.8401
	North American Cuisine	-0.13211	0.11911	1.000	-0.4841	0.2199
	Asian Cuisine	0.03212	0.15766	1.000	-0.4339	0.4981
	European Cuisine	0.06061	0.16438	1.000	-0.4252	0.5464
	Other	-0.59740	0.34962	1.000	-1.6307	0.4359
Asian Cuisine	African Cuisine	0.02615	0.27716	1.000	-0.7930	0.8453
	North American Cuisine	-0.16423	0.14502	1.000	-0.5928	0.2644
	South American Cuisine	-0.03212	0.15766	1.000	-0.4981	0.4339
	European	0.02848	0.18402	1.000	-0.5154	0.5724

		Cuisine					
Behavioural involvement with food	European Cuisine	Other	-0.62952	0.35927	1.000	-1.6914	0.4323
		African Cuisine	-0.00233	0.28103	1.000	-0.8329	0.8283
		North American Cuisine	-0.19271	0.15229	1.000	-0.6428	0.2574
		South American Cuisine	-0.06061	0.16438	1.000	-0.5464	0.4252
		Asian Cuisine	-0.02848	0.18402	1.000	-0.5724	0.5154
		Other	-0.65801	0.36227	1.000	-1.7287	0.4127
		African Cuisine	0.65568	0.41736	1.000	-0.5779	1.8892
	African Cuisine	North American Cuisine	0.46530	0.34410	1.000	-0.5517	1.4823
		South American Cuisine	0.59740	0.34962	1.000	-0.4359	1.6307
		Asian Cuisine	0.62952	0.35927	1.000	-0.4323	1.6914
		European Cuisine	0.65801	0.36227	1.000	-0.4127	1.7287
		North American Cuisine	-0.02262	0.27672	1.000	-0.8405	0.7952

	South American Cuisine	0.04021	0.28462	1.000	-0.8010	0.8814
	Asian Cuisine	0.00051	0.29821	1.000	-0.8809	0.8819
	European Cuisine	0.32051	0.30238	1.000	-0.5732	1.2142
	Other	-0.41758	0.44906	1.000	-1.7448	0.9096
North American Cuisine	African Cuisine	0.02262	0.27672	1.000	-0.7952	0.8405
	South American Cuisine	0.06283	0.12815	1.000	-0.3159	0.4416
	Asian Cuisine	0.02314	0.15604	1.000	-0.4380	0.4843
	European Cuisine	0.34314	0.16386	0.555	-0.1412	0.8274
	Other	-0.39496	0.37023	1.000	-1.4892	0.6993
South American Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.04021	0.28462	1.000	-0.8814	0.8010
	North American Cuisine	-0.06283	0.12815	1.000	-0.4416	0.3159
	Asian Cuisine	-0.03970	0.16964	1.000	-0.5411	0.4617
	European Cuisine	0.28030	0.17686	1.000	-0.2424	0.8030
	Other	-0.45779	0.37617	1.000	-1.5696	0.6540
Asian	African	-0.00051	0.29821	1.000	-0.8819	0.8809

Cuisine	Cuisine					
European Cuisine	North American Cuisine	-0.02314	0.15604	1.000	-0.4843	0.4380
	South American Cuisine	0.03970	0.16964	1.000	-0.4617	0.5411
	European Cuisine	0.32000	0.19800	1.000	-0.2652	0.9052
	Other	-0.41810	0.38656	1.000	-1.5606	0.7244
	African Cuisine	-0.32051	0.30238	1.000	-1.2142	0.5732
	North American Cuisine	-0.34314	0.16386	0.555	-0.8274	0.1412
	South American Cuisine	-0.28030	0.17686	1.000	-0.8030	0.2424
	Asian Cuisine	-0.32000	0.19800	1.000	-0.9052	0.2652
	Other	-0.73810	0.38978	0.887	-1.8901	0.4139
	African Cuisine	0.41758	0.44906	1.000	-0.9096	1.7448
Other	North American Cuisine	0.39496	0.37023	1.000	-0.6993	1.4892
	South American Cuisine	0.45779	0.37617	1.000	-0.6540	1.5696

