E-Journal of Tourism

p-ISSN 2541-0857 # e-ISSN 2407-392X Volume 12, Number 2, September 2025

Gastronomic Motivation and Place Attachment through the Mediating Role of Gastronomic Experience: Evidence from Bandung, Indonesia

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DOI: https://doi.org/10.24922/eot.v12i2.2193

Article Info

Submitted: June 5th 2025 Accepted:

September 22nd 2025

Published:

September 30th 2025

Abstract

Gastronomy plays a central role in shaping tourists' travel decisions, as authentic culinary experiences connect visitors with local culture and strengthen their attachment to destinations. This study examined the effect of gastronomic motivations on place attachment, with gastronomic experience as a mediating variable. A quantitative approach using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) with AMOS 24 was employed to rigorously test the proposed relationships. Data were obtained from 400 valid questionnaires completed by tourists who had visited Bandung and tasted local cuisine within the past year. The sample size was determined using the Lemeshow formula, as the population size was unknown. The analysis involved confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to assess construct validity and measurement reliability, followed by structural model testing. The results demonstrated that gastronomic motivations had a significant positive effect on both gastronomic experience and place attachment. Furthermore, gastronomic experience was found to significantly enhance place attachment, confirming its mediating role. These findings highlight the importance of gastronomy as both a motivational and experiential driver of tourists' emotional bonds with destinations. From a managerial perspective, the study provides practical and strategic insights for destination managers and tourism stakeholders in developing marketing strategies and innovative tourism products that emphasize local culinary identity and community-based gastronomic experiences. Limitations include the single-destination focus, cross-sectional and self-reported data, and limited generalizability. Future research should adopt longitudinal designs or comparative studies across multiple destinations.

Keywords: gastronomic motivations; gastronomic experience; place attachment; Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)



INTRODUCTION

Background

Gastronomy holds great potential in boosting the economy (Mgonja et al., 2017) of a tourist destination by creating business opportunities for local communities (Abdillah et al., 2025; Andari & Ismarizal, 2023). According to Valverde-Roda et al (2022), gastronomy is increasingly recognized as an important factor for tourists when choosing a travel destination. The arrival of tourists can significantly contribute to the income of local communities (Ismarizal et al., 2023), thereby highlighting the importance of gastronomy in the tourism industry as a whole.

By focusing on the development of unique and authentic culinary experiences, tourist destinations can attract visitors who are interested in exploring the local culture and distinctive flavors of a place. However, in developing this potential, it is essential to identify the type of vision or motivation tourists have when visiting a destination (Pesonen et al., 2011). In this regard, understanding the motivations of gastronomic tourists can help destinations more effectively leverage gastronomy as one of their main attractions.

Gastronomic motivations can influence an individual's gastronomic experience. Motivation refers to the reasons behind a person's interest and desire to explore the culinary world (Cordova-Buiza et al., 2021). Strong motivation in gastronomy can enhance one's experience in tasting food or learning about culinary culture (Valverde-Roda et al., 2022). Motivations may vary between individuals, such as the desire to try new foods, explore traditional cuisine, or deepen knowledge about cooking techniques. These motivations affect how a person enjoys food, opening their mind to new experiences and creating a deeper connection with food and culture.

The gastronomic experience at a destination can leave a positive impression on tourists regarding aspects such as food consumption, recipes, food preparation, and the local culinary culture. Tourists who have positive experiences in the context of gastronomy tend to develop favorable perceptions of the destinations they visit (Widjaja et al., 2020; Suntikul et al., 2020).

The sense of enjoyment tourists feel when tasting food not only satisfies their physiological needs but also stimulates curiosity about the variety of local cuisine. This is reflected in their participation in activities that involve cooking experiences and exploring local dishes at the destination. Given that most previous studies have emphasized the concept of place attachment, it is important to further investigate how place attachment is influenced by the gastronomic experience (Hsu & Scott, 2020).

This study discusses key constructs previously explored in the gastronomic tourism literature, namely gastronomic motivations, gastronomic experience, and place attachment. Valverde-Roda et al (2022) analyzed tourist interest and gastronomic motivations in visiting the city of Granada (Spain), which includes two significant UNESCO World Heritage Sites.

