Predicting tourist diners’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour in Gaborone, Botswana: an application of the Theory of Interpersonal Behaviour

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Abstract

This study investigated the importance of the Theory of Interpersonal Behaviour in predicting tourist diners’ local cuisine consumption behaviour in Gaborone. A semi-structured self-administered questionnaire was distributed to a purposive sample of 249 diners at 47 restaurant facilities in Gaborone. Using correlation analysis and stepwise multiple regression, the study identified three main factors: ‘arousal’, an ‘open culture’ and ‘social others’, that explained at least 34% of the variance in consumption behaviour in Gaborone and specifically amongst Batswana, who were the majority of diners. From these findings, it can be concluded that ‘social others’ like family and friends, and an open receptive culture; being some of the common characteristics of Batswana, are essential in understanding cuisine tourism development in Botswana.

Keywords: Local cuisine, consumption behaviour, cuisine tourism, Gaborone
Introduction

Understanding tourists’ behaviour, as consumers, is complex, involving cultural, social, psychological and physical factors. As such a number of theories have been proposed to assist researchers understand tourists’ intentions of behaving and actual behaviour in particular ways. Of importance to note have been the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), the Theory of Planned behaviour (TPB), and the Theory of Interpersonal Behaviour (TIB). In particular, the study made use of the TIB in identifying the main factors that predict Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour amongst diners at several restaurant facilities in Gaborone, Botswana. Mak et al. (2012) supported such research on tourists’ food consumption behaviour arguing that it is appropriate to the hospitality and tourism industry as it helps develop and promote gastronomic products, events and activities.

This study (presenting some findings from a broader study on tourists’ cuisine experiences) is invaluable because of its contribution to tourist experience studies, which are limited in Botswana (ITRC, 2007). Previous studies examining food tourists’ behaviour (Kim, Kim & Goh, 2011) and tourists’ experiences of local cuisine (Ryu & Jang, 2006; Ryu & Han, 2010) elsewhere have used the modified TRA. By using the TIB, instead, to examine tourists’ actual behaviour, not behavioural intentions, towards local cuisine experiences, this study contributes further to the limited use of the TIB in predicting actual behaviour, in extant literature.

Literature review

The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) which has its origins in social psychology, has been applied in numerous settings including information technology (Bergeron, et al., 1995), culture and service quality (Liu, Furrer & Sudharshan, 2001) and fast food consumption (Dunn, Mohr, Wilson & Wittert, 2011) to mention a few. Quite recently, the model has also been applied in tourism (Chang, Mak & Chin, 2011; Han, Hsu & Sheu, 2010; Han & Kim, 2010; Kim, et al., 2011; Lam & Hsu, 2004; Lam & Hsu, 2006; Phetvaroon, 2006; Ramkissoon & Nunkoo, 2010; Ryu & Han, 2010; Ryu & Jang, 2006; Quintal, Lee & Soutar, 2010; Zhang, 2008). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), indicated that in the model, beliefs lead to attitudes, attitudes lead to intentions and intentions lead to behaviour. A new cycle of new beliefs is only formed by performing some behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). As such, attitude is one of the main determinants of behaviour in the TRA (Conner & Armitage, 1998). According to Werner (cited by Sarosa, 2009), the TRA was however criticized for neglecting social factors (or subjective norms) as determinants of individual behaviour. Mak et al. (2012) supported the importance of social factors in influencing tourists’ food preferences.

To overcome the TRA’s weakness, Ajzen (1991) proposed ‘perceived behavioural control’ as an additional determinant of behaviour, in the TPB; this being the differentiating factor between the two. Perceived behavioural control refers to the perception of how a specific behaviour will be easily performed (Ajzen, 1991). According to Ajzen (1991) perceived behavioural control and behavioural intentions can directly influence behavioural achievement. Perceived behavioural control might also indirectly influence behaviour (Sarosa, 2009). Although the TRA and TPB assume behavioural intentions are influenced by attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control, Werner (cited by Sarosa, 2009) argued that, determinants of behavioural intentions are not limited to these three factors. Intentions may also change during the assessment time gap between behavioural intention and actual behaviour and individuals may not always behave as predicted and indicated (Werner as cited by Sarosa, 2009). Because of such short comings, another model, the Theory of Interpersonal Behaviour (TIB) was proposed in order to understand consumer behaviour.
The TIB, as a behavioural model has higher predictive power than the TRA and TPB, especially through the inclusion of factors such as habit (Bamberg & Schmidt, 2003; Thompson, Higgins & Howell, 1991), affect and interpersonal agreements (social variables). (Robinson, 2010). The TIB has been successfully used in information technology adoption and use behaviours (Thompson, et al., 1991; Bergeron, et al., 1995; Robinson, 2010), in travel mode decision making (Verplanken, Aarts & van Knippenburg, 1997) and in predicting resident-tourist behaviours (Zhang, 2008). Recently the model has been used in hospitality. For instance, Kim and Lee (2011) used the model on hotel employees’ knowledge sharing behaviour. They found anticipated usefulness and reciprocal relationships to be two of the most important enablers of employees' knowledge-sharing behaviour.

The TIB model identifies three levels to any behaviour (Figure 1) (Robinson, 2010).

![Figure 1: Triandis' TIB Model](Source: Egmond & Bruel, 2007:9).

The model starts with examining the behaviour itself (Level Three) working backwards and identifies the determinants of behaviour (Level Three) and determinants of behavioural intentions (Levels Two and One). This study was however much interested in Level Three of the TIB (Figure 1) that which identifies the main determinants or predictors of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

In the original TIB model, Triandis (1977) argued that the probability that certain behaviour will occur is determined by three factors; intention, habits and facilitating conditions as indicated in Level Three (Figure 1). However, personality traits which are often considered important determinants of cuisine related behaviour (Mak, et al., 2012) were also included in the modified version of the TIB used in this study.

