

**PERSPECTIVES ON REGIONAL FOOD TOURISM DEVELOPMENT:  
THE CASE OF FOOD PRODUCERS AND TOURISTS IN EAST COAST  
MALAYSIA (ECM)**

Submitted by  
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## ABSTRACT

This study explores the development of food tourism in East Coast Malaysia (ECM), focusing on the dual aspects of food production and food consumption. The role of locally produced food is directly connected to tourism because it can enhance the tourist experience and create additional economic activity in and around the destination (Boesen, Sundbo and Sundbo, 2017). This thesis focuses on the case of East Coast Malaysia (ECM), which as a tourist destination has not grasped the potential for food tourism to contribute to regional development within the local food and tourism networks. The literature linking producer and tourist inter-relationships to create tourism development is still sparse. This study adds the understanding of the broader aspect of food tourism studies focusing more on food production and consumption insights in influencing food tourism development. This integration is important to ensure local food is available to tourists and capable of creating exchange values for tourists as well as local producers. Additionally, the importance of food production and consumption linkages is an integral part of the food tourism sector, resultant from food as the main attraction that becomes an important tourist product.

This thesis adopts a mixed-method approach based on a survey (N=204) of international tourists and semi-structured interviews (N=13) of food producers in the ECM states of Pahang and Terengganu. The results identified that ECM food producers need to be more engaged with tourist experiences in order to boost visitor numbers and it has a direct impact to re-shape local food production. Furthermore, the food tourism production process is an important influence on the development of ECM food tourism. The findings show that food production results in several key outcomes for economic development: *product diversification and innovation, insource vs. outsource production, marketing techniques and tools, niche vs. mass market, supply chain and food network and Internationalization*. Additionally, tourist food consumption (TFC) is highly influenced by the food experience factor that links tourists' country of origin, the frequency of visit, type of accommodation and estimated expenditure on food. Chi-square test based on tourist level of interest in Malaysian food, showed that 62.7% of tourists had a moderate or casual interest in local food, but they have a better knowledge of Malaysian food in contrast to other food tourist groups.

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Cluster analysis identifies three different types of tourists; active, dynamic and opportunist enthusiasts, based on tourists' perception of local food, and variations of food tourists' characteristics. Therefore, this study suggests that food tourism production-consumption integration is important to support ECM food tourism development, and co-creating an 'added-value' to the regional tourism industry.

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

DHM: Department of Heritage  
ECERDC: East Coast Economic Region Development Council  
ECM: East Coast Malaysia  
EIC: East India Company  
FAMA: Federal Agricultural Marketing Authority  
FELCRA: Federal Land Consolidation and Rehabilitation Authority  
FP: Food production  
FTPC: Food Tourism Production-Consumption  
GLC: Government Link Agencies  
KEMAS: Jabatan Kemajuan Masyarakat  
KKW: Kementerian Kemajuan Wilayah (Ministry of Rural and Regional Development)  
LPP: Lembaga Pertubuhan Peladang (Farmer's Organization Authority)  
MAHA: Malaysia Agriculture, Horticulture and Agrotourism  
MARA: Majlis Amanah Rakyat  
MARDI: Malaysia Agricultural and Development Institute  
MATRADE: Malaysia External Trade Development Corporation  
MIGF: Malaysia International Gourmet Festival  
MIHAS: Malaysia International Halal Showcase  
MOA: Ministry of Agriculture  
MOF: Ministry of Finance  
MPs: Malaysia Plan  
PAS: Parti Islam Malaysia (Malaysia Islamic Party)  
PCL: Production-consumption linkages  
SIRIM: Standard and Industrial Research Institute of Malaysia  
SME Corp: Small Medium Enterprise Corporation  
SMEs: Small Medium Enterprise  
TC: Tourist characteristic  
TFC: Tourism Development Corporation  
TFC: Tourist food consumption  
WOM: Word of mouth  
YPU: Yayasan Pembangunan Usahawan

## **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Introduction**

This chapter introduces the main perspectives on food tourism development relevant to this thesis. This chapter also introduces the theoretical basis of this study, highlighting two key approaches that underpin the research framework explored in this thesis: **the tourism production process model (Smith, 1994) and the factors influencing tourist food consumption model (Kim, Eves and Scarles, 2013)**. Furthermore, this chapter presents and explains the aim and objectives of the study, and outlines the structure of the thesis.

### **1.2 Background to the study**

Until recently, food tourism was not considered seriously as a significant element in tourism. Now, with the development of technology in the late 2000s, food tourism has proven to be a significant tourism product and activity, creating the added-value effects at destinations (Nelson, 2016; Ab Karim and Chi, 2010). However, in developing a food tourism destination, it is crucial to recognize the processes and routes to improve the linkages between production and consumption, particularly, as Sidali, Kastenholtz and Bianchi (2013) argue, most regional food networks share the aim of (re)establishing closer connections between food producers and consumers. Likewise, poor linkage between producers and tourists (consumption) could hinder the development of food tourism initiatives if the products fail to reach the tourist market (Everett, 2012).

Little detailed research has been carried out on the conditions for successful collaboration in tourism (Boesen, Sundbo and Sundbo, 2017). Despite such limitations, studies have recognized the importance of collaboration between destination providers (producers, suppliers) and tourists in developing food tourism. For example, an ale trail as a tool for food tourism partnership (Plummer, Telfer and Hashimoto, 2006), food and wine networks for local regional development (Hall, 2002; Hall, Mitchell and Sharples, 2003) and food tourism strategic alliances (Telfer, 2001). Hence, this study sets out to understand the links between local food production, tourist food consumption

and tourism development. This thesis also assesses issues and challenges for food tourism development with a focus on a specific case region, that of East Coast Malaysia (ECM).

Although food tourism is a relatively new term, which began to get recognised in the early 2000s (see e.g., Hall and Sharples, 2003), studies linking local food with the economics of agricultural production, supply and tourism date back to the early 1970s and 1980s. Seminal studies on the development of tourism and agriculture linkages include Gooding (1971); Belisle (1983, 1984); and, Momsen (1972, 1986). Momsen's (1972) classic study of the Caribbean describes the integration of food production and tourism in the Caribbean as challenging. Similarly, other related studies cite the failures and constraints of combining production and tourism as an important economic activity in the Caribbean (e.g., Momsen, 1973; Belisle 1983; Telfer and Wall, 1996). The challenges identified in these early studies pointed to lack of communication and understanding between the tourism industry and local producers, large trading-economic leakages, competition for land and labour resources, resources quality, marketing and storing inadequacies and lack of government supports.

A critical analysis of this literature raises the question of whether studies on production-tourism linkages segregate the role of producers in supporting the tourism sector of destinations, which could negatively affect the local food sector. Research emphasizes the tourism-agriculture linkages in developing world destinations, drawing attention to various influences that affect food supply and procurement patterns and backward linkages development (see e.g., Torres and Momsen, 2011). The characteristics and strength of linkages appear to be associated with several demand-related, supply-related (or production-related), marketing or intermediate factors (Meyer, 2007; Torres, 2003). With respect to supporting evidence for the link between production and consumption, there is a need to better understand consumer demand based on the tourist food consumption characteristics, particularly as a form of tourist interest and knowledge in, and motivation to consume local food.

As such, to stimulate and sustain the development of regional food tourism, the characteristics of tourist consumption provide a useful insight into tourists'

perception of local food during travels. Telfer's (2000) food tourism linkage concept identifies the connections between intended producers to 'educate' tourists and promote the consumption and production of 'regional' signature dishes and locally grown products. In this regard, food as mentioned by Bartella (2011) assists tourism development through effective and comprehensive networking among producers, stakeholders and tourists to support regional development. As Sims (2010) argues, it is important to take a universal perspective and recognise that the benefits that local food can offer to tourism correlate with the actions of producers or suppliers as well as the behaviour of tourists. This study does not only explore the factors affecting tourist food consumption, built on studies by, for example, Chang et al. (2010), Fields (2002) and Kim and Eves (2012), but also aims to examine the role of tourists' experience in supplementing the 'added-value' elements of local food. The experience also contributes to understanding the interactions between downstream and upstream food tourism production.

The East Coast Malaysia (ECM) region is the least urbanized and most culturally conservative part of Peninsula Malaysia. Most business activities and SMEs in ECM are perceived as being stagnant in terms of their development (Abdul-Halim, Zakaria, Hasnan and Muda, 2012). Pahang is an area covering 35,840 square kilometres (13,840 square miles) with a population of 1.63 million, while Terengganu covers 13,305 square kilometres (5,033 square miles) with a population of 1.21 million (see Chapter 2 for more extensive background on the case study's location). Tourism in ECM is an important economic activity that capitalizes primarily on nature-based tourism products for the international market.

The food industry in ECM is of regional economic importance but generally confined to the domestic tourism market. The East Coast Economic Region Development Council (ECERDC) has recognized the importance of tourism development in ECM and is responsible for developing a master plan to secure full development of the region by 2020 through a series of intersected strategies for key industries including the tourism sector (Henderson, 2008). Although local food in ECM is not the main tourism attraction for international tourists, its

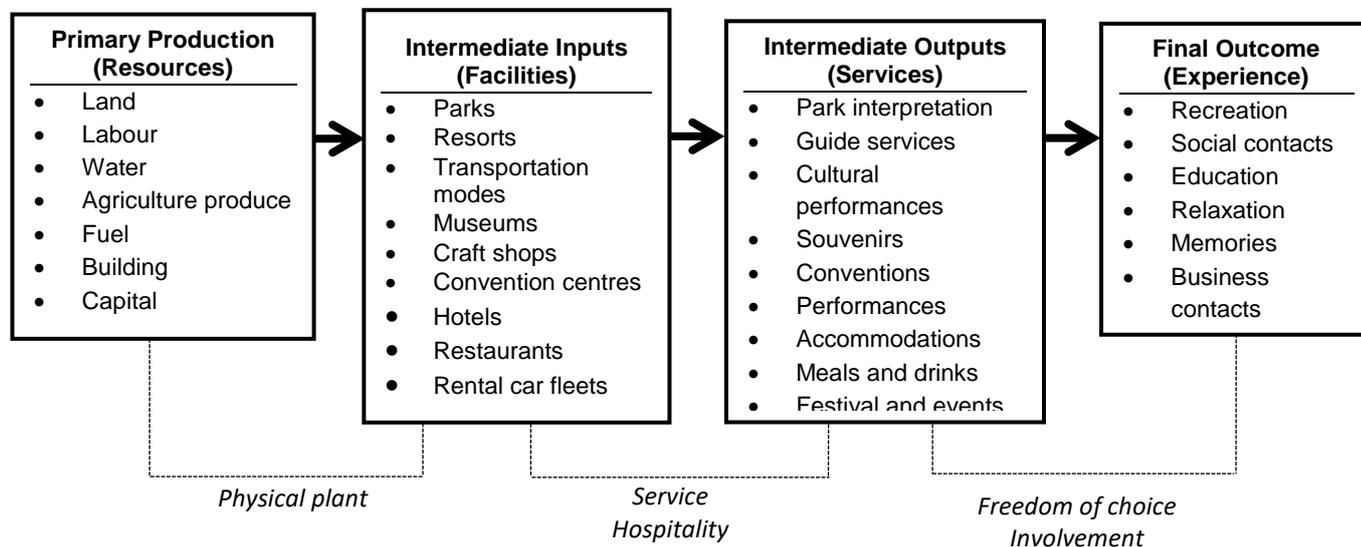
potential as a niche in tourism development segment is beyond doubt. Hence, it is already included in visual promotions such as travel guides, websites and pamphlets (see Chapter 2; Plates 2.1 and 2.2). However, to ensure food tourism is well developed in Pahang and Terengganu, these locations must fully-utilize their intangible capitals; centred on intellectual property, resources, networks, brands and skills to leverage the relationships between food and tourism for place competitiveness and improve tourists' experience (Hall, Mitchell and Sharples, 2003). The interrelationship between food and tourism in ECM should, therefore, continue to be an important component of connecting locally produced food with the tourism sector by investing in strategic tourism processes (e.g., Smith, 1994). This capitalises on the already well-known attractions like beaches, islands and nature, and could further enhance economic development potential. Furthermore, this strategy is in line with contemporary consumer demand for local food (Pestek and Nikolic, 2011), which offers business opportunities for both local tourism providers and local food producers (Long, 2004).

Given the emerging interest in food as a tourism development mechanism, as Telfer and Wall (2000) highlight, measures must be taken to develop the relationship between producers and tourists to reduce barriers in the process of food production and connection with the tourism market. Based on Telfer and Wall's argument, this study focuses on the extent to which local food products could create a niche market for food tourism and the importance of producer initiatives to establish a network with tourists. From that, the potential for ECM to develop as a primary food tourism destination can be explored. The theoretical basis of this study is based on two systematic approaches: The tourism product model theory proposed by Smith (1994) and the factors influencing tourist food consumption model by Kim, Eves and Scarles (2013).

Smith's (1994) model of the **tourism production process** and Kim et al.'s (2013) analysis of the **factors affecting tourist food consumption** provide a useful way of conceptualising the aim of this thesis, and a basis for the data collection to understand the perspectives of food producers and tourists in ECM. These two approaches are adapted as a way to connect the relationships between producers and tourists through the functional and experiential roles of

food tourism in ECM. Smith (1994) emphasizes four different components of the tourism production process: primary production, intermediate inputs, intermediate outputs and final outcome as shown in Figure 1.1.

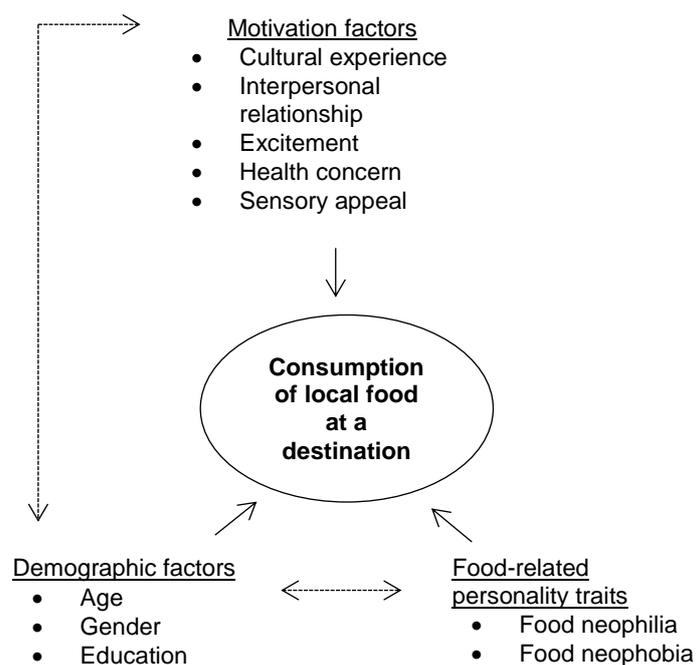
Figure 1.1: The tourism production process



Source: Smith (1994: 591)

However, the model in Figure 1.1 is not clear in terms of its adaptability to distinct tourism products, like food, and the different perspectives of tourists. Smith's study was conceptual and not based on empirical data. Hence, this study tries to operationalise the framework through an examination of food products and their adaptation to a niche tourism market. This is a valuable contribution, given the dearth of literature on food tourism from a production perspective. In the final phase of Smith's model, the experience factor is emphasized as the major attribute for tourist involvement with tourism products. In this case, the adaptation of Kim et al.'s (2013) factors influencing tourist food consumption (TFC) model enables insights into tourist characteristics and patterns of local food demand by tourists. Kim et al. (2013) define food consumption factors including demographic and motivational factors as shown in Figure 1.2.

Figure 1.2: A model of influential factors for local food consumption



Source: Kim, Eves and Scarles (2013: 487)

Prior to the development of the model in Figure 1.2, Kim, Eves and Scarles (2009) adopted a grounded theory approach to build a model to investigate local food consumption during trips and holidays. Using a qualitative approach, the grounded theory helps to develop a theory-driven evaluation about a TFC phenomenon. The theory was previously either not in existence or was insufficient. As suggested by Kim et al. (2009), it is necessary to test and compare results with a new research or to interface the new data in the model developed by the grounded theory. Later, Kim et al. (2013) empirically tested the model (as seen in Figure 1.2), in which quantitative approach is used, adding some changes to the variables and verified the relationships between each determinant.

Therefore, this study undertakes the suggestion by Kim et al. (2009) to expand the TFC model in a new interface. This study aims to integrate TFC with the food production concept through an original contribution that aims to explore consumption and production perspectives, and the links between them. In addition, by focusing this research on producer-tourist connections, the aim is to assess whether tourist behaviour is influenced by food production. Conversely, a further perspective is whether producers might better respond to tourist

demand or explore the viability of tourist markets. Both perspectives have significant potential for in-depth analysis. Both models are further explained in Chapter 3.

### **1.3 Aims and objectives**

The aim of this study is to identify and critically evaluate the factors affecting food tourism development in ECM, investigating the role of local food production and tourist food consumption as the primary elements. The states of Pahang and Terengganu are chosen as the case study areas as they represent one of the most prominent natural and cultural tourism destinations in Malaysia, but because they are lacking in added value where local food sourcing is concerned resulted in failure to diversify the regional tourism products. If this can be addressed, local economic development could see a significant growth. The food industry is an important economic activity in ECM, with unique cuisines and food products indigenous to the area. There is a strong local food culture, coupled with various food industry entrepreneurs to increase the domestic income (Wan Ahmad, Ab. Rahman and Ismail, 2011), but this is not manifested in tourism markets.

Although several initiatives have been undertaken by the states' tourism agencies, the tourism sector in ECM should provide a thriving platform including more comprehensive plans and strategies for local food producers to further strengthen their relations with tourists. Thus, the study sets out to find out the factors that appear to prevent food tourism development and to identify ways to promote the value of food tourism in ECM. The main idea of this study is to explore the producer and tourists roles in food tourism and the importance of production and consumption integration to develop food tourism in ECM (the details are explained further in the research objectives). Until recently, ECERDC has positioned a tourism cluster initiative to support ECM as an internationally recognised tourist destination (ECER, 2016). The ECM development plans are vital in identifying and determining the direction of food tourism for regional economic development. The thesis has three specific objectives:

**Objective 1: To examine the role of local food producers in developing food tourism at the destinations.**

Considering the perspective by Skuras, Dimara and Petrou (2006) who argue that the importance of local food production for places and consumers gives credence to the existence of a value-added process through the consumption of local/regional food products. By highlighting the role of food producers, this study examines producers' perceptions on tourism and scrutinizes their experience regarding tourism development. This would include how this has impacted their business operations. It focuses on the local food producers as an integral part in strengthening the destination tourism development due to its ability to transform food resources into a food-based tourism product. This objective is explored using a qualitative method.

**Objective 2: To determine tourist food consumption characteristics and patterns.**

This objective sets out to understand tourists' role as a crucial segment in the development of food tourism in a destination. Tourists consumption of local food creates an opportunity to heighten an authentic destination experience. Tourist food characteristics are related to the level of the tourists' understanding, knowledge and involvement in local food experience. This objective is built upon tourists who have cultivated a passion or interest for local food and may therefore hold very distinct motivations, preferences, and characteristics in relation to food tourism destinations. To collect the most accurate data to address this objective, a quantitative method is used to assess tourists food consumption.

**Objective 3: To understand the inter-relationships of food production-consumption to develop food tourism.**

Little research has been undertaken on the food tourism development process and the associations between production and consumption in a tourism destination or setting. This research tries to make a distinct contribution to the conceptualization of producer and tourist integration to manage and assess

ECM food tourism development. This research sits as the interface between local food producers and tourists food consumption, specifically on how it contributes to tourism destination competitiveness as well as re-shaping the destination tourism development. In addition, food producers are now seeking to diversify and channel their business offers through the tourism sector, given the opportunity of global market changes (e.g., tourists' taste and demand) to improve and expand the tourists' choice of locally produced food while establishing a reputation based on food-related tourism activities (Sims, 2009). Therefore, qualitative and quantitative findings are used to address this objective.

#### **1.4 Structure of the thesis**

This thesis is divided into seven chapters including this chapter (Chapter 1). Chapter 2 sets the context for the case study area of this research – Pahang and Terengganu in ECM. This chapter sets out a brief historical perspective and traces plus the development of tourism in Malaysia, as well as identifying, the characteristics of Malaysia's food tourism development. Chapter 3 presents the literature review, which is structured around the research objectives and four distinct themes, derived from the objectives. They are food tourism concept/development, food production, food tourist/tourists' food consumption and production-consumption linkages. The models used in this study by Smith (1994) and Kim et al. (2013) are further discussed in this chapter. Different sections of the literature review discuss several important themes including the food tourism concept and the role of food in shaping the destination and tourism industry, the key issues related to the development of food tourism and to understand the complex relationship between food production and tourism. The demand-related subject is related to the second research objective, covering concepts of the food tourists and food consumption characteristics. Finally, this section discusses the inter-relationships of food production and consumption linkages implemented by the destinations. Chapter 4 describes the methods and research procedures conducted in this study. The research design, research process, instrumentations, data collection method and selection of the case study and data analysis approaches are presented in detail. The data analysis and results of this study are divided into two chapters in order to

address objective one (qualitative) and objective two (quantitative) separately. Chapter 5 is dedicated to food producer interviews and generating the main findings from the recording transcripts. Four main themes are presented based on the tourism production process model by Smith (1994); primary resources, intermediate inputs, intermediate outputs and tourists involvement. The quantitative results are interpreted in Chapter 6, focusing on the different factors of tourist consumption characteristics relationships and food tourist determinants. The tourists are grouped into different clusters conducted by two-steps cluster analysis, in order to understand tourist patterns of local food consumption and interests. Lastly, Chapter 7 summarises the main research findings based on the research aims and objectives, before outlining the research limitations and future research developments.

## **CHAPTER 2: BACKGROUND: AN INTRODUCTION TO EAST COAST MALAYSIA (ECM) AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT**

### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the reasons for conducting this study in the states of Pahang and Terengganu, ECM. The location choice was made not only due to the lack of empirical research on the region but also because tourism activity is a major tool for regional development. Thus, this chapter discusses the important aspects of tourism development in Malaysia and ECM in particular including an overview, brief history and food tourism characteristics. The following sections will elaborate these topics in detail.

### **2.2 An overview of tourism in Malaysia**

Tourism is a significant part of the Malaysian economy. The Malaysian government aims for the industry to be the third largest economic contributor after oil and gas and the manufacturing sector (worth almost £20 billion in 2010). Malaysia was ranked the ninth most travelled destination in terms of international tourists arrivals by the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) (Lo, Mohammad, Songan and Yeo, 2012; ITC, 2010). In line with the achievement, as reported by the Economic Planning Unit (2010), the 10th Malaysia Plan (10 MP) sets out the importance of the tourism sector, with targets to improve Malaysia's ambition to be in the top ten countries for global receipts and to increase the sector's contribution by 2.1 times than 2010. In fact, in 2015, tourism contributes more than £27 billion. However, as reported by Tourism Malaysia (2018), in 2017, Malaysia received a total of 25.9 million international tourists, contributing more than £15.24 billion in Gross National Income (GNI). Although the number of tourist arrivals and GNI has dropped compared to 2015, Malaysia was still the second most-visited South East Asian country after Thailand. By 2020, the Malaysian government aspires to achieve high-yield tourism and tourist arrivals is expected to be around 36 million tourists with an expected GNI of £197 billion in conjunction with the Visit Malaysia Year 2020 (Islamic Tourism Centre, 2019; Nair, Munikrishnan, Rajaratnam and King, 2015).

In the past two decades, research has sought to determine the level of tourism and economic development in Malaysia. In general it concludes that tourism expansion could play an important role in stimulating local economic growth (e.g., Kadir and Karim, 2012; Tang, 2013). Although extensive research has been carried out on Malaysia's tourism in general, there is still insufficient information and data on tourist behaviours, tourism policy, tourism sustainability and production systems particularly in the food-related tourism sector for different geographical areas in the country. As the main focus of the study, East Coast Malaysia (ECM) has been traditionally considered as the most backward region in Peninsula Malaysia due to its failure to attract private sectors and foreign investors (see e.g., Din, 1982). This trend has continued to recent periods, where the region remains the least urbanized at 41.3%, compared to other regions in West Coast Malaysia and facing several development issues including human and physical developments (Bhuiyan, Siwar and Ismail, 2011).

Besides the natural tourism attractions in ECM, food is an important resource in co-creating the value-added element to the destination tourism development. It is apparent that food production/business is a staple economic activity in the ECM region. The region is famous for producing different types of local food products and specialties. In addition, ECM's food represents strong cultural and heritage which reflect its people and places. Recently, the East Coast Economic Region Development Council (ECERDC) has positioned a tourism cluster initiative to support ECM as an internationally recognised tourist destination (ECER, 2016). This economic plan is vital to determine and provide a clear direction for the progress of food tourism in the ECM region.

### **2.3 A brief history of Malaysia**

In 2003, Matheson-Hooker in her book '*A Short History of Malaysia-Linking East and West*', described the ancient trade relations between Malaysia and India, consisting of Chinese, Indian and Arab merchants and linked this to the expansion of religion and culture in modern Malaysia. The early trade activities were connected to the Hindu-Buddhist influence dated in the 7<sup>th</sup> or 8<sup>th</sup> century led by the 'Srivijayans'. It was the trade activities which also contribute to the diplomatic relationship with China and India, the spread of Buddhism as well as

the spread of Islamic influences. This was evident in the 'Terengganu Carved Stone' discovered to have dated back to the early 14<sup>th</sup> century, found to be written in the Islamic calligraphy. The arrival of Islam signified the powerful reign of the famous 15<sup>th</sup>-century kingdom of Melaka. The position of Melaka as a centre of political, cultural, and commercial/trade activities in the entire Malay Archipelago (Malaysia, Indonesia, Singapore, Brunei) during the era, attracted European powers. Furthermore, Melaka's prosperity and stability in politics and economy made it even more appealing.

However, as mentioned by Matheson-Hooker (2003), Melaka was defeated under the conquest of three European powers, the Portuguese, Dutch and English. The era of 'colonialism' in Malaysia revolutionized the Malay state governance and activities, especially with the 'interference' of the British Empire, due to the unstable and weak political situation in the Malay states. Liu, Lawrence, Ward and Abraham (2002) stated the invasion occurred because the British wanted to establish a new British trading post in Singapore and by 1824, after the dissolution of the East India Company (EIC) in 1867 that unified Singapore, Melaka and Penang as a crown colony autocratically fell under British governance. Liu et al. (2002) also pointed out that the pre-independence of Malaysia also saw other major incidences of Japanese and Communist invasions, until the British decided to reformulate its holding in Asia and Malay states by uniting Melaka and Penang with other states in Peninsula Malaysia as the Federated States of Malaya in 1948, and achieved independence to form Malaysia from Britain in 1957. Further elaborations on how the tourism sector emerged in Malaysia are discussed in the next section.

## **2.4 The development of tourism in Malaysia**

Based on the notion in the previous section, the rationale of connecting a brief history of Malaysia in the context of tourism development is significant in order to understand the pre- and post-independence influences that formed new Malaysia (Peninsula Malaysia, Singapore and East Malaysia of Sabah and Sarawak) as a political entity (as shown in Malaysia's Map in Figure 2.1). Since then, despite several disharmonies and disagreements over the new policies and legislation between the people and Singapore, which later declared its

separation from Malaysia and gained independence in 1963, Malaysia began to focus on the economic, political, social and ethnics improvements in the 1970s (Kwang, Fernandez and Tan 1998).

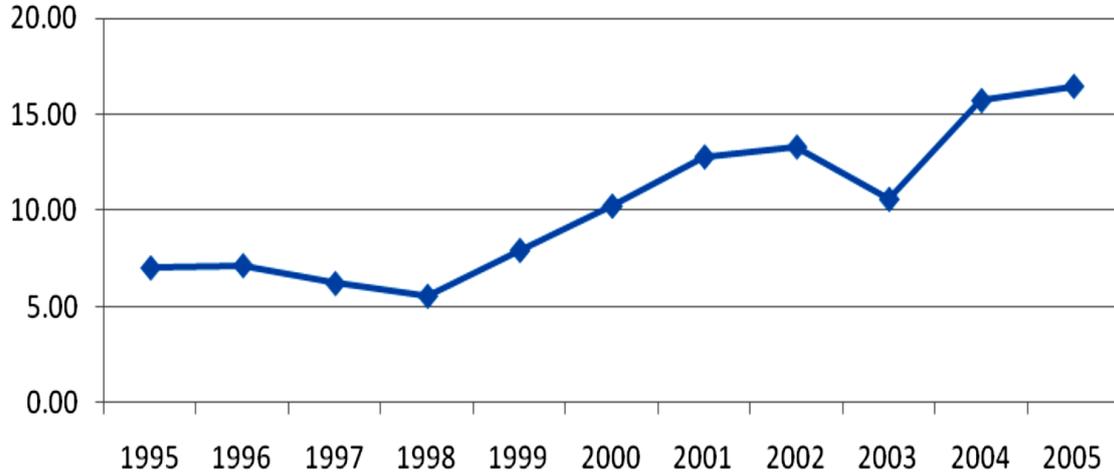
Figure 2.1: Malaysia administrative division map



Habibi, Rahim, Ramachandran and Chin (2009) argue that the development of the tourism industry began in the mid-1980s due to the world economic recession and decrease in local petroleum assets, which affected Malaysia's main industries. The Malaysian government established the Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism that was later re-named as 'Ministry of Tourism' in 2004, and began to allocate funding to provide basic infrastructure, facilities and environmental conservation in tourist destinations. The ministry included an endowment for the advertising and other promotions for the Visit Malaysia Year 2007 campaign. By 2008, Malaysia had captured 2% of the global market share of inbound tourism receipts, employing 1.7 million workers or approximately 16% of the whole total employment (Malaysia, 2011). Figure 2.2 demonstrates the increase in international tourist arrivals from 1995-2005 (noting the exception of a two-year decline due to the economic crisis in 1998 and SARS crisis and wars (Afghanistan and Iraq) in 2003). The momentous increment of tourist arrivals since the 1990s contributed to more than 9.3 billion of foreign

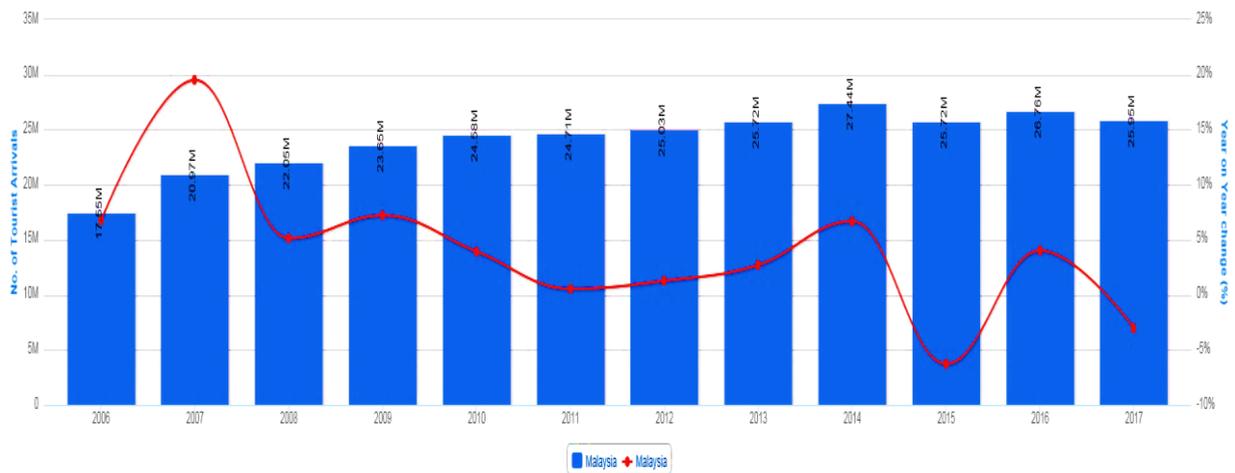
exchange earnings in 1995 that was expected to double five years later (WWF Malaysia, 1998). For 11 years as shown in Figure 2.3, from 2006-2017, the pattern of tourist arrivals keeps increasing by an accumulative yearly average of 15.0%.

Figure 2.2: International tourist arrivals in Malaysia (1995-2005)



Source: Habibi et al. (2009: 209)

Figure 2.3: International tourist arrivals in Malaysia (2006-2017)



Source: Tourism Malaysia (2018)

Geographically, Malaysia is surrounded by Brunei, Indonesia, Singapore and Thailand or the ‘Malay Archipelago’ and is made up of two regions; Peninsula Malaysia which lies between Singapore and Thailand, and East Malaysia across the South China Sea on Borneo Island neighbouring Brunei, Kalimantan (Indonesia) and the Philippines. As illustrated in Figure 2.1, the natural topography consists of a large percentage of beaches and islands as well as

other natural areas such as forests, mountains and rivers. These areas are some of the country's primary tourist attractions.

The government has invested in the tourism sector to encourage Malaysia's economic growth. Mosbah and Abd Al Khuja (2014) stated the reasons for the success in Malaysia's tourism sector includes natural potential and cultural heritage, clear government planning, multitier promotional activities and international political context. Salman and Hasim (2012) noted that since the then Prime Minister, Dr. Mahathir (1981-2003; re-elected again in 2018), aggressively took advantage of promoting Islamic tourism, it has attracted more Middle Eastern tourists especially by exploiting the negative impact of September 11 (9/11) between the US and the Arab world. Eventually, this resulted in the shifting of these potential 'Arab tourists' interest to eastern countries especially Malaysia, as a holiday alternative for them.

## **2.5 The characteristics of Malaysia's food tourism**

During the pre-independence era (before 1957), the Malaysian economy was profoundly dependent on primary commodities such as tin, rubber, palm oil and petroleum products (Fateh et al., 2009). The influences of British, Portuguese, Dutch and Japanese colonial powers and an inflow of immigrants from China and India in Malaysia created a convergence of multi-religions, culture, customs and practices. Mohd-Any, Mahdzan and Cher (2014) traced that these religions are strongly associated with, although not confined to, specific ethnic groups. By drawing on the concept, these authors have been able to indicate that: Islam is usually associated with Malays; Buddhism is linked to Chinese; Hinduism is related to Indians; and Christianity may include Chinese, Indians and indigenous groups of east Malaysians. Thus, diverse religions and ethnicities influence the whole tourism structure and local food characteristics. Jalis, Che and Markwell (2014: 103) described Malaysian food as a 'fusion cuisine' formed out of the influences of the predominant ethnic populations of Malay, Chinese and Indian. This quality has contributed to the occurrence of various types of food and cuisine available throughout the country.

In the 10<sup>th</sup> Malaysian Plan (10MPs), one of the national tourism strategies developments was to highlight the food tourism products (Mosbah and Abd Al Khuja, 2014). According to the plan, food tourism is more than just destination niche products. It is now viewed as an essential element in attracting more international tourists (Jalis et al., 2009). The initiative by the Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board (MTPB) under the Ministry of Tourism has executed the promotion of local cuisine as part of the tourist experience (Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board, 2013). Other initiatives as stated by Jalis et al. (2009) are:

- Collaboration with the Malaysia External Trade Development Corporation (MATRADE) promoting Malaysian cuisine as one of the country's tourist attractions, such as 'Malaysian Kitchen Programme'.
- The "Fabulous Food 1 Malaysia" campaign was launched by MOTAC in 2009 which organised three Malaysian cuisines annual promotional events; "Malaysia International Gourmet Festival" (MIGF), "ASEAN Heritage Food Trail with Chef Wan" and "Street and Restaurant Food Festival."
- The release of 100 Malaysian Heritage Foods List by the Department of Heritage Malaysia (DHM) in December 2009.

Overall, there are strong linkages between local food and tourism in Malaysia as these two sectors are mutually integrated. The Islamic Tourism Centre (2019) reports that tourists' spending was focused on the shopping segment, namely, 33.4%, followed by accommodation (25.7%) and food and drinks (13.4%). This current evidence shows the importance of food and drinks as one of the main choices among tourists in Malaysia.

The promotion of local cuisine may represent the nation, and at the same time strengthen the country's image and identity (Zainal, Zali and Kassim, 2010). According to Zainal et al., (2010), the Malaysian government has planned to come out with food trails initiative based on the distinct specialities of states, regions and communities to draw tourists' attention to experience local cuisine. However, these initiatives and programmes did not extend to all parts of the country including ECM and the tendency was very much focused in promoting Malaysian food in a general context.

## 2.6 The case study area of East Coast Malaysia (ECM)

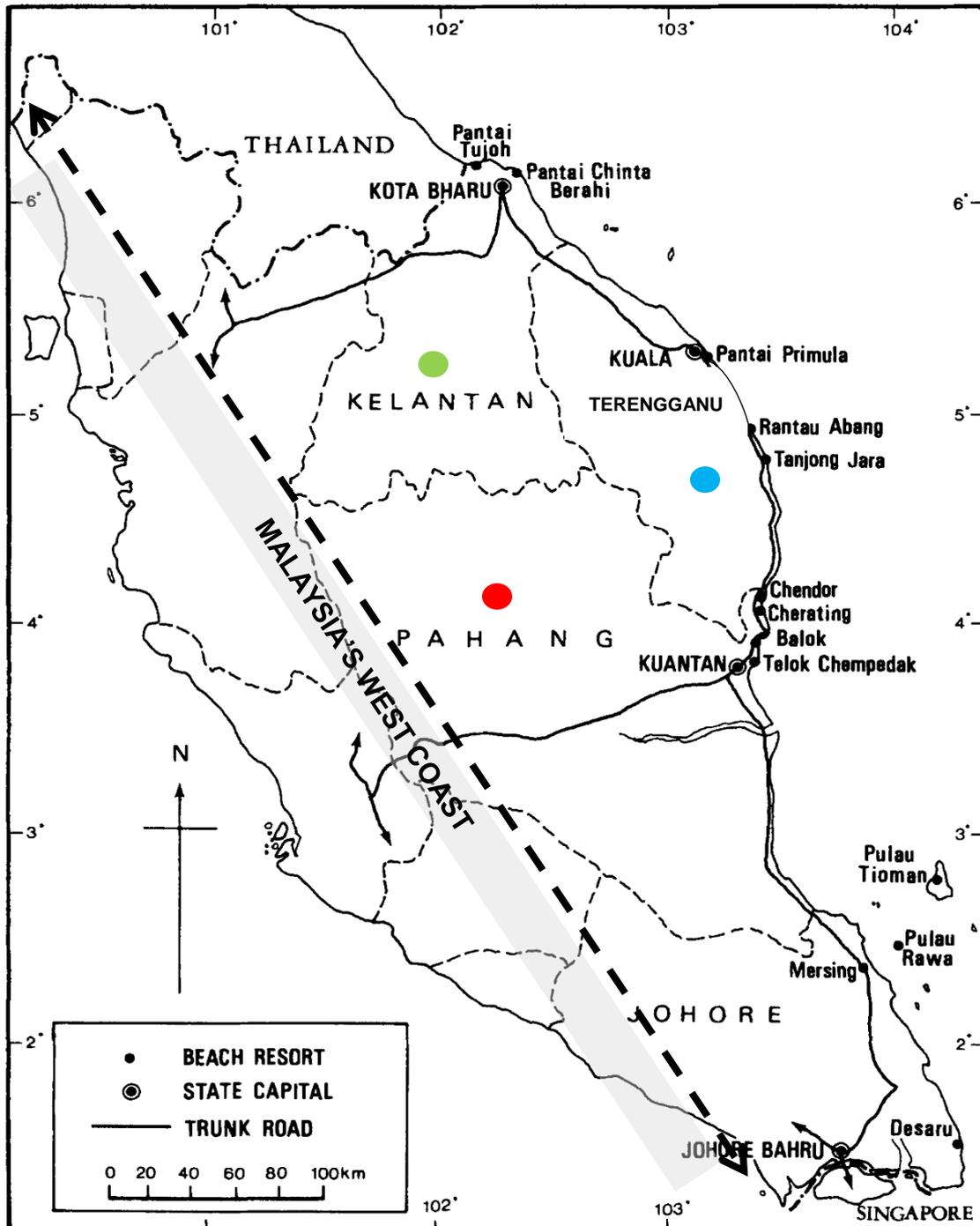
ECM consists of three states, Pahang (red circle), Terengganu (blue circle) and Kelantan (green circle). The three states have transformed with the contribution of tourism activities since the early 1970s (refer to the location map in Figure 2.4, page 18). However, the tourism development phase was considered late compared to the west coast area. The first major development by Malaysia Tourism Development Corporation (TDC) was an extensive resort development along the east coast in the mid-1970s until the 1980s as illustrated in Figure 2.4 (Ching, Hin, Zainol, Roslan and Yusoff, 2010). There are various types of resorts developed, from village tourism to resort complexes. The project covered highly potential areas from north to south ECM starting from Pantai Chinta Berahi (Kelantan), to Cherating, Balok (Kuantan) and ended in Desaru (Johor). The development was then extended to the offshore destinations including Tioman Island, Sibu Island, Babi Besar Island and Rawa Island (Wong, 1990). However, the progress encountered several constraints at the beginning, preventing speedy development in the east coast. These include accessibility to the areas (caused by poor condition or non-existence of roads and connecting bridges), lack of suitable accommodation, climate and the human factor (low productivity level) were some of the earliest constraints of the east coast tourism development (Wong, 1978; 1990).

Interestingly, the east coast tourism development began at several islands in Terengganu. According to Hamzah and Hampton (2013), one of the earliest islands that attracted backpackers and tourists which lead to the significant arrival of tourists in the state of Terengganu was Perhentian Island in the late 1980s. This eventually gives way to more opportunities being opened on the island not just for tourism but also for local socio-economic expansion which created more job opportunities and improve the locals' lifestyle.

In comparison to the West Coast of Malaysia (dash-lines from northern to southern parts of Peninsula Malaysia as shown in Figure 2.4) with a bigger population, there were more major industrial activities and the tourism industry was already established since the late 1970s, the TDC saw the potential of ECM to become the main ecotourism destination, as the region's environment

offers everything from islands to forests and rivers, moving on to highlands and mountains and long and habitable coastal areas compared to the west coast. Progressively, medium and up-scale resorts were developed and small local business including foods, crafts, chalets and small resorts, logistics and attractions started to increase. In recent years, Bhuiyan, Siwar and Ismail (2011) argued that the ECM region faces urbanization issues; low household income, high level of unemployment and poverty, poor transport and logistic services and inadequate infrastructure facilities. Although Wong (1986) had identified the ECM development issues before the 1990s, it seems that ECM is still 'lagging' in terms of strong provision of its abundance of natural, physical and human resources (that could also include the food industry). The tourism development issue was linked to the unequally distributed implementation amongst the regions and more rapid development targeted on the West Coast of Peninsula Malaysia than on the East Coast.

Figure 2.4: Earlier development of major beach resorts on the east coast (1970s-1980s)



Source: Wong (1986)

The Malaysian government via tourism agencies is currently developing a master plan to capitalize on nature tourism and ecotourism in line with the development of beach and island tourism. For instance, states tourism and cultural authorities will be established in every state to execute effective strategies for tourism development focusing on eco-tourism development through agriculture and rural products development (Marzuki, 2010). State structure plans, meant to harmonize with federal planning, adopt a similar

approach and anticipate stronger and more diversified economies in which tourism will be a major sector. Terengganu officials have also spoken of a sustained advertising campaign, which will stress 'eco-tourism, agro-tourism, cultural tourism, education tourism, history tourism and homestays' (Henderson, 2008). Interestingly, in a current progress, Bernama (2018) reported that Tourism Pahang targeted 4 *main corridors* in a current state tourism agenda focusing on the neighbouring tourists (Singapore and South East Asia). *"In the first corridor, we promote the island and the beach. The second corridor is called the central corridor that promotes adventure and nature. The third corridor is the highland corridor and the fourth corridor, also known as the 'plus one', is a railway route through the interior areas of the state such as Lipis and Mentakab."*(Bernama Online, September 26, 2018).

In line with the 10<sup>th</sup> Malaysian Plan (10 MP), Malaysia will focus on the nation's food tourism appeal. ECM however, is still a 'new' area in the international tourism market to capitalize on food tourism. Although the previous recommendations in the Ninth Malaysian Plan (9 MP) was to capitalize ECM resources and locations for tourism development zone, including the nomination of tourist towns to act as growth centres (FDTCPM 2005). ECM's food industry still remains in the domestic tourism scene, with a minimal tourism investment being made by the government or state tourism and non-tourism bodies.

One of the reasons that have caused tourism development issues in ECM is the political instability in Kelantan and Terengganu (green and blue circles in Figure 2.4). Henderson (2008) examines how political issues have affected local tourism. Since PAS (Malaysian Islamic Party) the ruling party that controlled both states prior to 2004 elections (except for Pahang (red circle) that was ruled by the former incumbent of *Barisan Nasional* Party), PAS has been involved in political confrontations with the federal government over schemes to impose regulations related to a religious agenda. Consequently, the tendency towards religious orthodoxy and conservatism has affected the ECM tourism sector due to the clashes between tourism policies with Islamic practices and regulations. The effects of such political-religious conservatism with the additional issues mentioned in the previous paragraphs (see Bhuiyan, Siwar and Ismail, 2011; Wong, 1978; 1990) has withheld the standard of tourism development, which in

turn would affect poor destination image development and hindered international investment.

With regard to food, there are some observations to be made. The interesting feature of ECM food is the conservation of its food heritage and culture even for a commercial purpose, highlighting the conventional method of cooking, preparation and presentation; even women become a major part in the local food business. John Brunton, journalist of *The Guardian UK* (2013), describes the east coast food scene during his Malaysia road trip:

*“The food on offer is still amazing. Every lunch time, a Malay lady set up a stall with a dozen local specialities that she has been slowly cooking on an old-fashioned charcoal stove in her kampung (village) house: tangy beef rendang, curried cuttlefish, bitter gourd curry, bamboo shoots in coconut milk and crunchy raw vegetables smothered in a fiery sambal sauce. She piles a mountain of white rice on your plate, and you help yourself to the rest, but no matter how much you heap on, the price doesn’t come to more than a couple of pounds.” (The Guardian Online, October 11, 2013)*

However, instead of promoting ECM’s unique culinary culture, state conservatism has focused on regulations on the serving of alcohol as John Brunton added:

*“Despite the fact that it is difficult to buy a beer or a glass of wine – alcohol is pretty much banned all along the east coast.” (The Guardian Online, October 11, 2013)*

The balance between the state’s or religious regulations and tourist demand does adversely affect the tourism sector as tourist arrivals have simultaneously increased since 2008. Pahang recorded 14.8 million tourist arrivals last year during the Visit Pahang Year 2017 campaign (The Star, 2018). Table 2.1 demonstrates Pahang domestic and international tourist arrivals from 2008 until 2015.

Table 2.1: Pahang tourist arrivals (2008-2015)

| Year | Domestic  |        | International |        | Total      |
|------|-----------|--------|---------------|--------|------------|
|      | Total     | %      | Total         | %      |            |
| 2008 | 5,040,804 | -18.44 | 2,671,859     | -37.46 | 7,712,663  |
| 2009 | 5,558,453 | 10.27  | 3,885,917     | 45.44  | 9,444,370  |
| 2010 | 7,376,142 | 32.7   | 2,164,858     | -44.29 | 9,541,751  |
| 2011 | 7,288,700 | -1.19  | 2,392,424     | 10.51  | 9,681,124  |
| 2012 | 6,844,307 | -6.10  | 2,914,198     | 21.81  | 9,758,505  |
| 2013 | 8,056,520 | 17.71  | 2,580,688     | -11.44 | 10,637,208 |
| 2014 | 7,216,566 | -10.43 | 2,195,965     | -14.91 | 9,412,531  |
| 2015 | 8,078,002 | 11     | 2,455,709     | 11     | 10,533,711 |

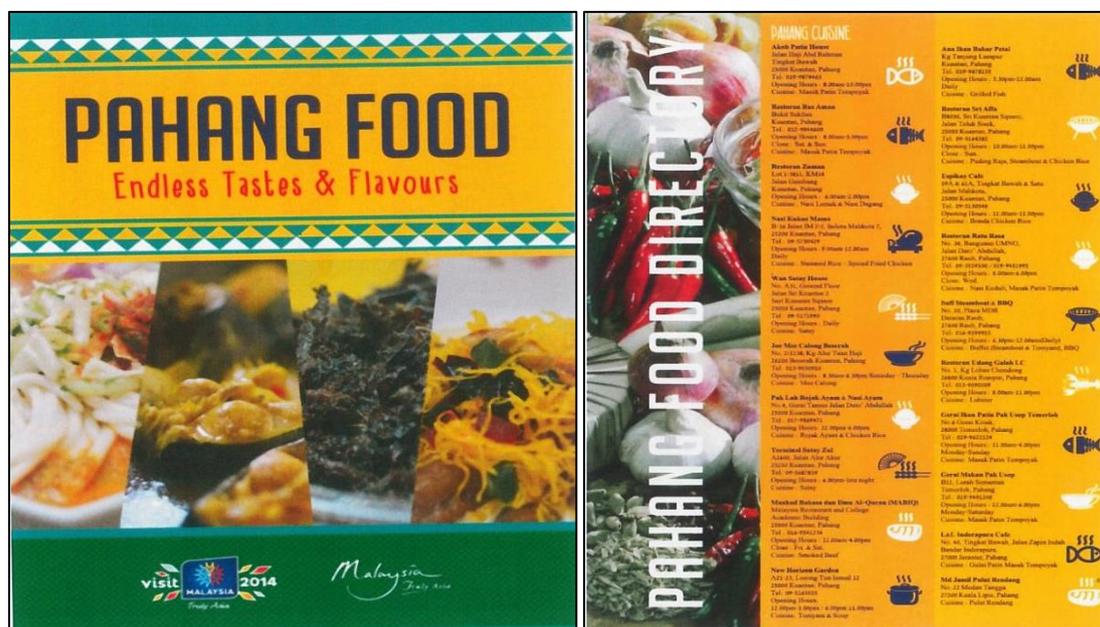
Source: Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board, Pahang Office (2016)

Tourist arrivals in Pahang experienced some fluctuations from 2008 till 2015, reaching the highest number of more than 3.8 million international visitors in 2009 and the lowest at 2.16 million in 2010. Domestic tourists also contributed to the overall tourists arrivals in this 8-year period, with local tourists at 8.07 million in 2017, which was the highest rate since 2008 that scored the lowest arrivals at 5.04 million.

