

# Aalborg- and Aarhus Street Food market

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A discussion of motivational factors and individual experiences from a national- and international perspective



**A Master Thesis in Tourism at Aalborg University**

Written by

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## *Abstract*

*This thesis discusses Street Food's role in a Danish context, with particular reference to the general consumer perspective of respectively Aalborg- and Aarhus Street Food market. The thesis uses a very practical approach in order to answer the problem formulation, which is primarily comprised of qualitative consumer- and expert interviews. The project is intended to analyse and discuss motivational factors, consumer experiences and the Street Food concept in a Danish context.*

*Food has become the biggest motivator for consumers to discover new places, and the key to discover the essence of each destination. This thesis works especially with motivational factors, constructed through McIntosh et al.'s (1995) motivation theory which include four different motivation categories, i.e. physical motivators, cultural motivators, interpersonal motivators and status and prestige motivators.*

*With a total of 60 prepared consumer interviews distributed at Aalborg- and Aarhus Street Food market, this thesis finds, that the visitors' primarily motivation is based on the demand for cultural and interpersonal aspects.*

*In addition to proving motivational factors, this thesis tries also to define the overall visitor experience, by looking at the visitors' expectations and fulfilment, as well as the proximity to the local culture, food or producer. In continuation thereof, this thesis finds, that the Street Food-concept provides a cultural and present experience, where the interpersonal relation is an important aspect. This is primarily due to the fact, that the food markets involve the customer in a co-creation process of their own experience, where they obtain proximity to the local, both meant in connection with the local food and the local producer. The co-creative process is essential for creating the coveted undefined "atmosphere" that is especially created in conjunction with the local and the different "everyday life" that the local can offer the individual costumer. Visitors do not only acquire knowledge of different and new traditions, but they also become an integral part of their own experience, thus creating an experiential value where guests buy not only a particular product, but the experiences and the meanings behind the product.*

*Taking the above motivational factors and the visitor experiences in mind, this thesis finds out that the Street Food-concept contains much more than just food. There is no doubt that the cultural element is essential for identifying Street Food's overall definition in Denmark. The good story combined with the local touch attracts guests and makes a successful concept. The cultural experience in the context of tourism includes gaining knowledge (e.g. learning about history, understanding different countries) and authenticity (e.g. new and unique experience of travelling). Cultural motivators confirm the desire to experience different cultures, appreciate the artefacts of previous cultures and learn about the history of new and other cultures. Cultural experiences testify the diversity that can be found in the tourism fields, and opens up an exploratory behavior. This curiosity is associated with a need, a thirst or a desire for knowledge and new cultural experiences, and mentioned that travel can be seen as a tool in satisfying a desire to gain knowledge and expand intellectual enrichment. Experiencing local food and beverages opens up a cultural process where the food signifies cultural meaning for those who consume it.*

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# Aalborg- and Aarhus Street Food market

*-A discussion of motivational factors and individual experiences from a national- and international perspective*

## 1.0 Introduction

Worldwide, tourism is one of the most important sources of income. In 2012, a record of one billion international tourists (UNWTO, 2012) has been registered and again in 2016, more than 1.2 billion travellers are registered across the national borders (UNWTO, 2017). Tourism is a dynamic phenomenon that constantly changes its complexity. Over the last five years, people generally have more and more free time, which results in a greater need and a greater demand for tourism products (Nica, 2014; UNWTO, 2012). Today, the individual tourist is no longer satisfied with a romantic landscape, but demands to be able to *experience* and *feel* the real goods on his or her own body (Borghi & Delata, 2009; Boyne et al., 2003; Crouch & Ritchie, 1999; Hjalager & Richards, 2002; Selwood; 2013). The visual element no longer meets the tourist's needs, and therefore the destinations must not only be sold because of its location, but also because of its cultural, historical, culinary and social aspects (Privitera & Nesci, 2015; UNWTO, 2017). Therefore, a successful destination must be able to relate to the entire tourist's sense apparatus, by understanding the soundscape, the smellscape and the tastescape (Urry, 2002; Izis, 2010; Goolaup and Mossberg, 2017).

In recent years, the focus on food marketing has become more and more trendy, likewise it has been used to represent the direct relationship between the destination and the individual tourist (Privitera & Nesci, 2015; Nica & Molnar, 2014). This can be supported by the numbers we see at The Economic Importance of Tourism Denmark-report from 2015, where the total tourism consumption is estimated to a total of 97.5 billion Danish kroner. Of this amount is 51.0 billion Danish kroner used for real tourism products, where restaurant and dining experiences have a total of 17 % (corresponding to 14 billion Danish kroner). It is not a surprisingly high number, but still the second highest column after the transport category (Turismens økonomiske betydning, 2015). In addition, VisitDenmark's Tourist Survey Report shows that 43 % of foreign tourists

choose Denmark as a travel destination because of the good eating places, 26 % of foreign tourists travel to Denmark after the local Danish food experiences, while 8 % have finer gastronomy as travel motive (VD Turistundersøgelse, 2016). This helps to make food as an effective tool in the marketing of Denmark, where among other things the story of the many Danish food experiences is and becomes a central part of Denmark's brand as a travel destination, where the slogan is; *"come and be part of it"* (BrandDenmark, 2017).

The above is in connection with food's position seen with the international glasses where a survey conducted by UNWTO (2017) in 2016 shows that 87 % of their members, who are divided into a total of 29 countries, answer that food tourism *"is a distinctive and strategic element in defining the image and brand of their destination"* (p. 17), from which it can be concluded that food tourism is a driving force for tourism development (UNWTO, 2017).

As indicated in the above, food and tourism are two components that are strongly linked together (Privitera & Nesci, 2015), which is also supported by a lot of theorists: According to Kaspar (1986), food is regarded as *"an expression of a society and it's way of life"* (p. 14), which is supported by Boniface (2003), who argues that food is essential for presenting a particular culture. Long (1998) claims that food tourism is a sensational experience, making food tourism a central part of the tourism experience. At the same time, Hall (2003: xxiii) summarises that food tourism is increasingly:

- Recognised as part of the local culture, consumed by tourists.
- An element of regional tourism promotion.
- A component of local agriculture and economic development.
- A key element to competitive destination marketing.
- An indicator of globalisation and localisation, and
- A product and service consumed by tourists with definite preferences and consumption patterns.

Finally, Hall and Mitchell (2001) characterise food tourism as *"tourists visiting primary and secondary food producers, food festivals, restaurants and specific locations for which food and tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of a specialist food production region are the primary*

*motivating factors for travel*" (p. 308). Which is followed by Andersson et al. (2017), who describes that *"Food can be a motive for travelling, a search for an extraordinary experience and a factor, in combination with other factors, influencing visits to destinations"* (p. 1). Hereby, food has become the biggest motivator for consumers to discover new places, and the key to discover the essence of each destination. This can be supported by a study carried out in 2015 by Tourism Australia (a country renowned for its landscapes), who found out that local cuisine was actually ranked ahead of the country's world class beautiful natural attractions when it came to holiday decision making in the country (UNTWO, 2017).

In order to gain an understanding of the tourist's behavior, McIntosh et al.'s (1995) motivation theory is relevant to involve when we are working with motivational factors in food experiences (Fields, 2002). McIntosh et al. (1995) puts up works with four categories of motivation, i.e. physical motivators, cultural motivators, interpersonal motivators and status and prestige motivators. The physical motivators concern that eating is a naturally physical need, and something that people cannot experience in their daily life. Likewise, the physical motivators refer to an opportunity to taste new and different food. The cultural motivators address that food is a co-player in relation to identification of any society, and equally to explore new local kitchens. The interpersonal motivators refer to togetherness, where meeting new people and spending time with families and friends are in focus. Finally, the social and prestige motivators are associated with self-esteem, recognition and the desire to attract the attention of others. Here, searching for a high social status is a focus (McIntosh et al., 1995).

When a tourist becomes motivated to select a destination, the tourist connects the destination with the food eaten on the spot and when the tourist arrives at the destination, the tourist wants to become an integral part of the place and eat like the locals. (UNWTO, 2017). In continuation thereof; local and regional food is one of the most important elements of food tourism, likewise it contributes to a sustainable destination. The benefits from local and regional food support the tourism and agricultural sectors of local economies (Boniface, 2003; Clark & Chabrel, 2007; Ilbery et al., 2003; Torres, 2002; Woodland & Acott; 2007; Rand & Heath; 2006; Privitera & Nesci, 2015; UNTWO, 2012), by: *"preserving culinary heritage and adding value to the authenticity of the destination, broadening and enhancing the local and regional tourism resource base, and*

*stimulating agricultural production”* (Rand & Heath, 2006; 211).

When we are talking about local food, the proximity-aspect plays an important role in the overall understanding of food tourism (UNWTO, 2017). Local food offers an enhanced visitor experience that can unite the tourist with the local population and the destination in general. Using local food, the “story” of the production can be told, and thereby it is possible to meet the tourist’s search for proximity (Sims, 2009; Ignatov & Smith, 2006; Privitera & Nesci, 2015; UNTWO, 2012). Therefore, a successful tourist destination must exhibit what Urry (1995) terms “tourism reflexivity”, which means that a destination must develop a variety of goods and services that differentiate the destination from other destinations, and still attracts visitors. One way to achieve this can be to develop local quality kitchens that offer tourist “iconic” products (Hage, 1997; Hashimoto & Telfer, 2006; Ilbery et al., 2003; Woodland & Acott, 2007; Bessière, 1998; Urry, 2002, Rand & Heath, 2006).

While linking food tourism and the proximity; it is primarily the experiential value that is in focus (Goolaup and Mossberg, 2017; Holbrook, 1994). According to Holbrook (1994), the experiential value may be interactive, relative, preferred, personalised, and it may dynamically change as experiences accumulate (Holbrook, 1994). The present position holds that value in consumer behavior does not reside in the object (good or service) purchased but rather pertains directly to the consumption experience derived therefrom (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). The experiential value flourishes especially by the co-creation between the local (the producer) and the consumer (Wikström, 1999; Jensen, 1999; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2003), thus creating the so-called coveted extraordinary experience (Goolaup & Mossberg, 2017 ).

This thesis is based on the tourist’s quest for the experiential value (Holbrook, 1994; Tsai & Wang, 2017; Goolaup and Mossberg, 2017), whereas the focus will be on one of the largest food trends, with no less than 2.5 billion consumers in the world, namely Street Food (Privitera & Nesci, 2015; Calloni, 2013). According to Tsai and Wang (2017) Street Food has a significant importance in relation to branding of the individual destination. Thereof Street Food on a strategical level is “*a major type of food sites in a city’ that acts as a moderator between experiential value and the*

*city's food brand image*" (p. 62). Here it can be argued that the Street Food concept meets the wishes and needs of the tourist to *experience* and *feel* the proximity of the individual destination. Street Food represents a moment in this "new" experience and relationship with the local area, and also unites cultural, territorial and ethnic aspects. Street Food has a positive impact on the local economy and eco systems, because the concept is primarily due to traditional dishes using local food purchased (Marras, 2014). Street Food is considered as an authentic dining experience by local people, which differs from the known fast food, often associated with "sequential" industrialisation of consumption, commercial chains and international corporations, extrinsic to native cultures (Calloni, 2013). Similarly, fast food is associated with high-income countries, focusing on quantitative availability, whereas Street Food originates from developing countries, and primarily offers low cost quality products (Privitera & Nesci, 2015).

The official definition of Street Food, provided by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (1995), reads as follows: "*Street foods are ready-to-eat foods and beverages prepared and/or sold by vendors or hawkers especially in the streets and other similar places*". The quote represents the original understanding of Street Food, where the concept contains a significant part of urban food consumption for millions of low-and-middle-income consumers in urban areas (Privitera & Nesci, 2015; Calloni, 2013). But as food has become a central topic of public health, social sciences, and human rights in both Western and developing countries, the poor Street Food has now become fashionable and traditional at the same time (Cirelli et al., 2005; Calloni, 2013; Privitera and Nesci, 2015).

When talking about fashionable food trends, the concept of McDonaldisation is important to consider. McDonaldisation is defined as the spread of the basic principles of the fast food restaurant throughout society and the world. The principles are: (1) efficiency, (2) predictability, (3) calculability of quantity versus quality, (4) control, largely through the replacement of human technology by nonhuman technology, and (5) the irrationalities of rationality (Ritzer, 2011).

Theoretically, McDonaldisation comes from Max Weber's work with bureaucracy, which is also embedded in his theory of rationalisation. Weber saw rationalisation as being a process created by the West, which was subsequently spread to more and more sectors of society. McDonaldisation is the modern version of rationalisation, where fast food restaurants work as the bureaucracy as

the paradigm of the process, and like rationalisation, McDonaldisation is spreading across many sectors of society (Ritzer, 2011).

It is relevant to mention McDonaldisation in relation to Street Food, as there is a potential risk that Street Food becomes a homogeneous phenomenon. The goal of a McDonaldised system is to homogenise as much as possible, in as many areas as possible. Potentially, this makes sense in a business point of view, but have consequences for the individual consumer. Namely, the sense of producing becomes boring and uniform on both a national and a global level, and thereby eliminating all the significant cultural values (Ritzer, 2011).

In Denmark there are currently three decisive food markets with Street Food, respectively Copenhagen Street Food (also called "The Paper Island"<sup>1</sup>) (The Paper Island, 2017), Aarhus Street Food<sup>2</sup> (ASF) (ASF, 2017) and Aalborg Street Food<sup>3</sup> (AASF) (also called "The Lighthouse") (AASF, 2017). This thesis is only based on ASF and AASF, because Aarhus and Aalborg both represent two major cities which have a comparable basis.

Focusing on a very practical approach to the entire project's overall topic, consisting of prepared consumer interviews and three supplementary expert interviews, this thesis seeks to answer the following problem formulation:

*What motivates selected visitors to visit Aalborg- and Aarhus Street Food Market?*

*How can the experiences of the selected visitors be defined?*

*- What do the visitors expect, and do they achieve their expectations?*

*- What role does the proximity to the local aspect play in relation to the visitors' experiences?*

*What is Street Food in a Danish context, exemplified by Aalborg- and Aarhus Street Food Market?*

The above problem formulation is interesting to investigate in a tourism context, as food experiences have become increasingly popular among both international and national tourists.

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<sup>1</sup> The Paper Island opened in 2014, and consist of 39 different street kitchens with a total of 13 different nationalities, all run by independent contractors. The Paper Island turns out to be Denmark's first Street Food market (The Paper Island, 2017).

<sup>2</sup> Aarhus Street Food opened in 2016 and consists of a total of 29 concepts, divided into 19 different nationalities, all run by independent contractors (ASF, 2017).

<sup>3</sup> Aalborg Street Food opened in 2017 and consists of a total of 18 concepts, divided into 16 different nationalities, all run by independent contractors (AASF, 2017)

Over the past few years, Street Food has become a widespread phenomenon, and it is therefore interesting to discuss which mechanisms exist behind a trendy food experience. In addition, there is not much already existing data about Street Food, whereas this thesis has the opportunity to contribute to new knowledge within the chosen topic. To sum up, this thesis serves to create a better understanding of Street Food in a Danish context.

## 2.0 Philosophy of Science

In the following section, this thesis' ontological and epistemological point of view will be elaborated, which will subsequently lead to an illumination of the thesis' paradigmatic approach.

### 2.1 Ontology

The concept of ontology derives from the philosophical study of metaphysics where the focus is on the nature of being, or rather what can be known (Ponterotto, 2005; Pedersen & Juul, 2012). The concept "ontology" originates from two Greek words, which is "Onto" (existence, or being real) and "Logia" (science, or study) (Guba, 1990; Husted & Lübcke, 2009; Jacquette, 2002), whereby ontology is classified as the study of general existence (Guba, 1990; Husted & Lübcke, 2009; Jacquette, 2002). Ontology can be defined as being the philosophy that concerns: *"What is the nature of the 'knowable'? Or what is the nature of 'reality'?"* (Guba, 1990: 18).

This perceived reality is the framework in every kind of research paradigm, which also is seen, e.g. within a positivist objective perspective, claiming that the external world exists independently of the observer and that the world can be proven to be real. If this project was prepared from a positivistic perspective, the purpose of the project would be to search for one or more conclusions that could be argued to be a definitive result. This is not the case in this thesis, as it seeks multiple relativist realities. According to Guba (1990), the social constructivism applies the relativistic ontology where many mental constructions, both socially and experientially, form the basis. Therefore, it is argued that the perceived reality has the basis of social constructivism and that an independent universal truth does not exist (Guba, 1990; Lebar, 2013; Jacquette, 2002). This thesis will continue in that kind of direction.

Working with the constructivist ontology is not a simple task, and the great challenge is to define knowledge when knowledge is a relative system of different perspective. Therefore, the purpose in this thesis, is to find gain knowledge by presenting an inkling towards what is perceived to be the general, relative truth in the context of the people's experiences at Aalborg- and Aarhus Street Food Market, and likewise what motivate them to visit. Therefore, the individual expression of reality from each interviewee will be acknowledged as ontologically useful in my pursuit of understanding in this project.

To sum up, this thesis' ontological point of view concerns people who live and exist in the world in their very own individual way. This excludes subjectivistic knowledge that neither can be measured nor weighed, whereas neither true nor false answers can be found.

## 2.2 Epistemology

The metaphysical concept of epistemology is, like ontology, an inquiry into knowledge, but more specifically, it is the examination into what can and cannot be known (Pedersen & Juul, 2012; Lebar, 2013; Martinich & Stroll, 2015). The concept "epistemology" originates from two Greek words. That is, "Episteme" (knowledge, or understanding) and "Logia" (science, or study) (Lebar, 2013; Martinich & Stroll, 2015), whereby epistemology can be classified as the study of general knowledge. Epistemology can be defined as being the philosophy that concerns: *"What is the nature of the relationship between the knower (the inquirer) and the known (or knowable)?"* (Guba, 1990: 18).

This thesis is based on the idea that there is no universal truth. It means that the possibilities for what can be known are interpreted through the mental constructions, beliefs and contexts of the individuals. Thereby, it is also said that this thesis is based on individual approaches through which the primary data is found. The researcher will work on-site at AASF and ASF, among the individual visitors, whereby the use of in-depth consumer interviews will identify the worldview of the individual.

What can be known is relative from person to person, as each individual has it's own perceived reality. In addition, this thesis' epistemological point of view indicates that there is a need for gathering information to explain an investigation, but here it is important that this gathering has to be performed from a subjectivistic perspective, which opens up the inquiry to interpretation by the researcher.

This thesis' researcher can be categorised as being constructivist interpretivists, where knowledge is created between the researcher and the researched (Pedersen & Juul, 2012; Guba, 1990). Which also means that the knowledge produced will both be external and internal and thus originate through the dialectic relationship between the perceived reality and the predisposed relative position in which the researcher finds him- or herself. (Ponterotto, 2005). In this way, it is also said that, I, as researcher, cannot be completely objective through my research, as my predicted perception of the world can and will affect my overall interaction for my research, as well as in my way of interpreting the data (Brinkmann & Tanggaard, 2010).