**Habit and Intention**

Habit, in this study, refers to a respondent’s repeated behaviour (Robinson, 2010) associated with
experiencing local cuisine. Whilst Zhang (2008) distinguished habit from actual behaviour, Kim and Lee (2011) posited that habit and actual behaviour have a tautological relationship. This is mainly because habit in the TIB, is assessed using a measurement of past behaviour or behavioural frequency (Cheung, Chang & Lai, 2000). For this reason, neither intentions nor habits were considered as predictors of actual behaviour as they were considered to be tautological to actual behaviour. Non-inclusion of intentions helps ‘simplify the model, prevent retrospective problems and provide more meaningful and accurate results’ (Kim & Lee, 2011:7).

Tourist's Personality Traits

Personality traits refer to ‘individual characteristics that exert a pervasive influence on a broad range of food-related behaviours’ (Mak, et al., 2012). Food neophobia, food neophilia, variety seeking and novelty seeking are food-related personality traits that may influence tourists’ consumption of food at the destination (Mak, et al., 2012; Cohen & Avieli, 2004). In this study variety seeking and novelty seeking were considered as motivations arising from food neophilia and neophobia. As Mkono, Markwell and Wilson, suggest (2013), food neophilia is the tendency to be driven by novel food hence the motive of novelty seeking. Food neophiles seek new food in order to increase sensation and derive pleasure (Kim, Eves & Scarles, 2009). In fact, Jang and Feng (2007:582) argued that ‘novelty seeking is a central component of travel motivation’. As such this study only discussed food neophobia and food neophilia as the two main personality traits that predict local cuisine consumption behaviour (Kim, Eves & Scarles, 2013).

Food neophobia is the tendency to dislike unfamiliar foods (Tuorila LaÈhteenmaki, Pohjalainen & Lotti, 2001). Pliner and Hobden (1992:105) described it as ‘a reluctance to eat and/or avoidance of new foods’. The more familiar a food is to the consumer the less phobic they are to it (Park & Lessig cited by Hwang & Lin, 2010). For instance, in their survey Hwang and Lin (2010) found that consumers who had stronger food neophobia were less likely to be familiar with Asian food, whilst those who were more familiar with Asian food were more likely to accept Asian food. Therefore this study posited that:

Hypothesis 1a₁: Food neophobia predicts tourists’ local cuisine consumption behaviour.

(Hypothesis 1a₀: Food neophobia does not predict tourists’ local cuisine consumption behaviour).

Facilitating conditions

Facilitating conditions were also considered as predictors of behaviour in the original TIB model (Edmond & Bruel, 2007). Facilitating factors are environmental related factors that are objective and external. These factors are usually geographic or resource based and they are known to make an ‘act easy to do’ (Triandis, 1980:25) and hence could favour or constrain the experience of local cuisine. They are important predictors of behaviour and prevail even when intentions are strong and habit is established (Bergeron, et al., 1995). If facilitating conditions are strongly negative, then even habits and intentions will have limited influence (Robinson, 2010). As such, social (Kim & Lee, 2011), cultural factors (Verbeke & Lopez, 2005), attributes of food and beverages at the destination and
attributes of the destination (Mak et al., 2012), were considered, in this study, as the main facilitating conditions that could influence cuisine consumption behaviour as these are objective and externally driven factors. Though isolated for discussion purposes, the succeeding sections highlight how each of these factors has an influence on the eventual behaviour of consuming local cuisine.

Social Influence

Though social factors are determinants of behavioural intentions, in a modified TIB, some authors (e.g Kim & Lee, 2011; Thompson, et al., 1991), verified the direct influence of these factors on actual behaviour. Social factors are ‘an individual’s internalization of the reference groups’ subjective culture, and specific interpersonal agreements that the individual has made with others, in specific social situations’ (Triandis, 1980) and these could refer to a person’s most important others’, such as friends, peers or relatives. Therefore the study posited that:

**Hypothesis 2**: ‘Social others’ predict tourists Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

**(Hypothesis 2)**: ‘Social others’ do not predict tourists Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour).

Cultural Norms

There are marked differences in culture across different nationalities. Verbeke and Lopez (2005) observed that the Belgians were more open to other cultures. The openness of Belgians to other cultures was significantly correlated with the frequency of eating ethnic food ($r = .232, p < .05$) and food neophobia ($r = .382, p < .01$). Culture as Niell, Kozak and LeGrys (2000) also confirm, results in different satisfaction perceptions of local food at the destination. Therefore in this study, the TIB has been modified to include such a variable. Hence:

**Hypothesis 3**: An open culture favours tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

**(Hypothesis 3)**: An open culture does not favour tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour).

Attributes of Food at the Destination

Mak et al. (2012:929), identified food and its attributes as one of the external factors that influenced food consumption in tourism. Food attributes refer to the features that differentiate one type of food from other foods (Jang, Ha & Silkes, 2009). Food attributes may be physical, social and/or cultural (Jingjing, 2012). The importance and performance of these food and beverage attributes can act to influence the consumption of local food and beverages. Jang et al. (2009:64) defined importance as the ‘overall evaluation of the significance of an attribute to a product’. Performance on the other hand is regarded as the customer perception of the evaluative level of the attribute as it pertains to a product (Hemmasi et al. cited by Jang, et al., 2009). Using an interactive matrix between importance and performance known as the Importance Performance Analysis (IPA) grid, Jang et al. (2009) were able to determine food attributes that had high importance and high performance in Asian cuisine. For each of the six Asian foods investigated by Jang et al. (2009), the attribute that had the highest importance and performance was tasty, followed by edible, for all the six food items. An understanding
of the most influential attributes of local food at any destination is significant to marketers. It was therefore posited in this study that:

**Hypothesis 4a₁**: The most important food and beverage attributes predict tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

**(Hypothesis 4a₀)**: The most important food and beverage attributes do not predict tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour).

**Hypothesis 4b₁**: The highly performing food and beverage attributes predict tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

**(Hypothesis 4b₀)**: The highly performing food and beverage attributes predict tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour).