Pahang's tourism strategy is focused on diversifying the state's food tourism products and activities, unlike Terengganu. There is a need for destinations to develop their primary tourism products appropriately, such as by ensuring there are a sufficient number and diversity of products and services that have coherence, and synergies and linkages between them (Benur and Bramwell, 2015). Although food tourism is still in the early stage of development, the promotion of Pahang's local food by Tourism Malaysia Pahang, the state government in conjunction with the tourism office, was initiating a small step in developing Pahang food tourism into another level of positioning and visibility (Tourism Malaysia Pahang officer, personal communication, July 16, 2016). They began with programmes such as Pahang Food "Endless Tastes and Flavour" Campaign, Pahang Food Fest in Lipis, Traditional Cooking Festival and Spear Food Fest all held in 2016. These were included in another 71 tourism activities in Pahang from January to December of 2016. The initiatives also included a Pahang Food Directory, which listed the prime or potential local restaurants and food premises serving a mix of authentic Pahang and fusion cuisines (Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board, Pahang Office, 2016). Plate 2.1 indicates the Pahang food tourism promotion and food directory, as the key

initiative by the state government to uplift a different kind of food tourism products in Pahang.

Plate 2.1: Pahang food tourism promotion and directory



Source: Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board, Pahang Office (2016)

For Terengganu, the state tourism development remains consistent through the years since the industry grew momentarily in the 1980s, concentrating on beaches and islands tourism. Recently, this has extended to more niche tourism products, for example, festivals, packages, infrastructure upgrading, and emphasizing local heritage, arts and culture (Z. Zainuddin, personal communication, July 24, 2016). Terengganu tourist arrivals depicted an impressive increment since 1990 with the least fluctuation rates for 26 years (1990-2016) is shown in Table 2.2. Domestic and international tourist arrivals reached almost 5 million in 2016, contributing for almost 1 million compared to 2015. This reflects the state government aspiration to attract more than 5.5 million tourists in 2018 (The Star, 2018).

Table 2.2: Terengganu tourist arrivals (1990-2016)

| YEAR | DOMESTIC TOURISTS | FOREIGN TOURISTS | TOTAL     |
|------|-------------------|------------------|-----------|
| 1990 | 196,957           | 79,371           | 276,328   |
| 1991 | 228,153           | 121,948          | 350,101   |
| 1992 | 201,073           | 90,898           | 291,971   |
| 1993 | 277,724           | 97,572           | 375,296   |
| 1994 | 410,327           | 107,598          | 517,925   |
| 1995 | 730,020           | 127,124          | 857,144   |
| 1996 | 1,065,327         | 166,951          | 1,232,278 |
| 1997 | 1,626,392         | 227,646          | 1,854,038 |
| 1998 | 981,263           | 112,714          | 1,093,977 |
| 1999 | 1,002,324         | 146,713          | 1,149,037 |
| 2000 | 1,170,552         | 159,993          | 1,330,545 |
| 2001 | 1,248,607         | 142,041          | 1,390,648 |
| 2002 | 1,276,671         | 125,148          | 1,401,819 |
| 2003 | 1,284,761         | 97,743           | 1,382,504 |
| 2004 | 1,418,141         | 162,826          | 1,580,967 |
| 2005 | 1,624,726         | 197,952          | 1,822,678 |
| 2006 | 2,061,486         | 238,893          | 2,300,379 |
| 2007 | 2,572,299         | 295,084          | 2,867,383 |
| 2008 | 3,147,873         | 380,281          | 3,528,154 |
| 2009 | 2,963,250         | 341,526          | 3,304,776 |
| 2010 | 2,528,000         | 287,149          | 2,815,149 |
| 2011 | 2,587,735         | 578,476          | 3,166,211 |
| 2012 | 2,768,876         | 607,399          | 3,376,275 |
| 2013 | 3,229,704         | 807,426          | 4,037,130 |
| 2014 | 3,763,311         | 754,470          | 4,517,781 |
| 2015 | 3,881,863         | 849,831          | 4,731,694 |
| 2016 | 3,919,295         | 956,624          | 4,875,919 |

Source: Terengganu State Economic Planning Unit (2018)

The Terengganu Tourism Director (Z. Zainuddin, personal communication, July 24, 2016), stated that none of the initiatives attempted to promote local food in the annual tourism calendar activity. There were some issues which hindered a smooth development of food tourism and other potential niche tourism products in Terengganu, especially for the international market. These include the lack of human development and capital, in terms of communication and education. As a result, locals fail to understand tourism in-depth and how it could benefit them. In addition, the penetration of international influence and culture into the local society is not warmly welcomed as traditional system still rules, resulting in their inflexibility behaviour towards either in human capital, infrastructure or urbanization. Consequently, there is a low influx of foreign investments to the state.

On the other hand, a similar concept sees Terengganu being utilized by the state tourism agencies via promotions in travel guides (Plate 2.2) and websites as a minimal yet important effort to highlight the richness and uniqueness of Terengganu's culinary products to foreign tourists.

Plate 2.2: Terengganu tourism travel guide (front cover) and local delicacies (content)



Source: *Tourism Terengganu, Terengganu State Secretariat (2016)*

Terengganu and Pahang food industries are populated by many small-medium food businesses (SMEs) and some of them inherited their family businesses in the forms of local food restaurants, outlets and production spaces. Food producers and entrepreneurs in Terengganu, registered under Terengganu Entrepreneur Development Foundation or Yayasan Pembangunan Usahawan (YPU). Altogether there are 59 food businesses comprising of 23 in food and beverage productions, 7 in agriculture, 17 in restaurants and catering and 12 in livestock, fisheries and aquacultures activities have registered. In addition, according to the Federal Agricultural Marketing Authority (FAMA), which acts as the national agricultural agency, there are more than 30 food producers and entrepreneurs in Terengganu.

The figures of food producers in ECM show a convincing number, just that establishing the link between food and tourism in both ECM's states must be well planned. As mentioned by Henriksen and Halkier (2015) one must understand that destination development which centres on food tourism depends on collaboration across interests and between public and private parties (Henriksen and Halkier, 2015). Institutions such as Small Medium Enterprise Corporation (SME Corp), Federal Agricultural Marketing Authority Malaysia (FAMA), Malaysian Agricultural Research and Development Institute (MARDI), Majlis Amanah Rakyat (MARA), Yayasan Pembangunan Usahawan

(YPU), Jabatan Kemajuan Masyarakat (KEMAS), and Federal Land Consolidation and Rehabilitation Authority (FELCRA), are important Malaysian government agencies which are established to aid the local producers to see themselves as businessmen in the tourism sector. Hence, they would recognize the benefits of upgrading the local ECM food system and also realize that cooperative relationship among various parties involved in tourism will lead to economic development.

## **2.7 Summary**

This chapter has set the context and presented the reasons for selecting ECM (Pahang and Terengganu) as the case study area. Tourism plays a significant role in the region's socio-economic development. A strong cultural tradition yet very conservative, and the natural resources are parts of its attractiveness offset by certain challenges faced by the local tourism industry. As the region is heavily reliant on tourism (nature, beach, island, culture, and heritage), unequal treatment given to other potential tourism products and activities are the crucial areas that need to be further emphasized. Specific focus on local food and awareness regarding it is most appropriate in Pahang and Terengganu. It is highly popular in the domestic tourism market, but has yet to penetrate the international market and reach foreign tourists. Tourism Malaysia (2014) organised the East Coast trail programme with 60 travel agents and media from ASEAN to boost tourist arrivals from the region. This should go a long way to help distribute tourism activities across all ECM states and provide more opportunities for local food products to start penetrating the ASEAN tourists market, giving a head start to focus on ASEAN tourists, as one of the food tourism cross-regional strategies. Nonetheless, despite promotional mechanisms, the roots of developing food tourism in ECM lie under good planning and interwoven nature of different elements to generate income via tourism and food-related tourism products. This study aims to find initiatives that can increase local producers' knowledge and consumer-related knowledge, as a focus for creating linkages between local producers and others using their products (Boyne and Hall, 2003) and act as a catalyst to form food tourism collaboration, engaging tourists with experience and knowledge of local food.

## **CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter aims to locate food tourism development in the context of existing debates within the contributing literature, particularly in the emerging area of food production and tourist consumption. In spite of the generic role of food, Robinson and Getz (2016) posited that there is evidence in the literature that food has become an emerging niche tourism market. This new market has reinvented the definition of food and its function within modern tourism. Indeed, scholarly interest in tourism (such as Au and Law, 2002; Cohen and Avieli, 2004; Quan and Wang, 2004; Kivela and Crotts, 2006) has broadly documented that food (in particular, local food, food specialities and cuisines) has become one of the pull factors for tourists in selecting a holiday destination.

Food tourism has only recently begun to be acknowledged as a distinct form of tourism and has seen an empowering growth over the past decade (Kim and Ellis, 2015). The rise of food-related tourist activity or food and tourism linkages is described in the literature as being associated with the food role at various destinations. For example, studies identify the existence of food attractions in urban destinations (Mckercher, Okumus and Okumus, 2008), food experiences at festivals (Silkes, Cai and Lehto, 2013) and the role of local cuisines in promoting islands (Okumus, Kock, Scantlebury and Okumus, 2013). These associations indicate that food has become a distinct sector in tourism (Everett, 2016) and an important aspect of destination development. As argued by Everett and Slocum (2013), food tourism is also embedded in other tourism activities including niche tourism, agro-tourism, culinary tourism, food-based attractions and food-purchase motivations.

However, Everett and Slocum (2013) argue that defining food tourism and evaluating how it operates in a destination is a complex issue. This complexity is highlighted in that different authors define food tourism in different ways. For example, Chen and Huang (2016) identify four main aspects of food in tourism; food as part of the local culture, food as a tourist attraction, food as a tourism product, and finally, food as a touristic experience, while Kivela and Crotts

(2009: 181) suggest that food functions as a “cultural encounter” that encompasses a tourist search for destination food cultures such as local restaurants, tastes, and unique food experiences.

In this chapter, the first section provides an overview of the development of food tourism as a concept. It considers how the delineation of the subject has transitioned from theories to implementation and practice as a part of destination tourism initiatives. Specific focus is given to view the role of food in the tourism market. A meta-analysis approach (Table 3.1) illustrates the ‘chronology’ of food tourism studies over the years. The second section outlines the food tourism functions towards a destination development and the importance of local food in revitalizing a destination as a tourist attraction and product. The discussion continues to the role of food production influences on food tourism development, highlighted by early studies on the agricultural sector (see Lieper, 1976; Belisle, 1983; 1984) and the importance of developing a ‘collaborative approach’ with the local tourism industry. The fourth and fifth sections evaluate the literature on food tourist and tourist food consumption, with a focus on types of food tourist and interest, factors affecting food consumption (theories and models) and tourist involvement with local food as an optimum touristic experience. The final section deliberates the antecedents to ‘bridge’ the production and consumption linkages, to develop a supply-demand collaborative approach between producers and tourists. It signifies an important stimulant for local food production, retaining its role in both regional food and tourism industries, by creating and exchanging substantial values with tourists and destinations.

### **3.2 The concept of food tourism**

The term ‘food tourism’ is defined broadly as the desire to experience a particular type of local food produced in a specific region (Hall and Sharples, 2003), food tourism can be interpreted as bridging the gap between food and everyday life and leisure and, depending on one’s preference, invites either relaxation or activities (Hjalager and Johansen, 2013). Various narratives have also been identified in defining food tourism (Sidali, Kastenholz and Bianchi, 2013), including the pursuit of a reconnection with nature (Winter, 2005),

globalisation (Marsden, Banks and Bristow, 2002), food as part of the personal identity (Sims, 2009) and the embodiment of freshness and taste, support to local producers and environmental concerns (Edwards-Jones et al., 2008). Food tourism also refers to physical experiences, motivated by a desire and self-engagement to involve with local foods. Many authors, for example, Everett and Slocum (2013) and Bartella (2011) have adopted this definition. Ellis, Park, Kim and Yeoman (2015) propose a better conclusion that the importance of what should be called 'food tourism' is closely linked to physical embodied, sensual and sensory experiences. As food tourism literature began to evolve from the 1980s, as Frisvoll, Forbord and Blekesaune (2016) note, the topic has gained attention in tourism research, and the context has shifted towards a cultural perspective, in which, according to Everett (2012), the transition from the early focus on management research to a more holistic and exploratory discussion of food and culture is clear.

As the notion of food changes from a mundane commodity and one that simply satisfies human needs to one that adds a whole new dimension to cultural experiences, it has become a motivator for travel creating demand for food-related destination activity (Henderson, 2004). Food tourism also affects the improvement for local producers in many ways, as indicated by Hüller, Heiny and Leonhauser (2017), food tourism provides opportunities for local producers to improve their livelihood and creates the potential market for surplus agricultural or food-based production growth. The benefits of tourism linkages for food producers and the local food industry can be a valuable niche for a destination, including rural development (Sidali, Kastenholz and Bianchi, 2015). The added value element establishes a mutual relationship with consumers interested in local food, but as Hjalager and Johansen (2013) argue, this must be integrated with the destination's history, traditions and eco-gastronomic heritage to develop of successful food tourism. Further to this notion, Hjalager and Johansen (2013) identify that an increasing number of food producers have a positive attitude towards the collaborative development of food-related activities at their local destinations.

Food tourism has been one of the driving forces for regional development, and as argued by Renko, Renko and Polonijo (2010), food tourism strengthens the

local food networks to stabilize value chain partnerships. But as much as it enforces the food network, Bessièrè (1998) added a slight contradiction that local food also strongly holds many potential and significant influences to enhance sustainability in tourism because the market trend has moved towards traditional local food culture whereby a tourist desires the experience and "taste" of the region they are visiting. Bessièrè also briefly discusses the role of food in various interpretations, further developing a holistic understanding of food tourism:

- Food as a symbol: some foodstuffs are the basis of fantasy and concentrate on symbolic virtues (bread, wine, cereals);
- Food as a sign of communion: food shared and eaten with others, is a fundamental social link;
- Food as a class marker: Champagne, caviar, and wine for everyday consumption, are markers, distinctive signs, allowing the various social actors to identify one another and mark their lifestyles;
- Food as an emblem: this is the case with the culinary heritage of a given geographical area or community; a kind of a banner beneath which the inhabitants of a given area recognize themselves.

Bassiere's understanding of food tourism indicates that food symbolism appears in various guises and representations. It has, in addition by taking DuRand, Heath and Alberts (2003) into consideration, although they believed in the importance of food tourism role in adding value to the cultural aspects of the destination, food tourism also contributes in different contexts. For example, food tourism encourages sustainable destination development; stimulating and supporting agricultural activity and food production; preventing authentic exploitation; enhancing destination attractiveness; empowerment of the community (job creating and entrepreneurship); generating pride; and reinforcing destination brand identity. In acknowledging those attributes that highlight the role of food as a major part of local culture, Getz, Robinson, Andersson and Vujjivic (2014: 28) support the claims from Montanari (2006), who mentions that "everything to do with food represents a cultural act, full of symbolism." Montanari also debated that food, once a practical necessity, has evolved into an indicator of social standing and religious and political identity. Taking the perspective from Pearson, Lin and Chai (2011) reinforce that food

serves as a powerful vehicle for conveying insights and abstract concepts that express and reflect the unique culture of a specific place. As Robinson and Getz (2016) supported, as cultural artefacts, food promises to be a medium for the expression of local culture and connects tourists with the destination's landscape and unique way of life. This explanation seems closely related to how food and cuisine help in defining culture, giving rise to cultural differences. One should also take into consideration the effects of globalization on local cuisines which also lead to the necessity to preserve traditions. This is in line with the fact that many food lovers still seek out experiences that they believe to be culturally authentic (Getz, Robinson, Anderson and Vujivic, 2014).

Contrary to this, local food is highly regarded as a source of destination attraction. Food attraction refers to a destination's pull factor in influencing the tourist to experience local food because, from the regional and local destination point of view, food (product/foodways) is associated with a particular geographical area and a specific culinary heritage that plays a vital role in shaping and sustaining its destination identity (Richards, 2002). Thus, to ensure food as a valid source of destination tourism attraction, it is vital for tourism providers and marketers to identify the importance of food tourism from the demand side or outcome of tourist experience (Smith, 1994), to align food tourism strategies to tourist need, expectation and behaviour (Okumus et al., 2013; Ryu and Jang, 2006). Nations including Croatia and South Africa are examples of destinations that have developed strategies to promote local cuisines as tourist attractions (Fox, 2007; DuRand et al., 2003), inspired by other successful food tourism destinations such as France, Japan, Singapore and Italy.

To capture the power of food as a destination 'attraction', there is a general consensus in the literature that local food should be tailored to meet tourist demand for unique products and experiences (see e.g., Lin, Pearson and Cai, 2011; Ab Karim and Chi, 2010). Differentiating destinations with a unique and authentic local food with a strong socio-cultural element (e.g., visitors could experience a fresh Japanese food prepared and cooked in the local fish market in Tsukiji, Tokyo) can be a significant marketing tool for many regions (Boyne and Hall, 2003; Fields, 2002). For example, Kivela and Crotts (2006) found

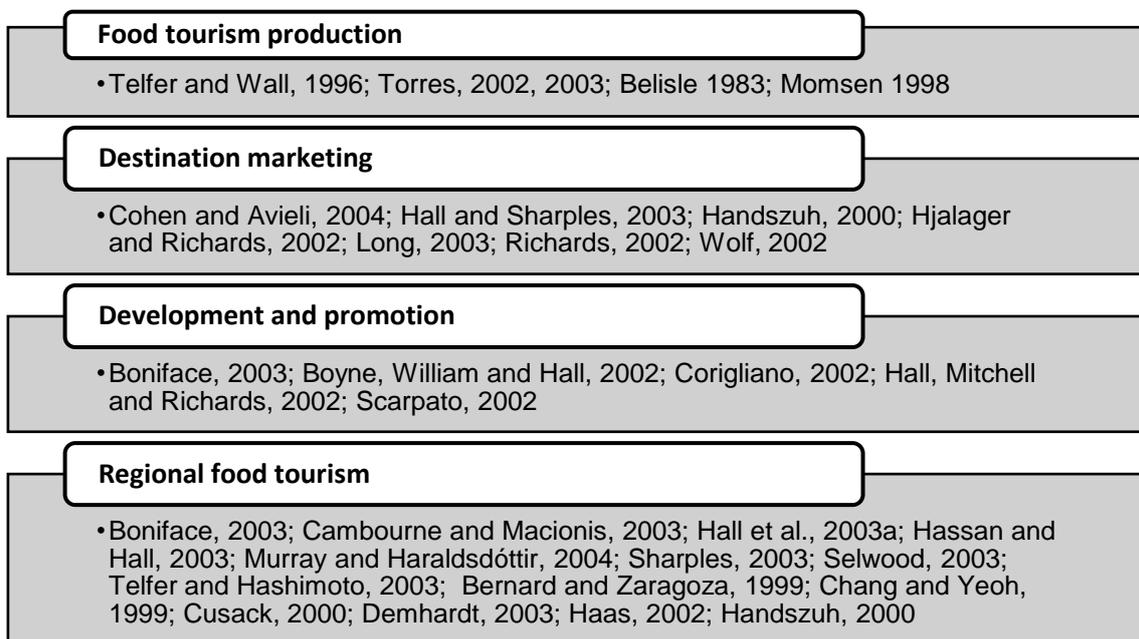
tourist revisit intention was highly affected by the attractiveness of local food and gastronomic culture based on food expectations and experience at a destination. They suggest that typical food products sold exclusively for foreign tourists are an effective tool to promote food as a destination attraction and influence prospective tourists' expectations on local food. As stated by Okumus, Okumus and McKercher (2007), a destination in which the attraction centres on local food could be a very distinguished destination in a significant and impactful way. Food represents local ingredients, cooking styles, processes and local lifestyle. These are the elements which establish a reputation for quality food, food culture and heritage of a destination as a marketable tourist commodity. Furthermore, it has a direct socio-economic impact on destinations (Henderson, 2004). As Bartella (2011) debated, the substantial potential of food for regional development requires a strong relationship between food as keeper of cultural knowledge and expression and rural destinations as common locations of food production. This reflects Everett (2012), who discusses the transformative role and place-making impact made by food tourism. Tourism helps to sustain food heritage by influencing the local community to maintain traditions, skills and lifestyle (Everett and Aitchison, 2008; Kim and Iwashita, 2016), while food production places as tourism spaces also form an important focus for such development.

However, many food tourism studies remain repetitive and present a vague understanding of the topic; but some researchers have explored local food as a means to stimulate destination development (e.g., Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012; Marsden and Smith, 2005; Saxena, Clark, Oliver and Ilbery, 2007), local food from the perspective of sustainable tourism (e.g., Hjalager and Johansen, 2013; Sims, 2009, 2010), and food as a destination identity (e.g., Everett and Aitchison, 2008). Another set of researchers has created conceptual typologies of food tourist behaviour (Kim and Eves, 2012; Mitchell and Hall, 2003). There is recent evidence by Ellis, Park, Kim and Yeoman (2018) which shows that most of the food tourism studies are focused on cultural anthropology through understanding the interactions of tourists' involvement with place via food medium based on 164 food tourism studies. Although food and cultural are well established in food tourism literature, there are limitations in terms of interdisciplinary research that focuses on the interrelationships between food,

identity, sustainability, and the interaction between academic discourses and current policy and tourism (Everett and Aitchison, 2008).

Research on food tourism is often oriented towards strategic issues, such as planning, marketing or business development in various case study locations as an attempt to fit food tourism to the current global shift of food and tourism, where local food consumed on an everyday basis by local people has become an attraction and a tourist resource corresponding to dietary “servicescapes”. The explanation may relate to external or internal motivations. For example, socially and culturally oriented consumers who pay attention to sustainability issues and codes of ethics exhibit external motivations, whereas internal motivations are self-oriented, such as health concerns (Bjork and Kauppinen-Raisanen, 2016). It is interesting to note that many important food tourism studies were started with strong contributions related to production, globalization, and destination marketing, as shown in Figure 3.1 and Table 3.1.

Figure 3.1: Food tourism research themes



Source: Redrawn from DuRand and Heath (2006)

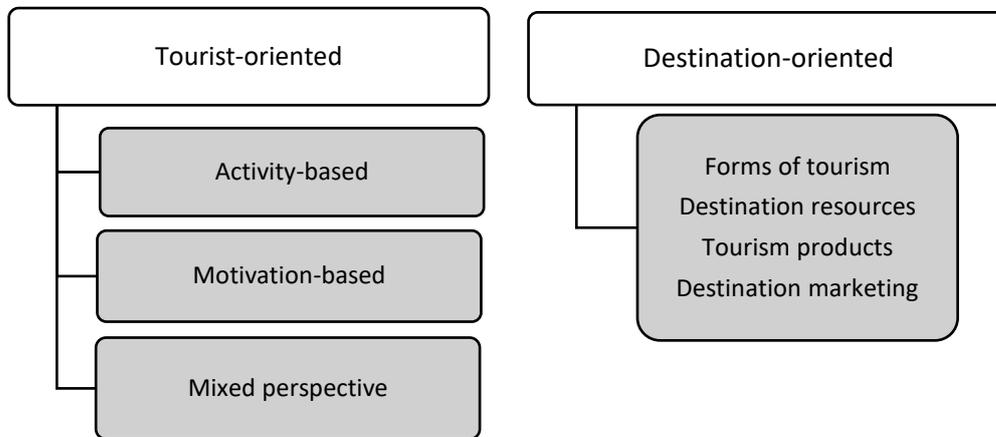
Figure 3.1 summarizes the various topics investigated in food tourism and considered as an early meta-analysis undertaken by DuRand and Heath (2006). However, it only acts as an indicator of how food tourism research developed between 1983 and 2006. However, the food tourism ‘environment’ has

drastically changed compared to that identified in DuRand and Heath's analysis. The transition highlights how food contributes to tourist motivation, such as understanding consumer perception of food prior to travel or/and assessing their on-site food experience. The food experience in tourism is considered as an activity through which cultures can be understood. Food is also packed with social, cultural and symbolic meanings of the destination (e.g., Levitt, Zhang, DiPietro and Meng, 2017; Chen and Huang, 2016; Kim and Eves, 2012; Bertella, 2011; Harrington and Ottenbacher, 2010, Henderson 2004). Figure 3.1 also presents Earlier studies, for example, Lieper (1979) on tourism approaches towards economic, technical and holistic approaches, and Telfer and Wall (1996) who identified relationships between food production and tourism has raised the issue of land, labour and capital competition at a destination, engaging the development of more cohesive 'plots' of food tourism revolutions .

Food tourism has continued to be an area of special interest and research into the phenomenon has grown. However, there are still research trends that deserve further attention (Su, Johnson and O'Mohany, 2018; Su and Horng, 2012). Similarly, as argued by Andersson, Mossberg and Therkelsen (2017), even though food and tourism are, and have always been closely integrated; critical studies are still required concerning the conceptual and practice-oriented aspects of food tourism. Andersson et al. (2017) suggested that food tourism research can be divided into a consumer, a producer and a destination development perspective. This idea would enable a transition from contexts previously used by DuRand and Heath (2006), by zooming in more on the multitude of interests and synergies among consumers, producers and destination developers. Recently, Ellis, Park, Kim and Yeoman (2018) divide the multiple intersects of food tourism into two groups of tourist-oriented and destination-oriented as shown in Figure 3.2. A difference between Ellis et al. (2018) and DuRand and Heath (2006) is clear; where Ellis et al. (2018) distinguish two major contexts of food tourism research: tourism providers (destination) and users (tourists). As the critique by McKercher, Okumus and Okumus (2008) raise, a broad definition and understanding of food tourism may have led to a misconception of food tourism in the past. This caused a limited perspective of food tourism, for example, as Figure 3.1 outline, food tourism

tends to be described on a destination or technical basis (external factors), rather than by tourist behaviours or characteristics (internal factors).

Figure 3.2: Perspectives in defining food tourism and linked research scopes



Source: Redrawn from Ellis et al. (2018: 255)

In Figure 3.2, a tourist-orientation covers three aspects: an activity-based perspective, a motivation-based perspective and a mixed perspective. An activity-based perspective is supported by different forms of studies that are closely related to cultural and sensory experiences (Abdelhamied, 2011; Albrecht, 2011; Alonso and O'Neill, 2012; Bjork and Kauppinen-Raisanen, 2016; Everett, 2009; Hashimoto and Telfer, 2006; Presenza and Chiappa, 2013; Quan and Wang, 2004; Smith and Xiao, 2008; Teixeira and Ribeiro, 2013). Studies based on a motivation-based perspective are internally focused or internally driven by tourists' desires, compared to activity-based (Bertella, 2011; Lee, Alexander, and Kim, 2014; Presenza and Iocca, 2012; Smith and Costello, 2009; Su, 2013). Ellis et al. (2018), discuss that the mixed perspective is the integration of activity-based and motivation-based perspectives, as not only is food consumption defined as 'tourist and visitor activity', but as the activity that is 'motivated by an interest in food'. The second theme of destination-orientation is the same concept as DuRand et al. (2006). This theme is related to the operational and management aspects of food tourism at a destination and how it is connected to tourist experience (Alonso and O'Neill, 2012; Pratt, 2013; Robinson and Clifford, 2012; Ron and Timothy, 2013; Spilkova and Fialova, 2013; Updhyay and Sharma, 2014; Wan and Chan, 2013).

For this study, a literature review based on a meta-analysis style approach was conducted. Generally, there were three steps involved in completing the process of a systematic review, as presented in Table 3.1. The first step was the review of the literature was undertaken by using the Google Scholar search engine. Google Scholar is a free web search engine that indexes the full text of scholarly literature across numerous fields and disciplines and it is the world's largest academic search engine and database.

The second step involved the search for terms representing 'food tourism development', 'tourist food consumption', 'tourist characteristics' and 'production-consumption linkages'. Key words from the title and abstract were combined to find relevant scholarly tourism resources. Alternatively, several other important search terms for examples '*food tourism*', '*tourism destination development*', '*foodie and food tourist*', '*tourism and agricultural production*' and '*what is food tourism?*', were included to add variations and scopes related to this research. These search terms were identified from various food and tourism resources including digital and physical copies of articles, including full-text journal articles, technical reports, preprints, theses, books, and other documents.

For the third step, the literature and themes were sifted by double manual checking through the reading of titles and abstracts to eliminate any articles that did not address the scope of this study. Similar terms or phrases (e.g., food tourism, culinary tourism, and gastronomy tourism) were also checked to avoid any redundancies from the literature and research themes. In addition, several linked references were identified from academic papers. Only sources in English were included for the systematic review and there was no limit imposed on the timing of publication. Overall, 75 papers were identified from the year 1973 to 2018 related within the scope of this study. The final themes were recorded and presented in Table 3.1 of Meta-analysis. The systematic reviews presented in the Meta-analysis table indicate the themes and categories that were read and coded based on the proposed research objectives.

Table 3.1: Meta-analysis of food tourism related themes developed for this study

| AUTHORS   |      | FTD | TFC | FP | TC | PCL | QUAN | QUAL |
|---|------|-----|-----|----|----|-----|------|------|
| BRYDEN, J.M.  | 1973 |     |     | X  |    |     |      | X    |
| PEREZ, LA. Jr.  | 1973 |     |     | X  |    |     |      | X    |
| LEIPER, N.  | 1979 | X   |     |    |    |     |      | X    |
| RANDALL, E., AND SANJUR, D.                                 | 1981 |     | X   |    |    |     | X    | X    |
| BELISLE, F.J.   | 1983 |     |     | X  |    | X   |      | X    |
| BELISLE, F.J.   | 1984 | X   | X   | X  |    | X   |      | X    |
| SMITH S.L.J.  | 1994 |     |     | X  |    |     |      |      |
| TELFER, D.J., AND WALL, G.                                  | 1996 |     | X   | X  |    | X   |      | X    |
| BESSIERE, J.  | 1998 | X   |     |    |    |     |      | X    |
| BALOGLU, S., AND McCLEARY, K.W.                             | 1999 | X   |     |    | X  |     | X    |      |
| MOMSEN, J.H.  | 2000 |     |     | X  |    |     |      | X    |
| HJALAGER, A-M., AND CARIGLIANO, M.A.                        | 2000 |     |     |    |    |     |      | X    |
| TORRES, R.  | 2003 |     |     | X  |    |     | X    | X    |
| DURAND, G. E., HEATH, E., AND ALBERTS, N.                   | 2003 |     |     |    |    |     | X    |      |
| BOYNE, S., HALL, D., AND WILLIAMS, F.                       | 2003 |     | X   |    |    |     |      | X    |
| BOYNE, S., AND HALL, D.                                     | 2004 | X   |     |    |    |     |      | X    |
| MITCHELL, R., AND HALL, D.                                  | 2003 |     | X   |    | X  |     |      | X    |
| BEERLI, A., AND MARTIN, J.D.                                | 2004 | X   |     |    | X  |     | X    |      |
| HENDERSON, J.C.   | 2004 | X   |     | X  |    |     |      | X    |
| OOSTERVEAR, P.  | 2006 |     | X   |    |    |     |      | X    |
| LOPEZ, X.A.A., AND MARTIN, B.G.                             | 2006 | X   |     | X  | X  |     |      | X    |
| IGNATOVE, E., AND SMITH, S.                                 | 2006 |     |     |    | X  |     |      | X    |
| DURAND, G.E., AND HEATH, E.                                 | 2006 | X   |     | X  |    |     |      | X    |
| OKUMUS, B., OKUMUS, F., AND MCKERCHER, B.                   | 2007 | X   |     |    |    |     |      | X    |
| TIKKANEN, I.  | 2007 |     |     |    | X  |     |      |      |
| KNIAZEVA, M., AND VENKATESH, A.                             | 2007 |     | X   |    |    |     |      | X    |
| WADOWLOWSKA ET AL.  | 2008 |     | X   |    |    |     | X    |      |
| EVERETT, S., AND AITCHISON, C.                              | 2008 | X   | X   | X  | X  |     |      | X    |
| DEALE, C., NORMAN, W.C., AND JODICE, W.                     | 2008 | X   | X   | X  |    | X   |      |      |
| SMITH, S.L.J., AND XIAO, H.                                 | 2008 |     |     | X  |    | X   | X    |      |
| GREEN, G.P., AND DOUGHERTY, M.L.                            | 2008 | X   | X   | X  |    |     | X    | X    |
| EVERETT, S.   | 2009 | X   | X   |    | X  |     |      |      |
| HENDERSON, J.C.   | 2009 | X   |     |    |    |     |      | X    |
| KIM, YG., EVES, A., AND SCARLES, C.                         | 2009 |     | X   |    |    |     |      | X    |
| HJALAGER, A-M., AND CARIGLIANO, M.A.                        | 2000 |     |     |    |    |     |      | X    |
| ZAINAL, A., ZALI, A.Z., AND KASSIM, M.N.                    | 2009 | X   |     |    |    |     |      |      |
| SIMS, R.  | 2009 | X   | X   | X  | X  |     |      | X    |
| AB KARIM, S., AND CHI, C.G.Q.                               | 2010 |     |     |    |    |     | X    |      |
| HARRINGTON, R.J AND OTTENBACHER, M.C.                       | 2010 |     |     |    |    |     |      | X    |
| RENKO, S., RENKO, N., AND POLONIJO, T.                      | 2010 |     |     |    |    |     | X    |      |
| DURAND, G. E., HEATH, E., AND ALBERTS, N.                   | 2010 | X   |     |    |    |     | X    |      |
| BERTELLA, G.  | 2011 | X   |     | X  |    |     |      | X    |
| OTTENBACHER, M.C., AND HARRINGTON, R.J.                     | 2011 | X   |     |    | X  |     |      | X    |
| LIN, Y-C., PEARSON, T.E., AND CAI, L.A.                     | 2011 |     |     |    |    |     |      | X    |
| HALKIER, H.   | 2012 | X   |     | X  | X  |     |      |      |
| KIM, Y.G., AND EVES, A.                                     | 2012 |     | X   |    |    |     | X    |      |
| MAK, A.H.N., LUMBERS, M., AND EVES, A.                      | 2012 |     | X   |    |    |     | X    |      |
| KASTELHOLZ, E., CARNEIRO, M.J., MARQUES, C.P., AND LIMA, J. | 2012 |     | X   |    |    |     |      |      |
| ALONSO, A.D., AND LUI, Y.                                   | 2012 | X   |     |    |    |     |      | X    |
| LERTPUTTARAK, S.  | 2012 | X   | X   |    |    |     | X    |      |
| MAK, A.H., LUMBER, M., AND CHANG, R.C.Y.                    | 2012 |     | X   |    | X  |     | X    |      |
| HORNG, J-S., AND TSAI, C-T.                                 | 2012 | X   |     |    |    |     | X    | X    |
| EVERETT, S.   | 2012 | X   | X   | X  |    |     |      | X    |
| KIM, Y.G., EVES, A., AND SCARLES, C.                        | 2013 |     | X   |    |    |     | X    |      |
| MAK, A.H., LUMBER, M., EVES, A., AND CHANG, R.C.Y.          | 2013 |     | X   |    |    |     | X    |      |
| SLOCUM, S.L., and EVERETT, S.                               | 2013 |     | X   |    |    |     |      | X    |
| SEO, S., YUN, N., AND KIM, O.Y.                             | 2014 | X   |     |    |    |     | X    |      |
| ROBINSON, R.N.S., AND GETZ, D.                              | 2014 | X   |     |    | X  |     | X    |      |
| SOTRIADIS, M.D.   | 2015 | X   |     |    |    |     |      | X    |
| MUSSO, F., AND FRANCCIONI, B.                               | 2015 |     |     | X  |    |     |      |      |
| CHEN, Q., AND HUANG, R.                                     | 2016 | X   |     |    | X  |     | X    |      |
| YEOMAN, I., AND MCMAHON-BEATTIE, U.                         | 2016 |     |     |    |    |     |      | X    |
| FRISVOLL, S., FORBORD, M., AND BLAKESAUNE, A.               | 2016 |     | X   |    | X  |     | X    | X    |
| NELSON, V.  | 2016 | X   |     |    |    |     |      | X    |
| ALDERIGHI, M., BIANCHI, C., AND LORENZINI, E.               | 2016 | X   |     |    |    |     | X    |      |
| BJORK, P., AND KAUPPINEN-RAISANEN, H.                       | 2016 | X   |     |    | X  |     | X    |      |
| KASTENHOLZ, E., EUSEBIO, C., AND CERNEIRO, M.J.             | 2016 | X   |     |    | X  |     |      |      |
| JAMES, L. AND HALKIER, H.                                   | 2016 | X   |     | X  |    |     |      | X    |
| ROBINSON, R.N.S., AND GETZ, D.                              | 2016 | X   | X   |    | X  |     | X    |      |
| TSAI, C-T. (S) AND WANG, Y-C.                               | 2016 | X   |     |    |    |     | X    |      |
| BOESEN, SUNDBO AND SUNDBO                                   | 2017 |     |     | x  |    | X   |      | X    |

|  |      |           |           |           |           |          |           |
|--|------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|-----------|
| LEVITT, J.A, ZHANG, P., DIPIETRO, R.B., AND MENG, F. | 2017 | X         |           |           | X         |          |           |
| HULLER, S., HEINY, J., AND LEONHAUSER, U.            | 2017 |           | X         |           |           |          | X         |
| ROBINSON, R.N.S., GET, D., AND DOLNICAR, S.          | 2018 | X         |           | X         |           | X        |           |
| MADALENO, A., EUSEBIO, C., AND VARUM, C.             | 2018 | X         |           | X         |           | X        |           |
|  |      | <b>36</b> | <b>28</b> | <b>23</b> | <b>21</b> | <b>6</b> | <b>29</b> |
|  |      |           |           |           |           |          | <b>42</b> |

\*FTD: FOOD TOURISM DEVELOPMENT; TFC: TOURIST FOOD CONSUMPTION; FP: FOOD PRODUCTION; TC: TOURIST CHARACTERISTIC; PCL: PRODUCTION-CONSUMPTION LINKAGES

Source: Author

The themes in Table 3.1 are divided according to the three research objectives as explained in Chapter 1, as well as how this entire chapter is structured. Tourist Food Consumption (TFC) and Tourist Characteristic (TC) themes were related to Objective 2, Food Production (FP) theme is involved in the literature for Objective 1 and Production and Consumption Linkages (PCL) theme is specified to assess Objective 3. The measurement of the particular themes is an important tool in scrutinizing the theories, concepts, strategies, challenges, methods and approaches to seek a better understanding of food tourism development in different contexts and regions. According to Lin, Pearson and Cai (2011), by understanding the particular responses elicited by food and food-related subjects, the problem faced by destination producers' and stakeholders' problems can be minimized and the competitiveness of the destinations can be improved. The subsequent sections explore the themes from the meta-analysis in more detail.

### 3.3 Food tourism and destination development

The meta-analysis (Table 3.1) shows a large proportion of work on food tourism relationships and contributions to destination development, not just in the tourism sector but the entire region. Lieper (1979) divided tourism perspectives into human, geography, resources, and industry. He defines tourism destinations as "tourist destination regions"; locations that attract tourists to stay temporarily and contain features that inherently contribute to that attraction. Even though Lieper's study was very broad as tourism was still a new industry at the time, and not yet embedded in many sub-tourism sectors, his context of tourism contribution became a core antecedent of food tourism at a destination, as more people travel for food experiences (Bessiere, 1998; Hall and Sharples, 2003). As Okumus, Okumus and McKercher (2007) depicted in the broadest sense, food has gained a higher profile as a pull factor in a destination and food

can play an important role in differentiating a destination in a meaningful way. In addition, because cuisines are 'branded' by nationality the opportunity exists to create a positive association between a style of food and a destination so food tourism can be an instrument of economic development.

Despite the development of the body of knowledge that links food tourism and destination development, it is important to note that the earliest study identified some major challenges to implementing food tourism at a destination. Belisle (1984) critically examined the expansion of Jamaican food production and process. The development has close links with tourism, noting that progress was hampered by numerous obstacles including agricultural work attitudes, unequal land distribution, technological limitations, and marketing deficiencies. It leads to what Pecqueur (1989) describes as local or destination development as a method of mobilizing various actors, resulting in a strategy to adapt to outside forces as a collective, cultural and regional identity. The dynamic linkages of local 'actors' seem correlated with the issue raised by Belisle (1984). However, writing more than 10 years later, Bessièrè (1998) found the medium of destination 'heritage component', and more particularly food is likely to be in a tourist attraction, integration and social dynamic, referring to the success of rural France in valorising destination culinary heritage with the concepts of:

- Farm fresh products
- Farmstead inns
- Family inns
- Stay on the farm
- Snack on the farm
- Local culinary events

The outcomes of culinary resources and new trends in gastronomy utilized in France can be perceived as a collective concern by the local communities, who claim, defend and praise culinary heritage development, viewing it as a source of income and a tool for local development and new social aspirations (Bessièrè, 1998). Handszuh (2000) argues that local food holds much potential to enhance sustainability in tourism, whereby tourism planners and entrepreneurs should collaborate to satisfy consumers and for social integration; contributing to the authenticity of the destination; strengthening the

local economy; and providing ways and means for food resources, both local and imported, to be handled. The engagement with settings that comprise economic, cultural and social activities and the development of a set of marketing actions that ensures the best possible positioning in a highly competitive market when it comes to attracting tourists (Beerli and Martin, 2005). In this context, local food could reinforce and reshape the destination as a tourism commodity through food tourism, creating competitive and branding advantages (Handerson, 2009; Beerli and Martin, 2004). Food can be harnessed for wider economic advancement, agricultural and food sector business investments and food contributes to brand identity, enhances destination attractiveness, and promotes economic development within regions by supporting local agri-economies and avoiding the importation of expensive foreign food (Hsu, Robinson and Scott, 2018).

In a different study, Henderson (2004) contextualized the linkages between food and tourism are forged in areas lacking a strong culinary identity, encouraged by authorities in pursuit of the economic rewards of food tourism, and often viewed as a catalyst for rural development with a capacity to boost local agricultural production. Henderson's work reflects the previous concerns and application of food tourism in Jamaica (Belisle, 1984), France (Bessière, 1998) and Indonesia (Telfer and Wall, 1996) that are previously explained. These examples of cases (see Belisle, 1984; Bessière, 1998; Telfer and Wall, 1996) also identify the linkages of food tourism and destination as a means of 'exploiting and establishing food quality' with gastronomy tourism initiatives concept established by Hjalager (2002: 33). DuRand and Heath (2006) defend the promotion of local and regional food as an effective way of supporting and strengthening the tourism and agricultural sectors of local economies by preserving culinary heritage and adding value to the authenticity of the destination; lengthening and enhancing the local and regional tourism resource base; and stimulating agricultural production. Another perspective emerges from Lopez and Martin (2006), which relates to food tourism and gastronomy - as a tourism resource. It is not only appreciated for its intrinsic value but also at a symbolic level, in that it is representative of people and territories.

The representation of people and place through the symbolic feature of local food is echoed in Everett's (2012) perspective, who argues that food represents more than purely an economic commodity. It is a multidimensional artefact capable of linking issues including the relationships between place and identity. Therefore, the perspective indicates the significant influence of food towards the positioning of a tourism destination. Lin, Pearson and Cai (2011) referred to the role of food in the specific area as essential to guarantee its success as a tourism destination. Food in this context, is defined as "a product frequently consumed or associated with specific celebrations and/or seasons, normally transmitted from one generation to another, made accurately in a specific way according to the gastronomic heritage, with little or no processing/manipulation, distinguished and known because of its sensory properties and associated with a certain local area, region or country" (Guerrero, Guardia, Xicola, Verbeke, Vanhonacker, Biemans and Hersleth, 2009: 348).

The food role is important not in terms of high expense dining experiences, but the enjoyment of the most alluring places that offer a unique experience, be it a tray of cockles whilst 'breathing in the wonderful fresh iodine aromas' of the sea (Benson, 2002: 2), or a national campaign of an Italian regional food called 'Eataly'. Corigliano (2002); proving that the success of Italian gastronomy is the consequence of its food is blended in the Italian culture and connected to the people's lifestyle. These authors defend a previous study of Bessière (1998) about food as evidence of a powerful destination 'vehicle', conveying deep-rooted meanings and abstract concepts (food as a symbol, a sign of communion, a class marker and an emblem) that express and reflect the uniqueness of a specific place.

Local food can be an asset to integrate tourism development as a result of its ability to symbolize place and culture. Food tourism contributes to aspects of local economic output such as sustainable destination development in terms of cultural identity and local production (Everett and Slocum, 2013; Hjalager and Johansen, 2013; Telfer and Hashimoto, 2013). Mei, Lerfald and Bråtå (2017) argued that the mutual benefits that food contributes also suggest that government agencies and industry practitioners in the relevant industries must work together to achieve the tourism destination competitiveness. The

engagement of food and destination is also illustrated by Sims (2010) in assisting tourism development in some ways. Firstly, the promotion of iconic food and drink products are helping to create an image for a particular destination, ensuring the attraction of new visitors and the facilitation of long-term economic sustainability. This context of food promotion as a tool for destination image is verified by Ab Karim and Chi (2010) that the use of meaningful food information through promotion might affect visitors' decision making. Throughout the process with the information exchange (between tourists and tourism industry players) - knowing the customers' behavioural information is ultimately crucial for effective promotions. Secondly, local products (food and drink) promise the all-around social, economic and environmental benefits for the hosts (destination) and guests (tourists).

Lin, Pearson and Cai (2011) emphasize the engagement between food and place based on three primary factors; physical standards and ambiance of the eating place; quality of food along with the accessibility of the food service locations; and human factors (service quality; friendliness). These factors might be defined as the basis of the food-place relationships, meaning that guests or customers will be looking into these criteria while choosing where to eat. However, the foods and places segment is a full spectrum to explore. It incorporates the intrinsic and extrinsic human behaviours (dietary compliant, income, taste preferences) and physical influences (cleanliness, price, the scale of dining premises, social affluent) that could be distinguished from one person to another. These factors give access to a more accurate understanding of the importance of food tourism engagement at the destination.

Given that food undeniably helps project the destination distinctiveness of identity and culture, Chen and Huang (2016) recently have reinforced this idea by outlining a more concise approach based on the setting in China for strategic food tourism destination development. The ideas are narrowed down into the context, which include producing and promoting brands to verify the authenticity of specific local food products and identifying a strong product differentiation. Several case studies have identified food as a strong local tourism product. For example, Au and Law (2002) note that the increase of tourists to Hong Kong was due to a growing number of restaurants that provide an abundance of

authentic local cuisines and Rimmington and Yuskel (1998) agreed that Turkish food is the main reason tourists revisited Turkey and boosted overall travel satisfaction.

Other themes introduced by Chen and Huang (2016) such as regional specialities, the establishment of a food court or Food Street to feature and portray all the local food and taking advantage of multimedia and media tools or holding food festivals/events, echo the similarities of previous studies. In addition, there are other interesting themes related to the development of exciting and attractive food routes in combination with related food stories. There is the history which creates a unique dining *servicescape* and designing local products or merchandise. These themes illustrate a different approach to how local food enhances destination development. Mason and O'Mahony (2007) demonstrated an important example of food routes or trails implemented in Australia which involved historic antecedents, a concentration of product in a particular place, its association with local wines or food product, the attraction of a particular personality or chef, and the peculiarities of food/wine production and processing. The food trails also placed value on direct involvements with restaurants and local producers or food retailers, as projected by Renting, Marsden and Banks (2003: 400), "*it is the fact that [the product] is embedded with value-laden information when it reaches the consumer, for example, printed on packaging or communicated at the point of retail. This enables the consumer to make connections with the place or space of production and, potentially, with the values of the people involved and production methods employed.*" Thus, it corroborates Sims (2010) and Boyne and Hall (2004) in that local food does not just help to convey a sense of authenticity and uniqueness, it reinforces the development of the external image of a destination.

Seo, Yun and Kim (2014) stressed that local and unique cuisine can improve food image and attraction of a country, which stimulates travel experience through the local culture and food consumption. Several authors (e.g. Ignatov and Smith, 2006; Hjalager, 2004; Lee, Parker and Scott, 2015) have argued the food travel experience depends on tourists' behaviours (Ignatov and Smith, 2006), diet preferences (Hjalager, 2004), social values, travel preferences (Hjalager, 2004) and motivations; and attitudes towards food-related

behaviours. Based on the analysis of different food tourism experience from different literatures, Chen and Huang (2016) argued that food tourism refers to a term that incorporates tourists taking tasting, or experiencing a particular type of food and the specific production region, learning local culture and food features as their primary motivation.