To sum up, epistemology and ontology cannot exist without each other (Guba, 1990). In this thesis, knowledge is constructed in the interaction between the researcher and the researched. However, I am aware that one universal truth does not exist, which means that all knowledge is open for interpretation. Therefore, this research will not give one definitive answer, but more different perspectives, in which the researcher can analyse and conclude some patterns from.

### 2.3 The paradigmatic approach

According to Guba (1990), a paradigm is defined as being *"a basic set of beliefs that guides action, whether of the everyday garden variety or action taken in connection with a disciplined inquiry"* (p. 17). Based on the above-mentioned ontological and epistemological worldview, the chosen paradigmatic point of view throughout the writing of this thesis is *social constructivist* (Guba, 1990; Jonassen, 1991). This paradigmatic approach is chosen as this thesis does not seek one specific answer to a given problem, but many individual opinions and attitudes that, in conjunction with the researcher's interpretations, can form the basis for the answer of this thesis' problem formulation. According to Burr (1995), the social constructivist practice can be described as:

*“... there is no ‘truth’, but only numerous constructions of the world and which of them are labelled ‘truth’ depends on particular cultural and historical factors. This is called ‘relativism’ - there are only numerous versions of events, and they must all theoretically be assigned the same status and value. Since there can be no single truth, all perspectives must be equally authentic” (p. 81).*

In continuation of this quote, the purpose of this thesis is not to find one universal truth, but to provide different perspectives and definitions that depend on the individual's interpretation. This is consistent with the constructivist approach that claims that the reality is not just as it is or that our recognition of it is not just a kind of reflection (Kjørup, 2008). Reality and realisation must be understood as created or shaped – therefore, “constructed”. This happens either by some features in our subjective recognition or because something common like the language, culture, history or society creates some patterns that we experience and recognise the reality through. In the latter case, we are working with the social constructivism (Kjørup, 2008; Klausen, 2012; Lebar, 2013; Guba, 1990; Ayukawa, 2011; Berger & Luckmann, 1966).

By developing this thesis from a social constructivist mind-set, an active research process is opened. Here the researched can respond to the contextual lens of it's own experiences, where each individual opinion and attitude is created from each person's individual growth, upbringing, social relations, etc. In this way, a very subjective point-of-view can be obtained, where the interviewees can speak freely and interpret their own experiences and thus their own reality. As researcher, it will be my job to try to understand the interviewees' reality, as I am not looking for a correct or wrong answer, but honest opinions (Guba, 1990; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011), from which I can analyse some patterns that ultimately can lead me to answering my problem formulation.

The constructivist mind-set can be seen by the many ties that hold the society together and form the framework of our lives, i.e. different forms of material subsistence that create some social constructions (Kjørup, 2008). These include, e.g. phenomena like money, traffic rules, contracts, laws, marriages, etc. This is supported by Burr (1995) who argues that *“no human being can step outside his own humanity and see the world completely independent of a particular point-of-view, as the meaning of objectivity implies it”* (p. 160).

By arguing that we cannot possess objective knowledge about the world because we always have to perceive the world in a human perspective, is according to Kjørup (2008), not possible. Therefore, in this thesis I will have this criticism in mind, thus attempting to navigate between objective truths and subjective opinions.

To sum up, this thesis is prepared from a social constructivist approach, where one ultimate truth does not exist, but instead exists the individual's own truth, which is dynamic and ever-changing (Klausen, 2012; Lebar, 2013, Ayukawa, 2011; Berger & Luckmann, 1966). This is in line with the principles seen by the postmodernist approach. According to Brinkmann and Kvale (2015) postmodernism is defined as: *"a philosophy characterised by a disbelief in modern universal systems of knowledge; it emphasizes the conversational, the narrative, the linguistic, the contextual, and the interrelational nature of knowledge"* (p. 366). Postmodernism and constructivism are related to each other, as both approaches are colored by different viewpoints and aspects, rather than one definitive truth. The postmodernist approach is expressed in this thesis through the interviews prepared. Here we experience different attitudes, ideas, motivations, experiences, etc., which are colored by the interviewees' environmental and social standards (Rosenau, 1992). Therefore, this thesis is categorised as having a postmodern approach, under the social constructivist paradigm.

The disadvantages by compiling this project from a social constructivist mind-set are that, I as researcher, can affect the process by my own biased subjective attitude (Klausen, 2012). This allows my interviewees to be colored by my personal interests and expectations. Similarly, my selected theories may affect my own pre-assumed prerequisites, thus coloring the overall outcome of the thesis (Klausen, 2012).

I am aware that the above criticisms exist, and therefore I will try throughout the process to minimise these. I will attempt to accommodate this by comparing my generated data with my selected theories, while keeping in mind that all knowledge is relative.

### 3.0 Methods

In this section, the concept of methodology in relation to this thesis will be presented, among which the trustworthiness of this project will be elaborated. Afterwards the thesis' research methods will be presented, focusing on the qualitative research, where the preparation of the consumer interviews and the expert interviews will contain the primary data source.

The humanistic science primarily deals with the study of human beings and what human beings produce. Humanities cover a wide range of different methods, which makes the humanities as a very heterogeneous field. Methodological researchers often work within some overall frameworks, which can generally be described as *interpretations*, where a large number of possible perspectives exist. Therefore, not one interpretation is more correct than another, which Rasmussen et al. (2006) also support in their description of the work with humanistic science:

*"In the humanistic sciences the object of study is not considered in advance as an entity that is independent of the researcher, but as something that is created in interplay with the researcher and that can be seen in different ways by different researchers. This does not, however, mean that every interpretation is acceptable, since it must be well established in the area under study and must be logically consistent. The humanistic sciences, therefore, work typically with interpreting and creating an understanding of relationships by looking at different perspectives on the same area of study"* (Rasmussen et al., 2006: p. 39).

Guba (1990) describes methodology from the following questions: *"How should the inquirer go about finding out knowledge"* (p. 18). As the quote indicates, the methodology aspect not only entails a descriptive element, but also discussions about *why* and *if* it is advantageous to use different selected methods (Klausen, 2012). Therefore, method is, in brief, the systematic process we use to validate a given body of knowledge (Rasmussen et al., 2006)

According to Brinkmann and Kvale (2015), methods can either be qualitative or quantitative. In this thesis, the research process is primarily depending on the qualitative method in a mix between telephone/email interviews with experts and face-to-face interviews with visitors from ASF and AASF. All interviews are organised in a semi-structured manner, which aims to open up to the free conversation between the researcher and the researched.

As knowledge is open for interpretation and also created in the human brain, the social constructivist methodology can also be classified as being hermeneutic (Klausen, 2012; Guba, 1990; Ayukawa, 2011; Berger & Luckmann, 1966). The hermeneutic thinking does not seek a final result or answer to a given problem, but rather a deeper understanding within an area. Likewise, both hermeneutics and social constructivism assume that knowledge is created from individual opinions, which is not objectively, but rather subjectively (Klausen, 2012; Guba, 1990; Ayukawa, 2011; Berger & Luckmann, 1966).

When we are working with a subjective point-of-view with individually designed opinions, it is important to consider the trustworthiness of this project. This can be done by looking into the honesty and integrity of the interviewees, which can be described through Hirschman's (1986) four concepts, respectively; credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

The credibility and confirmability criterion for this project is achieved as my interviews with the visitors from ASF and AASF are physically prepared on the two markets among the dining guests. Therefore, I am confident that the interviewees have experienced the Street Food concept on their own body at either ASF or AASF, and hopefully, have made some consideration about the experience.

The transferability aspect is especially important for the social constructivism. This aspect is ensured by using semi-structured interviews, which open up an open discussion between the researcher and the researched. In this way, there is free access for each interviewee to construct his or her own opinions and attitudes, based on their own social context and conviction. Hereby, it can also be recognised that each manifestation of the experience is unique and not generalisable. The dependability criterion is achieved, because a total of 60 consumer interviews are divided into two food markets in two different cities. Here, random visitors are interviewed with different demographic backgrounds. This helps to ensure cultural versatility which provides a general reliability when analysing patterns and comparable trends. In my expert interviews, I have asked for databases or analyses from previous studies who can confirm the expert's opinions and told information.

### 3.1 Qualitative research

This thesis is primarily based on the qualitative research method, consisting of a mix between semi-structured telephone/email interviews with experts and semi-structured face-to-face consumer interviews.

Qualitative research covers the kind of research that does not give a qualifying result. Instead it highlights individual experiences, attitudes, opinions, feelings and behaviors. Likewise, the method is concerned with cultural and social aspects and people's individual relationships to a given topic (Strauss & Corben, 1990; Smith et al., 2009; Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008). Qualitative research can be regarded as an interdisciplinary field, which means that the above individual perceptions can help to create an overall understanding within a more interpretable reality (Pages, 1999; Flick, 2007; Flick, 2009; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Brinkmann & Tanggaard, 2010).

Based on this thesis' problem formulation, which sounds as follows:

*What motivates selected visitors to visit Aalborg- and Aarhus Street Food Market?*

*How can the experiences of the selected visitors be defined?*

*- What do the visitors expect, and do they achieve their expectations?*

*- What role does the proximity to the local aspect play in relation to the visitors' experiences?*

*What is Street Food in a Danish context, exemplified by Aalborg- and Aarhus Street Food Market?*

The thesis search only for data, which can be traced through human interaction. Thus, when working with people's motivations and expectations, the use of qualitative methods will be a good choice for the analysis of this topic.

In addition to the above statement, it is also recognised that the social constructivism and the qualitative practice have a number of interrelated elements (Levesque, 2011), which is also confirmed by Denzin and Lincoln (2011), who claim that: *"Qualitative researchers stress the socially constructed nature of reality, the intimate relationship between researcher and what is studied, and situational constraints that shape inquiry"* (p. 8). Which is supported by Levesque (2011), who describes in his Encyclopedia that: *"Interpretive phenomenological analysis is among*

*the most popular data analytic techniques used by studies adopting an overall qualitative orientation*". Both quotes confirm that the qualitative research invites the researcher to interpret the generated data through the analysis.

In continuation of this, it is once again emphasised that, I, as researcher, cannot avoid accessing my interviews with a subjective biased attitude, which may affect the overall research process. In addition, my interpretation of my generated data will feature my personal background, reflecting my basic worldview. This is supported by Flick (2007), who confirms this statement by arguing that researchers renounce neutrality in the qualitative research process. Throughout this writing process I will try to minimise my own influence, in order to acquire as different data as possible.

According to Brinkmann and Tanggaard (2010), the qualitative interview is the most coveted qualitative method, which primary purpose is to gather information through a non-quantifiable talk (Brinkmann & Tanggaard, 2010; Holstein & Gubrium, 1999). The qualitative interview reflects the lived life of the interviewees and represents a reproduction of the formulated experiences by using individual attitudes and opinions. These experiences are communicated in an interpersonal setting where knowledge is created and constructed in the interaction between people – in this case, between the interviewee and the researcher (Paget, 1999; Brinkmann & Tanggaard, 2010; Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). This makes the qualitative interview an important element in the social constructionist research process, as it emphasises the individual's re-told and constructed experience.

In this thesis' analysis and discussion section, the above qualitative data is structured and handled based on a quantitative method approach. Here, the use of primarily bar charts and pie charts, will create an easy and understandable overview of the various generated data from the interviews. The results from the quantitative models can be measured, tracked and evaluated (Brinkmann & Tanggaard, 2010), but still need interpretation, in order to be useful (Guba, 1990; Ponterotto, 2005). Whereas the qualitative data is created by people, and therefore filled with opinions, contradictions and uncertainties (Brinkmann & Tanggaard, 2010). By "translating" the qualitative data through quantitative tools, it can contribute to the production of patterns within the

collected data (Brinkmann & Tanggaard, 2010), and thereby provide the basis for answering this project's problem formulation. But since this project is established with a constructivistic mindset; where one does not search for one truth, but rather accepts based on an ever-changing nature – the work with the qualitative research will form the framework for this thesis' primary research methods.

### 3.2 Interviews

As mentioned earlier, this thesis' data generation is exclusively based on qualitative interviews. The qualitative interviews consist of a total of 60 face-to-face consumer interviews, two written and one telephone-based expert interviews. The method selection is outlined as shown in the figure below:



#### 3.2.1 Consumer interviews

The thesis' consumer interviews form the basis of the project's primary gained knowledge, and likewise create the basis for answering the problem formulation. This can be done because the problem formulation is based entirely on a consumer perspective, whereas it is crucial to work directly with the individual.

According to Murray (2003), face-to-face interviews are the best method for obtaining qualitative responses, as it requires a broader ground for honest opinions, as well as greater insight into the

consumer's worldview. This is supported by Kvale (1994), who describes a life-world interview as being "*a planned and flexible interview with the purpose of obtaining descriptions of the life world of the interviewee with respect to the interpretation of the meaning of the described phenomena*" (p. 19). Therefore, among other things, the thesis' consumer interviews have been prepared physically at the two food markets, on the same level with the individual consumer.

The different consumer interviews are designed as semi-structured interviews. This structure invites the various interviewees to more far-reaching answers of a more personal character, since no strict structure need to be followed (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015; Brinkmann & Tanggaard, 2011). This means that a semi-structured interview is not an open-daily conversation, nor a closed questionnaire, but rather a formal interview, which has a purpose and a specific approach that relates to certain themes and suggested questions (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). All in line with the social constructivist and postmodernist mind-set (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015; Brinkmann & Tanggaard, 2011), and thereby fulfil this project's philosophy of science.

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2011), the researcher is a person who assembles images into montages and then interprets them. The researcher's role therefore consists in merging the various statements and views from the interview, using a number of interpretation tools and methods, thus attempting to reach agreement in the statements (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). According to Kvale (1994), there are two different positions on which the researcher can find himself or herself in, respectively "the miner" or "the traveller". For the miner, knowledge is understood as hidden metal, and the interviewer is a miner who digs the precious metal (Kvale, 1994). For the traveller, the interviewer should be understood as a traveller reporter on a trip, which means that he or she has a story to tell when he or she returns home (Kvale, 1994). For this thesis' consumer interviews, the researcher's position will be categorised as belonging to the traveller.

The knowledge that the traveller reporter hears and sees during the interviews is subsequently described qualitatively and reconstructed as stories by the reporter itself. The meanings of the original interview content are expressed through the traveller's interpretations and validated by the effect the stories have on the audience (Kvale, 1994). According to Kvale (1994), the

researcher's position as the traveller refers to a postmodern, constructive understanding that is associated with a call access to social research, so the traveller's position fits perfectly into this thesis' paradigmatic approach.

The interview guide (can be found in appendix 1) first contains five introductory demographic questions, in order to open up the conversation, and to subsequently analyse the answers with the demographic aspects in mind.

The initial questions are followed by eight qualitative open-ended questions that address, in particular, the individual consumer's motivation for each visit, their personal perception of the word "Street Food" and their expectations for their visit and the fulfilment thereof. Thereby an interview guide consisting of a total of 13 questions.

The advantage of qualitative questions is that they invite the interviewees to reflect on their own experiences, while potentially learning more about themselves during the process (Flick, 2007; Flick, 2009). The interview guide ensuring that the researcher asks each interviewee the same questions, in order to analyse all interviews from the same assumptions.

Since this thesis does not work with a problem formulation, which requires a text-analytical approach, the individual interviews are not recorded or transcribed. According to Kvale (1994), an interview can be registered through the researcher's reflected memory, based on empathy and recollection, as well as impaired main aspects during the interview or after the meeting. Of course, memory has its immediate limitations, in form of forgetfulness of details and the impact of the selective memory. But in contrast, this method covers the visual information of the situation, the social atmosphere and the personal interaction that is largely lost in sound recording and transcribing (Kvale, 1994). According to Kvale (1994), the interviewer's active listening memory can act as a selective filter that maintains precisely the meanings that are essential to the subject and purpose of the study.

Based on the above and the researcher's position as the traveller, each interview is reproduced in writing shortly after the interview itself (interview texts can be found in appendix 1.1). The answers are reproduced as the researcher understands and perceived them why the researcher's subjective interpretation is inevitable (Kvale, 1994; Flick, 2007; Flick, 2009).

The participants in the consumer interviews prevail 31 respondents at AASF and 29 respondents at ASF. The interviews have been conducted at Tuesday, 03/10-17, Friday, 06/10-17 and Tuesday 10/10-17 at AASF, and Friday, 13/10-17 and Saturday 14/10-17 at ASF. These days are chosen to exchange between everyday guests and weekend guests, thus ensuring the widest possible diversity among the interviewees. All interviews are processed anonymously.

Those interviewed are randomly selected people who have agreed in an interview shortly after they have eaten some kind of food at the selected food market. Each participant is told the estimated time for the interview's length and number of questions before the interview starts. Despite the selection of interviewees are randomly made, the participants only represent people with resident in Denmark, except of one single international participant with resident in Oslo. Due to the relatively small international representation, this thesis does not look closer to national versus international aspects. All interviews are listed and processed equality under the same assumptions.

According to Kvale (1994) there are five main methods for meaning analysis of an interview, respectively meaning condensation, meaning categorisation, narrative structuring, meaning interpretation and the creation of meaning through ad hoc methods. This thesis' consumer interviews will be analysed using the method of meaning categorisation.

Meaning categorisation implies that the interviews are categorised in some categories, i.e. Long statements are reduced to simple categories. With a categorisation it is possible to reduce and structure an interview text into a few tables and figures (Kvale, 1994).

The meaning categorisation of this thesis is systematised in four different matrix systems, respectively demographic divisions for AASF and ASF and the answers of the eight qualitative questions regarding the interviewees' experience descriptions from AASF and ASF (matrix systems can be found in appendix 1.2). The content of the matrix systems will be further processed in the analysis, section 4.1.

Finally, all interviews are prepared in Danish (in English by non-Danish-speaking interviewees), thus the interviewees have the best prerequisites for expressing themselves freely without language restrictions. In addition, I see my own language skills as being good enough to refer to

the content and transform quotes from Danish to English and the other way around, in order to preserve the originality as good as possible.

### 3.2.2 Expert interviews

This thesis' three expert interviews have been prepared to support the above consumer interviews in the overall answer to the project's problem formulation. As the expert interviews are exclusively used as additional data, a total of three expert interviews are seen as suitable to covering the project's overall purpose. The different experts have a background in each field and it is interesting to compare the consumers' personal opinions and considerations with more comprehensive responses from the individual experts.

The three experts consist of; Jens Holdgaard Christensen, Education Director at Food College Aalborg (national perspective), Peter Krosborg, Market Director at VisitDenmark in Norway and Sweden (international perspective) and Petra Hahn-Schmitz, Project Manager Leisure Tourism at VisitDenmark in Germany.

Besides interviewing the above people, the researcher has attempted to intervene with Dorthe Sørensen, Customer Service Manager at Claus Meyer (national perspective), Tatjana Kozak at VisitDenmark in Holland (international perspective) and Mette Steensberg at the consumer department in Coop Denmark (national perspective). Unfortunately, after repeated contact attempts in two months, it has not been possible to get an interview or answers sent through email with these persons.