**Attributes of the Destination Environment**

With regards to the destination environment, the gastronomic image/identity, marketing communication, service encounter and the servicescape were some of the destination environmental factors identified by Mak et al. (2012) as influencing tourists’ food consumption.

Gastronomic identity represents the character of a destination (Chang, Kivela & Mak, 2011). It is influenced by such factors as geography, climate, ‘religions, history, level of ethnic diversity, innovations, capabilities, traditions, beliefs and values’; these in turn having an influence on the availability of agricultural produce and its adaptability (Harrington, 2005: 129-130). Gastronomic image or identity can refer to what tourists would expect to find at a destination. Gastronomic identity also refers to what a destination would be associated with. For instance, one participant surveyed by Chang, Kivela and Mak (2011) expected Australia’s gastronomic identity to encompass lamb dishes since Australia is a country that has abundant sheep. Even in these expectations, most tourists (especially those neophilic) would expect a variety of dishes within the ‘identity’ and a variety of meal arrangements associated with the ‘identity’ in their dining arrangements (Chang, Kivela & Mak, 2011). In review of the above, this study presented that:

**Hypothesis 5₁**: Gastronomic image predicts tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

**(Hypothesis 5₀)**: Gastronomic image does not predict tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour).

Marketing communications were also expected to predict behaviour. Marketing communications are the tools or means that are used to inform, persuade, incite and remind customers, both directly and indirectly, of a brand that a company sells (Keller, 2001). As suggested by Okumus, Okumus and Mckercher (2007), tourists’ buying behaviour could be influenced into local food consumption through active marketing, it is important for marketers to understand tourists’ food and beverage experiences and provide information that details the extent of value attached to food and beverage experiences at a destination. Thus this study posited that:

**Hypothesis 6a₁**: Availability of information on cuisine predicts tourists’ Setswana cuisine
Consumption behaviour

(Hypothesis 6a0: Availability of information on cuisine does not predict tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour)

Hypothesis 6b1: Accessibility to information on cuisine predicts tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour

(Hypothesis 6b0: Accessibility to information on cuisine does not predict tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour)

The servicescape is another destination related factor that was investigated in this study. The servicescape is defined by Hightower (2010), as everything that is physically present to the consumer during the service encounter. The servicescape has a strong influence on consumption experiences (Lin & Mattila, 2010). The service encounter which is the interaction between employees and customers is also important in the entire service process (Lin & Mattila, 2010). Thus the servicescape (the physical environment) and the service encounter (the service interaction) are important in determining consumption behaviour. However such research that investigates the effect of elements of servicescape on behaviour is anecdotal (Mari & Poggesi, 2013).

The main items used to assess the physical environment or servicescape in analysing consumption behaviour, in this study were based on the Dinescape scale items developed by Ryu and Jang (2008a). The Dinescape is a specific instrument that refers to the physical environment of dining areas (Ryu & Jang, 2008a:4). The Dinescape scale as used by Ryu and Jang (2008b) has six dimensions: facility aesthetics, ambience, lighting, table setting, layout and the service staff.

This study used aspects of the Dinescape scale in order to identify the objective predictors of the service environment and encounter. However these aspects were modified. Layout, considered a separate dimension in the original Dinescape model, was, in this study captured under facility aesthetics and so were table settings. This study also included the menu in the table settings, as it is a very important collaborating tool between the customer and the foodservice facility.

Ambience was also considered as a separate variable. Ambience is comprised of intangible non-visual cues such as music, temperature and scent (Ryu & Jang, 2008b) or colour, sound, smell and texture (Stroebele & Castro, 2004). Stroebele and Castro (2004) further suggested that these factors can be used to convert behavioural intentions into actual behaviour. This study considered lighting not as single servicescape element (as indicated in the original Dinescape model) but rather as an ambience feature.

Liu and Jang (2009:495) also suggested that the ‘static’ dimensions of employees, such as their visibility and appearance, and not their behaviour should also be used when assessing the effect of atmospherics in consumption settings. In this study, the modified Dinescape model therefore incorporated the service staff since, the service encounter influences tourists’ food consumption behaviour (Mak et al., 2012).

In the final analysis and in addition to service dimensions, the following components were assessed as Dinescape aspects in this study:
facility aesthetics (furniture layout and seating, furniture décor, table settings and decor, wall furnishings and décor), ambience (lighting and music) and service staff. As such, it was hypothesized that:

**Hypothesis 7a**: Dinescapes predict tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

**(Hypothesis 7a)**: Dinescapes do not predict tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

It has been argued though, that the servicescape does not directly cause customers to behave in certain ways, rather, the perceptions of the servicescape lead to emotional, cognitive and physiological internal responses which in turn influence behaviour (Bitner, 1992). Physiological responses such as pain, comfort and movement (Bitner 1992) that affect the physiological comfort of individual customers could be associated with consumption studies. According to Bitner (1992), ambient conditions that include background characteristics of the environment such as temperature, lighting, noise, music, and scent that generally affect the five senses are often associated with physical responses. Bitner (1992) also indicates that the emotional responses derived from the environment can be assessed by two dimensions: the pleasure-displeasure dichotomy (often associated with affect) and arousal. Affect is described as a direct emotional response to the thought of behaviour (Cheung, *et al.*, 2000). It can be expressed through pleasure/displeasure or joy etc. Pleasure refers to the extent to which individuals feel good, happy, pleased or joyful. Some authors studied the direct effect of affect on Internet/WWW use (Cheung, *et al.*, 2000) and knowledge sharing behaviour (Kim & Lee, 2011), respectively. However in both studies, affect had insignificant effect on the behaviours under study. Arousal on the other hand is the degree to which customers feel stimulated, excited or active (Ryu & Jang, 2008b). Ryu and Jang (2008a), validated the relationship between Dinescape scale items and behavioural intentions through the mediating emotional responses of pleasure and arousal. Although their study was mainly on the relationship between Dinescape items and behavioural intentions and not actual behaviour, the correlations revealed were all positive and significant. For instance the correlations indicated that pleasure ($r = .64$) played a more important role than arousal ($r = .44$) in influencing behavioural intentions (Ryu & Jang, 2008a). In addition, pleasure was correlated with ambience ($r = .66$), followed by facility aesthetic ($r = .52$), layout ($r = .52$), and service staff ($r = .52$). Arousal was also correlated with ambience ($r = .56$), with employees ($r = .49$), facility aesthetic ($r = .48$), and layout ($r = .45$).