Cordova-Buiza et al (2021) examined the gastronomic experiences of foreign tourists visiting the city of Puno (Peru) during the Virgen de la Candelaria festival, which is recognized as an Intangible Cultural Heritage event by UNESCO. Cuadra et al (2023) developed an integrated gastronomic tourism model to assist key stakeholders—both governmental and private—in designing strategies to enhance tourists' gastronomic experiences and satisfaction, using gastronomic motivations as a starting point.

This study contributes by developing and testing an integrated framework linking gastronomic motivations to place attachment through gastronomic experience in the context of Indonesian urban gastronomy, which remains underexplored in prior research. This study therefore aims to develop and test an integrated framework that links gastronomic motivations to

place attachment through the mediating role of gastronomic experience.

Research Objectives

To fill this gap, the present study aims to offer an integrated gastronomic tourism model, incorporating gastronomic motivations, gastronomic experience, and place attachment. This research is important for providing insights into how gastronomic motivations influence place attachment through the mediating role of gastronomic experience, and for offering practical guidance to tourism stakeholders in designing strategies to enhance tourist engagement.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Gastronomic Motivations and Gastronomic Experience

A destination's gastronomy can be a key factor in both destination selection and meeting basic food needs. In this context, the first case assumes a typology of gastronomic motivations that are incidental for tourists, without implying any specific incentives (López-Guzmán et al., 2017). Tourists often have a variety of reasons for visiting a destination. A foundational study by Dann (1977) introduced the concepts of push and pull motivations. Push motivations are intrinsic to the individual and enhance the desire to travel, while pull motivations are external factors that attract individuals to specific destinations (Crompton, 1979). Among the various motivations that drive tourists to travel to particular destinations (Ismarizal, & Kusumah, 2023), gastronomy is often one of the main pull factors (Kim et al., 2013; López-Guzmán et al., 2017).

Several studies have confirmed the relationship between motivation and gastronomic experience. For instance, Berbel-Pineda et al (2019) confirmed this connection in their study conducted in the city of Seville. Similarly, Agyeiwaah et al (2019) provided evidence of this relationship in research involving tourists at a cooking

school in Chiang Mai, Thailand. Finally, other studies have also demonstrated the influence of motivation on gastronomic experience, identifying it as a key element in the value chain for tourists (Mora et al., 2021).

Gastronomic Experience and Place Attachment

Place attachment refers to the emotional bond between individuals and a specific place (Low & Altman, 1992). Recent studies conceptualize place attachment as a unidimensional construct (Ram et al., 2016). Many studies have shown that tourists tend to develop an attachment to the destinations they visit (Dwyer et al., 2019). For example, emotional connections may form when tourists enjoy local food (Hsu & Scott, 2020). Bezzola & Lugosi (2018) revealed that when tourists feel familiar and comfortable with local cuisine, it can enhance their sense of attachment to the destination due to feelings of nostalgia.

A positive evaluation of local culinary experiences increases the level of attachment and sense of belonging to a place. Tourists may develop place attachment to a destination based on memorable culinary experiences. When such experiences become embedded in memory, emotional attachment to the destination is likely to strengthen. Conversely, if local culinary experiences evoke negative emotions, such as anxiety, tourists may form a negative relationship with the destination.

According to Sims (2009), enjoying local food in a positive setting can enhance attachment and a sense of belonging to that place. Tourists often feel connected to a destination through memorable local culinary experiences (Tsai, 2016). Deep culinary experiences can strengthen tourists' emotional attachment to the places they visit (Tsai, 2016). However, when local food experiences elicit negative emotions, such as anxiety, it may lead tourists to develop a negative attachment to the destination.

METHOD

The objective of this study is to provide an integrated gastronomic tourism model, combining gastronomic motivations, gastronomic experience, and place attachment. This research employs quantitative data collection instruments, specifically structured surveys designed based on previous studies related to the research variables, namely gastronomic motivations, gastronomic experience, and place attachment. Data collection was conducted in December 2024. The city of Bandung was chosen as the research location because it is one of the cities in Indonesia with strong gastronomic tourism appeal. The target population of this study is tourists who have visited Bandung and have tasted local cuisine at least once in the past year. Tourists were asked a screening question to determine whether they met the eligibility criteria before proceeding to complete the questionnaire.