In addition, the researcher has been in contact with Martin Fønnesbech-Sandberg, economist in the knowledge and analysis department, and Anja Hartung Sfyrla, Head of Business Development at VisitDenmark in Copenhagen. Unfortunately, they do not believe in having information and data to contribute to this project's chosen topic.

The above people are selected by the researcher in order to provide insight into current food trends, including Street Food's role, with both national and international lenses.

In the following, the three captured expert interviews will be further described.

The interview with Jens Holdgaard Christensen was made by phone at Tuesday 10/10-17, whereas the interview with Peter Krosborg and Petra Hahn-Schmitz was answered in writing by email at

Tuesday 10/10-17. The telephone interview was based in a semi-structured manner, whereas the two email interviews were answered by the interviewees' own formulations and phrases in a written context, without any immediate influence from the researcher.

In relation to this thesis, the use of telephone interviews and email interviews is considered as acceptable, as the expert interviews do not contain the primary data collection, and thereby only appear as additional knowledge for the project's discussion section.

As described in the previous section about consumer interviews, the researcher's position can be placed into "the miner" or "the traveller" (Kvale, 1994). The relevance for classifying the researcher's position in a particular box is minimised when it comes to telephone and email interviews. However, the researcher's position as the traveller will still be preferable, although it is not possible to interact or interpret the individual interviews during the interview process.

The expert interviews' interview guides (presented in appendix 2) have been prepared with a national and an international perspective. The national interview guide covers a total of five qualitative open-ended questions, which contains the food trend and the role of Street Food in Denmark. Likewise, the international interview guide covers a total of seven qualitative open-ended questions, which also contains the food trend and the role of Street Food in the respective countries. In addition, the international interview guide also includes whether the knowledge of AASF and ASF occur, and whether these markets are sought after by people from the respective countries. After each interview, analyses and statistics are required, in order to confirm and supplement the experts' opinions. However, only sparingly supplementary data from Petra Hahn-Schmitz in Germany has been sent, which of course is included in the thesis' analysis and discussion section.

During the elaboration of the thesis' telephone interview, the researcher has by herself noted the answers during the process. The answers are therefore described and explained, based on the researcher's own perception and understanding thereof. This method is accepted partly because the interview is based on the traveller's position, and partly because the interview does not require a text-analytical approach, which also means that the interview neither is transcribed. In

addition, the answers from the two email interviews are only preserved in their original written form (the three interview texts can be found in appendix 2.1 and 2.2).

The three expert interviews are all prepared in Danish, of which my own English skills are considered as being good enough to refer to the content and transform quotes from a Danish to an English context, and the other way around, in order to preserve the originality as good as possible.

## 4.0 Theory

It is appropriate to start this theory section with what Rasmussen et al. (2006) defines as being the characteristics of a theory in social sciences:

*“A theory in the field of social sciences usually consists of an ordered set of general claims about the relations that apply within a larger or smaller portion of reality, often expressed as causal relations. A theory can, for example, say something universal about how consumers make purchase, or about how an organisation develops. In addition, a theory says something about the relations that exist between the various elements dealt with by the theory – typically expressed as the way in which various elements influence each other”* (p. 49).

This thesis will consider the above quote during the processing of the selected theories of the project. The thesis is primarily structured and based on two different theoretical aspects, i.e. motivational factors and consumer behavior in food experiences. In the latter we become acquainted with the relatively new concept, called “proximity”, which plays a crucial role in the final outcome of this project. In the following, the two theoretical aspects will be presented and their relevance to this project will be highlighted.

### 4.1 Motivation

“Motivation” is a broad concept and can be found in a variety of forms. Motivation is a collective term that covers why people act as they do, in what ways, with what intensity and with what consequences (Gyldendal – den store danske, 2017). Motivation is often defined as biological and psychological needs and wants, *“which include integral forces that arouse, direct, and integrate a person’s behavior and activity”* (Kim et al., 2010 (based on Dann, 1981; Pearce, 1982; Uysal &

Hagan, 1993). Motivation theories are found in many different fields discussed by many different authors in many different ways, but one thing is for sure, motivation occupies all people to some extent during their daily life. Motivational investigations often seek explanations of enterprises or events, of which the question “why something happens” is asked, often on the behalf of others (Gyldendal – den store danske, 2017). Working with motivational factors can be crucial in terms of generating overall patterns (Gilbert (1993). Since this thesis is written with a social constructivist approach, the work with different explanations and interpretations is to prefer. The answer of this thesis’ problem formulation will probably not be found in one of this theories, but in a mixture of different individual interpretations from each consumer. This thesis will be based on motivation in the context of a behavioral perspective, because it seeks to find out why people have chosen to visit ASF or AASF, which originates in a subjectivistic behavioral perception. By illuminating people’s motivational factors, it can form the basis for a better understanding of the visitor’s overall experience.

In relation to tourism, motivation refers to *“a set of internal psychological needs that cause a person to act in a certain way or stimulate their interest in travel and participation in a tourist activity”* (Kim & Eves, 2012: 1458 (based on Crompton & McKay, 1997; Fodness, 1994)).

According to McIntosh et al. (1995), tourist motivation is fundamental to gaining an understanding of the tourist behavior, and likewise tourist motivation theories are ideal to illuminate both travel behavior and travel choice. Most people’s behavior can be justified on the basis of inner motivations, e.g. individual desire, which results in a particular act (Gleitman, 1986). These inner motives are called “internal stimuli”, and are caused by psychological, social and egocentric components. In contrast to internal stimuli, we find “external stimuli” that caused environmental, physical and social factors from the surrounding world (Iso-Ahola, 1989). A number of studies on motivation (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994) shows that people travel because they are motivated by both internal and external factors. In addition, Dann (1981) has developed a functional definition of tourism motivation as being: *“a meaningful state of mind which adequately disposes an individual or group of individuals to travel”* (p. 205). This is supported by Murray (1964) which describes that: *“a motive is an internal factor that arouses, directs and integrates a person’s behaviour”* (p. 7). Here we do not mind that the push and pull

concepts are ideal for describing consumers' motivation, based on internal and external factors (Kim et al., 2010; Kim & Lee, 2002; Kim et al., 2003; Klenosky, 2002). Individuals are pushed by motivation variables into making travel decisions and are pulled by destination attributes (Uysal & Hagan, 1993; Kim et al., 2010). Several studies have been conducted using these perspectives. These include Crompton (1979), Dann (1977; 1981), Iso-Ahola (1982; 1989), Pearce and Caltabiano (1983), Pyo et al. (1989), Uysal and Hagan (1993) and Yuan and McDonald (1990). This thesis will deviate from the other studies and make use of another less used motivation theory, i.e. McIntosh et al.'s (1995) four categories of motivation. This theory will be further described below.

The relevance of involving motivations in relation to a food experience is that motivation plays a significant role for food tourism. According to Bessi re (1998), traditional food can be an exceptional tourist attraction for travel destinations, because consumption of food both plays a role in terms of entertaining and a cultural activity. Eating local foods might not only be an isolated experience, but also an integrated part of the travel experience (Kim et al., 2010; Cohen & Avieli, 2004; Quan & Wang, 2004). Food has become a significant part of the decision-making process in the selection of tourists' travel destination, and therefore an essential component of the tourism industry, and not least for the motivation of tourists (Hall et al., 2003). Food, according to Hjalager and Richards (2002), has become one of the major instruments of promoting a country's identity and culture. This opens up for a "localhood" where local producers can create value in their products by providing a food experience for the destination's tourists (Hall et al., 2003; Quan & Wang, 2004; Kim et al., 2010). This will be further elucidated in section 3.2.

#### 4.1.1 Four categories of motivation

This thesis will treat the first question of this project's problem formulation, which sounds: "*What motivates selected visitors to visit Aarhus and Aalborg Street Food Market?*" with McIntosh et al.'s (1995) motivation theory which include four different categories of motivation. According to Fields (2002), McIntosh et al.'s (1995) motivation theory fits very well on food-related motivations in tourism. The four categories are divided as follows:

- Physical motivators.
- Cultural motivators.
- Interpersonal motivators.
- Status and prestige motivators.

In the following, each motivation category will be described in more detail:

### Physical motivators

Tourists are motivated by different physical experiences during their visit. The act of eating is a physical motivator, both because eating is a natural physical need, but also because tourists experience different tastes, smells and images through various foods (Fields, 2002). The physical motivation factor often refers to something that people cannot experience in their daily life, but instead it is more aimed as refreshment of a person's body and mind, physical rest, desire for recreation and participation in leisure activities (McIntosh et al., 1995). According to Fields (2002), the physical motivator can also cover the opportunity to taste new and different foods, to which Kim et al. (2009) complements the idea of eating local food, not eaten before, is one of the most exciting experiences for tourists. In addition, it can also be argued that taste of food in tourism context plays not only a crucial part in adding to the total destination image and experience, but also becomes the ideal symbol of tourism consumption (Kim & Eves, 2012).

### Cultural motivators

Food has always been an essential element for any culture, as well as a co-player in relation to the identification of any society (Fields, 2002). Eating out has become a major and important part of people's new way of living, and therefore the cultural motivation factor is a strong push factor for tourism. Similarly, tourists love to explore new local kitchens as it is possible to explore new cultures (McIntosh et al., 1995). According to Kim and Eves (2012):

*"Cultural motivation, as the desire to experience different cultures, appreciate the artefacts of previous cultures, and learn history, has been considered as a key motivator in a diversity of tourism fields including: motivations for visiting heritage attractions and destinations; motivations for taking part in local leisure activities; and motivations for attending festivals and events" (p. 1460).*

As the quote indicates, the cultural motivator enables the tourist to learn and experience other societies than what they normally come from (Fields, 2002). Many researchers have previously categorised cultural experience as the search for authenticity (e.g. Crompton & McKay, 1997; McIntosh et al., 1995; Fields, 2002; Kim et al., 2009), which is not the case in this thesis. In this project, the focus will be directed to the search for the “proximity”, which will be elaborated in section 3.2.

### Interpersonal motivators

The interpersonal motivator can be associated as togetherness, where the tourist carries a desire for e.g. meet new people, spend time with his or her family and friends, visit friends and relatives, and/or get away from the normal relationships (McIntosh et al., 1995). According to a Britain study conducted by Warde and Martens (2000), it is apparent that the interviewed dining guests attach the social element of dining (95 %) higher than the actual quality of the food (94 %) in contributing to their experience. The importance of that statement is supported by Fields (2002), who claims that social dinners have the potential to build new social relationships, thus strengthening social ties.

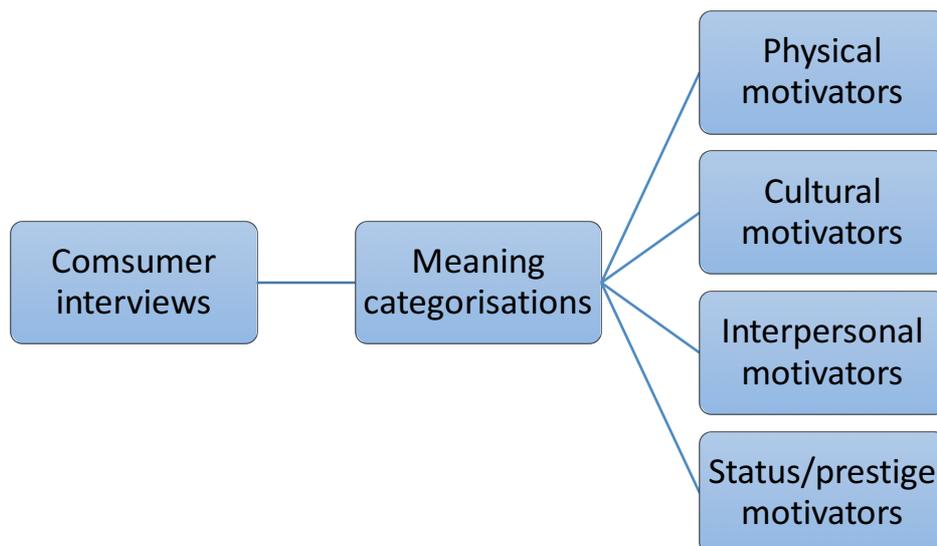
### Status and prestige motivators

According to McIntosh et al. (1995) is the status and prestige motivator associated with self-esteem, recognition and the desire to attract the attention of others. Therefore, delicious food, which is enjoyed in delicious places, can help to achieve a high social status with other people (Fields, 2002; Kim et al., 2009). Previous studies have shown that status and prestige can be measured in elements of income, education, values and time (Dann, 1977; Urry, 1990). According to Crompton and McKay (1997), status and prestige aims to seek recognition among the remaining people, but Botha, Crompton and Kim (1999) add that status and prestige also aim to make the individual feel like a better person who stands out from the crowd.

Eating in “correct” restaurants has become a part of the brand new lifestyle for the “new middle classes” (Richards, 2002). Even though it is about divorcing the crowd and finding the “smart” places, it is still about learning new cultures, thus eating like the locals. A bread with good oil can easily be delicious, fresh, trendy and represents a different culture, even though the menu is

simple and modest (Fields, 2002). According to Fields (2002), we will here meet a paradox: Tourists want to search away from the mainstream tourism industry and find the little “hidden” restaurant, usually visited by local only, but status and prestige can only be gained from the experience if other people know about the consumption. In this thesis, this paradox is not significant as it works with two major Street Food markets.

In attempting to find out what motivational factors are behind the visitors’ visits at AASF and ASF, this project’s interview guide provide three questions that can lead to an image of the individual motivations. The three questions are number 6, 7 and 8 (Why did you choose to visit AASF or ASF? Are you here with other people? Who? Have you visited ASF or AASF before? How many times?) (The interview guide can be found in appendix 1). The following model shows the function of the above theory in the response of this project:



## 4.2 Consumer behavior in food experiences

Many destinations start to address the tourists’ search for experiences rather than motivational drivers (Richards, 2002). Generally, there are two different approaches to the study of tourist experiences, respectively, the social science approach (also referred to as the “Experience Society” by Schulze, 1992) and the marketing/management approach (also referred to as the “Experience Economy” by Pine and Gilmore, 1999 ) (Quan & Wang, 2004).

The social science approach is characterised by the tourism experience differs from the daily experience. Thus, it is highlighted that tourists enjoy experiencing things that are different from the daily life of the tourist. Here the tourist experience can be seen as being a peak experience, and the experiences that are regarded as the extension of the daily experiences to the tourist journey, e.g. accommodation, food and transport, are mostly ignored (Quan & Wang, 2004). In contrast, we see the marketing/management approach where tourists are compared to consumers because they are involved in different commercial exchange relationships. These relationships cover all types of services, no matter if the tourist gets a peak experience or any supporting services (Mossberg, 2007).

According to Mossberg (2007), a common approach to the two above approaches may be to focus on tourism service quality perceptions based on a number of services before, during and after the experience.

In relation to this thesis' problem formulation, which sounds:

*What motivates selected visitors to visit Aalborg- and Aarhus Street Food Market?*

*How can the experiences of the selected visitors be defined?*

*- What do the visitors expect, and do they achieve their expectations?*

*- What role does the proximity to the local aspect play in relation to the visitors' experiences?*

*What is Street Food in a Danish context, exemplified by Aalborg- and Aarhus Street Food Market?*

Mossberg's above-mentioned middle way fits this project very well, partly because it is based on a social constructivist approach, and partly because this project's problem formulation seeks to illuminate the tourists' expectations and the fulfilment of the experience.

An experience is known to be one of the major core aspects of the tourism industry (Goolaup & Mossberg, 2017). This leaves many researchers with many different interpretations and views on how an experience can and must be staged. Wikström (1999) argues that the focus of business development has shifted from dealing with a tourism product, to now address the processes taking place around the consumer. This leads us further to Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2003), who claim that *"a new point of view is required; one that allows individual customers to actively*

*construct their own consumption experiences through personalized interaction, thereby co-creation unique value for themselves"* (p. 12). This is supported by Wikström (1999) and Jensen (1999), which indicates that customers have become co-producers of their own experience, which creates more value for the customer. It emphasises that people do not want to buy specific products, but the good stories of the experience behind the product (Mossberg, 2007). According to Carlson (1997), an experience is defined as a constant flow of thoughts and feelings that occur during moments of consciousness. Based on this definition, as well as the above theoretical aspects, it is not possible for an organisation to provide an experience to a consumer. On the other hand, organisations can exclude creating circumstances and the environment in which consumers could have an experience (Schulze, 1992; Mossberg, 2003). Hereby, it can be argued that *"an experience is made up inside a person and the outcome depends on how an individual, in a specific mood and state of mind, reacts to the interactions with the stage event"* (Mossberg, 2007: 60).

The above mentioned value can also be referred to as Holbrook's (1994) definition of the experiential value. According to Holbrook (1994), the experiential value may be interactive, relative, preferred, personalised, and it may dynamically change as experiences accumulate (Holbrook, 1994). The present position holds that value in consumer behavior does not reside in the object (good or service) purchased but rather pertains directly to the consumption experience derived therefrom (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). This is supported by other theorists such as Parker (1957), Baylis (1958) and Mukerjee (1964) who declare that: *"Now the primary insight into (...) values is that they belong to activities or experiences. (...) Things may be called 'good', but only because they contribute something to experiences"* (Parker, 1957, p. 6). And following: *"The value of (...) valuable things is realized and becomes actual only when they are experiences. It is derived from the (...) value of the experience of them"* (Baylis, 1958, p. 490-491). And last but not least: *"Values are (...) lived events and experiences in which the resources of the whole mind – impulse, reason, imagination and intuition – (...) are involved"* (Mukerjee, 1964, p. 108-109).

This thesis will be based on the above theoretical approach of the experience economy, as well as the corresponding definition of the consumer experience with the corresponding experiential value. In continuation of the purpose of this project, we will now look into what characterises a definite food experience.

Food is one of the most essential elements of the tourist experience (Hall et al., 2003). Meals consumed outside the home are by definition experiences that contain many elements besides the food on the plate (Fields, 2002). What, why and how we eat says something about our personality and the society we live in (Hall et al., 2003; James, 1996). It is therefore possible to examine touristic consumer behavior on AASF and ASF by looking at the individual food experiences.

Food experiences are a complex phenomenon, and are found in a myriad of shadows. Food and meals are often experienced on a multitude of ways due to different influences from the tourist's personal, social and cultural background, as well as other external factors (Andersson et al., 2017). Some food experiences are memorable because they contain something out of the ordinary, others are very mundane and only live up to their function, namely to make the tourist's hunger (Andersson et al., 2017). Respectively, this is what we call a peak experience and a supporting experience, (Quan & Wang, 2004). The former being "reasons to go", the latter being the food experiences that are part of the overall holiday experience but not decisive for the success or failure of the holiday (Andersson et al., 2017). For special interest "foodies" food experiences are often a peak, whereas food experiences in general-interest tourists are part of several different experiences, which together constitute a good holiday (Andersson et al., 2017).