Intention to taste	African Cuisine	Asian Cuisine	0.41810	0.38656	1.000	-0.7244	1.5606
		European Cuisine	0.73810	0.38978	0.887	-0.4139	1.8901
		North American Cuisine	-0.04910	0.27543	1.000	-0.8632	0.7650
		South American Cuisine	0.08129	0.28329	1.000	-0.7560	0.9186
		Asian Cuisine	0.21538	0.29682	1.000	-0.6619	1.0927
		European Cuisine	0.00932	0.30097	1.000	-0.8802	0.8989
	North American Cuisine	Other	-0.33700	0.44697	1.000	-1.6580	0.9840
		African Cuisine	0.04910	0.27543	1.000	-0.7650	0.8632
		South American Cuisine	0.13040	0.12756	1.000	-0.2466	0.5074
		Asian Cuisine	0.26449	0.15531	1.000	-0.1945	0.7235
		European Cuisine	0.05843	0.16310	1.000	-0.4236	0.5405
		Other	-0.28789	0.36851	1.000	-1.3770	0.8012
	South American Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.08129	0.28329	1.000	-0.9186	0.7560
		North American Cuisine	-0.13040	0.12756	1.000	-0.5074	0.2466

	Cuisine					
Asian Cuisine	Asian Cuisine	0.13409	0.16885	1.000	-0.3649	0.6331
	European Cuisine	-0.07197	0.17604	1.000	-0.5923	0.4483
	Other	-0.41829	0.37442	1.000	-1.5249	0.6883
	African Cuisine	-0.21538	0.29682	1.000	-1.0927	0.6619
	North American Cuisine	-0.26449	0.15531	1.000	-0.7235	0.1945
	South American Cuisine	-0.13409	0.16885	1.000	-0.6331	0.3649
	European Cuisine	-0.20606	0.19708	1.000	-0.7885	0.3764
	Other	-0.55238	0.38476	1.000	-1.6895	0.5848
	African Cuisine	-0.00932	0.30097	1.000	-0.8989	0.8802
	North American Cuisine	-0.05843	0.16310	1.000	-0.5405	0.4236
European Cuisine	South American Cuisine	0.07197	0.17604	1.000	-0.4483	0.5923
	Asian Cuisine	0.20606	0.19708	1.000	-0.3764	0.7885
	Other	-0.34632	0.38796	1.000	-1.4930	0.8003

Visit intention	Other	African Cuisine	0.33700	0.44697	1.000	-0.9840	1.6580
		North American Cuisine	0.28789	0.36851	1.000	-0.8012	1.3770
		South American Cuisine	0.41829	0.37442	1.000	-0.6883	1.5249
		Asian Cuisine	0.55238	0.38476	1.000	-0.5848	1.6895
		European Cuisine	0.34632	0.38796	1.000	-0.8003	1.4930
	African Cuisine	North American Cuisine	0.15636	0.32725	1.000	-0.8109	1.1236
		South American Cuisine	-0.08042	0.33659	1.000	-1.0752	0.9144
		Asian Cuisine	-0.06769	0.35266	1.000	-1.1100	0.9746
		European Cuisine	-0.03497	0.35759	1.000	-1.0918	1.0219
		Other	-0.87912	0.53106	1.000	-2.4487	0.6904
	North American Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.15636	0.32725	1.000	-1.1236	0.8109
		South American Cuisine	-0.23678	0.15155	1.000	-0.6847	0.2111
		Asian	-0.22405	0.18453	1.000	-0.7694	0.3213



	Cuisine					
South American Cuisine	European Cuisine	-0.19133	0.19378	1.000	-0.7641	0.3814
	Other	-1.03548	0.43784	0.279	-2.3295	0.2586
	African Cuisine	0.08042	0.33659	1.000	-0.9144	1.0752
	North American Cuisine	0.23678	0.15155	1.000	-0.2111	0.6847
	Asian Cuisine	0.01273	0.20061	1.000	-0.5802	0.6057
Asian Cuisine	European Cuisine	0.04545	0.20915	1.000	-0.5727	0.6636
	Other	-0.79870	0.44486	1.000	-2.1135	0.5161
	African Cuisine	0.06769	0.35266	1.000	-0.9746	1.1100
	North American Cuisine	0.22405	0.18453	1.000	-0.3213	0.7694
	South American Cuisine	-0.01273	0.20061	1.000	-0.6057	0.5802
European Cuisine	European Cuisine	0.03273	0.23415	1.000	-0.6593	0.7248
	Other	-0.81143	0.45714	1.000	-2.1625	0.5397
	African Cuisine	0.03497	0.35759	1.000	-1.0219	1.0918

