DOI: https://doi.org/10.18778/0867-5856.34.1.12 e-ISSN 2080-6922, ISSN 0867-5856

COPE Member since 2019 JM14487

Turyzm/Tourism
2024, 34/1

Tourist lifestyle: Food and travel activities at a gastronomy destination in Türkiye through the mediating role of destination familiarity

Uzeyir Kement[a], Murat Göral[b], Yusuf Bayatkara[c], Yakup Durmaz[d], Gül Erkol Bayram[e]

[a] Ordu University (Ordu, Türkiye), Tourism Faculty, Department of Gastronomy and Culinary Arts; https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3190-9079; e-mail: uzeyirkement@odu.edu.tr
[b] Bingöl University (Bingöl, Türkiye), Vocational School of Social Sciences, Department of Tourism and Hospitality Management; https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2374-4443; e-mail: mgoral@bingol.edu.tr
[c] Bingöl University (Bingöl, Türkiye), Vocational School of Social Sciences, Department of Tourism and Hospitality Management; https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8789-7006; e-mail: ybayatkara@bingol.edu.tr
[d] Hasan Kalyoncu University (Gaziantep, Türkiye), Faculty of Economics Administrative and Social Sciences, Department of Marketing; https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0332-4185; e-mail: yakup.durmaz@hku.edu.tr
[e] Sinop University (Sinop, Türkiye), School of Tourism and Hospitality Management, Department of Tour Guiding; https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9764-2883; e-mail: gulerkol@sinop.edu.tr

How to cite (APA style): Kement, U., Göral, M., Bayatkara, Y., Durmaz, Y., & Bayram, G.E. (2024). Tourist lifestyle: Food and travel activities at a gastronomy destination in Türkiye through the mediating role of destination familiarity. *Turyzm/Tourism, 34*(1), 121–134. https://doi.org/10.18778/0867-5856.34.1.12

ABSTRACT

This work aims to determine the effect of the travel preferences of domestic and foreign tourists visiting Gaziantep province in Türkiye and their participation in destination food and travel activities, as well as examining the mediating role of destination familiarity. The research model includes three sub-factors for travel lifestyle: preference for proximity and comfort, interest in new and local culture, and preference for activities and adventures. While preference for destination food activities has two sub-factors: interest in food activities and tasting local flavors. Additionally, destination familiarity and preference for destination travel activities are the measures used in the research model. The research sample consists of domestic and foreign tourists visiting Gaziantep between March and April 2022; 418 questionnaires were filled in by participants chosen by random sampling. Data analysis was made using SPSS and SmartPLS. As reflective and formative scales were used together in the data analysis, the partial least squares method (PLS-SEM) was used. The research results suggest that preference for proximity and comfort, interest in new and local culture, preference for activities and adventures, and destination familiarity have a positive significant effect on interest in food activities. While interest in the new and local culture and preference for activities and adventures, have a positive significant effect on tasting local flavors; preference for proximity and comfort and destination familiarity do not have such an effect. It was also found that preference for proximity and comfort, interest in the new and local culture, preference for activities and adventures, and destination familiarity have a positive and significant effect on preferences for destination travel activities. Lastly, interest in new and local culture and preference for activities and adventures have a positive significant effect on destination familiarity while preference for proximity and comfort do not.

KEYWORDS

travel lifestyle, food activity preference, travel activity, destination familiarity, Gaziantep

ARTICLE INFORMATION DETAILS

Received:
23 April 2023
Accepted:
13 November 2023
Published:
14 June 2024

1. Introduction

Gastronomy-based travel is one of the biggest motivational factors for tourists who want to participate in tourism activities (Kivela & Crotts, 2006). Approximately one-third of all tourist expenses at destinations are food and drink-related (Mak et al., 2012). There are many factors determining participation in food-related activities: demographic features such as age, education and income status, as well as psychological characteristics such as worldview, lifestyle and attitude to food. The strongest factor is a lifestyle and its reflection in travel (Acevedo & Nohara, 2004). Travel lifestyle reflects how and why people decide to travel and their behaviors. Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) argue that travel lifestyle is a fundamental factor in determining journeys and can affect other decision-making determinants. A further factor for participating in food-related activities is destination familiarity. The image that tourists have of a destination can play a part in their participation (Lee et al., 2008). Destination familiarity can make tourists feel comfortable and safe which can encourage them to participate in food-related activities.

This work aims to determine the effect of the travel lifestyles of tourists on participation in food and travel activities, and to determine whether destination familiarity mediates this relationship. For this purpose, it is important to determine the motivations for traveling, such as proximity or comfort, interest in new and local culture, seeking activities and adventure, and whether these affect their tendency to participate in local food activities and taste local flavors. Determining these factors can contribute to the literature. The biggest problem in destination management is to make a destination more attractive and to lead tourists to buy local products. All the variables are thought to contribute to destination management. The results will provide an opportunity to develop product concepts and will help create accurate and effective market segmentation while the findings regarding destination familiarity can guide destination managers in terms of effective promotion strategies.

Certain destinations have competitive advantages thanks to their cultural, historical and gastronomic aspects which stimulate tourism activities in a region (Quan & Wang, 2004). Gaziantep is one of those destinations. Being one of the first settlements in Anatolia, this region has hosted many different cultures and civilizations throughout history. Being a trade center and a hub for Arabs, Kurds, Armenians and Turkmen during the Ottoman Empire has greatly contributed to its culture and this diversity has successfully been reflected in the cuisine of the region (Aksoy & Sezgi, 2015). With these aspects, Gaziantep is an important tourism destination that offers many travel and food activities for different tourists to enjoy.

2. Theoretical framework

2.1. The effect on destination food activities

Lifestyle is the most effective variable among the psychographic classification criteria and has been studied by many different researchers in the travel industry (Khan, 2019; Lee & Cox, 2007; Lee & Sparks, 2007; Sünnetçioğlu et al., 2020). Travel lifestyle refers to a way of living that prioritizes travel and exploration as a central part of identity and daily routine. People who embrace a travel lifestyle often seek new experiences, cultures and adventures, and may place a strong emphasis on discovering the world (Reisinger, 2009). As components of travel lifestyle, frequent travel, cultural immersion, adventure and exploration, minimalism and mobility, remote work or location independence, community and networking, environmental consciousness, financial management, balancing routine and exploration can be put forward (Circella et al., 2018; Van Acker et al., 2016). Lifestyle can be more effective in travel behaviors than demographic variables (Woodside & Pitts, 1976). Weinstein and Cahill (2014) focused on the advantages of psychographic classifications such as travel lifestyle and travel habits in understanding the decision-making of visitors. Veal (1993) studied lifestyle from many aspects and one of them was the decision to participate in travel and in destination activities. In all societies where people are free to make their decisions, lifestyle affects all choices including participation in destination food activity. The activities of a tourist in a travel destination are directly related to lifestyle and decisions on activities chosen are based on profession, leisure activities and perceived level of stimuli (Wahlers & Etzel, 1985). Based on this theoretical framework, two hypotheses were developed to test the effect of travel lifestyle on destination food activities:

H_1: Travel lifestyles positively affect interest in food activities.

H_2: Travel lifestyles positively affect tasting local flavors.

2.2. The effect on destination travel activities

Destination travel activities are important factors in decision-making. Du and Zhang (2003) found that 47.1% of tourists are interested in sightseeing, 18.3% in entertainment and 13.1% in adventures. Zhou et al. (1998) stated that 81% of tourists in Australia are interested in shopping, 60% in beach tourism and 47% in wildlife tourism. While tourists visiting the USA mostly participate in activities like shopping, sightseeing, entertainment and visiting theme parks and historical sites (Cai et al., 2001). The interest of tourists in different activities in different countries

can result from how the destination is perceived as well as lifestyle choices. The following hypothesis was developed to test this:

H_3: The travel lifestyles positively affects participation in destination travel activities.