Previous studies conducted by Therkelsen (2015) have shown that pleasure, health, social bonding and sense of place are four significant types of experiences that food offers generate among tourists (Andersson et al., 2017). Firstly, pleasurable experiences include sensory stimuli in terms of taste, smell, texture and visual impression (Therkelsen, 2015; Andersson et al., 2017). If we look away from the food product itself, sense stimuli can also be referred to the meeting with service staff, other guests and the décor of the restaurant (Gustafsson et al., 2014). Secondly, healthy eating, which also covers the tourists' food relations. Here people's daily practices and norms are continued to eat healthy and sensible food. This is especially seen in families with children where parents want the children to get something good to eat, even when they are on vacation (Therkelsen, 2015). Thirdly, the interpersonal aspect. Here, company and conversation is defined as being central to eating out both at restaurants and as guests in someone else's home (Warde & Martens, 1998), and herewith, food as a means of social bonding (Therkelsen, 2015; Andersson et

al., 2017). Fourth and finally, food as a means of providing a sense of place, where learning is part of the experience. Here, insight is gained in historical and contemporary food practitioners, thus expanding the cultural understanding (Therkelsen, 2015; Andersson et al., 2017).

The above recipe is an example that food experiences contain a mix of different types of experiences at the same time and that tourists can achieve a wealth of different food experiences on the same holiday. An experience is not just an experience, and the same goes for food experiences. This is due to the fact that food experiences are often characterised by many other inter-related elements, which together constitute the overall experience. Hanefors and Mossberg (2003) introduces the concept of “an extraordinary experience”, which can be defined as follows:

*“In an extraordinary food experience, the meal by itself does not create an extraordinary experience but, together with the perceived secrecy, need to escape from the ordinary routine, familiar interaction with the personnel, and the tasteful integration of different elements surrounding the meal adds to the experience. As such, it can be argued that the food tourist experience is conditioned by what is served, how it is served, where it is served and with whom they are sharing the experience”* (Goolaup and Mossberg, 2017: 38, based on Hanefors and Mossberg, 2003)

The above quote is supported by other researchers who have found more or less the same results. Among other things, Kim et al. (2009) and Myttinen et al. (2015), find out that food experiences contribute to social relationships, Walter et al. (2010) confirms that food experiences are affected by the hospitality and quality of service, and Gustafsson et al. (2006) claims that food experiences are affected by the products offering. In the following section we look at the food experiences’ multidimensional aspect in which we acquaint ourselves with the local component.

#### 4.2.1 Proximity to the local aspect

Local food has evolved from being a crucial necessity to being a recognised and important part of the local culture that tourists consume (Kim et al., 2009; Kivela & Crofts, 2006). Tasting local food is an essential part of the tourism experience as it enthrals the tourist in cultural activities as well as different and new traditions (Fields, 2002; Kivela & Crofts, 2006). As mentioned above in section 3.1.1, regarding cultural motivators, this is where the term “proximity” comes into the picture.

According to Castree et al.'s (2013) dictionary, "proximity" describes as being: *"The physical closeness or co-location of individuals or institutions [...]. [Proximity means] having physical access to each other in a particular place or region"*. The above is supported by Chandler and Munday's (2011) dictionary, who describes "proximity" as being *"the physical closeness of interactive partners"*. In this thesis, "proximity" is the core of understanding the sense of local culture, traditions and food for tourists and visitors at AASF and ASF.

Richards (2017) possess very well into the subject of the tourist search for proximity related experiences. He describes, among other things, how the power has shifted from the tourism industry to the locals, which give rise to whole new fields of economic, cultural and social exchange. This is supported by Zukin (2010), who replaces the word "authentic" with "local". According to Zukin (2010), the question is changed from previous asked "what is authentic?" to currently asking "what is local?" (Zukin, 2010; Richards, 2017).

The above supports the biggest difference from the previous food tourism to nowadays, exactly the visual consumption of the traditional tourist "gaze" (Urry, 1990; Richards, 2013; Richards 2014). The tourist gaze has been changed to the fact that it is now possible to "live" like the local, rather than just to look at them (Richards, 2017). This has led to a "live like a local"-trend, where the previously known authenticity now occurs in the tension between the local and the visitor.

The development of the individual experience takes place when the co-creative process is initiated between the tourist and the local, which creates a network and a special atmosphere where exchange of cultures and mutual understanding is achieved without any interference from the tourism system (Richards, 2017; Hannigan, 2007). This makes also the local become the providers of the tourist's experiences, as the local become the intermediaries who interpret the places they live in for the tourist. A feature who previously has been occupied by, e.g. travel guides (Richards, 2017).

The search for the proximity to the local has already set it's roots in many different places in the world, and new tourism strategies are then devised. E.g. the Destination Management Organisation (DMO), Wonderful Copenhagen's new Strategy 2020, entitled "The End of Tourism

As We Know It – Towards a New Beginning of Localhood”. Already the name indicates the change of direction, among other things, being dismissed by mass consumers and an isolated tourism industry with superiority and exclusive rights to promote and shape a destination (WoCo, 2017). Instead, welcome to “The Today’s Traveller” who seeks the emotional connection to the venue where sharing experiences, based on interests, relationships and authenticity (WoCo, 2017) are possible.

The essence of Wonderful Copenhagen’s new strategy is reflected in particular in the interplay between the local and the visitors, which the following quote marks:

*“Today, fewer and fewer want to be identified as tourists. Instead, new generations of travellers seek out experiences that not only provide a photo opportunity, but also get their hands ‘dirty’ and immerse them in the destination. The travellers seek out a sense of localhood, looking to experience the true and authentic destination – that which makes a destination unique” (p. 5).*

This quote outlines what in this thesis is meant by the word “proximity” and also marks how much an influence proximity to the local has for today’s tourism.

Proximity to the local is also considered to have a significant role in relation to the Street Food concept. In a podcast series of Monocle, entitled "The Urbanist" (section 293, “Food and identity”, the 25<sup>th</sup> of May, 2017), food is considered to be an important part of a city’s or a country’s DNA (The Urbanist, 2017, 00:30). The podcast episode is based on a French Street Food Market in Paris, where the market is primarily aimed at bringing the consumer in touch with the producer. In the interplay between the consumer and the local producer, an experience is created where the producer knows what the consumers want and need, and then offer a coveted product (The Urbanist, 2017: 08:30).

The Urbanist (2017) explains that the current Street Food concept is aimed to the upper classes who want to eat in a more fancy way, but still maintain the urban style (10:28). Food changes depending on which country you are in, and Street Food allows you to combine “uptown” with “downtown”. This selects distinctive local dishes from different countries, which are subsequently taken on a higher level, thus providing a cultural and present experience for the consumer (The Urbanist, 2017: 12:54).

In attempting to find out which kind of dimensions of food experiences we are seen at the visitors

at AASF and ASF, this project's interview guide provide five questions that can assist to an overall picture. The five questions are number 9, 10, 11, 12 and 13 (What is Street Food to you? What did you expect from your visit? Did your experience meet your expectations? Do you want to visit ASF or AASF again? Would you recommend ASF or AASF to your friends and acquaintances?) (the interview guide can be found in appendix 1).

By using the previously mentioned meaning categorisation, an overview of the interview content is generated, after which overall patterns are found among the individual experience descriptions. These patterns will ultimately be crucial for answering this thesis' problem formulation. The structure can be outlined as shown in the figure below:



## 5.0 Analysis

In this section, the thesis' generated data from consumer and expert interviews will be presented. The purpose of this analysis is to organise the content of the interview texts, summarise the meanings in a form that can be produced in relatively short space, and clarify implicit meanings in what has been said (Kvale, 1994).

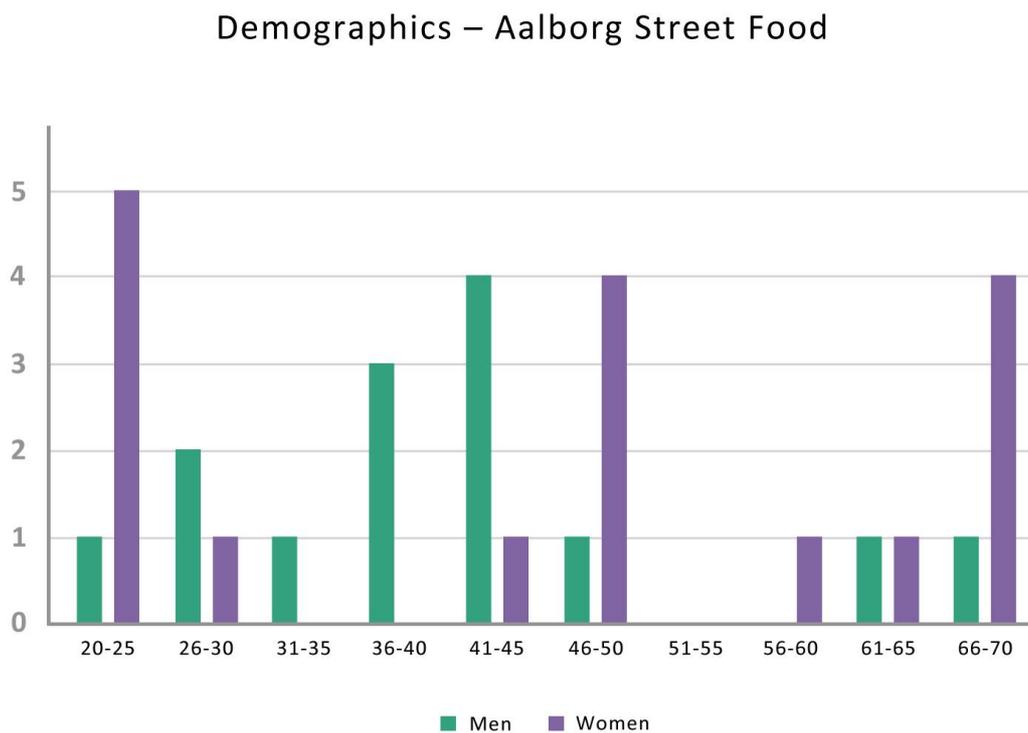
According to Kvale (1994), the qualitative research interview comprises description and interpretation of topics from the interviewees' lived life. This analysis will present the content of the interviews, whereas the content will be further discussed in section 5.0. Likewise, the analysis

will describe the interviewees' own understandings, and as researcher, new perspectives will be put down on the phenomena (Kvale, 1994).

## 5.1 Consumer interviews

As described in section 3.2.1, the following results from the prepared consumer interviews of AASF and ASF, will be based on the matrix systems of the meaning categories (see matrix systems in appendix 1.2).

A total of 60 consumer interviews have been performed on random selected persons on AASF and ASF, whereas 31 interviews is taken on AASF and 29 interviews on ASF. The interviewees from AASF have a total of 14 men and 17 women. The age grouping is divided as shown in Figure 1:

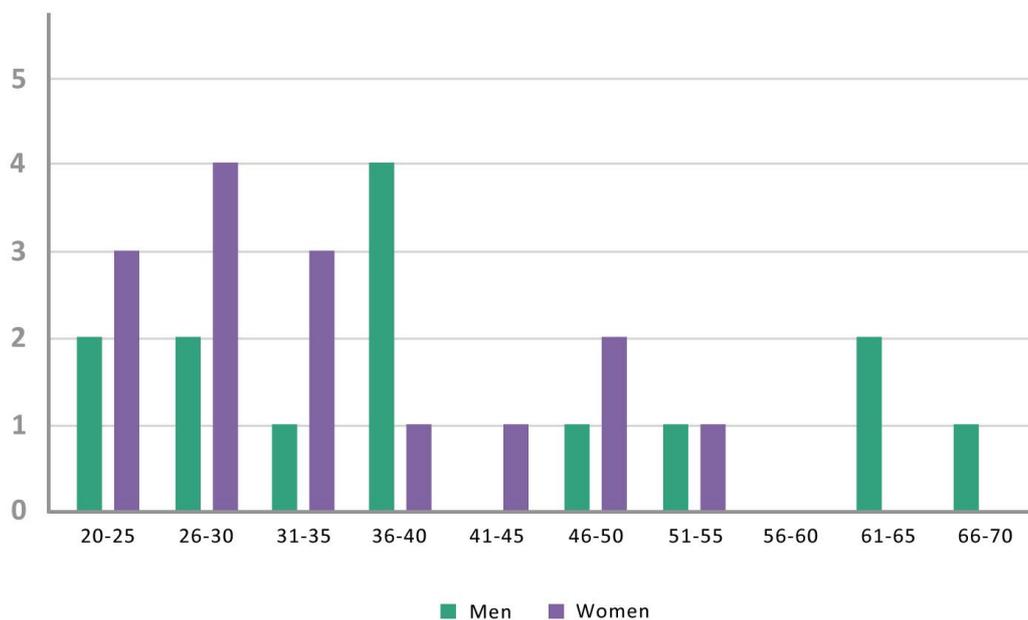


*Figure 1: Demographics – Aalborg Street Food*

The average age of AASF is 43.52 years, of which 42 % have a residence in Aalborg and 58 % have a residence in another city.

At ASF, the interviewees feature 14 men and 15 women, whereas the age grouping can be shown as illustrated in Figure 2:

### Demographics – Aarhus Street Food



*Figure 2: Demographics – Aarhus Street Food*

The average age of ASF is 37.62 years, of which 66 % live in Aarhus and 34 % live in another city. All interviewees at the two food markets are together with one or more relatives. The companies consist of everything from family members to friends and colleagues. It has not been possible to find some people who have visited the locations alone.

The interviewees' reasons to go can be outlined in the following categories, which in this project are referred to as the motivational factors of the visitors:

<b>Motivational factors</b>
The market offers lunch dishes
The food is cheap
Wanted to try something new
The market has varied food offerings
Inspired by Street Food in other cities
The market is recommended by a friend
The market offers a relaxed and cosy atmosphere
The visitor likes the concept
Re-visit from a bad or good experience
The market offers delicious food and beverages
Other motivations

“Other motivations” include reasons that are isolated, and therefore cannot be put in category with others. “Other motivations” can, e.g. be factors such as; it is easy to find parking, we have the opportunity to bring our dog, etc.

The distribution of the visitors’ motivational factors from AASF can be sketched as shown in Figure 3:

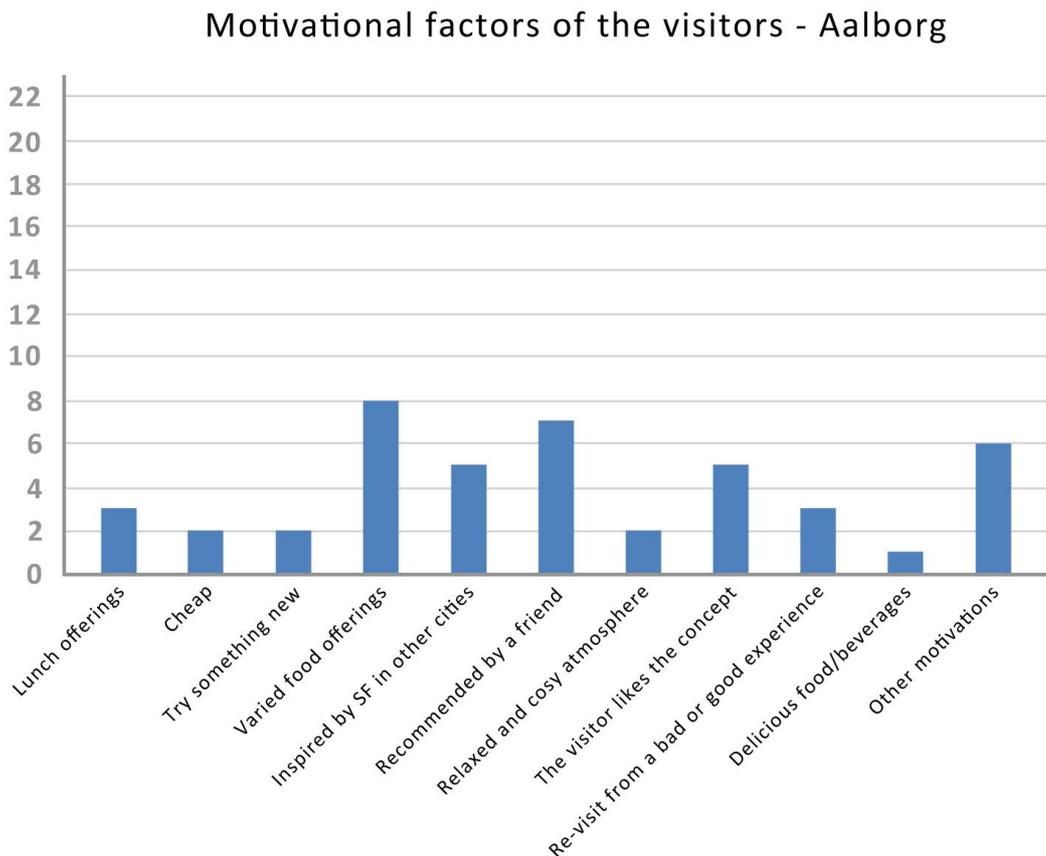


Figure 3: Motivational factors of the visitors – Aalborg

The interviewees’ motivational factors contain anything between 1-5 categories, while the sum of total motivational factors does not give a total number of 31. In the figure it is seen that; varied food offerings (8 votes), recommended by a friend (7 votes), inspired by other places (5 votes) and like the concept (5 votes) are the four factors that attract most visitors to the market. However, there are no big fluctuations as they are all very close to each other.

The distribution of the visitors’ motivation factors from ASF can be sketched as shown in Figure 4:

### Motivational factors of the visitors - Aarhus

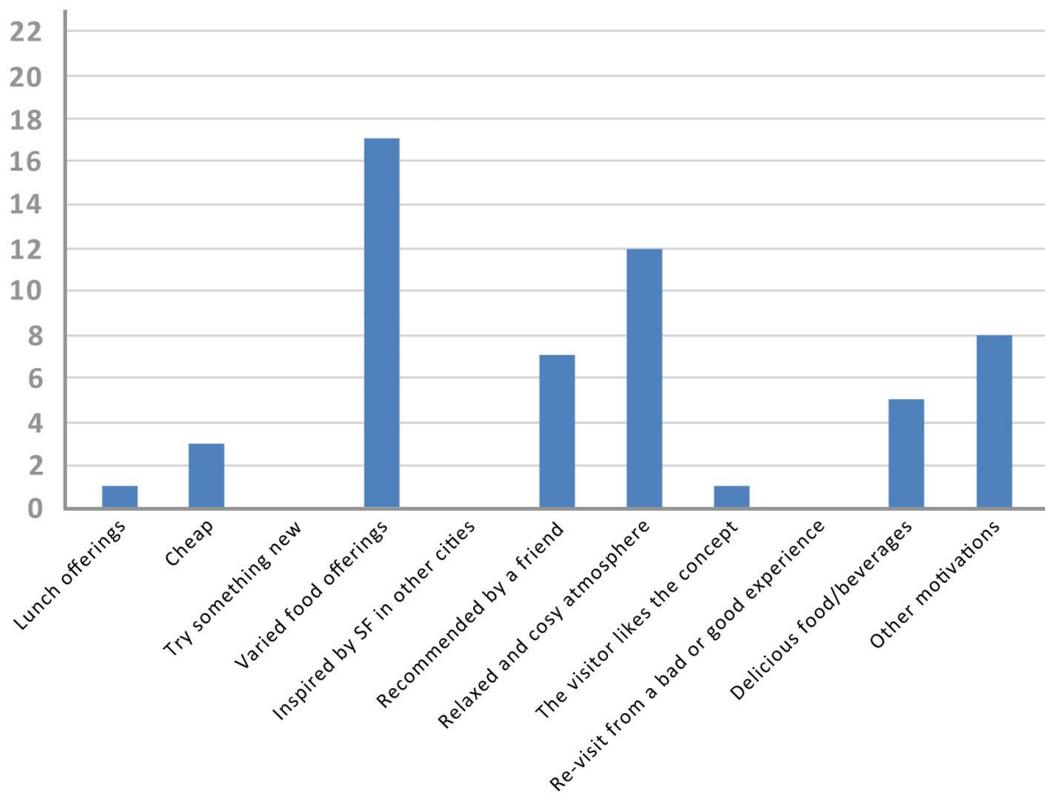


Figure 4: Motivational factors of the visitors - Aarhus

The interviewees' motivational factors contain anything between 1-5 categories, while the sum of total motivational factors does not give a total number of 29. In the figure it is seen that; varied food offerings (17 votes), relaxed and cosy environment (12 votes), recommended by a friend (7 votes) and delicious food and drinks (5 votes) are the four factors that attract most visitors to the market. Here we clearly see two winners, exactly; varied food offerings with a total of 17 votes, followed by a relaxed and cosy atmosphere with a total of 12 votes.

