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The Effect of Travel Lifestyle, Cultural Sensitivity and Food Neophobia on Local Food Preference[1,2]

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Abstract

It is seen that tourists tend to prefer local food. In this study it is aimed to understand local food preference of tourists. Accordingly, the effect of travel lifestyle, cultural sensitivity, and food neophobia on the local food preference was researched. The data were collected through a questionnaire. The questionnaire, according to the quota sampling determined based on nationality, was applied face-to-face to foreign tourists visiting the Istanbul Sultanahmet District between 1 June and 5 July 2018, and a total of 554 questionnaires were obtained. In the analysis, factor, regression, one sample t-test, and variance analysis were used. While food neophobia negatively affects local food preference, it was determined that travel lifestyle and cultural sensitivity do not affect the local food preference. It should be noted that the choice of food is not characterized by nationality and might be related to the psychology of the tourist.

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[2] The second author has been added due to his contributions.

INTRODUCTION

Tourists can request for foods that they perceive as "traditional" and "local" as they seek authenticity (Farrel & Russell, 2011, p. 103). It is understood from the studies that the tourists show a tendency towards consumption of local food (Proust et al., 2009; Asperin et al., 2013; Mgonja et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2016; Ma et al., 2017; Seo et al., 2017). When the researches about the food consumption of the tourists are examined; it is seen that tourists generally show three approaches; (i) consuming their cuisine, (ii) consuming their local food of the destination, and (iii) not making any preference for own cuisine or consuming local food (Telfer & Wall, 2000, p. 440; Quan & Wang, 2004, p. 301; Chang et al., 2010, p. 1002-1003; Mak et al., 2013, p.336).

In this research, The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) was apllied. According to the TPB (Ajzen, 1991, 2015), a tourist who has a positive attitude towards an international cuisine may show more tendency to consume the products of this cuisine. On the contrary, a tourist with a negative attitude avoids the tendency to consume. Many studies supporting this theory (Schull & Crompton, 1983; Fischler, 1988, p. 278; Pliner & Hobden, 1992; Pelchat & Pliner, 1995, p. 153; Pizam & Sussman, 1995; Pizam & Jeong, 1996; Pizam & Reichel, 1996; Pizam et al., 1997; Bell & Marshall, 2003, p. 237; Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Chang et al., 2010; Horng et al., 2013: 202 Chang, Kivela & Mak, 2011; Lee et al., 2014; Özdemir, 2014; Lee et al., 2015; Ji et al., 2016, p. 391; Mak et al., 2017) creates a prediction that the travel lifestyle and cultural sensitivity of the tourists positively affect the local food preference, and food neophobia negatively.

It is stated that there is a need to understand the food consumption behavior of the tourists both theoretically and practically, and the researchers emphasize the need for the studies on this topic (Chone & Aveli, 2004, p. 756; Ryu & Jang, 2006, p. 508; Kim et al., 2009, p. 423; Chang et al., 2010, p. 990; Chang et al., 2011, p. 308; Mak et al., 2017, p. 1) determines the importance of the study for the literature. The aim of study is understanding local food preference of tourists. Based on this point, the local food preference of the tourists coming to Istanbul is researched. However, it is also possible to come across socio-demographic factors affecting the food consumption of tourists (Kim et al., 2009; Chang et al., 2010), motivational factors (Kim et al., 2009; Kim & Eves, 2012; Kim et al. , 2013; Mak et al., 2013) and many studies on personal attitudes towards food (Chang et al., 2010; Mak et al., 2012; Mak et al., 2013; Mak et al., 2017) in the related literature. Within the scope of the study, the travel lifestyle, which may affect the local food preference, and which did not attract much attention in the related literature before, cultural sensitivity, and the food neophobia that have attracted more attention, were discussed.

Literature Review

Travel Lifestyle

Travel lifestyle is defined as a lifestyle formed by the information, beliefs, opinions, values that people develop to meet their needs through tourism (Rızaoğlu, 2012, p.220). It is stated that during their travel, tourists will adopt specific behavioral patterns that reflect their travel motifs and cultural values and represent their lifestyle. Lifestyle features affect approaches to different holiday experiences (Iversen et al., 2016, p.39). The use of lifestyle allows the understanding of the behavior of the tourist by looking at the activities, interests, and thoughts of the tourist (Schul & Crompton, 1983, p.30; Salomon & Ben-Akiva, 1983, p.623; Lee & Spark, 2007; Chen et al., 2009, p.496). It can be stated that the travel lifestyle is a functional variable to understand tourism behavior (Schul & Crompton, 1983,

p. 30; Lee & Sparks, 2007, p.507). However, it could be remarked that tourists with different lifestyles exhibit different tourist behaviors and thus affect those behaviors (Gonzalez 6 Bello, 2002, p. 55). For this reason, it is frequently used in the relevant literature for market segmentation (Lee & Spark, 2007; Chen et al., 2009, p. 501-504; Dmytrakova, 2010; Lee et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2015).