A similar approach was used by Ryu and Jang (2008b) in upscale restaurants in Midwestern and Northwestern states in the United States to assess customers’ perceptions of the effects of Dinescape scale items on pleasure, arousal and behavioural intentions. Amongst their important findings, Ryu and Jang (2008b), found out that pleasure influenced behavioural intention ($\beta = .46; t = 3.54$). Their study also assessed the impact of pleasure as mediating between arousal and behavioural intentions. They found out that arousal, through pleasure as a mediator, influenced behavioural intentions. A mediator is a variable that accounts for the relationship between a predictor variable and a criterion variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986).
Therefore from the preceding discussion this study posited the following hypotheses. It was hypothesised that the internal responses of pleasure and arousal would have mediating influence between Dinescape elements and local cuisine consumption behaviour. As such;

**Hypothesis 7b₁:** The influence of dinescapes on tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour is mediated by pleasure.

**Hypothesis 7b₀:** The influence of dinescapes on tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour is not mediated by pleasure).

**Hypothesis 7c₁:** The influence of dinescapes on tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour is mediated by arousal.

**Hypothesis 7c₀:** The influence of dinescapes on tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour is not mediated by arousal).

**Hypothesis 7d₁:** Pleasure mediates the influence of arousal on tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

**Hypothesis 7d₀:** Pleasure does not mediate the influence of arousal on tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour).

In summary, the review of related literature in this study has highlighted that understanding habits, intentions, personality traits and facilitating conditions is important in understanding factors predicting cuisine consumption behaviour. It was also apparent from the review that internal responses are considered to mediate between food servicescape attributes (both physical and social) and behaviour (Bitner 1992). Both servicescape attributes and the service encounter would create negative or positive responses that would then affect local cuisine consumption behaviour.

**Methods**

A semi-structured self-administered questionnaire was designed for the broader study from which questions aimed at identifying the main factors that influence tourist consumption were drawn. The questionnaire was administered in 2014. The survey was conducted at 47 restaurant facilities selected purposively from the list of hotels that appeared in the Botswana Tourism Organisation Database for Gaborone and the population of non-hotel restaurants in Gaborone obtained from the Commercial Affairs Department at the Gaborone City Council. Non-hotel restaurants that are defined in this study as restaurants that were independently run and mostly owner managed and/or operated. In addition these restaurants were not located at hotel premises. These restaurants also had the opportunity of offering Setswana cuisine on their menu, as their menus were not restrictive. The 47 establishments also represent the number of hotels where management had consented to participate in the survey. For the sake of securing restaurants that offered mainly local Setswana cuisine, the following establishments were excluded from the lists:

- bed and breakfast only establishments offering either English or continental breakfast menus
- bed only establishments
hotels and restaurants closed down for refurbishment
hotels that had been rented out to college students
self-catering establishments
fast food franchised operations that operated a strictly controlled and sometimes international menu;
specialty ethnic restaurants that served Japanese, Portuguese, Chinese or other Asian cuisine;
Institutional and industrial catering facilities such as refectories and canteens that catered to a restrictive and captive market;
Formal and casual restaurants that did not offer any Setswana cuisine on their menus and

Four sections of the main questionnaire (used in the broader study) were used in this study:

- Pleasure Variable Section
- Arousal Variable Section
- Setswana Cuisine Consumption Behaviour Section
- Predictors of Setswana Cuisine Consumption Behaviour Section

The mean of three aspects of pleasure (happiness, satisfaction and content) were used to construct the composite variable of Pleasure. The Arousal Variable was assessed using excitement associated with Setswana cuisine consumption. The Setswana Cuisine Consumption Behaviour Variable was constructed using two sentences with the verbs, eat and sample. The study aimed at examining actual behaviour, like other studies (e.g. Cheung, et al., 2000; Kim & Lee, 2011) and as such took advice from Triandis (1980) of using frequency, instead of duration and intensity, as measures of actual behaviour. As such the phrases, ‘...each time I visit Gaborone.’ and ‘I constantly sample...’ were used to express the frequency of consumption. The mean of the two questions was then used to construct the Consumption Behaviour Variable. The questions were measured on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