Among all the respondents, 42 % from AASF has visited the market before, whereas 83 % from ASF has visited the market before.

The interviewees are asked how they personally designate the word "Street Food", not necessarily associated with ASF or AASF, but completely free from all interpretations. In this project, this is referred to as the individuals' definition of Street Food. The different definitions can be divided within the following categories:

<b>Definitions of Street Food</b>
A cultural experience
Varied food offerings
Something informal and noncommittal
Cheap
Relaxed and cosy atmosphere
Quick cooking
Local food
Finger food/easy food
Foodtrucks/street kitchens
Market atmosphere
Related to fastfood
Not related to fastfood
Hotdogs
Delicious food/high quality
A social space
Multiplicity
AASF/ASF is Street Food
Other definitions

“Other definitions” include descriptions that are isolated, and therefore cannot be put in category with others. “Other definitions” can be, e.g. Street Food as an entrepreneurial idea, a gastronomic concept, happy food, etc.

The distribution of the interviewees’ definitions on the AASF can be sketched as shown in Figure 5:

### The visitors' definitions of Street Food - Aalborg

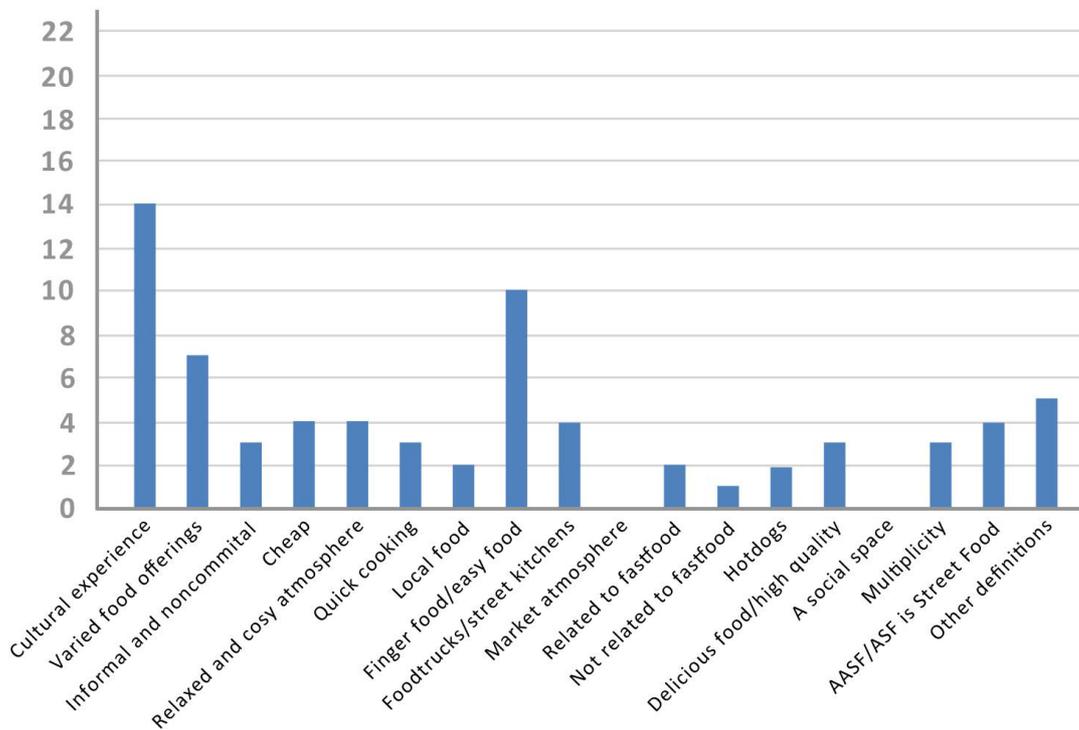


Figure 5: The visitors' definitions of Street Food - Aalborg

The interviewees' definitions of Street Food contain anything between 1-5 categories, while the sum of total definitions does not give the number of 31. As shown in the figure is; an cultural experience (14 votes), finger food and easy food (10 votes) and varied food offerings (7 votes) the three definitions, which represent the majority.

The distribution of the interviewees' definitions on ASF can be sketched as shown in Figure 6:

The visitors' definitions of Street Food - Aarhus

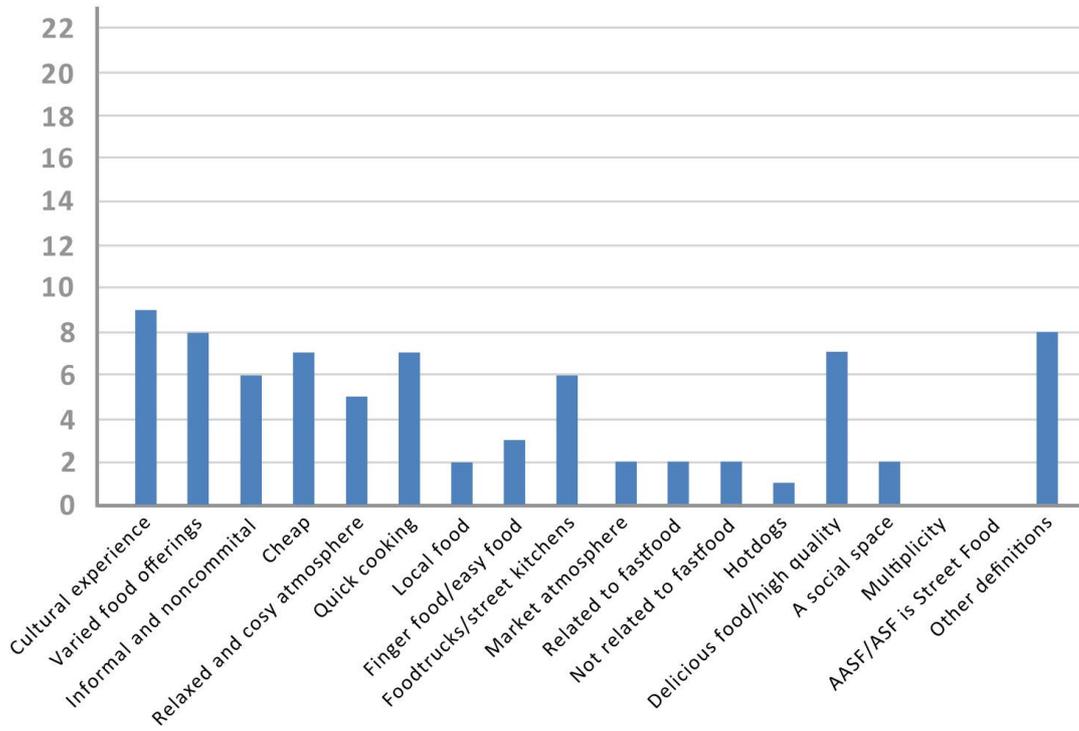


Figure 6: The visitors' definitions of Street Food - Aarhus

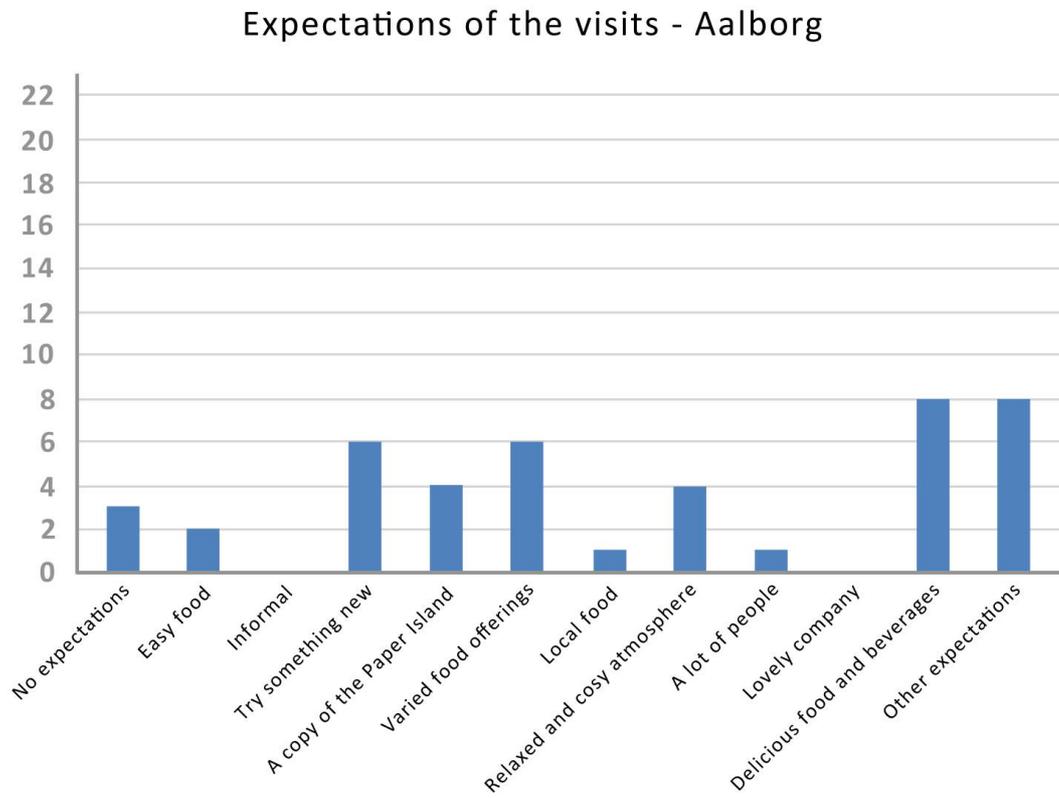
The interviewees' definitions of Street Food contain anything between 1-5 categories, while the sum of total definitions does not give the number of 29. As shown in the figure, there is a more blurred picture of a general connection, as opposed to AASF. Here is; a cultural experience (9 votes), varied food offerings (8 votes), cheap (7 votes), quick cooking (7 votes), delicious food and high quality (7 votes), the five categories that consist the highest score. Whereas; something informal and committal (6 votes), foodtrucks and street kitchens (6 votes) and relaxed and cosy atmosphere (5 votes), closely follows, with only one vote in difference.

All interviewees have been asked about their anticipated expectations for their visit. The expectations can be divided into the following categories:

<b>Expectations</b>
No expectations
Easy food
Something informal
Wanted to try something new
A copy of the Paper Island
Varied food offerings
Local food
Relaxed and cosy atmosphere
A lot of people
Lovely company
Delicious food and beverages
Other expectations

“Other expectations” include descriptions that are isolated, and therefore cannot be put in category with others. “Other expectations” can be; I expected my daughter to like it, experience Street Food in a Danish context, etc.

The distribution of the interviewees' expectations on AASF can be outlined as shown in Figure 7:



*Figure 7: Expectations of the visits, Aalborg*

The interviewees' expectations contain anything between 1-5 categories, while the sum of total expectations does not give a total number of 31. As the figure illustrates, most interviewees expect delicious food and beverages (8 votes). However, all categories are extremely close, as they only are separated by one vote.

The distribution of the interviewees' expectations on ASF can be sketched as shown in Figure 8:

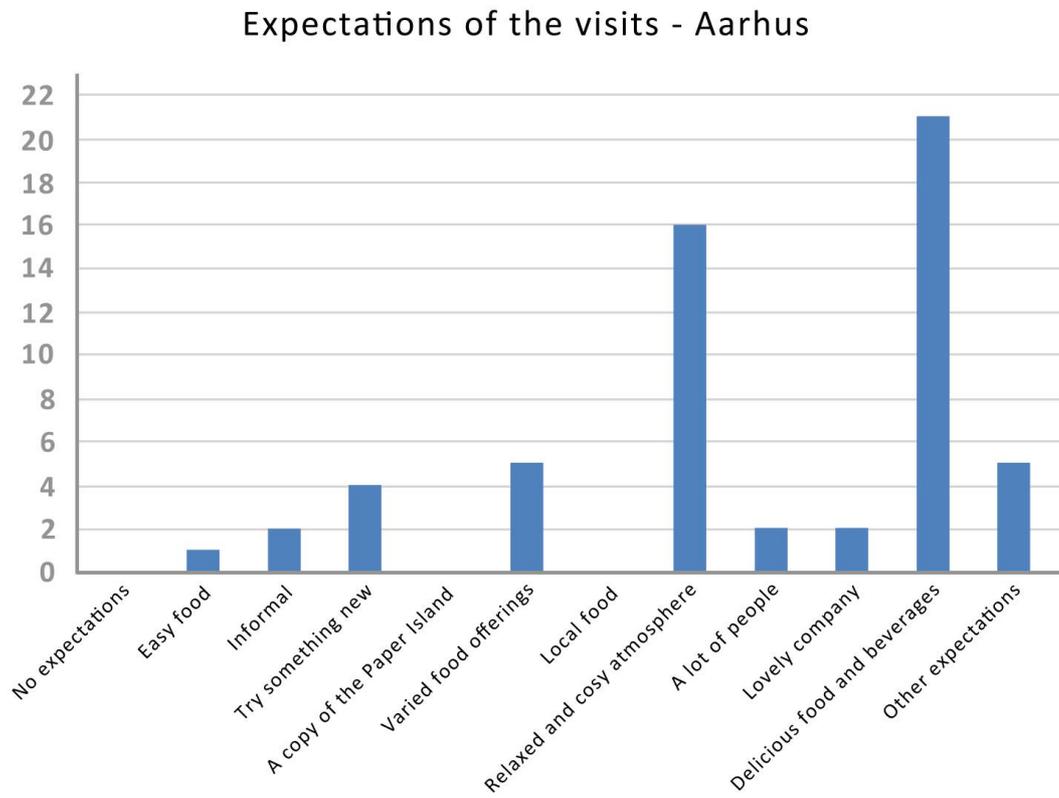


Figure 8: Expectations of the visits, Aarhus

The interviewees' expectations contain anything between 1-5 categories, while the sum of total expectations does not give a total number of 29. As shown in the figure, there is immediately a larger connection and a more mainstream expectation match on ASF, in contrast to AASF. At ASF wins; delicious food and beverages (21 votes) and relaxed and cosy atmosphere (16 votes).

At AASF, 90 % respond that their experience meets their expectations, whereas on the ASF, everyone (100 %) explain that their experience meets their expectations.

At AASF, 97 % want to re-visit AASF in the near future, and 94 % respond that they intend to recommend the market to their relatives and acquaintances. At ASF, everybody (100 %) wants to re-visit ASF, and everyone (100 %) agrees that they intend to recommend the place to their relatives and acquaintances.

In the interview process, there have been some challenges that are relevant to mention. Only guests who have been in a company of one or more persons, have been interviewed. It has not been possible to find individuals without a company. This means that the company really want to help answering the questions and would like to come with inputs and good suggestions for what the interviewee should or can answer. This challenge is solved by the fact that the researcher has basically sought to find people in pairs, and then interviewing them both. In this way, one person is able to speak at one time and give individual answers. However, this leads to the fact that the two interviewees often are inspired by each other's answers.

The other challenge concerns that most interviewees only want to participate in the interview if it is a brief interview. The interviewees often sit and eat during the interview, which often makes the researcher as a disturbing element. In addition, the interviewees are in a company of others, and wish to become a part of the company's conversations as soon as possible. This has meant that some interviewees have been reluctant in relation to more in-depth and long-term descriptions and formulations. This challenge is solved by the fact that the researcher has tried to quickly sense the mood. If it appears that the interviewees have been in a talking spirit, then we can talk back and forth for a long time, and if they are rejecting, the researcher has tried to accommodate a brief and accurate interview.

## 5.2 Expert interviews

As described in section 3.2.2, the following results have been prepared based on the project's three qualitative expert interviews (see expert interview texts in appendix 2.1 and 2.2). A matrix system has not been developed for the expert interviews, however, this analysis will attempt to organise the meaningful content of the three interviews in an easy and understandable manner.

Jens Holdgaard Christensen, Education Director at Food College Aalborg is interviewed by telephone based on Street Food's position, viewed from a national perspective. The following summarises the main features of the interview with Jens, of which data is obtained from the respective interview text.

Jens describes the current food trend in Denmark as being gastronomy and the use of local products. He does not think that Street Food is a decisive food trend, but he believes that Street Food is one big hat, which include elements such as gastronomy and local products.

He considers Street Food to be extremely popular, as Street Food is an unpretentious and unique element that appeals to many different types of people. This is because, among other things, the fact that Street Food offers heterogeneity, which consists of many different choices, in order to fit all kinds of tastes. In addition, Street Food supports the use of local products and thus supports the sustainable approach in relation to food. According to Jens, the last point of view is especially important to mention, as it denotes the definition of Street Food.

Jens believes that Street Food has become a gracious concept for the Danes, partly because the Danes have an opinion to what they put in their mouths, whose local ingredients and sustainable thinking are preferable, and partly because the Danes love “the good story” in the origin of the raw materials. Here, Jens adds with the following quote: *“We have quite good honey in Denmark. It does not have to be flown from France. It is important that we know where things come from. We know the story and we love being sustainable. Then people also pay the price, because it’s not cheap, i.e. with local produce and Street Food”* (appendix 2.1, answer 4).

Jens does not mean that tourists travel to Denmark because of Street Food, but it can help add value to people’s travel experience when they are visiting the country. According to Jens, many people travel to Denmark because Denmark is a noble gastronomic country, whereas Street Food can be a part of a gastronomic journey – but not stand alone.