The questionnaire in this study is divided into two sections. The first section consists of screening questions to ensure that the respondents are tourists who have visited the city of Bandung for more than 24 hours and have engaged in gastronomic tourism in Bandung within the past year. The second section addresses the research variables, namely gastronomic motivations, gastronomic experience, and place attachment. All questions in this section are answered using a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). As previously mentioned, the model consists of five components. The statements or indicators used in the questionnaire are adapted from previous studies and adjusted to fit the context of this research

IBM SPSS v.25 and IBM AMOS v.24 were used to conduct reliability and validity analyses of the measurement model and the structural model. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is a powerful multivariate analysis technique that is widely used in the social sciences

(González et al., 2008). This method integrates path analysis and factor analysis (Spearman, 1904). It was later generalized by incorporating Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) based on simultaneous equation modeling (Patnaik & Sree, 2015). Interest in SEM often lies in the development of theoretical constructs, which are represented by unobserved (latent) variables.

Latent variables are hypothetical or unmeasured constructs that are free from random or systematic measurement error, and are observed only indirectly or imperfectly through their effects on observed or manifest variables (Bentler & Raykov, 1998). A key feature of SEM is its ability to test hypotheses about the relationships between observed (measured) variables and latent variables (Patnaik & Sree, 2015). In the SEM analysis, data consisting of 400 questionnaires was collected to assess validity and measurement structural models through CFA-SEM (Hair et al., 2014), determining the number of responses using the Lemeshow formula as the population size is unknown. All participants were fully briefed on the study's aims and procedures, gave written informed consent before participation, and were guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Respondent profile

A total of 400 valid responses were collected and analyzed. The respondents were tourists who had visited Bandung within the past year and consumed local cuisine. Of the total, 54.3% were female (n = 217) and 45.7% were male (n = 183). In terms of age, the largest group was between 21–30 years (42.5%), followed by 31–40 years (28.2%), under 20 years (15.8%), and above 40 years (13.5%). Regarding education, most participants held a bachelor's degree (62.0%), followed by senior high school (28.5%) and postgraduate qualifications (9.5%). With respect to

travel frequency, 61.2% had visited Bandung two to three times, 24.8% were first-time visitors, and 14.0% reported visiting more than three times.

Normality Test

For data analysis using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), Hair et al. (2010) emphasize the importance of testing the assumptions related to the data and variables under investigation, with particular focus on the normality test. This test is crucial for determining whether the data distribution meets the assumption of normality, which is a prerequisite for further processing and modeling. Analyzing the data distribution helps ensure the validity and

reliability of SEM analysis, given that nonnormal data can affect the robustness of the results. The normality test is conducted to confirm that the data are suitable for SEMbased modeling, thereby allowing for accurate estimation and hypothesis testing. The results of the normality test are presented in Table 1.

Before applying the measurement model, the univariate skewness, and kurtosis were examined (Table 1) to ensure that the normality assumption would not be violated. The skewness (<3) and kurtosis (<10) were consistent with the recommendation (Kline, 2023), the multivariate kurtosis (t = 1.207 < 5) indicated a multivariate normal distribution (Byrne, 2013).

Table 1. Normality

Variable	min	max	skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
PASB3	3.000	5.000	.073	.314	933	-2.007
PASB2	3.000	5.000	.180	.774	-1.214	-2.611
PASB1	3.000	5.000	104	445	-1.221	-2.625
PAAF3	3.000	5.000	.161	.692	928	-1.997
PAAF2	3.000	5.000	013	057	-1.052	-2.263
PAAF1	3.000	5.000	.109	.469	-1.326	-2.851
PADP3	3.000	5.000	.128	.550	869	-1.869
PADP2	3.000	5.000	.072	.308	-1.172	-2.520
PADP1	3.000	5.000	.038	.162	979	-2.105
PAIT3	3.000	5.000	.049	.209	-1.433	-3.083
PAIT2	3.000	5.000	.103	.441	753	-1.619
PAIT1	3.000	5.000	.000	.000	-1.150	-2.473
GE8	3.000	5.000	.015	.065	-1.292	-2.778
GE7	3.000	5.000	.100	.431	-1.163	-2.502
GE6	3.000	5.000	.081	.349	-1.074	-2.310
GE5	3.000	5.000	.031	.132	-1.317	-2.832
GE4	3.000	5.000	.134	.575	823	-1.771
GE3	3.000	5.000	.105	.452	881	-1.895
GE2	3.000	5.000	.213	.918	-1.001	-2.153
GE1	3.000	5.000	.092	.394	663	-1.425
GM17	3.000	5.000	.088	.377	966	-2.078
GM16	3.000	5.000	.112	.483	956	-2.056
GM15	3.000	5.000	.159	.682	713	-1.534
GM14	3.000	5.000	013	054	981	-2.111
GM13	3.000	5.000	.223	.960	-1.062	-2.284
GM12	3.000	5.000	.061	.262	627	-1.347
GM11	3.000	5.000	.060	.258	-1.260	-2.710
GM10	3.000	5.000	.053	.227	465	-1.001