The last section used in this study was based on factors that could predict Setswana cuisine consumption as educed from extant literature. Nine main factors were identified: food neophobia, social others, open culture, most important food and beverage attributes, highly performing food and beverage attributes, gastronomic image, availability of information on cuisine, accessibility to information on cuisine and the dinescape. In addition, review of extant literature (e.g. Bitner, 1992; Cheung, et al., 2000; Ryu & Jang, 2008a; Ryu & Jang, 2008b) identified arousal and pleasure as mediators of consumption behaviour. As such the two were included as additional factors that influence consumption behaviour either directly or indirectly. In order to identify the influence of these factors as predictors of Setswana Cuisine Consumption Behaviour a number of hypotheses were then designed (Table 1).
Table 1: Characteristics of the Predictor Factors of Setswana Cuisine Consumption Behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Predictor Factor</th>
<th>Measures &amp; References Used</th>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Tests Used for Hypothesis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food Neophobia</td>
<td>Measured by six items adapted from Pliner &amp; Hobden (1992); Likert Scale (1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree).</td>
<td><strong>H1a:</strong> Food neophobia predicts tourists' local cuisine consumption behaviour</td>
<td>Stepwise Regression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Others</td>
<td>Measured by three items adapted from Ryu &amp; Han (2010); Likert Scale (1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree).</td>
<td><strong>H2:</strong> Social others significantly influence tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour</td>
<td>Stepwise Regression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open Culture</td>
<td>Measured by four items (Two items, were adapted from Verbeke &amp; Lopez, 2005); Likert Scale (1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree).</td>
<td><strong>H3:</strong> An open culture has significant influence on tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour</td>
<td>Stepwise Regression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food and Beverage Attributes</td>
<td>Measured by two items; Adapted from Jang et al. (2009) and Jingjing (2012); Likert Scale (1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree).</td>
<td><strong>H4a:</strong> Most important cuisine attributes predict tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour. <strong>H4b:</strong> Highly performing cuisine attributes predict tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.</td>
<td>Stepwise Regression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gastronomic Image</td>
<td>Measured by three items, two of them adapted from Chang et al. (2011) and Harrington (2005); Likert Scale (1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree).</td>
<td><strong>H5:</strong> Gastronomic image predicts Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.</td>
<td>Stepwise Regression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information on Local Cuisine</td>
<td>Measured by two variables: availability and accessibility of information on Setswana Cuisine; Adapted from Okumus et al. (2007); Likert Scale (1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree).</td>
<td><strong>H6a:</strong> Availability of information on local cuisine predicts tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour. <strong>H6b:</strong> Accessibility of information on local cuisine predicts tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.</td>
<td>Stepwise Regression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dinescape</td>
<td>Measured using 15 items; Eleven of the items were adapted from Liu and Jang (2009), Mak et al. (2012), Ryu and Jang (2008a; 2008b) and Stroebele and Castro (2004); Likert Scale (1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree).</td>
<td><strong>H7:</strong> Dinescapes predict tourists' Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.</td>
<td>Stepwise Regression</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table highlights the main hypotheses set for the study and the main methods used to address them.

**Main Findings**

A total of 249 questionnaires were administered to tourist diners at 47 restaurant facilities. However, nine of the 249 questionnaires, from three restaurant facilities were unusable as they had more than 50% of incompleteness. Thus, the final analysis was based on a 96% response rate from tourist diners at 44 restaurants. The following sections present findings on the demographic profiles of the tourist diners.

**Demographic Profile of Diners**

Demographic information on gender, age, highest educational qualification and nationality was analysed from the questionnaire. Table 2 presents the demographic profile of the 240 tourist diners.
Table 2: Demographic Profile of Tourist Diners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Detail</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>N=240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>66.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Below 30 years</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>N=232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30-39 years</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40-49 years</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Above 50 years</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Qualification</td>
<td>BGCSE</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>N=216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>47.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationality (by name of country)</td>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>N=234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 reveals that the majority of participants (66.3%) were male. The majority (46%) were also aged between 30-39 years, being relatively young. In terms of educational qualifications, the majority were Diploma holders (47%). The majority of diners (82%) were also from Botswana but residing outside Gaborone.

Consumption Behaviour Variable

The Consumption Behaviour Variable (the dependent variable), was developed from two questions measured on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree); ‘I eat local Setswana cuisine each time I visit Gaborone’ and ‘I constantly sample local Setswana cuisine when I visit Gaborone’. In order to confirm whether the two questions were measuring the same construct, internal consistency reliability tests using Cronbach alpha were used. The results of the reliability analysis are displayed in Table 3.

Table 3: Internal Consistency Reliability of Scale Items for Consumption Behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale Measure</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
<th>Cronbach Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consumption behaviour</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although the scale items had an alpha value of .62 and can be considered as having low reliability as suggested by Tavakol and Dennick (2011), Pallant (2007) reports that it is common to find low Cronbach values with scales that have fewer than ten items. In this case the scale only had two items.

Factors Predicting Consumption Behaviour

Eleven factors were considered in this study; nine predictor variables and two mediator variables. The nine predictor variables were comprised of five composite variables (food neophobia; social others; open culture; gastronomic image and dinescape) and four other variables (availability of information on local cuisine; accessibility of information on local cuisine; most important attributes of local cuisine and highly performing attributes of local cuisine).

To test prediction effect on Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour, the eleven variables were assessed using Stepwise regression analysis. Stepwise regression analysis was also used in a similar TIB
study on a purposive sample by Robinson (2010) for assessing prediction of software piracy behaviour. Guo and Hussey (cited by Salkind, 2010) also advocate for the use of a homogenous sample derived from non-probability sampling than use of a heterogeneous sample taken from probability sampling in prediction studies. However the use of such statistical methods meant the findings could not be generalized to a wider population (Chen, 2013).

Before regression analysis could be conducted, the variables were subjected to internal consistency reliability analysis using Cronbach alpha and to correlation analysis using Pearson’s correlation coefficient.

**Internal Consistency Reliability**

The six composite variables (food neophobia; social others; open culture; gastronomic image, dinescape and pleasure) were tested for internal consistency reliability using Cronbach Alpha, as indicated in Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale Measure</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
<th>Cronbach Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food Neophobia</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Others’</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open Culture</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gastronomic Image</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dinescape</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasure</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The values for alpha for four of the five composite variables in Table 4 were above .7 and were considered acceptable according to Andrew, Pederson and McEvoy (2011). Those above .8 were even considered preferable as suggested by Pallant (2007). For gastronomic image and dinescape, the items were considered to have excellent reliability as values of alpha were above .9 (Rubin & Babbie, 2009). The other variable, food neophobia, had a value below the acceptable range of 0.7 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). In general, all five composite variables displayed acceptable levels of internal consistency. This is especially important as the variables were then assessed of their predictor effects on one variable, Consumption Behaviour.