2.3. Destination familiarity and the mediation effect

The relationship between travel lifestyle and participation in destination food activities can be investigated from destination familiarity. This familiarity, which represents an emotional evaluation, is closely associated with many aspects that determine the relationship between the destination and the visitor, including travel lifestyle and participation in food activities (Carneiro & Crompton, 2010; Han & Yamana, 2016; Henry, 2006; Kuhzady et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2008).

Familiarity offers hints for knowing and managing a destination and activity preferences (Benedicktus et al., 2010). There is a lot of evidence in the literature that destination familiarity affects travel lifestyle and activity preferences by creating a sense of comfort and security (Carneiro & Crompton, 2010). Lee et al. (2008) also point out that destination familiarity reduces the perception of destination risk and creates a sense of trust so that tourists will be more inclined to participate in local culture and local food activities when they feel more secure. However, destination familiarity can have disadvantages as well. Familiarity is a result of a tourist's knowledge of a destination. If this knowledge and these experiences have been formed in a negative context, there will be negative repercussions for the destination. For example, such familiarity may play a negative role especially in the participation of novelty-seeking tourists in destination food activities (Assaker et al., 2011; Toyama & Yamada, 2012). In the light of this information, the following hypotheses were developed for the research:

H_4: Travel lifestyles positively affect destination familiarity.

H_5: Destination familiarity positively affects interest in food activities.

H_6: Destination familiarity positively affects tasting local flavors.

H_7: Destination familiarity positively affects preferences for destination travel activities.

Providing clues that destination familiarity can have either a positive or a negative effect, studies in the literature have raised the question of whether this variable will mediate the relationship between travel lifestyle and participation in food activities and this is the focus of this work. There are also studies in the literature that examine the relationship between preference for proximity and comfort, and destination familiarity, as this includes having prior knowledge of destinations and accordingly the desire to obtain more information (Gursoy & McCleary, 2004; Johnson & Russo, 1984; Rao & Sieben, 1992). Wen and Huang (2019) and Basala and Klenosky (2001) found that travel preferences affect destination familiarity. There are also studies examining whether this familiarity affects interest in food activities, tasting new flavors, and participating in travel activities as an independent variable (Chi et al., 2020; Tan & Wu, 2016). The following hypotheses were developed based on this theoretical framework:

H_8: Destination familiarity positively mediates travel lifestyle and interest in food activities.

H_9: Destination familiarity positively mediates travel lifestyle and tasting local flavors.

H_{10}: Destination familiarity positively mediates travel lifestyle and preference for destination travel activities.

In this research, the model shown in Figure 1 is examined. While the travel lifestyle scale is included as the independent variable in the research model, scales for the preference for destination food activities and preference for destination travel activities are the dependent variables. Additionally, the destination familiarity scale was used as a moderating variable.

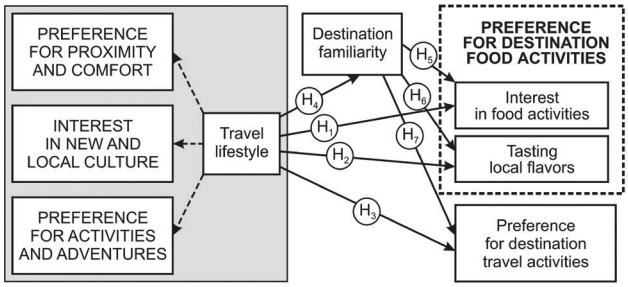

Figure 1. Research model proposal
Note: scales in the gray section are the sub-dimensions of travel lifestyle; the variables inside the dashed shape are preference for destination food activities
Source: authors' own work

3. Methodology

The research population consists of individuals who are over 18 and have previously visited Gaziantep Province of Türkiye. As there is no statistical data for this population, the study used sampling as there were time and cost limitations. In order to determine the sample size based on the proposal by Ural and Kılıç (2005) that 384 are necessary for populations larger than 100,000, a total of 418 data sets were collected. The data were collected between March and April 2022 using a simple random sampling method through questionnaires.

The questionnaire consists of two parts. The first includes questions regarding age, gender, marital status,

education status, and income level, while the second includes five items on the preference for proximity and comfort (PPC) – which is one of the sub-factors of travel lifestyle (Lee et al., 2015; Schul & Crompton, 1983); two on interest in new and local culture (ILC); and four on the preference for activities and adventures (PAA). Secondly, there are six items on the interest in food activities (IFA) and six on tasting local flavors (TLF) which are the sub-factors of preference for destination food activities (Lee et al., 2015). Lastly, there are six items on preference for destination travel activities (DTA) (Lee et al., 2015) and three on destination familiarity (DestF) (Gursoy & McCleary, 2004). The item answers were in the form of a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The scales were translated into Turkish from English because they were addressed to Turkish participants. They were then re-translated to English to check for differences in meaning by five experts for any faults. The results were collected afterwards.

Research model analysis was made using SmartPLS and SPSS. The data encoded in the SPSS statistical program were analyzed for validity and reliability and structural equation modeling analysis was conducted in the SmartPLS. The main reason for using the SmartPLS statistical program is that it presents the results of measurement model assessment, structural model assessment and structural equation model, so there is no need for distribution normality, and it provides an opportunity to determine the analysis method. For data analysis, confirmatory tetrad analysis (CTA) was performed first to determine whether the scales belong to formative or reflective structures. Since the number of indicators of interest in new and local culture, tasting local flavors and destination familiarity was less than four items during the CTA analysis phase, indicators for any variable (DTA5 and DTA4 were additionally used in this study) were added to the relevant scales (Bollen & Ting, 1993). Since 25 indicators are formed per structure in CTA analysis, at least four indicators are needed for each. Two additional indicators have been added since tasting local flavors, and interest in new and local culture had only two, and an additional indicator has been added to destination familiarity because it had just three.

Confirmatory tetrad analysis examined the adjusted confidence intervals and was calculated using Bonferroni correction (see Table 1): tasting local flavors and interest in new and local culture variables were found to be formative, while the others were reflective. PLS-SEM was used for data analysis. Measurement model assessment was made first using Cronbach's alpha (α) and rho_A analyses were performed to determine the reliability coefficient in reflective structures. Composite reliability (CR) was calculated to determine internal consistency, and the average variance extracted

Table 1. Confirmatory tetrad analysis results

Measures	*t*-statistics	*p*-value	CI low adjust	CI up adjust	Result
1: DTA1, DTA2, DTA3, DTA4	2.706	0.007	–0.010	0.518	Reflective
2: DTA1, DTA2, DTA4, DTA3	2.350	0.019	–0.046	0.501	
1: DTA5, DestF1, DestF2, DestF3	2.108	0.036	–0.316	0.008	Reflective
2: DTA5, DestF1, DestF3, DestF2	0.393	0.694	–0.210	0.147	
1: IFA1, IFA2, IFA3, IFA4	6.652	0.000	0.511	1.245	Reflective
10: IFA1, IFA2, IFA4, IFA5	2.434	0.015	–0.823	0.055	
1: DTA4, DTA5, ILC1, ILC2	6.191	0.000	0.480	1.027	Formative
2: DTA4, DTA5, ILC2, ILC1	5.730	0.000	0.429	0.984	
1: PAA1, PAA2, PAA3, PAA4	2.461	0.014	0.015	0.349	Reflective
2: PAA1, PAA2, PAA4, PAA3	2.010	0.045	–0.014	0.329	
1: PPC1, PPC2, PPC3, PPC4	4.430	0.000	0.184	0.708	Reflective
2: PPC1, PPC2, PPC4, PPC3	2.007	0.045	–0.072	0.556	
1: DTA4, DTA5, TLF1, TLF2	6.669	0.000	0.689	1.388	Formative
2: DTA4, DTA5, TLF2, TLF1	6.460	0.000	0.665	1.373	

Note: CI – confidence interval, DTA – preference for destination travel activities, DestF – destination familiarity, IFA – interest in food activities, ILC – interest in new and local culture, PAA – preference for activities and adventures, PPC – preference for proximity and comfort, TLF – tasting local flavors.

Source: authors' own work.

(AVE) was calculated for convergent validity. The Fornell-Larcker criterion and the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio were calculated for discriminant validity. In formative constructs, convergent validity, linearity, statistical significance and level of relevance were examined. Model goodness of fit values were also calculated.