It is emphasized that lifestyle is probably to affect the participation of tourists in activities related to food in the destination (Chang et al., 2010). Although limited, it is possible to find studies that suggest that tourists consume food in line with their travel lifestyle (Schull & Crompton, 1983; Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Chang et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2015). In case the tourists have a similarity between their food-related lifestyles at home and their food preferences at the destination (Lee et al., 2014), they are fond of searching for what they are used to and their comfort; studies show that the local food preference has decreased (Chang et al. 2010) and that this situation is perceived as a risk (Lepp & Gibson, 2003). From this point of view, there is a prediction that the travel lifestyle is effective on the local food preference of the tourists, and the first research hypothesis can be written as follows.

H_1: Travel lifestyle positively affects local food preference.

Cultural Sensitivity

Cultural sensitivity has been clarified as *"the ability to develop a positive attitude that supports appropriate and effective behavior in terms of intercultural communication in the interpretation and evaluation of cultural differences"* (Chen & Starosta, 1997, p.5). Hammer et al. (2003, p.422) state that intercultural sensitivity refers to the ability to be aware of and experience cultural differences. Cultural sensitivity is the emotional dimension of the model developed by Chen and Starosta (1996). While the cognitive dimension, which is one of the other two dimensions, creates intercultural awareness, its behavioral dimension creates intercultural effectiveness.

Cultural sensitivity can affect tourist behavior in different ways. Cultural sensitivity of tourists can be associated with what they eat, how and where they travel and where they stay, whether they communicate with other people, and so on. It can be said that cultural sensitivity supports the emergence of local food consumption behavior and provides the ability to develop positive emotions such as willingness to recognize, interest and enjoy when they encounter situations or environments with a different culture (Chen & Starosta, 1997, p.5; Fritz et al., 2002, p.170). Spanish, French, American, German, British, and Italian tourists are perceived as the group of tourists preferring local foods and beverages, while Japanese tourists are perceived as avoiding tourists (Pizam ve Sussman, 1995; Sheldon & Fox, 1998; Telfer & Wall, 2000; Özdemir, 2014; Vu et al.,, 2017). As German tourists are not culturally sensitive; American and British tourists can be considered as culturally sensitive tourists (Pizam & Sussman, 1995; Pizam & Jeong, 1996; Pizam & Reichel, 1996; Pizam, Jansen-Verbeke & Steel, 1997; Özdemir, 2014). There is also information that cultural sensitivity has a positive effect on local food preference (Pizam & Sussman, 1995; Pizam & Jeong, 1996; Pizam & Reichel, 1996; Pizam et al., 1997). Therefore, it can be hypothesized that cultural sensitivity affects the tendency of tourists to prefer local food.

H_2: Cultural sensitivity positively affects local food preference.

Food Neophobia

Food neophobia has been defined as a psychological factor affecting the local food consumption of tourists (Fischler, 1988, p.278; Pliner & Hobden, 1992; Chang et al., 2011; Mak et al., 2012, p.9; Ji et al., 2016, p.391 Mak

et al., 2017, p.2). Food neophobia can be defined as fear, avoidance, and reluctance to choose new (Pliner & Hobden, 1992), unfamiliar (Pelchat & Pliner, 1995, p.153), local and ethnic (Hartmann et al., 2015, p.153) food.

Tourists may come out of the home environment to a situation they do not know and face food and drink that can pose a physical risk. Consequently, food consumption, while traveling, can be both scary and magnificent and fun (Povey, 2011, p.238). Even though tasting new foods sometimes causes risky results while traveling, food is also considered as an attraction in choice of destination (Kivela & Crotts, 2006, p.355; McKrecher et al., 2008, p.138). However, it is also stated that food and beverages may interfere with the choice of destinations in some cases (Cohen & Avieli, 2004, p.757). It is stated that tourists consider food and beverages an obstacle in their destination choice due to the food neophobia (Chang et al., 2010, p.990).