Jens’ abovementioned content can be categorised as shown in the following table:

Current food trend	SF's popularity	Definition of SF	Why SF	SF as a tourist attraction
<i>Gastronomy</i>	<i>Varied food offerings</i>	<i>Varied food offerings</i>	<i>The local touch</i>	<i>People do not travel because of it</i>
<i>Local food and ingredients</i>	<i>Unpretentious</i>	<i>Unpretentious</i>	<i>The good story</i>	<i>Adds value for existing tourists</i>
	<i>Unique</i>	<i>Unique</i>	<i>Sustainability</i>	<i>Denmark as a gastronomic destination</i>
	<i>Local</i>	<i>Local</i>		
	<i>Heterogeneity</i>	<i>Heterogeneity</i>		
	<i>Sustainability</i>	<i>Sustainability</i>		

Peter Krosborg, Market Director at VisitDenmark in Norway and Sweden and Petra Hahn-Schmitz, Project Manager Leisure Tourism at VisitDenmark in Germany has answered the project's questions through written email correspondence with the purpose of Street Food's position, viewed from an international perspective. The following summarises the main features of the answers from Peter and Petra, of which data are obtained from the respective interview texts. First, Peter's answers will be presented.

Peter believes that the currently food trends in Norway and Sweden are organic products. He also tells that Street Food is not in the same way popular in Norway and Sweden, as it is in Denmark. Street Food is starting to grow in Norway and Sweden, but is still seen as being at a development stage.

Even though Street Food is not so well developed in Norway and Sweden, there is still an interest in the concept. This interest is due to a combination of the good story and the "little adventure" that the individual is invited to when making a decision about whether to taste Asia, Brazil, or something else. Therefore, Street Food obviously plays a role in relation to the knowledge and exploration of the cultural element. Peter explains that Street Food is "an experience economy for all your money, spiced with a good sense of coolness" (appendix 2.2, answer 3).

Street Food in Norway and Sweden is not a sought after tourist attraction, nor does the Norwegians and Swedes travel to Denmark because of Street Food. However, it can be a value-

added element for the already existing Norwegian and Swedish tourists in Denmark.

Peter knows about AASF and ASF, and has even tried ASF one time, but the food markets are not currently in demand in Norway and Sweden.

Peter's abovementioned content can be categorised as shown in the following table:

<b>Current food trend</b>	<b>SF's popularity</b>	<b>Why SF</b>	<b>SF as a tourist attraction</b>	<b>Knowledge of ASF/AASF</b>	<b>AASF/ASF as a tourist attraction</b>	<b>Demand for AASF/ASF</b>
<i>Organic products</i>	<i>Still under development</i>	<i>The good story</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>People do not travel because of it</i>	<i>No</i>
	<i>Clearly more seen in DK</i>	<i>Coolness</i>			<i>Adds value for existing tourists</i>	
		<i>Experience economy</i>				
		<i>Cultural knowledge</i>				

We are now proceeding with the presentation of the answers sent by Petra:

Petra believes that the current food trend in Germany is the use of organic and good raw materials, whereas especially Street Food, food to-go and vegan are the most coveted.

According to the supplementary data sent by Petra (ST in Germany, 2017), Street Food in Germany can be traced back to the 12th Century in Regensburg, where Street Food was served to the many cathedral craftsmen. Today in Germany, Street Food is more than just a bratwurst in standing. Since 2013, visitors have been able to experience "Street Food Thursday" in the Markthalle Neun in Berlin-Kreuzberg, "Street Food Sessions" in Hamburg and "Street Food Festival" in Cologne. All of the above sites serve uncomplicated Street Food with high quality in public spaces, whereas focus is on conscious enjoyment, and where communication during and about eating is the main core (ST in Germany, 2017).

Petra confirms that Street Food is very popular in Germany, and she believes that it is due to the fact that the food is cooked in new ways so that the exotic element can be admired and grown. In addition, Street Food is often food that is cooked relatively quickly and with relatively high quality, which falls in good soil with the Germans. Conversely, Petra does not know why Street Food has

become that popular in Germany during the recent times.

Petra explains that Street Food is not an attractive tourist attraction in Germany, which also means that there is no international marketing concerning Street Food. Petra, on the other hand, has heard about both AASF and ASF before, but she does not think that the Germans travel to Denmark because of the two food markets, instead they can help create added value for the already existing German tourists in Denmark. Petra adds that VisitDenmark in Germany currently markets Torvehallerne<sup>4</sup> in Copenhagen, as this helps to sell Denmark as a country that is trendy and at the same time has gastronomic awareness.

Petra's abovementioned content can be categorised as shown in the following table:

<b>Current food trend</b>	<b>SF's popularity</b>	<b>Why SF</b>	<b>SF as a tourist attraction</b>	<b>Knowledge of ASF/AASF</b>	<b>AASF/ASF as a tourist attraction</b>	<b>Demand for AASF/ASF</b>
<i>Organic products</i>	<i>Quick cooking</i>	<i>No idea</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>People do not travel because of it</i>	<i>No</i>
<i>Good ingredients</i>	<i>Good quality</i>				<i>Adds value for existing tourists</i>	
<i>To-go</i>	<i>New methods</i>				<i>Markets Street Food in CPH</i>	
<i>Vegan food</i>	<i>Exotic</i>				<i>DK as being gastronomic and trendy</i>	
<i>Street Food</i>						

In the interview process, there have been some challenges that are relevant to mention. As suggested earlier, it has been difficult for the researcher to obtain the opinions of the experts requested. Despite repeated telephone calls and email correspondence, it has unfortunately not been possible to have an interview or receive replies sent by email from VisitDenmark in Copenhagen, Claus Meyer, Coop Denmark or VisitDenmark in the Netherlands. When that is said, the captured data from the three above interviews is sufficient enough and can, in combination

<sup>4</sup> Torvehallerne in Copenhagen is considered by someone to be a Street Food market and by others as being a commodity market. Torvehallerne denotes itself as a marketplace, who sells delicious and fresh products as well as tasty meals from many different food cultures. Torvehallerne were re-established in 2011 (Torvehallerne, 2017).

with the consumer interviews prepared, form the basis for answering this thesis' problem formulation. This will be further explained in the following discussion of the project.

## 6.0 Discussion

As mentioned earlier in this project, food experiences have been incorporated as a central part of the Danish tourism strategy, and the search for food experiences has become a primary player for both foreign tourists, but also for Danish tourists. The work of motivation factors contributes to creating an understanding of the tourist's behavior and thus forming a better understanding of the overall visitor's experience.

This discussion section, based on the above analysis results and the theoretical approach of the project, will discuss the overall visitors' motivational factors for ASF and AASF, as well as revealing coherent patterns that can lead to overall definitions of the visitor experiences. These two components put together will ultimately culminate in a general discussion of Street Food in a Danish context. Herewith summarised this project's problem formulation:

*What motivates selected visitors to visit Aalborg- and Aarhus Street Food Market?*

*How can the experiences of the selected visitors be defined?*

*- What do the visitors expect, and do they achieve their expectations?*

*- What role does the proximity to the local aspect play in relation to the visitors' experiences?*

*What is Street Food in a Danish context, exemplified by Aalborg- and Aarhus Street Food Market?*

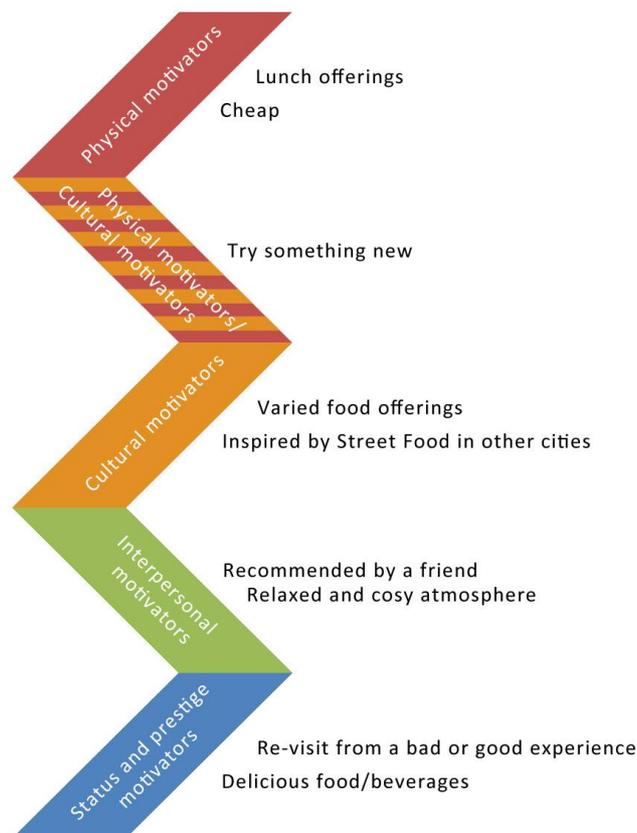
### 6.1 Motivation

Motivation is a collective term that covers why people act as they do, in what ways, with what intensity and with what consequences. As mentioned before; motivation can form a better understanding of the visitors overall experiences, while looking at inner motivation, it is possible to determine the tourist behavior.

As identified in the above analysis section, the motivation factors of the visitors can be schematised under the following headings, i.e. Lunch offerings, Cheap, Try something new, Varied food offerings, Inspired by Street Food in other cities, Recommended by a friend, Relaxed and cosy

atmosphere, The visitor likes the concept, Re-visit from a bad or good experience and Delicious food/beverages.

Based on McIntosh et al.'s (1995) four categories of motivation (i.e. Physical motivators (red), Cultural motivators (orange), Interpersonal motivators (green), Status and prestige motivators (blue)) the 10 above motivation factors can be divided under the four categories, as shown in the following Figure:



*Figure 9: The different motivational factors divided into the four motivation categories.*

In addition to the structure of the figures in the project's analysis section, the distribution of the motivation factors from AASF and ASF can be visualised in the same way by using the following graphs:

### Four categories of motivation - Aalborg

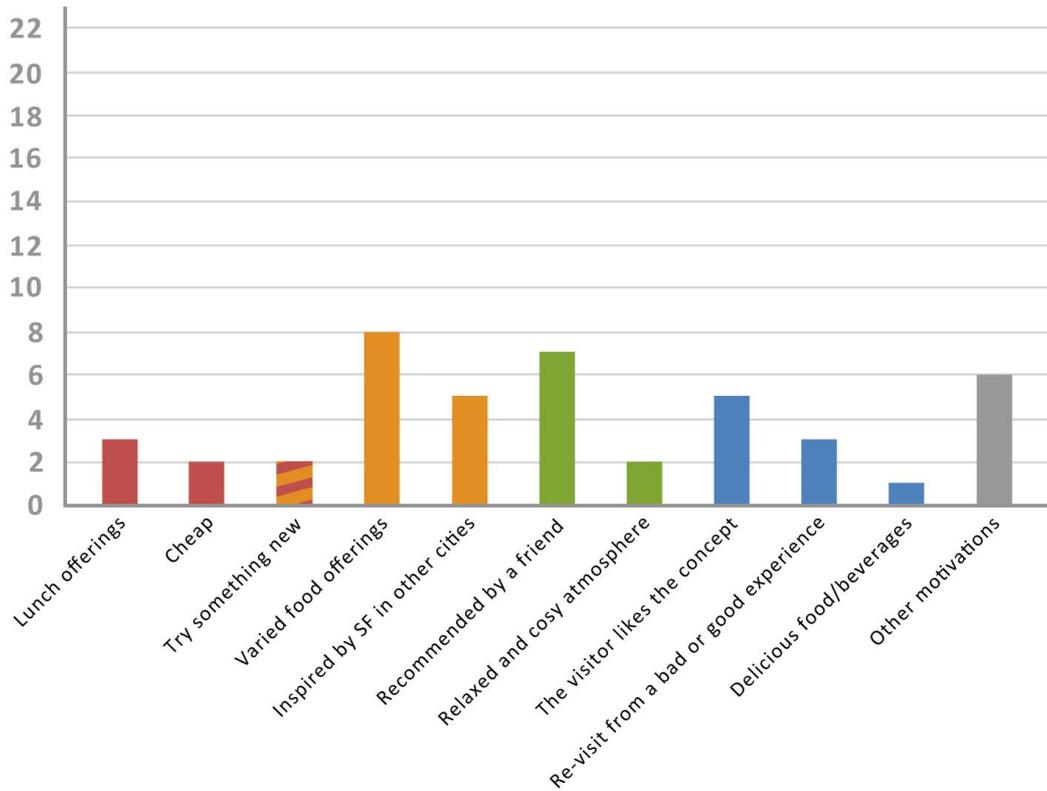
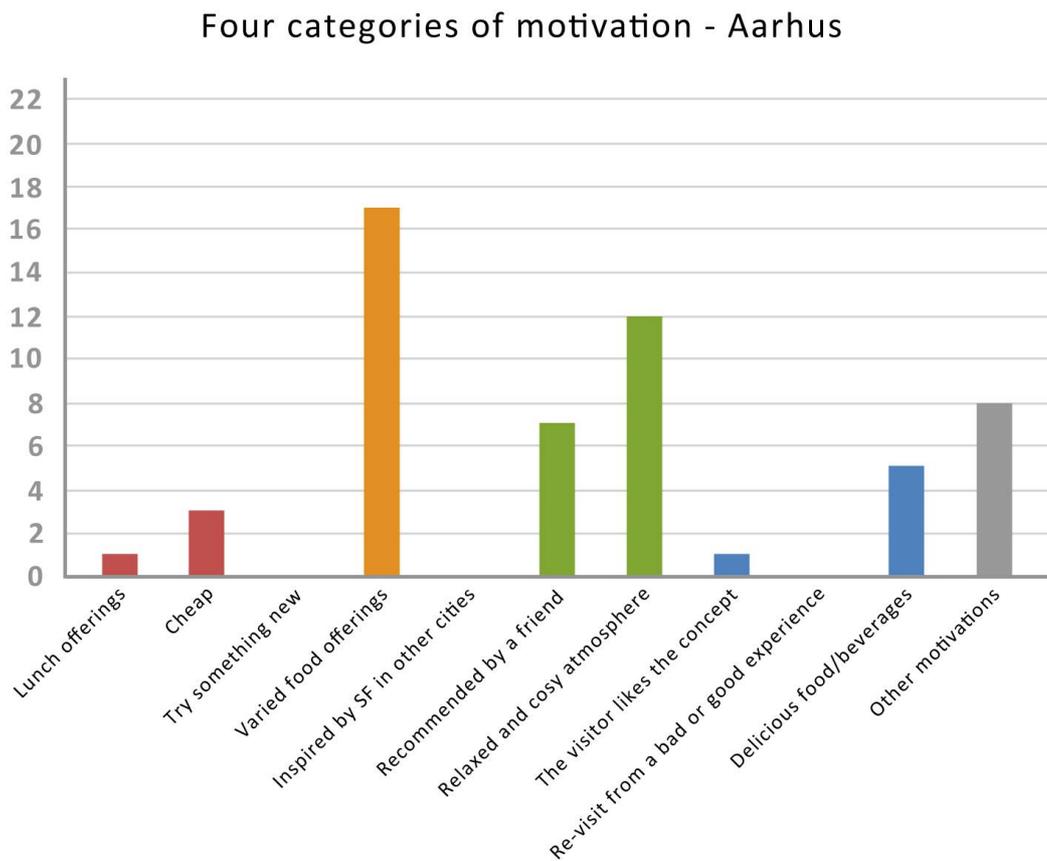


Figure 10: The 10 motivational factors at AASF identified through McIntosh et al.'s (1995) four categories of motivation.



*Figure 11: The 10 motivational factors at ASF identified through McIntosh et al.'s (1995) four categories of motivation.*

In Figures 10 and 11, we see the 10 motivational factors divided into McIntosh et al.'s (1995) four motivation categories. Several factors can be identified under the same category, so to create an even more coherent overview of the overall distribution between the four motivation categories, these percentage graphs can be established for AASF and ASF:

Percentage of the four motivation categories on AASF

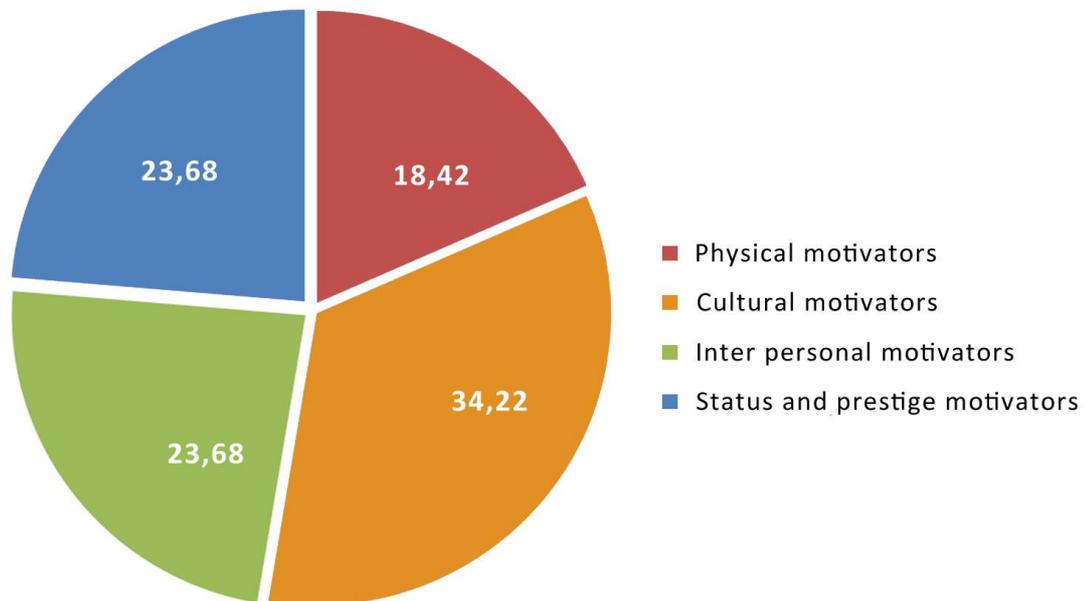


Figure 12: Percentage of the four motivation categories on AASF

Percentage of the four motivation categories on ASF

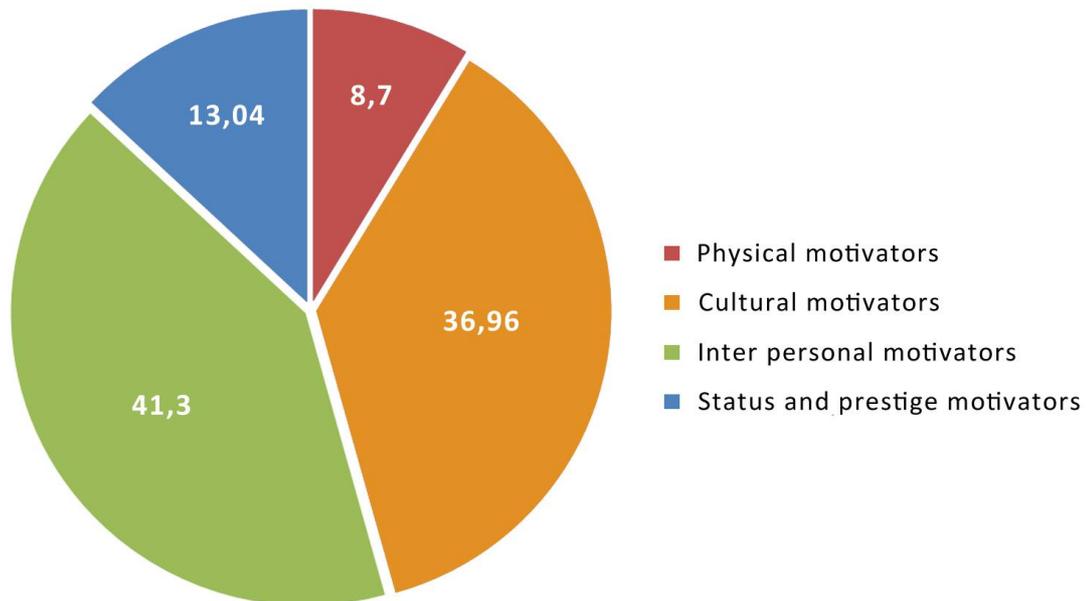


Figure 13: Percentage of the four motivation categories on ASF

If we first look at the pattern from AASF, we see some high cultural motivators of a total of 34.22 %. The interpersonal motivators as well as the status and prestige motivators are on the same level of a total of 23.68 %, and finally we find the physical motivators with a total on 18.42 %. The cultural motivators contain the primary motivation for the visitors of the AASF. The cultural motivators arise when experiencing new local cuisines, and thereby experiencing a new culture. Cultural motivators invite the visitors to learn about, and experiencing, cultures of societies, which are different than their own.