The research model includes three sub-factors for travel lifestyle: preference for proximity and comfort, interest in new and local culture and preference for activities and adventures. While preference for destination food activities has two sub-factors: interest in food activities and tasting local flavors. Additionally, destination familiarity and preference for destination travel activities are measures used in the research model. To detect any multicollinearity problems, inner variance inflation factor (VIF), determination coefficient (R^2), model predictive power (Q^2), the predictive power of independent variables (q^2), model effect size (f^2) and PLSpredict were calculated. Lastly, the hypotheses were tested by structural equation modeling analysis. Tests using indirect effect coefficients produced results for those hypotheses considering a mediating effect.

4. Results

4.1. Participant profile

Of the individuals participating in the study 87.6% were national citizens and 12.4% were foreigners; 32.5% were aged between 25–34, 26.3% were 18–24, 17.7% were 35–44, 10% were 45–54, 5.5% were 55–64, 4.3% were 65 or older, while 3.6% were under 18; 50.2% of the participants were male and 49.8% were female, 56% were married while 44% were single (see Table 2).

Table 2. Demographics of the participants (n = 418)

Characteristics		Number of participants	Percentage
Nationality	Local	366	87.6
	Foreigner	52	12.4
Age distribution	Under the age of 18	15	3.6
	18–24	110	26.3
	25–34	136	32.5
	35–44	74	17.7
	45–54	42	10.0
	55–64	23	5.5
	65 and over	18	4.3
Gender	Male	210	50.2
	Female	208	49.8
Marital status	Married	234	56.0
	Single	184	44.0
Education status	Primary school	14	3.3
	High school	71	17.0
	Associate degree	91	21.8
	Bachelor's degree	175	41.9
	Master's degree/ PhD	67	16.0
Perception of income by the standards of the country of residence	Very low	5	1.2
	Low	102	24.4
	Medium	162	38.8
	High	128	30.6
	Very high	21	5.0

Source: authors' own work.

In terms of education, 41.9% of the participants had a bachelor's degree, 21.8% a lower degree, 17% graduated from high school, 16% have master's/PhD and 3.3% only attended primary school; 38.8% think that their income is middle, 30.6% think of it as high, 24.4% think it is low, 5% think that it is very high and 1.2% think it is very low.

4.2. Measurement model assessment

During measurement model assessment, the reflective and formative characteristics of the scales were taken into account. As "tasting local flavors" and "interest in new and local culture" scales were formative, their validity and reliability analyses were made separately. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the reflective scales was higher than 0.70 for each (Hair et al., 2017) and rho_A was higher than 0.70 (Dijkstra & Henseler, 2015). Composite reliability scores were examined for the internal consistency of the scales and the score for each was found to be above 0.60 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Outer loadings were examined for indicator reliability and were found to be above 0.50 for each scale (Kaiser, 1974). For convergent validity, AVE values were examined and the scores for scales other than interest in food activities were above 0.50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Although the AVE value of interest in food activities scale is very close to 0.50, the reliability scores and factor loadings were acceptable. Fornell and Larcker (1981) state that even if more than 50% of the variance is caused by error, the convergent validity of the construct can be accepted by considering other convergent validity scales. A composite reliability value higher than 0.60 is considered sufficient for convergent

validity when AVE is between 0.40–0.50 (Huang et al., 2013; Lam, 2012). The convergent validity of the scale was acceptable because the other validity and reliability values were high: AVE was higher than 0.40 (0.47) and CR was 0.84 (see Table 3).

During the measurement model assessment of interest in new and local culture and tasting local flavor scales, outer VIF, statistical significance (*p*-value/*t*-statistics), and outer weights/loadings were calculated (see Table 4).

Table 3. Validity and reliability results for reflective scales

Scales and items	λ	α	rho_A	CR	AVE
Travel lifestyle					
Preference for proximity and comfort (PPC)		0.839	0.847	0.885	0.607
The best vacation is the one where I relax and do nothing	0.782	–	–	–	–
I really like to visit places that my friends visited before me	0.803	–	–	–	–
I prefer a guided tour when I visit a destination	0.797	–	–	–	–
I prefer to stay in the best places on vacation	0.792	–	–	–	–
I prefer to visit places where people speak the same language	0.718	–	–	–	–
Preference for activities and adventures (PAA)		0.841	0.856	0.894	0.679
I try to do a lot of things while I am on vacation	0.821	–	–	–	–
I prefer to do a wide range of activities and visit attractions	0.945	–	–	–	–
The best vacation for me is one with nightlife	0.694	–	–	–	–
When I go on vacation, I look for adventures and stay away from mediocrity	0.774	–	–	–	–
Preference for destination food activities					
Interest in food activities (IFA)		0.791	0.840	0.842	0.476
I like to buy gastronomy-related books	0.662	–	–	–	–
I like to attend cooking classes in gastronomic destinations	0.572	–	–	–	–
I like to buy local products at gastronomic destinations	0.775	–	–	–	–
I like to read recipes and menus of the destination I am visiting	0.823	–	–	–	–
I like to cook my own meals on my trips, if possible	0.550	–	–	–	–
I like to participate in gastronomic events and festivals	0.718	–	–	–	–
Preference for destination travel activities (DTA)		0.885	0.907	0.914	0.643
I like visiting gastronomic destinations	0.826	–	–	–	–
I like visiting the traditional markets in Gaziantep	0.899	–	–	–	–
I like living like a local in Gaziantep	0.783	–	–	–	–
I like to enjoy Gaziantep to the fullest	0.883	–	–	–	–
I like to be flexible in the destinations I go to	0.796	–	–	–	–
I prefer to stay in small family-owned hotels instead of large chain hotels	0.582	–	–	–	–
Destination familiarity (DestF)		0.838	0.864	0.902	0.753
I am more familiar with gastronomic destinations than the average person	0.880	–	–	–	–
I am more familiar with gastronomic destinations than my circle of friends	0.889	–	–	–	–
I am more familiar with gastronomic destinations than those who travel a lot	0.833	–	–	–	–

Note: λ – indicator loadings, α – Cronbach's alpha, rho_A – construct scores are generated by means of mode A of PLS, CR – composite reliability, AVE – average variance extracted.

Source: authors' own work.

Table 4. Formative scales significance and validity results

Scales and items	Outer VIF	Weights/ Loadings	*t*-statistic	*p*-value
Interest in the new and local culture (ILC)				
I try to do a lot of things while I am on vacation	2.405	0.265 (0.879)	2.527	0.012
I prefer to do a wide range of activities and visit attractions	2.670	0.778 (0.987)	8.224	0.000
Tasting local flavors (TLF)				
The best vacations for me are those with nightlife	1.552	–0.042 (0.763)	0.275 (11.733)	0.783 (0.000)
When I go on vacation, I look for adventures and stay away from mediocrity	1.690	1.032 (0.995)	8.954	0.000

Note: VIF – variance inflation factor.
Source: authors' own work.

The results show that the outer VIF values for tasting local flavors and interest in new and local culture scales are less than 5.00 (Mason & Perreault, 1991) and that there was no multicollinearity problem. Both scales were examined for their outer loadings and significance levels. The interest in new and local culture items were statistically significant at the 0.05 level (*t*-statistics > 1.96), but the outer weight of the ILC1 items was below 0.50 (0.265). TLF1 items were statistically significant at the 0.05 level (*t*-statistics > 1.96) and the weight of the indicator was above 0.50. However, TLF2 was not statistically significant, and the weight of the indicator was below 0.50. Outer loadings of scale items were also examined showing that interest in new and local culture and tasting local flavors were statistically significant, with outer loadings above 0.50. Although the outer weights did not give the desired result, levels of suitability and significance were accepted by taking into account the outer loadings of the scales.