**Pearson’s Correlation Coefficients**

The eleven factors identified as predictors and mediators of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour were tested for correlation with Consumption Behaviour using Pearson’s Correlation Coefficient. The results of the correlation analysis are presented in Table 5.
Table: Correlations between Consumption Behaviour and the Predictors of Consumption Behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PREDICTORS</th>
<th>Most important attributes</th>
<th>Highest performing attributes</th>
<th>Pleasure</th>
<th>Consumption Behaviour</th>
<th>Social Others</th>
<th>Open Culture</th>
<th>Gastronomic Image</th>
<th>Dinescape</th>
<th>Food Neophobia</th>
<th>Arousal</th>
<th>Availability of Information on Local Cuisine</th>
<th>Accessibility of Information on Local Cuisine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Most important attributes</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.748</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.240</td>
<td>.240</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasure</td>
<td>r -.176</td>
<td>Sig. .003</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumption Behaviour</td>
<td>r .080</td>
<td>Sig. .109</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Others</td>
<td>r .272***</td>
<td>Sig. .000</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open Culture</td>
<td>r .182***</td>
<td>Sig. .002</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gastronomic Image</td>
<td>r .663</td>
<td>Sig. .000</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dinescape</td>
<td>r .312**</td>
<td>Sig. .000</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.097</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Neophobia</td>
<td>r .154</td>
<td>Sig. .010</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.229</td>
<td>.198</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.229</td>
<td>.229</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arousal</td>
<td>r -.058</td>
<td>Sig. .188</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of Information on Local Cuisine</td>
<td>r -.033</td>
<td>Sig. .000</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessibility of Information on Local Cuisine</td>
<td>r -.089</td>
<td>Sig. .000</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td>.237</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).
Consumption behaviour and seven factors (Table 5), Arousal, Social others, Open culture Gastronomic image, Dinescape and ‘Availability of Information on Local Cuisine’ had significant positive correlation (Cohen & Holliday, 1982):

1. Arousal and Consumption behaviour ($r = .445$, $n= 234$, $p < .001$).
2. Social Others and Consumption behaviour ($r = .351$, $n= 234$, $p < .001$)
3. Open Culture and Consumption behaviour ($r = .267$, $n= 234$, $p < .001$)
4. Gastronomic Image and Consumption behaviour ($r = .123$, $n= 234$, $p < .05$)
5. Dinescape and Consumption behaviour ($r = .188$, $n= 231$, $p < .001$)
6. Availability of information on local Cuisine and Consumption behaviour ($r = .128$, $n= 234$, $p < .05$)
7. Pleasure and Consumption behaviour ($r = .198$, $n= 234$, $p < .001$)

The correlation between Consumption Behaviour and the rest of the factors was non-significant as $p$ values were neither significant at .01 nor at .05 levels (Table 5). As such there was no relationship between Consumption Behaviour and the following, ‘Highest performing attributes of local cuisine’, ‘Most important attributes of local cuisine’, ‘Food Neophobia’ and ‘Accessibility of Information on Local Cuisine’.

Correlations between predictor factors were also observed. From Table 5, a high positive correlation value was noticed between:

1. Most important attributes of local cuisine and Highest performing attributes of local cuisine, $r = .748$, $n= 240$, $p < .001$.

Using results from Table 5, modest positive correlation values between .40 and .69 (Cohen & Holliday, 1982) were observed between:

1. Most important attributes of local cuisine and Gastronomic Image, $r = .663$, $n= 237$, $p < .001$.
2. Arousal and Pleasure, $r = .604$, $n= 237$, $p < .001$
3. Highest performing attributes of local cuisine and Gastronomic Image, $r = .558$, $n= 237$, $p < .001$.

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis

It is important as Madrigal (2012) suggests, not to quickly conclude that non-significant correlations have no influence on a regression model. As such both significant and non-significant factors were included in the stepwise regression model used to assess the extent to which the eleven factors predicted Consumption Behaviour. This was mainly done so as to support the hypotheses that had been set on prediction factors of Consumption Behaviour.

The criterion for probability of $F$ for entry in the regression model was set at < .05 and the probability of $F$ to be removed was set at > .10. The prediction model was reached in three steps and three factors were retained: Arousal, Social Others and Open Culture (Table 6). The model was statistically significant, $F (3, 230) = 39.54$, $p < .001$ and accounted for approximately 34% of the variance for consumption behaviour ($R = .58$, $R^2 = .34$).
Table 6: Stepwise Regression Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised coefficient</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-1.825</td>
<td>.535</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arousal</td>
<td>.961</td>
<td>.121</td>
<td>7.97</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Others</td>
<td>.276</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open culture</td>
<td>.241</td>
<td>.074</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Note: The dependent variable was Consumption behaviour. \( R = .583, R^2 = .340, *p < .05 \))

Arousal seemed to be an important predictor of Consumption Behaviour (\( \beta = .43 \)) whilst Social Others (\( \beta = .29 \)) and Open Culture (\( \beta = .18 \)) to some extent also predicted consumption behaviour.

The Influence of Mediating Variables – Arousal on Dinescape and Consumption Behaviour & Pleasure on Dinescape and Consumption Behaviour

Like Ryu and Jang (2008b), this study also tested for the mediation effects of arousal and pleasure on consumption behaviour. Baron and Kenny (1986) suggest that the mediator and the dependent variable should be correlated but not too strongly correlated as to cause multicollinearity. In examining the influence of Arousal on Dinescape and Consumption Behaviour and Pleasure on Dinescape and Consumption Behaviour, as mediators, firstly, bivariate correlations were performed.

The correlation on Arousal and Dinescape was non-significant (\( r = .103, n = 231, p > .05 \)) (Table 5). The correlation on Pleasure and Dinescape was also non-significant (\( r = -.079, n = 231, p > .05 \)) (Table 5). This indicated that there was no possible mediating influence between Arousal and Pleasure on Dinescape and Consumption Behaviour. As such no subsequent regression analysis was applied.

The Influence of Mediating Variables - Pleasure on Arousal and Consumption Behaviour

Before regression could be run, the correlations amongst the three variables were checked again. Arousal (independent variable) and Pleasure (mediator) had high significant correlation (\( r = .604, n = 237, p < .001 \)). Arousal had positive correlation with Consumption Behaviour (dependent variable) (\( r = .445, n= 234, p < .001 \)). ‘Pleasure’ also had positive correlation with Consumption Behaviour (\( r = .198, n= 234, p < .001 \)). With all relationships showing positive correlation, mediation was tested using simple linear regression analysis (using the Enter method).