		North American Cuisine	0.19133	0.19378	1.000	-0.3814	0.7641
		South American Cuisine	-0.04545	0.20915	1.000	-0.6636	0.5727
		Asian Cuisine	-0.03273	0.23415	1.000	-0.7248	0.6593
	Other	Other	-0.84416	0.46095	1.000	-2.2065	0.5182
		African Cuisine	0.87912	0.53106	1.000	-0.6904	2.4487
		North American Cuisine	1.03548	0.43784	0.279	-0.2586	2.3295
		South American Cuisine	0.79870	0.44486	1.000	-0.5161	2.1135
		Asian Cuisine	0.81143	0.45714	1.000	-0.5397	2.1625
		European Cuisine	0.84416	0.46095	1.000	-0.5182	2.2065
Captivity	African Cuisine	North American Cuisine	0.61086	0.43675	1.000	-0.6800	1.9017
		South American Cuisine	0.20221	0.44921	1.000	-1.1254	1.5299
		Asian Cuisine	0.40615	0.47067	1.000	-0.9849	1.7972

	European Cuisine	0.27040	0.47724	1.000	-1.1401	1.6809
	Other	-0.10623	0.70875	1.000	-2.2010	1.9885
North American Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.61086	0.43675	1.000	-1.9017	0.6800
	South American Cuisine	-0.40865	0.20227	0.662	-1.0064	0.1892
	Asian Cuisine	-0.20471	0.24627	1.000	-0.9326	0.5232
	European Cuisine	-0.34046	0.25862	1.000	-1.1048	0.4239
	Other	-0.71709	0.58434	1.000	-2.4441	1.0100
South American Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.20221	0.44921	1.000	-1.5299	1.1254
	North American Cuisine	0.40865	0.20227	0.662	-0.1892	1.0064
	Asian Cuisine	0.20394	0.26774	1.000	-0.5874	0.9953
	European Cuisine	0.06818	0.27914	1.000	-0.7568	0.8932
	Other	-0.30844	0.59371	1.000	-2.0632	1.4463
Asian Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.40615	0.47067	1.000	-1.7972	0.9849
	North American Cuisine	0.20471	0.24627	1.000	-0.5232	0.9326

	South American Cuisine	-0.20394	0.26774	1.000	-0.9953	0.5874
	European Cuisine	-0.13576	0.31250	1.000	-1.0594	0.7879
	Other	-0.51238	0.61010	1.000	-2.3156	1.2908
European Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.27040	0.47724	1.000	-1.6809	1.1401
	North American Cuisine	0.34046	0.25862	1.000	-0.4239	1.1048
	South American Cuisine	-0.06818	0.27914	1.000	-0.8932	0.7568
	Asian Cuisine	0.13576	0.31250	1.000	-0.7879	1.0594
	Other	-0.37662	0.61519	1.000	-2.1948	1.4416
Other	African Cuisine	0.10623	0.70875	1.000	-1.9885	2.2010
	North American Cuisine	0.71709	0.58434	1.000	-1.0100	2.4441
	South American Cuisine	0.30844	0.59371	1.000	-1.4463	2.0632
	Asian Cuisine	0.51238	0.61010	1.000	-1.2908	2.3156
	European Cuisine	0.37662	0.61519	1.000	-1.4416	2.1948

Travel craving	African Cuisine	North American Cuisine	0.13508	0.34472	1.000	-0.8838	1.1539
		South American Cuisine	0.01894	0.35455	1.000	-1.0289	1.0668
		Asian Cuisine	-0.11333	0.37149	1.000	-1.2113	0.9846
		European Cuisine	-0.07576	0.37668	1.000	-1.1890	1.0375
		Other	-0.19048	0.55940	1.000	-1.8438	1.4629
	North American Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.13508	0.34472	1.000	-1.1539	0.8838
		South American Cuisine	-0.11614	0.15964	1.000	-0.5880	0.3557
		Asian Cuisine	-0.24841	0.19438	1.000	-0.8229	0.3261
		European Cuisine	-0.21083	0.20412	1.000	-0.8141	0.3925
		Other	-0.32555	0.46121	1.000	-1.6887	1.0376
	South American Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.01894	0.35455	1.000	-1.0668	1.0289
		North American Cuisine	0.11614	0.15964	1.000	-0.3557	0.5880
		Asian Cuisine	-0.13227	0.21132	1.000	-0.7568	0.4923
		European Cuisine	-0.09470	0.22032	1.000	-0.7459	0.5565