The chi-square (X^2) value of the research model was calculated as 1376.891. Standardized-root mean square residual (SRMR) was 0.067 (≤0.080) (Hu & Bentler, 1999), and the normed fit index (NFI) was 0.81 (≤0.80) (Byrne, 1994). The squared euclidean distance (d_ULS) was found as 1.798 and the geosedic distance (d_G) as 0.546, and the full compliance criteria were higher than their original values (>0.05) (Dijkstra & Henseler, 2015). The root mean square (RMS) theta value was higher than 0.12 (0.146) in model goodness-of-fit values (Henseler et al., 2014). Finally, goodness-of-fit (GoF) was calculated to be higher than 0.36 (0.65) (Tenenhaus et al., 2005). Thus, it has been determined that the goodness of fit values for the research model are acceptable (see Table 5).

Table 5. Model goodness of fit (GoF) values

Criteria	Model scores	Critical value
Chi-square (X^2)	1203.534	–
SRMR	0.068	≤ 0.08
d_ULS	1.852	> 0.05
d_G	0.491	> 0.05
NFI	0.816	≤ 0.80
RMS theta	0.146	≤ 0.12
GoF	0.412	≥ 0.36

Note: SRMR – standardized root mean square residual, d_ULS – the squared euclidean distance, d_G – the geosedic distance, NFI – normed fit index, RMS theta – root mean square theta.
Source: authors' own work.

To test the discriminant validity of the scales, the Fornell-Larcker criterion was calculated, and it were found to be higher than the correlation coefficients (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Secondly, heterotrait-monotrait ratio values were examined and found to be below 0.90 (Henseler et al., 2015) (see Table 6).

Table 6. Fornell-Larcker criterion and heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio

Scales	DTA	DestF	IFA	PAA	PPC
DTA	**0.802**	–	–	–	–
DestF	0.395 (0.459)	**0.868**	–	–	–
IFA	0.486 (0.528)	0.338 (0.371)	**0.691**	–	–
PAA	0.484 (0.548)	0.394 (0.459)	0.404 (0.452)	**0.824**	–
PPC	0.447 (0.496)	0.310 (0.355)	0.426 (0.483)	0.512 (0.601)	**0.779**

Note: the values in bold indicate the AVE square root values; the values inside parentheses show the heterotrait-monotrait ratio results; PPC – preference for proximity and comfort, PAA – preference for activities and adventure, IFA – interest in food activities, DTA – destination travel activity preference, DestF – destination familiarity.
Source: authors' own work.

Finally, the cross-loading values of the scales were calculated for discriminant validity, and it was determined that the correlation loadings between the indicators of each scale were higher than other correlation loadings (Hair et al., 2019) (see Table 7).

Table 7. Cross loadings

Items	DTA	DestF	IFA	PAA	PPC
DTA1	**0.826**	0.299	0.458	0.389	0.386
DTA2	**0.899**	0.321	0.456	0.470	0.445
DTA3	**0.784**	0.291	0.395	0.351	0.300
DTA4	**0.883**	0.303	0.427	0.413	0.420
DTA5	**0.797**	0.368	0.342	0.411	0.358
DTA6	**0.582**	0.343	0.217	0.250	0.175
DestF1	0.294	**0.880**	0.260	0.303	0.238
DestF2	0.398	**0.889**	0.366	0.385	0.312
DestF3	0.316	**0.833**	0.229	0.323	0.242
IFA1	0.210	0.144	**0.663**	0.177	0.229
IFA2	0.225	0.177	**0.573**	0.193	0.201
IFA3	0.462	0.354	**0.774**	0.403	0.417
IFA4	0.375	0.247	**0.822**	0.322	0.320
IFA5	0.215	0.182	**0.551**	0.194	0.224
IFA6	0.383	0.201	**0.718**	0.264	0.278
PAA1	0.434	0.330	0.296	**0.856**	0.420
PAA2	0.469	0.382	0.387	**0.892**	0.472
PAA3	0.308	0.293	0.286	**0.747**	0.393
PAA4	0.364	0.283	0.354	**0.793**	0.397
PPC1	0.348	0.282	0.373	0.422	**0.782**
PPC2	0.400	0.276	0.370	0.411	**0.803**
PPC3	0.311	0.160	0.263	0.388	**0.797**
PPC4	0.413	0.238	0.319	0.458	**0.792**
PPC5	0.235	0.226	0.315	0.293	**0.718**

Note: the values in bold indicate the AVE square root values; DTA – preference for destination travel activities, DestF – destination familiarity, IFA – interest in food activities, PAA – preference for activities and adventures, PPC – preference for proximity and comfort.

Source: authors' own work.

4.3. Structural model assessment

In the structural evaluation process of the scales in the research model (see Table 8), inner VIF values were examined first for linearity and the values yielded results below the threshold value of 5 (Becker et al., 2015). Secondly, the coefficient of determination (R^2) was calculated. The coefficient of determination of the independent variables is low for destination travel activity preference (0.25 ≤ 0.357 ≤ 0.50) and interest in food activities (0.25 ≤ 0.279 ≤ 0.50) and low for tasting local flavors (0.234 ≤ 0.25) and destination familiarity (0.201 ≤ 0.25) (Henseler et al., 2009). Effect sizes (f^2) were calculated in the third step. The effect of interest in new and local cultures and preference for activities and adventure on destination familiarity was low (0.02 ≤ 0.037 ≤ 0.15) (Chin, 1998) while that of preference for proximity and comfort was insufficient (0.007 ≤ 0.02). The effect of independent variables on destination travel activity preference was low (0.02 ≤ 0.037; 0.050; 0.031; 0.036 ≤ 0.15). The effect of destination familiarity, interest in new and local cultures, and preference for proximity and comfort on interest in food activities was low (0.02 ≤ 0.023; 0.035; 0.047 ≤ 0.15) while preference for activities and adventure was insufficient. Preference for activities and adventure on tasting local flavors and interest in new and local cultures was low (0.02 ≤ 0.037; 0.035 ≤ 0.15) while destination familiarity and preference for proximity and comfort were insufficient (0.006; 0.008 ≤ 0.02). Fourth, the predictive power (Q^2) of the model was calculated. The predictive power of destination travel activity preference (0.224 ≤ 0.25), interest in new and local cultures (0.115 ≤ 0.25), tasting local flavors (0.167 ≤ 0.25), and destination familiarity (0.142 ≤ 0.25) on dependent variables was low (Hair et al., 2019). Fifth, the partial predictive power (q^2) was calculated. The partial predictive powers of the scales were 0.02–0.15 at a low level (Chin, 1998). There are insufficient results for preference for proximity and comfort on interest in food activities (0.016 ≤ 0.02) and moderate results for the effect of destination familiarity on destination travel activity preference (0.15 ≤ 0.016 ≤ 0.35).

Table 8. Structural model evaluation analysis

Scales	f^2 and inner VIF				R^2	Q^2
	DestF	DTA	IFA	TLF		
DTA	–	–	–	–	0.357	0.224
IFA	–	–	–	–	0.279	0.115
TLF	–	–	–	–	0.234	0.167
DestF	–	1.251 (0.037)	1.251 (0.023)	1.251 (0.006)	0.201	0.142
ILC	1.613 (0.037)	1.673 (0.050)	1.673 (0.035)	1.673 (0.037)	–	–
PAA	1.672 (0.037)	1.733 (0.031)	1.733 (0.011)	1.733 (0.035)	–	–
PPC	1.462 (0.007)	1.472 (0.036)	1.472 (0.047)	1.472 (0.008)	–	–

Note: the values shown in parentheses are the f^2 model effect size scores; VIF – variance inflation factor, PPC – preference for proximity and comfort, PAA – preference for activities and adventure, IFA – interest in food activities, DTA – destination travel activity preference, DestF – destination familiarity, ILC – interest in new and local culture, TLF – tasting local flavors, R^2 – coefficient of determination, Q^2 – predictive power.

Source: authors' own work.