Getz, Robinson, Andersson and Vijjivic (2014: 21) strongly suggest that food tourism planning should take into account the entire system (destination and visitors), seeking both to minimize and ameliorate the negative impacts and strengthen the positives. They suggest that it is crucial to sustain food tourism value. Elements that incorporate value-added activities are established in food tourism activities to ensure it benefits the destinations and local businesses. For that reason, the demand of various tourist segments for “different” experiences, activities, or simply for exploring new unique locations of the world are substantially contributing to the emergence of new travel destinations (Alonso and Liu, 2012). Okumus et al. (2013) and Ryu and Jang (2006) suggested it is thus critical for destinations to investigate the importance of food tourism based on demand. Effective strategies should also be planned based on the understanding of the needs, expectations and behaviours of tourists.

From another perspective, the importance of linking food tourism and destination capabilities has been showcased by several prominent regions successful in implementing food as a core destination product, for instance, Italy, France and Japan. Seo and Yun (2015) perceived this as where local food significantly symbolizes a place, destinations can capitalise on their cuisines through differentiation and promotion of food tourism. Several destinations are on their way to establishing food tourism (see Figure 3.3).

Figure 3.3: Emerging food tourism destinations

|  |  |
|--|--|
| <b>Chongqing, China</b><br>(Chen and Huang, 2016)                | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Chongqing food enjoys the reputation as 'Food in China, eat in Chongqing' due to its unique culinary resources (Zhang, Liu and Zhang, 2009).</li> </ul>   |
| <b>Mpondoland, South Africa</b><br>(Giampiccolo and Kalis, 2012) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• "The opportunity for community members to provide food and associated services to the visitor <i>motse</i> [a visitor homestead at Blouberg] could play a significant part in achieving the principles and objectives set by a community-based tourism development approach." (Boonzaaier and Philip, 2007: 31).</li> </ul> |
| <b>Korea</b><br>(Seo, Yun and Kim, 2014)                         | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The celebrity promotion of Korean cuisines and travel destinations attracts an increasing number of tourists each year, where food has become a recurring theme in Korea's promotional strategy (World Tourism Organization, 2012).</li> </ul>  |

Source: Author

With the growing global interest in foodways, cuisine, and gastronomy, it seems likely that an increasing number of destinations are attempting to use their cuisines and culinary traditions as a tourism asset to enrich and differentiate their offerings as an attraction for potential tourists (Okumus et al., 2013). As food and cuisine are receiving more attention and recognition, regions began extensively to fill in the opportunities to develop local food tourism as a tourist product and destination attraction. Unique cuisines could improve the food image and attraction of a country, generating the travel experience through local culture and food consumption (Seo, Yun and Kim, 2014). The chapter now turns to a discussion of literature related to the research objectives.

### 3.4 The role of food production in food tourism development context

Food production and tourism have been studied from different perspectives and backgrounds. "Food tourism system" is becoming important and complex. This is due to the fact that the players have to meet the complex demand of tourists and the global tourism industry. The early literature on the impact of tourism on food production developed by Belisle (1983, 1984) and Bryden (1973: 218) covered a range of investigations in the Caribbean. The primary issue of leakages reduces the net economic impact of tourism in the Caribbean, including the degree of foreign ownership in the industry, the employment of skilled foreigners and professional industries, and government provisions on infrastructure and incentives (Belisle, 1983).

The issues also involved the failure to generate economic development due to the excessive dependence on imported goods and outsourced food production. In light of this, Perez (1973: 480) was convinced that “in converting former agricultural monoculture economies to travel monoculture, tourism renews and reinforces the historical process of underdevelopment.” Food production for tourism since its emergence as an area of study in the 1970s was predominantly related to local agricultural economies. Building on this, more recent work by Lopez and Martin (2006) debated that agro-food products have achieved new levels of appreciation as a result of quality designations. In this context, agro-food products can be considered as gastronomic tourism resources by using tourism as a tool for product promotion and distribution. Lopez and Martin point out some of the tourism and agro-food production strategies as follows:

- Basic tourism infrastructure (restaurants, rural guest houses, hotels, etc.) is developed so that food producers can market their products to local establishments);
- Museums, wine centres, educational centres, food events, and markets are established and organized to enable the public to learn more about the assets of a given area; and
- Tourism promotion in a particular area is linked to the existence of quality agro-food products.

Huller, Heiny and Leonhauser (2017) referred to the effects of tourism as providing opportunities for local agri-food producers to improve their socio-economic status and create potential market growth for the surplus of agricultural production. The tourism sector thereby not only offers opportunities for non-agricultural entrepreneurial activities but also for increasing income-generating activities of local agri-food producers. Cocklin and Dibden (2004) argued the orientation shift in food supply from production to consumption, the changing patterns of land usage and the increasing importance of retail chains in food purchasing and distribution patterns. By that, a strong tourism economy caused the producers to diversify their production and economic activities. As Hegarty and Przezborska (2005: 64) stated with regard to this case, ‘the primary motivation factor for operators to diversify their economic-base through

tourism is related to their choices to not overly be dependent on agricultural income'.

Meanwhile, Belisle (1984) had gathered the input of Jamaican agricultural food-related sector between the 1970s and 1980s. In comparison with a more recent study of food production in North Jutland, Denmark by James and Halkeir (2016), they indicated that with the decline and inactive food tourism practice which shifted into a more generalize tourism promotion; the case of Jamaican small-scale agriculture and food production has its own conflict that was interfered by the colonialism traces. Cargill (1979: 96) explained, "Virtually everything about Jamaica was the creation of the colonial power. The sugar cane plant was imported, which brought wealth to the estates. Most of the estate owners were absentees and lived in England. The ancestors of what everybody now called Jamaicans were imported. Even the main protein for the slaves, salted cod, was imported. Jamaica was an estate put together for the convenience, the defence and the enrichment of England; and those purposes were the sole reason for the island's existence." This quote from Cargill showed the conflict between small /peasant agriculture and major plantation that were mostly regulated by colonial powers. This inhibits the growth of local food production due to competition for resources (land, labour) and biasness.

Many studies, as explained by Telfer and Wall (1996), warned of the major issues that could affect tourist destinations when the tourism industry relies on imported foods (Belisle, 1983; Taylor, Morison and Fleming, 1991; Wilkinson, 1987). Telfer and Wall (1996) also reinforced the approach of 'increasing local resources reliance'. They clarified the relationships between tourism and food production which can be placed on a continuum which resulted from the conflict between coexistence and symbiosis. Within this continuum, agriculture and fishing, for example, can be seen as being more than sources of food, as they may contribute positively to tourism experiences through the landscapes and rural activities that visitors can observe. Food and tourism are part of a systematic network of production; in this case, tourism alone is not able to increase the value of quality food (Montanary and Staniscia, 2009).

The complex relationship between food production and tourism can be observed from past failures in predicting such linkages (Momsen 1998; Telfer and Wall, 1996, 2000). According to evidence in the early 2000s, Torres (2003) argues that many factors influence the elements of building mutual linkages of food production and tourism, including:

- Demand-related;
- Supply or production-related; and
- Marketing/intermediate related

Torres (2003) prolonged the discussions of the important aspect of demand-related factors in defining tourism and production linkages. She suggested that tourist food consumption and preferences are also important in defining tourism and agriculture relationships. Studies such as Telfer (2000) provided the theoretical basis for Torres's (2003) study by suggesting that the opportunity for creating demand for local foods is greatest among certain nationalities and more adventurous non-mass tourists. Furthermore, in terms of supply or production related element, factors concern of physical conditions; the nature of local farming systems; and the quality, quantity, reliability, seasonality, the elevated price of local production, technological capabilities and the existence of food processing facilities also influence the linkages. Finally, some of the most important marketing/ intermediate issues are:

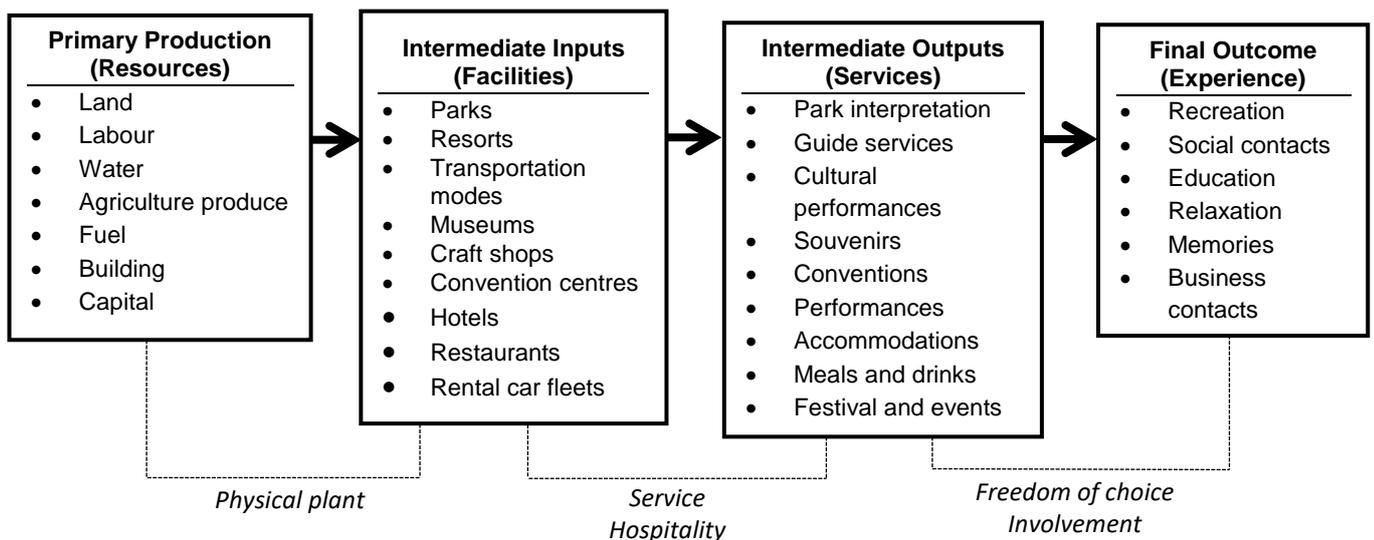
- The availability and quality of regional transportation, storage.
- Distribution infrastructure is necessary to facilitate linkages.
- A lack of communication and exchange of information between the tourism industry and local producers also represents a significant constraint.
- Entrenched monopoly-marketing networks.
- Mistrust between producers, suppliers, and tourism industry representatives.
- Corrupt marketing networks.
- The informal nature of local farming operations.

However, despite the quality devoted to assess and reduce the tourism and production scarcities, this literature is still unable to identify the most effective strategy or process to merge production-tourism linkages. Many prior studies

(e.g., Andreatta 1998; Belisle, 1983, 1984; Momsen, 1998; Telfer 1996, 2000; Telfer and Wall 2000) lack the holistic approach needed to investigate tourism and production linkages that extend beyond a narrow assessment of certain geographical locations or food systems. Local food tourism in other words requires strategic decisions about supplying food products and services relevant to particular types of tourists. In addition, the organisational micro-dynamics of the interaction between private and public actors within food and tourism and around the destination become a specific focus point because it is through these interactions that particular food experiences for tourism consumption are selected, communicated, and made available for consumption (Halkier, 2012).

Smith (1994) set out a model of the tourism production function, which indicates how tourism production requires the active involvement of consumers in the production. Smith argued that tourism is not an 'industry' in the conventional sense as there is no single production process, no homogeneous product and no location confined market. The production process as shown in Figure 3.4 did not overlap with other initial concepts developed by other researchers but, interestingly, it defined certain identical similarities with Torres' (2003) work.

Figure 3.4: The tourism production function



Source: Smith (1994: 591)

The model is formed of four distinct elements: primary inputs (resources exploitation); intermediate inputs (facilities to convert the resources into a product); intermediate outputs (tourism services to commercialize the product);

and final outcome (tourist experience generated from product involvement activities). Each stage incorporates the transferable aspects of physical plant, service and hospitality and freedom of choice and involvement. Smith (1994) places consumption as part of the production process, which differs from other ideas. For example, Bowen, Cox and Fox (1991) developed a conceptual model of market linkages between tourism and agriculture, outlining the involvements of sectors (external economy, visitors, visitors industry, agricultural production and agriculturally based services, and resources). In contrast, Shaw and Williams (2002: 24) identified the distinctions between production and consumption in tourism but not their interplay. Shaw and Williams also addressed the nature of production and the quality of labour at the point of service delivery, which they argue is an essential part of the labour production process and related to a high degree of self-provisioning. Conversely, tourism consumption or 'participation in tourism' is conditioned by tourist social structures and life values more than just the end product (tourist) in the tourism process (Shaw and Williams, 2002: 24).

Despite the different ideas of the transferable values of the tourism product to the end user's 'participation', the emergence of tourism in the local production system is a viable alternative, as identified by Bowen et al. (1991), tourism-induced improvement may encourage the production of high-value, non-traditional agricultural products as well as stimulating the production landscapes and services. Guthrie, Guthrie, Lawson and Cameron (2006) realized that a growing desire for better food not only benefited producers, but it increases perceptive mindful customers who observe and attain knowledge on how food is grown, distributed and sold. This type of consumers, who are very concerned about how food is produced, proves that local food products can appeal to tourists on a number of levels, from the simple demand to purchase and consume popular food product as symbol of place, through to the complex and deep-seated quest for a more authentic food and environmental consequences of contemporary production (Sims, 2009). Indeed, Guthrie et al. (2006) pointed out the emerging debate that questions how the whole food production system works. This debate is supplemented by a movement including policymakers, representative bodies and special interest organizations that promotes the need to adopt ethical food practices to reflect changing consumer, environmental and

societal demands. James and Halkier (2016) highlight the traditional 'feeding tourists' paradigm, where the transformation of raw materials into meals involves two very different types of catering practices, namely self-catering and eating out. This is in contrast to the current food production paradigm, particularly in local quality food, which played a weak role in North Jutland (Denmark) development strategies because tourism promotion within the region was much more prominent. Halkier (2012) noted the connectivity to local tourism as part of the local food production scene, and handling can be integrated with local players (e.g., farmers' shops, farmers' markets and restaurants) and creates additional economic activity in and around the destination. Consequently, Everett and Slocum (2013) also found that it could expand economic opportunities cumulatively for producers and food service providers, encouraging economic growth through job creation and increases in earnings. These suggestions and views claimed that the collaboration of tourism and food production would redefine the local socio-economic paradigms and vast market opportunity for domestic food producers to expand.

Destination development requires an accurate understanding of the importance of food tourism. This context of destination development is emphasized by Sotiriadis (2015), who supported the perspective of McKercher, Okumus and Okumus (2008), that "destination development" to enrich and differentiate the destination's food supply process as its primary function. Robinson and Getz (2014) clarified the destination supply of food tourism is more on how to plan, develop and market food tourism or its connections to agriculture, fisheries, heritage, and culture. In this notion, food tourism supply chain is linked with local producers, tourism-related business, and establishing a network within the industry at all levels (Sotiriadis, 2015). In line with the notion, food tourism creates opportunities for small producers and synergies with tourism-related businesses and contributes to reinforcing, enriching and differentiating a destination offering.

Tourism and food production contribute to each one another, reflecting the destination or place development. The approaches are more about how to plan, develop, and market food tourism or linkages to food production, among other things (Robinson and Getz, 2016). One of the key subjects in food production is

the interpretation of the local food according to local producers. Sims (2010: 328) identifies four different perspectives of understanding based on her qualitative findings:

- The local product (food) was one that used local ingredients and not just something that was manufactured in the region; “It’s a local product if it’s grown here”;
- The local product (food) should have some form of historical and symbolic association with the region; “Rooted in people’s minds with an element of tradition”;
- The local product (food) is “adding value” to the product within the region and supporting the local economy by employing local people;
- The local product (food) was bound-up in the importance of safeguarding the health and the local environment; “providing food, nourishing food.”

Sims conceptualized these revelatory elements as a form of production employed by a particular producer, reflecting the producers’ vision of how the food sector should operate and why it should operate in this way. Underpinning the perspectives by Sims (2009), it is a rational move to strengthen the local products based on the descriptions contemplated by the author in order to maintain and enhance local economic and social vitality (e.g., human capital in rural areas), creating back linkages between the tourism and food production sectors (Boyne and Hall, 2003). Aldergihi et al. (2016) supported that attention should be paid to improve the quality and palatability of products, producers should guarantee both the quality of content and recognisability of the products in the tourist market. The focus has been on the role of producers of local speciality food in contributing to product strategy, and especially the connections between the tourism sector and food production. The link consists of many beneficial elements. First, connections generate a healthy buying and selling activity, securing the income of producers and provide essential values for the consumers or buyers. Second, such connections provide a positive positioning for local producers to increase their reputation, stronger identity and business activity. Finally, the connection of production-tourism creates a new avenue for producers to market their product by injecting strategies to cater for the tourists of the destination.

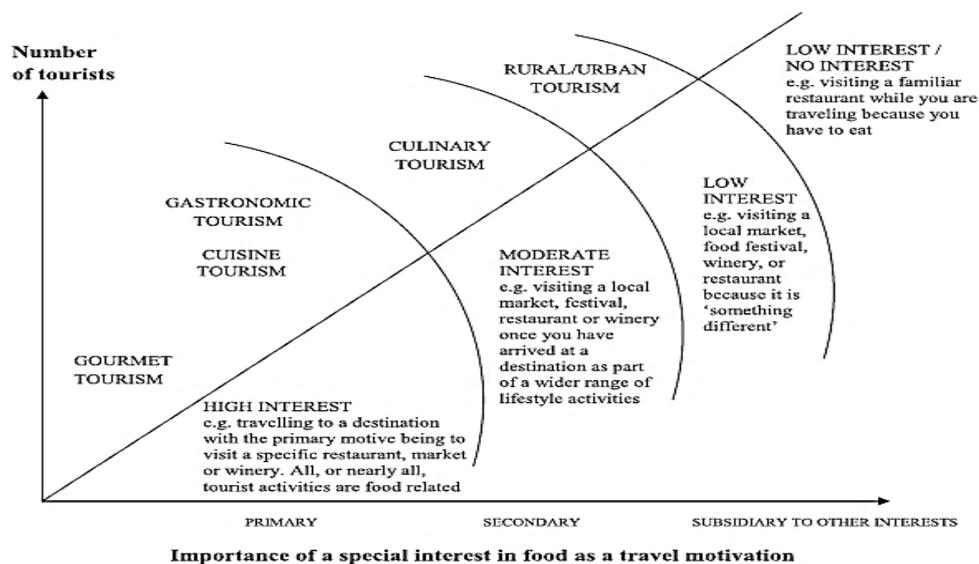
Implementing food tourism at the destination is highly related to the role of marketing in creating a successful platform to position the local food tourism project and activities. As Horng and Tsai (2012) discuss, food tourism marketing firstly involves maintaining sound relationships with the public and the media, creating authentic experiences, and obtaining the support of the government and international marketing organizations. Next, the richness and authenticity of the food and culinary heritage must be integrated into marketing activities to enhance the attractiveness of local tourism. Lastly, local governments must encourage the development of tourism including developing the food and beverage (F&B) service industry, strengthening the economy and creating job opportunities, and improving the sustainability of tourism at tourist destinations (Horng and Tsai, 2012). Food producers, therefore, must understand their roles as an aggregate in tourism to directly provide products to facilitate tourist activities away from the home environment (Smith, 1998), through the process of commodification and exchange cultural and economic/trade values of tourism (Shaw and Williams, 2002: 114).

### **3.5 Food tourist characteristics**

Food is widely accepted as an important component in creating tourist experiences. The tourism literature documents that local food influences tourist destination choices and enjoyment (Hjalager and Richards, 2002; Quan and Wang, 2004; DuRand and Heath, 2006; Fox, 2007). One of the prominent studies that explored levels of food tourism interest was Hall and Sharples (2003), who created a spectrum of the importance of a special interest in food as a travel motivation (Figure 3.5). This conceptualisation of food as part of travel motivation covers the range of interest in food tourism from (1) high interest, such as gourmet tourism, gastronomic tourism, and cuisine tourism, where food is the primary motivation for travelling; (2) moderate interest, such as culinary tourism, where tourists view food-related activities as essential to understanding a destination's local lifestyle; (3) low interest, like rural/urban tourism, through which tourists participate in food-related activities because they want different experiences; and (4) low interest/ no interest, where tourists consider food and eating as simply satisfying needs. Besides Hall and Sharples (2003), various studies including Long (2004), Tikkanen (2007) and Everett and

Aitchison (2008) concluded that food tourism refers to a term that incorporates tourists taking, tasting and experiencing a particular type of food and the specific production region, learning local culture and food features as their primary motivation. Furthermore, Bjork and Kauppinen-Raisanen (2016) in their influential work argue that, for some travellers, local food is a gateway to understanding a destination's intangible heritage, culture and local food and drinking culture.

Figure 3.5: Food tourism as special interest tourism



Source: Hall and Sharples (2003: 11)

The cultural element is one of the main aspects of food that appeals to tourists. DuRand, Heath and Alberts (2003) referred to the commitment of travellers to experience local culture through food, creating a profound impact on domestic tourism and destination development through:

- Stimulating and supporting agricultural activity and food production;
- Preventing authentic exploitation;
- Enhancing destination attractiveness;
- Empowerment of the community (job creating and entrepreneurship);
- Reinforcing destination identity.

In this context, food tourist characteristic is influenced by destination culture, as Ignatov and Smith (2006) argued that food tourism varies from normal food consumption, as it offers many possibilities to develop food-related narratives

that convey local culture including local history and attractions. However, food and culture antecedent as discussed in the previous literature (see e.g., Robinsons et al., 2014; Robinsons and Getz, 2016; Pearson et al., 2011; Montanari, 2006) that defined as the core attraction for tourist seems to be a 'rigid' understanding that might not be useful in the future scope of understanding food tourist purposes at a destination. Lopez and Martin (2006) argued that another way in which food and gastronomy are appreciated as a tourism resource is through its compatibility with new trends of cultural consumption. Gastronomy enables people to approach culture in a more experiential and participative way (postmodernist), one that is not merely contemplative. Moreover, exploited in certain ways it can to generate tourism products of high added value and, occasionally, an exclusive nature (post-tourism).

Besides Lopez and Martin (2006) perspective of food tourism that shape a trend in cultural consumption, Ignatov and Smith (2006) highlight that food tourism is a complex segment in tourism that simultaneously involves: A form of consumer behaviour, a product development strategy and marketing strategy to sell local produce (including wineries) directly to consumers and also to educate them. Henderson (2004) reinforced that visitors spent 13% of their expenditure on food in Singapore and the government is intending to take advantage of its linkages with other branches of tourism and food manufacturing, resulting in intensified development initiatives. In recent years, the role of food tourists' enjoyment and experimentation with local food is seen to be a precursor of the destination development that stimulates the local economy and competitive advantage. The impact of the food tourist to a destination in establishing a food tourism product is important, as defined by Kim, Kim and Goh (2011), it is an initiative by the destinations to acknowledge the food tourist motivations and behaviours. Recent evidence for instance, Levitt, Zhang, DiPietro and Meng (2017) argued that it is important to consider that food tourists are not a homogenous group with standardized characteristics and lifestyles. However, Kline, Greenwood and Joyner (2015) find a paucity of research in defining food tourists as distinct criteria. It is worth noting that according to Harrington and Ottenbacher (2010), food tourist activity is a key part of destination development proving that the food and culinary tourism products appear to be valued by

many tourists either as part of the package during the initial travel decision or as the reason for a revisit intention to the location.

According to Robinson and Getz (2014), a number of studies have sought to define the demand side of food tourists at a destination. For instance, Tikkanen (2007) identified that food tourists in Finland are stimulated by a range of motivations, according to Maslow's hierarchy of needs and motivations (Maslow, 1943). The model in Figure 3.6 developed by Tikkanen (2007) indicated that physiological needs are linked to the food itself and it is the main motivation for food tourism (alcohol, cross-border food shopping).

Figure 3.6: Sectors of food tourism in Finland classified by the hierarchy of need



Source: Tikkanen (2007: 731)

The adaptation of Maslow shows the functional approach to understand the rationale of a tourist's behaviour, in which explained by Fodness (1994), while motivation is only one among many variables that may contribute to explaining the behaviours of the tourists, it is arguably an integral variable because it is the driving force behind all behaviours. Hence, the link between Maslow's hierarchy of need with food tourism, indicates that the role of food plays in tourism is based on the needs of tourist and thus constitutes the main motivation for tourism (Tikkanen, 2007). Tikkanen also explains, safety needs in food safety and hygiene knowledge are the main motives when participating in the food safety conferences. Social needs pertained to social interaction with other people in places such as vineyard tourism and food event tourism, where food is one element in the tourism service product. Esteem needs become fulfilled in

culinary food tourism (foodways; provincial a` la carte projects) by visitors' experiences when they become familiar with new tastes in the new cultures' culinary offerings. Finally, self-actualizing needs required in activities at food trade shows or food expos that increase the visitor's knowledge and competences related to food, and which heightens his/her self-respect.

Kim, Eves and Scarles (2009) found nine motivation factors driving visitors to consume local food and beverages at a destination: exciting experiences, escape from routine, health concerns, learning knowledge, authentic experiences, togetherness, prestige, sensory appeal, and physical environment. Food tourist demographics in Kim et al.'s study identified the younger, more affluent, and better-educated travellers, motivated by unique experiences including being involved in a range of food-related experiences (e.g., cooking class, dining out, farmers' market, gourmet food shopping). The other demand-side assessments also expressed themes such as segmenting food tourist (Croce and Perri, 2010), activities and experiences (Quan and Wang, 2004), destination image (Karim and Chi, 2010) and satisfaction (Correia, Moital, Ferreira Da Costa and Peres, 2008). Despite a lack of research on food tourist travel profiles, Chen and Huang (2016) suggest that some research might overestimate the importance of food tourism and assessment should be developed from the demand side. As stated by Cooper, Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert and Wanhill (2008), the demand-side in tourism has changed radically and continues to influence all aspects of tourism today. These authors highlighted the reasons for analysing tourism demand: *"it is an essential underpinning for policy and forecasting, it provides critical information to allow the balancing of a provision of supply and demand at destinations and to better understand tourist behaviour and tourism marketplace"* (Cooper et al., 2008: 31).

In the same vein, however, a limited number of attempts to segment food tourists in relation to food tourist characteristics and tourist food involvement. Even though many previous studies claim to segment the potential food tourist, they actually mostly provide conceptual categories, or typologies, descriptive profiles, or motivation-driven group (Robinson, Getz and Dolnicar, 2018). For example, some studies have made a priori-assumptions or 'generically identified' the food tourist existence and function which does not really interpret

who they actually are (e.g., Hjalager and Richards, 2003; Long, 2003; Croce and Perri, 2010). On the other hand, Levitt, Zhang, DiPietro and Meng (2016) assessed attitudes, intentions and travel planning behaviour for potential food tourists using cluster analysis, resulting in three-cluster solutions of highest, medium and lowest level food involvement. In subsequent works Robinson, Getz and Dolnicar (2018) applied the 'omnivore-univore theory' to analyse four food-related travel segments to determine whether the food tourism market is behaviourally homogenous or whether it is more nuanced.

Meanwhile, Madaleno, Eusebio and Varum (2018) reinforced the role of inbound tourism in Portugal, by segmenting visitors' behavioural intentions regarding local food products, sociodemographic profile, consumption and purchase behaviour during and after the trip. Understanding and examining food tourist characteristics is important to respond to a need for more demand-side research to develop theory and provide a detailed understanding of foodies, food tourists, and what motivates and satisfies them (Henderson, 2009; Kivela and Crofts, 2009; Tikkanen, 2007). Research on food tourist segmentation would contribute in the development of areas such as local sustainable food systems (Kline, Knollenburg and Deale, 2014), tourist interaction in food 'festivalscape' and food events (Getz and Robinson, 2014; Mason and Paggiaro, 2012), the rise of social media usage to engage in customer knowledge management (Chua and Banerjee, 2013) and the increase in upscale cooking activities (DiPietro, Cao and Partlow, 2013). Indeed, the ability to effectively target, attract, and satisfy these market segments, through marketing campaigns and desirable food and wine products and experiences, is an important consideration for destinations that have emerging food tourism sectors (Thompson and Prideux, 2009)

Therefore, the importance of examining international tourists' association with local food is manifold. First, Bessière (1998) found that while purchasing or consuming local food products, the demand for food among visitors directly increased and contributed to local socio-economic development; second, local food can play an important role in a tourist's destination choice and decision, which provides a valuable opportunity for promoting, marketing and branding the destination (Bessière, 1998; Cohen and Avieli, 2004; Henderson, 2009;

Hjalager and Richards, 2002). Moreover, contact with local food products is an essential part of the tourism experience (Hjalager and Corigliano, 2000; Hjalager and Richards, 2002; Kim et al., 2009; Kivela and Crotts, 2006) and also plays an important role in introducing visitors to new tastes (Fields, 2002; Kivela and Crotts, 2006; Quan and Wang, 2004; Ryu and Jang, 2006). Overall, as mentioned by Robinson and Getz (2014), destinations and suppliers will have to obtain specific market intelligence regarding their target markets, but that process will be greatly facilitated by an improved knowledge base on tourist demand. In addition, the development of an instrument to simultaneously assess highly involved foodies and map their travel preferences, patterns and motivations could provide destination marketers with even clearer guidelines as to who their market is and how to access them.

### **3.6 Determinants of tourist food consumption**

Tourist food consumption literature is an emerging area of food tourism knowledge and discussion. Urry (1995) linked tourist consumption with the social practice of eating out. Urry (1995: 149) mentioned, *“Twenty or thirty years ago, this practice tended to be confined for people to the holiday period. Apart from work canteens, it was fairly rare for people to go out to restaurants for pleasure unless they were on holiday.”* According to Kim, Eves and Scarles (2013), a few studies have addressed food consumption and described local food experience in hospitality and tourism environments; from general arguments about tourist behaviour and food consumption at a tourist destination, to tourist desire for experiencing local food and beverages as part of the trips or holidays purpose. Torres (2002) and Sims (2009) accept that tourist consumption of local food products can generate direct and multiplier effects, which will benefit the local economy. Telfer and Wall (1996) stated that the consumption of locally produced food products tend to maximize the backward economic linkages (supply-side). These linkages are an imperative mechanism for stimulating local production, retaining tourism earnings in the region and improving the distribution of tourism benefits within the region (Torres, 2002).

However, few studies have investigated the factors affecting local food consumption amongst visitors (see e.g., Kastenholz, Eusébio and Carneiro, 2016; Mak, Lumbers, Eves and Chang, 2012; Skuras et al., 2006). The research on tourist consumption seems to be repetitive and lacking in innovative conceptual development. Nonetheless, the existing research on tourist food consumption would provide strong evidence and foundation in defining relevant factors that positively influence local food consumption. Kniazeva and Venkatesh (2007) refer to food consumption as a complex interplay of cultural, economic, social, political and technological factors. Koster (2009) explored tourist food consumption as a complex behaviour, with cultural, social, psychological, and sensory acceptance factors all playing a role in the decision-making process. Mak, Lumbers, Eves and Chang (2013: 327) agree and introduce the idea of the “idiosyncratic nature” of food consumption in tourism, which is indicative of its multidisciplinary nature. This view is supported by Frisvoll, Magnar and Blekesaune (2016) who also recognize this idiosyncratic nature, on the one hand, it is essentially a source of nourishment, yet on the other hand it possesses a symbolic nature. These references prompt the need to create an in-depth understanding of food consumption through tourists’ behaviours and characteristics.

As Mak et al. (2013) point out, the growing body of literature on food consumption in tourism can be distinguished into four broad areas: the role food plays as a tourism product or attraction, tourists’ food consumption behaviour or patterns, interpretation of food consumption as a form of tourist experience, and tourists’ special interests in food and beverages and related events/activities in destinations. Prior to this, Mak, Lumbers and Eves (2012) had explained these perspectives further. The first perspective focuses on how food and gastronomic products can be utilized as a source of tourist product or attraction, usually by adopting a destination marketer's perspective. The second perspective is concerned with the type of cuisine/food tourists prefer and consume in destinations, the perceived functional and symbolic importance of the cuisine/food chosen, and the salient factors in influencing tourist consumption. The third perspective examines how tourists interpret the dining or meal experience (in some cases including service quality and restaurant attributes) in the overall tourist experience, and the factors affecting their

evaluation and satisfaction. The fourth perspective focuses on tourists whose major motivation to visit a destination is for the food and beverages, or food-related events/activities in the destination locality, often referred to as gastronomy or culinary tourism. These perspectives are differentiated to provide a foundation for understanding the phenomenon of food consumption and also tourist food characteristics in tourism.

Kim, Eves and Scarles (2009) developed a model of local food consumption in a tourist destination, which identified three major sections: motivation factors (i.e. exciting experience, escape from routine, health concern, learning knowledge, authentic experience, togetherness, prestige, sensory appeal, and physical environment); demographic factors (i.e. gender, age, and education); and physiological factors (i.e. food neophilia and food neophobia). Building on this approach, Kim and Eves (2012) have measured and improvised the motivation variable introduced by Kim et al. (2009). Kim and Eves present the theoretical approach to motivation factors influencing local food consumption in a tourist destination found in previous research (e.g., Fields, 2002; Kim et al., 2009). They quote the study from Fields (2002), which suggested that food-related motivations in tourism could be conceptualized as a travel motivator within each of the four categories: physical motivators; cultural motivators; interpersonal motivators; and status and prestige motivators. The previous work of Kim et al. (2009) found nine motivation factors affecting local food consumption through interviews with twenty individuals. Kim and Eves suggest definitions for each construct of the motivation factor that identifies different explanations and functions, as shown in Table 3.2.

*Table 3.2: Definition of construct (motivation factors)*

| <b>Construct</b>    | <b>Definition</b>  | <b>Authors</b>   |
|---------------------|--|--|
| Exciting experience | Seeking for an exciting experience, created through the medium of undertaking activities involving unknown risks or unusual happening in leisure or travel activities      | Mayo and Jarvis (1981)   |
| Escape from routine | The reduction of the perception that experiences available in the home environment are not sufficient to satisfy the need for optimal arousal                              | Crompton (1979); Iso-Ahola and Weissinger (1990); Mayo and Jarvis (1981) |
| Sensory appeal      | A need to experience tourism through sensation or feeling by tourists, perceived through specific sense modes, such as touch, smell, taste, sight, hearing or the sense of | Dann and Jacobsen (2002); Pollard et al.                                 |

|                      |   |   |
|----------------------|---|---|
|                      | balance   | (1998); Urry (2002)   |
| Health concern       | To increase well-being and health, rather than relaxation through leisure or travel activities  | Cornell (2006); Swarbrooke and Horner (2007)                                |
| Learning knowledge   | Gaining knowledge refers to study tours, performing arts, cultural tours, travel to festivals, visits to historic sites and monuments, folklore and pilgrimages | Crompton and McKay (1997); Kerstetter et al. (2001); McIntosh et al. (1995) |
| Authentic experience | The real, unique, and non-manipulated tourism experiences   | Crompton and McKay (1997); Kerstetter et al. (2001); McIntosh et al. (1995) |
| Togetherness         | A desire and willingness to meet people and have a time with family from beyond the normal circle of acquaintance   | Crompton and McKay (1997); Wang (1999)                                      |
| Prestige             | A desire to have high standing in the eyes of surrounding people  | Crompton and McKay (1997); Botha et al. (1999)                              |

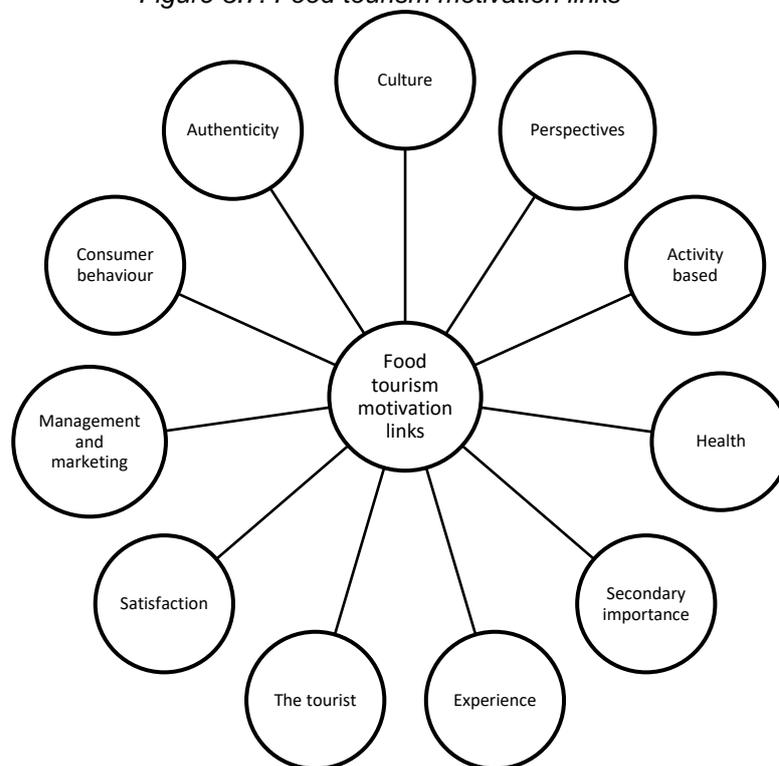
Source: Kim and Eves (2012)

Kim and Eves established four domains for 9 constructs including exciting experience, escape from routine, sensory appeal, health concern, learning knowledge, authentic experience, togetherness and prestige (see Table 3.2). The physical motivator included exciting experience, escape from routine, sensory appeal and health concern. This motivator refers to refreshment, reducing physical tension, increasing physical experience, and wellbeing. All the four constructs define these attributes as the escapist characteristics of tourists. The second factor related to cultural motivator based on learning knowledge and authentic experience points of view. Culture and tourism are inseparable, with the inclusion of food as the tourism activity; it educates visitors to experience and 'consume' new culture based on the differences of ingredients, method of cooking and preparation were all considered as the local tradition that being kept for many generations, because local food of each region conceded with historical and robust cultural background.

Fields (2002) and McIntosh et al. (1995) identify third factor, which is an interpersonal motivator. The element of togetherness can be associated with this domain with regard to reproducing or gaining social relations when having meals during a holiday. It defines how the social system is essential to identify what, where and with whom we are eating the meal, perhaps with family, co-

workers, friends or socialites. Crompton and Mckay (1997) mentioned that food-related activities provide opportunities to enjoy being with people and produce a sense of 'unity'. Lastly, prestige belongs to the status and prestige motivator of recognition and self-esteem attributes. The demographic background reinforces this factor like income, education, job, and places of stay. A need to be exclusive and distinguish from others, for example, dining at an upscale Japanese restaurant like Nobu in New York, differentiates people as consumers. In a recent study, Ellis et al. (2018) developed different links of food tourism motivations, illustrating how motivation is a primary factor across a range of contexts and applications in the existing literature. Ellis et al. (2018) contextualization of 11 factors is demonstrated in Figure 3.7.

Figure 3.7: Food tourism motivation links



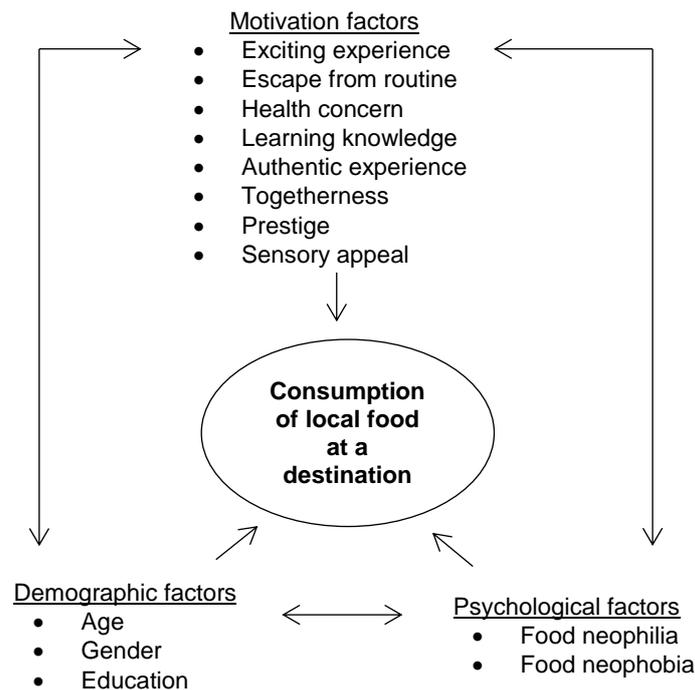
Source: Ellis et al. (2018: 257)

The above figure affirmed the complexity of food tourism that draws upon diverse elements of desires and wants affecting tourists' decisions on food consumption. Some of these elements have previously been explored in several studies, signposting similarities with Kim et al.'s motivation construct. However, there are some additional links in Figure 3.6, which were not extensively covered by Kim et al. and these elements had also previously been investigated by authors including management and marketing (Okumus, Okumus and

McKercher, 2007; Frochot, 2003), consumer behaviour (Alderighi, Bianchi and Lorenzini, 2016; Updhyay and Sharma, 2014) and satisfaction (Kim, Suh and Eves, 2010; Smith and Castello, 2009). Despite the complexities of understanding food tourists, Levitt et al. (2017) mentioned, that not all food tourists have elevated levels of motivation to consume local food, because these people may engage in food tourism as an ancillary experience to other purposes of travel experience or activities. Thus, the multiplicity of Ellis et al.'s model not only shows how these factors motivate tourist food participation but represent how it influences the connections of the overall tourism experience.

Moving on to the next context, Kim et al. (2009) also posited the importance of demographic factors including gender, age, and educational background, which were found to be key factors influencing consumption of local food. These authors based their work on previous studies from Wadolowska, Babicz-Zielinska and Czarnocinska (2008), which suggested that socio-demographic changes, such as higher income, greater leisure time, more education and better jobs have played an important role in influencing food choice and tourism demand. Kim, Eves and Scarles (2013) made the comparison with the proposed model in Figure 3.8 by Kim et al. (2009). Gender and age remained important contributors to local food consumption amongst tourists, the annual income also supplemented as a critical component in terms of demographic factors.

Figure 3.8: A conceptual model of influential factors for local food consumption



Source: Kim et al. (2009: 429)

In relation to psychological factors, Kim et al. (2009) assumed that tourists taking part in food tourism might have a tendency towards food neophilia, which is the tendency to seek to taste something new. Conversely, food neophobia is defined as the extent to which consumers are reluctant to try novel foods such as food products, dishes, and cuisines. Food neophobia, perceived as both behaviour and personality, has been extensively used to predict the willingness to try unfamiliar and also some familiar foods. Harrington and Ottenbacher (2010) explored the value of culinary tourism in France. In attracting visitors for the purpose of food, the motivations of food tourism categorized as the determinants of travel demand and portrayed the importance of food as a key contributor to the tourist experience. The authors compared this to the similar motivation factors introduced by McIntosh et al. (1995). In their study, which investigated the Rhone-Alpes and Lyon regions in France, it was found that these four factors were driving forces of making food and drink appealing, thus leading to the inclusion of food and drink in creating tourism experience.

Mak, Lumbers, Eves and Chang (2012) highlighted that the existing literature of tourist food consumption widely covers the areas of; foodservice, local food consumption, food and gastronomic experiences in tourism, food as a form of

special interest tourism, tourist food preferences, and choice. They claimed that in the field of tourist food consumption, there is a scarcity regarding delivering the concept of food tourism consumption in the literature. Thus, by quoting and acknowledging Randall and Sanjur (1981), Mak et al. (2012) had classified a distinct set of potentially interrelated factors. This potential was categorized into five following factors: cultural and religious influence, socio-demographic factors, food-related personality traits, exposure and past experience, and motivation factors. It is conceivable to deduce, as studies from Kim and Eves (2012), Mak et al. (2012), and Kim et al. (2009) showed that the variable factors affecting tourist food consumption are well connected. Despite some contradiction and dissimilarity in certain components, these authors had shared a similar understanding of predicted elements of tourist food consumption. For instance, these authors suggest that, food-related personality traits may affect exposure and past experience, and the impact can be reciprocal. Tourists with different cultural/religious backgrounds and socio-demographic characteristics, and with varying food-related personality traits and exposure and past experience may have different motivations towards food consumption in tourism. Furthermore, studies by Kim and Eves (2012), Mak et al. (2012), and Kim et al. (2009) support the existing evidence that motivation factors are important variables influencing tourist food preference that can be categorized into five main dimensions: symbolic, obligatory, contrast, extension, and pleasure.

In contrast, Boyne, Hall and William (2003) present a different perspective that examined the type of food that tourists indicated their level of willingness to consume mainly influenced by their attitudes and travelling purposes. They identified four different types of food tourists. For the first group, food is an important factor in the vacation decision-making process, and this group actively searches for detailed information on the available local cuisines and the availability of different foods and drink in the area. Tourists in the second group also regard food as important but need to be presented with food-related information. The tourists in the third group do not consider food to be a significant part of their holiday, but if there are opportunities, they may participate in some activities related to food and drink. Finally, tourists in the

final group have no interest in food and drink, and providing them with information will have no impact on their behaviour.

Conversely, Bjork and Kauppinen-Raisanen (2016) divided types of food travellers into three classifications; those who travel to gain food experiences (experiencers), those with a positive attitude towards food (enjoyers), and those with very little or no interest in food (survivors). These segments show some similarities with those of Boyne et al. (2003). However, some different interpretations and usages are apparent. The segments identified by Bjork and Kauppinen-Raisanen were:

- *Experiencers* are interested in food and perceive it as essential for destination choice. They search for food-related information before the trip to a greater extent than the other segments. They are more open-minded to tasting different types of food. Even if they value newness, they also value originality, locality, authenticity, and uniqueness in local food, which eventually has an impact on travel satisfaction;
- *Enjoyers* also search for pre-trip information, though not as extensively. Also, they do not perceive food as extremely important for destination choice or holiday satisfaction. Although these travellers enjoy original, local and healthy food, for them, relaxation is essential; and
- *Survivors* who collect much pre-trip information about local food and the local food market but with an emphasis on food safety rather than food experiences. They value original and local food, as well as healthy food.

The segmentations developed by Bjork et al. (2016), signalled a shift and transition of tourist consumption from mass tourism to a rather broader transformation of diverse food preference. Urry (1995: 151), called this shifting process 'Post-Fordist Consumption', which is related to how tourists had become more attentive to niche tourism products such as food. The concept of Post-Fordist Consumption according to Torres (2002) is a recent paradigmatic shift in tourism consumption and also production towards more forms of specialized, individualized, small-scale and flexible tourism. Post-Fordist tourism represents a movement from the classic, mass tourism 'sun-and-sand' or 'ski resort' products to more diversified tourism commodities that fix the 'tourist gaze' upon unique environmental, cultural and social landscapes.

Broadly, this shifting consumption paradigm is also discussed by Quan and Wang (2003), who identified the experience of food consumption in tourism from the perspective of its relationship between the peak tourist experience and its relationship to the daily experience. This dynamic pattern shows that tourists become more critical and demanding. They are not easily satisfied with only a single element during the visit, causing the fragmentation that has rendered consumption patterns unpredictable (Thomas, 1997). Thus, food consumption in tourism triggers the complexity of human behaviour, indicating that different groups of people have a different understanding and feeling towards their food preference.

Skuras, Dimara and Petrou's (2006) study on rural tourism and visitors' expenditure for local food products, points to three key findings: purchasing local food is a significant part of the total rural tourism; visitors who choose to buy local food products have distinct characteristics that differentiate them from visitors who do not usually consume domestic product; and the level of expenditure for those visitors who buy such products depends highly on their views concerning local food products and on whether they are already familiar with the products. This suggests that tourists recognize local food during a stay at a rural destination. Rural in this context is the location away from the urban areas that have tourism attraction, activities, and products. This thesis does not have a rural setting as the main scope. However, Skuras et al. produced a similar concept of tourists' engagement on local food acceptance and expenditure that positively impact local food businesses.

Kim and Ellis (2015) discussed the case in Kagawa, Japan, which have attempted to capitalize on food tourism by developing tourism assets and products based on its unique and even peculiar regional identity and culture associated with the obsession on *Udon* noodle production and consumption. These authors contemplated the tourist viewpoint, that Kagawa as the homeland of *Sanuki Udon*; food has become an important motivation factor for tourists that induce them to visit Kagawa as a food tourism destination. Indeed, their findings reflected the perspective of Richards (2002) that distinctive and unique local cuisine and gastronomy has a high potential to aid regional development. Everett (2012) also supported Kim and Ellis (2015) through the

direct consumption of food, tourists were able to learn and experience the uniqueness of the destination that produced a distinct culinary heritage.

It is possible to suggest the value of tourist food consumption for destination food tourism development. It is not only benefiting local food products, integrating tourists with food creates the opportunity for them to engage more with local customs and traditions and permitting the expansion of destination experience as a tangible (food) element of that experience (Kastelholz, 2012). Sims (2010) also posited that local food and drink products could improve the economic and environmental sustainability of both tourism and the rural host community through encouraging sustainable agricultural practices, supporting local business and building a 'brand' that can benefit the region by attracting more visitors and investment. In defining the exact tourist consumption characteristics, there is no evidence suggesting it as permanent tourist characteristics, because it evolves from time to time. Consumption pattern changes from time to time, depending on the setting evolved around the tourism environment. Food and travel were connected a long time ago. National and regional cuisines or food are never constant and always experience change as new foodstuffs arrive (Hall, Sharples and Smith, 2003). People movements and migrations are increasing rapidly, the number of travellers becomes important as it represents post-modern society who moves from one place to another to garner new experience and lifestyle and their taste buds follow together. From this process of people's journey 'back and forth' from their home destination to another, new patterns of consumption appear and are created.