It has been identified a negative correlation between tourist's food neophobia and consumption of new food (Ji et al., 2016). There are also studies (Fischler, 1988, p.278; Pliner & Hobden, 1992; Pelchat an& d Pliner, 1995, p.153; Bell & Marshall, 2003, p.237; Ji et al., 2016, p.391; Mak et al., 2017, p.2) showing that food neophobia negatively affects the local food preferences. Besides the excitement of being in a new environment, considering the concerns about finding safe, edible, and delicious food and drink (Cohen & Avieli, 2004, p.760), it can be argued that tourists' food neophobia may negatively affect their local food preferences.

H_3: Food neophobia negatively affects local food preference.

Showing the relationship between the variables and hypotheses research model is in Figure 1.

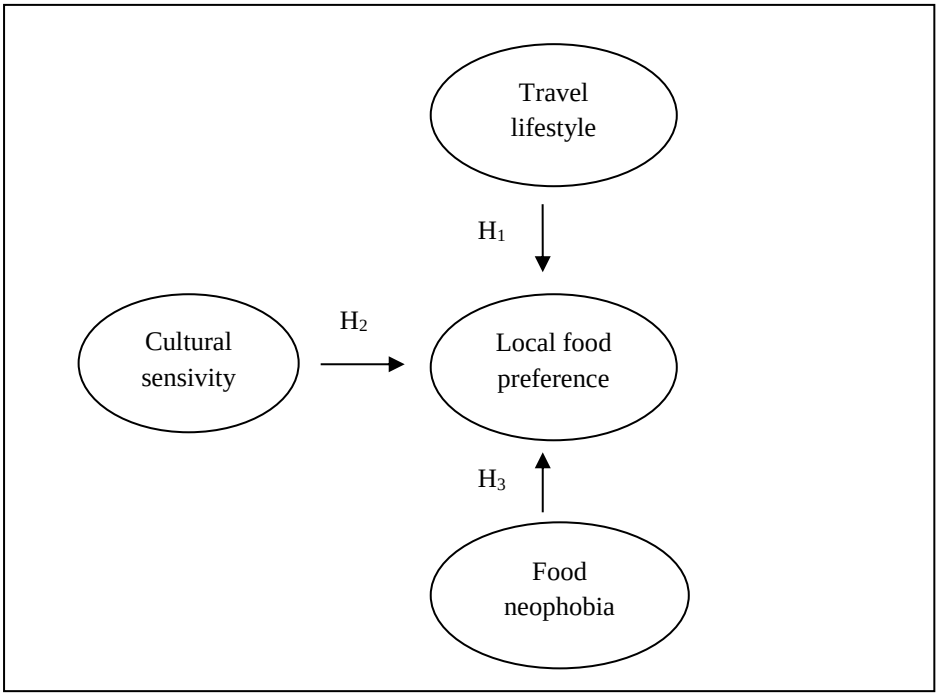

Figure 1. The model of the research

Method

Scales

In this descriptive study, data was collected with a questionnaire developed based on the literature. To measure the cultural sensitivity levels of tourists, consisting of 24 items developed by Chen and Starosta (2000); consisting

of 16 items developed by Schul and Crompton (1983) to determine travel lifestyles; 5-item scale developed by Pliner and Hobden (1992) in determining food neophobia; 3-item scale developed by Seo, Yun, and Kim (2017) was used to determine the local food preference. The reaction categories of the items were subjected to a 5-point Likert (1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: neutral, 4: agree, 5: strongly agree) rating.

Universe and Sampling

The universe of the study includes tourists coming to Istanbul in 2018. Due to the impossibility of obtaining a list of tourists coming to Istanbul during the questionnaire period, the sample size was determined using statistics of 2017. The top ten countries and the number of tourists coming to Istanbul in 2017 were determined.

The dependent variable used in the research is the local food preference scale; response categories are 5. In order to calculate the sample size, estimation of the standard deviation was made, since there was no reported standard deviation of 10 nationalities whose quota was to be determined. If the change interval (R = Max.-Min) is divided by 6, the estimated standard deviation is obtained for Alpha = 0.01 (Yolal, 2016, p.68). The change interval in 5 rankings is R = 5-1 = 4. By dividing this range by 4, the estimated standard deviation for Alpha = 0.05 is obtained as 1.00. The sample size was determined as 600 tourists by deciding that the average to be obtained from the sample would deviate from the average of the universe at a level of 5% around H: 0.08 (Ural & Kılıç, 2013, p.45). Thus, the determined sample size was distributed in accordance with the rate of each nationality.