The interpersonal and the status and prestige motivators are, as mentioned before, on the same level. This differs significantly from the pattern we see in Aarhus, where the interpersonal motivators contain the absolute largest percentage. The interpersonal motivators refer to “togetherness”, where the individual experience is shared in interaction with others. The interaction between the individual and, e.g. the other visitors creates new social relationships,

and/or strengthens already established social ties. There can be several reasons why the interpersonal motivators are not as big in Aalborg as it is in Aarhus. It can be because of the fact that AASF is a relatively new market and is not located in the centre of the city. This means that in October (where the surveys have been prepared) there are not the same amount of people as we experience in Aarhus, and maybe therefore, people do not come to achieve interpersonal dynamics, but instead to taste different, local and cultural food, as the cultural motivators also indicate.

Generally, the categories are more evenly distributed at AASF, in opposite to ASF. Here again, it can play a factor that AASF is a relatively new market, which means that the communicated values and the purpose of the market itself have not yet become firm in the visitors' awareness. This results in the motivation factors and the anticipated expectations of the visitors being more broad, thus creating a more blurred overall picture. Having said that, however, it should also be said that, of course, the interpersonal motivators also play a central role at AASF, as none of the respondents visited the place alone.

Status and prestige motivators are also higher on AASF than what we see at ASF. This can be due to the same parameters as described above, namely that the AASF is a new market, and thus there is a certain news factor and sensational importance over the site. New dining places are often hot and coveted, and thereby creating prestige if you visit the place as one of the first.

Finally, we have the physical motivators that cover basic physical needs, such as eating because you are hungry. The physical motivators also cover elements that you do not experience in your daily life, e.g. exploring new aromas and tastes. The physical motivators are the smallest part of both AASF and ASF, which means that we can conclude that people primarily do not visit the two respective Street Food markets to meet basic physical needs. In this case it is very suitable in line with the overall topic of the project; because if Street Food is not about covering completely basic physical needs, such as making sure the guests are saturated, people might visit the place for quite a few reasons, maybe to have a food experience? We will look more into this hypothesis in the next section.



*Figure 14: "Togetherness" between two friends and two glasses of wine at AASF.*

Let us end with the motivational pattern from ASF, where the cultural motivators (36.96 %) and the interpersonal motivators (41.3 %) are the two main primary motivational categories. ASF is located in the centre of Aarhus, very close to the railway station, and actually the food market reminds as well of a kind of railway station. There is a lot of life and a lot of people, in and out all the time, at all times of the day/evening. There is no doubt that if people do not like crisscrossing "togetherness", ASF is not a place to come. If you do not like to "mingle" with other people and sit close, across other people's meals, then ASF is not a place you will like. At the same level as the AASF, the researcher did not succeed in finding one person who, on the investigative days, visited ASF alone. So the interpersonal motivators are definitely an important motivation category for this place.

Correspondingly symbolised by AASF; the cultural motivators play a major role at ASF. The taste of local produce, mixed with cultural experiences, is a big hit, and thus one of the decisive motivators for the visitors. The significance of both the cultural motivators and the interpersonal motivators will be discussed further in the next section, where we also will discuss the proximity aspect.

The physical (8.7 %) as well as the status and prestige motivators (13.04 %) are the two absolute lowest percentages at ASF. As opposite to AASF, ASF has a clear distinction between cultural and interpersonal motivators, on the one hand, and physical and status and prestige motivators on the

other hand. In this context, this is generally the picture, as we see, when we put the two food markets against each other, namely, that there exists a much larger reconciled expectation at ASF rather than at AASF. Almost all interviewees use the same descriptive sentences about ASF, as if they had been schooled, while AASF offers a much more nuanced and blurred picture that requires some more interpretation and handling in order to place the answers under the selected 10 motivational factors.



*Figure 15: Crisscrossing "togetherness" across the long tables at ASF.*

## 6.2 Consumer behavior in food experiences

As recent studies of tourism motivation have shown; the relationship between individual motivations and the decision to visit a particular place, is extremely complex. For the same reason, motivational drivers and consumer experiences often flow together, whereas the result of "eating out" often becomes a search for a definite experience, rather than just some motivational factors. This section will, among other things, look into the expectations and the fulfilment of the visitors, as well as the before mentioned proximity aspect. These two elements, combined with the knowledge we already have from the motivational factors of the visitors, will together form some

general definitions of the visitors' overall food experiences.

As stated in the project's analysis section, the individual expectations from AASF are again distributed over a wide range of different features, which means that we do not perceive one big winner. However, if we try to link the individual expectations with McIntosh et al.'s (1995) four categories of motivation, it changes a bit. Here, the cultural motivators are seen as the overwhelming category, and thus the underlying ground for people's preconceived expectations. In Figure 16, the visitors' expectations can be divided into the following motivation categories (Physical motivators (red), Cultural motivators (orange), Interpersonal motivators (green) and Status and prestige motivators (blue)):

Four categories of motivation based on the expectations - Aalborg

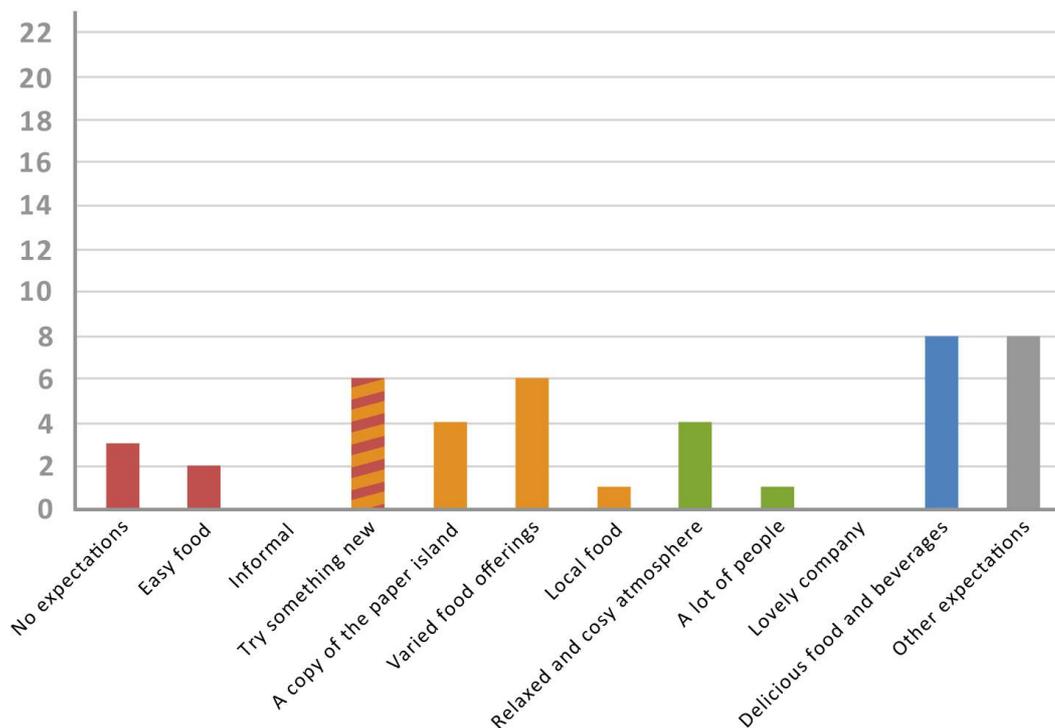


Figure 16: The visitors' expectations at AASF divided into the four categories of motivation.

In order to simplify the visual expression of the above distribution, the categories can instead be collected in the following percentage graph:

Percentage of motivation categories based on the visitors' expectations at AASF

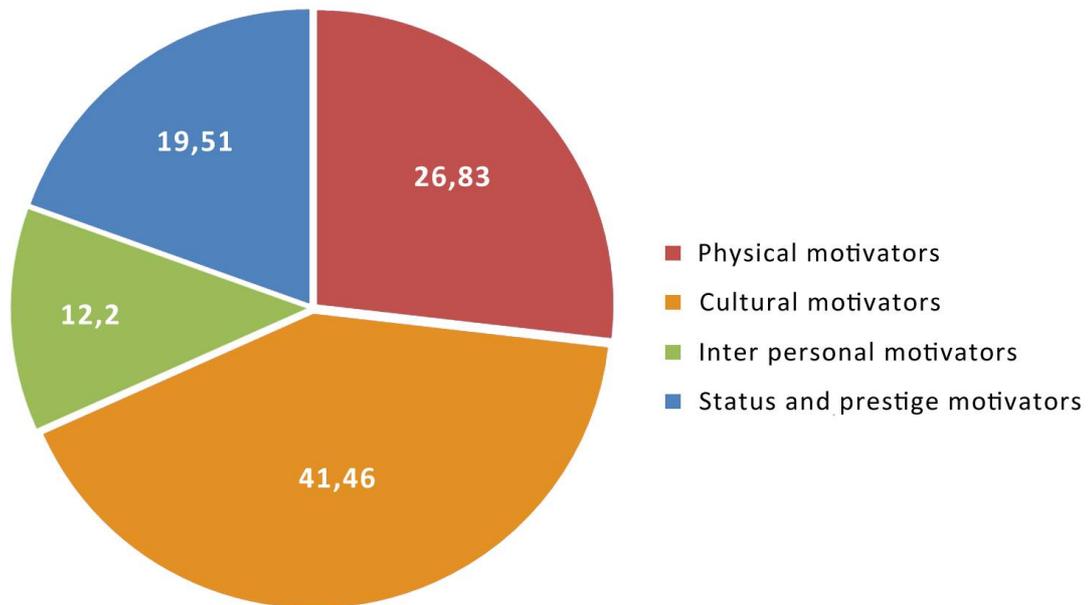


Figure 17: Percentage of motivation categories based on the visitors' expectations at AASF.

The above distribution corresponds very well with what the thesis discusses in section 5.1 about the visitors' main motivational factors; namely that people are primarily motivated to visit AASF due to the cultural motivators. When we look at the visitors' anticipated expectations for their visit, it is again the same pattern we find, namely that the cultural motivators are overwhelming. As a small contrast to the previous picture, we see that the physical motivators have risen slightly. This is because most visitors expect, to some extent, to be full after enjoying their meal and visiting the food market, and this supports the fact that the physical motivators are important to a certain extent. The physical motivator is therefore not the main motivational factor for the guests, but nevertheless plays a role when we look at the people's expectations. Basically, fewer guests would go out to eat if they were expecting not to get full.

The increasing physical motivators can also be attributed to the fact that the AASF is a relatively

new food market, and thereby the expectations of the visitors are very low, and they expect to “just” get saturated. When you are presented for a new concept, it can be difficult to know in advance your anticipated expectations for the place. Likewise, new and trendy places do not always generate a very high expectations of the visitors, both because you do not want to be locked in your mind, but also because it is difficult to know in advance what to expect of a new concept. Clear predefined expectations are not necessarily equal with a sure satisfaction guarantee for the product/experience. In connection with the expectations graphs, it is relevant to mention that only 13 out of the total of 31 respondents at AASF have visited the market before, whereas 24 out of a total of 30 respondents have visited ASF before. This is also reflected in the generally picture for ASF, where the overall expectation pattern is much more consistently divided into the same classifications. It is easier to have a clear expectation for a product/experience if you have visited the place before, and thus know about what you can expect.

As an integral part of the interview process, every consumer has been asked about their individual satisfaction assessment of their visit, i.e. whether their expectations lived up to the actual experience. Here, 90 % of the respondents at AASF answer that they are satisfied with the experience. The above taken into account, it can be concluded that there is no “gap” between the expectations of the visitors and the fulfilment thereof.

If we look at the visitors’ expectations from ASF, then the four motivation categories can be divided as shown in the following figure:

### Four categories of motivation based on the expectations - Aarhus

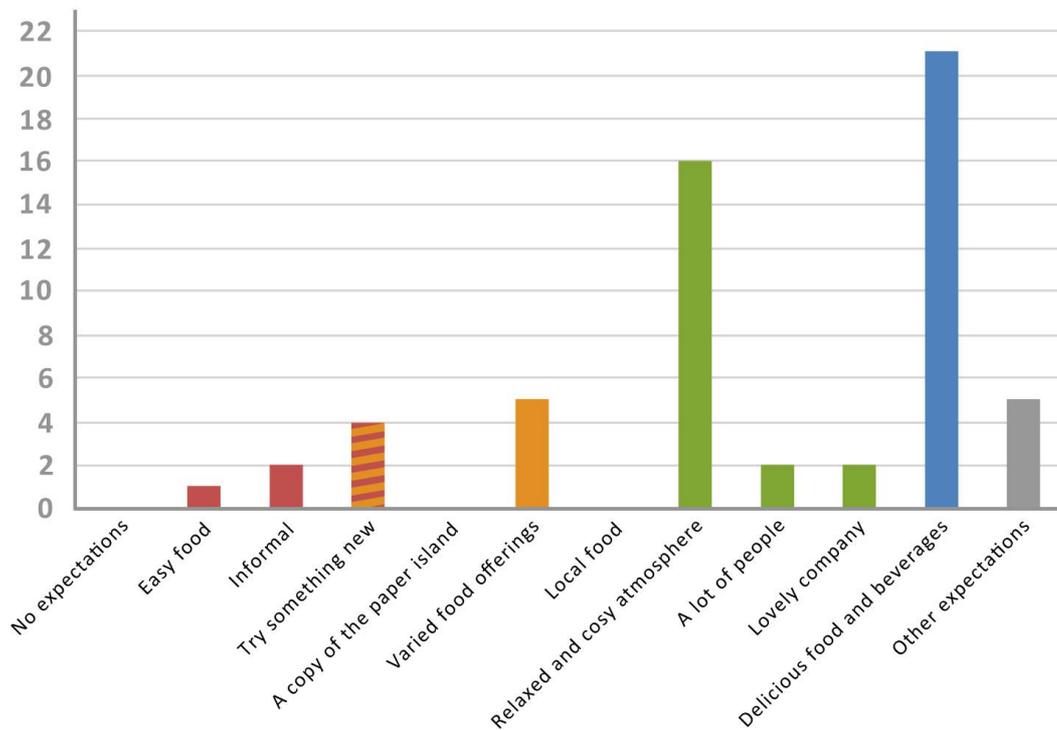


Figure 18: The visitors' expectations at ASF divided into the four categories of motivation.

Here we see a more mainstream pattern of the individual expectations, namely the expectation of “Delicious food and beverages” with a total of 21 votes, followed by the expectation of “Relaxed and cosy atmosphere” with a total of 16 votes. The following percentage graph summarise the distribution of the four motivation categories in a more clear picture:

Percentage of motivation categories based on the visitors' expectations at ASF

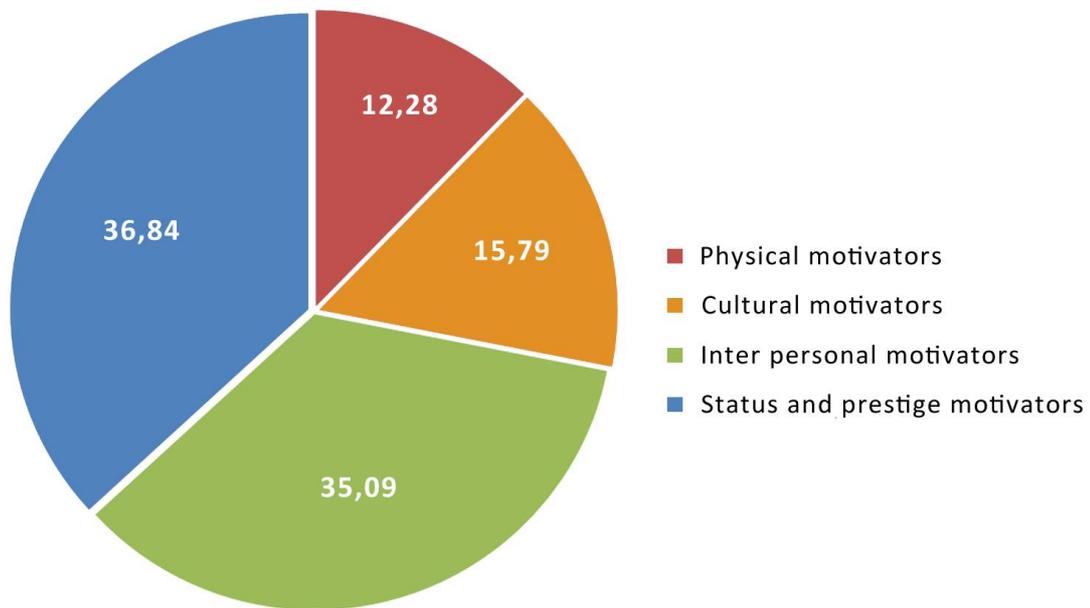


Figure 19: The visitors' expectations at ASF divided into the four categories of motivation.

Here is a change in what we have seen before, namely, that the cultural motivators have fallen, while at the same time the status and prestige motivators have risen considerably. Interpersonal motivators still play an important role, both as the primary motivational factor, but now also as part of people's anticipated expectations.

The reason for the declining cultural motivators and the rising status and prestige motivators can be hard to reveal. Looking at the answers of the individual visitors, there is a sudden demand for the quality of the food and, not at least, the quality of the beverages. Unlike AASF, a lot of the visitors of ASF visit the market because of the drinks, while some special variants can be purchased, which are also served in an elegant way, especially in a fashionable and "correct" glass. ASF features a special beer bar, a special wine bar, a juice bar, a cocktail bar, a coffee shop, an outdoor bar and a main bar, which serves the most typically drinks. Many visitors say that they

have high expectations for the drinks and, not at least, the appearance of them. This causes status and prestige motivators to rise in combination with people's anticipated expectations, but do not play an impact of people's primary motivation.

In the same way as we see for AASF, the visitors of ASF have been asked about an individual satisfaction assessment, of which a total of 100 % is represented, which means that likewise there is no "gap" between the expectations and the fulfilment thereof .