Table 9. PLSpredict analysis

Items	Partial last squares (PLS)				Linear regression model (LM)			
	RMSE	MAE	MAPE	Q^2_predict	RMSE	MAE	MAPE	Q^2_predict
DTA4	1.100	0.887	35.270	0.247	1.106	0.885	35.267	0.239
DTA6	1.403	1.190	55.819	0.060	1.414	**1.206**	56.774	0.045
DTA1	1.133	0.913	36.952	0.227	1.141	0.900	36.664	0.216
DTA3	1.232	1.014	42.994	0.132	1.233	1.013	43.444	0.131
DTA2	1.004	0.790	3.529	0.323	1.001	0.772	29.119	0.326
DTA5	1.102	0.910	35.353	0.218	1.110	0.908	34.860	0.208
DestF3	1.233	1.021	45.083	0.112	1.251	**1.038**	45.771	0.086
DestF1	1.243	0.992	44.291	0.110	1.248	**1.001**	44.603	0.104
DestF2	1.134	0.910	38.513	0.183	1.140	**0.915**	37.884	0.174
IFA6	1.306	1.064	51.413	0.131	1.317	**1.079**	51.787	0.117
IFA5	1.447	1.269	73.922	0.033	1.425	1.227	71.243	0.062
IFA3	1.066	0.851	35.281	0.249	1.066	0.836	33.293	0.249
IFA1	1.503	1.296	71.684	0.016	1.491	1.290	7.928	0.032
IFA4	1.212	0.966	45.016	0.152	1.222	**0.981**	45.376	0.138
IFA2	1.385	1.199	67.596	0.040	1.396	**1.220**	68.391	0.024
TLF1	1.237	1.021	45.086	0.117	1.242	1.018	44.744	0.111
TLF2	1.209	1.002	42.415	0.211	1.217	0.999	42.393	0.199

Note: LM MAE values in bold show those higher than PLS MAE values; DTA – preference for destination travel activities, DestF – destination familiarity, IFA – interest in food activities, TLF – tasting local flavors, RMSE – root mean squared error, MAE – mean absolute error, MAPE – mean absolute percentage error, Q^2_predict – represents the predictive ability of a model.

Source: authors' own work.

PLSpredict analysis was conducted to determine the predictive error level of the final analysis in the structural evaluation (see Table 9). As a result of the analysis, the PLS MAE values of the items were compared with the LM_MAE values for predictive errors, and it was determined that the PLS-SEM analysis had medium predictive power (Hair et al., 2019) and the Q^2_predict values of the items were higher than 0.

4.4. Structural equation modeling

The results show that preference for proximity and comfort ($\beta_{PPC\rightarrow IFA} = 0.223$, $t = 3.925$, $p < 0.001$), interest in the new and local culture ($\beta_{ILC\rightarrow IFA} = 0.206$, $t = 3.408$, $p < 0.001$) and preference for activities and adventure ($\beta_{PAA\rightarrow IFA} = 0.115$, $t = 1.966$, $p < 0.05$) have a positive and significant effect on interest in food activities. Thus, hypotheses H_{1a}, H_{1b} and H_{1c} were accepted. While interest in new and local culture ($\beta_{ILC\rightarrow TLF} = 0.218$, $t = 3.620$, $p < 0.001$) and preference for activities and adventure ($\beta_{PAA\rightarrow TLF} = 0.216$, $t = 3.644$, $p < 0.001$) have a positive and significant effect on tasting local flavors, preference for proximity and comfort ($\beta_{PPC\rightarrow TLF} = 0.095$, $t = 1.695$, $p < 0.001$) does not have a positive and significant effect on tasting local flavors. Hypotheses H_{2b} and H_{2c} were accepted while H_{2a} was not. The effect of preference for proximity and comfort ($\beta_{PPC\rightarrow DTA} = 0.185$, $t = 3.676$, $p < 0.001$), interest in new and local culture ($\beta_{ILC\rightarrow DTA} = 0.233$, $t = 4.304$, $p < 0.001$) and preference for activities and adventure ($\beta_{PAA\rightarrow DTA} = 0.187$, $t = 3.407$, $p < 0.001$) on destination travel activities were found to be positive and significant. Hence, hypotheses H_{3a}, H_{3b} and H_{3c} were accepted. While interest in new and local culture ($\beta_{ILC\rightarrow DestF} = 0.220$, $t = 3.679$, $p < 0.001$) and preference for activities and adventure ($\beta_{PAA\rightarrow DestF} = 0.221$, $t = 3.771$, $p < 0.001$) affect destination familiarity positively and significantly, preference for proximity and comfort ($\beta_{PPC\rightarrow DestF} = 0.090$, $t = 1.587$, $p < 0.001$) does not have an effect on destination familiarity. Hypotheses H_{4b} and H_{4c} were accepted while H_{4a} was not. Destination familiarity has a positive and significant effect on interest in food activities ($\beta_{DestF\rightarrow IFA} = 0.143$, $t = 3.141$, $p < 0.01$) and participation in destination travel activities ($\beta_{DestF\rightarrow DTA} = 0.173$, $t = 3.437$, $p < 0.001$) while it has not on tasting local flavors ($\beta_{DestF\rightarrow TLF} = 0.074$, $t = 1.437$, $p < 0.001$). Thus, hypotheses H_5 and H_6 were accepted while H_7 was not (see Table 10).

Table 10. Results of the structural equation modelling

Hypotheses		β	$\bar{X}$	*SD*	*t*-statistics	*p*-value	q^2	Result
H_{1a}	PPC → IFA	0.223	0.227	0.057	3.925	0.000***	0.016	Accepted
H_{1b}	ILC → IFA	0.206	0.205	0.060	3.408	0.001***	0.028	Accepted
H_{1c}	PAA → IFA	0.115	0.113	0.058	1.966	0.049*	0.032	Accepted
H_{2a}	PPC → TLF	0.095	0.094	0.056	1.695	0.090	0.068	Not accepted
H_{2b}	ILC → TLF	0.218	0.217	0.060	3.620	0.000***	0.035	Accepted
H_{2c}	PAA → TLF	0.216	0.218	0.059	3.644	0.000***	0.032	Accepted
H_{3a}	PPC → DTA	0.185	0.188	0.050	3.676	0.000***	0.068	Accepted
H_{3b}	ILC → DTA	0.233	0.232	0.054	4.304	0.000***	0.051	Accepted
H_{3c}	PAA → DTA	0.187	0.183	0.055	3.407	0.001***	0.055	Accepted
H_{4a}	PPC → DestF	0.090	0.089	0.057	1.587	0.113	0.086	Not accepted
H_{4b}	ILC → DestF	0.220	0.220	0.060	3.679	0.000***	0.037	Accepted
H_{4c}	PAA → DestF	0.221	0.221	0.059	3.771	0.000***	0.033	Accepted
H_{5}	DestF → IFA	0.143	0.143	0.045	3.141	0.002**	0.076	Accepted
H_{6}	DestF → TLF	0.074	0.075	0.052	1.437	0.151	0.130	Not accepted
H_{7}	DestF → DTA	0.173	0.173	0.050	3.437	0.001***	0.159	Accepted

Note: PPC – preference for proximity and comfort, IFA – interest in food activities, ILC – interest in new and local culture, PAA – preference for activities and adventure, TLF – tasting local flavors, DTA – preference for destination travel activity, DestF – destination familiarity, *SD* – standard deviation, β – beta coefficient, $\bar{X}$ – arithmetic mean, q^2 – predictive relevance of scales; * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$.

Source: authors' own work.

4.5. Mediation effect results

The study examined the mediating effect of destination familiarity between dependent and independent variables. If the direct effect and the mediation effect are significant, there is partial mediation while if the direct effect is insignificant and the mediation effect is significant, there is full mediation (Zhao et al., 2010).