	Cuisine					
Asian Cuisine	Other	-0.20942	0.46860	1.000	-1.5944	1.1755
	African Cuisine	0.11333	0.37149	1.000	-0.9846	1.2113
	North American Cuisine	0.24841	0.19438	1.000	-0.3261	0.8229
	South American Cuisine	0.13227	0.21132	1.000	-0.4923	0.7568
	European Cuisine	0.03758	0.24665	1.000	-0.6914	0.7666
European Cuisine	Other	-0.07714	0.48154	1.000	-1.5004	1.3461
	African Cuisine	0.07576	0.37668	1.000	-1.0375	1.1890
	North American Cuisine	0.21083	0.20412	1.000	-0.3925	0.8141
	South American Cuisine	0.09470	0.22032	1.000	-0.5565	0.7459
	Asian Cuisine	-0.03758	0.24665	1.000	-0.7666	0.6914
Other	Other	-0.11472	0.48556	1.000	-1.5498	1.3204
	African Cuisine	0.19048	0.55940	1.000	-1.4629	1.8438
	North American Cuisine	0.32555	0.46121	1.000	-1.0376	1.6887

Style of processing	African Cuisine	South American Cuisine	0.20942	0.46860	1.000	-1.1755	1.5944
		Asian Cuisine	0.07714	0.48154	1.000	-1.3461	1.5004
		European Cuisine	0.11472	0.48556	1.000	-1.3204	1.5498
		North American Cuisine	-0.127	0.143	1.000	-0.55	0.30
		South American Cuisine	-0.084	0.147	1.000	-0.52	0.35
		Asian Cuisine	-0.178	0.154	1.000	-0.63	0.28
		European Cuisine	0.030	0.157	1.000	-0.43	0.49
		Other	0.176	0.233	1.000	-0.51	0.86
	North American Cuisine	African Cuisine	0.127	0.143	1.000	-0.30	0.55
		South American Cuisine	0.043	0.066	1.000	-0.15	0.24
		Asian Cuisine	-0.052	0.081	1.000	-0.29	0.19
		European Cuisine	0.156	0.085	0.991	-0.09	0.41
	South	Other	0.303	0.192	1.000	-0.26	0.87
		African	0.084	0.147	1.000	-0.35	0.52

American Cuisine	Cuisine					
	North American Cuisine	-0.043	0.066	1.000	-0.24	0.15
	Asian Cuisine	-0.095	0.088	1.000	-0.35	0.17
	European Cuisine	0.114	0.092	1.000	-0.16	0.38
	Other	0.260	0.195	1.000	-0.32	0.84
Asian Cuisine	African Cuisine	0.178	0.154	1.000	-0.28	0.63
	North American Cuisine	0.052	0.081	1.000	-0.19	0.29
	South American Cuisine	0.095	0.088	1.000	-0.17	0.35
	European Cuisine	0.208	0.103	0.646	-0.09	0.51
	Other	0.354	0.200	1.000	-0.24	0.95
European Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.030	0.157	1.000	-0.49	0.43
	North American Cuisine	-0.156	0.085	0.991	-0.41	0.09
	South American Cuisine	-0.114	0.092	1.000	-0.38	0.16



		Asian Cuisine	-0.208	0.103	0.646	-0.51	0.09
	Other	Other	0.146	0.202	1.000	-0.45	0.74
		African Cuisine	-0.176	0.233	1.000	-0.86	0.51
		North American Cuisine	-0.303	0.192	1.000	-0.87	0.26
		South American Cuisine	-0.260	0.195	1.000	-0.84	0.32
		Asian Cuisine	-0.354	0.200	1.000	-0.95	0.24
		European Cuisine	-0.146	0.202	1.000	-0.74	0.45
Food neophobia level	African Cuisine	North American Cuisine	3.056	2.058	1.000	-3.03	9.14
		South American Cuisine	-1.152	2.117	1.000	-7.41	5.10
		Asian Cuisine	1.242	2.218	1.000	-5.31	7.80
		European Cuisine	1.598	2.249	1.000	-5.05	8.25
		Other	1.176	3.340	1.000	-8.70	11.05
	North American	African Cuisine	-3.056	2.058	1.000	-9.14	3.03