Variable	min	max	skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
GM9	3.000	5.000	.015	.065	-1.292	-2.778
GM8	3.000	5.000	.112	.483	836	-1.798
GM7	3.000	5.000	.078	.335	-1.334	-2.869
GM6	3.000	5.000	.157	.676	-1.138	-2.448
GM5	3.000	5.000	.073	.314	933	-2.007
GM4	3.000	5.000	.178	.765	955	-2.053
GM3	3.000	5.000	033	141	821	-1.765
GM2	3.000	5.000	.054	.233	-1.081	-2.324
GM1	3.000	5.000	.120	.516	-1.243	-2.673
Multivariate					12.304	1.207

Source: Data Processing Results, 2024 (Using AMOS 24 Software for Windows)

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

In a study investigating the influence of gastronomic motivations on place attachment, mediated by gastronomic experience, data validity is a fundamental element that determines the accuracy of the research findings. To ensure this validity, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted to confirm the unidimensionality of the dimensions forming each latent variable. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 2 as follows.

Table 2. Validity Test Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
ID	<	PA	1.000			
DP	<	PA	.941	.121	7.763	***
AF	<	PA	1.121	.131	8.528	***
SB	<	PA	1.034	.128	8.075	***
GM1	<	MT	1.000			
GM2	<	MT	.908	.112	8.119	***
GM3	<	MT	.804	.106	7.616	***
GM4	<	MT	.857	.108	7.904	***
GM5	<	MT	.882	.107	8.205	***
GM6	<	MT	.954	.113	8.460	***
GM7	<	MT	1.020	.119	8.597	***
GM8	<	MT	.822	.105	7.807	***
GM9	<	MT	.999	.117	8.522	***
GM10	<	MT	.690	.098	7.013	***
GM11	<	MT	1.015	.116	8.770	***
GM12	<	MT	.744	.101	7.329	***
GM13	<	MT	.979	.110	8.898	***
GM14	<	MT	.910	.109	8.361	***
GM15	<	MT	.817	.102	8.038	***
GM16	<	MT	.902	.108	8.358	***
GM17	<	MT	.877	.108	8.090	***
GE1	<	GS	1.000			
GE2	<	GS	1.262	.169	7.455	***

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
GE3	<	GS	1.138	.163	6.962	***
GE4	<	GS	1.125	.161	7.003	***
GE5	<	GS	1.384	.185	7.474	***
GE6	<	GS	1.171	.171	6.843	***
GE7	<	GS	1.304	.178	7.335	***
GE8	<	GS	1.340	.184	7.288	***
PAIT1	<	ID	1.000			
PAIT2	<	ID	.909	.123	7.408	***
PAIT3	<	ID	1.133	.153	7.407	***
PADP1	<	DP	1.000			
PADP2	<	DP	1.178	.155	7.588	***
PADP3	<	DP	.867	.142	6.116	***
PAAF1	<	AF	1.000			
PAAF2	<	AF	.961	.116	8.302	***
PAAF3	<	AF	.758	.113	6.708	***
PASB1	<	SB	1.000			
PASB2	<	SB	1.112	.138	8.082	***
PASB3	<	SB	.887	.125	7.067	***

Source: Data Processing Results, 2024 (Using AMOS 24 Software for Windows)

Table 2 shows that overall, the indicators used are valid, as the p-values are below 0.05 and the Critical Ratio (CR) values exceed 2.0. According to Ghozali (2020), there are two main criteria to determine the validity of an indicator. First, a CR value above 2.0 indicates a significant relationship between the indicator and the

latent construct being measured. If the CR exceeds 2.0, the indicator is considered to have a strong and significant association with its construct. Second, a p-value below 0.05 indicates that this relationship is statistically significant. In other words, these indicators are relevant in explaining the construct and are not merely due to chance.