In order to make healthy comparisons according to nationalities, it was paid attention to reach at least 30 people from each nationality. According to the Central Limit Theorem, after the sample size exceeds 30, the sample average approaches the normal distribution (Alpar, 2010, p.92). Accordingly, it is ensured that there are at least 30 people from the 10th nationality.

Table 1. Quota distribution by nationalities

Countries	Number of Incoming 2017	Percent %	Quota (Person)
1)Germany	986.560	20	120
2)Iran	900.810	18	108
3)Saudi Arabia	557.834	11	66
4)Iraq	517.653	10	60
5)Russia	494.084	10	60
6)England	380.943	8	48
7)France	370.517	7	42
8)Ukrain	304.275	6	36
9) The USA	270.887	5	30
10)Holland	253.805	5	30
Total	5.037.368	100	600

Data Analysis

Data were subjected to multivariate normality analysis. As a result of this analysis, a total of 56 observations were removed from the data set, and the analyzes were made on the data of 554 questionnaires. In this study descriptive statistics, factor analysis and multiple regression analysis were applied.

Reliability

The reliability analysis results applied to the scales are shown in Table 2. In an item analysis, item-total correlations are to be higher than + 250, and multiple R^2 values to be between 0 and +1, and approach 1 and not be

less than 0.300 (Alpar, 2012, p.391; Kalaycı, 2014, p.412). It was decided to exclude 7 items in the cultural sensitivity scale, 11 items in the travel lifestyle scale due to the negative item-total correlations of less than 0,200, and multiple explanatory coefficients. Thus, there are 16 items on the cultural sensitivity scale and 5 items on the travel lifestyle scale. Considering the psychometric properties of the four scales; it was found that the lowest item-whole correlation was 0,296, the lowest multiple explanatory coefficient was 0,453, and when any item was deleted, no item would significantly increase the reliability coefficient. Besides, the lowest internal consistency coefficient was determined to be 0.870. Therefore, it is possible to say that the data on the measurement of four different variables with the remaining items are reliable.

Table 2. Findings related to reliability analysis

Scales / Coefficients	Cultural Sensitivity	Travel Lifestyle	Food Neophobia	Local food preference
Sample Size	554	554	554	554
Number of items	17	5	5	3
Alpha coefficient for the whole scale	0,870	0,946	0,922	0,913
Smallest and largest item-whole correlation value	0,296-0,695	0,833-0,920	0,767-0,866	0,791-0,876
Negative item-whole correlation value	-	-	-	-
Smallest and largest multiple explanatory R^2 coefficient	0,453-0,674	0,707-0,850	0,657-0,752	0,645-0,768
Alpha coefficient when item is deleted	0,855-0,870	0,938-0,951	0,891-0,910	0,834-0,904
Average	3,9462	3,5519	2,9184	3,0963
Standard Deviation	0,3631	0,9775	1,0623	1,1318
Measurement	1: strongly disagree,…,5: strongly agree			

Validity

To collect valid data, a series of measures were taken, and some applications were made. These are briefly described below.

1) Translation-re-translation application: The original of the scales is in English. The questionnaire is applied in different languages. In order to prepare the questionnaire in English, German, Russian, Arabic, and Persian languages, certified translators were used to translate from English into other languages.

2) Comprehensibility and a pilot study: The comprehensibility of the questionnaire was determined by applying face-to-face to 21 tourists of different ages, genders, and nationalities, determined by easy sampling in the Sultanahmet district of Istanbul in June 2018. Since no problems were detected, a total of 90 tourists from different genders and nationalities were pretested. As a result of the pretest, relative corrections were made in the way some items were expressed.

3) Exploratory factor analysis (EFA): The eigensity values for each item are expected to be 0.500 and above. It is stated that each item has at least 0,400 load on the factor to which it belongs (Alpar, 2013, p.276-277). In deciding on the number of factors, eigenvalue ($\lambda \geq 1$) value was taken into account, and the Varimax rotation method was used. In the social sciences, it is generally accepted that the explained variance is between 0.40-0.60 (Alpar, 2016, p.617).