Although small deviations from the pattern of the primary motivation to the pattern of the expectations of the visitors, there is still a clear picture of the influence of the cultural motivators and the interpersonal motivators for both food markets. Both motivators play an important role when we look at the often-mentioned proximity aspect.

The cultural motivators contain gaining knowledge of new cultures and new societies, e.g. by being presented with different and local food. The fact that one tries to taste local food creates proximity to the underlying local environment, and not at least, the dedicated cultural person behind the product (the producer). The above components are also meaningful to what previous studies have paralleled as the search for authenticity. Not at least, the power has shifted, and the slightly indefinable authenticity has now been replaced with the search for the local, and thus what this thesis refers to as proximity to the local. Local food offers an improved visitor experience that connect the consumer with people and places involved in the food production. By telling the "story" of food production, it is possible to accommodate the tourist's desire for "authenticity" in a whole new kind of directions, where the tourists are involved as co-producers for their own experiences. This is where the interpersonal motivators also play a significant position. Local food products can offer a way to achieve a more authentic sense of self and a more satisfying form of engagement with the people and places around them. This is because local products tell a story and a meaning that can be related to a place and e.g. another culture. This meaning is particularly important for tourists, because the search for the before mentioned experiential experience also can be interpreted as a search after a form of a meaning.



*Figure 20: Italian mother and son who serve real Italian pizza for the many visitors at ASF.*

The proximity to the local coincides with the overall definition of the visitor experiences, especially because the great presence of both the interpersonal motivators and the cultural motivators contains elements that confirm the co-creation between the producer and the consumer. Tourists' desire to learn about a different culture can be realised by experiencing local food. When we look at the sensory appeal, consumption of local food can enrich tourist experiences by reinforcing a sense of unique regional identity and place. Likewise, interpersonal relations include social interaction with other people, whereas local food invites the tourists to meet local people who have a similar interest in local foods.

As shown by the above consumer studies, visitors want to be involved in cultural activities as a constituent of the menu. And when this is met – which we must assume it is, due to the fact that the satisfaction assessment is as high as it is – guests automatically become a co-producer of their own experience, which creates value for the customer. Visitors do not only acquire knowledge of different and new traditions, but they also become an integral part of their own experience, thus creating an experiential value where guests buy not only a particular product, but the experiences and the meanings behind the product.

We have before briefly discussed the relationship between peak experiences versus supporting experiences and there is no doubt that visitors to AASF and ASF, respectively, see their visit as a peak experience. This is also confirmed by the relatively small interfaces of the physical motivators, where virtually no visitor visits the food market due to basic physical needs, such as getting satiated. When the physical motivators are represented to such a relatively small degree, we witness that we are dealing with a desirable food experience. Food experiences are often a mix of different experiences at a cross sectional basis, and there is no doubt that it also applies to the two food markets. This thesis' consumer studies has shown a cohabitation of "togetherness" between close relationships, other visitors and the producers (interpersonal aspect), as well as a quest to be involved in various cultural activities inviting new knowledge about other cultures (cultural aspect). This makes it possible to argue that we are dealing with the so-called extraordinary experience where eating and drinking becomes a three-dimensional experience that allows the visitor to connect with the place, the culture, the people – or said in other words; the atmosphere. When we are dealing with extraordinary experiences, the demand for e.g. prices, becomes smaller, as this thesis analysis also confirms. Three interviewees from ASF and two interviewees from AASF mention the prices as being a decisive motivation for their visit. That is what corresponds to a total of 8.3 % out of a total of 60 interviews. This means that people's tolerance is greater when it comes to purchasing experiences.

To sum up; the Street Food-concept provide a cultural and present experience, where the interpersonal relation is an important aspect. The food markets involve the customer in a co-creation process of their own experience, where they obtain proximity to the local, both meant in connection with the local food and the local producer. The co-creative process is essential for creating the coveted undefined "atmosphere" that is especially created in conjunction with the local and the different "everyday life" that the local can offer the individual costumer.



*Figure 21: African producer in the African kitchen at AASF.*

### 6.3 Street Food in a Danish context

This section will discuss the meaning of Street Food in a Danish context, based on the project's consumer interviews and expert interviews. In the above section we discussed the visitors primarily motivational factors as being cultural and interpersonal, which of course also plays a role in relation to the overall understanding of Street Food. This acquired knowledge will be incorporated in the following, where we will also look into the consumers' individual definitions of the Street Food concept, thus attempting to create some overall patterns that can lead us to an answer to this project's problem formulation question three regarding.

In the above analysis section, two graphs of the visitor's individual definitions of Street Food was prepared. Looking at the answers, the AASF shows for the first time a more uniform image than what we see at ASF. At AASF, there are three definitions, which are particularly important: i.e. "Cultural experience", "Varied food offerings" and "Finger food/easy food". Looking at ASF, we see immediately a more nuanced image, where the definitions are spread over a wide variety of different elements. We still see that "Cultural experiences" and "Varied food offerings" are among the highest, however, "Finger food/easy food" is not as significant as stated at AASF. Instead, we

see that “Quick Cooking” weighs relatively high, which can be put into the same category as the easy food-classification. Despite the fact that we previously have talked about the low expectations of the price tag, the visitors to ASF connect the definition of Street Food with cheap food, especially when they think of a general definition of Street Food. In continuation thereof, it should be said that the visitors have been asked about what they connect with the word “Street Food”, not necessarily in combination with their individual visit at one of the two food markets, but more in a general kind. So, even though some interviewees say that Street Food is based on a relatively cheap price tag, it is not necessarily crucial for their visit to ASF or AASF, nor part of their anticipated expectations or their primary motivation.

Some of the visitors to ASF also connect Street Food with the previously treated interpersonal element. Many of the respondents associate Street Food with something that is “Informal and noncommittal” and “Relaxed and cosy atmosphere”, so here the atmosphere is again identified as being an important element in the overall understanding of Street Food. Neither ASF nor AASF has many interviewees, which in their own words designate Street Food as being identified with “Local food”, but it is one of the included elements that they appreciate during the “Cultural Experience”. When people answer “Local food”, it primarily accommodates to Danish local produce, e.g. to exploit the surrounding Danish local producers, e.g. to supply ice cream from the ice cream producers Hansens Is or Ryå Is, in order to support the local environment. Finally, we notice that the respondents for ASF describe “Delicious food/high quality” as an essential component for Street Food, which means that people have an expectation that Street Food offers high quality and a great taste experience.

The above diverse descriptions confirm that the Street Food concept opens up many different interpretations and views, especially when we look at the overall image from ASF. One thing is certain; Street Food is much more than just food.

In attempting to identify the Danish Street Food concept, we can collect the answers from AASF and ASF under the same graph, in order to create an overall pattern:

### The consumer definition of Street Food

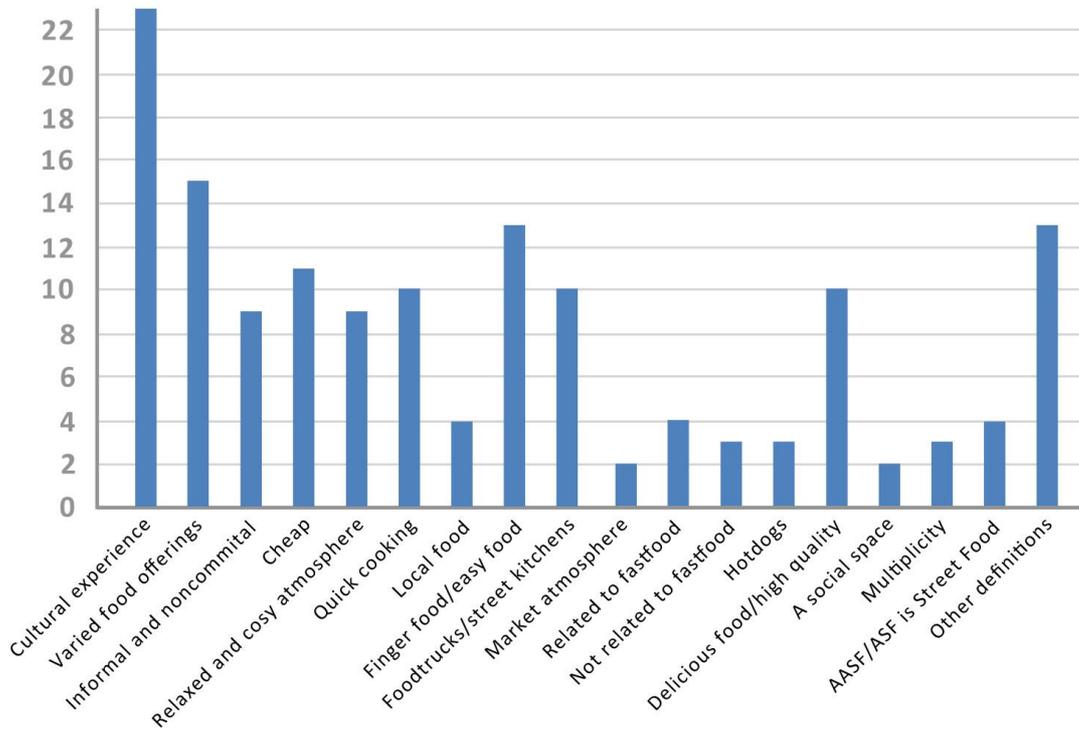


Figure 22: The consumer definition of Street Food

When we gather the answers from the two food markets, we now see a more clearly picture, namely Street Food as being a cultural experience. 23 people out of a total of 60 respondents, describe in their own words Street Food as being a cultural experience. The categories “Varied food offerings”, “Local food”, “Foodtrucks/street kitchens”, and “Multiplicity” can also be argued to belong the cultural aspect, which means that when we count the total of 148 different descriptions of Street Food, we end up with a total of 37.16 %, of which Street Food is categorised as being something cultural.



*Figure 23: A taste of India on AASF.*

Let us look at how this thesis' experts identify Street Food, and hereafter comparing the two views.

Jens Holdgaard Christensen, Education Director at Food College Aalborg is interviewed with a focus on Street Food based on a national view. He defines Street Food as being a concept that offers a wide variety of food and likewise something that is unpretentious and unique. In addition, he emphasises the local element, both in terms of supporting the Danish surrounding local environment, but also as being involved in other cultures' local dishes and ingredients. Finally, he defines Street Food as something that is diverse and sustainable.

If we look at Peter Krosborg, Market Director at VisitDenmark in Norway and Sweden and Petra Hahn-Schmitz, Project Manager Leisure Tourism at VisitDenmark in Germany, both of which are interviewed with a focus on Street Food based on an international view. Peter believes that Street Food wins forward because it invites the visitors into a good story, where the individual visitor is invited into the cultural knowledge behind the court served. This gives the visitor much more value than just getting their hunger satisfied. By opening up to the underlying cultural knowledge, the visitor is involved and co-creators of their own food experience, which is sought after by many people.

Petra supports Peter's statements, and adds that the cultural and exotic element is crucial to Street Foods popularity, as it invites the visitor to see food get handled by new methods and in a different angle. In addition, she believes that the good quality of food combined with quick cooking is a good combination for a successful concept.

If we keep the opinions of the three above experts in comparison to the thesis' consumer opinions, there is no doubt that the cultural element is essential for identifying Street Food's overall definition in Denmark. The good story combined with the local touch attracts guests and hits the current food trend, which according to my three experts is the combination of organic products and local food and ingredients.



*Figure 24: Various local products create a Danish chicken sandwich in the Danish kitchen at AASF.*

The above testifies that the cultural touch (motivators, knowledge, history, experience, etc.) are crucial for the identification of Street Food in a Danish context. But what exactly is a cultural experience? We have worked with that question throughout the entire thesis, so here the overall explanation will be summarised.

In general, a cultural experience in the context of tourism includes gaining knowledge (e.g. learning about history, understanding different countries) and authenticity (e.g. new and unique experience of travelling) (Crompton & McKay, 1997; McIntosh et al., 1995; Kim & Eves, 2012).

Cultural motivators confirm the desire to experience different cultures, appreciate the artefacts of previous cultures and learn history about new and other cultures. Cultural experiences testify the diversity that can be found in the tourism fields, and opens up an exploratory behavior. This curiosity is associated with a need, a thirst or a desire for knowledge and new cultural experiences, and mentioned that travel can be seen as a tool in satisfying a desire to gain knowledge and expand intellectual enrichment (Crompton & McKay, 1997; Kim & Eves, 2012). By experiencing local food and beverages it opens up to a cultural process where the food signifies cultural meaning to those who consume it (Kim & Eves, 2012).

There is no doubt that Street Food in Denmark is something different of what Street Food is and was in its original sense. Maybe Street Food is different from country to country, unless, this thesis has been highlighting what Street Food is in a Danish context.

Now, the question is whether Street Food remains a Danish food trend, which is loved by the people, or if it is a 24-hour mayfly, of which we have replaced the Street Food concept with a new great concept in five years. However, one thing is for sure, namely that the sustainable thinking of using the resources and products found in the local environment is a mind-set that has come to stay.

Another thing worth mentioning in this big global marketplace, as we all are a part of, namely the McDonaldisation aspect. As described earlier in this thesis' introduction, tourism's role of globalisation is the potential for cultural homogenisation. ASF and AASF challenge the same issues. Both food markets capture different local and regional identities and create an Indian, an African, and a Vietnamese experience in the middle of Denmark, and people love it and also love the feeling of being a part of a cultural experience. But is it then making something "local" to something "global". So, McDonaldisation is accepted to some extent? What is the limit? And should we put our foot down and say that Denmark cannot offer all four corners of the world under the same roof? And if that really is the case and the same is true in other countries, then Street Food cannot be a local and authentic experience, or can it?

## 7.0 Conclusion

Based on a social constructivist approach, this thesis discusses Street Food's role in a Danish context, with particular reference to the general consumer perspective of respectively AASF and ASF. Using a very practical approach to the entire thesis' problem formulation, primarily comprised of qualitative consumer and expert interviews, this thesis has generally analysed and discussed motivational factors, the consumer experiences and the Street Food concept in a Danish context.

As before mentioned in this thesis' introduction; tourists today ask for experiences, where they can *feel* and *experience* the real goods on their own body. These experiences contain both elements that include sounds, smells and tastes, and thereby can be identified as extraordinary experiences. Generally, food experiences have become increasingly trendy, and the same applies to Denmark. This is supported by the fact that 77 % of the foreign tourists choose Denmark as travel destination because of different offered food experiences.

Food has become the biggest motivator for consumers to discover new places, and the key to discover the essence of each destination. This thesis has especially worked with motivational factors, constructed through McIntosh et al.'s (1995) motivation theory which include four different motivation categories, i.e. physical motivators, cultural motivators, interpersonal motivators and status and prestige motivators. With a total of 60 prepared consumer interviews distributed at AASF and ASF, this thesis has found, that the visitors' primarily motivation is based on the demand for cultural and interpersonal aspects. The cultural motivators imply the desire to create awareness of new cultures and societies, for example by tasting different and local food. The interpersonal motivators denote the "togetherness" with other people, which can be expressed, for example, in the interaction between their already known relationships or between other visitors to the food market.

In addition to proving motivational factors, this thesis tries to define the overall visitor experience, by looking at the visitors' expectations and fulfilment, as well as the proximity to the local food and culture.

In combination with the above mentioned motivational factors, this thesis has found out, that the

Street Food-concept provides a cultural and present experience, where the interpersonal relation is an important aspect. This is primarily due to the fact, that the food markets involve the customer in a co-creation process of their own experience, where they obtain proximity to the local elements, both meant in connection with the local food and the local producer. The co-creative process is essential for creating the coveted undefined "atmosphere" that is especially created in conjunction with the local and the different "everyday life" that the local can offer the individual customer. Visitors do not only acquire knowledge of different and new traditions, but they also become an integral part of their own experience, thus creating an experiential value where guests buy not only a particular product, but the experiences and the meanings behind the product.

The visitors' experience at AASF and ASF can be define as a peak experience. This is also confirmed by the relatively small interfaces of the physical motivators, where virtually no visitor visits the food market due to basic physical needs, such as getting satiated. When the physical motivators are represented to such a relatively small degree, we witness that we are dealing with a desirable food experience. Food experiences are often a mix of different experiences at a cross sectional basis, and there is no doubt that it also applies to the two food markets.

All in all, this thesis' consumer studies has shown an overall picture of the visitor experiences, which contain a cohabitation of "togetherness" between close relationships, other visitors and the producers, as well as a quest to be involved in various cultural activities and inviting in new knowledge about other cultures. This makes it possible to argue that we are dealing with the so-called extraordinary experience where eating and drinking becomes a three-dimensional experience that allows the visitor to connect with the place, the culture, the people – or said in other words; the atmosphere.

Taking the above motivational factors and the visitor experiences in mind, we can now conclude that the Street Food-concept contain much more than just food. There is no doubt that the cultural element is essential for identifying Street Food's overall definition in Denmark. The good story combined with the local touch attracts guests and make a successful concept. The cultural experience in the context of tourism includes gaining knowledge (e.g. learning about history,

understanding different countries) and authenticity (e.g. new and unique experience of travelling). Cultural motivators confirm the desire to experience different cultures, appreciate the artefacts of previous cultures and learn history about new and other cultures. Cultural experiences testify the diversity that can be found in the tourism fields, and opens up an exploratory behavior. This curiosity is associated with a need, a thirst or a desire for knowledge and new cultural experiences, and mentioned that travel can be seen as a tool in satisfying a desire to gain knowledge and expand intellectual enrichment. By experiencing local food and beverages it opens up a cultural process where the food signifies cultural meaning to those who consume it.

Street Food is a worldwide phenomenon, with no less than 2.5 billion consumers. In the same way as in many other countries, Street Food has also been a fashionable trend and a very interesting concept, which allows much more research than what this thesis has shown. As soon as a concept opens up for different visitor experiences and feelings, the interpretations and directions can be very diverse.

This thesis has generally had a very practical approach to the entire project's overall topic. It would be interesting for further research to look at Street Food from a more theoretical approach, if nothing else, I will let other students do that kind of work. In addition to this, this thesis has primarily been based on a consumer perspective. Furthermore, it would be interesting to look into the individual producers' visions and considerations about the Danish Street Food concept, and not least understand what the considerations are based on choosing to join a trendy food wave, like Street Food. Questions like: Why Street Food? What experience is desired to be conveyed to the visitors? Can there be too much Street Food? – These questions would be interesting to get answered, mainly because we now, in this project, have been highlighting the individual consumers' viewpoint.



*Figure 25: The outdoor sign from ASF on a dark December evening.*

## 8.0 A special thanks to

This project's researcher wishes to thank in particular the following persons:

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For photographs of Aarhus Street Food (ASF) and preparation of this thesis' charts: Jacob Dahl Jeppesen.

For professional and mental support: Anne Sofie Kirkeby Jespersgaard.

## 9.0 Appendix overview

Appendix 1: Interview guide of consumer interviews.

Appendix 1.1: The answers from the consumer interviews.

Appendix 1.2: The answers from the consumer interviews outlined in a matrix system.

Appendix 2: Interview guides of expert interviews.

Appendix 2.1: The answers from the expert interviews with a national perspective.

Appendix 2.2: The answers from the expert interviews with an international perspective.

## 10.0 Literature

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