### **3.7 Capitalizing on the inter-relationship of food tourism production and consumption linkages**

As this chapter has shown so far, various aspects of production and consumption have been explored in previous studies. An understanding of this concept is essential in assessing the relationship between production-consumption activities and the supply chain. Sims (2010) links the production and consumption within the context of the commodity chain, which contains both discursive and material elements as a product tracked along its journey. The supply chain is often complex and understated by businesses and Leslie

and Reimer (1999: 42) outline the commodity chain as a concept that examines consumption from the vantage point of one commodity and traces the reworking of meaning along different sites in the chain. Selfa and Qazi (2005) who investigate the producer-consumer network in local food systems, argued that a number of articles were organized around the theme of connecting the production-consumption “fault line” which has momentarily centred in agro-food studies (e.g., Goodman, 2002; Goodman and Dupuis, 2002). Other work includes: consumer constructions of value in organic production (Guthman, 2002), values based on food labelling schemes (Barham, 2002), and in the potential of Fair Trade networks associating producers to socially and environmentally conscious consumers (Raynolds, 2002).

In the tourism area, Torres (2002) discusses networks amongst producers to ‘educate’ tourists and promote the consumption and production of ‘regional’ speciality foods and locally grown products. She also brings up the issues of production and consumption systems under the existing circumstances, crippled by the lack of capital, poor infrastructure, insufficient logistics, small economies of scale and its informal nature that makes it virtually impossible for the producers to get into the region's tourism market. By far, this study shares similarities with Belisle (1982) about the challenges of increasing local food supplies in Jamaica to promote greater tourist consumption. Consequently, Belisle identifies avenues to improve the linkages between food production and tourist food consumption; (1) Coordination. Collaborative initiative between agricultural organizations and other players (hotels, restaurants, retailers) will create a better match and consistency with the food supply and demand system. (2) Economic incentives should be created specifically for tourist establishments. This will ensure more purchasing activities of local foods. (3) Promotional effort, encouraging tourists to eat and try local food as part of their cultural experience on holiday.

Telfer (2000) mentions the impact of production networks in tourism destinations. This implementation amongst all food stakeholders ranging from producers to chefs has been proven successful in promoting Niagara’s regional cuisine. It improves communication among the parties involved via publicity as a channel that contributes to the vitality of the entire region. This shows that,

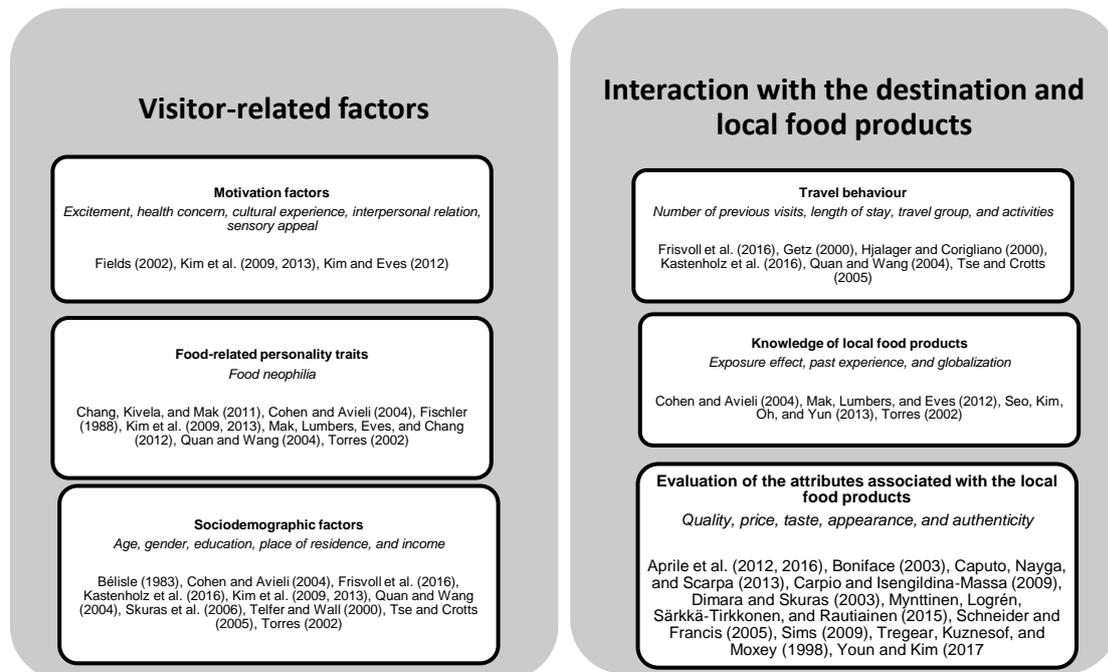
mutual communication is an integral, compulsory practice amongst producers to connect food with tourists. The territory or terroir introduced by Hall et al. (2003) has been identified as the element that gives food its exclusivity and region its touristic appeal. It is understood as the physical, socio-cultural and natural aspects of a specific area which plays a central role both in food production and food tourism. Thus, integrating the food sector with tourism is performed through the channel that functions to include and adapt food production into the tourism sector, providing a new market avenue for tourist consumption linkages with the local food products. Understanding tourist behaviour with such linkages between tourism demand and local agricultural food production signifies an approach to stimulate local agricultural production, channelling benefits from the tourism industry to local producers and reducing economic leakage.

An example of a case study in Quintino Roo, Cancun, Mexico, was developed by Torres and Momsen (2004). It supports the strategic alliance concept (e.g., Telfer, 2000) relating to various tourism and agriculture stakeholders in Mexico. In order to stimulate mutual linkages of agriculture for tourism, Torres and Momsen argue, the agricultural sector has to become the focus of intensive training for organization and the private sector. 'Coordination' (see e.g., Belisle, 1982) is the key element. It is possible to realize these sustainable linkages which actually takes into consideration all aspects – from the production to consumption mechanism; fortified by robust networks between food stakeholders. In this regard, food tourism development through networking among actors can be seen as a strategic choice for regional development (Bertella, 2011).

Networking can contribute to the combination of traditions and modernity, permitting the actualization and reinterpretation of nostalgic elements, which has been identified as a possible accomplishment for the construction and valorization of local heritage. Additionally, this approach would assemble a diverse range of expertise that is in demand in developing a sustainable form of tourism, which in this case is food tourism (Bassiere, 1998; Tregear, 2003). On the other hand, the literature discussed in the previous section elaborates on the role of local food consumption that establishes food tourism as an important

part of a destination demand. Madaleno et al. (2018) address the gap in the literature by analyzing the impact of several determinants on visitors' food consumption and purchase. Figure 3.9 below summarizes factors influencing local products consumption/purchases.

Figure 3.9: Factors influencing local products consumption/purchases



Source: Redrawn from Madaleno et al. (2018: 117)

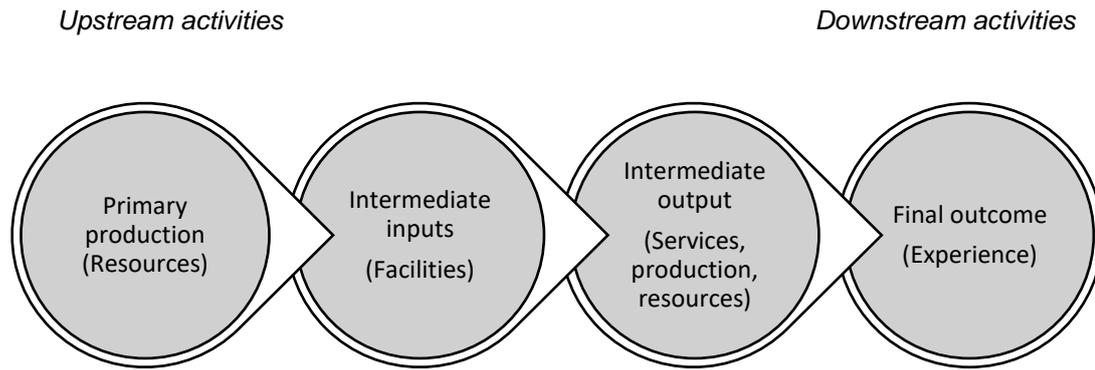
Madaleno et al. (2018: 117) manages to summarize in Figure 3.9 the factors including five motivation dimensions of local food consumption by Fields (2002), Kim et al. (2009) and Kim and Eves (2012). However, most of the studies emphasized in Figure 3.9 are lacking versatility, not only to assess the food tourist consumption settings but to extend more understanding of the supply and demand in food tourism or the linkages to the food production process in developing tourist experience.

At the same time, Smith and Xiao (2008) posited that food tourism products are required for the creation of experience desired by visitors. The notion emphasized by Smith and Xiao accentuates the consumers' 'power' in determining the drivers of all the productive activities needed to create a food tourism experience. As demonstrated by Madaleno et al. (2018), Figure 3.9 also signposts the theoretical interactions of tourists' consumption and destination's

food, but somehow lacked clarity on how it is closely associated with local producers, instead of only being centred on food products. As Shaw and Williams (2002: 24) argued, “the focus on production and consumption issues should not be taken to indicate that they can be considered as separate fields of inquiry.” The inter-connections of food tourism production and consumption, therefore, are important to understand, particularly given little evidence exists from previous studies. Ateljevic (2000: 381) rationalized this issue by pointing out; “This approach (production-consumption), generally concerned with the broader analysis of culture, sees producers as consumers and consumers as producers who feed off each other in endless cycles.” In this light, the framework of tourism circuits has been forged in order to finally resolve an endless dilemma of whether tourism is driven by either production or consumption processes. More importantly, the discussion revealed that geography lies at the heart of these processes, as tourism is inseparable from the spaces and places in which it is created, imagined, perceived and experienced.

Smith’s (1994) model (Figure 3.10) underlines a bridging tool of production-consumption linkages: it starts from upstream activities (primary production or resources) and ends at a downstream activity (outcome). Smith noted that the outcome of the tourism product is the customer experience. The distribution creates values that do not end through purchasing activities (customer), but is an integrating pattern of transforming resources into values (product or service) to experience (satisfaction) that ultimately apply to what is so-called as tourism idiosyncrasies or the nature of tourism.

Figure 3.10: Basic model of tourism production process



Source: Redrawn from Smith (1994: 591)

Only a few studies, including Torres (2003), Green and Dougherty (2008), Horng and Tsai (2012) and Frisvol et al. (2016), produced the holistic approaches that study the linkages of tourism food production and consumption or tourist demand that extend beyond narrow and separate investigations of both contexts. Smith's (1994) concept draws a different understanding of the nature of the linkages with the incorporation of potential factors of tourist food consumption, for instance, motivation factors, demographic factors or knowledge of local products (e.g., Kim et al., 2009, 2013; Kim and Eves, 2012, Mak et al., 2012). In the concept exhibited by Madaleno et al. (2018) in Figure 3.9, the linkages represent an important potential mechanism for stimulating local production, retaining tourism income in the region, and improving the distribution of tourism benefits or value creation to the tourists and local society.

In this context, it is important to generate the understanding that food production and consumption are parts of the tourism integration resultant from food as the "valuable object" that become an important tourist product of the destination through the years. Everett and Slocum (2013) pointed out the potential for mutual benefits through such connections, as local producers may find an important market in the tourism sector, at the same time as tourism firms can obtain valuable inputs. O'Halloran and Deale (2004) pointed out that by creating an effective and efficient food supply chain in tourism helps to provide clear communications and messages about product and ordering process. In addition, the benefits also involved, initiating pilot projects to develop new food

tourism products; highlighting best practice and recognizing those partners that are getting the job done, and identifying branding opportunities.

Although reference to supply chains is scarce in the food tourism literature, some authors have alluded to or touched on the concept. Hjalager (2002) indirectly suggested aspects of culinary/food supply chain development through her four-order typology of activities that add value to culinary tourism which are:

- Facilitating the visitor's enjoyment of food, such as food festivals and undertaking campaigns promoting locally branded foods.
- Designing activities to promote the visitor's better understanding of food, such as through creating and promoting regional food quality standards in a region.
- Experiencing the food, through activities such as the creation of culinary trails and cooking schools.
- Exchanging knowledge about food through research, media centres, and demonstration projects.

Specifically, within the context of the food production-consumption supply chain, Everett (2012: 538) refers to production as a social process, 'dynamically shaped by contextual influences and the tourist may not only be a cultural consumer but may also possess the agency to be a cultural producer and place-maker'. However, Squire (1994: 107) argues that consumption and production feed off each other, where consumption can lead to new moments of production. Su (2010: 414) argued that 'insufficient attention has been paid to the connection between the representation of tourism landscapes in mass media and the practices of consumption on-site'; and the creation of new touristic places is premised on the interplay between production and consumption (Sheller, 2003). Thus, the interest in food tourism predicated on the concept that cultural production and consumption could be examined at the same site. Seyfang (2006: 7) believed that consumers connect to local food as a way of "preserving local heritage and tradition." Consumers are therefore looking to form a relationship with producers and farmers, and make the link between the foods they buy and the production origins and the underlying method (Weatherall et al., 2003).

Morris and Young (2000) debated that food supply chains, especially in developed countries, have been asserted to update into modern market orientation and to respond more proactively to consumer demand for products offering specific qualities and added value. Generally, the collaboration process in local supply chain gathers farmers and other upstream producers/stakeholders to engage in more direct relationships with end consumers: to produce, process and market products on a localized basis, in what have been described as alternative food 'chains', 'systems' or 'networks' (see e.g., Marsden, Banks and Bristow, 2000). Such systems involved various capacities, from cooperative branding schemes (Marsden et al., 2000), to farmers' markets (Holloway and Kneafsey, 2000), to on-site retailing (Gilg and Battershill, 1998). Some producers function as co-retailers, where production and retailing are operated simultaneously on-site. Given an example from Hu et al. (2012), all 50 Whole Food and U.S. State Departments of Agriculture administer programmes that attempt to stimulate demand for foods produced or processed within the state's boundaries through state-sponsored labelling and promotion activities, or to promote a 'locally grown produce' campaign.

In a different view, the intermediaries in food supply chains also exist in food festivals and events. Kim, Suh and Eves (2010) have posited that a food festival typically brings together consumers and producers in a multi-stimuli environment by providing samples, insights, production methods and reassurance of authenticity amidst a general atmosphere of food knowledge. Food festivals/events create a much more 'democratic atmosphere' that allows producers to engage directly with visitors, in contrast to the traditional supply chain which is considered too 'bureaucratic'. Mason and Paggiaro (2012) and Wakefield and Blodgett (1994) added that festivals or food events do not break the long string of supply systems but provide knowledge about the food they offer by providing opportunities to engage in holistic, hedonistic experiences with food via sensory, affective, cognitive, behavioural and social stimuli. Furthermore, direct interactions (producers-consumers) give consumers a sense of sophistication and knowledge (Spiller, 2012), as well as accentuating individuality and uniqueness (Baumann, 2005).

Despite the importance of various channels or intermediaries in supply chain (direct vs indirect, traditional vs conventional), Chopra and Meindl (2013) assessed the supply chain based on three basic elements that need to be considered before any producers apply the systems: market and customer needs, level of uncertainty and supply chain capabilities. These elements apply to various studies, including the right practice of supply chains or, as Reichhart and Holweg (2007) and Aitken, Childerhouse, Christopher and Towill (2005) propose, the debate mainly pertains to whether supply chains can be flexible but responsive or rigid but efficient. Several studies that can be imposed in tourism include designing multiple channels (Aitken et al., 2005; Godsell, Diefenbach, Clemmow, Towill and Christopher, 2011), lean vs. agile supply chains (Bruce, Daly and Towers 2004; Mason-Jones, Naylor and Towill 2000) and 'leagile' supply chains (Bruce, Daly and Towers 2004; Naylor, Naim and Berry 1999).

In addition, supply chain strategies for local food and tourism must differentiate the nature of the food and the market, and establish the three elements introduced by Chopra et al. (2013). One of the key elements is related to supply chain capabilities, which highlight the concepts between traditional and conventional supply chain. Ilbery and Maye (2006) and Renting et al. (2003) pointed that while the traditional market channels for local or speciality foods are farm stores, farmers' markets and alternative food schemes, the current trend is to distribute food products through more conventional and premium channels such as retailers, hotels, restaurants and foodservice/festival/event providers. For instance, the retailer is important in modern supply chains that act as intermediaries between producers and consumers. As shown by Baritoux, Tebby and Revoreda-Giha (2011), retailers are responsible for presenting and creating a 'market scene' and of presenting products in a way that captures consumers' attention and makes the consumers want to buy them. Baritoux et al. (2011) found that this retailer's role is similar to the one out of three concepts identified by Barrey, Cochoy and Dubuisson-Quellier (2000), that retailers are the experts who enrolled their intrinsic attributes (e.g., taste, nutrition, ingredients) that have to be displayed on the product's packaging. In addition, other concepts of supply chain mediators or marketers' roles as explained by Barrey et al. (2000) are the designer who defines the

appearance of the product (e.g., colour, shape, material) and the packager who defines the signals and information about the extrinsic attributes (i.e. which are not part of the physical product like brand name or price).

Despite the elaborate role and functions of food supply chain actors or mediators including retailers or agents, Fiedmann and Hamm (2015) and La Trobe and Acott (2000) showed their concern about consumers who question food production practices. Likewise, consumers who demand greater transparency in the supply chain because the distances between the place of production and place of consumption have increased and become more or less opaque are identified. This highlights the crucial involvement of modern consumers in the supply chain 'traceability', as Rytönen, Bonow, Girard and Tunon (2018) stated, the role of consumers in this process is emphasized based on two ideologies. First, the discussion about local food in which the role and participation of consumers are often explained as a response against the agricultural modernization paradigm in which the physical distance between food production and consumption grew through the emergence of long and complex food chains. The second is connected to the discussion about localized food, in which the participation and role of consumers are explained through various elements of cultural, geographical, and physical types and proximities with a connection to the use of geographical indications. In the same notion, the complexity of consumers' understanding and interpretation of such network gained attention from several authors. Eriksen (2013) constructed a new taxonomy to consult with an issue on consumer's perception of the local food supply. Firstly, geographical proximity is when a food is produced close by. Secondly, there is a relation proximity that describes the direct relationship or interaction between productions and consumers that exists in short food supply chains. The third domain of proximity is values of proximity which refers to symbolic positive characteristics that are often associated with local food. Eriksen's taxonomy managed to address the complexity of this concept in developing a local food taxonomy that is useful in the food supply chain.

It is important to note that local food is most often understood in relation to quantifiable spatial distance that the food has travelled to the consumer, demarcated by a radial distance, a political boundary or a bioregion (food miles)

(Dunne, Chamber, Giomolini and Schlegel, 2010; Louden and MacRae, 2010; Siriex, Kledal and Sulitang, 2010; Futamura, 2007). Furthermore, whether it is a traditional or conventional supply chain, the roots of the system lie beyond the local food movement. Severson (2009: D-1) believed that “The local foods movement is about an ethic of food that values reviving small scale, ecological, place-based, and relationship-based food systems. Large corporations peddling junk food are the exact opposite of what this is about.” Severson’s argument constitutes a slight discrepancy with a simple conclusion drawn from Whitehead (2007) that pondered; local food could also be understood as referring to a particular social context, meaning or interaction. Meanwhile, other authors (see e.g., Mount, 2011; Meyer, 2012; Onozaka and Thilmany, 2011) have proposed the definitions of ‘local food’ in supply chain often go beyond space to incorporate social factors such as a small scale of production, use of traditional production methods, family farm provenance, or a connection, face-to-face interaction, relationship, regard or trust between the food producer and consumer.

The antecedent of a producer-consumer collaborative approach is reflected in the changing landscape of food production system, which led to the increasing interest in food supply chain concept to seek a more direct relationship with the consumer. Bord Bia (2008) explained there is a strong local authority and public support for directing food supply chains to improve product quality, customer satisfaction, and competitiveness, in which such a relationship is crucial to local economies. It is coherent, in the context of supplying food for tourists at the destination, because tourists play a significant role in creating a new market opportunity for local producers. Providing local food for the tourists involved certain regulations as mentioned by Seyfang (2006), Chambers, Lobb, Butler, Harvey and Trail (2007) and Murphy (2011), improved taste, freshness and quality of the produce are identified as the key drivers of local food purchasing. Penney and Prior (2014) argued that while factors such as food qualities or food traits are important for the purchase of local food, consumers are also motivated by emotional factors such as supporting the local economy and increasing small-medium producers’ incomes and reputation.

Several authors had identified different general cases on consumer's preference about locally produced food in the production-consumption context. Vanhonacker et al. (2010) investigated consumers in six European countries and identified a series of added-value food characteristics. In the Netherlands, Verhoef (2005) assessed consumer preference for organic meat. Hu, Adamowicz and Veeman (2006) examined store-branded versus nationally branded products in Canada. Amandolare (2010) and Darby, Batte, Ernst and Roe (2008) emphasized the importance of consumer food demand for the survival of food and agri-producers. Bond, Thilmany and Keeling Bond (2008) investigated the consumer's nutrition and consumer demand for local foods has been increasingly drawing attention throughout the world, particularly in industrialised countries. Hu et al. also argued, compared with limited studies more than a decade ago (e.g., Burton, Rigby, Young and James, 2001) analysis on consumers' preference on local food production has been more widely seen expanded from time to time (see e.g., Chambers, Lobb, Butler, Harvey and Trail, 2007; Darby et al., 2008; Vanhonacker et al., 2010).

Additionally, collaboration in food tourism could impose different styles of distribution systems as recommended by Tregear (2007). The author suggested two approaches; (1) Market-driven direct produce systems (MDDPS) in which the nature of the relations between producers and consumers are translated based on level of shared knowledge and understanding between buyers and sellers, and where the empirical basis of the study is most often exemplified as traditional city markets, selling points on farms, and other places where the market transaction takes place. (2) Close typicity systems (CTS), in which the links between the product and the territory or destination play a pivotal role in the consumer's purchasing power and decision-making. For instance, producers and consumers are interconnected by history, traditions, and food culture, and where purchasing decisions and consumer loyalty are based on social, territorial, and cultural attributes encapsulated in the product distinct speciality systems. A close circuit might exist between local producers and consumers linked together by a food product that either has become generic or has such a strong brand that consumption takes place widely.

The ideas suggested by Tregear (2007) indicated the interconnected approach to attain benefits of both producers and tourists. Considering this connection, it is clear that tourists seek to actively engage with local producers, and make the link between the foods they consume and the production story (see e.g., Weatherall et al., 2003). Fiedmann et al. (2015) and La Trobe et al. (2000) also established that tourists demand greater transparency in the supply chain or the process involved in food production so they could fully embody the food experience physically and emotionally. However, the food experience could not just be treated as an ambiguous factor that is only attached to tourist demand or motivation. Dreyer et al. (2016) argued that customers are willing to pay for uniqueness in terms of raw material, recipe, processing method and region, as well as for value added elements, all of which can be used to attract consumers. It also highlights the importance of customer experience as part of market orientation that benefits the producers, where these attributes or added value elements help to position and strengthen the producers in the food supply chain.

There were some contradictions however, in the literature about producer's market orientation and how experiential demand responds to it. Some authors theorised that consumers who chose local foods are not merely trading off emotional or physical factors, but rather are seeking to engage in a wholly different type of relationship with farmers and food producers, based on reciprocity, trust and shared values (see e.g., Hinrichs, 2000; Marsden et al., 2000; Gilg and Battershill, 1998). This type of food consumers' demand as mentioned by Weatherall et al. (2003) possessed intensified awareness of the socio-economic issues related to food and farming, and to readily make the link between the foods they buy and the production origins and methods underlying them. It signposted the economic values embedded with the narratives of place and provenance in local food that represents a financial opportunity for producers, especially since consumers have shown great enthusiasm of late for food of traceable local provenance (Goodman et al., 2007). Meanwhile, Grunert (1997) proposed that food choices are driven by consumer's intrinsic (texture, taste) and extrinsic (retail environment, communication) factors, moderated and somehow can be controlled by the demographic and socio-economic characteristics.

Thus, the idea of understanding the integration between production and consumption of local food should not be limited into a single perspective or as defined by Pearson, Henryks, Trotts, Jones, Parker, Dumaresq and Dyball (2011), the most commonly used approach was only defined local food on the basis of the distance that the food travels from production to consumption. More attention should be given on how it centralizes and integrates both producers and tourists. Rather a process or aspiration in terms of food supply chain directions, which widely discussed in the previous literature or define more deeply into the local food based on tourist experience and perception. Also proposed by Pearson et al. (2011), they are working towards a definition that encompasses the wide range of expectations that consumers have about local food, and from that, it gives a response to producers to produce food with the experiential value attachments. Based on the understanding and in line with previous studies (see e.g., Gellynck et al., 2012; Visser, Trienekens, and van Beek 2013), Dreyer et al. (2016), contextualized that producers could carefully decide their market objective, and where and how to sell which products, based on the engagements of food experience.

The social benefit of adapting local food systems produced a greater trust and collaborations developed between and within tourist and producer groups. Pearson et al. (2011) elaborated that the collaboration of producers and tourists contributes to a re-connection of consumers with producers and may result in improved understanding between urban and rural dwellers. Thus local food may add to the size and integration of local communities, both in relatively sparsely populated rural areas as well as the more densely populated urban areas. This reduces the propensity for some consumers to feel alienated from the source of their food. Finally, local food encourages the development of local shops that in turn, may become focal points for valuable social networks in communities.

The re-connection as emphasized above indicates that experience-driven by consumers and supplied by producers creates a synergy in the food networks and production process. Reichhart and Holweg (2007) further note that producer ability to achieve operational goals in parallel with the goals of economic stakeholders and customer demand is most effective when respond and adapt effectively based on the ability to read and understand the actual

market (customer demand and experience). Hence, by merging (systematically) the supply chain in the tourism sector, Chen (2009) suggests that this creates a better value chain dissemination in the channel (i.e., producers to consumers), sustaining resources and meeting demands of customers efficiently. In a general context, Zhang, Song and Huang (2009) highlight a supply chain concept with a macro definition; the supply chain is a network of enterprises that are engaged in different functions, ranging from the supply of raw materials through the production and delivery of end product to target customers. Conversely, in micro definition, the supply chain is functioning through each subcomponent and details of the operation, for example, raw materials cultivation, packaging process and delivery to the end-user.

The next section presents the development of the conceptual framework, based on the tourism production process and tourist food consumption. This conceptual framework is used to explore the interrelationships between food producers and tourists as the primary interface in developing local food tourism.

### ***3.7.1 The framework of food tourism production and consumption***

This section provides an overview of the key findings of the literature review and uses these to aid in the development of the conceptual framework to underpin the rest of the study. In this thesis, the foundation of the conceptual model is built on two substantial factors: food production and tourist food consumption. The theoretical basis of the framework is constructed through the adaptation of Smith's (1994) production process model and Kim et al.'s (2013) model of factors affecting local food consumption (see sections 3.4 and 3.6). By outlining a generalised production process in tourism, Smith (1994) depicts strategic approaches to how producers/destinations move through various stages to penetrate the tourism market. In this study, it is important to stress that this understanding of production in tourism is not an attempt to provide yet another food tourism typology.

On the other hand, it can be seen that the production process in food tourism is conceptually equivalent to the production of a tourist food experience. It is also connected to the collective effort of a number of actors and food producers

which are increasingly an integral part of destination development across the world (Andersson et al., 2017). Kim et al. (2013) traces the development of local food consumption, showing its relevance to other studies on tourism motivations in experiencing local or regional distinctive food or culinary and food products, as well as their relationships with destination choice and satisfaction (Au & Law, 2002; Chang & Yuan, 2011; Everett, 2009, 2012; Everett & Slocum, 2013; Kim & Eves, 2012; Smith & Costello, 2009; Su, 2013). Many studies have investigated situations in tourism, whereby food is a source of value. According to Novelli, Schmitz, and Spencer (2006), there is an increasing demand from tourists for tailored tourism experiences. This is a sector where small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) can play a significant role.

Interestingly, past literature suggested that many forms of food tourism linkages are centred on three core elements: resources, activities and actors (Håkansson, Ford, Gadde, Snehota, and Waluszewski, 2009). These elements are interpreted as; resources which refer to any type of intangible and tangible items that has potential to be exploited into a product; activities, which include buying, selling and distribution of input factors and products between producers and customers; and actors, which involved the performance of activities and provisions of activities. Other form of linkages also benefits from the networks which exist in tourism - under the inter-sectoral linkages (exchange of the similar product in the same sector) in rural regions, such as between food and tourism (Hall, 2005; Saxena, 2005). Advantages obtained from the intra-sectoral linkage are product innovation and development, knowledge transfer and local tourism development. In this regard, supply chains, is also a type of linkage. It covers a broad spectrum where coordination aspects are concerned in tourism, ranging from full integration to contractual arrangements between individual firms (Zhang, Song, and Huang, 2009). Meanwhile, Ljunggren, Markowska, Mynttinen, Samuelsen, Sæmundsson, Virtanen and Wiklund (2010) report from a Nordic study on the role of local food providers. The report shows that the production of “uniqueness” is based on location and the building of suppliers’ infrastructure is critical to the creation of valuable tourism experiences.

Despite these assertions, uncertainty still exists in the connection between producers and tourists to conceptualize and analyse both roles in developing

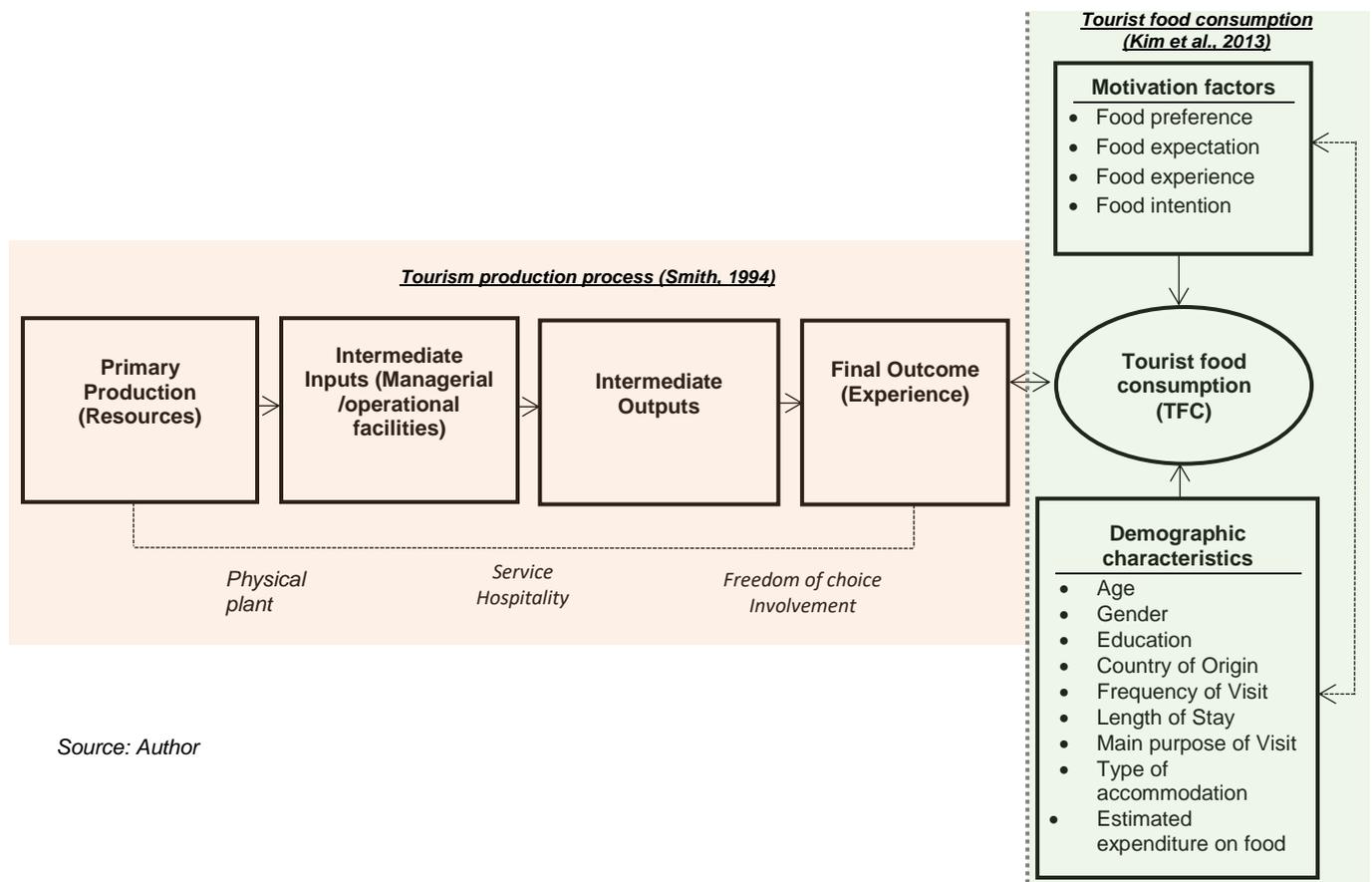
local food tourism. Svenfelt and Carlsson-Kanyama (2010) mentioned the connection between direct consumer-producer communication and consumers learning about food production. This requires further exploration and development. Such a connection requires greater attention, which demands understanding the supply and demand of local food, allowing more opportunities to draw attention and interest to attract tourists. In addition, by analysing the strengths and weaknesses of food products, producers can emphasize products' strengths and improve weaknesses (Lin and Mao, 2015). For this reason, the connections established from food tourism activities can be the platform for producers and tourists to engage and share their common values. It can be integrated into a broader framework, based on the view that connections are fundamental in any food business and play an important role in value creation (Håkansson and Snehota, 1990). Given these distinctions and evidence, the current work needs a conceptual framework to be able to distinguish between the influences of food production and tourist food consumption factors for food tourism development at a destination. Later work will utilize this conceptual framework using various methods, both qualitative and quantitative (see chapter 4 for more details).

Figure 3.11 presents a unified conceptual framework to provide a better understanding of the primary interrelationships between tourism production process and tourist food consumption. Smith's (1994) model is selected because his model provides a clear and explicit concept of the product in tourism; from the planning, development, and management aspects until the final stage that is delivery. Smith also reviews the concept of tourism product development from both supply and demand perspectives, in which this thesis is also intended to explore. Nevertheless, despite the utilization of Smith's model, there are ways to improve and expand the model further. The model never addresses in-depth the role of tourist involvement and experience (final outcome stage) throughout the production process. For that reason, the research wants to integrate Kim et al.'s (2013) model of influential factors of local food consumption. This model provides an added-value perspective in terms of knowledge and empirical evidence which enables us to understand the synergy between production and consumption to develop food tourism. The

tourist food consumption is determined by two factors – food motivation and demographic characteristics.

In further validation of the conceptual framework, Sims (2010) has attempted to draw fine perspectives of the interplay between producers and tourists, providing important insights and rationales into the framework development in Figure 3.11. She asserts that; (1) The collaborative approach re-defines how producers, consumers and suppliers should not be conceptualized as separate entities; (2) How a tourism approach based upon food chains or system permits us to develop a more sophisticated understanding of the discourses and practices surrounding the issue of local food. Such a conclusion adds weight to Leslie and Reimer's (1999) argument, which states that a commodity or value chain is not unidirectional in nature. The development of the framework in the thesis, allows us to see how consumer attitudes and behaviour can influence what have traditionally been thought of as 'upstream' activities, such as production and processing, and vice versa.

Figure 3.11: Conceptual framework of tourism production process and tourist food consumption



Source: Author

This conceptual framework exhibits the concept by O'hara and Stagl (2001), who state the significance of bringing together urban dwellers, tourists and producers. In this case, the former live far from production sites or farms and have limited experience witnessing how food is produced, while the latter, seldom meet the consumers of their produce. Hence this becomes an avenue for the two parties to establish a bond which is an important first step in the process of modelling a mutual relationship and trust between producers and tourists.

### **3.8 Conclusion**

The food tourism sector is recognized as an integral component of tourism and destination development. Food tourism has drawn a significant shift from the theoretical concepts to applications, principles and strategic practices to destination socio-economic linkages. There is a general consensus in the literature that more attention is needed to evaluate supply and demand issues amongst local food producers in the food tourism sector. The concept of production-consumption linkages or a collaborative approach is relevant to the local food industry because demand and market requirements significantly influence how the value chain should be configured. Food producers have specific markets (tourist), specific products and production and distribution characteristics that must be incorporated in response to supply food product in tourism channel. The importance of a collaborative approach in the production-consumption linkages indicated that food producers should move towards appropriate process strategies that should be involved shared information of tourist market scope and product strategies establish collaborations with different intermediaries and incorporated values in each stage of distributions. The next chapter (Chapter 4) describes the methodology adopted within the research and giving insights into the research process used in this thesis.

## CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

### 4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter established the conceptual foundations of food tourism development, acknowledging both production and consumption dimensions. This chapter operationalized the study of these complex ideas through a research methodology designed to address the research objectives, through discussions and elaborations of the methodology. The rationale for adopting a mixed-methods approach, combining qualitative and quantitative approaches for data collection is provided in the research design and research process sections. The following section explains the development and construction of the survey instruments. This includes the design of questionnaires and semi-structured interviews, together with methods to ensure quantitative validity and reliability analysis. Finally, the data collection processes (fieldwork) including locations and administrative approach, as well as methods of analyses, are described.

### 4.2 Methodologies used in food tourism research

The broad concept of food tourism research covers a wide range of food-related topics, such as destination marketing, culture and heritage, local development, communications, tourist behaviours and production. One of the earliest studies that attempted to explore the tourism and destination context with an underlying essence of food production and agriculture began in the 1970s (e.g., Bryden, 1973; Lieper, 1979) and since then, the topic has expanded vigorously into different themes and settings. The topic has evolved, as well as the methodologies used in each study of food tourism. Table 4.1 demonstrates the meta-analysis data (further details were discussed in Chapter 3) extracted from previous food tourism literature that identifies several studies that have used single and mixed-method approaches.

Table 4.1: Meta-analysis data for food tourism research methods

| AUTHORS   |             | FTD*     | TFC*     | FP*      | TC*      | PCL* | QUAN     | QUAL     |
|---|-------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|------|----------|----------|
| BRYDEN, J.M.  | 1973        |          |          | X        |          |      |          | X        |
| PEREZ, LA. Jr.  | 1973        |          |          | X        |          |      |          | X        |
| LEIPER, N.  | 1979        | X        |          |          |          |      |          | X        |
| RANDALL, E., AND SANJUR, D.                                 | 1981        |          | X        |          |          |      | X        | X        |
| BELISLE, F.J.   | 1983        |          |          | X        |          | X    |          | X        |
| BELISLE, F.J.   | 1984        | X        | X        | X        |          | X    |          | X        |
| SMITH S.L.J.  | 1994        |          |          | X        |          |      |          |          |
| TELFER, D.J., AND WALL, G.                                  | 1996        |          | X        | X        |          | X    |          | X        |
| BESSIERE, J.  | 1998        | X        |          |          |          |      |          | X        |
| BALOGLU, S., AND MCCLEARY, K.W.                             | 1999        | X        |          |          | X        |      | X        |          |
| MOMSEN, J.H.  | 2000        |          |          | X        |          |      |          |          |
| HJALAGER, A-M., AND CARIGLIANO, M.A.                        | 2000        |          |          |          |          |      |          | X        |
| <b>TORRES, R.</b>   | <b>2003</b> |          |          | <b>X</b> |          |      | <b>X</b> | <b>X</b> |
| DURAND, G. E., HEATH, E., AND ALBERTS, N.                   | 2003        |          |          |          |          |      | X        |          |
| BOYNE, S., HALL, D., AND WILLIAMS, F.                       | 2003        |          | X        |          |          |      |          | X        |
| BOYNE, S., AND HALL, D.                                     | 2004        | X        |          |          |          |      |          | X        |
| MITCHELL, R., AND HALL, D.                                  | 2003        |          | X        |          | X        |      |          | X        |
| BEERLI, A., AND MARTIN, J.D.                                | 2004        | X        |          |          | X        |      | X        |          |
| HENDERSON, J.C.   | 2004        | X        |          | X        |          |      |          | X        |
| OOSTERVEAR, P.  | 2006        |          | X        |          |          |      |          | X        |
| LOPEZ, X.A.A., AND MARTIN, B.G.                             | 2006        | X        |          | X        | X        |      |          | X        |
| IGNATOVE, E., AND SMITH, S.                                 | 2006        |          |          |          | X        |      |          |          |
| DURAND, G.E., AND HEATH, E.                                 | 2006        | X        |          | X        |          |      |          | X        |
| OKUMUS, B., OKUMUS, F., AND MCKERCHER, B.                   | 2007        | X        |          |          |          |      |          | X        |
| TIKKANEN, I.  | 2007        |          |          |          | X        |      |          |          |
| KNIAZEVA, M., AND VENKATESH, A.                             | 2007        |          | X        |          |          |      |          | X        |
| WADOWLOWSKA ET. AL.   | 2008        |          | X        |          |          |      | X        |          |
| EVERETT, S., AND AITCHISON, C.                              | 2008        | X        | X        | X        | X        |      |          | X        |
| DEALE, C., NORMAN, W.C., AND JODICE, W.                     | 2008        | X        | X        | X        |          | X    |          |          |
| SMITH, S.L.J., AND XIAO, H.                                 | 2008        |          |          | X        |          | X    | X        |          |
| <b>GREEN, G.P., AND DOUGHERTY, M.L.</b>                     | <b>2008</b> | <b>X</b> | <b>X</b> | <b>X</b> |          |      | <b>X</b> | <b>X</b> |
| EVERETT, S.   | 2009        | X        | X        |          | X        |      |          |          |
| HENDERSON, J.C.   | 2009        | X        |          |          |          |      |          | X        |
| LIN, Y-C., PEARSON, T.E., AND CAI, L.A.                     | 2009        | X        |          |          |          |      | X        |          |
| KIM, Y.G., EVES, A., AND SCARLES, C.                        | 2009        |          | X        |          |          |      |          | X        |
| HJALAGER, A-M., AND CARIGLIANO, M.A.                        | 2000        |          |          |          |          |      |          | X        |
| ZAINAL, A., ZALI, A.Z., AND KASSIM, M.N.                    | 2009        | X        |          |          |          |      |          |          |
| SIMS, R.  | 2009        | X        | X        | X        | X        |      |          | X        |
| AB KARIM, S., AND CHI, C.G.Q.                               | 2010        |          |          |          |          |      | X        |          |
| HARRINGTON, R.J., AND OTTENBACHER, M. C.                    | 2010        |          |          |          |          |      |          | X        |
| RENKO, S., RENKO, N., AND POLONIJO, T.                      | 2010        |          |          |          |          |      | X        |          |
| DURAND, G. E., HEATH, E., AND ALBERTS, N.                   | 2010        | X        |          |          |          |      | X        |          |
| BERTELLA, G.  | 2011        | X        |          | X        |          |      |          | X        |
| OTTENBACHER, M.C., AND HARRINGTON, R.J.                     | 2011        | X        |          |          | X        |      |          | X        |
| LIN, Y-C., PEARSON, T.E., AND CAI, L.A.                     | 2011        |          |          |          |          |      |          | X        |
| HALKIER, H.   | 2012        | X        |          | X        | X        |      |          |          |
| KIM, Y.G., AND EVES, A.                                     | 2012        |          | X        |          |          |      | X        |          |
| MAK, A.H., LUMBERS, M., AND EVES, A.                        | 2012        |          | X        |          |          |      | X        |          |
| KASTELHOLZ, E., CARNEIRO, M.J., MARQUES, C.P., AND LIMA, J. | 2012        |          | X        |          |          |      |          |          |
| ALONSO, A.D., AND LUI, Y.                                   | 2012        | X        |          |          |          |      |          | X        |
| LERTPUTTARAK, S.  | 2012        | X        | X        |          |          |      | X        |          |
| MAK, A.H., LUMBER, M., AND CHANG, R.C.Y.                    | 2012        |          | X        |          | X        |      | X        |          |
| <b>HORNG, J-S., AND TSAI, C-T.</b>                          | <b>2012</b> | <b>X</b> |          |          |          |      | <b>X</b> | <b>X</b> |
| EVERETT, S.   | 2012        | X        | X        | X        |          |      |          | X        |
| KIM, Y.G., EVES, A., AND SCARLES, C.                        | 2013        |          | X        |          |          |      | X        |          |
| MAK, A.H. LUMBERS, M., EVES, A., AND CHANG, R.C.Y.          | 2013        |          | X        |          |          |      | X        |          |
| SLOCUM, S.L., AND EVERETT, S.                               | 2013        |          | X        |          |          |      |          | X        |
| SEO, S., YUN, N., AND KIM, O.Y.                             | 2014        | X        |          |          |          |      | X        |          |
| ROBINSON, R.N.S., AND GETZ, D.                              | 2014        | X        |          |          | X        |      | X        |          |
| SOTRIADIS, M.D.   | 2015        | X        |          |          |          |      |          | X        |
| MUSSO, F., AND FRANCCIONI, B.                               | 2015        |          |          | X        |          |      |          |          |
| CHEN, Q., AND HUANG, R.                                     | 2016        | X        |          |          | X        |      | X        |          |
| YEOMAN, I., AND MCMAHON-BEATTIE, U.                         | 2016        |          |          |          |          |      |          | X        |
| <b>FRISVOLL, S., FORBORD, M., AND BLAKESAUNE, A.</b>        | <b>2016</b> |          | <b>X</b> |          | <b>X</b> |      | <b>X</b> | <b>X</b> |
| NELSON, V.  | 2016        | X        |          |          |          |      |          | X        |
| ALDERIGHI, M., BIANCHI, C., AND LORENZINI, E.               | 2016        | X        |          |          |          |      | X        |          |
| BJORK, P., AND KAUPPINEN-RAISANEN, H.                       | 2016        | X        |          |          | X        |      | X        |          |
| KASTENHOLZ, E., EUSEBIO, C., AND CERNEIRO, M.J.             | 2016        | X        |          |          | X        |      |          |          |
| JAMES, L. AND HALKIER, H.                                   | 2016        | X        |          | X        |          |      |          | X        |
| ROBINSON, R.N.S., AND GETZ, D.                              | 2016        | X        | X        |          | X        |      | X        |          |

|  |      |   |   |   |   |  |   |   |
|--|------|---|---|---|---|--|---|---|
| TSAI, C-T. (S) AND WANG, Y-C.                        | 2016 | X |   |   |   |  | X |   |
| BOESEN, SUNDBO AND SUNDBO                            | 2017 |   |   | x |   |  |   | X |
| LEVITT, J.A, ZHANG, P., DIPIETRO, R.B., AND MENG, F. | 2017 |   | X |   | X |  | X |   |
| HULLER, S., HEINY, J., AND LEONHAUSER, -U.           | 2017 |   |   |   | X |  |   |   |
| ROBINSON, R.N.S., GET, D., AND DOLNICAR, S.          | 2018 |   | X |   | X |  | X |   |
| MADALENO, A., EUSEBIO, C., AND VARUM, C.             | 2018 |   | X |   | X |  | X |   |

\*FTD: FOOD TOURISM DEVELOPMENT; TFC: TOURIST FOOD CONSUMPTION; FP: FOOD PRODUCTION; TC: TOURIST CHARACTERISTIC; PCL: PRODUCTION-CONSUMPTION LINKAGES

Source: Author

Most of the studies have implemented a qualitative approach, including case studies in several regions such as Jamaica, France, Singapore and Thailand (see Belisle, 1984; Bessiere, 1998, Henderson, 2004 and Oostervear, 2006). There has been little use of mixed-method approaches in food tourism research, especially that focus on food tourism production and consumption linkages, except in four studies highlighted (orange lines) in Table 4.1. Consequently, in food tourism studies, the emphasis is often placed on the value of qualitative research (Botterill, 2001) rather than seeing qualitative–quantitative as complementary. The four highlighted studies exemplify the use of the mixed-method approach in food tourism. For instance, studies from Torres (2003) and Green and Dougherty (2008) used an integrated approach to analyze the existing linkages between tourism, agriculture, production and retailing in localizing food and tourism at a destination. A mixed-method approach was therefore considered the most suitable choice to implement and develop in this research, given the relative paucity of such an approach in existing studies. These previous studies of food tourism also managed to combine multiple perspectives and findings by merging both methodologies, provide a diverse understanding of food and tourism linkages, specifically in the context of food tourism supply and demand orientations, which remains limited in contemporary literature.