Cuisine	South American Cuisine	-4.208*	0.953	0.000	-7.03	-1.39
	Asian Cuisine	-1.815	1.161	1.000	-5.25	1.62
	European Cuisine	-1.458	1.219	1.000	-5.06	2.14
	Other	-1.880	2.754	1.000	-10.02	6.26
	South African Cuisine	1.152	2.117	1.000	-5.10	7.41
South American Cuisine	North American Cuisine	4.208*	0.953	0.000	1.39	7.03
	Asian Cuisine	2.394	1.262	0.880	-1.34	6.12
	European Cuisine	2.750	1.316	0.559	-1.14	6.64
	Other	2.328	2.798	1.000	-5.94	10.60
	African Cuisine	-1.242	2.218	1.000	-7.80	5.31
Asian Cuisine	North American Cuisine	1.815	1.161	1.000	-1.62	5.25
	South American Cuisine	-2.394	1.262	0.880	-6.12	1.34
	European Cuisine	0.356	1.473	1.000	-4.00	4.71
	Other	-0.066	2.875	1.000	-8.56	8.43

	European Cuisine	African Cuisine	-1.598	2.249	1.000	-8.25	5.05
		North American Cuisine	1.458	1.219	1.000	-2.14	5.06
		South American Cuisine	-2.750	1.316	0.559	-6.64	1.14
		Asian Cuisine	-0.356	1.473	1.000	-4.71	4.00
	Other	Other	-0.422	2.899	1.000	-8.99	8.15
		African Cuisine	-1.176	3.340	1.000	-11.05	8.70
		North American Cuisine	1.880	2.754	1.000	-6.26	10.02
		South American Cuisine	-2.328	2.798	1.000	-10.60	5.94
		Asian Cuisine	0.066	2.875	1.000	-8.43	8.56
		European Cuisine	0.422	2.899	1.000	-8.15	8.99
Food travel planning type	African Cuisine	North American Cuisine	-0.017	0.211	1.000	-0.64	0.61
		South American Cuisine	0.517	0.217	0.267	-0.12	1.16

	Asian Cuisine	0.086	0.227	1.000	-0.59	0.76
	European Cuisine	0.096	0.230	1.000	-0.59	0.78
	Other	-0.440	0.342	1.000	-1.45	0.57
North American Cuisine	African Cuisine	0.017	0.211	1.000	-0.61	0.64
	South American Cuisine	.533*	0.098	0.000	0.24	0.82
	Asian Cuisine	0.103	0.119	1.000	-0.25	0.45
	European Cuisine	0.113	0.125	1.000	-0.26	0.48
	Other	-0.423	0.282	1.000	-1.26	0.41
South American Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.517	0.217	0.267	-1.16	0.12
	North American Cuisine	-.533*	0.098	0.000	-0.82	-0.24
	Asian Cuisine	-.430*	0.129	0.014	-0.81	-0.05
	European Cuisine	-.420*	0.135	0.029	-0.82	-0.02
	Other	-.956*	0.287	0.014	-1.80	-0.11
Asian Cuisine	African Cuisine	-0.086	0.227	1.000	-0.76	0.59
	North American	-0.103	0.119	1.000	-0.45	0.25

	Cuisine					
European Cuisine	South American Cuisine	.430*	0.129	0.014	0.05	0.81
	European Cuisine	0.010	0.151	1.000	-0.44	0.46
	Other	-0.526	0.295	1.000	-1.40	0.35
	African Cuisine	-0.096	0.230	1.000	-0.78	0.59
	North American Cuisine	-0.113	0.125	1.000	-0.48	0.26
	South American Cuisine	.420*	0.135	0.029	0.02	0.82
Other	Asian Cuisine	-0.010	0.151	1.000	-0.46	0.44
	Other	-0.536	0.297	1.000	-1.41	0.34
	African Cuisine	0.440	0.342	1.000	-0.57	1.45
	North American Cuisine	0.423	0.282	1.000	-0.41	1.26
	South American Cuisine	.956*	0.287	0.014	0.11	1.80
	Asian Cuisine	0.526	0.295	1.000	-0.35	1.40