Table 3. Results AVE and CR

Variable	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	Composite Reliability (CR)	
Gastronomic Motivations	0.823	0.921	
Place Attachment	0.746	0.803	
Gastronomic Experience	0.784	0.874	

Source: Data Processing Results, 2024 (Using Excel)

Validity testing using the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) is a confirmatory test that examines the average amount of variance extracted among the indicators of a latent variable. The criterion is met if the AVE value is greater than 0.5. The research instrument is considered reliable if

it meets the acceptable reliability threshold, which is a Composite Reliability (CR) value greater than 0.7.

Structural Model Fit

Structural model analysis focuses on evaluating the parameters that represent

causal relationships or the influence of one latent variable on another. This step is crucial for understanding the interactions among variables and their contributions to the overall model. Figure 1 below presents the complete structural model, illustrating the parameter estimates for each variable in this study. Specifically, the model highlights the standardized factor loadings,

showing the effect of gastronomic motivations on place attachment, mediated by gastronomic experience. These estimates provide insights into the strength and significance of the relationships, serving as the basis for hypothesis testing and further interpretation of the model dynamics.

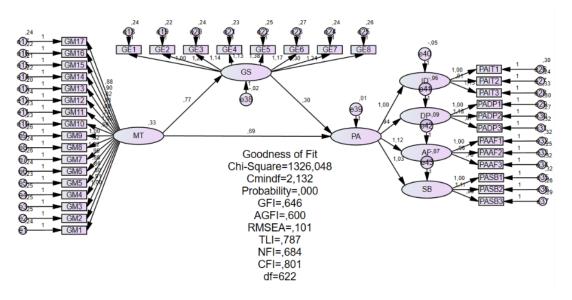


Figure 1. Structural Model

(Source: Data Processing Results, 2024 (Using AMOS 24 Software for Windows))

Overall Model Fit

Overall model fit testing is conducted to evaluate the general level of model fit or suitability. This evaluation ensures that the model aligns with the observed data and provides a reliable representation of the relationships among variables. In assessing model fit, evaluation criteria can be applied based on the views of various experts. These criteria serve as

benchmarks to determine whether the model meets acceptable fit standards. Relevant indicators and their corresponding thresholds are presented in Table 4 below.

Test Statistics	Test Criteria	Statistical Test	Test Results
Chi square	-	1326.048	-
Degree of Freedom	-	622	-
p-value	> 0.05	0.00	Not Fit
Cmin/DF	< 2.00	2.132	Marginal Fit
Root Mean Square Error of	< 0.08	0.101	Fit
Approximation			
Goodness of Fit Index	\geq 0.90	0.801	Marginal Fit
Adjusted Goodness of Fit	\geq 0.90	0.600	Not Fit
Comparative Fit Index	\geq 0.90	0.801	Marginal Fit
Tucker Lewis Index	≥ 0.90	0.787	Marginal Fit

Table 4. Results Goodness of Fit

Source: Data Processing Results, 2024 (Using AMOS 24 Software for Windows)

Among the nine fit indices evaluated, only one (CMIN/DF = 2.132) approached the acceptable threshold, indicating a marginal fit. In contrast, the majority—including RMSEA (0.101), AGFI (0.600), GFI (0.801), CFI (0.801), and TLI (0.787)—fell short of the conventional cutoffs, while the chi-square statistic was significant (p < 0.001). These results collectively indicate that the model fit is inadequate. Although a few indices suggest marginal alignment, the overall construct cannot be considered sufficiently robust for generalization. Further model re-specification or theoretical refinement is therefore required before drawing substantive inferences.

Hypothesis testing

Hypothesis testing was conducted using a two-tailed test with a significance level of 5%. A hypothesis is accepted if the t-value is greater than 1.96 (Hair, 2010). In AMOS 24 software, the t-value is represented by the Critical Ratio (CR) in the regression weights of the model fit. If the Critical Ratio (CR) \geq 1.96 or the p-value \leq 0.05, then the null hypothesis (H0) is rejected, and the research hypothesis is accepted.