The methodologies used to design survey instruments in food tourism studies are presented in two methodological approaches: structured and semi-structured. In this study, the structured methodological approach, or closed questionnaire, measured different food motivation factors, food tourism profiles and demographic characteristics, incorporated in a homogeneous instrument, using dichotomous labels or Likert scales. Likert scales are normally employed to measure and evaluate tourist sentiment on a specific product, service or experience (e.g., strongly disagree to strongly agree) (see e.g., Levitt et al.,

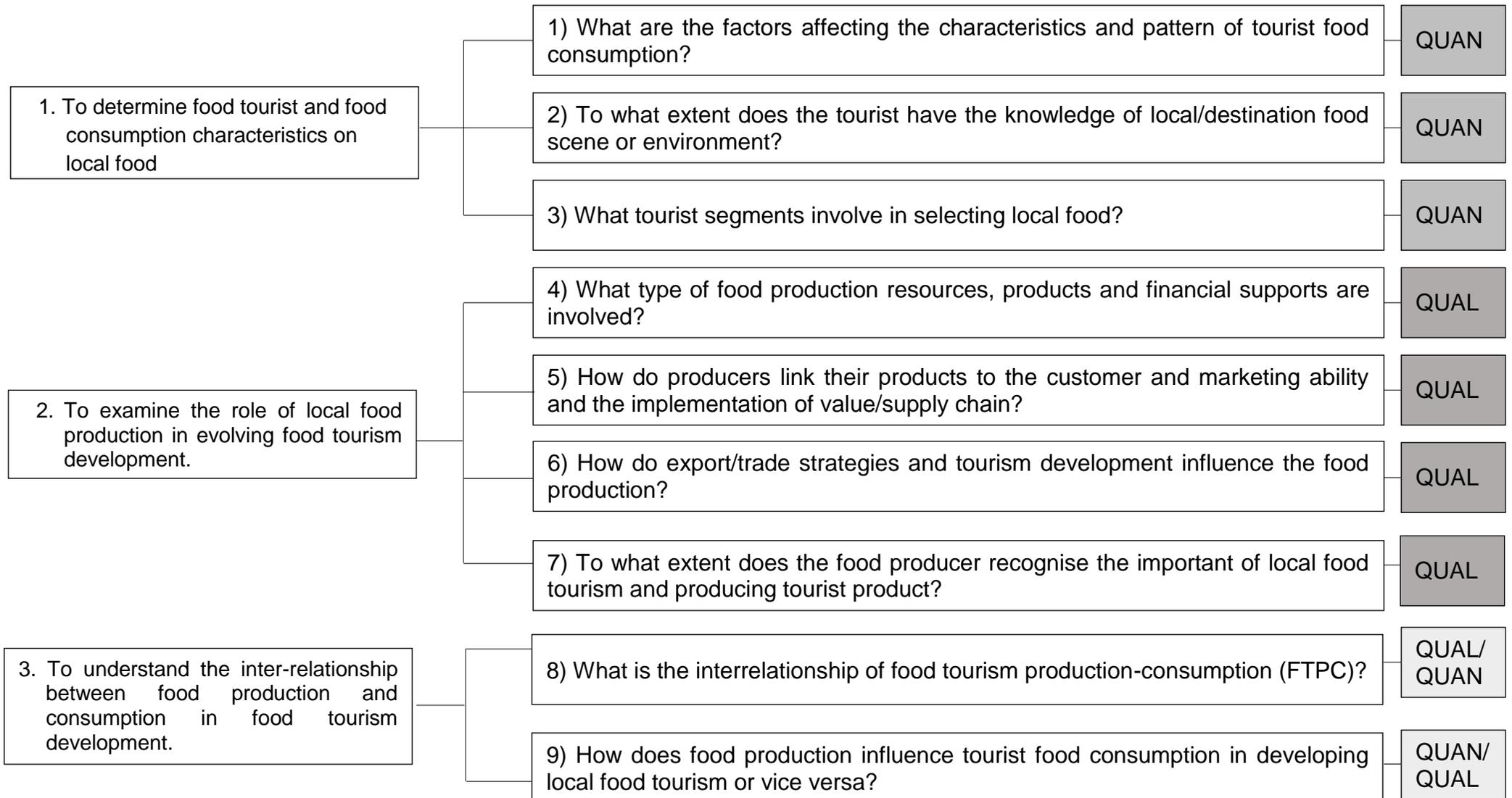
2017; Ryan and Glendon, 1998). Dichotomous or label scales which both categorize nominal scales are used to capture a discrete classification of characteristics or categories with strict correspondence (e.g., choose one that relates to your interest in food: high; medium; or low). The advantage of a structured scale is useful for large populations and sample size, and questions are easy to measure and responses can be subjected to further quantitative analysis. The disadvantages are related to how the questionnaire was designed, for example, the format of the questionnaire design can cause difficulties for the researcher to examine complex issues and opinions. But the differences also can be ascertained through good questionnaire design.

On the other hand, a semi-structured interview approach was utilized to gain several key insights from the food producers about the local foods in the region (Green and Dougherty, 2008). The open-ended questions were used to comprehend the food production elements and the influence of tourism production process (see e.g., Smith, 1994) based on the interviews to identify holistic aspects of food production influence in local tourism, tourist experience and destination development. A semi-structured approach is important for this study because, first, the producers were difficult to reach and not convenient to use a questionnaire approach for this type of population. Second, it allowed the respondents to express their views in their own terms on regional tourism-related issues, business history, scales of productions, marketing initiatives, challenges and general tourism reviews, which are not compatible with quantitative data collection.

The used of mixed-method approach in food tourism studies addressed the importance of exploring more food tourism relationships (e.g., production-consumption) and improved some of the existing research that only used single method approach. For instance, a study by Du Rand and Heath (2003) on the role of food as an attraction by destination-marketing organizations in South Africa was only conducted by a structured (quantitative) methodological approach to gather data amongst local marketing organization. Hence, this research could be expanded with an additional semi-structured or unstructured (qualitative) data focusing on the viewpoints of tourist or food product experience in South Africa. Hence, the unification of both approaches is

intended to reduce the data limitations and bias, in which a mixed-method approach is an appropriate tool to investigate the relationship between production and consumption. Figure 4.1 identifies the three main objectives and approaches.

Figure 4.1: Research objectives and approaches



Source: Author

### **4.3 Research design**

The idea of the research design is to integrate the overall strategy and different components of the study, to address the research objectives effectively. A research design provides a systematic framework, guidelines and operational approaches to be carried out in the research process (Bryman, 2004). The methodology does not just emphasize analytical and statistical techniques; it must also take into account the complexity of obtaining the data, from whom, where and how. As this study examined a heterogeneous range of elements such as food production, consumption, and its linkages that surround the development of a tourism destination, a mono-method approach was unlikely to be appropriate. The following discussions outline the logical process of developing a methodology that is best suited to the objectives and was feasible in the case study location of ECM.

#### **4.3.1 Qualitative and quantitative research method**

The nature of tourism research was originally positivist. Cohen (1979) stated that the field of tourism was complex and heterogeneous when constructing theoretical or conceptual approaches in research. This relates to the argument from Liburd (2012) that positivist science has traditionally produced technically useful knowledge, which in the field of tourism arguably is central to informed decisions by industry and in policy-making at conceptual, instrumental or political levels, for instance in tourism economics results in explicit objective knowledge that is free from bias and error. As Sale, Lohfeld and Brazil (2002) posited, the quantitative paradigm is positivist. Ontologically, there is only one truth, an objective reality that exists independent of human perception. Epistemologically, the investigator and investigation are independent entities, which are capable of studying a phenomenon without influencing it or being influenced by it. Bryman and Bell (2003: 25) explained in more simplistic terms that qualitative research could be construed as a research strategy that emphasizes qualification in the collection and analysis of data. In the scenario of quantitative approaches, the data are collected by an instrument that measures attitudes, and the information is analyzed using statistical procedures or hypothesis testing. The differences between quantitative and qualitative

methods are explained further in Table 4.2, which indicated the functionality of each method based on the philosophical use, strategies inquiry, methods application and research practice use.

Table 4.2: The applications of quantitative versus qualitative methods of research

| Tend to or Typically...   | Quantitative Approaches  | Qualitative Approaches  |
|---|--|---|
| Use these philosophical assumptions<br>Employ these strategies of inquiry | Post positivist knowledge claims<br>Surveys and experiment   | Constructivist Transformative knowledge claims<br>Phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, case study, and narrative  |
| Employ these methods  | Close-ended questions, predetermined approaches, numeric data  | Open-ended questions, emerging approaches, text or image data   |
| Use these practices of research as the researcher                         | Tests or verifies theories or explanations<br>Identifies variables to study<br>Relates variables in questions or hypotheses<br>Uses standards of validity and reliability<br>Observes and measures information numerically<br>Uses unbiased approaches<br>Employs statistical procedures | Positions him- or herself<br>Collects participant meanings<br>Focuses on a single concept or phenomenon<br>Brings personal values into the study<br>Studies the context or setting of participants<br>Validates the accuracy of findings<br>Makes interpretations of the data<br>Creates an agenda for change or reform<br>Collaborates with the participants |

Source: Creswell (2014: 18)

In contrast, Creswell (2014: 19) argued that the qualitative approach is most appropriate when the research seeks to establish the meaning of a phenomenon from the views of participants. This means identifying a culture-sharing group and studying how it develops shared patterns of behaviour over time. One of the key elements of collecting data in this way is to observe and record participants' behaviours and communication during their engagement in activities. Amaratunga, Baldry, Sarshar and Newton (2002) emphasized further that qualitative research is categorized by the assumption that human behaviour can be explained by what may be termed 'social facts' that can be investigated by methodologies that employ the deductive logic of the natural sources. As such, quantitative research comprises the development of testable hypotheses and theory, concerning how rich, complex the description of the specific situations. It applies to research that aims to identify distinct characteristics, elemental properties and empirical boundaries.

Meanwhile, Amaratunga et al. (2002) added that qualitative research is conducted through an intense or prolonged contact with a field or life situation. The life situation refers to people, objects, environments and naturally occurring, ordinary events in natural settings “view of reality.” Directly, quantitative research assesses the behavioural or descriptive complement, while qualitative research develops an overall “picture” of the imagination. For further clarification, Table 4.3 indicates a clear distinction between both methodological approaches.

Table 4.3: Comparison of qualitative and quantitative methods

| Qualitative   | Quantitative   |
|---|--|
| The aim of qualitative analysis is a complete, detailed description.                          | In the quantitative approach, the researchers classify and count features, and construct statistical models in an attempt to explain what is observed. |
| Recommended during earlier phases of research projects.                                       | Recommended during latter phases of research projects.   |
| The researcher may only know roughly in advance what they are looking for. Theory developing. | The researcher knows clearly in advance what they are investigating. Usually testing a theory or elements of a theory.                                 |
| The design emerges as the study unfolds.  | All aspects of the study are carefully designed before data is collected.  |
| Researcher is the data-gathering instrument.  | The researcher uses questionnaires, attitudes scales, tests or equipment to collect numerical data.  |
| Data are usually words, pictures (e.g., videos) or objects (artefacts).                       | Data are always numbers and statistics.  |
| Qualitative data are more ‘rich’, time consuming, and less able to be generalized.            | Quantitative data are more efficient, able to test hypotheses, but may miss contextual detail.   |
| The researcher tends to become subjectively immersed in the subject matter.                   | The researcher tends to remain objectively separated from the subject matter.  |

Source: Burns and Burns (2013)

Broadly, qualitative research applies specific observations to broader generalizations and theories (inductive) and quantitative research applies an initial theory or assumption to the more intricate confirmatory development to confirm or disprove the theory (deductive). Rather than embodying bi-polar opposites, both methods represent an attractive continuum. Specifically, in qualitative research, the most common purposes are those of theory initiation and theory building, while in quantitative research, the most typical objectives are those for theory testing and modification. However, one methodological approach does not always offer the most appropriate way of creating the data needed to meet research objectives. As such, a mixed-methods approach can

help in the sense of practicality to use all possible methods to address research issues and this method encourages to understand the phenomenon in the multiple worldviews or paradigms rather than the typical association of a certain paradigm for quantitative and others for qualitative.

### 4.3.2 The mixed-method approach

Previous scholars have put forward several arguments for combining qualitative and quantitative methods. As stated by Reichardt and Rallis (1994), both methods are unified by a shared commitment to influence the human condition (understanding and influence), a common goal of providing and disseminating knowledge for practical use, and the assurance of rigour, conscientiousness and critique in the research process. The merging of both methods as further claimed by Sale et al. (2002), the combination leads to a more comprehensive understanding of a phenomenon and unifies information that cannot be assessed by qualitative and quantitative method alone.

Based on the premise, it is necessary here to clarify the philosophical rationale of the mixed-method approach applied in this thesis. In general terms, a mixed-method is an “*approach to knowledge (theory and practice) that attempts to consider multiple viewpoints, perspectives, positions and standpoints*” (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner, 2007: 113). Pragmatism is the primary philosophy of the mixed-method approach. Pragmatism is defined as a bridge between paradigm and methodology (Cameron, 2011). It is also referred to a particular stance at the interface between philosophy and methodology. The bridge in pragmatism represents the traverse of post-positivist and constructivist paradigm and merges as one distinct approach. However, author like Morse (2003) expresses the disagreement with a mixed-method approach. This author mentioned that the philosophical premise of combining both methodologies is considered ‘incompatible’. In contrast, others, including Hardy and Bryman (2004) and Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005), have sought to find common ground in finding the similarities in both alternatives.

In light of these perspectives, the rationale for a mixed-method approach within a pragmatism philosophy lies in four important aspects, based on Denscombe’s (2008) work, namely: (a) pragmatism provides a fusion of approaches; (b) a

basis of utilizing mixed-methods as an alternative to the separation of qualitative or quantitative segments; (c) pragmatism represents a research approach or a new orthodoxy, which built as the open policy that allows the conversion of both quantitative and qualitative, and (d) pragmatism is treated in the commonsense way of “expedient.” This explains the misunderstanding of pragmatism as an approach in which “anything goes.” In other words, pragmatism using a mixed-method approach offers an immediate and useful middle position philosophically and methodologically since it offers a practical and outcome-oriented approach (Cameroon, 2011).

Interestingly, by merging both methods, there is considerable value in examining both the rationales that are given for combining quantitative and qualitative research and the ways in which they are combined in practice (Bryman, 2006). Qualitative oriented social scientists have often used the notion of triangulation to argue in favour of integration of qualitative and quantitative methods (e.g., Kelle, 2005). The idea of triangulation in mixed-methods design produces greater value for this research, significantly reducing the bias effects of each form of data (Creswell, 2014: 201). In this regard, adopting a mixed-method approach helps the study to produce a superior understanding of research problems and the underlying complex phenomena. To facilitate the understanding and functionality of this approach, Creswell (2014:15) embedded the procedures for expanding mixed-methods in research as follows:

- Ways to integrate the quantitative and qualitative data, such as one dataset, could be used to check the accuracy (validity) of other datasets.
- One dataset could help explain the other dataset, and could explore a different type of questions than the other dataset.
- One dataset could lead to better instruments when instruments are not well suited for a sample or population.
- One dataset could build on other datasets and one dataset could alternate with another dataset back and forth during a longitudinal study.

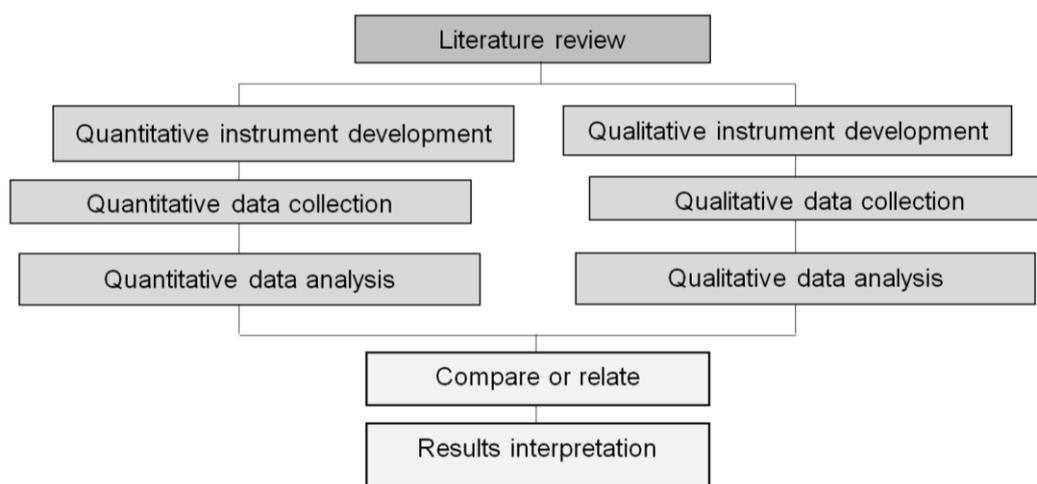
The procedures explained by Creswell about the mixed-method approach are important to produce a broader focus and understanding of the study. This type of method is appropriate to complement, develop and expand the multi-prospects of tourism studies and issues. The pragmatic approach applied for

this research will be a prolific research tool to provide an immediate and useful ‘intermediate position’ philosophically and methodologically. This allows the research to be more pluralistic and widen the view of the phenomenon.

#### 4.4 Research Process

To investigate the contributing role of local food production and tourist food consumption characteristics, this study is required a suitable measurement to answer the research objectives. The convergent parallel mixed-methods approach was utilized to examine the convergence, divergence, contradictions and relationships of two different sources of data. According to Morse (1991: 122), the purpose of convergent design is “to obtain different but complementary data on the same topic or concept” to best understand the research issue. In this case, a semi-structured interview was conducted in the ECM amongst selected food producers (purposive sampling). The approach of convenient sampling was used to collect information from international tourists visiting ECM. Figure 4.2 demonstrates the research process of convergent parallel approach. The figure illustrates the process from the theories development and literature reviews through to the results stage. Further discussions on instrumentations, data collection and analysis are explained in the following section.

Figure 4.2: Research process



Source: Author adapted from Creswell (2014: 219-220)

#### **4.4.1 Design of qualitative and quantitative stages**

In the qualitative method stage, the use of interviews can help to gather valid and reliable data that are relevant to the research objectives and questions. Miles and Huberman (1994) put forward that such data are typically collected over a sustained period, which makes them powerful for studying any process, particularly in social science research. It contains a strong fundamental in reaching 'social realism', which fits with the realistic occurrence of people and phenomenon, connecting to the social worldview and creating the essences of actual events. Oppenheim (1992) discussed how the interview is essentially heuristic, in that it develops ideas and research hypotheses rather than gathers facts and statistics. He suggested that the data obtained from interviews would produce reliable and insightful evidence in terms of understanding the interviewees. For this research, semi-structured interviews were used due to flexibility and suitability for exploring attitudes, values, beliefs and motives. Furthermore, semi-structured interviews were appropriate in gaining insights into or understanding opinions, attitudes, experiences, processes, behaviours, or predictions (Bryman and Bell, 2015; Rowley, 2012).

The second research stage incorporates a quantitative method using a survey questionnaire. Creswell (2014) stated that surveys provide the opportunity to gain numeric descriptions of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by investigating a sample of the particular population. The obvious rationale of conducting surveys according to Cameron and Price (2009) is the practicality that allows the researcher to look at a population and to break them into sub-groups to compare answers on specific questions. Bryman and Bell (2015) contextualized the quantitative method as entailing the collection of numerical data and as exhibiting a view of the relationship between theory and research. It is agreed that this method is best to measure the fine and clear differences between people characteristics (e.g., agreement or disagreement) based on certain theories and variables. Further details of the instrument designs for quantitative and qualitative stages are outlined in the next sections.

## 4.5 Sampling Method

In this study, the populations involved were food producers and international tourists in the states of Pahang and Terengganu. For **quantitative sampling**, the international tourists' sample size was based on the average statistic of tourist arrivals in both states which reached almost two million in 2015 and 2016 data (see Chapter 2). In this case, by using Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sample size determinant, the population for more than 1 million involved an appropriate sample size around 384 respondents. However, due to time allowed by the funders only 3 months of fieldwork were allowed, cost and distance were further constraints, as a consequence only 204 respondents were collected, which were still sufficient to represent this study.

For **qualitative sampling**, the interview data incorporated the producers operating their businesses in both states predominantly involved in food businesses. The food producers/businesses in these areas were heterogeneous and the focus on the sub-groups is important for the input validity. For tourists, the sample was foreign tourists who travel to Pahang and Terengganu between June and September 2017. The research used two stages of primary data collections; semi-structured interviews were conducted amongst a sample of food producers and a questionnaire survey of international tourists/visitors (consumption) in ECM.

Prior to the data collection, it is important to identify different types of sampling methods depending on the sample used to obtain results. The distinction was made between probability and non-probability sampling. Creswell (2013) methods of sample selection are divided between a random sample (probability) and non-random sample (non-probability). In this case, both data were conducted as non-probability samples and Quinlan (2011) emphasized four important types of non-probability samples which are:

- Judgmental or purposive sampling technique, where the researcher decides, or makes a judgment, about who to include in the research. The criterion for inclusion in the research is the capacity of the participant to inform the research.

- Quota sampling technique, where the researcher develops a sample of participants for the research using different quota criteria.
- Convenience sampling technique, where the researcher engages those participants in the research whom it is easiest to include.
- Snowball sampling technique, where the researcher finds one participant in the research, conducts the research with that participant, and then asks that participant to recommend the next participant.

Convenience sampling was chosen for questionnaire surveys and purposive sampling was chosen for a semi-structured interview on the basis of time constraints and accessibility. This type of sample was the most efficient and effective solution, due to tourists were a dynamic population in a busy environment and the selection of a sample from the population is based on easy availability and accessibility on what was expedient, not by ensuring randomness. Convenience sampling was also important for this study because the requirement to apply the questionnaires in the three months estimated period (summer break, seasonal factor) of high tourist arrivals at all selected areas ( refer to Table 4.8). The nature of a purposive sample can be used across such a qualitative research design. This type of sampling is widely used in qualitative research for the identification and selection of information-rich cases for the most effective use of limited resources (Patton, 2002). The process in purposive sampling involved identifying and selecting specific individuals or groups (e.g., food producers tourism stakeholders) that are especially knowledgeable and expert about or experienced with a phenomenon of interest (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011).

In addition, the execution of this type of sample is economical due to the cost and time effective, acquired proper representation that ensures the rigorous investigation has full knowledge and data composition (e.g., a small group of food retailers) and free from bias. Purposive means to be specific or articulate, to ensure an intensive study of the selected item would produce better results. Table 4.7, in the following section 4.8.3, shows the lists of semi-structured interview participants that employed purposive sampling, as subjects were selected based on expertise, in this case, food production and SMEs that reflect the multiplicity of the population.

## **4.6 Design of the research instruments**

This section describes the design of a survey questionnaire and semi-structured interview questions that reflect the aim and objective of the research and the type of information to be collected.

### **4.6.1 Questionnaire conceptualization and design**

The questionnaire survey for this study aims to evaluate ECM tourist food consumption patterns and characteristics, based on the food tourism profile, motivational factors and demographic characteristics. The items investigated included the aspirational and actual tourist behaviour related to their food choices and perceptions. The growth of food tourism helps a destination to diversify tourism activities and attracts more interest amongst food tourists to visit the destination.

The motivational factors and demographic characteristics items were adapted and modified from the studies by Kim et al. (2012) and Kim et al. (2013). Both studies adapted a similar approach by examining 31 items that were classified into seven categories; exciting experience; escape from routine; sensory appeal; health concern; a cultural experience; togetherness; and prestige. Kim et al. (2013) in particular, extracted the items based on the previous interview results from a study by Kim et al. (2009), and supported with related travel motivations and food choice literature. Kim et al. (2013) also stated that the items measuring the dimensions were internally consistent, and the reliability was satisfactory. The responses were measured using a Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' respectively.

The importance of adapting the concept and questions from the prior studies is also recommended by Kim et al. (2012), which they stated that, in future research, studies on tourist local food experiences should reveal new information about motivations to consume local food at destinations by adding different research areas. The questions used in this study continued as part of the refinements, including the addition and/or deletion of items, or even a modification of the factor structure if so indicated. Thus, the categories in the

questionnaire presented in Table 4.4 were composed for international tourists who visited ECM. The complete version of the questionnaire is attached in Appendix 3.

*Table 4.4: Categories of questions in the survey questionnaire for international tourist*

|  |   |
|--|---|
| <b>1. Malaysian food tourism profile</b> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Investigating tourists' basic understanding of Malaysian food.</li> </ul>  |
| <b>2. Food preference</b>                | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Including intentions and motivations towards food, and tourists' choice of meals on holiday.</li> </ul>  |
| <b>3. Food expectations</b>              | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Linked with general travel expectations in relation to food-related holiday planning such as preference, lifestyle and socio-economic background.</li> </ul> |
| <b>4. Food experience</b>                | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Related to the food experience of Malaysian food, to find out what the tourists had eaten during their holiday.</li> </ul>                                   |
| <b>5. Food-related intention</b>         | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Encompasses the intentional food behaviours, which indicate the reasons and purposes of certain food being chosen.</li> </ul>                                |

Source: Author

#### 4.6.2 Scales of measurement

Scales of measurement are conducted to define and categorize variables to determine the appropriateness for specific statistical analyses. Sekaran and Bougie (2010: 141) stated that scale is a mechanism by which individuals/respondents are distinguished as to how they differ from one another on the variables of interests. For this study, a combination of nominal and ordinal scales was used. A nominal scale is used for labelling variables, without any quantitative value or the keyword are labels or categorizes. This scale is placing of data into categories, without any order or structure. Hair et al. (2010) posited nominal scale 'assigns numbers as a way to label or identify the subject of objects. Items one until seven (Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4, Q5, Q6 and Q7) fall into this category.

The majority of questions in the questionnaire used ordinal scales. Ordinal scale level is a measured variable assessed incrementally, constituted in terms of frequency or rank/rate. In Sections 2 until 4 (Q10 to Q49), and some parts of Section 1 (Q8 and Q9) were dominated by Likert scales that used to measure the strength of agreement towards one or more statements. Likert (1932) created this scale to develop the principle of measuring attitudes and opinions

by asking participants to response a series of statement about a topic. The participants have the authority to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement that normally encompasses a five-point or seven-point rating scale. The five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree and strongly agree was applied in all 41 items of statements. As seen below, Figure 4.3 shows the example of a Likert scale arrangement based on the original questionnaire (please refer to Appendix 3).

Figure 4.3: Example of five-point Likert scale items in the questionnaire

| <b>SECTION 2: CHOOSING WHAT TO EAT ON HOLIDAY</b>                |                   |          |         |       |                |
|--|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| <b>The following statements are about your food preferences.</b> |                   |          |         |       |                |
|  | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
| I chose food that I am very familiar.                            | ●                 | ●        | ●       | ●     | ●              |
| I love to explore new food.                                      | ●                 | ●        | ●       | ●     | ●              |

Source: Author

Likert scaling presumes the existence of an underlying (or latent or natural) continuous variable whose value characterizes the respondents' attitudes and opinions. The scale is very useful to measure the 'intensity' of the respondent's opinion, belief and attitude. For that reason, the Likert scale approach was capable and compatible to measure the direction and forces of attitudes for the tourist consumption and perception dimensions in this study.

#### 4.6.3 Semi-structured interviews conceptualization and design

The semi-structured interviews represent the qualitative approach for this study and are used to elicit the interviewee's ideas and opinions on the topic of interest. For that reason, the interview used in this study is to validate the influence and effect of food production on the development of local food tourism movement. The questions are solely developed to measure the view of local food producers about the presence of food tourism, and how they would be able to relate it to the current situation and market values. In particular, each state of Pahang and Terengganu provided with diverse groups of food producers that actively produce and operate food businesses, creating an impactful contribution towards the food and tourism sector. The interview questions were constructed around four themes, as shown in Table 4.5. The themes were

linked to the inputs of the tourism production process model by Smith (1994). The example of subthemes of the questions comprehensively listed according to the main themes of the semi-structured interviews. The full questions are in Appendix 1.

Table 4.5: Themes and subthemes of semi-structured interview questions with food producers

|  |
|--|
| <b>1. Primary production (resources)</b>   |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Raw item resources</li> <li>• Product concepts, characteristics and volumes</li> <li>• Financial resources and support</li> </ul> |
| <b>2. Intermediary inputs</b>  |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Customer and marketing</li> <li>• The role of value/supply chain system</li> </ul>  |
| <b>3. Intermediary outputs</b>   |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Export and trade strategies</li> <li>• Regional tourism development</li> <li>• Importance of tourism influences</li> </ul>        |
| <b>4. Tourist involvement and experience</b>   |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Food producers' definition and understanding of food tourism</li> <li>• Tourist-oriented product strategy</li> </ul>              |

Source: Author

Firstly, the respondent's orientation in managing their primary resources and food product characteristics was explored. For the second theme, the discussion focused on the intermediate inputs of production including the importance of marketing and the value chain system applied or used by these food businesses. In the third theme of intermediate output, this is where the production and tourism link occurs, highlighting the questions about commercialization, regional tourism development and the plan for future product development. Finally, the theme of tourist involvement and experience is narrowed into the interviewee's approaches to take advantage of tourist engagement and the opportunity to market food products, as well as their understanding of the food tourism development.

#### 4.7 Validity and Reliability

The issues of validity and reliability are highly important in research design, setting the approval standard that will yield the outcome to be both consistent and significant. Reliability refers to the degree to which observed scores are "free from errors of measurement; validity refers to appropriateness, meaningfulness and usefulness of the specific inferences made from the

*measures*" (Dooley, 2001: 76). The process of developing and validating an instrument is intended to reduce error in the measurement focus (Kimberlin and Winterstein, 2008).

As mixed data (qualitative and quantitative) were the centre point of this study, the questions were carefully designed, worded and formatted in order to avoid measurement error and chances of falsification in the answers. Face-to-face interviews were conducted to obtain the qualitative data that provide more screening that is accurate and capture verbal or non-verbal cues for each targeted subject and establishment. For the survey, the respondents were given adequate time and space to record their responses, and the procedures and purpose of the fieldwork were explained. Furthermore, in ensuring the research was carried out with adherence to ethical principles, it was clearly stated in the questionnaire that data provided would be treated anonymously (see later section on ethics and Appendix, which details the ethics approval).

In regard to validity, the questionnaire, interview questions and guidelines were carefully designed, assuring that all information would be clearly understood by the respondents including all questions were presented in English language for the international tourists, which most of them came from the European countries (Germany, France, United Kingdom), as well as the clarity of content and word structure, in the way the researcher intended. This ensured the ability of the questionnaire to measure what it is intended to measure or known as internal validity. The content validity is the extension to which the questionnaire provided adequate coverage of the aim and research objectives that was guaranteed through the researcher's extensive review of the literature, which informed the design of questionnaire and interview guideline. Furthermore, the construct validity was examined using the test of reliability represented using Cronbach's alpha to measure the internal reliability to connect the multiple-item scales (Bryman and Cramer, 2011: 78). Table 4.6 indicates the reliability scores for each group of item tested.

Table 4.6: Reliability test results for questionnaire survey

| Items                             | Cronbach's alpha |
|-----------------------------------|------------------|
| 1. Malaysian Food Tourism Profile | .947             |
| 2. Food preference                | .618             |
| 3. Food expectations              | .503             |
| 4. Food experience                | .826             |
| 5. Food intentions                | .815             |

Source: Author

Table 4.6 identifies that three of the items scored high internal consistency; Malaysian food tourism profile, items value the excellent score of  $>.9$ . For Malaysian food experience and food intentions, both item scores  $>.8$  indicates good consistency values. Those in the range above  $.8$  are good and internally reliable (Nunnally, 1978; Sekaran and Bougie, 2009). However, the second dimension shows the reliability score at  $>.6$ . It is considered a criterion of acceptability with the absolute values between  $.6$  to  $.8$  (Loewenthal, 2001; 2004). In addition, as Nunnally (1978; 1988) indicated, newly developed measures can be accepted with an alpha value of  $.6$ ; otherwise,  $.7$  should be the threshold. The lowest dimension was scored at the value of  $<.6$ , which in the certain rule of thumb shows weak consistency. However, as Hinton, Brownlow, McMurray and Cozens (2004) mentioned, the scale between  $.5$  to  $.7$  shows moderate reliability. There are alternatives to increase the inter-item consistency, to improve the reliability of the measure, particularly for second and third dimensions (Table 4.6) that were partially questionable to justify the values. Although by deleting several items to improve the reliability of the measure, the validity could be affected in a negative way (Sekaran and Bougie, 2009). The construction of a statement in each item is important to ensure the audiences understand what the question is trying to achieve, to what extent does it reflects the actual attitudes towards their choices and to avoid any biases in all the statements.

#### 4.8 Data Collection

This section describes the locations where the research took place and the administrative setting on how the data are distributed and collected.

### **4.8.1 Research area**

The data collection is the central part of this research. It was carried out in two states of Pahang and Terengganu located in the East Coast of Peninsular Malaysia. Data was collected over a three-month period due to the restrictions placed for data collection by the research sponsor (Ministry of Higher Education, Malaysia), which required rigorous time and project management. The field research, both questionnaire survey and semi-structured interviews, was conducted between June and September 2017 and both data were collected simultaneously. In this case, qualitative data collected amongst food producers, which comprised the questions pertaining to the influence of tourism production process, is managed to complement both respondents (producers-tourists) different perspectives and fill the gap of tourist understanding about food at a destination.

### **4.8.2 Qualitative data collection**

The locations selected for the semi-structured interviews were based on the probability that there were more food producers there (active in terms of numbers of food producers and production activities). It is essential for this research the locations that have higher levels of production/business activities of both states, which consist of several districts and cities. Thirteen producers were interviewed for an hour session at their premises. The type of food production varied between each entrepreneur, but the key similarity was that they all represented familiar local foods as a core business product. Each participant had a different background, while the size of their operation varied, but the majority of them had conquered the domestic market more than five years ago on average.

The interviews process for the state of Terengganu was conducted in the capital city, Kuala Terengganu (see area 1 of the location map in Figure 4.4). Food businesses are a dynamic and prime activity in Kuala Terengganu that consists of various forms of food production activities. Meanwhile, for the state of Pahang, the interviews involved food producers in which the business activities are spread more widely, compared with clear focus at one place in Terengganu. The Pahang districts covered for the interviews were Pekan, Cameron

Highlands, Kuala Lipis and Benta (See areas 1, 2, 3 and 4 of the location map in Figure 4.5). There were some challenges to reach and contact the producers to gain consents for this project; last-minute postponing, cancelling and conformation of the interviews, changes of location and contact address, and immediate rejections to conduct the interviews. Several approaches were used to minimize the problems, including phone calls, emails and walk-in, were used to reach all the producers.

### **4.8.3 Quantitative data collection**

For questionnaire surveys, the data were collected amongst 204 international tourists who visited both states, who mostly came for a summer vacation. At least 100 tourists participated in each state. Initially, the survey was planned to be conducted at the Kuala Lumpur International Airport (see Appendix 4). However, due to several restrictions set by the Malaysia Airport Holdings Berhad (MAHB), including expensive charges (daily) for the data collection and that the survey only could be done at the main terminal area, in spite of the fact that this research required data from both departure and arrival areas to tourists are connected from or to Kuantan and Kuala Terengganu. Finally, the data collection had to be changed and the survey was carried out in high volume tourist areas to ensure the response rates are achievable as well as the efficiencies of time and cost

Popular and high-density tourism areas were selected based on international tourists' arrival statistics from the state tourism websites and suggestions in the travel websites (e.g., Tripadvisor, Traveloka). For instance, in Pahang, areas including Tioman Island, Cameron Highlands and Kuantan (the capital city of Pahang), recorded almost 500, 000 foreign visitors in 2016 (Pahang Tourism, 2017). Cameron Highlands received the most tourists, followed by other areas. The same approach for tourist data collection was also used for Terengganu. As explained earlier in section 4.5, the estimated sample size supposedly around 384 respondents (Krejcie and Morgan, 1970). However, due to several constraints, particularly on the very limited time given by the sponsor (see the first paragraph in this subsection), the researcher managed to collect 204 respondents within the three month period.

### 4.8.4 Administrative setting

Data collection involved extensive plans and divisions to organise the administrations of data in both states systematically. The process of semi-structured interviews and questionnaire surveys were distributed and gathered simultaneously. It began with Terengganu, and consisted of eight districts; this project was focused at three main collection areas, Kuala Terengganu, Kuala Nerus and Pulau Perhentian. The aim was to obtain the high frequencies of food business and tourists' activities, where the selected areas were dominantly involved with the related activities. Food business in this state is an important sector and the main driver of the local economy. Kuala Terengganu and Kuala Nerus were chosen due to the food business diversity, availability of main central food markets and multiple numbers of food production sites and food shops. The red circle area indicated the locations of the data collection process in Figure 4.4.

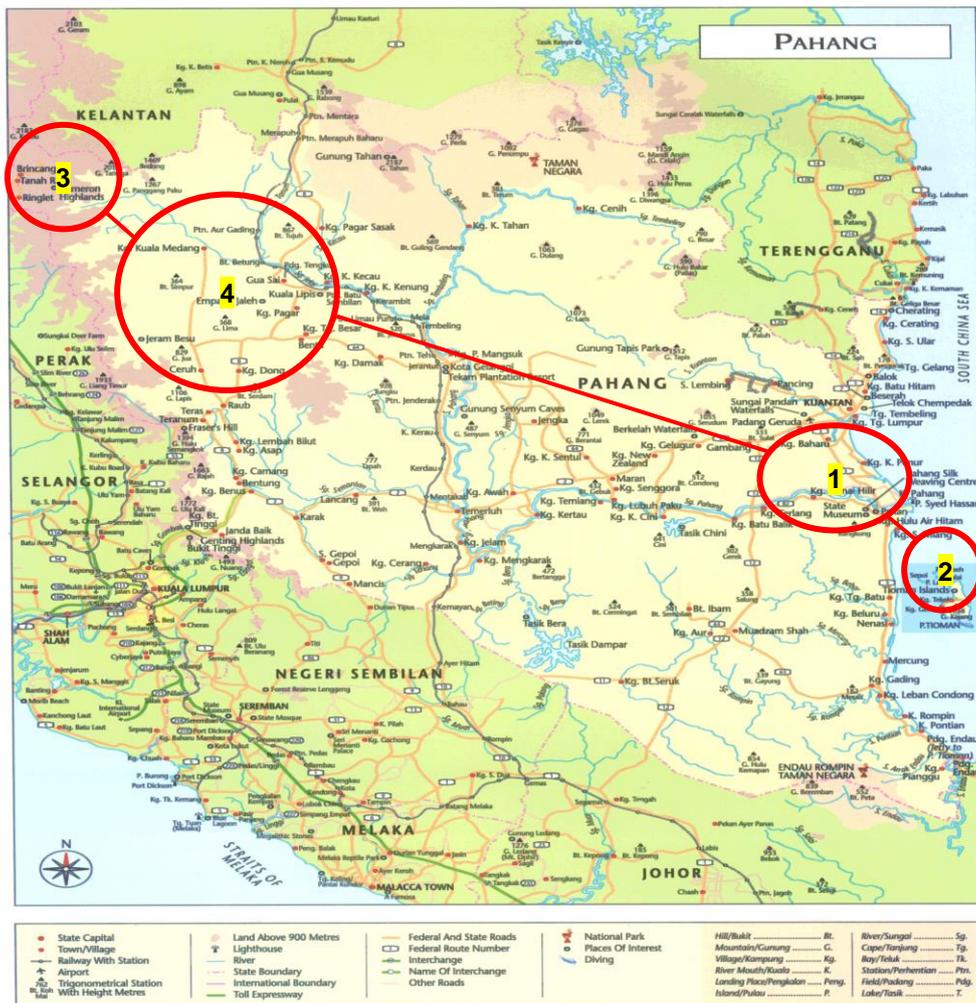
Figure 4.4: Terengganu's data collection areas



Source: WonderfulMalaysia.com

The questionnaire survey was conducted in both locations of Pulau Perhentian and Kuala Terengganu. Pulau Perhentian is an island located one hour from the port area of Kuala Besut. It took three days to gather all the data required, concentrated at the beach areas, restaurants and resorts on the island. Figure 4.4 show the geographical map of Terengganu. The red circles identify areas where data collection process took place. Districts of Kuala Terengganu and Kuala Nerus (area 1) were in the large circle domain, centralized the fieldwork activities that precisely enclosed most of the semi-structured interviews. Extending from the mainland to the island of Pulau Perhentian (area 2) represented in the small circle domain, where the majority of the questionnaire surveys data were collected in that island that received high population of tourists during the middle of the year. Figure 4.5 marks the distributed locations expanded from North West to East of Pahang.

Figure 4.5: Pahang's data collection areas



Source: WonderfulMalaysia.com

Pahang is the neighbouring state of Terengganu, covering a vast proportion of Peninsular Malaysia mainland. Data were collected in several distinctive districts, expanding a wider distribution process and mileage, compared to Terengganu. Several focus districts and areas had been identified prior to the data collection. Four distribution areas were divided for the Pahang's data collection process. The first area (area 1), covered three producers at the Pekan district. Area 2 is Pulau Tioman, a popular tourist vacation island that has a reputation as one of the important tourists' attractions in Pahang and Malaysia tourism. The questionnaire surveys were distributed, and fifty percent of the data derived from the tourists on this island. The process continues further at the far west of the state, located at area 3 and area 4. Cameron Highlands (area 3) is coveted as one of Pahang's distinctive tourism destinations and food production areas. Two food establishments participated in the interviews and more than forty questionnaires survey were distributed amongst the Cameron Highlands foreign tourists. The final areas were area 4, combined the areas of Kuala Medang and Benta. Two producers were chosen to take part in this project.

#### 4.8.5 Description of activities

Based on Table 4.7, the semi-structured interviews involved 7 producers in the different areas in Kuala Terengganu and another 6 producers were situated in Pahang. The interviews were held at all the business premises and the sessions were participated by the business owners and managing directors. Prior to the actual interviews, appointments were made via phone calls and on-site visits, and the official letter of support from the Ph.D. supervisor was presented to inform the respondents that the interview was conducted as part of the doctoral research requirement.

Table 4.7: Semi-structured interview distributions in ECM

| No. | Location                         | Product                             | Code |
|-----|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|------|
| 1.  | Bukit Berangan, Kuala Terengganu | Fishball                            | P1   |
| 2.  | Bukit Tok Beng, Kuala Terengganu | Fish sausage                        | P2   |
| 3.  | Seberang Takir, Kuala Terengganu | Cooking paste, Ready to eat product | P3   |
| 4.  | Batu Rakit, Kuala Terengganu     | Baked Fish in Banana Leaf           | P4   |
| 5.  | Kampung Menggabang Talipot,      | Local desserts                      | P5   |

|     |  |   |            |
|-----|--|---|------------|
|     | Kuala Terengganu                       |   |            |
| 6.  | Gong Badak, Kuala Terengganu           | Chicken                                     | <b>P6</b>  |
| 7.  | Tok Jiring, Kuala Terengganu           | Fish and frozen products                    | <b>P7</b>  |
| 8.  | Kampung Padang Rumbia, Pekan           | Livestock, plantation and aquaculture       | <b>P8</b>  |
| 9.  | Peramu, Pekan                          | Freshwater fish, vegetables                 | <b>P9</b>  |
| 10. | Kampung Taman Sedia, Cameron Highlands | Strawberry plantation, ready to eat product | <b>P10</b> |
| 11. | Kampung Taman Sedia, Cameron Highlands | Strawberry plantation, ready to eat product | <b>P11</b> |
| 12. | Kampung Ubai, Pekan                    | Cooking paste                               | <b>P12</b> |
| 13. | Kuala Medang, Kuala Lipis              | Black chili paste                           | <b>P13</b> |

Source: Author

The length of each interview was between 1-1.5 hours depending on the interviewees' time availability and all were conducted in the Malay language (all Malay respondents). The data and information were written in the interview forms and recorded using the mobile phone recording application and photographic evidence. For the quantitative data collection process, it took several targeted areas of each state that gathers the optimum volume of international tourist arrivals. The distribution of activities is demonstrated in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Questionnaire survey distribution in Terengganu and Pahang

| TERENGGANU |                           |                     |      |
|------------|---------------------------|---------------------|------|
| No.        | Location                  | Date                | Data |
| 1.         | Pulau Perhentian (island) | 21/7/2017-23/7/2017 |      |
| 2.         | Kuala Terengganu          | July 2017           | 104  |
| PAHANG     |                           |                     |      |
| No.        | Location                  | Date                | Data |
| 1.         | Pulau Tioman (island)     | 11/8/2017-13/8/2017 |      |
| 2.         | Cameron Highlands         | 21/8/2017-23/8/2017 |      |
| 3.         | Pekan                     | 26/9/2017           | 100  |
| 4.         | Kuantan                   | 13/8/2017           |      |

Source: Author

Both states are considered as important tourism destinations for local and international tourists. Table 4.8 represents the distributions for Terengganu in which most of the data collected at Perhentian Islands, received a high number of tourist arrival to the island. Beaches and islands are the main tourism products of the ECM, attracting tourists from March until August every year (hottest/sunniest season). Tourist volumes in Kuala Terengganu are not as high as compared to the island, due to short stays while waiting for transit boats/ferries to the island or connecting flights to Kuala Lumpur. Meanwhile, the

distributions Pahang comprised of four focal areas, mainly at Tioman Island and Cameron Highlands, where tourists' arrivals were almost equally high at both locations. For the Pekan area, the questionnaires were disseminated via Google Form to one tourist group from the United States who currently visited Pahang, which eight of them had returned the responds via Google Form software. The reason for the electronic questionnaires was used because all group members were staying in different parts of Pahang and Google Form was the most convenient medium to reach them. The Forms were distributed via every email by the assistance of one of the group members in Pekan and he helped the researcher to inform the project details and confirm their agreements of participation in this study.

## **4.9 Discussion of the methods of analysis**

This section describes the data analysis procedures of the qualitative and quantitative data that further explains in the following sub-sections.

### **4.9.1 Qualitative data analysis**

The information collected in the semi-structured interview was firstly transcribed from the recorded interviews and translated from Malay to English. In the second phase, based on the finalized transcripts of all 13 interviews, each of them was categorized and grouped into several main themes using a thematic analysis. The thematic analysis for this study was conducted based on the five processes outlined by Castleberry and Nolen (2018): (i) compiling, to find the meaningful responses by transcribing the data; (ii) dissembling, taking the data apart and creating meaningful groupings that are done through coding (identification of themes, concepts and ideas that have some connections with each other); (iii) reassembling, which the codes, or categories to which each concept is mapped, are then put into context with each other to create themes; (iv) interpreting the data and; (v) concluding, to respond to the aim and objective of the study.

### 4.9.2 Quantitative data analysis

For categorical variables (nominal data), the percentage of the responses is analysed and for continuous variables (ordinal data) responses, descriptive statistics of means and standard deviations to measure the central data tendency were explained. Bivariate analysis was conducted to explore the differences and relationships about populations based on the data drawn from them or to seek the existence between groups within the independent variables. As a beginning point, the independent variables were categorized into two groups, motivation factor and demographic characteristics. By using the IBM SPSS 25 statistical software, quantitative data analysis sought to identify the differences and associations in terms of overall tourist motivations with tourist demographics that resonates the research questions in Figure 4.1 of; (a) *What are the factors affecting the characteristics and pattern of tourist food consumption?* (b) *To what extent does the tourist have the knowledge of local/destination food scene or environment?* And (c) *What tourist segments involve in selecting local food?* In the given case, the bivariate analysis is required to meet some assumptions before conducting the analysis.

The use of non-parametric analysis is important to create meaningful results for data that did not meet the assumption requirement to run the parametric analysis. As Pallant (2013: 221) said, each person or case can be counted only once, they cannot appear in more than one category or group, and the data from one subject cannot influence the data from another. The non-parametric statistical analysis employed for this study is divided into three different functions. Firstly, to determine the relationships between the demographic characteristics and motivation factors in affecting tourist food consumption. To achieve the relations between two variables, the Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis tests were utilized due to their capabilities to draw different conclusions about the data depending on the assumptions developed according to the data distribution (Pallant, 2013).

Secondly, a Chi-square test was used to explore and verify the food tourist determinants based on their knowledge of local food between two groups of independent variables. In the case of two variables, the test also being

conducted in determining any differences occurred in both variables. The Chi-square rule of thumb based on the lowest expected frequency in any cell should be 5, or more or at least 80 percent of cells have expected frequencies of 5 or more. For Chi-square, the  $\chi^2$  and  $p$  values are presented in each tabulated results of independent variables. For Mann-Whitney tests, the  $Z$  and  $p$  values are presented, with the addition of Mean or Median values to report the significant difference between each tested group.

Finally, the next step of statistical analysis is to investigate the tourist segmentation using a Two-step Cluster analysis to handle the combination of ordinal and nominal data in the same model as imposed in this study. IBM SPSS 25 statistical software was also used for Cluster analysis to establish a set of meaningful groups of similar areas or objects by examining relationships between them. In this study, the data were gathered from tourists that represent different consumer segments in ECM food tourism area. The analysis segments the tourists into three distinct clusters based on the motivational factors (independent variable) and demographical characteristics (control variables).

#### **4.10 Research Ethics**

Research ethics is one of the most crucial parts of the study to ensure the research is conducted based on ethical obligations and consideration prior to the data collection process. The University of Exeter Business School Ethics Committee had approved the ethical application (please refer to Appendix 4 for full details of the approved Ethical Form), which is a compulsory requirement for any studies to be carried out in fieldwork. The primary purpose of such a requirement is to show the benefits for individuals and society and minimize the risk and harm to the subjects and environment. Moreover, it is to guide the research conduct on the basis of integrity, transparency, responsibility and accountability. The ethical approval was implemented for data collection of two groups of respondents, food producers and international tourists in ECM.

Even though this study was conducted in a Malaysian setting, both groups of participants had to acknowledge they were expressing their rights in full as stated in UK law, to assure the participants and/or legal guardians were entirely informed and free to revoke during the data collection process. In the approved

ethical application, the details of the data collection process mentioned that the interview involved the producer's properties, provided with informed consent to inform about the entire purpose of research. The interview process is obligated with the University of Exeter Ethical Considerations for Method stated that, by recording interviews with subjects even if the findings will subsequently be made anonymous and the researcher needs to ensure that the provisions of the Data Protection Act are complied with. To ensure all these requirements are met, all the subjects during the actual interviews provided with sufficient consents and confirmations and all their personal data including owner's and company's names were properly stored and remained confidential.

Two approaches were used to gain the consent of participation amongst food producers. First, the producers were personally contacted via phone and email outlining the aim of the project and why they have been selected to participate and to book the appointments. Second, the consent form and a set of interview questions were brought along (where phone or email contacts were not possible) through a walk-in session at the production site. Both approaches were utilized for this study and all selected producers were positively incorporated throughout the interview sessions, which were done in the Malay language (All respondents were Malay and spoke Malay-native language). The survey questionnaires for international tourists were distributed at potential tourist locations and supported by the letter of permission to do the fieldwork at those locations. All questionnaires were distributed and collected instantly.