The cultural sensitivity scale had a three-dimensional structure (KMO: 0.924; Bartlett's test of sphericity: $\chi 2$: 5796,139; s.d.:136; $p < 0.001$); 69% of total variance was explained. There factors are respectively named as sympathy for cultural differences (variance explained: 36,5%), self-confidence in interaction (variance explained:

21,4%) and respect for different cultures (variance explained: 11,3%) in accordance with the literature (Chen & Starosta, 2000; Bezirgan & Alamur, 2017).

The travel lifestyle scale showed a one-dimensional structure (KMO: 0.910; Bartlett's test of sphericity: $\chi 2$: 2601,390; s.d.:10; $p < 0.001$) and 83.66% of the total variance was explained. By examining the items and considering the literature (Schul & Crompton, 1983; Lee et al., 2014), one dimension was named "activity-based travel lifestyle." The food neophobiascale (KMO: 0.862; Bartlett's test of sphericity $\chi 2$: 2155.827; s.d.:10; $p < 0.001$) explained 76,347% of the total variance in one dimension. The local food preference scale (KMO: 0.733; Bartlett's test of sphericity $\chi 2$: 1279,174; s.d.3; $p < 0.001$) confirmed a one-dimensional structure and explained 85,296% of the total variance.

4) Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA): The regression values regulated in the confirmatory factor analysis are not expected to be above 1, and the t value is expected to be at least 1.96. (Şimşek, 2007, p.86). It is stated that CMIN / DF, CFI, GFI and RMSEA fit indices can be used in the analysis (Şimşek, 2007, p.13; Tabachninck & Fidell, 2015, p.725; Karagöz, 2017, p.467).

The CFA results applied to the cultural sensitivity scale are shown in Table 3. Accordingly, it is determined that the t-values of all items are greater than 1.96, the lowest combined reliability is 0.990, and the AVE value is 0.573. Considering the goodness of fit (χ^2=310,377, χ^2/sd=2.676, RMSEA=0.055, AGFI= 0.918, CFI=0.966; GFI=0.938), AFA result is confirmed. Thus, it can be said that the construct validity of the cultural sensitivity scale is fulfilled.

Table 3. Cultural sensitivity scale confirmatory factor analysis results

	Standard values (β)	**t-value**	**Std. Error**
Sympathy for cultural differences (CR:0,903; AVE:0,573)			
I often get discouraged when I am with people from different cultures.	0,724	18,029	0,051
I avoid those situations where I will have to deal with culturally distinct people.	0,772	19,536	0,052
I don't like to be with people from different cultures.	0,759	19,134	0,050
I often show my culturally-distinct counterpart my understanding through verbal or non verbal cues.	0,718	17,871	0,057
I have a feeling of enjoyment towards differences between my culturally-distinct counterpart and me.	0,690	16,999	0,051
I get upset easily when interacting with people from different cultures.	0,709	17,595	0,053
I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.	0,800	Fixed	
Self-confidence in interaction (CR: 0.911; AVE: 0.675)			
I always know what to say when interacting with people from different cultures.	0,866	22,647	0,052
I can be as sociable as I want to be when interacting with people from different cultures.	0,838	21,713	0,051
I am open-minded to people from different cultures.	0,810	20,814	0,054
I find it very hard to talk in front of people from different cultures.	0,839	21,768	0,053
I am pretty sure of myself in interacting with people from different cultures.	0,787	Fixed	
Respect for Different Cultures (CR: 0.930; AVE: 0.727)			
I respect the values of people from different cultures.	0,814	Fixed	
I often give positive responses to my culturally different counterpart during our interaction.	0,854	23,012	0,044
I am sensitive to my culturally-distinct counterpart's subtle meanings during our interaction.	0,794	20,866	0,044
I respect the ways people from different cultures behave.	0,809	21,397	0,046
I would not accept the opinions of people from different cultures.	0,790	20,728	0,046
χ^2=310,377, sd=116, $\chi 2$/sd=2.676, RMSEA=0.055, AGFI= 0.918, CFI=0.966 ve GFI=0.938			

The CFA results applied to the other three scales are shown in Table 4. The t-values of the items belonging to the travel lifestyle scale are determined to be higher than 1.96. Also, it is determined that the combined reliability is 0,958, and the AVE value is 0,823. Considering the goodness of fit, it is possible to think that the activity-based travel lifestyle scale has been confirmed.