The research results suggest that destination familiarity does not have a mediating role

Table 11. Destination familiarity mediation effect results

Hypotheses		β	$\bar{X}$	*SD*	*t*-statistics	*p*-value	Result
H_{8a}	PPC → DestF → DTA	0.016	0.015	0.011	1.434	0.152	Not accepted
H_{8b}	ILC → DestF → DTA	0.038	0.038	0.014	2.661	0.008**	Accepted
H_{8c}	PAA → DestF → DTA	0.038	0.039	0.017	2.237	0.025*	Accepted
H_{9a}	PPC → DestF → IFA	0.013	0.013	0.009	1.404	0.160	Not accepted
H_{9b}	ILC → DestF → IFA	0.031	0.032	0.014	2.189	0.029*	Accepted
H_{9c}	PAA → DestF → IFA	0.032	0.032	0.013	2.361	0.018*	Accepted
H_{10a}	PPC → DestF → TLF	0.007	0.006	0.006	1.033	0.302	Not accepted
H_{10b}	ILC → DestF → TLF	0.016	0.017	0.013	1.268	0.205	Not accepted
H_{10c}	PAA → DestF → TLF	0.016	0.017	0.013	1.284	0.199	Not accepted

Note: β – beta coefficient, $\bar{X}$ – arithmetic mean; PPC – preference for proximity and comfort, DestF – destination familiarity, DTA – destination travel activity preference, ILC – interest in new and local culture, PAA – preference for activities and adventure, IFA – interest in food activities, TLF – tasting local flavors, *SD* – standard deviation; * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$.

Source: authors' own work.

between preference for proximity and comfort ($\beta_{PPC\rightarrow DestF\rightarrow DTA} = 0.016$, $t = 1.434$, $p < 0.001$) and participation in destination travel activities. While there is a positive mediation effect between interest in new and local culture ($\beta_{ILC\rightarrow DestF\rightarrow DTA} = 0.038$, $t = 2.661$, $p < 0.001$), preference for activities and adventures ($\beta_{PAA\rightarrow DestF\rightarrow DTA} = 0.038$, $t = 2.237$, $p < 0.001$) and participation in destination travel activities. Hence, hypotheses H_{8b} and H_{8c} were accepted while H_{8a} was not. There is partial mediation for hypotheses H_{8b} and H_{8c}.

Destination familiarity does not have a positive and significant mediation effect between preference for proximity and comfort ($\beta_{PPC\rightarrow DestF\rightarrow IFA} = 0.013$, $t = 1.404$, $p < 0.001$) and interest in food activities. However, there is a positive and significant mediation effect between interest in new and local culture ($\beta_{ILC\rightarrow DestF\rightarrow IFA} = 0.031$, $t = 2.189$, $p < 0.001$), preference for activities and adventure ($\beta_{PAA\rightarrow DestF\rightarrow IFA} = 0.032$, $t = 2.361$, $p < 0.001$) and interest in food activities. Therefore, hypotheses H_{9b} and H_{9c} were accepted and H_{9a} was not. There is partial mediation for hypotheses $H_{9b \text{ and }} H_{9c}$. Destination familiarity does not have a positive or significant mediation effect between preference for proximity and comfort ($\beta_{PPC\rightarrow DestF\rightarrow TLF} = 0.007$, $t = 1.033$, $p < 0.001$), interest in new and local culture ($\beta_{ILC\rightarrow DestF\rightarrow TLF} = 0.016$, $t = 1.268$, $p < 0.001$), preference for activities and adventure ($\beta_{PAA\rightarrow DestF\rightarrow TLF} = 0.016$, $t = 1.284$, $p < 0.001$), and tasting local flavors. Hypotheses H_{10a}, H_{10b} and H_{10c} were, therefore, not accepted (see Table 11).

5. Discussion and conclusions

The consumer behavior of tourists has attracted the attention of many researchers over the last thirty years (Bello & Etzel, 1985; Cohen et al., 2014). The tourism sector has focused on different aspects of tourist behaviors such as consumer behavior research and understanding the travel decision-making process (Decrop, 1999; Lin et al., 2014). There are many factors affecting the travel decision-making process. Among these factors, there are past experiences and personality in addition to lifestyle and travel life preferences (Chen et al., 2009; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998). Travel decisions do not only affect destination choices but also affect destination activity choices (Lee et al., 2014).

Investigating the mediation effect of destination familiarity and the effect of lifestyle on participation in food and travel activities, this study found that preference for proximity and comfort, interest in new and local culture, and preference for activities and adventure positively affect interest in food activities. Lee et al. (2014) detected the effect of interest in new and local culture on food and travel activities. However, there were no other similar effects. This could be because the study was focused on the slow food movement. Food activities and interest in new and local culture may have been emphasized more in the slow food movement. However, since this study was not handled from that perspective, any travel choice may have had an impact on participation in food and travel activities. Bardhi et al. (2010) found that American tourists on a ten-day trip to China preferred familiar products due to feelings of alienation. This result can be interpreted indirectly as meaning that as tourists' interest in local culture increases, the feeling of alienation disappears and they become more involved in food and travel activities. Since a significant proportion of the tourists in the research sample are domestic tourists, it is understandable that they do not experience a feeling of alienation and participate in food and travel activities as their interest in local culture increases.

All dimensions, except for the preference for proximity and comfort, positively affect tasting local flavors. Previous studies also offer similar results (Chang et al., 2010; Molz, 2007). The underlying reason for this may be that tourists who prioritize proximity and comfort find it risky for their health and palate to taste local flavors and therefore avoid them. On the other hand, tourists who prioritize proximity and comfort may tend to participate on inflexible predetermined tours, as they are generally risk-averse. This explains why, even if they are interested in local culture, this may not lead to participation in food and travel activities. The study by Caber et al. (2020), which determines the effect of perceived risk level, which is closely related to comfort perception, on tourist behavior, supports this idea.

Another finding is that all dimensions, except the preference for proximity and comfort, positively affect destination familiarity. This result is compatible with the study of Basala and Klenosky (2001). Basala and Klenosky (2001) who also pointed out that travel lifestyle preferences affect destination familiarity. It is also among the important findings of the study that destination familiarity positively affects interest in local culture and participation in travel activities but does not affect tasting local flavors positively. The results of the mediating effect of the destination showed that travel lifestyle preferences (except for the preference for proximity and comfort) mediated between interest in food activities and interest in new and local culture, but not participation on travel activities. There are studies in the literature examining the mediating effect of destination familiarity in this context (Bettman & Park, 1980; Hernández-Maestro et al., 2007; Park & Lessig, 1981). Baloglu (2001) emphasized that destination familiarity has the potential to affect the destination research

behaviors of tourists and the processes that would affect these behaviors. The most striking aspect of this study is that the preference for proximity and comfort among travel lifestyle preferences generally does not have an effect on the dependent variables, and accordingly, destination familiarity does not mediate the effect of this variable on other variables. This stems from the fact that tourists, who prefer proximity and comfort, are hesitant to participate in many kinds of activities, mainly food or travel, and are reluctant to go beyond their comfort zones. So much so that these people may prefer to stay away from these activities as they involve the dangers of participating in travel and food activities and tasting new flavors that would disrupt their comfort. Additionally, the fact that destination familiarity does not mediate between travel lifestyle preferences and participation in travel activities is a noteworthy result obtained in this study and does not overlap with many of the existing studies in the literature (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Milman & Pizam, 1995). This could be due to the period when the data were collected during COVID-19, which greatly affected the travel motivations and activities and the effect of destination familiarity on travel activities may have decreased. However, in general, destination familiarity can be said to play a mediating role between travel lifestyle preferences and participation in food and travel activities. Many studies showing similar effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourist behavior have led to this belief (Li et al., 2020; Moya Calderón et al., 2022; Neuburger & Egger, 2021).

6. Implications

The study revealed that the lifestyle preferences of tourists and destination familiarity are extremely important in participation in food and travel activities. For this reason, the decision-makers of a destination should consider the compatibility of destination identity with the lifestyle preferences when forming the identity of a destination. Destinations can also adopt strategies that will promote it to large audiences and increase familiarity with the destination, instead of only high-cost advertisements. This study includes indications of how Gaziantep can better focus on branding and marketing strategies for international destinations. It can be suggested that Gaziantep develops alternatives to travel and food activities that would appeal to different lifestyles. Other pioneering studies such as this one are needed to examine other reasons for participation in travel and food activities to contribute to the presence of Gaziantep on the international market.