The researcher also received assistance from friends and family as the research enumerators to administer the questionnaires. Prior to the questionnaires administrative process, each enumerator was briefly explained about the questionnaires instructions and project procedures and all tourists were approached equally and ethically without any personal or sensitive issues to be aroused either related to them or their country of origins. The respondents (producers and tourists) involved in the interviews and questionnaires received tokens of appreciation as a 'thank you' for their full cooperation in engaging and supporting the study. The researcher followed the *Code of Good Practice in the Conduct of Research* guided by The Business School and set up by the University of Exeter. The approval from the Ethics Committee was received and

signed within two weeks of the application. The duration of data collection was approved for three months (1<sup>st</sup> July until 30<sup>th</sup> September 2017).

## CHAPTER 5: THE ROLE OF LOCAL FOOD PRODUCERS IN DEVELOPING FOOD TOURISM AT THE DESTINATION

### 5.1 Introduction

Food producers compose an essential part in shaping and structuring destination food tourism focus and the overall food industry. Destinations and food producers must realise the importance of local food in tourism by emphasizing regional distinctiveness and food contributions to unique visitation experiences as well as reinforcing the local economy. Conducted in the states of Pahang and Terengganu in East Coast Malaysia, as a distinctive part of the region (c.f. Chapters 2 and 4), this research applied both qualitative and quantitative methodology of mixed-method approach, to fill the gaps by examining the objectives of this study. This chapter aims to underline the results of the qualitative data with regards to the first objective; *to examine the role of local food producers in developing food tourism at the destination*. The producers were chosen for the interviews because food producers in ECM are one of the major contributors to the local economy and an important sector operated by locals. In addition, local food is a concern of local residents and travellers who show an increasing interest in locally grown food and locally produced food items (Pestek and Nikolic, 2011). Thus, food producers are the keys for a destination to ensure the local food encompasses tourists' increased interest and demand in local food and also their search for an extraordinary local food experience. In this context, the research presented in this chapter integrated the perspectives of the ECM local food producers to provide a positive and significant contribution to food tourism and destination developments.

Therefore, the structure of this chapter resonated to Smith (1994) Tourism production process model (Chapter 3, Figure 3.3). Firstly, the structure is related to the preliminary process (beginning) of transforming food resources into a food product that later would be delivered to attain consumer/tourists consumption involvement. This section contained the respondent's orientation in managing their primary resources and food product characteristics (Section 5.2). This is followed by a discussion about the importance of market

segmentation and marketing strategy; and the management of value chain system applied by these food businesses under a topic of intermediate inputs (Section 5.3). In the third section, Intermediate outputs functioned as 'tourism channel' in commercializing the product within the main drivers of export and trade initiatives, the perspectives of regional tourism development and the plan for future product development are explored (Section 5.4). Finally, the discussions on the interviewee's approaches to discuss tourist involvement and experience as the opportunity to market the food products as well as their understanding of the food tourism development are explained (Section 5.5). The discussions of the data obtained from the interviews are systematically coded for each of 13 food producers, as demonstrated in Table 5.1. All the producers' names/brands are not included to ensure anonymity.

Table 5.1: Food Producers' Interviews coding

| No. | Location                                     | Product                                     | Code       |
|-----|--|---|------------|
| 1.  | Bukit Berangan, Kuala Terengganu             | Fishball (Sate ikan)                        | <b>P1</b>  |
| 2.  | Bukit Tok Beng, Kuala Terengganu             | Fish sausage (Keropok lekor)                | <b>P2</b>  |
| 3.  | Seberang Takir, Kuala Terengganu             | Cooking paste, Ready to eat product         | <b>P3</b>  |
| 4.  | Batu Rakit, Kuala Terengganu                 | Baked Fish in Banana Leaf                   | <b>P4</b>  |
| 5.  | Kampung Menggabang Talipot, Kuala Terengganu | Local desserts                              | <b>P5</b>  |
| 6.  | Gong Badak, Kuala Terengganu                 | Chicken on skewer (Sate ayam)               | <b>P6</b>  |
| 7.  | Tok Jiring, Kuala Terengganu                 | Fish and frozen products                    | <b>P7</b>  |
| 8.  | Kampung Padang Rumbia, Pekan                 | Livestock, plantation and aquaculture       | <b>P8</b>  |
| 9.  | Peramu, Pekan                                | Fresh water fish, vegetables                | <b>P9</b>  |
| 10. | Kampung Taman Sedia, Cameron Highlands       | Strawberry plantation, ready to eat product | <b>P10</b> |
| 11. | Kampung Taman Sedia, Cameron Highlands       | Strawberry plantation, ready to eat product | <b>P11</b> |
| 12. | Kampung Ubai, Pekan                          | Cooking paste                               | <b>P12</b> |
| 13. | Kuala Medang, Kuala Lipis                    | Black chili paste                           | <b>P13</b> |

Source: Author

## 5.2 The primary inputs (resources)

The primary inputs used to produce an output of goods and services. There are several resources a producer requires and transforms as an attempt to generate income and reputation with the production of products or services. In a specific context, this section presents the respondent resources and products management as the foundation of the entire tourism (food) productions process. The discussions are divided into three categories; raw item resources, product concepts, characteristics and volumes, and financial resources, concerning their abilities and capacities to guarantee the quality and satisfying food tourism product for ECM.

### 5.2.1 Raw Item resources

While e-commerce or multinational food supplies are evolved, ECM food businesses gain easier, more cost-effective and practical access to local suppliers in the local business area. The local supplier is sourcing the producers with the desired items that immediately would reduce costs, mileages and carbon emissions along the process. Producer P2 further illustrated this idea, *“We get our fish stock from the local supplier. He has been supplying raw fish to us since 2006/2007. He will come here every day. I think it is good actually because we do not have to worry about the overall process, especially the cleaning part. Hence it makes our shop clean and leaves no smell. He will come to send the fish fillet then we just have to add the sago starch.”*

Producer P1 also used the local supplier to supply fish to produce her sate ikan (fish ball) product and she said, *“The raw resources came from the local supplier that we purchased with a wholesale price.”* Local dessert owner, producer P5 used a large number of eggs and coconuts to produce her famous local baked egg custard and baked pandan custard everyday. She stated, *“The raw resources such as coconut, eggs all came from the regular local supplier. They will deliver it to my house.”*

In other cases, some of the respondents preferred to producing or purchasing their own ingredients resources. Quality control, cost-effectiveness and

environmental awareness were the reasons, instead of outsourcing to external vendors. From those conceptions, both producers P10 and P6 were agreed on their decisions on self-purchasing resources. Producer P10 indicated that *“Currently I buy the raw materials directly from factories that provide the ingredients I needed in Kuantan, Pahang. Because if I wanted to buy them from far away like in Penang, I would need a bigger capital to manage it.”* Producer P6 verified, *“We get the dried spices by ourselves because there is a shop which we used to get the spices from them and they already knew what the spices that we need.”*

In addition, some producers also take advantage of self-planting vegetables or fruits resources as depicted by producer P13, *“We plant ourselves and we also source it locally from people in the villages. Because I have the previous experience producing rural products like buah salak (snake fruit).”* Livestock and fish producer, Producer P8 also demonstrated, *“For cows, I have a link with the veterinary department. For fish, we breed by our own but bought the licence from the fishery department and they keep our record as one of the fish breeders. But the whole operation and administration are on our own.”*

Fishery Department of Malaysia authorized strategies for aquaculture sector to become an important source for local demand (producers and customers) and broaden the export and trade potentials. The supply of fish breed is one of the initiatives to encourage the development of the fisheries sector with active involvement from local producers and help them to generate revenues. Producer P4 has used this platform and he mentioned that *“So far, the fish we received the supply from Fishery Department 3 times a week at the port.”*

### **5.2.2 Product concepts, characteristics and volumes**

This section extends the discussion about producer's raw item resources transformation into a food product. Interestingly, the respondents produced various types of products from different resources including sea and fresh water fish, poultry/meat, agriculture (fruits and vegetables), instant meals/cooking pastes and local desserts which transcend a strong local culinary heritage and cultural identity of ECM. There were innumerable productions of fish sausages

and fish crackers products/brands in Terengganu, signified the state as a popular destination for fish food-based products industry in Malaysia. In Table 5.2, the verbatim demonstrated perspectives from producers P1, P2, and P4 about their fish-based products:

Table 5.2: Product concepts, characteristics and volumes verbatim of producers P1, P2, P4

| Producers   | Verbatim   |
|-------------|--|
| Producer P1 | <i>“Our product mainly focuses on sate ikan or traditionally called as lokching with two types of processes; normal and frozen. We produce approximately, 15 000 skewers of fish sate equivalent to 120 kg of fish, using sardine and clupeid.”</i>  |
| Producer P2 | <i>“We decided to go for fish crackers and fish sausages because it is one of Terengganu’s signature foods. Besides that, Terengganu is also well known for its turtle eggs and nasi dagang (traditional rice with fish gravy). Originally, we planned to open a food stall if our fish crackers business does not survive but now since the business runs smoothly, we just proceed.”</i> |
| Producer P4 | <i>“In one day we produce around 400 to 500 numbers of sata including the frozen one, but not including the customer’s bookings which around 2000 numbers of sata per week. For Eid Mubarak, we struggle cater to everything due to the upsurge bookings and demands.”</i>   |

Source: Author

Producer P2 explained the reason for choosing sea fish food-based product or called keropok lekor (fish sausage) and keropok keping (fish crackers). This Terengganu’s producer, produce around 4,000 to 5,000 rolls of fish sausages, with the increment approximately from 7,000 to 10,000 rolls in a weekend depending on consumer’s demands. Despite the positive demand towards their product supply, he showed his concern: *“It used to be more than that. But now I guess due to our slow economic growth, people tend to spend less.”*

The City of Kuala Terengganu had clustered different focus areas for visitors to purchase the fish products such as Losong Village, Seberang Takir, Merang

and Kuala Nerus. It is an integrated initiative to increase Terengganu's food and tourism industries by branding the fish-based products as well as to improve the local socio-economy. In Kuala Nerus, Producer P7 describes his product in details. *"The most famous product is instant fish crackers, we have so many products to count all and it is around 42 products, but the products that we are currently running are 18 products, for the rest, we are heading to that. But other than that we also have fish sausages, mini fish sausages and cheese fish crackers. The only thing that makes our fish sausages are different from others is we put various flavours in the fish sausages, we got curry and garlic flavours so that the people who eat our fish sausages will not get bored."*

In term of production volume, producer P7 added, *"For the best seller, normally in a day we will produce 200 bundles, one bundle equivalent to 100 pieces, 200 bundles in one shift, we have two shifts, so make it into 400 bundles, One shift for one place, we have four places, then it becomes 1600 bundles, one bundle equivalent to 100 pieces, so that's all."* Producers P2 and P7 have invested in large production establishments and gathered all the processes from preparation, cooking, assembling and packaging under one roof, together with on-site warehouses and retail shops. Visitors could see the first hand production routines, creating a stimulating environment and experience, especially for foreign tourists. In the same vein, producer P4 described his fish products are concentrated on sata, otak-otak (spicy baked fish) and fish sausage, but he is known for his sata amongst locals.

Besides fish-based product, another Terengganu's producer, Producer P3 managed to develop a more contemporary and 'commercial' type of products, breaching the stereotypes of conventional production of SMEs food products. She explained, *"We have Savoury Sauce, Grilled Fish Paste, Grilled Fish Paste with Stinky Bean, Grilled Fish in Fermented Durian Paste, Anchovies in Fried chili, Tom yam Paste and chili in Shrimp Paste."* The ready-made products produced by Producer P3 generates a benchmark for other Terengganu's SMEs by producing proper packaging, labelling and standard procedures (similar to any commercial products) for all the products. It teaches other producers how to penetrate and compete in the mass or commercial market,

with the substantial capital invested towards product innovations and marketing, in order to be 'noticeable' to a larger group of consumers.

In addition, dessert producer (producer P5) shared her product classifications as she stated, *"We sell traditional dessert. We sell kuih bahulu (fluffy egg cake with a crusty out layer or Asian 'madeleines'), kuih bakar (Baked pandan custard) and akok (baked egg custard)." Normally, for kuih bahulu we produce around 2000 pieces per day, for kuih bakar we produce only 600 pieces per day, as this is still our new product. But for akok, we can produce even 2000-3000 pieces per day as akok is the best seller here."*

In Pahang, there was a distinct characteristic of its food production. The food products are much more diversified and different from one to another. As compared to Terengganu, this is largely dominated by its fish-based products. Agricultural-based food producer, Producer P8 has multiple types of agricultural products including fruits, vegetables, palm oil, livestock, honey and fresh water fish. He justified, *"Our core businesses are based on food agriculture and plantation, chicken breeding and fish breeding of river and land fishes, for example, catfish or fish that lives in a swamp. We also breed Stingless honeybee (Meliponines) for honey production. We also produce a short-term plantation project for periods like three months or less, for examples, we have corn, pumpkin, and banana. It is an integration project with other permanent plants like palm oil."*

An agricultural food-based industry had grown in many parts of ECM due to the availability of natural resources like land (e.g., palm oil plantation) and fresh water resources (Pahang River for fresh water fish farming) and a suitable climate creates the substantial impacts in agro-food production and processing. It is also worth noting that, besides Producer P7, Producer P9 also took part in the agricultural food production or agro-food focuses on freshwater fish farming and sells them in her own Agro-food shop (AgroBazaar) in Pekan, Pahang. She described in details about her products, *"Okay. With ikan patin (silver catfish), I usually provide 100 kilos of fish because it is easier to get a daily supply every day. If we check the stock by today and identify that it is running low, we can notify other suppliers to deliver the additional 120 kilos of fish. Then tomorrow*

*and the day after we can continue to replenish the stock, so our fish never gets stored for too long, like a week. It must always be fresh. So for patin, I can say around 100 kilos. That's the minimum. Sometimes it can go up to 150 kilos."*

In other locations in Pahang, highland agricultural activity is one of the most important industries in ECM. The climate suitability helps the local producers to plant various species of fruits and vegetables, particularly in the Cameron Highlands, Pahang. Agro Technology Park of MARDI was specially built and located in Cameron Highlands as a leading research and development (RandD) institution to facilitate and monitor the potency of local agricultural activity in Cameron Highlands and Malaysia. Local strawberry producer, Producer P10 stated that *"Yes, our products are strawberry bases. The main products are cordial, two types of jam, topping. We also have acar and halwa (dried strawberry). Those are the core products and the ready-to-eat meal like ice creams and pudding."* Regarding a production volume, he estimated in a week, around 400 bottles of cordial, equivalent to 400 litres and 576 jars of jam.

The diversity and innovation of strawberry productions and products in Cameron Highlands is required in order to circumvent the local market saturation and competition by other producers who also produce similar products and business patterns. Various scales of the strawberry farm became a valuable asset to attract visitors to purchase, pluck and consume the strawberry on site or known as the outlet. The outlet is a medium size premises that combined sections including strawberry farm, production site, food establishment, restaurant and shop. The on-site food tourism experience can attract tourists for extraordinary food experiences and are also of interest to those who value authenticity and locality (Bjork and Kauppinen-Raisanen, 2016). Hence, tourists may be drawn to a particular food site or destination because of many factors, for example, the dining restaurant have been awarded with Michelin stars or endorsed by celebrity chefs, or the places that are known for special or artisanal foods.

Producer P11 is one of the many producers who are also produced strawberries and owned an outlet, *"Yes, that's for product only (strawberry). For this café, it is more to the restaurant concept but not particularly in strawberry. But, we do*

*have several selections of strawberry base drinks, scones. Let say; we did the R&D for the café in terms of customer preferences. Normally, they will choose food items that contain strawberry. Plus strawberry is symbolic of this place. So that's the connection.*" Arrays of strawberry products create an iconic tourism branding and identity for Cameron Highlands as a popular strawberry district in Malaysia. The producers successfully transformed the fresh strawberry into a contemporary and diversified product lines

Producer P11, able to achieve the competitive advantage through his innovation of sambal strawberry or strawberry in fried chili paste, instead of producing the identical generic products like others such as jams, cordials, desserts and fresh strawberry that are produced by almost every producer in Cameron Highlands. He enlightened, *"For a month, we have two types of sambal, original and extra hot, cordial and jam, we able to produce 1000 units for each product. For café, nasi lemak (coconut rice) sambal strawberry is very popular, so the average quantity is around 3000-4000 portions that we produce every month - for fried rice around 1000 plus, following with white rice and soto. Those are top four bestsellers in this café. We will try to shortlist the menu from time to time based on the popularity and practicality to produce. Plus, the farm also produces around one ton of fruit from 27, 000 plants. So, one tree could produce 30 grams of fruits, minus the damages and spoilage, due to the farm condition that is not isolated."*

There seems to be the continuity of product diversifications and innovations in Pahang, which has also influenced this next producer to transform local dishes into a ready-made cooking paste for more significant market segment that requires practical and instant ways of preparing local traditional meals. The demand for this kind of product exists, but it is invariably scarce. It is also could be influenced by the consumers, who preferred traditional or conventional food, rather than an 'instant' product, for example, instant pastes. Producer P12 commented on this issue, *"I produce 44 halal products. But the ones I'm actively promoting are only two, the gulai kawah and opor. But they're in the form of pre-mix. It's different from the beginning when I made pastes, right? Now we've changed and started to make pre-mix in the form of a powder - the ones we are promoting right now. The production is depending on the demand. Within small*

*industries such as mine, they won't run the production every day. It depends on demand and the level of marketing we have. So, in a month we usually run between 3 to 4 productions runs. And when the demand increases, we'll rerun the production. If we do it every day, it's probably for products with a short lifespan that we have to produce every day. Let's say a week. In one week we can produce quite a lot, about 300 to 400 kilos. In one week we can produce 3,000 or 4,000 packets of the pre-mixed paste, around 4,000. In the factory, the basic spices are ground once a month, and then we produce the pre-mix every week."*

Other traditional Pahang's food that has been transformed into a commercial tourism product known in the western part of the state (districts of Raub and Kuala Lipis) called sambal hitam or black fried chili paste is one of the recent most successful SME food products in Pahang produced by Producer P13. She said, *"Sambal hitam and mee sanggul (dried wheat noodle). We make mee basah (fresh noodle) too, but only for the local market. As in Kuala Medang, we sell it to the local restaurants, stores and others. In a week, we process the sambal for three times. Which means, in one production we would produce 250 bottles. So multiply that by three. For the mee sanggul, we only make it twice a week, because we only have one machine to make it. It takes a long time to make and we cannot rush the process. If anything happens, it would be a problem. In one run we can make about 100 numbers of it."*

### **5.2.3 The financial resources and support**

Regarding physical and financial resources, the theme aroused keen interest to all 13 respondents. The principal answers were strongly concentrated on the producer's capital investment and external support from government agencies or government link agencies (GLC) in funding their business operations. Institutions such as Small Medium Enterprise Corporation (SME Corp), Federal Agricultural Marketing Authority Malaysia (FAMA), Malaysian Agricultural Research and Development Institution (MARDI), Majlis Amanah Rakyat (MARA), Yayasan Pembangunan Usahawan (YPU), Jabatan Kemajuan Masyarakat (KEMAS), and Federal Land Consolidation and Rehabilitation Authority (FELCRA), were some of the central physical and financial resource

authorities that help to support the producers in terms of funding, machinery, research and development (RandD), entrepreneurial courses and consultations.

Producer P3 describes her established supports from these agencies as she stated, *“At the beginning, I was sharing the capital among three of us, my husband, Mr. Hairudin and me for a sum of MYR 976, 000 (£ 179, 046) roughly. Among the agencies that help us a lot are SME Corp, MARDI, FAMA, MARA, PDNKK, Ministry of Finance (MOF), Ministry of Agriculture (MOA), Ministry of International Trade and Export (MATRADE) and a few others. MARDI provides us more on advice on product and branding. With the help of MATRADE, we can bring our product to overseas, such as the UK. With MOA we have brought in our product to Brunei and Australia.”*

It shows that producer P3 reputedly built-up by the strong support from the important agencies that benefited her company to boost into the mass market easily, at the same time with almost MYR 1 Million (£ 183, 449) of capital invested, producer P3 fully utilized the resources that significantly match the company's virtue of operation. The producer P4 also gave a similar opinion upon the use of personal capital and getting support from the agencies. He said that *“Yes, from the family capital. After we registered, we received incentives from MARDI, FAMA, YPU and several other agencies, regarding materials and grants, were from KEMAS. MARDI provides us with courses and technology and a few others. So, we utilized most of our financial resources from our capital. For innovation, we send our product to MARDI; they will run the RandD and help us to improve the product. We are still connected with MARDI because we are one of the entrepreneurs being chosen to facilitate and get the advice from MARDI officially.”*

MARDI is a primary agriculture research centre under the Ministry of Agriculture and Agro-based Industry of Malaysia. It conducts research and development strategies to improve the local agricultural, food and agro-based sectors. Besides RandD advancement, MARDI is engaging the local producers with consultancy and technical services such as laboratory analysis and quality assurance, to encourage a sophisticated and advanced practice of agricultural activities. This agency had contributed its important services and platforms to

co-organise and co-structure the local food-based or agriculture-based producers to familiarize with modern technologies and promote the benefits of RandD to their products.

In addition to that, MARDI also supports other producers in Cameron Highlands; one of them is producer P10 who received grants and machinery support. *“We started with our capital MYR 200, 000 (£ 36, 690). During that time we only have this outlet. We also received some injections from FAMA, Agriculture Department, MARDI in the form of grant and machines. They also provide us with training, courses and workshops for entrepreneurial support. The participation is compulsory, because we had mutual engagement, so we need to follow their requirements fully. Another agency is Standard and Industrial Research Institute of Malaysia (SIRIM). They organized programs such as MAHA Expo, so we need to take part and currently, Cameron Highlands is one of the districts under the program Satu Daerah, Satu Industri (One District, One Industry) for strawberry.”*

Regarding other inputs on physical and financial resources, producer P12 highlighted, *“In the beginning, I used my capital of MYR 25, 000 (£ 4, 586) for RandD in 2004. The process took five years to complete. Then in 2009, I successfully registered the business. Later, I received some help from KEMAS Department of Pahang. I also received two financial loans from Farmer’s Organization Authority of Pahang (LPP) and the Department of Agriculture. The rest of the capital was my own until my factory caught on fire. At the recovery stage, I received support from FAMA and SIRIM regarding consultations and others.”*

The active agencies support provides a consensus for producers to apply and fulfil the criteria to involve and receive the agencies various forms of support and facilitation, to ensure SMEs food business certifications, sustainability and growth. Producer P13 pointed out, *“I started everything on my own. I also received supports from The Ministry of Rural and Regional Development (KKW), FAMA, Department of Agriculture, FELCRA and AKPP and the District Office. Mostly they were related to promotional-based supports. For example, the District’s Office would bring in their experts as well as FAMA and the*

*Department of Agriculture. A lot of agencies helped us. SIRIM brought ECERDC or East Coast Economic Region Development Council. ECER is where we got the packaging incentive. It was a program under the ECER for entrepreneurs. But, it must be started by us and we need to work hard on it.”*

Furthermore, FAMA is also a subsidiary department like MARDI under the Ministry of Agriculture and Agro-Based Industry, a body that is responsible for strengthening the supply chain and food network through contract farming, expand market access and improve marketing and promotion of agro-food and agro-based industry products. FAMA is well known amongst the agro-food producers around Malaysia, where they receive the high-quality vegetables and fruits supplied by this agency. Producers P3, P4, P12 and P13 shared the common values and interests on FAMA, helping them to market the agro-food products and to ensure the continuity of their product availabilities and affordability for the consumers. However, not all producers were well-engaged with the government agencies to obtain the physical and financial resources. Some of the respondents preferred to be more ‘individualistic’ for example; producer P1, she defended, *“No! Not at all. All by myself without any help or support from any agencies. Everything is from my capital. We started with small capital and all on our own. So far, I still enable to feed and support my family and children.”* The opinion from Producer P1 stated that she did not need any assistance from the related agencies and preferred to run the business without any institutional attachments or engagements that inevitably would involve with the strict and complex requirements set by the agencies to apply for their funding or services. It was also further emphasized by the producer P7 regarding this matter, *“We started with RM500 (£ 92.00) only and until now, we not use any bank loans. So, all the while, we use our own capital. There are some agencies, but they only provide us with courses, advices and support, but not financially. We did apply for the financial support, but as you know, that they opted plenty of requirements and so on, that’s why at last we gave up and decided to use our own. But for courses, yes, it is so easy to be accepted.”*

## 5.3 Intermediate inputs

After establishing the foundation of primary production phase of the producer's resources management that sets to be the internal core of any tourism product, the food production for tourism market supply requires the input of right services, tools and provisions to make the food product useful and delivered to the tourists or even for the general users. Therefore, this section will discuss the intermediate inputs in the form of service platforms used by the food producers, based on the performances of their customer and marketing abilities as well as the role of supply/value chain system that refers as the performance of particular tasks required to meet the need of tourists (Smith, 1994).

### 5.3.1 Customer and marketing ability

Marketing and customer service is a constant and substantial theme to be discussed with the respondents due to its high propensity that influences the entire structure of the business operations and product developments to fulfil the needs and demands of the end-users. The customer is the principal indicator of the business performance and reputation, based on their purchasing powers and consumption patterns. Meanwhile, marketing is a valuable tool to visually and physically deliver the product to reach customer attention beforehand. For food producers in ECM, marketing techniques could be challenging depending on their financial allocations, feasibilities, technological knowledge and current market exposure, to choose the most effective medium yet the most cost-efficient to invest in product marketing.

Some of the producers are targeting the local visitors and people based on their ethnicities, predominantly amongst Malay users, because they are more familiar with the food products produced, as described by producer P12, *"The target is the Malay. The spices that we produce are compatible with the tastes of the Malays and the targeted demographic is a family group. That is our target. Because mostly are Malays who love to eat the opor and gulai kawah as well."* In part of the discussions, producer P12 briefly explained the challenges he occurred when he changed the product from paste to pre-mix form. *"Concerning demand, when I was making it in a paste form, the demand was quite high*

*because it was easy to use in cooking, etc. When I came out with the pre-mix product, the majority of my Malay customers are a bit sceptical because for them, opor or gulai kawah spices in pre-mix forms are quite new and it an instant product. So, it was quite hard to penetrate the market. We need times to educate them on everything about this new form of products. Recently, the demand has increased, and from that, we receive more customers. But in terms of how much, after the fire incident, I cannot tell. This is the first time I have brought these products back to the market.”*

The market concentration is helping the producers to focus on the promotional activities to achieve their desired consumers from different demographic backgrounds. Still, due to low possessions of ‘mass-market’ and ‘mass media’, with the surplus competition from other mainstream and multinational food products, SMEs producers particularly in ECM face some difficulties to reach the market for the first five to ten years of business. In the same notion, Producer P3 seems agreed with the challenges faced by the small-scale food producers to position the product. *“I started to market my product in Terengganu. However, the mentality of the Terengganu people was different at that time, as they could not accept the product in proper seal packaging and preferred in the plastic container instead. But as we know, regarding safety and perishability, plastic container is not advisable. Therefore, I have to try and market my product outside of Terengganu. I just came back from Terengganu last year to sponsor the Terengganu Football Team. From there, I took a chance to market my product by giving them a T-shirt, and finally, they accept my product. So, in terms of customer now, it is not that bad.”* She also explained the marketing aspect of her business as she added, *“I have my marketing team and an experienced sale manager. She is already 50 years old, but her experience and knowledge are impeccable. Because for me, besides having a good product, we must have a good marketing strategy as well. Branding is crucial because branding or packaging is part of the communication medium for our products. I have spent about two years just for the branding of my products, and for the third year, I know where I could bring in my products and where I cannot.”*

A similar consumer's pattern in Terengganu also experienced by Producer P4; *"In terms of customer's demand, we received more demands from non-Terengganu customers. But the demand is still going good; it is not that bad actually."* Meanwhile, for producer P1, her sate ikan products had received positive reputations from their loyal and repeated customers that took her supply from her home-based production. She said, *"The consumer demands are relatively consistent through the years; amongst them are local sellers, direct customers from the locals and other states through recommendations and word of mouth (WOM) from their peers or family. So far, the reputations are positive and the demand increases during the school break and festivity seasons and for marketing, we tried to distribute free tasting samples."*

The demand for fish-based food products is relatively consistent through the years in Terengganu. High demands of those products, specifically the fish sausages and fish crackers (dried/cooked) came from the customers mainly in the West Coast of Peninsular Malaysia such as Kuala Lumpur, Selangor and Penang. It is due to the customer's preference to purchase and consume the original products from Terengganu or ECM instead of having the replicated ones from their places. Fish products producer, producer P2, acknowledged this scenario further, *"So far the business is doing well. Demand from the customer is still there. We received feedback from our customer. Some of them were happy and satisfied with our product. Nevertheless, there were also complaints regarding our product. But we take it as a lesson and reference. Sometimes we are not aware when we make the mistakes. Overall, they are satisfied with the taste of our product, quality and price. Our price might be slightly high compared to other producers, but our quality is the best. Even though, complaints are saying that our fish sausage in vacuum pack is easy to spoil and the quality not guaranteed for a longer time. Fish sausages in vacuum pack are a half-cooked product and its condition must not compare to fish crackers, which is raw and dry. It is long-lasting, even for a month."*

Various methods of marketing are utilized, or even some of the producers attempted the 'trial-and-error' approach, that recently is being extensively used such as social media or a more conventional technique of Word of Mouth (WOM) marketing, as described by producer P2, *"Usually it is through word of*

*mouth. People tend to buy in bulk when they came and resold them in Kuala Lumpur (KL). Sometimes they even introduce my products to their friends in KL. That is how I get my connections.”* Producer P6 also contributed her statement on this matter, *“I have tried to promote my product using Instagram, my friend teaches me, but it was just for fun only. There was no feedback after all. So, it is mainly through word of mouth from regular customers.”*

The reason of these producers is highly relying on WOM marketing because it is a simple and cheap (no cost) option of marketing especially for producers that allocated a limited amount of budget for marketing. Incessantly, producer P5 explained her trustiness of using WOM marketing for her business, *“We have once promoted our product in a newspaper called Info Niaga. Sometimes, the customers themselves, when they love our product, they will promote it to their friends, posted on Facebook and so on. We have also received a good response from the tourist. So, marketing is mainly through word of mouth from regular customers.”* The WOM marketing technique is based on the pull factor principle. It develops through the transmission of a real marketing message from one individual to another individual or gets the consumer to bring another consumer to the product. It is a useful tool, but the efficiency remains volatile, depending on the customer’s overall positive or negative satisfactions of the selling product. Thus, another low-cost marketing technique alternative is required (e.g., social media, radio or flyers) for the producers to reach more customers instead of entirely relying on WOM that may delay the customer’s volume and turnover.

However, producer P11 re-defined the role of social media marketing technique that he applied as the primary tool for promoting his strawberry food-based products instead of using the conventional/traditional marketing channels. He said, *“It’s a bit secluded (his production location), but there is a campsite located near this village, so the foreign tourists from there which normally occupied by them, will drop by our shop to have a meal or tea break. In another hand, as this village is lacking location visibility, so our marketing strategy is online marketing which are Facebook and Instagram. For the conventional approach, we use buntings and flyers. We utilized the social media and in fact, I*

*forgot to mention about the Agrotek programme, if you realized earlier this year, it showed our product on the television. It is from MARDI if I am not mistaken.”*

Despite the technical aspects of marketing strategy explained by the previous respondents, producer P10 provides exceptional yet interesting details of understanding the role and influence of marketing to his business. He concluded, *“How can I justify this. Marketing or promotion is very minimum, very minimum. We have magazines endorsement for several pages, even for social media, we do not participate that much. Because I do not want to waste my time to sit in front of the computer or mobile phone all the time, it looks traditional, but we can do better. The main concern is capacity. In Cameron Highlands itself, we do not have a sufficient supply capacity to fill the demand. Several unrealistic orders like fruits, some of them require 5 tons of fruits in a month. I definitely cannot take it because I do not have that much capacity. I need to work on what I have and focus on coping with the other important constraints. The demand is there, although we did the contract farming, they cannot produce that much. I have 60,000 plants and it is still inadequate. So that is the limitation.”*

Regardless of the decisive role of marketing, producer P7 emphasized on the other side of marketing strata. He put forward the argument on the failures of some of the Malay SMEs in entering the commercial market. He contended that *“One that I can see is the owners of the product themselves are not confident in their product and give up easily. Like me, I have many competitors, but why I still at the top of the game? It is because I am highly confident with my product even there is a competitor wanted to duplicate our product. And one more, most of our entrepreneurs are not aggressive in proving that they are good, for example, when people call for several times, they simply ignore them. At least give them some simple messages explaining that they are occupied or anything else. Without any feedback being given, the customer would be very disappointed.”*

### **5.3.2 The role of the value/supply chain system**

This sub-theme is focused on product distribution channels, predominantly related to the value/supply chain implemented by the producers. The value

chain works entirely from product design (planning), production (manufacturing, processing), marketing (promotion), delivery (selling and purchasing) and support (feedback) in macro (global/multinational) or micro (local/conventional) levels value chain. Most of the food producers, including some of the respondents, are involved in the micro- level value chain. As stated by producer P2, *“Oh yes, we have a retailer, and they will come to buy in bulk and sell our products outside of Terengganu. For example, they will buy 200 or 300 sticks and mark up the price in Kuala Lumpur, and normally they are our close friends. Local people will come and buy directly from us. We also have agents, but not the registered one that has the government licence. They are more to a personal or individual party that will sell our product outside in a small scale.”*

Producer P13 also applied the similar system of ‘retailers and agents’ to distribute her product, as she mentioned, *“We do sell them through agents. Apart from it, we also supply to the retailers only if they come directly to us, for example, from the homestay owners. Other than that we supply it to the Darul Makmur Supermarket. We targeted mainly for the non-local visitors to avoid stiff competitions from the locals. We actually have a shop in Singapore with MARA. We also have another unit on the highway to Cameron Highlands.”* This producer managed to develop a collaborative-network with multiple retailers with several outlets.

The value chain is arguably an important ‘instrument’ that organises the product in systematic order until it reaches the final user. Producers could choose who and where to distribute their products and how much they afford to hire the stakeholders in the channels. Some producers ventured into local supermarkets or grocery stores to achieve better commercial values and market positions. In this case, producers P12 and P3 described their products are marketed mainly for the local supermarkets and hypermarkets. As stated by producer P12, *“Right now, we supply directly to supermarkets. We do not have agents yet because if I wanted to have agents, I would need a bigger production. So, at this time we supply directly to supermarkets. For the personal customer, they can come to our workshop and buy directly from there.”* Whereas, producer P4 posited her business value chain credibility, *“We have brought our products into Giant Hypermarket; we now have 22 outlets all over Malaysia. We have also brought*

*our products into Tesco Hypermarket, Sabasun Supermarket, and several other hypermarkets.”*

The producers are perceived and treated within the value chain differently by not conducting a traditional style of distribution channel that are is sequential order. They tend to omit some of the channels (e.g., producer-agent-customer) or even not use any of them due to the financial and time constraints that need a weighty commitment once they are involved in the system; or merely concluded as ‘only selling directly to the customer’ as implemented by producers P5 and P10. From this viewpoint, Producer P4 showed his concern on this matter. *“So far, we do not use any supply chain medium; everything is straight to the customer. For agents, we post our product to them. We don’t have the capabilities to adapt to the supply chain method, as our production is limited and we produce everything manually. So we cannot supply the product for retailers. Why do we not do it? Because one thing about retailers or supermarkets, they want us to be consistent. For manual producers like us, it is a problem to keep up with the momentum. Previously, I have entered Sabasun Supermarket, but we failed due to the inconsistency of supply and we are not capable of increasing our production on time.”*

Moreover, another reason caused by the current economic situation as what producer P6 stated, *“No, because we do not have enough time to do it. The process to make satay is time-consuming. If we try to do it, we need to sell them at a higher price. But, normally the person who wants to buy and resell my product, they will ask for a lower price and of course, we can’t provide that. Furthermore, the economic condition nowadays is terrible. But if they want to buy at a high price, we can give them, and of course, they will sell with a price which is higher than that.”*

The wholesaler is one of the intermediaries in the value chain channel, which interacts with producer, retailer and customer. The distribution pattern of ‘producer to wholesaler to customer’ was identified amongst agriculture food-based producers in Pahang. Producer P8 provides the answer, *“Like chicken; we strictly keep the distribution only for the wholesalers. Like kettles or short-term plants, I did open a small stall in front of my house, to sell any agricultural*

products directly to the ‘open customers’ or for the customers that pass by the road.” In contrast to producer P9, she simply stated, “Yes, we do but not many of them.” Plate 5.2 shows some of the agro-food activities run by producer P8 including freshwater fish (river fish) breeding at the side of Pahang River and chicken breeding which mainly supply local wholesalers and direct customers.

Plate 5.1: Freshwater fish and chicken breeding in Pekan, Pahang



Source: Author

One aspect derived from the discussion of the value chain system in SMEs food production business is that the system could be fully utilized depending on the producer’s financial and physical capabilities. They will not implement the system unless they have a proper and adequate capacity to supply the products from one channel to another, as it associates with a highly stringent commitment to fully occupy the value/supply chain system that is influenced by the evolving market changes and economic conditions.

#### 5.4 Intermediate outputs

The third stage of the tourism production process is the activities to put forward the product closer to the tourism market. The transition from intermediate inputs to intermediate outputs associated with commercialization strategies to ensure the product is ‘food tourism-oriented’. The following sub-section examined the respondent’s export and trade strategies. This section also verified their

engagements on regional tourism development and the impact of tourism on their businesses.

#### 5.4.1 Export and trade strategies

This sub-theme is subjected to ECM food production and export/trade performance associations, related to the penetration of international and tourism market. Malaysia has recognized the importance of SMEs by designing and developing policies to inspire, support, and fund SMEs establishments. SME Corp and Malaysia External Trade Development Corporation (MATRADE) have benefited the overall local SMEs in enhancing SMEs position internationally. MATRADE and Ministry of Agriculture and Agro-based Industry (MOA) in particular have facilitated the platforms and opportunities of international market expansion for producer P4. She established, *“So far we have a good market demand in Singapore. With help from MATRADE, we could bring our products into the UK market, but to establish in the UK, we must keep on with their standards. For example, we have to send our product for a sample there and the cost is so expensive, about 4, 000 Pound Sterling, so I have to let it go first. In Manchester, I also market my product in the Malaysian Food Supermarket. That one is online e-commerce. With help from MOA, I can supply my products to Brunei and Australia as well. I am now seeking the opportunity to market my product to China, Saudi Arabia and Germany.”*

As mentioned by producer P4 in the previous paragraph, Singapore is the closest ASEAN country and one example of an international market that garnered attention and interests for many local SMEs to position their food products. Singapore is pitching itself ahead with internationalization for SMEs growth and engaging their SMEs networks within the Southeast Asia region amongst top five SMEs market of Malaysia, Indonesia, Thailand, Vietnam and the Philippines. Evidence is exhibited by producer P13, *“We do that (export) through agencies like FAMA to Singapore. And also, international students who bring the products back home. That is usual.”* Apart from producer P13, producer P7 has expanded his product not only in Singapore territory; he further emphasized that *“Now we have the new demand from Singapore, Saudi Arabia, Thailand, Indonesia, Brunei and Qatar. We received demands from overseas*

*even though our product lasted for six months. They choose us because our products are not containing any preservative, so the originality still preserved.”*

According to producer P7, regarding local initiatives to encourage regional SMEs business ‘internationalization’ and export capabilities, the Terengganu state government reinforced the initiative through tourism linked activities such as tourism-related exposition and tourists visit the production places and shops at the SMEs food establishments. In other words, producer P7 continued, *“We do not export our product, the tourists/visitors bought and brought back to their country.”* Consequently, a state tourism campaign called ‘Beautiful Terengganu’ also considered as one of the substantial platforms for local SMEs to generate a better market position amongst a vaster and diverse group of consumers and tourists. He believed that *“So there (tourism programs), they are various people that will come down. Normally when I get into the expo, I targeted only for visitors to sample my product instead of buying it, at the same time, I believe that they will buy my product once they taste it. My initial purpose is catered to the people’s taste first; whether they want to buy it or not, it is not an issue.”*

However, even with the positive progress made by some of the producers about Singapore’s competitive market, producer P4 described his unsuccessful attempt to venture in Singapore due to one important reason. *“No. We have tried before for Singapore, but unfortunately, we don’t have the luck to penetrate the market due to strict requirements for market entrance. So in the end, we only able to supply 12, 000 stocks of sata and then they urged us to stop. We can’t fulfil their criteria and the distributors in Singapore that in charge of our products and other products from East Coast could not hold the capacity of extensive supply at that time, and they close it down.”* The stringency issue of export and trade requirement is not only applied in Singapore but globally. It is something that threatened and obstructed the small food producers to move further from the domestic market that also related to internal and external barriers. Internal barriers which those associated with the producer are, exporting resources, capabilities, approaches and knowledge on exporting structure. External barriers are involved with foreign rules and regulations, export documentation, differences in consumer patterns and behaviours as well as direct competition from other established brands.

Based on the above notions of export barriers, it seems to have a rationale correlation with what was illustrated by producer P2. *“No, but we thought about it (export). The process to venture into the international market is complicated, as they require many documents such as Halal certificates, track records and many others. We had tried to apply in 2013, but we stopped due to those reasons. Also, it is difficult to bring our product into the local supermarket like Mydin, because they want to sell our product at a low price, but we received an overdue payment from them.”*

Nurturing the international market through export and trade activity is complex and requires an extensive channel to make it happen, for example utilizing the tourism industry with the agro food-based industry that could be developed by the Ministry of Tourism and Tourism Malaysia with FAMA, MOA or MARDI. Another potential and essential focus in exporting or trading the food-based SMEs products is exploring the Halal food market segment. Malaysia is one of the most important Halal food hubs in Asia and the World. The rise of Muslim tourists' arrivals of more than 25 million since 2013 from 13 Islamic nations (Tourism Malaysia, 2015), showed a significance of the Muslim markets and the influence of Halal food products, allowing local food producers to produce more Muslim-friendly product to be positioned for worldwide Muslim market segments and also for non-Muslim tourists.

Producer P10 emphasized on the Halal market opportunity that he wants to get involved soon. He said, *“So far, not yet (direct export), but we sub our products through programs from FAMA to promote our product. On 25th, it will be held the Halal Market Conference for Tokyo Summer Olympics 2020, so the organizers' initiative is to gather all the Halal products from Malaysia to bring them for Tokyo 2020 because Malaysia is the main Halal hub for Japan.”* His business rival, producer P11 also enlightened the Halal market subject that transpired his strawberry production. *“We not yet in the path of product export because one of the issues, our cordial and jam were Halal, and we have joined the MIHAS Expo. We engaged with several markets like China and Indonesia; what they want is Halal Certification and HACCP, because it is easier to boost their market when we have these certifications. Even we have a customer from Canada that required HACCP and ISO certifications. One more issue regarding*

*our sambal product was the Chinese supplier who's not renewed the halal licence and got terminated by JAKIM (Department of Islamic Development Malaysia). Now we are working on getting the Halal certification for the sambal products and InshAllah (with God's will), by next year we will join MIHAS Expo to engage more with foreign customers."*

Export and trade segments for SMEs food producers still received an argument regarding the implementation. Some respondents were anonymously agreed that the 'internationalisation' is a complex process and seems unrealistic to apply at the moment as being said by producer P1, *"We do not have any plan yet to reach the overseas market, due to the procedures and controlling constraints, but we will keep strengthening our position in domestic market before anything else."* It is seconded by producer P5 that quite hesitated with the export and trade concept for her business. However, she supplemented, *"Yes, but I do not think that I can manage it because we have time and workers' constraints. One of my customers has offered me to be his/her business partner, but, it seems hard for me with all the procedures and so on. So I refuse to do that."*

Meanwhile, for producer P12, he positively explained why the outreach is not yet important to his business. He directly mentioned, *"Not yet. Being able to reach a foreign market is everyone's goals. But to reach the market, we have to consider the procedures. SIRIM (Standard and Industrial Research Institute of Malaysia) asked me if I wanted to go for overseas with the product, I said I have the intention but why not I penetrate the Malaysian market first, because there is so much potential here."*

The overall discussions of export and trade context or 'internationalisation' from the respondents are no longer an option. It is part of the critical requirement for them to be part of the globalization to obtain a better and broader market positioning. Regardless of the potential barriers emphasized in the previous paragraphs, the respondents and other local food SMEs are struggling to manage their positions in the international scene and competition. The global engagement would bring many advantages for the SMEs and secure networks from local government, agencies and other sectors specifically tourism and

agricultural, which are needed to provide various platforms not only to market the product but to educate the producers as part of network-collaboration incentive with inter-sectoral involvement to grasp the internationalization prospect.

#### **5.4.2 Regional tourism development**

Tourism in this context is incorporated into a destination development plan that takes account of the network-collaboration with local producers, stakeholders and communities. The process of destination tourism development is not only to provide the physical 'attractions' to bring the tourist in; it involved layers of comprehensive factors such as, tourist characteristic/travel pattern, accommodation and tourism-related facilities or infrastructures, economic and political structures, socio-cultural or socio-demographic features, policy, environment and inter-sectoral linkages.

Producers are one of the destination key 'players' that have the power to improve the destination development planning and any related changes caused by ineffective tourism planning that could affect their business operations. In this context, producer P4 bluntly commented, *"How I'm going to say this; tourism development is still in a slow phase. It needs some improvements, for business persons like us, we never been introduced by any tourist segments yet. I think most of us only believe that tourism is all about beautiful places and attractions, but food tourism not yet being recognized and understood in that kind of perspective. I received a customer's suggestion on this matter before this." He suggested that I should link with hotels to demonstrate sata's making for the tourists, in the way of educating the tourists about the local food. But, I don't have the will and capacity to do it yet. So, there is insufficient exposure amongst the food SMEs to explore the tourism market."*

Producer P7 gives a similar opinion about the tourism development issue in Terengganu. While he mentioned the lack of SMEs involved in the state tourism program, producer P7 argued about the poor promotional effort by the state tourism. He explained, *"I think if there are no islands in Terengganu, the tourists will not come to this place, right? For me, we should refer to the developed*

*countries as a role model and then we could modify their strategies according to our customs and cultures. We have the natural attractions here, but promotional efforts for the tourist are not right. We need to learn that from the developed countries. The way they promote their country is so amazing, it makes us wanted to be there. Actually, Terengganu has sufficient budget to do so, for example, promoting Terengganu as a state for traditional food. So when people think about traditional food, they will come to Terengganu. What I mean is there must be a way on how to attract people to come to Terengganu, later once we have achieved of declaring Terengganu as a state for traditional food, it must be followed in sustaining food quality by the food businesses.”*

The issues highlighted that the Terengganu tourism development plan experience a problematic phase, with the critical issues on local entrepreneurial involvement and lack of effective promotions. The local tourism development is more concentrated on the existing products (islands, beaches, nature, and eco-tourism). The promotion leans towards a collection of similar attractions for so many years and the tourism activities/programs are operated based on a vague rather than a niche approach. The same situation also occurred in the state of Pahang. From the observation of current tourism condition in Pahang, producer P11 observed that *“Actually, this year is Visit Pahang Year right? But, I don’t see anything yet regarding engagement with the locals and lack of promotion. Even, Cameron Highland Town Council is not collaborating with them, no promotional efforts being highlighted. Now we almost reach the third trimester but still no updates on that.”*

The Visit Pahang Year 2017 that focused on several major tourist destinations in Pahang has reported that the tourist arrivals increased compared to 2016 by four percent from 1.71 million to 1.79 million (“More visit Pahang this year”, 2017). Nonetheless, the focus of tourism development based on the promotional campaign is still unclear amongst locals, including food producers. The strategy is to increase the number of tourist arrivals and the state received the high economic revenues to distribute to other local sectors and community equally. But the question is how far the state opens this platform to other sectors, stakeholders, producers and people to participate in such a campaign to promote tourism in Pahang? Producer P12 explained this situation further as

he said, “Actually, what I could see from the tourism in Pahang, even with the aggressive promotions and marketing overseas, the tourists keep going to the same old places like the National Park, Tioman Island (Plate 5.3) and Cherating. Tourism has yet to expand to other places, even though with the rigorous promotions and tourists events like the recent one the Visit Pahang Year 2017, everything is still the same. To be fair, it is not yet effective because tourists still visit certain similar places. Like me for example, I live in Ubai. I used to see foreign tourists here on their bikes and having drinks, but that does not happen anymore. So, I think the campaign has not reached its target.”

Plate 5.2: Tioman Islands as one of the important and iconic tourism product in ECM



Source: Author

Lack of tourism products diversities within the tourism planning and strategy caused the stagnancy phase in regional tourism development. Although tourist arrivals have statistically increased, they only re-visit the common places and engage with the similar activities, while there are yet plenty of other local products including food and culture, which can be offered by the state government and tourism agencies. Table 5.3 illustrates the viewpoint of producers P9 and P13 about the tourism issues at the state level.