CFA results of the food neophobia scale are given in Table 4. Accordingly, the combined reliability is 0.958 and AVE 0.584. Since the model was considered saturated in CFA, the goodness of fit was not obtained. Saturated model is the model where there is only one solution of some parameters, and the degree of freedom is zero since there is enough information in the sample covariance matrix (Doğan, 2015, p.14). Accordingly, it confirms that the scale of food neophobiais one-dimensional and measures a single feature. A similar situation is valid for the local food preference scale; the one-dimensional structure of this scale is also confirmed.

Table 4. CFA results of the travel lifestyle, food neophobia and local food preference scale

	Standard values (β)	t-value	Std. Error
Activity Based Travel Lifestyle (CR: 0,958; AVE: 0,823)			
The nicest vacation is one where I can just relax and do nothing.	0,928	Fixed	
I prefer to visit places with a large variety of activities and sights.	0,894	34,744	0,31
When I go on vacation, I look for adventure and an opportunity to escape from the ordinary.	0,875	32,805	0,31
I try to do too many things when I am on vacation.	0,870	32,300	0,32
The best vacations are those that have a lot of night life.	0,846	30,160	0,31
χ^2=11.988, s.d.=5, χ^2/sd=2.398, RMSEA=0.050, AGFI= 0.976, CFI=0.997, GFI=0.992			
Food neophobia (CR: 0,875; AVE: 0,584)			
I don't trust new foods.	0,956	Fixed	
I am afraid to eat things I have never had before.	0,804	25,163	0,036
If I don't know what is in a food, I won't try it.	0,794	24,484	0,036
I am very particular about the foods I will eat.	0,785	24,002	0,035
Ethnic foods look too weird to eat.	0,761	22,779	00,37
It is a saturated model; goodness of fit has not been produced.			
Local food preference (CR: 0,820; AVE: 0,604)			
I would like to eat local food when travelling.	,861	Fixed	
I will make an effort to eat local food when travelling.	,831	25,241	,037
I plan to eat local food when travelling.	,958	29,521	,036
It is a saturated model; goodness of fit has not been produced.			

5) Convergent validity: In order to ensure convergent validity, CR values should be higher than 0.70, and AVE values should be greater than 0.5, and CR values should be higher than AVE values (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010). When Tables 3 and 4 are examined, all CR values are higher than 0.70, and AVE values are higher than 0.50. Also, all CR values are determined to be higher than the AVE values of the relevant size. Accordingly, it can be thought that convergent validity is provided in four scales.

6) Divergent validity: the methodology proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981) was used to test divergent validity. Accordingly, it shows that divergent validity is achieved by the fact that the square roots of AVE values are higher than the correlation coefficients between the dimensions. Divergent validity results for the cultural sensitivity scale are given in Table 5. Accordingly, the square root of AVE values is larger than the square of the correlations between the dimensions. This situation points to convergent validity.

Table 5. Cultural sensitivity scale divergent validity results

	Avg.	S. Deviation	SCD	SCI	RDC
Sympathy for cultural differences (SCD)	4,0214	0,48236	**(0,757)**[a]		
Self-confidence in interaction (SCI)	3,8852	0,56642	r: 0,532** r^2:0,2830	**(0,822)**	
Respect for different cultures (RDC)	3,9018	0,55108	r: 0,020 r^2: 0,0004	r:0,035 r^2:0,0012	**(0,853)**

SCD: Sympathy for different cultures, SCI: Self-confidence in interaction, RDC: Respect for different cultures;
*[a]: Square root of AVE values.. ** Correlation is significant at the level of α: 0.01.*

Findings

It is seen that 47% of the study group (n = 554) are women, and 53% are men. It was determined that 24% of the tourists participating in the study were between the ages of 18-39, 29% between the ages of 40-49, 27% aged 50-59, and 20% aged 60 and over. While 86% of the tourists participating in the research are married, 14% are single. Considering the educational status of tourists, it is seen that 14% have primary education, 28% high school, 22% associate degree, 34% undergraduate, and 2% graduate education. 20% of the tourists participating in the research are German, 18% Iranian, 11% Saudi Arabian, 10% Iraqi, 10% Russian, 8% British, 7% French, 6% American, 6% are Ukrainian, and the other 6% are Dutch.

The cultural sensitivity, travel lifestyle, food neophobia and local food preference of 10 different nationalities participating in the research were tested to the point 3 of indecision in the 5-degree rating (Table 6). It has been determined that all dimensions of cultural sensitivity are significantly different from the indecision point 3. From the averages and t-values, it has been determined that the tourists participating in the research sympathize ($\bar{x}$: 4,0214; t: 49,841; s.d:553; p<0,001) and respect ($\bar{x}$: 3,9018; t: 38,517; s.d:553; p<0,001) cultural differences and at the same time rely on themselves in interaction ($\bar{x}$: 3,8852; t: 36,784; s.d:553; p<0,001).