Japan experience	African Cuisine	European Cuisine	0.536	0.297	1.000	-0.34	1.41
		North American Cuisine	-0.898	0.478	0.918	-2.31	0.52
		South American Cuisine	-0.800	0.492	1.000	-2.25	0.65
		Asian Cuisine	-1.478	0.515	0.065	-3.00	0.04
		European Cuisine	-1.198	0.522	0.337	-2.74	0.35
		Other	-1.110	0.776	1.000	-3.40	1.18
	North American Cuisine	African Cuisine	0.898	0.478	0.918	-0.52	2.31
		South American Cuisine	0.098	0.221	1.000	-0.56	0.75
		Asian Cuisine	-0.581	0.270	0.480	-1.38	0.22
		European Cuisine	-0.300	0.283	1.000	-1.14	0.54
		Other	-0.212	0.640	1.000	-2.10	1.68
		South American Cuisine	African Cuisine	0.800	0.492	1.000	-0.65
	North American Cuisine		-0.098	0.221	1.000	-0.75	0.56
	Asian Cuisine		-0.679	0.293	0.318	-1.54	0.19

	Cuisine					
Asian Cuisine	European Cuisine	-0.398	0.306	1.000	-1.30	0.51
	Other	-0.310	0.650	1.000	-2.23	1.61
	African Cuisine	1.478	0.515	0.065	-0.04	3.00
	North American Cuisine	0.581	0.270	0.480	-0.22	1.38
	South American Cuisine	0.679	0.293	0.318	-0.19	1.54
	European Cuisine	0.281	0.342	1.000	-0.73	1.29
	Other	0.369	0.668	1.000	-1.61	2.34
European Cuisine	African Cuisine	1.198	0.522	0.337	-0.35	2.74
	North American Cuisine	0.300	0.283	1.000	-0.54	1.14
	South American Cuisine	0.398	0.306	1.000	-0.51	1.30
	Asian Cuisine	-0.281	0.342	1.000	-1.29	0.73
Other	Other	0.088	0.673	1.000	-1.90	2.08
	African Cuisine	1.110	0.776	1.000	-1.18	3.40

North American Cuisine	0.212	0.640	1.000	-1.68	2.10
South American Cuisine	0.310	0.650	1.000	-1.61	2.23
Asian Cuisine	-0.369	0.668	1.000	-2.34	1.61
European Cuisine	-0.088	0.673	1.000	-2.08	1.90

\*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

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## Appendix: Questionnaire

### **Participant information:**

Thank you for showing interest in this research. You are invited to participate in this research as you are 18 to 65 and have social media experience, especially travel vlogs for travel ideas and planning.

This research examines the emotional and behavioural influences of food travel vlog narration language. It will take 10 minutes to complete the survey. Before deciding whether to participate in this study, you need to understand why the research is being conducted and what will be involved. Please take a minute to read the following information carefully.

We need participants from different backgrounds to evaluate the extracted food travel vlog script without bias and tell us your emotional responses and behavioural intentions based on the script. Your answers are valuable to us, and meanwhile, we hope you find this survey interesting.

You are free to decide whether to leave the study before completion. You will be invited to read one food travel vlog script from a real vlogger. Please imagine as much as possible based on the words. The result of this study could be published in a research paper, dissertation, or online blog. All the information collected will be kept confidential and only for research purposes. The data collected and processed will be anonymised and will not contain any personally identifiable information.

Yes

1. What is your age?

18- 24

25-34

35-44

45-54

55-65

2. Which gender identity do you most identify with?

Female

Male

3. What is your education level? What is your education level (please circle on the most appropriate number)

High school or below    College    Undergraduate    Postgraduate or higher

4. What is(are) the main cuisine type(s) that you are brought up with?

African Cuisine

North American Cuisine

South American Cuisine

Asian Cuisine

European Cuisine

Other\_\_\_\_\_

5. Here are some statements on your information processing style. Choose the statement that suits you the best.

Statement	Always False	Usually False	Usually True	Always True
1. There are some special times in my life that I like to relive by mentally “picturing” just how everything looked. (R)				
2. I like to daydream. (R)				
3. I find it helps to think in terms of mental pictures when doing many things. (R)				
4. When I have forgotten something, I frequently try to form a mental “picture” to remember it. (R)				
5. My thinking often consists of mental “pictures” or images. (R)				
6. I enjoy doing work that requires the use of words.				
7. I enjoy learning new words.				
8. I like to think of synonyms for words				
9. I like learning new words.				
10. I spend very little time attempting to increase my vocabulary. (R)				

6. Transportation scale

I could picture myself in the scene of the events described in the narrative.	Not at all 1	2	3	4	5	6	very much 7
I was mentally involved in the narrative while reading it.							
I wanted to learn how the							

narrative ended.							
The narrative affected me emotionally.							