7. Limitations and future research

In this study, only tourists visiting the Gaziantep region of Türkiye were selected as the sample. In addition, the research included an evaluation of destination awareness. These points show the limitations of the research. In future studies, the tourism services offered in different cities can be taken into account and comparisons can be made. In particular, current catering concepts and practices can be examined. In addition, the research could be evaluated through different theoretical models. The mediation role used in the research could be evaluated with different variables. In future research, travel activities and destination awareness could be evaluated taking into account demographic characteristics.

References

Acevedo, C.R., & Nohara, J. (2004). *Consumer behavior in tourism: A study with senior tourists* [Paper presentation]. Construções Teóricas no Campo do Turismo. II Seminário de Pesquisa em Turismo do Mercosul, 10 e 11 de setembro de 2004. https://www.ucs.br/site/midia/arquivos/17-consumer-behavior.pdf

Aksoy, M., & Sezgi, G. (2015). Gastronomi turizmi ve güneydoğu Anadolu bölgesi gastronomik unsurlar. *Journal of Tourism and Gastronomy Studies*, *3*(3), 79–89.

Alba, J.W., & Hutchinson, J.W. (1987). Dimensions of consumer expertise. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *13*(4), 411–454. https://doi.org/10.1086/209080

Assaker, G., Vinzi, V.E., & O'Connor, P. (2011). Examining the effect of novelty seeking, satisfaction, and destination image on tourists' return pattern: A two factor, non-linear latent growth model. *Tourism Management*, *32*(4), 890–901. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2010.08.004

Bagozzi, R.P., & Yi, Y. (1988). On the evaluation of structural equation models. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *16*(1), 74–94. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02723327

Baloglu, S. (2001). Image variations of Turkey by familiarity index: Informational and experiential dimensions. *Tourism Management*, *22*(2), 127–133. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(00)00049-2

Bardhi, F., Ostberg, J., & Bengtsson, A. (2010). Negotiating cultural boundaries: Food, travel and consumer identities. *Consumption, Markets & Culture*, *13*(2), 133–157. https://doi.org/10.1080/10253860903562148

Basala, S.L., & Klenosky, D.B. (2001). Travel-style preferences for visiting a novel destination: A conjoint investigation across the novelty-familiarity continuum. *Journal of Travel Research*, *40*(2), 172–182. https://doi.org/10.1177/004728750104000208

Becker, J.-M., Ringle, C.M., Sarstedt, M., & Völckner, F. (2015). How collinearity affects mixture regression results. *Marketing Letters*, *26*(4), 643–659. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11002-014-9299-9

Bello, D.C., & Etzel, M.J. (1985). The role of novelty in the pleasure travel experience. *Journal of Travel Research*, *24*(1), 20–26. https://doi.org/10.1177/004728758502400104

Benedicktus, R.L., Brady, M.K., Darke, P.R., & Voorhees, C.M. (2010). Conveying trustworthiness to online consumers: Reactions to consensus, physical store presence, brand familiarity, and generalized suspicion. *Journal of Retailing*, *86*(4), 322–335. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretai.2010.04.002

Bettman, J.R., & Park, C.W. (1980). Effects of prior knowledge and experience and phase of the choice process on consumer decision processes: A protocol analysis. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *7*(3), 234–248. https://doi.org/10.1086/208812

Bollen, K.A., & Ting, K.-F. (1993). Confirmatory tetrad analysis. *Sociological Methodology*, *23*, 147–175. https://doi.org/10.2307/271009

Byrne, B.M. (1994). *Structural equation modelling with EQS and EQS/Windows: Basic concepts, applications, and programming*. Sage.

Caber, M., González-Rodríguez, M.R., Albayrak, T., & Simonetti, B. (2020). Does perceived risk really matter in travel behaviour? *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *26*(3), 334–353. https://doi.org/10.1177/1356766720927762

Cai, L.A., Lehto, X.Y., & O'Leary, J. (2001). Profiling the U.S.-bound Chinese travelers by the purpose of trip. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, *7*(4), 3–16. https://doi.org/10.1300/J150v07n04_02

Carneiro, M.J., & Crompton, J.L. (2010). The influence of involvement, familiarity, and constraints on the search for information about destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, *49*(4), 451–470. https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287509346798

Chang, R.C.Y., Kivela, J., & Mak, A.H.N. (2010). Food preferences of Chinese tourists. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *37*(4), 989–1011. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2010.03.007

Chen, J.S., Huang, Y.-C., & Cheng, J.-S. (2009). Vacation lifestyle and travel behaviors. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *26*(5–6), 494–506. https://doi.org/10.1080/10548400903163038

Chi, H.-K., Huang, K.-C., & Nguyen, H.M. (2020). Elements of destination brand equity and destination familiarity regarding travel intention. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *52*, Article 101728. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2018.12.012

Chin, W.W. (1998). The partial least squares approach to structural equation modeling. In G.A. Marcoulides (Ed.), *Modern methods for business research* (pp. 295–336). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

Circella, G., Alemi, F., Tiedeman, K., Handy, S., & Mokhtarian, P. (2018, March). *The adoption of shared mobility in California and its relationship with other components of travel behavior: A research report from the National Center for Sustainable Transportation*. National Center for Sustainable Transportation; UC Davis, Institute of Transportation Studies. https://escholarship.org/uc/item/1kq5d07p

Cohen, S.A., Prayag, G., & Moital, M. (2014). Consumer behaviour in tourism: Concepts, influences and opportunities. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *17*(10), 872–909. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2013.850064

Decrop, A. (1999). Tourists' decision-making and behaviour processes. In A. Pizam & Y. Mansfeld (Eds.), *Consumer behaviour in travel and tourism* (pp. 103–134). Routledge.

Dijkstra, T.K., & Henseler, J. (2015). Consistent partial least squares path modeling. *MIS Quarterly*, *39*(2), 297–316. https://doi.org/10.25300/MISQ/2015/39.2.02

Du, J., & Zhang, H. (2003). *Research on the consumer behaviour pattern of Chinese outbound tourists*. Tourism Education Press.

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D.F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *18*(1), 39–50. https://doi.org/10.1177/002224378101800104

Gursoy, D., & McCleary, K.W. (2004). Travelers' prior knowledge and its impact on their information search behavior. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *28*(1), 66–94. https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348003261218

Hair, J.F., Jr., Matthews, L.M., Matthews, R.L., & Sarstedt, M. (2017). PLS-SEM or CB-SEM: Updated guidelines on which method to use. *International Journal of Multivariate Data Analysis (IJMDA)*, *1*(2), 107–123. https://doi.org/10.1504/IJMDA.2017.087624

Hair, J.F., Risher, J.J., Sarstedt, M., & Ringle, C.M. (2019). When to use and how to report the results of PLS-SEM. *European Business Review*, *31*(1), 2–24. https://doi.org/10.1108/EBR-11-2018-0203

Han, J., & Yamana, H. (2016). A study on individual mobility patterns based on individuals' familiarity to visited areas. *International Journal of Pervasive Computing and Communications*, *12*(1), 23–48. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJPCC-01-2016-0010

Henry, P. (2006). *Consumption, culture and consumer life-choices in Australia*. Emerald Group Publishing.

Henseler, J., Dijkstra, T.K., Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C.M., Diamantopoulos, A., Straub, D.W., Ketchen, D.J., Jr., Hair, J.F., Hult, G.T.M., & Calantone, R.J. (2014). Common beliefs and reality about PLS: Comments on Rönkkö and Evermann (2013). *Organizational Research Methods*, *17*(2), 182–209. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428114526928

Henseler, J., Ringle, C.M., & Sarstedt, M. (2015). A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *43*(1), 115–135. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-014-0403-8

Henseler, J., Ringle, C.M., & Sinkovics, R.R. (2009). The use of partial least squares path modeling in international marketing. In R.R. Sinkovics & P.N. Ghauri (Eds.), *Advances in international marketing: Vol. 20: New challenges to international marketing* (pp. 277–319). Emerald Group Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1108/S1474-7979(2009)0000020014

Hernández-Maestro, R.M., Muñoz-Gallego, P.A., & Santos-Requejo, L. (2007). The moderating role of familiarity in rural tourism in Spain. *Tourism Management*, *28*(4), 951–964. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2006.08.009

Hu, L., & Bentler, P.M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, *6*(1), 1–55. https://doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118

Huang, C.-C., Wang, Y.-M., Wu, T.-W., & Wang, P.-A. (2013). An empirical analysis of the antecedents and performance consequences of using the Moodle platform. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology*, *3*(2), 217–221. https://doi.org/10.7763/IJIET.2013.V3.267

Johnson, E.J., & Russo, J.E. (1984). Product familiarity and learning new information. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *11*(1), 542–550. https://doi.org/10.1086/208990

Kaiser, H.F. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika*, *39*(1), 31–36. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02291575

Khan, S. (2019). Travel lifestyle of young Indian students: 'Gender distinct' or 'gender blurred'. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Systems*, *12*(2), 17–26.