The test for the travel lifestyle reveals that the participants ($\bar{x}$: 3.6130; t: 15.825; s.d: 553; p <0.001) prefer to be active during travel. On the other hand, it is determined that they are undecided about trying new foods ($\bar{x}$: 2,9184; t: -1,808; s.d: 553; p: 0,071). Although it was determined that the tendency of the participants to prefer local food was significantly different from the point of indecision ($\bar{x}$: 3,09627; t: 2,002; sd: 553; p: 0,046), it is only possible to say that they could prefer local foods (p: 0,092) if the significance level were increased to 10%.

Table 6. t-test Results

	$\bar{x}$[a]	S.Deviation	t-value[b]	p-value (two sided)
Sympathy for cultural differences	4,0214	0,48236	49,841	p<0,0001
Self-confidence in interaction	3,8852	0,56642	36,784	p<0,0001
Respect for different cultures	3,9018	0,55108	38,517	p<0,0001
Activity based travel lifestyle	3,6130	0,91171	15,825	p<0,0001
Food neophobia	2,9184	1,06239	-1,808	0,071
Local food preference	3,09627	1,131835	2,002	0,046

[a]: Reaction categories: 1: strongly disagree,…,5: strongly agree
[b]: Test value: 3; n:554; s.d.: 553

The hypotheses developed in the research were tested by multiple regression analysis. The results are given in Table 7. Accordingly, it turns out that H_1 and H_2 hypotheses are not supported by the data collected. However, it is found that the data support the H_3 hypothesis.

The regression model expressing the effect of food neophobia on local food preference is statistically significant ($F_{(1;552)}$:786,968; p<0,001). According to the model, food neophobia has a negative effect on the local food preference. When the model is analyzed, a one-unit increase in food neophobia leads to a 0.767 decrease in local local food preference. Food neophobia explains 58.8% of the local food preference. It can be said that this ratio affects the tendency of trying new foods to prefer the local dishes on average, although it does not strongly affect (Ferguson, 2009, p.533). It is understood that food neophobia can be used to predict local food preference. Thus, it turns out that the H_3 research hypothesis is supported by the data.

Table 7. Regression analysis findings of the effect of cultural sensitivity, travel lifestyle and food neophobia on local food preference

Hypothesis	Independent Variables	Unstandardized		Standardized	t	p-value
		β	Std.Hata	β		
1	Fixed	3,271	0,197		16,627	p<0,0001
	Activity based travel lifestyle	-0,048	0,053	-0,039	-0,916	0,360
	Dependent Variable: Local food preference; Method: Direct, R=0,039; R2=0,002, ΔR2=0,000; Model F(1;552):0,839; p: 0,360					
2	Fixed	3,353	0,538		6,230	p<0,0001
	Symphaty for different cultures	0,022	0,118	0,010	0,191	0,849
	Self-confidence in interaction	0,080	0,100	0,040	0,803	0,423
	Respect for different cultures	-0,169	0,087	-0,082	-1,937	0,053
	Dependent Variable: Local food preference ; Method: Direct, R=0,093; R^2=0,009, ΔR^2=0,003; Model $F_{(3;550)}$: 1,596; p: 0,189					
3	Fixed	5,480	0,090		60,609	p<0,0001
	Food neophobia	-0,817	0,029	-0,767	-28,053	p<0,0001
	Dependent Variable: Local food preference; Method: Direct, R=0,767; R^2=0,588, ΔR^2=0,587; Model $F_{(1;552)}$: 786,968; p<0,0001					

Conclusion and Discussion

In the paper, the data of 554 tourists from ten different nationalities were used, in which the effect of cultural sensitivity of the tourists, travel lifestyle, and the food neophobiaon the local food preference examined. These countries are respectively; Germany, Iran, Saudi Arabia, Iraq, Russia, England, France, USA, Ukraine, and the Netherlands. The results obtained in this direction are presented below.

The tourists participating in the research sympathize with cultural differences. It can also be said that they are positive in showing respect to different cultures and self-confidence in interaction. In this direction, it can be said that they show cultural sensitivity. It has been determined that tourists have an activity-based travel lifestyle. Besides, it can be stated that they are somewhat undecided about trying new foods and prefer local foods; in other words, they are a little cautious.