7. How open are you to new food experience? (Strongly agree-strongly agree, 1-7 Likert scale)

FNS-A	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. New food eating experiences are important for me. (R)							
2. I am afraid to eat things I have never had before.							
3. I don't trust new foods.							
4. New foods mean an adventure for me. (R)							
5. I like to challenge myself by trying new foods. (R)							
6. It is exciting to try new foods when travelling. (R)							
7. Foods from other cultures look too weird to eat.							
8. Foods that look strange scare me.							

8. Think about your prior travels where you participated in a food-related activity. Please tick the one describes you the best.

For most of those trips, the availability of food-related activities was a factor in choosing between potential destinations.

For most of those trips, I researched food-related activities prior to travel, but they were not a factor in choosing between destinations.

For most of those trips, I did not research activities prior to travel, but participated after arriving simply because they were available.

I have never participated in any food-related activities.

9. Are you a novelty seeker?

9a: I want to experience customs, and cultures different from those in my own environment when traveling.

Strongly Disagree

Moderately Disagree

Slightly Disagree

Neutral

Slightly Agree

Moderately Agree

Strongly Agree

9b: I want to experience new and different food when traveling.

Strongly Disagree

Moderately Disagree

Slightly Disagree

Neutral

Slightly Agree

Moderately Agree

Strongly Agree

9c: I enjoy the change of environment which allows me to experience something new.

Strongly Disagree

Moderately Disagree

- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

10. What is Japan to you?

- A destination that I will never visit nor interested.
- A destination that I will never visit physically but feel curious.
- A destination I have never visited but dreamt of.
- A destination for casual hedonic watching.
- A destination I am currently planning and try to get some inspirations.
- A destination visited and look for new ideas for revisit.
- A destination visited and I want to reminisce

11. How familiar are you with Japanese food?

11 a: I am very familiar with this food destination

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree

- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

11b. Japanese food is what I usually eat.

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

11.c. Japanese food is like the food I ate when I was a child.

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

12. The previous experience of Japanese cuisine to me is

Bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Good
Unfavourable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Favourable
Dislike	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Like

**The following script is transcribed from a multimedia food vlog. Based on the script, please try to imagine the food travel experience as much as possible.**

*We are heading to a famous ramen restaurant in Japan.*

*Oh look, they have these private ramen booths. Tick your preference, and hand it over. You can order extra noodles here and extra toppings and extra side dishes. I'm going to go ahead and check that right now before I eat because that is happening. Extra pork, egg, yes, please. Premium sliced pork, yes, please! I feel like I'm in a secret society where some random mysterious person just handed me ramen from a window. I mean because I don't see their face. All I can see from the window is a 90-degree bow.*

*I am so excited. Let's try this soup. That is delicious, believe it or not. I can taste how incredibly rich and porky this broth is. it is loaded with flavour. let's try my firm noodles. Oh, that's incredible. Nothing I've ever had in the US can even come close to this as I asked for. The noodles are very firm. They're able to grab the soup so well that you can taste how fresh these noodles are. Look at it. You can see all the red chilli flakes. You see that I mean each strand of noodles I mean, it's holding on to the broth for dear life. The pork bone has been boiled on high heat for a few days*



*allowing the marrow to seep out the bones and break down to an almost milky state giving the broth a cloudy quality like a dream. Here we go, this slurp off [Slurping Sound] Mmm...*