Kivela, J., & Crotts, J.C. (2006). Tourism and gastronomy: Gastronomy's influence on how tourists experience a destination. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *30*(3), 354–377. https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348006286797

Kuhzady, S., Çakici, C., Olya, H., Mohajer, B., & Han, H. (2020). Couchsurfing involvement in non-profit peer-to-peer accommodations and its impact on destination image, familiarity, and behavioral intentions. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *44*, 131–142. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2020.05.002

Lam, L.W. (2012). Impact of competitiveness on salespeople's commitment and performance. *Journal of Business Research*, *65*(9), 1328–1334. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.10.026

Lee, K.-H., Packer, J., & Scott, N. (2015). Travel lifestyle preferences and destination activity choices of Slow Food members and non-members. *Tourism Management*, *46*, 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.05.008

Lee, K.-H., Scott, N., & Packer, J. (2014). Habitus and food lifestyle: In-destination activity participation of Slow Food members. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *48*, 207–220. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2014.06.009

Lee, S.H., & Cox, C. (2007). Acculturation, travel, lifestyle, and tourist behavior: A study of Korean immigrants in Australia. *Tourism Culture & Communication*, *7*(3), 183–196. https://doi.org/10.3727/109830407782212484

Lee, S.-H., & Sparks, B. (2007). Cultural influences on travel lifestyle: A comparison of Korean Australians and Koreans in Korea. *Tourism Management*, *28*(2), 505–518. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2006.03.003

Lee, S., Scott, D., & Kim, H. (2008). Celebrity fan involvement and destination perceptions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *35*(3), 809–832. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2008.06.003

Li, Z., Zhang, S., Liu, X., Kozak, M., & Wen, J. (2020). Seeing the invisible hand: Underlying effects of COVID-19 on tourists' behavioral patterns. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *18*, Article 100502. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2020.100502

Lin, J.-H., Lee, S.-J., Yeh, C., Lee, W.-H., & Wong, J.-Y. (2014). Identifying gender differences in destination decision making. *Journal of Tourism and Recreation*, *1*(1), 1–11.

Mak, A.H.N., Lumbers, M., & Eves, A. (2012). Globalisation and food consumption in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *39*(1), 171–196. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2011.05.010

Mason, C.H., & Perreault, W.D. (1991). Collinearity, power, and interpretation of multiple regression analysis. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *28*(3), 268–280. https://doi.org/10.1177/002224379102800302

Milman, A., & Pizam, A. (1995). The role of awareness and familiarity with a destination: The Central Florida case. *Journal of Travel Research*, *33*(3), 21–27. https://doi.org/10.1177/004728759503300304

Molz, J. (2007). Eating difference: The cosmopolitan mobilities of culinary tourism. *Space and Culture*, *10*(1), 77–93. https://doi.org/10.1177/1206331206296383

Moya Calderón, M., Chavarría Esquivel, K., Arrieta García, M.M., & Lozano, C.B. (2022). Tourist behaviour and dynamics of domestic tourism in times of COVID-19. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *25*(14), 2207–2211. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2021.1947993

Neuburger, L., & Egger, R. (2021). Travel risk perception and travel behaviour during the COVID-19 pandemic 2020: A case study of the DACH region. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *24*(7), 1003–1016. https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2020.1803807

Park, C.W., & Lessig, V. (1981). Familiarity and its impact on consumer biases and heuristics. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *8*(2), 223–230. https://doi.org/10.1086/208859

Quan, S., & Wang, N. (2004). Towards a structural model of the tourist experience: An illustration from food experiences in tourism. *Tourism Management*, *25*(3), 297–305. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(03)00130-4

Rao, A.R., & Sieben, W.A. (1992). The effect of prior knowledge on price acceptability and the type of information examined. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *19*(2), 256–270. https://doi.org/10.1086/209300

Reisinger, Y. (2009). *International tourism: Cultures and behavior*. Butterworth-Heinemann.

Schul, P., & Crompton, J.L. (1983). Search behavior of international vacationers: Travel-specific lifestyle and sociodemographic variables. *Journal of Travel Research*, *22*(2), 25–30. https://doi.org/10.1177/004728758302200206

Sirakaya, E., & Woodside, A.G. (2005). Building and testing theories of decision making by travellers. *Tourism Management*, *26*(6), 815–832. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2004.05.004

Sönmez, S.F., & Graefe, A.R. (1998). Determining future travel behavior from past travel experience and perceptions of risk and safety. *Journal of Travel Research*, *37*(2), 171–177. https://doi.org/10.1177/004728759803700209

Sünnetçioğlu, A., Çakici, A.C., & Erdem, S.H. (2020). The effect of travel lifestyle, cultural sensitivity and food neophobia on local food preference. *Journal of Tourism and Gastronomy Studies*, *8*(2), 746–761. https://jotags.net/index.php/jotags/article/view/1412

Tan, W.-K., & Wu, C.-E. (2016). An investigation of the relationships among destination familiarity, destination image and future visit intention. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *5*(3), 214–226. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2015.12.008

Tenenhaus, M., Esposito Vinzi, V., Chatelin, Y.-M., & Lauro, C. (2005). PLS path modeling. *Computational Statistics & Data Analysis*, *48*(1), 159–205. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.csda.2004.03.005

Toyama, M., & Yamada, Y. (2012). The relationships among tourist novelty, familiarity, satisfaction, and destination loyalty: Beyond the novelty-familiarity continuum. *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, *4*(6), 10–18. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijms.v4n6p10

Ural, A., & Kılıç, İ. (2005). *Bilimsel araştırma süreci ve SPSS ile veri analizi*. Detay Yayıncılık.

Van Acker, V., Goodwin, P., & Witlox, F. (2016). Key research themes on travel behavior, lifestyle, and sustainable urban mobility. *International Journal of Sustainable Transportation*, *10*(1), 25–32. https://doi.org/10.1080/15568318.2013.821003

Veal, A.J. (1993). The concept of lifestyle: A review. *Leisure Studies*, *12*(4), 233–252. https://doi.org/10.1080/02614369300390231

Wahlers, R.G., & Etzel, M.J. (1985). Vacation preference as a manifestation of optimal stimulation and lifestyle experience. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *17*(4), 283–295. https://doi.org/10.1080/00222216.1985.11969638

Weinstein, A., & Cahill, D.J. (2006). *Lifestyle market segmentation*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203823675

Wen, J., & Huang, S. (2019). The effects of push and pull travel motivations, personal values, and destination familiarity on tourist loyalty: A study of Chinese cigar tourists to Cuba. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *24*(8), 805–821. https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2019.1635504

Woodside, A.G., & Pitts, R.E. (1976). Effects of consumer life styles, demographics, and travel activities on foreign and domestic travel behavior. *Journal of Travel Research*, *14*(3), 13–15. https://doi.org/10.1177/004728757601400304

Zhao, X., Lynch, J.G., Jr., & Chen, Q. (2010). Reconsidering Baron and Kenny: Myths and truths about mediation analysis. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *37*(2), 197–206. https://doi.org/10.1086/651257

Zhou, L., King, B., & Turner, L. (1998). The China outbound market: An evaluation of key constraints and opportunities. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *4*(2), 109–119. https://doi.org/10.1177/135676679800400203