Table 5.3: Regional tourism development verbatim of producers P9 and P13

| Producers   | Verbatim   |
|-------------|--|
| Producer P9 | “I will focus on Pekan because other places I do not know much of. Pekan has no one-stop centre for tourists. See? There’s |

|                     |   |
|---------------------|---|
|                     | <p><i>none of them. Like in Kuantan there is one in Teluk Cempedak that sells clothes etc. There is none in Pekan. There's no handicraft, or anything else. So, we need to do something. Nowadays there is a university here in Pekan, right? Meaning there is nothing to buy from Pekan for foreigners or outsiders to bring back to their home. Did I hear a while back the one at Nasi Kukus Mama Restaurant? Supposedly they wanted to develop."</i></p>  |
| <p>Producer P13</p> | <p><i>"The district-level SMEs proposed to develop a gallery purposely build for SMEs in Kuala Lipis. When people from the outside come to Kuala Lipis, every SMEs product are there, like gula kabung and all other products. We did suggest to them for that, but it hasn't happened yet. We have many unique attractions in terms of food. For example, if you want to eat patin tempoyak, it's in Temerloh. In Lipis, Raub, we have sambal hitam. Those things are a must to be the enticement for tourists."</i></p> |

Source: Author

As explained by producer P9, she urged that tourism is not just re-branding or re-developing the similar tourist products and locations all the time. Ironically, the tourism development associated with the local population, or demographic groups and business establishments did not receive sufficient attention and opportunities to get involved in the state tourism planning. Both Terengganu and Pahang experienced almost identical issues due to the local tourism governance problem to 'open more doors' for the producers to co-participate and perform in the tourism marketplace. The related issues are the consequences of poor tourism development planning that not entirely involved with the whole tourism system in ECM. The tourism is still developing external destination resources based on natural environments, local culture, business activity and history. Unfortunately, the processes are scattered and not equally distributed in another part of the states, as what was concerned by the interviewees as explained in the previous paragraphs.

Ideally, tourism in ECM areas also generated positive development feedbacks by other producers. Producer P10 shared his interesting history of tourism development in Cameron Highlands, *“Actually, it was opened for the English Army Officers as their holiday destination. William Cameron was the founder of Cameron Highlands. He built a horse ranch for the horses to have their break. Starting from that this place is slowly developed, from the opening of BOH Tea Plantation and MARDI (was known as Hill Station) as the best agriculture RandD centre in Malaysia. So tourism is a latecomer industry. During my primary school, I did remember the earliest tourism attraction was the flower fest and the last time it was held in 1997 (laughing). Around 15 years ago, tourism marked as the main industry and the popularity increase like 400%.”*

The benefits of tourism are seemed to perceive an advantage resonance to other destinations that have the same issues of tourism development. Technically, tourism is commonly signified in generating local income, helping the local business and social development. Based on producer P8 opinion, *“My opinion is tourism is very profitable for individual or government. That’s the first one. Secondly, tourism is indirectly able to generate the domestic economy to the local people.”* Also, the positive aspects also perceived by the producer P5 based on his short explanation, *“So with these attractive places, the tourist will be eager to come here and indirectly will give impact to our business here actually.”*

### **5.4.3 Importance of tourism influences**

The importance of tourism influence is another theme which reveals the connection of local food production that can be integrated with local tourism (food trails, food festival, farmers’ market, street foods and authentic local restaurants) and create additional values for socio-economic activity at the destination. The tourism influences used to identify the producer’s level of acceptance, adaptability and participation, integrating them with the local tourism sector or food tourism-related activity at the destination. Locally produced food and food production, as well as the destination, can be the major resources to develop a food and tourism collaborative approach between producers and tourists.

According to producer P10, he agreed that *“Actually, we depend on tourism, all of Cameron Highlands. In fact, we are the only district that has Police in Tourism Division (Tourism Police). Everything influenced by tourism; landslide, flood, illegal farming and in 2013 a water dam burst and cause a huge flood. That was the worst year. The whole place was crippled due to the flood and tourists cancelled their trips. And since that everything went downhill from 2013 – 2015. 2016 there was a slight increment and in this year the tourist arrivals maintain. But the news headlines make it even worst. In reality, all the main areas of tourists not affected at all.”*

Another producer from Cameron Highlands, producer P11 also believed that the district and his business location are profoundly influenced by the presence of tourism activity as he stated, *“We do (Tourism influence is important), not only it applies to us, but to benefit the entire village as well. Even, our owner did propose about the tourism plan, but until now, no feedback at all. So, we don’t want to do it alone; we want everyone in this village to participate. I’m hoping it could be done one day.”*

The evidence brought by these respondents showed the significant linkages between tourism and destination. It empowers the growth of local food production, as the tourism activities support the local producers with the tourist arrivals to visit and consume the local food. Tourism provides a channel for the local producers to ‘sell’ and ‘commercialize’ their products, without the tourism network-collaboration, the producers would not be able to achieve better product development and economic function.

At this point, it was stated by producer P13 that *“Yes, I do (influence by tourism). We do notice in Kuala Medang, not just me, but other SMEs as well; we are affected by the declination of tourists coming in. Locals, who sell kerepek or bahulu, are affected by the tourist arrivals. Tourists contribute to their source of incomes. On the other hand, it is a great deal for us to have many people visiting the homestay because we are already reaching out to market our product. But the concern is upon the smaller businesses in Kuala Medang, it’s not just one person making sambal hitam, there are many others in this type of business venture and that significantly would affect them as well.”*

The tourist has a massive influence on the product marketability, enabling local producers to be competitive and outreach the domestic market, by producing a tourist-value product. Producer P2 stated, *“Yes, we do. Approximately 80% are the local tourists and another 20% are international tourists will come and buy fish sausage from my shop. Most of the local tourists are from KL, Kedah and Pahang. However, most of my international customers are from Japan, maybe because fish is their main dish. So for me, the tourism industry is important.”*

In the same notion, despite the importance of tourist arrivals, for producer P5, he embraced his concern on the food quality provided for the tourists to purchase. He explained, *“Yes, we have customers amongst the tourist and they like our product very much. At the same time, we must also maintain our food quality so that the tourist will promote our product when they back to their country.”* Many factors were affecting the tourism influence to the local producers as what has been described by several interviewees including tourism network-collaborations, tourist arrivals and food quality. In addition, media and government agencies also play an essential part in providing tourism support and publicity for the local food producers. It was pointed out by producer P3, *“Yes exactly, for example, the tourism centre promotes my restaurant that sells traditional baked fish to the tourists who come to Terengganu, that’s the way they impact my business. I also appeared in the Asian Food Channel (AFC) program. It was a good media platform for promoting my products. My company is listed in the top five SME by East Coast Economic Region Development Council (ECERDC).”*

However, for some producers, the role of government remains ineffective in certain ways. Producer P12 made a progressive comment on this issue as he commented, *“Because the government is only interested to attract the tourist from the outside. If people from Pekan for example, where do they go on vacation? Pulau Keladi? Kenong? Only those places. But where can it carry them? They want to see the Sultan (Pekan is a royal town of Pahang), but he is not there (palace) all the time. That’s the problem. There needs to be a different strategy. Because people who are visiting our place, they don’t have any idea about our product. For example, if the Pahang state government is calling for tourists to visit Pahang, they don’t have prior knowledge or info about opor in*

*Pahang, unless entrepreneurs like us introduce the food to them. Like me, I will introduce Pahang's cooking and foods, etc., so people could recognize them."*

The understanding and acceptance of tourism influence are different from these interviewees. The reason for such indifference was due to the producer's knowledge and exposure to tourism itself. It is not a 'one-person' or only a producer's task to obtain the tourism knowledge, it involves the entire networks, from society to tourism operators to media and government, in order to deliver the benefit of 'tourism investment' to the producer's performance growth that is not only focusing on the economic effect but to achieve a tourist experiential value. In contrast, producer P6 posited her reason for why she chose to remain to disengage with tourism. She made a simple claim, *"I do it with no concern of tourism influences. Because my satay is a bit sweet and the outsider does not prefer that which most of the foods in Terengganu and Kelantan, are normally sweet. Sometimes the people who order the satay from us will ask us to reduce the sweetness. For the tourist, normally they will try at least the first two pieces of the satay with and without the peanut gravy."*

Hence, to increase a positive influence of tourism amongst local food producers, it must start with the initiatives from producers that become the central factor for tourist food experience, focusing on the tourist consumption characteristics and preference. The dependability of tourism sector towards their productions involved with active participation from the producers that required them to produce, process, market and sell the product that is suitable with the current tourism and tourist standards without abolishing the authenticity and cultural values of the food. Moreover, by connecting the producer, stakeholder, consumer and destination, is the aspiring solution to initiate more understanding and interest of food tourism role, and sharing their resources to develop food-related tourism activities, so that everyone could receive and accept the same communal values of tourism benefits.

## **5.5 Final outputs: tourist involvement and experience**

In the final stage, the final outputs are utilized the tourists' freedom of choice and involvement that enhances the traveller's sense of control and satisfaction of the chosen product (Smith, 1994). These elements generated by the

productive process of transmitting the tourism product from the resources that end up to successfully serving the quality experience or experiential value from the consumption activities. The discussions are related on the respondent's approaches on final output in coordinating food product with tourism development and tourist experience, highlighted based on their understandings on food tourism and the values created for the tourist-oriented product. The respondents need to relate with the understanding of food tourism experience that has been linked to an increase in travel satisfaction and direct economic impact on destinations (Stone and Migacz, 2016; Corriea, Peres, da Costa and Moital, 2008).

### **5.5.1 Food producer's definition and understanding of food tourism**

The discussions commenced with the producer's interpretations of food tourism understanding. Some of them showed an excellent understanding of the term; some are not very familiar with it. It is an important discussion to identify the producer's awareness and appreciations about the current tourism changes in the emerging food tourism trend and how it applies to them and the destination. According to producer P7, *"Based on my understanding, our food becomes the attraction for the tourist. The tourist will come to taste our food. I give you the closest example; the Singaporean comes to Terengganu to taste my fish crackers. They will not only see the beauty of Terengganu, at the same time, but they are also interested to know the process of making fish crackers. So they come to my place."*

In this context, he made a critical verdict on the reason that Terengganu still failed to implement food tourism, he commented, *"I can see that one of the reason is the food standard itself. We are very conservative, and when we try to upgrade the product, the people sometimes could not accept it. For instance, we got fish satay which is famous in Terengganu. Why not we pack the satay nicely, as well as the fish crackers to make them standardize so that the people tend to buy and bring back to their countries as a gift to their relatives and friends. That is one thing that I can see as the weakness in which they are not courageous enough to make any differences or step out of the game."*

In the context of food as a gift or souvenir for the tourists to bring back home, producer P2 also shared a similar opinion with producer P7 as he confided, *“Yes, I’ve heard about it. Based on my understanding, tourist will come and buy the local food product as a souvenir or gift to bring back to their country. For example, in Sarawak, they have Kek Lapis (layer cake), in Kelantan, they have dodol (sweet sticky toffee-like candy) and for Pahang, I don’t know much about the traditional food.”* He also received many tourists who came and took part in his production, proven that producer P2 is actively and supportively engaged with the tourist activity. He continued, *“Yes, we do. Sometimes travel agent will contact my manager to inform us that there are coming with the tourists from all over the world. They would like to try local food. I received a warm welcome from them. Some of them are from Japan, America and Africa. I still remember when there was one tourist from Japan came and ate our raw fish fillet which not processed yet. He liked the taste of our fish maybe because they get used to the taste of raw fish.”*

A fish-based food product that is depicted in Plate 5.4 conceived as a robust asset for local producers in Terengganu as a resemblance of local culture, heritage and people. The traditional food products in ECM have contributed a momentous impact on local tourism development, especially the demand from the domestic tourists.

*Plate 5.3: Examples of various signature local food products (left; dried fish crackers, right; fermented seafood sauces) that sell in the local food market in Terengganu*



Source: Author

Local food holds the pride and authenticity of the local place, people and culture that could become an important tourism product for destination development. But the lack of insights and actions on its potential to escalate the destination tourism development by some of the producers and government bodies might hinder the entire plan and aspiration. It is what had been expressed by producer P3 on this matter. *“In my opinion, food and tourism are just like rhythm in a song; it moves together. For example, when we go to a beautiful country but we do not even find the food to eat there. The only thing is how strong we are to bring our product in. I am so sad due to the fact that Terengganu is the fourth place of the best seller for fish sausage, where it is originally a Terengganu signature food, why not they just built like one-stop centre, every time the tourist comes to Terengganu, beside of enjoying the beauty of our attractive locations, they also would like to try our signature food.”*

Food tourism is generally the capitalization of local or traditional food of the specific destination that is highlighted directly or indirectly to attract tourists to try the food and deliver the entire culinary experience from the beginning of the consumption process till the end. Table 5.4 demonstrated the viewpoints of producers P12, P8 and P11 regarding their conceptions of food tourism.

Table 5.4: Definition and understanding of food tourism of producers P12, P8 and P11

| Producers    | Verbatim  |
|--------------|---|
| Producer P12 | <i>“Yes, I have heard of that. In my understanding, it is about (...). Because if we are talking about Ubai, there is nasi dagang (local rice dish with fish gravy). If Ubai is already known for the nasi dagang, the whole state of Pahang will go there for the food. Not only with nasi dagang, but there could be other food business opportunities that could be operated, other than nasi dagang itself. Starting from nasi dagang, many more people would be interested in coming. When a tourist comes for that, there would also be economic development in other areas as well.”</i> |
| Producer P8  | <i>“Food tourism? I heard of it before, but I not able to implement the concept here. I actually try to develop the agro-tourism or</i>   |

|              |  |
|--------------|--|
|              | <i>aqua-tourism concept, not food tourism. But both of them are correlated with one and another. But it is a good initiative or movement to put forward. Tourism agencies need to play their role to help and promote food tourism because the primary market is food and with that customer or tourist would come because of the food.”</i>   |
| Producer P11 | <i>“I never heard of food tourism. In Cameron Highlands itself, the food tourism is not yet familiar here. Actually, we had planned to organize a program in Kampung Taman Sedia, similar to what they did in Japan called The Strawberry Festival. So the plan was to collaborate with other producers for the event. But it could be in the future, to create this village as a Food Tourism Hub.”</i> |

Source: Author

Food consumption is a human necessity, but food in a contemporary domain can be essential tourism resources and destination development strategies. Tourist food consumption (TFC) is relatable to tourist holiday purpose that defines according to their behaviours and demographic characteristics. In this context, producer P10 shared his experience on several types of tourists that visited his food establishment. *“One thing that I realize from the tourists is they are quite ‘stingy’ to spend the money. Let say, if they came in a group of five, they would buy one ice cream at first. Once they satisfy with the taste, then they will buy for each one of them. So, they are very money ‘oriented’. These are amongst westerners not for Middle Eastern tourists. They would not spend so much on food; they prefer outdoor activities like jungle tracking. They love some of the ice-blended products and chocolate dips. But strawberry is very familiar for them, even in their countries; they have better quality and products. For Middle Eastern, they are lavish spenders. They love to buy and try everything. They do not like free offers, because they will feel offended and it will impair their status.”*

From his finding of tourist consumptions, it is considered as a complex behaviour, reflected by their cultural, social, psychological, economic and education status, ethnic and religious practice, which were unparalleled and

ambiguous to segment their food choices and preferences. Nevertheless, the understanding of food tourism amongst other respondents remained scarce. From that it is clear that not much being is done by the tourism bodies in a state or higher government levels in educating and promoting to the local producers about the benefits they could gain in terms of profits, marketing and image opportunities by injecting their locally produced food as part of regional tourism product and promotional activity. The advantages received not only helping them but the entire socio-economic development of the local areas.

### **5.5.2 Tourist-oriented product strategy**

The second subject that emerged from the discussion is related to the tourist-oriented product and strategy. This part of the chapter highlights about producer's plans to produce a tourist elements product and their execution to make it happen. The product is the critical asset for the producer to capitalize their business into the tourism sector and it is part of the requirement for them to have a better position in the tourist market. Understanding the tourist characteristics and preferences would help them to produce the right strategy to penetrate the tourist needs and demands. It was stated by producer P2 that *"Yes, for me it is imperative and relevant to my business. Although local tourist already gives high impact to my business, with international tourist, it gives even a higher impact. For them, our local food is relatively cheap and easy to get, might be due to our currency. One of our tourist-friendly products, for example, our fish sausage in vacuum pack is tourist-friendly."*

The product that has the practicalities and conveniences, in terms of packaging, instant cooking method and long-lasting, would ease the tourist to bring the product home as a souvenir. It is one of the main strategies conducted by producer P3 as she explained, *"Yes, my products considered as tourist-oriented products. Now I am in the process to make the savoury sauce, shrimp in chili paste and anchovy chili pastes in a sachet so that it easier for tourist or people who travel. We have also sent our products to ERAMAN Shop, in Kuala Lumpur International Airport (KLIA) and surprisingly they have repeated the order from us twice."*

According to producers P11 and P13, they are also actively engaged in producing tourist-oriented products, positively convinced by the tourist demands and responses. Both of them produce chili-based products (strawberry in chili paste (producer P11) and black chili paste (producer P13)) in glass and plastic jars. These producers show their deep understandings of consumer behaviour and tourism marketplace because producing tourism product is not only concerned with an individual demand, but it links to various intrinsic and extrinsic factors affecting that demand (taste, ingredients, packaging, labelling). That is why producers acquire feasible knowledge and strategy if they chose to take part in the tourism market.

There are variations of producer's approaches that can be categorized into two segments; product diversification and product concentration (Benur and Bremwell, 2015). These approaches are highly crucial for tourism destination development, emphasized through the production of primary tourism food-based products. The product diversification is involved with the producers who offer a variety of local food products to supply to different types of tourist motivations and demographics, showing the diverse flexibility of choices that meet the complexities of tourist demands. This diversification approach helps Producer P10 to explore a different tourism marketplace as he pointed out that *"Yes, they are not interested (foreign tourists) in a packaged food product, but locals love it. Somehow, the situation is different when we join the conventions or expos, and sometimes I did trade my products with other countries like Yemen. But they are very interested in our products, desserts and other kinds. Even the Dip and Dip Company owned by Syrian businessman. They came to my place and tried the strawberry with melted chocolate and it ignites them. For them, it's something new."*

Tourism product diversification is not only focusing on the physical product features; it also associated with the integrative network from different destination stakeholders by sharing universal benefits and support in exchange to increase producer and destination tourism competitiveness. The integrations would encourage the producer to produce various product options and the government agency would use that product to attract the inbound and outbound tourist. Producer P7 illustrates it further, *"Normally I received the tourist from*

*events or tours organized by the state government. I will refer to the state first if there are events that involve the tourist and ask them to take the tourist to my factory. I never feel embarrassed if they bring the tourist to my factory as it is well equipped and some more I am planning to make Kuala Nerus as our territory when the outsider comes to Kuala Nerus they will know this is our territory/production place. I want to build our Food Marts all around Malaysia, and we will sell the entire SMEs product with the well-equipped boiler or deep fryer so that the customer can directly boil and fry the fish sausages or fish crackers there if they want to. But still with a low price.”*

The product concentration is associated with production-focus on a limited or one food product that is essential to destination promotion instead of using variations of a product (product diversity). This approach would create a niche market segment to the destination and tourist will recognize it as one major attraction. Pertaining to this context, producer P12 mentioned, *“If we are talking about this, it is simple. For example, if tourists come, they try the opor and like it, but they don’t know how to prepare it. So, if I produce a ready-made product, I would need to package it and so on. I would need to plan and spend a lot of money. Previously I planned to do something like Rendang Tok (traditional spices paste for beef or meat) in a sealed bag; when you want to eat, heat it, take it out then you can eat it right away, probably on something like that. I did some R&D in 2012 to produce ready-to-eat Opor in a can, but due to the capital constraint, I could not determine to precede it or not. So I decided to postpone (that plan). So, regarding planning, it is already there. For people to come and get the products that they could use instantly without involving any cooking, the plan is there.”*

Both product diversification and concentration provide the potential benefits for the producers regarding profits, branding, marketing and overall destination development. With food product diversity that is used by Producers P7 and P10, it could accommodate different tourist segments that consist of multifaceted demand behaviours and characteristics towards specific food products or provide more extensive market flexibility. In contrast, product concentration encourages the focus or niche value to the destination tourism food product,

with all the planning and strategies only invested in strengthening this one particular primary product as that used to create the tourism identity.

## **5.6 Summary**

The interview analysis identified different series of ECM producers' inputs and viewpoints of their operations and products that highly associated with the tourism production process by Smith (1994), to generate destination's added-value, engaged with tourist experience and utilize tourism channel for ECM food products. Overall, the interviews have discussed the overall key themes and contexts of the objective. The responses have covered all aspects and stages in the tourism production process, from primary production to final outputs. The information is essential for local food producers to improve and market their food products for tourists.

The tourism production process functions as the main driver to measure the respondent's production capabilities to integrate with the tourism industry. The integration is formed by capitalizing 'food tourism' channel to attract more tourists to participate in the local food-related activities and generate a positive travelling experience. The 13 respondents have provided with many significant insights in response to the linkages of production and tourism. The success of local food and tourism collaborations would increase the promotional values, reassuring more tourists' consumption activity of locally-sourced food product. This could result in the increase of producer incomes, uplifting the socio-economic development and creating a destination 'branding' of the unique food product. The interviews also added new perspectives about the importance of local producers to meet complex tourist demands; developing food resources into a compatible tourism product and consistency in producing food product that strongly reflects the region's place and culture.

Consequently, the overall tourism development highlighted by the different arguments from the interviewees, indicate that tourism in ECM needs to be more focus and balance. By doing so, all the producers and stakeholders could build a proper food tourism network and reinforce tourism development. The development and implementation issues also exist amongst the producers, due

to ineffective tourism planning and lack of. To overcome the production issues, producers and destination are required to create additional tourism products and generating added-value to the existing ones. In the next section, Chapter 6 will present the results of the quantitative analysis from the questionnaire survey for international tourist in ECM.

## **CHAPTER 6: TOURIST FOOD CONSUMPTION (TFC) CHARACTERISTICS AND PATTERNS**

### **6.1 Introduction**

Food tourism exhibits itself by tourist consumption of authentic, local food produced by local producers at a destination. The consumption process involves interrelated food experiences and local culture, combining the tourist food-related activities of tasting, dining, buying, observing or participating in the preparations of local food. The concept of food tourism consumption also encompasses other activities including visits to wineries, chef demonstrations and trips accompanying farmers or fishermen (Long, 2006). The purpose of food consumption during travelling also varies according to tourist involvements and interests in engaging with the local food, that relate to the tourist understanding and perception of food while travelling either as the main holiday program or just ancillary activities at a destination. Each of these represents a potential antecedent of food tourist segments for the food and destination tourism providers to target and develop food tourism niche markets based on the dynamic patterns of tourist food consumption activities.

It is important to note that tourist consumption and demand for food varies significantly according to several factors, including tourist demographics and motivations. It is essential to understand the tourist food consumption characteristics and patterns, to improve the destination food and tourism strategies in transforming food as a primary tourism product, as well as analysing the linkages between tourism and food production. In that case, this chapter aims to examine the second research objective; to determine the characteristic and pattern of tourist food consumption. The objective is to identify three important aspects of tourist characteristics in the context of influencing food tourism development:

- To determine the relationships between the demographic characteristics and motivation factors in affecting the tourist food consumption.
- To identify the determinants of food tourist levels at a holiday destination.
- Segmenting (clustering) tourist patterns based on their levels of food motivation during the holiday.

In this context, this chapter describes and analyses the results regarding tourist food consumption characteristics and patterns based on the data obtained from the international tourists who visited East Coast Malaysia (ECM). Considering the results of the primary variables of the questionnaire were segmented in the different stages of analysis. First, the descriptive analysis examines nine distinctive tourist demographic variables. The second part of descriptive statistics considered the following variables; food tourism profile and four dimensions of the food motivation factor including food preference, food expectation, food experience and food intention. This chapter also aims to present a bivariate analysis of all the variables and the results provide an examination of the relationships and differences of each variable based on the Mann-Whitney U test, Kruskal Wallis and Chi-square independence statistic. A two-step cluster analysis was also conducted to identify the structures of the data and segment homogeneous groups of tourists.

## 6.2 Descriptive results of tourists' demographic and travel characteristics

This research needs to establish tourist segments based on the demographic characteristics. Tourist demographics represent a pivotal component to examine the factors affecting tourist food consumption and the association of tourist degree to which food was essential to their holiday. Therefore, the descriptive results extracted from the frequencies and percentages of each categorical data, provide the platform to understand and synthesis a broader spectrum of tourist demographic and travel characteristics who visited ECM. Table 6.1 demonstrated the descriptive results for nine demographic characteristics.

Table 6.1: Tourist Demographics and travel characteristics descriptive results

| Demographic Characteristics | Total frequency | Total percentage (%) |
|-----------------------------|-----------------|----------------------|
| <b>Gender</b>               |                 |                      |
| Male                        | 83              | 40.7                 |
| Female                      | 121             | 59.3                 |
| <b>Age group</b>            |                 |                      |
| Below 20                    | 23              | 11.3                 |
| 21 – 30                     | 122             | 59.8                 |
| 31 – 40                     | 38              | 18.6                 |

|  |     |       |
|--|-----|-------|
| 41 – 50                                      | 15  | 7.4   |
| 51 – 60                                      | 5   | 2.5   |
| 61 – 70                                      | 1   | 0.5   |
| <b>Highest Education Attained</b>            |     |       |
| High school or equivalent                    | 31  | 15.2  |
| Diploma or equivalent                        | 24  | 11.8  |
| Bachelor's Degree or equivalent              | 90  | 44.1  |
| Master's Degree or equivalent                | 51  | 25.0  |
| Doctor of Philosophy or equivalent           | 8   | 3.9   |
| <b>Country of Origin</b>                     |     |       |
| America                                      | 29  | 14.21 |
| Australasia                                  | 5   | 2.45  |
| Europe                                       | 143 | 70.0  |
| Asia   | 23  | 11.27 |
| Africa/others                                | 4   | 1.96  |
| <b>Frequency of visit to Malaysia</b>        |     |       |
| First time                                   | 167 | 81.9  |
| 2 – 3 visits                                 | 16  | 7.8   |
| More than 3 visits                           | 21  | 10.3  |
| <b>Length of Visit to Malaysia</b>           |     |       |
| 1 week                                       | 21  | 10.3  |
| More than 1 week                             | 183 | 89.7  |
| <b>Main Purpose of Visit</b>                 |     |       |
| Food and beverage                            | 40  | 19.6  |
| Entertainment                                | 16  | 7.8   |
| Cultural                                     | 47  | 23.0  |
| Business                                     | 12  | 5.9   |
| Sport and recreation                         | 17  | 8.3   |
| Nature                                       | 72  | 35.3  |
| <b>Type of Accommodation</b>                 |     |       |
| Rest house/hostel                            | 80  | 39.2  |
| Rented                                       | 24  | 11.8  |
| Resort Complex                               | 32  | 15.7  |
| Hotel  | 66  | 32.4  |
| Others                                       | 2   | 1.0   |
| <b>Estimated Expenditure of Food (Daily)</b> |     |       |
| £1.85 >                                      | 6   | 2.9   |
| £2.78  | 8   | 3.9   |
| £3.71  | 32  | 15.7  |
| £4.63  | 54  | 26.5  |
| £5.56 <                                      | 104 | 51.0  |

Source: Author

The data in Table 6.1 illustrate the gender distinctions for the international tourist. It indicates that female tourists (59.3%) were more likely to participate in answering the questionnaires, compared to the male tourist (40.7%) concerning their visit to ECM during the summer holiday season. Another possibility could also be related to the increasing numbers of female tourists who prefer to travel to ECM than the male tourists

There were a slightly higher proportion of female participants who had consumed foods and beverages (in commercial settings) during their stay in Hong Kong based on the previous study from Mak et al. (2013). Another study by Kim, Kim, and Goh (2011) found the food tourist revisit intentions was led by female 'foodies' that was significantly influenced by their education level, household income and marital status, creating 'exposure and transition' from conventional to modern-society working-class women, using food as a form of a lifestyle. Gender differences measure the roles of male and female towards the local food intake and holiday pattern of the destination. Thus, the importance of female food tourists may help the development of future destination tourism strategy in attracting more female tourists as a market segment.

The second category of age group demographic characteristic distributes by six age-scales ranging from below 20 years old until 70 years old as the maximum age indicator. Majority of respondents belong to the age group of 21 – 30 years old (59.8%). 31 – 40 years old age group represents the second highest value (18.65) and follows by the respondents at the age below than 20 years old (11.3%). For categories above 41 years old, the ranks of tourist were dominantly between the ages of 41 – 50 years old (7.4%). 2.5% of total respondents were amongst the senior citizen of 51 – 60 years old and only 0.5% of them were 61 – 70 years who travelled to this destination.

The age group is an important indicator affecting local food consumptions (Kim et al., 2013). The study by Kim et al. revealed that most respondents of South Korea food tourists were aged between 25 to 34 years old. The findings from Kim et al.'s study correspond with the work of Steptoe, Pollard, and Wardle (1995) showing that food choice motives are associated with the age of the tourists. Robinson and Getz (2016) mentioned that food involvement amongst food enthusiast reported that 58% of the sample was a younger generation (18 – 40 years old), released as the positive indicator of food involvement. However, the research context was different for each of the previous studies. Nonetheless, it is possible to generalize that young respondents below 40 on average, were the dominant group interested in the food-related activity and food involvement during a holiday.

Education is prominently shaping the society and transcends the mind-set of behavioural context on food-related activities. Five types of education levels are measured in Table 6.1. Most respondents (44.1%) were the bachelor's degree holder, follows by postgraduate master's degree qualified respondents (25.0%) ranks at a second place. There were more high school students (15.2%) compared to the diploma (11.8%) and doctor of philosophy graduates (3.9%). In this context, Ryu, Lim, and Lee (2012) surveyed upscale Chinese restaurant customers in the south eastern state of the USA and found that many respondents held bachelor's degree (43.0%), which consisted almost half of the total sample size. Their study was the key example that is in line with the current study of food-related subject relationships with customer's perceived value on food and service quality. Mak et al. (2013), on their demographic profile analysis also indicated that over one-third (highest percentage of total respondents) of the participants had obtained the undergraduate degree (37.9%) who had stayed and consumed food and beverages during their stay in Hong Kong.

For the country of origin characteristics, 35 nationalities are recorded for the 204 participants. The results were divided into five different continents of America, Australasia, Europe, Asia, and Africa. Large numbers of tourist with the percentage of 70.0% came from the European countries while others had equal distributions from the Americas, Asia, and Australasia. According to the 2015 tourist arrivals data in Malaysia, Europe is one of the top regions contributed to the total tourist arrival of more than 1.2 million tourists (Tourism Malaysia Industry Performance Report, 2016). The Americas became the second highest tourist group who participated in this study, with 14.21%, followed by Asia with 11.27%. Australasia and Africa both contributed less than 3.0% of tourist who visited ECM.

The data generated on tourist arrivals based on the country measures the tourist movement to the holiday locations based on factors that identify why there are differences regarding tourist volumes. For example, ECM received more European tourists compared to Asian tourists. The pattern could be influenced by logistics, incomes or past-visit experiences. However, this example of assumption might not serve as the primary determinant to be

identified in this particular study. Torres (2003) examined the function of tourist nationalities with local food consumption. For nationality, non-Americans are more than twice as likely (46.9%) as Americans (20.7%) to have knowledge of Yucatec cuisine. The case of Yucatec cuisine may occur due to the differing attitudes on the part of Americans who viewed Cancun as a nearby, uncomplicated *sun-and-sand* retreat, while more distant visitors were also attracted to the region for its archaeological sites, historical cities and nature reserves.

The descriptive results about the tourist visit frequency to ECM recorded that the majority of them were first time (81.9%) visitors. Further 10.3% of respondents had visited more than three times, and a small percentage of them visited ECM two to three visits (7.8%). The 'frequent tourist' concept has a strong association with revisit intention of the holiday destination. Alderighi et al. (2016) mentioned that the strong preference for a local food speciality combined with the correct identification of its place of origin has a positive consequence on the intention to (re)visit only the product's place of origin, and no significant effects on the intention to (re)visit other destinations.

First time tourists are the dominant group compared to other previous visitors that contributed less than half of the total percentage that possibly related to the lack of 'tourism product values', significantly affected a revisit intention amongst tourists to ECM. The interesting facets of this finding of food travellers are the cause and effect between first-timers and repeat ones. It indicated the intrinsic and extrinsic factors not just on food solely but with the aggregations of tourism promotion, knowledge about the location, hospitality services, tourist activities or climates that create and modify interests amongst the newcomers but less attracted to the tourist that had previously visited Malaysia. This hypothesis or theoretical assumption could be developed in this specific phenomenon, despite being only a single component of tourist overall destination activity, food consumption can stimulate future revisit intentions and recommendations for the destination (Ji, Wong, Eves and Scarles, 2016).

In the case related to tourist lengths of visit, it was tabulated that most of the tourist chose to stay for more than a week (89.7%) at the destination compared

to the tourist (10.3%) who wanted to stay for less than a week periods. Length of stay is considered one of the key aspects of holiday characteristics to be decided, that is associated with the tourist personal and family characteristics and socio-economic variables (Alegre and Pou, 2006). A study from Barros and Machado (2010) found that the longer that a tourist stays at a holiday destination was affected by factors such as age, gender, education and nationality. They presented that the increase of tourist length of stay in Madeira Island, Portugal was influenced by the Madeira wine consumption experience compared to other destination attributes such as casinos and nature. Thus, socio-economic and food/beverage experiences signified the importance of quality, increases the length of tourist stay at the destination.

The distributions about the main purposes of the holiday were categorized into six distinct elements. Subsequently, 35.3% majority of the tourists were nature enthusiast. 23.0% of the tourists were cultural visitors. Food and beverage valued at third rank, with 19.6% of the tourists chose this purpose. The recreation and entertainment purposes were almost equally distributed with 0.5% differences, and the least favourite choice was the business purpose, with only 5.9% of the respondents were related. The results showed that food is not primarily a key attraction, hindered by the presence of nature-based attractions. A similar and relatable case was also reported by DuRand and Heath (2006) in South Africa. They found out that almost 80% of local stakeholders agreed that nature-based attractions are an absolute attraction and best known amongst tourist visiting South Africa compared to other destination attractions such as cultural/historical, outdoor/recreation, major events, and food.

Types of tourist accommodation were evaluated under five categories, as demonstrated in Table 6.1. According to the frequency scores, 39.2% of tourists in the sample stayed at a rest house or hostel accommodation, followed by hotel accommodation at 32.4%. With the percentage of tourist vacancy of less than 16.0%, resort complex (15.7%), rented (11.8%) and others (1.0%), were the least choices taking part by the tourist as their type of holiday accommodation. The element of accommodation argued as the catalyst of a tourism demand at a destination especially for seaside and rural tourism settings, which are relatable to ECM area, as pointed out by Pina and Delfa

(2005), the accommodation facilities are an important product to attract tourists in rural or non-urban areas.

Finally, for the dimension of the estimated expenditure of food (daily), the results constitute the different cost of food purchases during the tourist stay in both locations. The expenditure on local food products depends on the visitor's attitudes about the products and familiarity of the food (Skuras, Dimara, and Petrou, 2006) and on a bigger scale, food expenditure has a direct economic impact on destinations, as it contributed for 25% to 35% of overall travel expenses (Correia et al. 2008). The results revealed that most of the respondents spent more than £5.56 (MYR 30.00) per day for food at 51.0%. Followed by 26.5% of respondents spent £4.63 (MYR 25.00) on food. The third highest frequency indicated that at the cost of £3.71 (MYR 20.00), 15.7% of respondents had the estimated expenditure of food. The results also show that small numbers of tourist spent £2.78 (MYR 15.00) on daily food expenses at 3.9% and the lowest frequency of 2.9% of tourist food expenses at less than £1.85 (MYR 10.00) per day.

The economic background associated with the tourist willingness to purchase local food influenced the food expenditure patterns. Each cost represents a different kind of tourist demands and choices of food experiences. For instance, tourists who spend less than £2.78 a day for food would get something basic at ordinary restaurants, convenience shops or hawkers that cover the cost for less than two meals per day with the limited choices of food. This type of tourist has no specific interests and preferences in food at the holiday destination.

### **6.3 Descriptive results of Malaysian food profile**

This section describes the tourist perceptions about specific attributes of Malaysian food within their understanding and preconception. Data described in this section has been collected based on the familiarity or unfamiliarity of local food at the holiday destination, consideration to try local food, food tourist levels and general food motivation and definition. Respondents were presented with a set of generic questions to provide them with an overview of the whole research idea and context.

The results presented in Table 6.2 consist of six main questions that asked the tourist associations with Malaysian food in general. The results reported that the majority of tourists (69.6%) did not have a good knowledge of Malaysian food. In contrast, in questions 2 and 3, more than 55.0% of tourists admit that they had previously heard and read about Malaysian food. The tourist familiarity of Malaysian dishes was categorized into 3 different local dishes; satay, rendang and nasi lemak. These iconic Malaysian dishes were chosen due to their popularity and 'staple' amongst Malaysians and local food providers. For satay and rendang, most of the tourists (71.6%) were unfamiliar with these dishes that possibly related to its availability, tourists exposure about these particular dishes in their home countries and seasonality factors which typically prepared on special occasions and festivities, compared to nasi lemak (consume daily by most Malaysians) that scored 50.0% of familiarity amongst tourist.

Table 6.2: Descriptive results of Malaysian food tourism profile

| Items   | Category      | Frequency     | Percentage (%) |      |
|---|---------------|---------------|----------------|------|
| 1. Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food? | Yes           | 60            | 29.4           |      |
|   | No            | 142           | 69.6           |      |
|   | Missing value | 2             | 1.0            |      |
| 2. Have you heard about Malaysian food before?                          | Yes           | 114           | 55.9           |      |
|   | No            | 88            | 43.1           |      |
|   | Missing value | 2             | 1.0            |      |
| 3. Have you read or found out the information on Malaysian food?        | Yes           | 113           | 55.4           |      |
|   | No            | 89            | 43.6           |      |
|   | Missing value | 2             | 1.0            |      |
| 4. Which of these Malaysian dishes have you heard of:                   | Satay         | Yes           | 56             | 27.5 |
|   |               | No            | 146            | 71.6 |
|   |               | Missing value | 2              | 1.0  |
|   | Rendang       | Yes           | 56             | 27.5 |
|   |               | No            | 146            | 71.6 |
|   |               | Missing value | 2              | 1.0  |
|   | Nasi lemak    | Yes           | 100            | 49.0 |
|   |               | No            | 102            | 50.0 |
|   |               | Missing value | 2              | 1.0  |
| 5. Do you plan to try Malaysian food?                                   | Yes           | 194           | 95.1           |      |
|   | No            | 8             | 3.9            |      |
|   | Missing value | 2             | 1.0            |      |
| 6. What level of food tourist are you?                                  | High          | 22            | 10.8           |      |

|        |     |      |
|--------|-----|------|
| Medium | 163 | 79.9 |
| Low    | 19  | 9.3  |

Source: Author

In this case, nasi lemak (*coconut rice*) is considered a complete breakfast for locals and it is not only consumed in the morning, but also available and eaten all day. It contributes to the limitless availability for tourists to try it at most dine-in or take-out premises. Overall, based on questions 1 to 4 which highly related to the acquaintances of local food, some tourists were interested and had minimum basic information about Malaysian food. In addition, in question 5, the vast majority of tourists (94.1%) represent their plans to try Malaysian food. Meanwhile, 3 types of food tourist were identified, indicated that 79.9% of total respondents considered themselves as medium-level food tourist. There were 10.8% of tourist are categorized as high-level category and less than 9.5% belonged to low-level food tourist.

Subsequently, as illustrated in Table 6.3, means and standard deviation scores were tabulated for the additional Likert scale questions of tourist food motivation and definition of food travels. Each question was segmented into 4 different factors of influences. In question 7 on *what motivates you to travel for food?* The highest mean score is recorded for the 'curious to experience new food' factor ( $M=4.07$ ,  $SD=.96$ ), followed by 'recommendation and review' factor ( $M=3.68$ ,  $SD=.77$ ). Respondents perceived the 'media influence' factor ( $M=2.84$ ,  $SD=.80$ ) and 'related to my work' factor ( $M=2.06$ ,  $SD=.71$ ) as the least important influences for food travelling motivation.

Table 6.3: The Means ( $M$ ) scores for tourist food motivation and definition of food travel

| Items   | N   | Means ( $M$ ) | Standard deviation (SD) |
|---|-----|---------------|-------------------------|
| 1. What motivates you to travel for food?           |     |               |                         |
| • Curious to experience new food                    | 204 | 4.07          | .69                     |
| • Recommendation and review                         | 204 | 3.68          | .77                     |
| • Media influence                                   | 204 | 2.84          | .80                     |
| • Related to my work                                | 204 | 2.06          | .71                     |
| 2. What does travel for food means to you?          |     |               |                         |
| • Enjoy the various local foods during vacation     | 204 | 4.34          | .59                     |
| • Trying food that is popular                       | 204 | 4.14          | .61                     |
| • Taking part in the food preparation or production | 204 | 3.21          | .76                     |
| • Exploring the food history and culture            | 204 | 3.50          | .79                     |

Source: Author

Next, in question 8, most tourists are highly agreed that 'enjoy the various local foods during vacation' ( $M=4.34$ ,  $SD=.59$ ) was the primary definition of food travel at the destination. It is also important to note that the standard deviation scored the lowest value compared to other answers in both questions 1 and 2. It shows that the responses are more consistent, which the data are less spread-out from the mean. This answer scored better on average and more consistently compared to the other options. This particular response generates a significant impact to the whole idea of how tourists vitally recognized local food enjoyment when travelling and it shows that enjoying local food became an important feature for tourist to engage with the destination. The second choice in defining the meaning of food travel was on 'trying food that is popular' ( $M=4.14$ ,  $SD=.61$ ). Other two factors scored a mean below 3.50.

Food profiling based on the first section of the questionnaire is an important indicator to determine how tourists perceived Malaysian food in general, through the evaluations of their local food knowledge, desires, level of food interests, general food motivations and definitions. Therefore, from the descriptive results of Malaysian food profile, generate a positive conclusion that Malaysian food has a high potential to be accepted and influenced the tourist consumption based on their high curiosity to experience new food and using food as part of the travel enjoyment that also induced by the high percentage of the respondents were medium-level food tourist.

#### **6.4 Descriptive results of food motivation factors (food preference, food expectation, food experience and food intentions)**

This section continues with the descriptive results of four main dimensions of, (1) food preference, (2) food expectation, (3) food experience, and (4) food intention. All of these dimensions were the main foundations that built the tourist food motivations in verifying the formation of tourist food consumption at the local holiday destination. These continuous variables will be tested on further analysis to examine the associations of tourist demographic factors that would provide the direction and level of influences that lead to tourist food consumption. The descriptive results are divided into four main sections based on the dimensions that were previously stated. The results derived according to

the means and standard deviation scores to identify the level of importance of each item in every dimension.

#### 6.4.1 Mean and standard deviation scores for food preference

The tourist food motivation factors begin with the first dimension of food preference (choosing what to eat on holiday). Table 6.4 presents the mean and standard deviations scores for ten sub-questions under the food preference dimension. Considering the choices that were made by tourists were presumed to be associated with food involvement, measured by both participation and purchase (Dimance, 1999). In other words, the results highlight a clear understanding of the tourist food preference highly subjected by the degree of involvement with food in their everyday lives.

Table 6.4: Mean (M) and Standard Deviation (SD) for food preference

| <b>FOOD PREFERENCE</b>  |            |             |                         |
|---|------------|-------------|-------------------------|
| <i>The following statements are about your predilection of food during holiday.</i> |            |             |                         |
| Items   | N          | Means (M)   | Standard Deviation (SD) |
| Q1. I choose food that I am very familiar.  | 204        | 2.92        | 1.12                    |
| Q2. I love to explore new food.   | 204        | 4.13        | .96                     |
| Q3. I chose food based on the visual presentation.                                  | 204        | 3.72        | .90                     |
| Q4. I prefer to eat street food.  | 204        | 3.34        | .96                     |
| Q5. Low-priced food is important.   | 204        | 3.46        | 1.00                    |
| Q6. I like to experience a new food that reflects local culture                     | 204        | 4.32        | .84                     |
| Q7. I chose places based on positive reviews (internet, social media)               | 204        | 3.67        | 1.02                    |
| Q8. I prefer places based on popularity or hype                                     | 204        | 3.18        | 1.03                    |
| Q9. Food experience is important to me.   | 204        | 4.11        | .90                     |
| Q10. Trying out new places to eat is always important to me.                        | 204        | 4.00        | 1.01                    |
| <b>Overall score of food preference</b>   | <b>204</b> | <b>3.68</b> | <b>.97</b>              |

Source: Author

As for the highest scores of mean and standard deviation, it belongs to the item Q6, 'I like to experience a new food that reflects local culture' (M=4.32, SD=.84). The hierarchy continues with item Q2, 'I love to explore new food' (M=4.13, SD=.96) and item Q7, 'Food experience is important to me' (M=4.11, SD=.90). The distribution for the rest of seven questions (Q1, Q3, Q4, Q5, Q8, Q9 and Q10) scored ranging from the mean of 2.92 to 4.00. Referring to the scores in Q6, the results indicate that culture is highly affected tourist food preference as argued by Chang et al. (2010) and Kim et al. (2009), tourists who have been there and have eaten foreign food while travelling, might be perceived as having

high cultural capital. The standard deviation value shows a strong consistency (the data is the least deviated from the mean), represent that Q6 option is meaning that the act of food consumption is similarly the act of cultural consumption (Ellis et al., 2018; Mak et al., 2012).

The observation of the pattern distributions across all ten sub-questions indicated that the tourist was keen to be involved with local food that has a cultural element in it, that communicated the food as a symbolic interpretation of local people and destination. The overall mean and standard deviation scores of all ten items were:  $M=3.68$ ,  $SD=.97$ . Using the standard deviation empirical rule (68-95-99.7), 68% of overall mean scores are spread out between 2.71 to 4.65, meaning that 34% of respondents valued food preference above the mean between 3.68 to 4.65 and another 34% valued below the mean scores between 2.71 to 3.68 within one standard deviation. This notion does reflect that tourist food preference is also influenced by their willingness to experience new food at the destination. The overall items were within the range between 'neither agree nor disagree and strongly agree'. From these premises, it constituted that the tourist was positively encouraged to participate with local food through various anticipations by considering food-related activity during a holiday would be as crucial as other tourism activities.

#### **6.4.2 Mean and standard deviation scores for food expectation**

The key element of this dimension involved tourist expectations on food during a holiday, combining the further planning of food decision-making to consume local food. Seven sub-questions were developed to recognize the importance of food motivation factors from the tourist expectation perspective to associate it with the formation of tourist food consumption. In regards to this, table 6.5 tabulated the scores of means and standard deviations were within the ranges of 'neither agree nor disagree' between the Means values of 2.70 to 3.85.

Table 6.5: Mean (M) and Standard Deviation (SD) for food expectation

| <b>FOOD EXPECTATIONS</b>  |            |             |                         |
|---|------------|-------------|-------------------------|
| <i>The following statements are about your food related holiday planning</i>                                |            |             |                         |
| Items   | N          | Means (M)   | Standard Deviation (SD) |
| Q11. I decided on places I wanted to go, then focused on certain foods to enhance that specific experience. | 204        | 3.31        | 1.01                    |
| Q12. I decided on places to visit based on the foods I wanted to experience.                                | 204        | 2.72        | 1.08                    |
| Q13. I planned to make choices based on the needs of my travel group (e.g., family/friends).                | 204        | 3.36        | 1.01                    |
| Q14. I decided to dine at locations that would allow me to meet local people.                               | 204        | 3.39        | .99                     |
| Q15. I planned food choices to experience local culture.  | 204        | 3.85        | .84                     |
| Q16. I planned to eat only foods that fit a healthier lifestyle.  | 204        | 2.70        | 1.04                    |
| Q17. I planned to dine in at locations that offer clean facilities.   | 204        | 3.63        | .95                     |
| <b>Overall score of food expectation</b>  | <b>204</b> | <b>3.28</b> | <b>.98</b>              |

Source: Author

Item Q16 records the lowest scores, 'I planned to eat only foods that fit a healthier lifestyle' ( $M=2.70$ ,  $SD=1.04$ ). While the highest scores of mean and standard deviation are derived from the item (Q15) 'I planned food choices to experience local culture' ( $M=3.85$ ,  $SD=.84$ ). The pattern demonstrates a similarity with the previous dimension of food preference, indicates that local culture seems to be a strong influence in tourist food expectations. In this case, as mentioned by Alderighi et al. (2016), the traditional and culturally embedded food products sold outside tourist destination may be an effective tool of attracting tourists, provided that they can affect the prospective tourist expectations about local gastronomy.

With the overall means and standard deviation showed a lower score ( $M=3.28$ ,  $SD=.98$ ) compared to the food preference dimension. The overall scores could be interpreted based on the SD empirical rule as a normal distribution. About 68% of respondents considered food expectations scores were between 2.30 and 4.26. Another 32% of respondents valued food expectation below 2.30 and above 4.26, which is very minimal (16% in each distribution that spread out in 3 standard deviation rule). The results highlight the tourist tendencies in developing holiday planning towards food-related activities were relatively important in producing a more significant impact of the overall consumption during their holidays. Therefore, planning is presumably the important contribution that leads to the consumption pattern of the tourist due to its nature of dealing with the motives and desires of the tourist, since this will help to

identify attributes that are to be promoted, to match tourist food motivation (Bansal and Eiselt, 2004) and other destination promotional initiatives to increase the local food consumption.

### 6.4.3 Mean and standard deviation scores for the food experience

Food experience represents tourists who are seeking exciting, impulsive and adventurous activities by trying a new food or eating local food that have never been eaten before in tourist destinations (Kim et al., 2009; Otis, 1984). Based on this premise, Table 6.6 presents an overview of the answers to nine sub-questions that described what tourists perceived from their experiences of trying local food. The highest means and standard deviation scores were obtained from the item Q24 'Malaysian food is value for money' ( $M=4.18$ ,  $SD=.85$ ). Generally, the standard deviation scores below  $<1$  is considered as a small deviation. In this case however, by using score comparisons between items, although the mean score for Q24 is high, the standard deviation indicated the data lacks consistency due to its slightly large value, showing that the data is the most deviated compared to other items.