*It is delicious. The broth is stunning, but these noodles are al dente. This will be the perfect thing to have especially if it's cold outside where there's like a huge winter storm because really this doesn't just warm your body up. It warms your soul up. This is by far the best ramen broth. I've ever had. The broth is rich. It's porky. It's slightly gelatinous. That is some good rich broth. I wish they sold this as a canned soup. I'm so happy should I get a second bowl. Now, this is perfect. You guys are ready to see something beautiful. it's quite garlicky, but we can add another clove in there, look at that, wow! And you can just mix all that garlic in, and we're going to taste Cha-shiu. I do feel like ramen without an egg is just incomplete. It is a glorious milky egg sunset. Look how orange and glorious that runny yolk is. This thing is so smooth. If you ever want your taste buds to witness a glorious sunset, put this in your mouth. I'm just so overwhelmed with emotions right now. Oh, this is a life-changing bowl right here. Add some sesame to that pork bone marrow and get some nuttiness. Life-changing! That's the joy of Japan.*

13.

13a. This script really intrigued me

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

13b. If I had seen this script at home, I'd have watched the whole thing.

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

13c. The script reminded me of experiences or feelings I've had in my own life

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

13d. I felt as though I was right there in the situation experiencing the same thing

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree

- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

13e I would like to have an experience like the one shown in the script.

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

14a. While I read the script, many images came to my mind.

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

14b. While I read the script, I experienced various images in my mind

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral

- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

14c. While I read the script, a lot of images came to my mind

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

15a. It was easy for me to imagine the food presentation

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

15b. It was easy for me to imagine the food texture

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree

Moderately Agree

Strongly Agree

15c. It was easy for me to imagine the food smell

Strongly Disagree

Moderately Disagree

Slightly Disagree

Neutral

Slightly Agree

Moderately Agree

Strongly Agree

15d. It was easy for me to imagine the food flavour

Strongly Disagree

Moderately Disagree

Slightly Disagree

Neutral

Slightly Agree

Moderately Agree

Strongly Agree

16. Overall, the images that came to mind while I was reading were

(This is a bipolar question. e.g. If you think the images are more "dull" than "sharp",

please choose the number closer to "dull", vice versa)

Dull	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Sharp
Weak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Intense
Unclear	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Clear
Vague	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Vivid
Fuzzy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Well-defined

17. Overall, the experience is

(This is a bipolar question. e.g. If you think the images are more "bad" than "good", please choose the number closer to "bad", vice versa)

bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	good
Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant
awful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	nice
Not likeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	likeable
Not positive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	positive

18a. Based on the script I read, the food destination is very attractive.

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

18b. Based on the script I read, I would love to visit this destination if given the opportunity.

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

18c. Based on the script I read, I am very confident that the destination will deliver the promised experience.

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

19a. I'd like to watch more food travel vlog concerning this destination after reading this script.

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral

- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

19b. I'd like to search more information on this destination after reading this script

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

19c. I became interested in the kinds of this destination foods after reading this script.

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

20a. After reading the script, I would like to taste Ramen/Japanese food within 6 months.

- Strongly Disagree



- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

20b. After reading the script, I will taste Ramen/Japanese food suggested by the script in the future

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

20c. After reading the script, I think I will taste Ramen/Japanese food within the next year.

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

21a. In the future I intend to visit Japan.

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree

- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

21b. I would choose Japan for my next holidays

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

21c. I would prefer to visit Japan as the food destinations as opposed to other similar destinations

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

22. How captive did you feel by the lockdown situation during the Pandemic

Statement

Not at

Extrem

all	2	3	4	5	6	ely
1						7

22a: Feel trapped  
 22b: Wish you could  
 just run away  
 22c: Wish you could  
 break out the lockdown  
 situation

23. During the lockdown time,

Never							Nearly
1	2	3	4	5	6		all the
							time
							7

23a: How often did  
 you think about travel

Not at							Extrem
all	2	3	4	5	6		ely
1							7

23b: At its most  
 severe point, how  
 strong was your  
 craving for travel

Not	2	3	4	5	6	Cravin
craving						g very
at all						much

23c: Please rate your  
overall travel craving

24. If I had read this during lockdown, I would have craved for this food or the destination even more.

- Strongly Disagree
- Moderately Disagree
- Slightly Disagree
- Neutral
- Slightly Agree
- Moderately Agree
- Strongly Agree

25. After this survey, do you feel a bit hungry?

- Yes
- No

26. Please write down any comments you might have regarding this survey (if you had difficulty understanding the questions, any issues related to the content or the format of the study, etc.).

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Thank you for completing the questionnaire.