Mediation was tested using Baron and Kenny’s (1986:1177) three equations:

1. Regressing the mediator on the independent variable (path a)
2. Regressing the dependent variable on the independent variable (path b) and
3. Regressing the dependent variable on both the mediator and the independent variable (path c).

The mediation results of pleasure on arousal and Consumption Behaviour are presented in Table 7.
Table 7: Results of Mediation Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>-.110</td>
<td>.220</td>
<td>.826</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Arousal</td>
<td>1.002</td>
<td>7.566</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>.292</td>
<td>.514</td>
<td>.608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Arousal</td>
<td>1.154</td>
<td>6.964</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pleasure</td>
<td>-.255</td>
<td>-1.515</td>
<td>.131</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Note: Dependent variable: Setswana Cuisine Consumption behaviour)

The equations with their path coefficients are also illustrated in Figure 2.

For mediation to be present, Baron and Kenny (1986) concluded that the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less in the third equation than in the second equation. However in this study there was significant initial relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable ($\beta = .445, p < .05$) (Table 6) that remained significant after controlling for the mediator ($\beta = .512, p < .05$). The second path coefficient between the Independent Variable and the Dependent Variable (path c), Figure 2, also shows a higher regression value, implying that there was no possible mediation.

As such the study concluded that Pleasure was not a significant mediator of Arousal and Consumption Behaviour. Arousal as a predictor of Consumption Behaviour remained significant after analysing for mediation.

Discussion of Findings

In order to examine the prediction influence of a number of factors on Consumption Behaviour, correlations and stepwise regression was performed. Correlations amongst the variables indicated high positive correlation between ‘Most important attributes of local cuisine’ and ‘Highest performing attributes of local cuisine’, $r = .748, n= 240, p < .001$. This finding supports Obonyo, Ayieko and Kambona (2013) as they indicated that there is a positive relationship between the importance and performance of cuisine attributes. Each cuisine type should be promoted based on its most important and highest performing attributes. These attributes are still to be identified in the case of Setswana cuisine that was found to have high potential for use as a tourism resource. It is generally expected that the most important attributes of local cuisine should be the highest performing attributes. Service providers are expected
to identify and continuously work on the most important and highest performing attributes in order to sustain competitiveness and business growth (Obonyo, et al., 2013). Any prospects of promoting Setswana cuisine at a larger scale should emphasise the cuisine’s most important and highest performing attributes. These attributes selected on the basis of their influence to tourists’ purchase decisions can offer a point of differentiation from competitors. Future studies should aim at isolating the most important and highest performing attributes of Setswana cuisine per cuisine type and use these are differentiation markers. Jingjing (2012) acknowledges the multi-attribute nature of cuisine and argues that the importance attached to each attribute varies with the type of cuisine (Jingjing, 2012). As such each cuisine type in Botswana should be promoted with its own set of important and highest performing attributes.

Both ‘Most important attributes of local cuisine’ and ‘Highest performing attributes of local cuisine’ were modestly positively correlated with Gastronomic Image. If gastronomic image or identity refers to what tourists would expect to find at a destination then they would expect to find the most important and highest performing attributes of local cuisine being emphasised. Highly performing and most important attributes of cuisine should therefore be associated with the gastronomic image of a destination. In this study, conclusions can be given that most important and highest performing attributes of Setswana cuisine in general, communicate to a large extent, a strong gastronomic image.

Gastronomic Image and the Dinescape were also found to be modestly positively correlated (r = .502, n = 231, p < .001). The gastronomic image is related to what diners would expect to find at a destination in terms of ties to national identity, a set of expected values and cultural heritage. In this case results indicate that dinescape aspects such as tableware, flatware and the menu, highly represented national identity, expected cuisine values and cultural heritage. In other words to a large extent the service environment and service personnel portrayed a gastronomic image that was consistent with the country’s identity and cultural heritage. This aspect is very evident in most hotels and even non-hotel restaurants as they assume and use ethnic identity in their interior design and exterior design profiles. Probably the results between Gastronomic Image and Dinescape indicated positive correlation as the restaurants used in the sample were purposively selected and as such their designs would be skewed towards ethnic or traditional identity. Gastronomic image was also positively correlated with ‘Social others’ (r = .316, p < .001) and an ‘Open culture’ (r = .318, p < .001). Gastronomic image is important in linking people and their culture to cuisine tourism. In this case, the values that tourists would expect in relation to Setswana cuisine are a reflection of the local populace and their culture. This is very true in Botswana as Batswana have managed to embrace their culture with pride and dignity. However acceptance and appreciation of local cuisine should be promoted more.

The correlation between Arousal and Pleasure was modest (r = .604, n = 237, p < .001). The results obtained support Ryu and Jang (2008a), as they also observed modest correlation between Pleasure and Arousal (r = .44, p < .05). This finding is important as it could mean restaurant facilities need to maintain pleasant and arousing dinescapes or environments in order to entice consumption. However in this study, the relationship between Arousal and Dinescape, and Pleasure and Dinescape was not significant. Instead Dinescape was positively correlated to ‘Most important attributes’ (r = .312, n = 234, p < .001); ‘Highest performing attributes’ (r = .320, n = 234, p < .001) and Social others (r = .35, n = 231, p < .001). To improve diners’ emotional response to the dinescape, restaurant facilities can make use of varied dining room design themes that are regularly reviewed. Although this could be costly, in the short term for instance, restaurant aspects such as lighting colours, pictures or wall
hangings can be changed in a rotational manner but in line with the overall theme for the restaurant facilities, in order to arouse the diners. The restaurant environment is important in enhancing the tourists’ emotions such as pleasure and arousal as these are emotional responses that precede behaviour (Bitner, 1992). In summary a number of other relationships between predictor factors were also significant and low or very low (see Table 5).