Table 5. Regression Weights

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
GS	<	MT	.771	.102	7.528	***
PA	<	MT	.688	.127	5.408	***
PA	<	GS	.301	.138	2.172	0.030

Source: Data Processing Results, 2024 (Using AMOS 24 Software for Windows)

Based on Table 5, it is proven that the influence of gastronomic motivations on place attachment, gastronomic motivations on gastronomic experience, and gastronomic experience on place attachment are all significant. This is indicated by the calculated t-values (CR) being greater than the critical t-value of 1.96 (Hair, 2010). The analysis shows that the relationships between gastronomic motivations and place attachment, gastronomic motivations, and gastronomic experience, as well as gastronomic experience and place attachment are significant. These results lead to the rejection of the null hypothesis (H0), meaning the research hypotheses are accepted.

The results indicate that the direct effect of gastronomic motivations on place attachment is 0.688, while the indirect effect through gastronomic experience is $0.232 (0.771 \times 0.301)$. Thus, the direct effect is greater than the indirect effect, suggesting that gastronomic experience functions as a partial mediator in the relationship between gastronomic motivations and place attachment. This finding aligns with the mediation framework proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) and further supported by MacKinnon, Fairchild, and Fritz (2007), who emphasized the importance of mediators in explaining underlying mechanisms of relationships. Moreover, Hair et al. (2014; 2019) highlight that SEM enables simultaneous testing of both direct and indirect effects, thereby allowing a comprehensive interpretation of mediation.

Discussion of Results

The findings of this study indicate a strong and significant influence of gastronomic motivations on place attachment, gastronomic motivations on gastronomic experience, and gastronomic experience on place attachment. When individuals are driven to explore culinary experiences, they tend to feel a stronger emotional connection to the destination. These results are consistent with previous studies, such as

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those by Agyeiwaah et al. (2019) and Cuadra et al. (2023), which affirm that gastronomic motivations significantly shape the overall gastronomic experience. This underscores the role of gastronomic motivations as a key determinant in destination choice, even though each tourist may have personal and diverse reasons for seeking culinary experiences in a particular place (Kim et al., 2010).

The mediating role of gastronomic experience in this study confirms that motivations alone are not sufficient to create place attachment; rather, it is the translation of these motivations into meaningful experiences that strengthens emotional bonds with a destination. This aligns with the theoretical perspective of experiential consumption, where tourists derive attachment not only from the physical attributes of food but also from cultural immersion and sensory engagement (Quan & Wang, 2004; Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016).

The structural model analysis further highlights that gastronomic motivations exert both a direct and indirect effect on place attachment, reinforcing the notion that culinary experiences serve as a bridge between tourists' initial expectations and their ultimate destination. Overall, these findings contribute to the literature by validating an integrated framework that links motivations, experiences, and place attachment in the context of gastronomic tourism.

CONCLUSION

This study demonstrates that gastronomic motivations have a strong and significant influence on both place attachment and the gastronomic experience. When tourists are driven to explore culinary offerings, they tend to develop a deeper emotional connection with the destinations they visit. By providing a better understanding of how these motivations impact gastronomic experiences and place attachment, this research makes a meaningful contribution to the growing body of literature on gastronomic tourism.

This study is subject to several limitations. First, its cross-sectional design precludes causal inference. Second, the reliance on self-reported survey data may introduce common method bias. Third, the sample is limited to tourists visiting Bandung, which constrains the generalizability of the findings across different cultural and geographical contexts. Future research should therefore employ longitudinal or experimental designs, diversify sources, and extend the framework to other destinations to test its robustness. In addition, segmenting tourists based on their gastronomic motivations may reveal meaningful differences in preferences and behaviors.

From a managerial perspective, the findings provide actionable guidance for destination managers and tourism stakeholders. Curating tourism products that integrate signature local dishes, designing immersive cooking classes in partnership with local chefs, and employing storytelling that emphasizes culinary heritage can strengthen both gastronomic experiences and place attachment. Engaging local communities in delivering authentic foodbased activities further enhances the distinctiveness and attractiveness of the destination.

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