It has been determined that cultural sensitivity cannot be used to explain the local food preference. In other words, it has been determined that by looking at cultural sensitivity, it cannot be commented on the local food preference of tourists. However, although studies investigating the effect in question are not found in the related literature, it is

seen that tourists with cultural sensitivity tend to prefer local food (Pizam & Sussman, 1995; Pizam & Jeong, 1996; Pizam & Reichel, 1996; Pizam et al., 1997; Özdemir, 2014). While German, Japanese and Korean tourists can be considered as non-culturally sensitive tourists; Spanish, Italian, American and British culturally sensitive tourists, and tourists with cultural sensitivity have been shown to exhibit local food preference (Pizam & Sussman, 1995; Pizam & Jeong, 1996; Pizam & Reichel, 1996; Pizam et al., 1997; Özdemir, 2014). The reason for not determining the significant effect of cultural sensitivity on local food preferences can be related to the sampling method used. However, the cultural distance (Ng et al., 2007, p.1505) and the distance of food culture (Azar, 2011, p.23) can be considered as a reason for not coinciding with the existing literature. One of the factors that make up the cultural distance can be said to be the destination cuisine (Ng et al., 2007, p.1505). As for tourism mobility, it is possible to express the food culture distance as the distance in terms of food culture between the host and tourist orginating country. This distance can be considered as the reason for the impact of cultural sensitivity on the local food preference of tourists.

Another conclusion reached in the study is that the activity-based travel lifestyle does not affect the local food preference. It has been determined that it cannot be commented on the local food preference of tourists by looking at the travel lifestyle. This result reached; in the relevant literature, with studies showing that travel lifestyle has an impact on the local food preference (Schull & Crompton, 1983; Hjalager, 2003; Leep & Gibson, 2003; Chang et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2015) do not coincide. This situation can be associated with the sampling method used, or it can be evaluated as a result of globalization. It is possible to say that globalization has changed their lifestyle (Zhang et al., 2009). It is stated that globalization and different cultures are intertwined with each other, and therefore lifestyles have got beyond the limits of national cultures, and the same lifestyles have emerged in different cultures (Sotshangane, 2002, p.218; Topuz, 2016, p.18). This may have caused the travel lifestyle to have no impact on local food preference.

It has been determined that the food neophobia can be used to predict the local food preference of the tourists. As food neophobia of tourists increases, it is determined that local food preference decreases. In revelant literature, there are studies stating that there is a negative relationship between the two variables (Verbeke & Lopez, 2005; Ji et al., 2016). However; There are also studies stating that food neophobia negatively affects local food preference (Bell & Marshall, 2003, p.237; Chang et al., 2011; Mak et al., 2012, p.9; Ji et al., 2016, p.391; Mak et al., 2017, p.2). Thus, it is understood that the findings obtained coincide with the literature.

In a study that was conducted considering the first 10 nationalities coming to Turkey, the fact that tourists are cautious about the food neophobia and local food preferences, as well as food neophobia, affect the local food preference negatively, provides various implications for implementation.

The cautious behavior of the tourists about trying new foods and preferring local foods gives essential duties to destination administrations and food and beverage businesses. Regarding food, the impact of globalization has been more effective than the dominance of nationalities. An increase in common likes may require the adaptation of food and beverage businesses to this trend. It should, therefore, be kept in mind that the issue of food should not be characterized by nationality; this may be related to the psychology of the tourist.

Promoting of Turkish cuisine better at international tourism fairs is another suggestion. It is useful to give messages about the preparation, content, and health of the well-known Turkish foods. Tourism companies may also

try various implications in this way. Detailed information about food and drink might be found in the menus offered to tourists. Thus, the local food preference can be revived by reducing the level of anxiety in tourists.

The research was carried out on tourists coming to the Sultanahmet area of Istanbul. Considering the top 10 nationalities in sampling and applying the surveys according to the quota sampling can be considered as a limitation. Targeting the sample size as 600 led to the limited number of observations for each nationality. Therefore, if the first 10 nationalities are taken into consideration in future research, it is utility to increase the sample size. Another way is to conduct studies taking into account the first 3 or 5 nationalities.

The cultures of the nationalities to be researched on food and beverage may need to be examined in depth. Also, it may be useful to understand the personality characteristics of the tourists in the nationalities in terms of food and beverage culture.

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