The low level of association between Pleasure and Consumption Behaviour and hence its subsequent exclusion as a predictor of Consumption Behaviour, is associated with the possibility that most diners who participated in the survey, consumed Setswana cuisine as part of their daily routine and as such would find no pleasure in consuming local Setswana cuisine.

The results of Stepwise regression conducted on Consumption Behaviour as the dependent variable and eleven factors (pleasure, arousal, food neophobia, social others, open culture, gastronomic image, dinescape, availability of information on local cuisine, accessibility of information on local cuisine, most important attributes of local cuisine and highly performing attributes of local cuisine) as independent variables, resulted in the inclusion of only three factors (social others, arousal and open culture) in the regression model. These three factors are reflective of Batswana, considering that they were the majority of diners in Gaborone’s restaurants sampled in this study. Social others were found to predict Consumption behaviour ($\beta = .290$). Social others’ as having positive correlation and as an important predictor of Consumption behaviour was foreseen. Friends and family are important and significant in Tswana lifestyle (Amanze, 1996) and in Africans as a majority, considering that most diners were African and in particular, Batswana. Although this trend is changing amidst modernity, family values for instance will always remain important in Botswana (Mberengwa, 2007).

Open culture was also found to be an important predictor of tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour. The Open culture is indicative of a culture amongst the diners that is collaborative and inclusive. Since most of the diners were Batswana, such an open culture could be closely associated with Botswana’s democracy whose roots as Ngcongco (cited by Leith, 2005) claims, lie in traditional Tswana culture. Batswana are known to be friendly and welcoming (Denbow & Thebe, 2006) and easily embrace the presence of other cultural norms. The open culture is also reflective of Botswana’s receptiveness and consideration as a just, caring and compassionate nation (Botswana Vision 2016 Council, 2010).

Lastly the study found no mediating influence of Arousal between Dinescape and Consumption Behaviour. There was also no mediating influence of Pleasure on Dinescape and Consumption Behaviour. Pleasure was also not a significant mediator between Arousal and ‘Consumption Behaviour’. To the contrary the regression model found ‘Arousal’ to be an important predictor of consumption behaviour. During the literature review arousal had not been identified as a predictor of behaviour but rather as a predictor of behavioural intentions but mediated by pleasure (see Ryu & Jang, 2008b). Arousal was included in the regression model because of its modest positive correlation with Consumption behaviour ($r = .445, n = 234, p < .001$). Conclusively, this study has identified Arousal as an even important direct predictor of consumption behaviour than other predictor factors.

In conclusion, using the results of the stepwise regression (Table 6) that resulted in the inclusion of arousal, social others and an open culture as predictors of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour; the following alternative hypotheses were therefore supported:

$H_{21}$: Social others’ predict tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.
H3: An Open culture favours tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

On the basis of the stepwise regression, which excluded the rest of the predictor factors (see Table 6) the study also supported the following null hypotheses:

H1a: Food neophobia is not a predictor of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

H4a: Most important food and beverage attributes are not a predictor of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

H4b: Highly performing food and beverage attributes are not a predictor of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour

H5a: Gastronomic image is not a predictor of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

H6a: Availability of information on cuisine is not a predictor of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour

H6b: Accessibility to information on local cuisine is not a predictor of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour

H7a: Dinescapes are not a predictor of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour

H7b: The influence of dinescapes on tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour is not mediated by pleasure.

H7c: The influence of dinescapes on tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour is not mediated by arousal.

H7: Pleasure does not mediates the influence of arousal on tourists’ Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour.

**Conclusions and Implications of the Study**

In conclusion, tourist diners to Gaborone’s restaurants, who were mainly Batswana, were not influenced into consuming Setswana cuisine by food neophobia, the cuisine’s attributes, the gastronomic image, availability and accessibility of cuisine information and the dinescape but rather by arousal, social others and an open culture. The three; arousal, social others and an open culture were found to be important predictors of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour accounting for up to 34% of variance. This finding to some extent fails to emphasise the influence of internal emotional responses as mediators of Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour. It is argued therefore in this study that the internal responses can independently act as direct predictors and even stronger predictors of behaviour than the other factors.

Based on the findings in this study, facilitating conditions (such as Social others, and an open culture) were more influential in predicting Setswana cuisine consumption behaviour than personality traits such as food neophobia. As such, this study concludes by stating that level 3 of the modified Theory of Interpersonal Behaviour Model (that which predicts behaviour), in the case Gaborone, would be mainly influenced by facilitating conditions. Facilitating conditions as previously mentioned are objective and make an ‘act easy to do’ (Triandis, 1980:25). These factors are environmental related, are usually geographic and resource based. This finding is important to marketers and caterers of Setswana cuisine in a number of ways. Firstly, caterers need to provide an environment conducive for the consumption of Setswana that is reliant on social others for instance. Aspects such as festivals, social gatherings or events are important in this regard. Secondly, marketers of Setswana cuisine should consider using other platforms to encourage the consumption of local cuisine, other than the availability and accessibility of information on local cuisine for instance. Considering most of the diners were Batswana, availing Setswana cuisine related marketing information would not in any way entice or persuade increased consumption. The market already knows
what is available. However efforts of availing such information to an international audience could be pursued.

Though only based on findings in Gaborone, the model may not be generalizable to the overall population in Botswana of tourist diners, because of the use of non-probability sampling (Chen, 2013). However a modified TIB can be invaluable to Southern African countries, keen on diversifying their tourism portfolio, as an understanding of cuisine tourist behaviour is important in the design of cuisine tourism promotion strategy. However it has also emerged that the model is not a conclusive tool for identifying factors that predict consumption behaviour in the case of Gaborone as only three factors were identified as accounting for up to 34% of the variance in consumption behaviour, leaving the rest of the variance to be explained by factors other than those identified in this study. This could be mainly because Gaborone, the study area, is a metropolitan area that may not have a distinctive culture but rather is an amalgamation of regional cultures and cuisine cultures. As such factors that predict consumption behaviour in such scenarios may be varied.

References