Interestingly, item Q26 'Malaysian food is high quality', which scored the lowest means and the lowest standard deviations ( $M=1.57$ ,  $SD=.72$ ), this Item Q26 does not score better on average compared to item Q24, but the standard deviation reported that this item was more consistent and the data was less spread out compared to the rest. 68% of the respondents marked the mean scores between 2.97 and 4.49, below and above the average mean of 3.73. The rest of the items score the means between 0.85 to 2.27. Items at Q24 ( $M=4.18$ ,  $SD=.85$ ), Q22 ( $M=4.08$ ,  $SD=.86$ ) and Q18 ( $M=4.02$ ,  $SD=.86$ ) were also reported as the important attributes for commencing tourist food experiences.

Table 6.6: Mean (M) and Standard Deviation (SD) for food experience

| <b>FOOD EXPERIENCE</b>  |     |           |                         |
|---|-----|-----------|-------------------------|
| <i>The following statements describe your familiarity with Malaysian food during your holiday</i> |     |           |                         |
| Items   | N   | Means (M) | Standard Deviation (SD) |
| Q18. Malaysian food is full of flavours   | 204 | 4.02      | .86                     |
| Q19. Malaysian food is presentable  | 204 | 3.74      | .79                     |
| Q20. Malaysian food is tourist friendly   | 204 | 3.73      | .76                     |

|   |            |             |            |
|---|------------|-------------|------------|
| Q21. Malaysian food is easy-availability                  | 204        | 3.98        | .87        |
| Q22. Malaysian food is influenced by other region/culture | 204        | 4.08        | .86        |
| Q23. Malaysian food is authentic                          | 204        | 3.78        | .81        |
| Q24. Malaysian food is value for money                    | 204        | 4.18        | .85        |
| Q25. Malaysian food is strong with traditional background | 204        | 3.75        | .81        |
| Q26. Malaysian food is high quality                       | 204        | 1.57        | .72        |
| <b>Overall score of food experience</b>                   | <b>204</b> | <b>3.64</b> | <b>.81</b> |

Source: Author

The results identified that most of the tourist were 'strongly agree' that experience can be seen as experiencing high-quality food at tourist destinations. With the overall scores achieved at 3.64 and .81, it represents that this factor was generally consistent and the standard deviation was spread within the close proximity with the mean. The standard deviation also posited that overall, 68% of respondents scored between 2.83 and 4.45. With the results that indicated the scores reached beyond the fourth continuum (agree), thus, it could be concluded that the tourists were majorly acknowledged the importance of food experience in helping them to improve the local food consumption pattern.

#### 6.4.4 Mean and standard deviation scores for food intention

Lastly, the fourth dimension of food motivation factor concentrated on the tourist intentions in consuming local food. These reflected their actual behavioural requirements when food consumption activity took place. The distributions across all ten sub-questions indicate the differences regarding means and standard deviations scores. Table 6.7 shows the overall score of 3.50 and .87, ranked as the lowest score compared to the food preference and food experience dimensions.

Table 6.7: Mean (M) and Standard Deviation (SD) for food intention

| <b>FOOD INTENTION</b>   |     |           |                         |
|---|-----|-----------|-------------------------|
| <i>The following statements are about your food consumption target during your holiday.</i> |     |           |                         |
| Items   | N   | Means (M) | Standard Deviation (SD) |
| Q27. I consume food that is popular at the destination                                      | 204 | 3.94      | .74                     |
| Q28. I consume food that the locals recommended   | 204 | 4.12      | .81                     |
| Q29. I consume food that is traditionally made or prepared by the locals.                   | 204 | 4.02      | .81                     |
| Q30. I consume food that is related to local culture and heritage.                          | 204 | 3.87      | .83                     |

|   |            |             |            |
|---|------------|-------------|------------|
| Q31. I consume food with locally produced ingredients.              | 204        | 3.88        | .85        |
| Q32. I consume food that is promoted or shared in the social media. | 204        | 2.90        | 1.03       |
| Q33. I consume food that is adventurous for my palate.              | 204        | 3.61        | .94        |
| Q34. I consume food that gives me memorable food experience         | 204        | 3.97        | .90        |
| Q35. I consume food that I had planned to have before travelling    | 204        | 2.79        | 1.11       |
| Q36. I consume food that is healthy during my travel                | 204        | 1.86        | .73        |
| <b>Overall score of food-related behavioural intentions</b>         | <b>204</b> | <b>3.50</b> | <b>.87</b> |

Source: Author

Q28 'I consume food that the locals recommended' scored the highest ( $M=4.12$ ,  $SD=.81$ ) and Q36 'I consume food that is healthy during my travel' scored the lowest means and standard deviation ( $M=1.86$ ,  $SD=.73$ ). The means scores of all items comprised from 2.90 to 4.12 within the range of 'neither neutral nor agree'. In terms of standard deviation, Q36 showed a quite consistent pattern which the value is the lowest (closest proximity with mean score) compared to other items, particularly with item Q35 that reported a highest standard deviation value, which clearly indicated that the data highly deviated from the mean. Q28 ( $M=4.12$ ,  $SD=.81$ ) and Q29 ( $M=4.02$ ,  $SD=.81$ ) also considered as the main predictors that associated with tourist food intention. In line with the notion, the tourist had perceived that healthy food, food that recommended by the locals and traditionally prepared food were the important factors that determine their intentions to eat local food at the holiday destinations. Moreover, other questions were also moderately important to represent the level of agreement towards achieving the tourist intentions to eat.

## 6.5 The contexts of relationships and differences of the tourists' food motivations and demographic characteristics

The formation and development of overall food consumption experience are related to the physical, cultural, interpersonal and self-esteem traits of tourists on food-related activities during a holiday (Kim et al., 2009). Within this section, the focus is emphasized upon the associations and differences about the role between tourist food motivations and tourist demographics as the main domain in setting up the food consumption experience. Demographic attributes that significantly affected food motivations or are expected to affect food motivations are described. All four dimensions of tourist food motivation factors and nine dimensions of tourist demographic characteristics are examined by two different

tests of Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis. Mann-Whitney U test is the non-parametric test analogous of the t-test, which allows testing for differences between two conditions in which different participants have been used. Kruskal-Wallis test is known for its counterpart of one-way independent ANOVA (parametric). Like the Mann-Whitney U test, this is based on ranked, with three or more categories in both categorical and continuous data.

The dimensions measured in tourist demographic characteristics were; age group, level of education, country of origins, length and frequency of visits, main purpose of visits, type of accommodation and estimated expenditure of food. Before carrying out the inferential analysis of the demographic variable, the large numbers of categorical groups were reduced into two or minimum equal groups using the Bonferroni Correction approach to adjust the probability ( $p$ ) values to circumvent the likelihood of Type 1 error when multiple comparisons are to be carried out (Armstrong, 2014). Subsequently, the group reductions from larger to a smaller set of groups provide a more pertinent post-hoc test and effect size when the data derived from Kruskal-Wallis test are statistically significant and able to produce a better comparison for each significant group with one another (Pallant, 2013: 243). As Pallant also mentioned, Bonferroni adjustment involves dividing the alpha level of .05 by the number of tests and use the revised alpha values in determining significance. Table 6.8 shows the adjustment made for the selected 4 categorical dimensions of tourist demographic characteristics. The modified reduced groups using Bonferroni Adjustment in Table 6.8 represents four demographic dimensions of age group, country of origin, length of visit and main purpose of visit were reduced to a group of two, three and five.

Table 6.8: Modified group of tourist demographic characteristics for Bonferroni Adjustment

| Dimension         | Original Categories   | N   | Reduced Categories   | N   |
|-------------------|---|-----|--|-----|
| Age group         | 20 and below<br>21-30<br>31-40<br>41-50<br>51-60<br>61-70<br>70 and above   | 204 | 40 and below<br>41-60<br>61 and above  | 204 |
| Country of origin | Argentina, Brazil, Canada, Chile, USA<br>Australia, New Zealand<br>Austria, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany,<br>Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal,<br>Russia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United<br>Kingdom<br>China, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Japan, Jordan, | 204 | America (North and South<br>America)<br>Australasia<br>Europe<br>Asia<br>Africa and others | 204 |

|                       |  |     |  |     |
|-----------------------|--|-----|--|-----|
|                       | Korea, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, Yemen<br>Morocco and others  |     |  |     |
| Length of visit       | Less than 1 week<br>1 week<br>More than 1 week   | 204 | Less than 1 week<br>More than 1 week   | 204 |
| Main purpose of visit | Food and beverage<br>Entertainment<br>Cultural, heritage and art<br>Nature<br>Business<br>Recreations and sports | 204 | Food and beverage<br>Entertainment<br>Cultural, heritage and art<br>Nature, recreation and sport<br>Business | 204 |

Source: Author

As Pallant (2013: 243) stated, Bonferroni adjustment involves dividing the alpha level of .05 by the number of tests and to use the revised alpha values in determining significance level (*p-value*). In this study, there are three to compare each group with one another (e.g., 1 with 2, 1 with 3, 2 with 3), this would mean a stricter alpha value of  $.05/3 = .017$  will be reported. Therefore, the post-hoc and effect size results for country of origin and main purpose of visit (Kruskal-Wallis test) will be compared based on the three highest median scores from the five categories to achieve a standardized alpha value of .017.

### 6.5.1 Length of visit relationships and differences with food experience

To examine the relationships of gender and length with tourist food motivations factors, the Mann-Whitney U test was applied to assess for significant relationships and differences in a nominal or ordinal scales that used less than two groups of dimension in one categorical variable and one continuous variable. As reported in Table 6.9, the overall dimensions of gender had no significant relationships with four tourist food motivation factors of; food preference, food expectation, food experience and food intention. However, for the length of visit dimension, this was the only significant relationship with one out of four tourist food motivation factors of food experience (see Table 6.9). Particularly, the mean rank reported for the significant relationship between the length of visit and food experience shows that tourist who stayed more than a week in ECM are more appreciative of the importance of food experience while travelling.

Table 6.9: Results of Mann–Whitney U test (significant value) for relationship between lengths of visit with food experience

| Output                 | N   | Food Experience |                |       |             |
|------------------------|-----|-----------------|----------------|-------|-------------|
|                        |     | Mean Rank       | Mann-Whitney U | z     | Asymp. Sig. |
| <b>Length of visit</b> | 204 |                 | 1390.50        | -2.07 | .05*        |
| Less than a week       | 21  | 77.21           |                |       |             |
| More than a week       | 183 | 105.40          |                |       |             |

Note: Confidence Interval, \* $p < 0.05$

Source: Author

When the data shows a statistically significant result that indicates a positive relationship, the effect size will be measured based on the  $r$ -value that interpreted using Cohen (1988) criteria of .1= small effect, .3= medium effect, and .5= large effect. Pallant (2013: 238) states the formula is as follows:

$$r = z / \text{square root of } N \text{ where } N = \text{total number of cases}$$

The median value is more appropriate to report the significant relationship of the mean for the non-parametric test (Field, 2009). Thus, Table 6.10 formulates the results of  $r$  value and median value that describe the relationship between the length of visit and food experience.

Table 6.10:  $r$  value and median ( $Md$ ) score for relationship between length of stay and food experience

| Dimension              | Median ( $Md$ ) | Calculation               | $r$ Value |
|------------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|-----------|
| <b>Length of visit</b> |                 |                           |           |
| Less than a week       | 33.00           | -2.07/ square root of 204 | .1        |
| More than a week       | 35.00           |                           |           |

Source: Author

Based on Table 6.10, A Mann-Whitney U test revealed that tourists who stayed more than a week ( $Md = 35.00$ ,  $n = 183$ ) with a small effect size ( $r = .1$ ) significantly perceive the importance of food experience in contrast with tourists that stayed less than a week in ECM ( $Md = 34.00$ ,  $n = 21$ ),  $U = 1390.50$ ,  $z = -2.07$ ,  $p = < .05$ .

## 6.5.2 Age group, level of education, country of origin, frequency of visit, main purpose of visit, type of accommodation and estimated expenditure of food relationships and differences with food motivation factors

In the previous section, two out of nine tourist demographic characteristics were tested to measure their relationships with four dimensions of tourist food motivation factors using the Mann-Whitney U test. For the rest of the demographic groups, the Kruskal-Wallis test is conducted to compare the continuous dependent variable with the scores of one categorical variable with three or more categories (Pallant, 2013). The outputs are shown in Table 6.11, 6.12, 6.13 and 6.14 are only reported the significant values achieved between 7 demographic characteristics with is significant relationships and differences of 4 motivation factors.

### 6.5.2.1 Age group and estimated expenditure on food relationships and differences with food preference

In the output reported illustrated in Table 6.11, there are significant relationships and differences in food preference across three different age groups ( $p = <.05$ ).

Table 6.11: Results of Kruskal-Wallis test (significant values) for age group and estimated expenditure on food with food preference

| Output                               | N   | 1. Food Preference |            |     |             |
|--------------------------------------|-----|--------------------|------------|-----|-------------|
|                                      |     | Mean Rank          | Chi-Square | df. | Asymp. Sig. |
| <b>Age group</b>                     | 204 |                    | 6.25       | 2   | .05*        |
| • 40 and below                       | 183 | 104.74             |            |     |             |
| • 41-60                              | 20  | 77.50              |            |     |             |
| • 61 and above                       | 1   | 193.00             |            |     |             |
| <b>Estimated expenditure on food</b> | 204 |                    | 17.83      | 4   | .05*        |
| • £1.85 >                            | 6   | 96.83              |            |     |             |
| • £2.78                              | 8   | 120.06             |            |     |             |
| • £3.71                              | 32  | 131.66             |            |     |             |
| • £4.63                              | 54  | 113.36             |            |     |             |
| • £5.56<                             | 104 | 86.87              |            |     |             |

Note: Confidence Interval, \* $p < 0.05$

Source: Author

The older age group (61 and above) recorded a higher mean rank than the two age groups. Estimated expenditure on food also recorded a similar result with age group ( $p = <.05$ ). The mean score postulates that there are differences concerning tourist who spent the estimated £3.71, £4.63 and £2.78 for foods during the holiday are more appreciative towards their food preferences than the other two groups.

### 6.5.2.2 Country of origin and main purpose of visit relationships and differences with food expectation

Further analysis in Table 6.12 shows that country of origin resulted in a high significant value of  $p = <.05$  towards its relationship with food expectation dimension across five different groups of continents.

Table 6.12: Results of Kruskal-Wallis test (significant values) for country of origin and main purpose of visit with food expectation

| Output                                   | N   | 2. Food Expectation |            |     |             |
|--|-----|---------------------|------------|-----|-------------|
|  |     | Mean Rank           | Chi-Square | df. | Asymp. Sig. |
| <b>Country of origin (by continents)</b> | 204 |                     | 27.92      | 4   | .05*        |
| • America (North and South America)      | 29  | 96.38               |            |     |             |
| • Australasia                            | 5   | 125.90              |            |     |             |
| • Europe                                 | 143 | 93.34               |            |     |             |
| • Asia                                   | 23  | 161.65              |            |     |             |
| • Africa/others                          | 4   | 105.13              |            |     |             |
| <b>Main purpose of visit</b>             | 204 |                     | 10.16      | 4   | .05*        |
| • Food and beverage                      | 40  |                     |            |     |             |
| • Entertainment                          | 16  | 122.11              |            |     |             |
| • Cultural                               | 47  | 121.81              |            |     |             |
| • Nature, Recreation, and Sports         | 89  | 92.44               |            |     |             |
| • Business                               | 12  | 115.79              |            |     |             |

Note: Confidence Interval, \* $p < 0.05$

Source: Author

Tourists from Asia perceive food expectation as an important motivator, followed by tourist from Australasia. The other three groups scored mean values between 93.34 to 105.13. There are also associations and differences recorded between food expectation and the main purpose of visit ( $p = <.05$ ). Interestingly, food and beverage followed by entertainment scored the two

highest ranks reveal that these purposes are the main reasons to visit ECM for a holiday. Other groups of purposes depicted lower interests of visitation for tourism activities such as cultural, nature, recreation and sports and business, which scored the mean ranges from 92.44 to 115.79. Tourists from America recognize food experience as the vital aspects that motivate to consume food at a destination. Australasian and Asian tourists also indicate their consideration of the importance of food experience, followed by the two other groups from Europe and Africa.

### 6.5.2.3 Country of origin, frequency of visit, type of accommodation and estimated expenditure on food relationships and differences with food experience

In Table 6.13, positive relationships and differences can be seen for food experience with the country of origin and frequency of visit both scored the internal consistency of  $p < .05$ .

Table 6.13: Results of Kruskal-Wallis test (significant values) for relationships between country of origin, frequency of visit, type of accommodation and estimated expenditure of food with food experience

| Output                                   | N   | 3. Food Experience |            |     |             |
|--|-----|--------------------|------------|-----|-------------|
|  |     | Mean Rank          | Chi-Square | df. | Asymp. Sig. |
| <b>Country of origin (by continents)</b> | 204 |                    | 12.34      | 4   | .05*        |
| • America (North and South America)      | 29  | 136.48             |            |     |             |
| • Australasia                            | 5   | 111.20             |            |     |             |
| • Europe                                 | 143 | 95.72              |            |     |             |
| • Asia                                   | 23  | 104.09             |            |     |             |
| • Africa/others                          | 4   | 78.38              |            |     |             |
| <b>Frequency of visit</b>                | 204 |                    | 6.51       | 2   | .05*        |
| • First time                             | 167 | 98.01              |            |     |             |
| • 2-3 times                              | 16  | 110.81             |            |     |             |
| • More than 3 times                      | 21  | 131.88             |            |     |             |
| <b>Type of accommodation</b>             | 204 |                    | 16.21      | 4   | .05*        |
| • Hostel/Rest house                      | 80  | 106.10             |            |     |             |
| • Rented                                 | 24  | 140.48             |            |     |             |
| • Resort                                 | 32  | 96.69              |            |     |             |
| • Hotel                                  | 66  | 88.99              |            |     |             |
| • Others                                 | 2   | 41.50              |            |     |             |
| <b>Estimated expenditure on food</b>     | 204 |                    | 19.16      | 4   | .05*        |
| • £1.85 >                                | 6   | 131.17             |            |     |             |
| • £2.78                                  | 8   | 165.25             |            |     |             |
| • £3.71                                  | 32  | 125.70             |            |     |             |
| • £4.63                                  | 54  | 92.41              |            |     |             |
| • £5.56 <                                | 104 | 94.12              |            |     |             |

Note: Confidence Interval, \* $p < 0.05$ ,  
Source: Author

The mean score of the result shows that the tourists who visit ECM more than three times are likely to appreciate the food experience factor compared to tourist who came less than three times. Furthermore, under the food experience dimension, other significant values are achieved for the type of accommodation and estimated expenditure on food ( $p < .05$ ). Across five groups in the type of accommodation, tourists who stayed at rented houses or properties are highly appreciative of the importance of food experience as the food motivation to consume local food and they are followed by tourists who stayed at hostel/rest house, resort and hotel. While the mean rankings for the estimated expenditure of food indicate that tourists with a maximum expenditure of £3.71 perceive the importance of food experience in the tourist food motivation factors positively as compared to the tourists who spent below £1.85 and above £3.71.

#### 6.5.2.4 Country of origin, main purpose of visit, type of accommodation and estimated expenditure on food relationships and differences with food intention

In Table 6.14, there are four dimensions of tourist demographic characteristics achieved significant relationships and differences with food intention dimension which are country of origin, main purpose of visit, type of accommodation and estimated expenditure of food ( $p < .05$ ).

Table 6.14: Results of Kruskal-Wallis test (significant values) for relationships between country of origin, main purpose of visit, type of accommodation and estimated expenditure of food with food Intention

| Output                                   | N   | 4. Food Intention |            |     |             |
|--|-----|-------------------|------------|-----|-------------|
|  |     | Mean Rank         | Chi-Square | df. | Asymp. Sig. |
| <b>Country of origin (by continents)</b> | 204 |                   | 20.28      | 4   | .05*        |
| • America (North and South America)      | 29  | 141.16            |            |     |             |
| • Australasia                            | 5   | 131.50            |            |     |             |
| • Europe                                 | 143 | 91.21             |            |     |             |
| • Asia                                   | 23  | 114.52            |            |     |             |
| • Africa/others                          | 4   | 120.50            |            |     |             |
| <b>Main purpose of visit</b>             | 204 |                   | 12.00      | 4   | .05*        |
| • Food and beverage                      | 40  | 110.76            |            |     |             |
| • Entertainment                          | 16  | 109.63            |            |     |             |
| • Cultural                               | 47  | 108.60            |            |     |             |
| • Nature, Recreation, and Sports         | 89  | 88.82             |            |     |             |
| • Business                               | 12  | 143.04            |            |     |             |

|                                      |     |        |        |   |      |
|--------------------------------------|-----|--------|--------|---|------|
| <b>Type of accommodation</b>         | 204 |        | 15.62  | 4 | .05* |
| • Hostel/Rest house                  | 80  | 98.09  |        |   |      |
| • Rented                             | 24  | 146.52 |        |   |      |
| • Resort                             | 32  | 98.02  |        |   |      |
| • Hotel                              | 66  | 94.89  |        |   |      |
| • Others                             | 2   | 73.50  |        |   |      |
| <b>Estimated expenditure on food</b> | 204 |        | 23.346 | 4 | .05* |
| • £1.85 >                            | 6   | 121.33 |        |   |      |
| • £2.78                              | 8   | 169.44 |        |   |      |
| • £3.71                              | 32  | 129.67 |        |   |      |
| • £4.63                              | 54  | 100.56 |        |   |      |
| • £5.56<                             | 104 | 88.91  |        |   |      |

Note: Confidence Interval, \* $p < 0.05$

Source: Author

Comparing the results of the mean rank of the country of origin shows that American tourists (North and South America) highly position food intention as the important food motivation for food consumption than the tourist from other countries. In addition, the highest mean score for the main purpose of visit is recorded for business tourists who notice food intention as an important element of their food-related activities at destinations. Surprisingly tourist who chose food and beverage purpose perceive food intention not as many as compared to the business-related tourist that falls into the second rank, followed by other groups of purposes.

The analysis continues for the mean rank of the type of accommodation that signifies tourist who occupied rented properties are more sensitive towards food intention in tourist food motivation factors than another tourist who stayed at another type of accommodations. This result shows the similarity with the same group of tourist towards the food experience dimension. The final statistically significant results are involved with the tourist estimated expenditure that also recorded a parallel significance with the food experience dimension. Tourists that spent the overall £2.78 a day for food, considered food intention dimension is vital of their food choices on holiday, followed by tourists with daily spending amount of £3.71, below £1.85, £4.63 and above £5.56.

### 6.5.3 Effect size of demographic characteristics and motivation factor

The results obtained from the Kruskal-Wallis tests show that six demographic dimensions have significant differences and relationships with four dimensions of food motivation factors. The post-hoc analysis in the form of Bonferroni

adjustment and effect size needs to be measured. All of the six dimensions consist of three and five different categorical groups. Precisely, for the four dimensions (country of origin, main purpose of visit, type of accommodation and estimated expenditure on food) of five different groups were revised based on the three highest mean scores as depicted in Tables 6.11 to 6.14. Therefore, the Bonferroni adjustment of alpha values of .05 could be equally divided accordingly to the three groups and produces a standard alpha value of .017 for all six dimensions. Thus, to compare each group and their effect sizes with one another, the Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted and reported in the following Tables 6.15 to 6.31.

### 6.5.3.1 Effect size of food preference with age group and estimated expenditure on food

The first table of 6.15 shows the results of three-paired comparison of age group and food preference. The first paired comparison indicated that there are a statistically significant difference and relationship at the alpha value of .04.

Table 6.15: Mann-Whitney U and Effect Size results of food preference and age group

| Output                            | N   | Mann      |                |       |             | Effect Size |                          |         |
|-----------------------------------|-----|-----------|----------------|-------|-------------|-------------|--------------------------|---------|
|                                   |     | Mean Rank | Mann-Whitney U | z     | Asymp. Sig. | Median      | Calculation              | r value |
| <b>1. First and Second Groups</b> |     |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Age group</b>                  | 203 |           | 1340.00        | -1.97 | .04*        |             | -1.97/square root of 203 | .1      |
| • 40 and below                    | 183 | 104.68    |                |       |             | 37.00       |                          |         |
| • 41-60                           | 20  | 77.50     |                |       |             | 43.00       |                          |         |
| <b>2. First and Third Groups</b>  |     |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Age group</b>                  | 184 |           | 11.00          | -1.52 | .12         | -           | -                        | -       |
| • 40 and below                    | 183 | 92.00     |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| • 61 and above                    | 1   | 173.00    |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>3. Second and Third Groups</b> |     |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Age group</b>                  | 21  |           | .00            | -1.67 | .09         | -           | -                        | -       |
| • 41-60                           | 20  | 10.50     |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| • 61 and above                    | 1   | 21.00     |                |       |             |             |                          |         |

Note: Confidence Interval after Revised alpha value= \*.017

Source: Author

Tourist who age between 41 to 60 years old ( $Md = 43.00$ ) are more perceive the importance of food preference in contrast with tourist who age below 40 years old ( $Md = 37.00$ ) with a small effect size,  $U = 1340$ ,  $z = -1.97$ ,  $p = <.04$ ,  $r = .1$ . Meanwhile, the overall results of Mann-Whitney U test in Table 6.16 of food preference and estimated expenditure of food revealed one significant value of .08 with a small effect size,  $U = 674$ ,  $z = -1.70$ ,  $p = <.08$ ,  $r = .1$  between the third ( $Md = 39.00$ ) and fourth groups ( $Md = 38.00$ ).

Table 6.16: Mann-Whitney U and Effect Size results of food preference and estimated expenditure of food

| Output                             | N  | Mann      |                |       |             | Effect Size |                         |         |
|------------------------------------|----|-----------|----------------|-------|-------------|-------------|-------------------------|---------|
|                                    |    | Mean Rank | Mann-Whitney U | z     | Asymp. Sig. | Median      | Calculation             | r value |
| <b>1. Second and Third Groups</b>  |    |           |                |       |             |             |                         |         |
| Estimated expenditure on food      | 40 |           | 113.00         | -.51  | .60         | -           | -                       | -       |
| • £2.78                            | 8  | 18.63     |                |       |             |             |                         |         |
| • £3.71                            | 32 | 20.97     |                |       |             |             |                         |         |
| <b>2. Second and Fourth Groups</b> |    |           |                |       |             |             |                         |         |
| Estimated expenditure on food      | 62 |           | 202.00         | -.29  | .76         | -           | -                       | -       |
| • £2.78                            | 8  | 33.25     |                |       |             |             |                         |         |
| • £4.63                            | 54 | 31.24     |                |       |             |             |                         |         |
| <b>3. Third and Fourth Groups</b>  |    |           |                |       |             |             |                         |         |
| Estimated expenditure on food      | 86 |           | 674.00         | -1.70 | .08*        |             | -1.70/square root of 86 | 0.1     |
| • £3.71                            | 32 | 49.44     |                |       |             | 39.00       |                         |         |
| • £4.63                            | 54 | 39.98     |                |       |             | 38.00       |                         |         |

Note: Confidence Interval after Revised alpha value= \*.017

Source: Author

### 6.5.3.2 Effect size of food expectation with country of origin and main purpose of visit

Moving on to the second dimension of food expectation (see Table 6.17), the paired group of Asia and Africa/others reported the significant level of .04. Precisely, food expectation had the significant tendency for Asia's tourist ( $Md = 27.00$ ) that highly influence their food consumptions pattern compared to Africa/others tourist ( $Md = 23.50$ ) with the medium effect size of  $r = .3$ ,  $U = 16.50$ ,  $z = -2.02$ ,  $p = <.04$ .

Table 6.17: Mann-Whitney U and Effect Size results of food expectation and country of origin

| Output                                   | N  | Mann      |                |       |             | Effect Size |                          |         |
|--|----|-----------|----------------|-------|-------------|-------------|--------------------------|---------|
|  |    | Mean Rank | Mann-Whitney U | z     | Asymp. Sig. | Median      | Calculation              | r value |
| <b>Second and Fourth Groups</b>          |    |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Country of origin (by continents)</b> | 28 |           | 44.00          | -.81  | .41         | -           | -                        | -       |
| • Australasia                            | 5  | 11.80     |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| • Asia                                   | 23 | 15.09     |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Second and Fifth Groups</b>           |    |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Country of origin (by continents)</b> | 9  |           | 8.50           | -.37  | .71         | -           | -                        | -       |
| • Australasia                            | 5  | 5.30      |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| • Africa/others                          | 4  | 4.63      |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Fourth and Fifth Groups</b>           |    |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Country of origin (by continents)</b> | 27 |           | 16.50          | -2.02 | .04*        |             | -2.02/ square root of 27 | .3      |
| • Asia                                   | 23 | 15.28     |                |       |             | 27.00       |                          |         |
| • Africa/others                          | 4  | 6.63      |                |       |             | 23.50       |                          |         |

Note: Confidence Interval after Revised alpha value= \*.017

Source: Author

In addition, the main purpose of visit also revealed a significant difference and relationship with food expectation. Evidently, based on the comparisons made in Table 6.18, tourist who travelled for food and beverages and cultural ( $Md = 24.00$ ) equally revered the role of their food expectations in motivating them to consume food at holiday destinations,  $U = 668.00$ ,  $z = -2.32$ ,  $p = .02$ ,  $r = .2$ .

Table 6.18: Mann-Whitney U and Effect Size results of food expectation and main purpose of visit

| Output                        | N  | Mann      |                |       |             | Effect Size |                          |         |
|-------------------------------|----|-----------|----------------|-------|-------------|-------------|--------------------------|---------|
|                               |    | Mean Rank | Mann-Whitney U | Z     | Asymp. Sig. | Median      | Calculation              | r value |
| <b>First and Third Groups</b> |    |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Main purpose of visit</b>  | 87 |           | 668.00         | -2.32 | .02*        |             | -2.32/ square root of 87 | .2      |
| • Food and beverage           | 40 | 50.80     |                |       |             | 24.00       |                          |         |
| • Cultural                    | 47 | 38.21     |                |       |             | 24.00       |                          |         |
| <b>First and Fifth Groups</b> |    |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Main purpose of visit</b>  | 52 |           | 222.00         | -.39  | .69         | -           | -                        | -       |
| • Food and beverage           | 40 | 26.95     |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| • Business                    | 12 | 25.00     |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Third and Fifth Groups</b> |    |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Main purpose of visit</b>  | 59 |           | 216.00         | -1.25 | .21         | -           | -                        | -       |
| • Cultural                    | 47 | 28.60     |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| • Business                    | 12 | 35.50     |                |       |             |             |                          |         |

Note: Confidence Interval after Revised alpha value= \*.017

Source: Author

### 6.5.3.3 Effect size of food experience with country of origin, frequency of visit, type of accommodation and estimated expenditure on food

Based on Table 6.19, there is one paired group comparison that is statistically significant with the alpha value of .03. This means that with a medium effect size ( $r = .2$ ), tourist who are originally from Americas ( $Md = 38.00$ ) positively perceive the importance of food experience to be part of their food motivation factor, exceeded the tourists from the Asia continent,  $U = 217.50$ ,  $z = -2.14$ ,  $p = .03$ .

Table 6.19: Mann-Whitney U and Effect Size results of food experience and country of origin

| Output                                   | N  | Mann      |                |       |             | Effect Size |                          |         |
|--|----|-----------|----------------|-------|-------------|-------------|--------------------------|---------|
|  |    | Mean Rank | Mann-Whitney U | z     | Asymp. Sig. | Median      | Calculation              | r value |
| <b>First and Second Groups</b>           |    |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Country of origin (by continents)</b> | 34 |           | 51.50          | -1.02 | .30         | -           | -                        | -       |
| • America (North and South America)      | 29 | 18.22     |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| • Australasia                            | 5  | 13.30     |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>First and Fourth Groups</b>           |    |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Country of origin (by continents)</b> | 52 |           | 217.50         | -2.14 | .03*        |             | -2.14/ square root of 52 | .2      |
| • America (North and South America)      | 29 | 30.50     |                |       |             | 38.00       |                          |         |
| • Asia                                   | 23 | 21.46     |                |       |             | 36.00       |                          |         |
| <b>Second and Fourth Groups</b>          |    |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Country of origin (by continents)</b> | 28 |           | 53.00          | -.27  | .78         | -           | -                        | -       |
| • Asia                                   | 23 | 15.40     |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| • Australasia                            | 5  | 14.30     |                |       |             |             |                          |         |

Note: Confidence Interval after Revised alpha value= \*.017

Source: Author

Subsequently, the results in Table 6.20 show that the second paired comparison have significant difference and relationship with a small effect size ( $r = .1$ ). The frequent visitors with more than three times of visit lead the median score of 38.00, indicating that this group of tourist are more likely to be influenced by their food experience to consume local food compared to first time visitors,  $U = 1177.50$ ,  $z = -2.45$ ,  $p = .01$ .

Table 6.20: Mann-Whitney U and Effect Size results of food experience and frequency of visit

| Output                         | N   | Mann      |                |       |             | Effect Size |                           |         |
|--------------------------------|-----|-----------|----------------|-------|-------------|-------------|---------------------------|---------|
|                                |     | Mean Rank | Mann-Whitney U | z     | Asymp. Sig. | Median      | Calculation               | r value |
| <b>First and Second Groups</b> |     |           |                |       |             |             |                           |         |
| <b>Frequency of visit</b>      | 183 |           | 1162.00        | -.83  | .38         | -           | -                         | -       |
| • First time                   | 167 | 90.96     |                |       |             |             |                           |         |
| • 2-3 times                    | 16  | 102.88    |                |       |             |             |                           |         |
| <b>First and Third Groups</b>  |     |           |                |       |             |             |                           |         |
| <b>Frequency of visit</b>      | 188 |           | 1177.50        | -2.45 | .01*        |             | -2.45/ square root of 188 | .1      |
| • First time                   | 167 | 91.05     |                |       |             | 34.00       |                           |         |
| • More than 3 times            | 21  | 121.93    |                |       |             | 38.00       |                           |         |
| <b>Second and Third Groups</b> |     |           |                |       |             |             |                           |         |
| <b>Frequency of visit</b>      | 37  |           | 127.00         | -1.26 | .20         | -           | -                         | -       |
| • 2-3 times                    | 16  | 16.44     |                |       |             |             |                           |         |
| • More than 3 times            | 21  | 20.95     |                |       |             |             |                           |         |

Note: Confidence Interval after Revised alpha value= \*.017

Source: Author

The test was also used to analyze the influence of food experience with type of accommodation. As reviewed in Table 6.21, the first and third paired group scored a significant difference and relationship of the alpha value of  $p = .006$  and  $p = .009$  with medium effect size. Food experience seems as an essential element amongst the tourist who stayed at rented accommodation ( $Md = 40.00$ ) in contrast to hostel/rest house ( $Md = 35.00$ ),  $U = 602.50$ ,  $z = -2.76$ ,  $r = .2$ , and resort ( $Md = 33.50$ ),  $U = 227.00$ ,  $z = -2.60$ ,  $r = .3$ .

Table 6.21: Mann-Whitney U and Effect Size results of food experience and type of accommodation

| Output                         | N   | Mann      |                |       |             | Effect Size |                           |         |
|--------------------------------|-----|-----------|----------------|-------|-------------|-------------|---------------------------|---------|
|                                |     | Mean Rank | Mann-Whitney U | z     | Asymp. Sig. | Median      | Calculation               | r value |
| <b>First and Second Groups</b> |     |           |                |       |             |             |                           |         |
| <b>Type of accommodation</b>   | 104 |           | 602.50         | -2.76 | .006*       |             | -2.76/ square root of 104 | .2      |
| • Hostel/Rest house            | 80  | 48.03     |                |       |             | 35.00       |                           |         |
| • Rented                       | 24  | 67.40     |                |       |             | 40.00       |                           |         |
| <b>First and Third Groups</b>  |     |           |                |       |             |             |                           |         |
| <b>Type of accommodation</b>   | 112 |           | 1169.50        | -.71  | .47         | -           | -                         | -       |
| • Hostel/Rest house            | 80  | 57.88     |                |       |             |             |                           |         |
| • Resort                       | 32  | 53.05     |                |       |             |             |                           |         |

| Second and Third Groups      |    |       |        |       |       |       |                          |    |
|------------------------------|----|-------|--------|-------|-------|-------|--------------------------|----|
| <b>Type of accommodation</b> | 56 |       | 227.00 | -2.60 | .009* |       | -2.60/ square root of 56 | .3 |
| • Rented                     | 24 | 35.04 |        |       |       | 40.00 |                          |    |
| • Resort                     | 32 | 23.59 |        |       |       | 33.50 |                          |    |

Note: Confidence Interval after Revised alpha value= \*.017

Source: Author

In the same vein, the third paired comparison of food experience and estimated expenditure on food in Table 6.22 posited that tourist who spent at the average cost of £2.78 ( $Md= 43.00$ ) for daily food during holiday became appreciative based on their food experience to consume local food, as the comparison was made with tourist with the estimated expenditure of £3.71 ( $Md= 36.50$ ) per day,  $U = 74.50$ ,  $z = -1.81$ ,  $p = .07$ ,  $r = .2$ .

Table 6.22: Mann-Whitney U and Effect Size results of food experience and estimated expenditure on food

| Output                               | N  | Mann      |                |       |             | Effect Size |                          |         |
|--------------------------------------|----|-----------|----------------|-------|-------------|-------------|--------------------------|---------|
|                                      |    | Mean Rank | Mann-Whitney U | z     | Asymp. Sig. | Median      | Calculation              | r value |
| <b>First and Second Groups</b>       |    |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Estimated expenditure on food</b> | 14 |           | 18.00          | -.77  | .43         | -           | -                        | -       |
| • £1.85 and below                    | 6  | 6.50      |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| • £2.78                              | 8  | 8.25      |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>First and Third Groups</b>        |    |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Estimated expenditure on food</b> | 38 |           | 88.50          | -.30  | .76         | -           | -                        | -       |
| • £1.85 and below                    | 6  | 20.75     |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| • £3.71                              | 32 | 19.27     |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Second and Third Groups</b>       |    |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Estimated expenditure on food</b> | 40 |           | 74.50          | -1.81 | .07*        |             | -1.81/ square root of 40 | .2      |
| • £2.78                              | 8  | 27.19     |                |       |             | 43.00       |                          |         |
| • £3.71                              | 32 | 18.83     |                |       |             | 36.50       |                          |         |

Note: Confidence Interval after Revised alpha value= \*.017

Source: Author

### 6.5.3.4 Effect size of food intention with country of origin, frequency of visit, main purpose of visit, type of accommodation and estimated expenditure on food

Tables 6.23 and 6.24 indicate that none of the three-paired comparison test of the country of origin and main purpose of visit dimensions conceived the significant alpha values with the food intention dimensions. Thus, the effect size results are only reported for the variables in Table 6.30 and 6.31.

Table 6.23: Mann-Whitney U and Effect Size results of food intention and country of origin

| Output                                   | N  | Mann      |                |      |             | Effect Size |             |         |
|--|----|-----------|----------------|------|-------------|-------------|-------------|---------|
|  |    | Mean Rank | Mann-Whitney U | z    | Asymp. Sig. | Median      | Calculation | r value |
| <b>First and Second Groups</b>           |    |           |                |      |             |             |             |         |
| <b>Country of origin (by continents)</b> | 34 |           | 56.00          | -.80 | .42         | -           | -           | -       |
| • America (North and South America)      | 29 | 18.07     |                |      |             |             |             |         |
| • Australasia                            | 5  | 14.02     |                |      |             |             |             |         |
| <b>First and Fifth Groups</b>            |    |           |                |      |             |             |             |         |
| <b>Country of origin (by continents)</b> | 33 |           | 47.50          | -.58 | .56         | -           | -           | -       |
| • America (North and South America)      | 29 | 17.36     |                |      |             |             |             |         |
| • Africa/others                          | 4  | 14.38     |                |      |             |             |             |         |
| <b>Second and Fifth Groups</b>           |    |           |                |      |             |             |             |         |
| <b>Country of origin (by continents)</b> | 28 |           | 9.50           | -.12 | .90         | -           | -           | -       |
| • Australasia                            | 5  | 5.10      |                |      |             |             |             |         |
| • Africa/others                          | 4  | 4.88      |                |      |             |             |             |         |

Note: Confidence Interval after Revised alpha value= \*.017

Source: Author

Table 6.24: Mann-Whitney U and Effect Size results of food intention and main purpose of visit

| Output                         | N  | Mann      |                |      |             | Effect Size |             |         |
|--------------------------------|----|-----------|----------------|------|-------------|-------------|-------------|---------|
|                                |    | Mean Rank | Mann-Whitney U | z    | Asymp. Sig. | Median      | Calculation | r value |
| <b>First and Second Groups</b> |    |           |                |      |             |             |             |         |
| <b>Main purpose of visit</b>   | 56 |           | 317.00         | -.05 | .95         | -           | -           | -       |
| • Food and beverage            | 40 | 28.58     |                |      |             |             |             |         |
| • Entertainment                | 16 | 28.31     |                |      |             |             |             |         |
| <b>First and Third Groups</b>  |    |           |                |      |             |             |             |         |
| <b>Main purpose of visit</b>   | 87 |           | 920.50         | -.16 | .86         | -           | -           | -       |
| • Food and beverage            | 40 | 44.49     |                |      |             |             |             |         |

|                                |    |       |        |      |     |   |   |   |
|--------------------------------|----|-------|--------|------|-----|---|---|---|
| • Cultural                     | 47 | 43.59 |        |      |     |   |   |   |
| <b>Second and Third Groups</b> |    |       |        |      |     |   |   |   |
| <b>Main purpose of visit</b>   | 63 |       | 375.50 | -.00 | .99 | - | - | - |
| • Entertainment                | 16 | 31.97 |        |      |     |   |   |   |
| • Cultural                     | 47 | 32.01 |        |      |     |   |   |   |

Note: Confidence Interval after Revised alpha value= \*.017

Source: Author

In Table 6.25, two of the three paired group comparisons between food intention and type of accommodation achieved the significant differences and relationships with medium effect sizes. The first and third paired group comparisons showed that tourist from rented accommodations ( $Md = 40.50$ ) indicated a higher aptitude of their food intention behaviours compared to the tourist that chose hostel/rest house ( $Md = 36.50$ ),  $U = 495.50$ ,  $z = -3.59$ ,  $p = .000$ ,  $r = .4$  and resort accommodation ( $Md = 36.00$ ),  $U = 194.00$ ,  $z = -3.15$ ,  $p = .002$ ,  $r = .3$ .

Table 6.25: Mann-Whitney U and Effect Size results of food intention and type of accommodation

| Output                         | N   | Mann      |                |       |             | Effect Size |                          |         |
|--------------------------------|-----|-----------|----------------|-------|-------------|-------------|--------------------------|---------|
|                                |     | Mean Rank | Mann-Whitney U | z     | Asymp. Sig. | Median      | Calculation              | r value |
| <b>First and Second Groups</b> |     |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Type of accommodation</b>   | 104 |           | 495.50         | -3.59 | .000*       |             | -3.59/ square foot of 56 | .4      |
| • Hostel/Rest house            | 80  | 28.58     |                |       |             | 36.50       |                          |         |
| • Rented                       | 24  | 28.31     |                |       |             | 40.50       |                          |         |
| <b>First and Third Groups</b>  |     |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Type of accommodation</b>   | 112 |           | 1275.00        | -.03  | .97         | -           | -                        | -       |
| • Hostel/Rest house            | 80  | 56.56     |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| • Resort                       | 32  | 56.34     |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Second and Third Groups</b> |     |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Type of accommodation</b>   | 56  |           | 194.00         | -3.15 | .002*       |             | -3.15/ square foot of 63 | .3      |
| • Rented                       | 24  | 36.42     |                |       |             | 40.50       |                          |         |
| • Resort                       | 32  | 22.56     |                |       |             | 36.00       |                          |         |

Note: Confidence Interval after Revised alpha value= \*.017

Source: Author

The final results of the Mann-Whitney U test and Effect size involved with the food intention and estimated expenditure on food. As stated in Table 6.26, with a medium effect size of  $r = .3$ , the result suggested that the tourist that spend around £2.78 ( $Md = 48.50$ ) of food purchases are more obliged with their food

intentions in distinction with the tourist with the £3.71 ( $Md = 39.50$ ) expenditure on food,  $U = 64.00$ ,  $z = -2.16$ ,  $p = .03$ .

Table 6.26: Mann-Whitney U and Effect Size results of food intention and estimated expenditure on food

| Output                         | N  | Mann      |                |       |             | Effect Size |                          |         |
|--------------------------------|----|-----------|----------------|-------|-------------|-------------|--------------------------|---------|
|                                |    | Mean Rank | Mann-Whitney U | z     | Asymp. Sig. | Median      | Calculation              | r value |
| <b>First and Second Groups</b> |    |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| Estimated expenditure on food  | 14 |           | 17.50          | -.84  | .39         | -           | -                        | -       |
| • £1.85 and below              | 6  | 6.42      |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| • £2.78                        | 8  | 8.31      |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>First and Third Groups</b>  |    |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| Estimated expenditure on food  | 38 |           | 95.00          | -.04  | .98         | -           | -                        | -       |
| • £1.85 and below              | 6  | 19.67     |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| • £3.71                        | 32 | 19.47     |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| <b>Second and Third Groups</b> |    |           |                |       |             |             |                          |         |
| Estimated expenditure on food  | 40 |           | 64.00          | -2.16 | .03*        |             | -2.16/ square root of 40 | .3      |
| • £2.78                        | 8  | 28.50     |                |       |             | 48.50       |                          |         |
| • £3.71                        | 32 | 18.50     |                |       |             | 39.50       |                          |         |

Note: Confidence Interval after Revised alpha value= \*.017

Source: Author

## 6.6 Determinants of food tourist level

The tourist participation in food tourism at the destination has increased and is growing, but it is important to extend the investigation to examine different dimensions of food tourist segments and not to treat them homogeneously. Food tourist segments could be determined based on various factors including demographics, psychology, sociocultural and motivation. The role of food tourists has been shown to have a powerful positive economic impact on destination food producers and SMEs (Everett and Aitchison, 2008). Tourists that actively interact and engage with the local food while travelling create a significant connection with a destination, by participating with the food-related activities of food consumption, visitation to food establishments, gaining knowledge of the local food preparations and ingredients, that built such connection between food tourism and destination.

Regarding the ECM case on food tourism, the identifications of food tourist level would generate a specific target and strategy to develop a niche food tourism market based on their high, medium or low level of food interests. The comprehensive analysis of the tourist behaviours and backgrounds could be the important predecessor in defining their local food knowledge that would influence the level of food interest at the destination. In this context, the determinant of food tourist level is to investigate and generate a more comprehensive set of influential factors by using both demographic characteristics and motivation factors resultant on tourists' local food knowledge towards influencing the food tourist levels.

Chi-Square tests were undertaken to identify the relationships between (1) two sets of variables between the demographic characteristics and motivation factors with knowledge of Malaysian food and (2) one set of the variables between knowledge of Malaysian food with food tourist level. The following part of this section indicates the existence of significant relationships with 0.05 level of significance level of four dimensions (country of origin, frequency of visit, main purpose of visit and type of accommodation) under the demographic characteristics and two dimensions (food experience and food intention) under the motivation factors that influence the tourist knowledge of Malaysian food. All the results are summarized in Table 6.27. The total number of respondents from five different regions demonstrates that 29.7% of them have knowledge about Malaysian food prior to and during their holidays. Another 70.3% of tourists were not familiar with any knowledge of local food in Malaysia highly contributed by a large percentage of tourists from Europe, as presented in Table 6.27 to 6.33.

Table 6.27: Country of origin vs. knowledge of Malaysian food

|                   |   | Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food?          |        |        |        |
|-------------------|---|---|--------|--------|--------|
|                   |   | Yes   | No     | Total  |        |
| Country of origin | AMERICA   | Count   | 12     | 17     | 29     |
|                   |   | % within country of origin  | 41.4%  | 58.6%  | 100.0% |
|                   |   | % within Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food? | 20.0%  | 12.0%  | 14.4%  |
|                   |   | % of Total  | 5.9%   | 8.4%   | 14.4%  |
|                   | AUSTRALIA   | Count   | 2      | 3      | 5      |
|                   |   | % within country of origin  | 40.0%  | 60.0%  | 100.0% |
|                   |   | % within Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food? | 3.3%   | 2.1%   | 2.5%   |
|                   |   | % of Total  | 1.0%   | 1.5%   | 2.5%   |
|                   | EUROPE  | Count   | 29     | 113    | 142    |
|                   |   | % within country of origin  | 20.4%  | 79.6%  | 100.0% |
|                   |   | % within Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food? | 48.3%  | 79.6%  | 70.3%  |
|                   |   | % of Total  | 14.4%  | 55.9%  | 70.3%  |
|                   | ASIA  | Count   | 16     | 6      | 22     |
|                   |   | % within country of origin  | 72.7%  | 27.3%  | 100.0% |
|                   |   | % within Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food? | 26.7%  | 4.2%   | 10.9%  |
|                   |   | % of Total  | 7.9%   | 3.0%   | 10.9%  |
|                   | AFRICA/<br>OTHERS   | Count   | 1      | 3      | 4      |
|                   |   | % within country of origin  | 25.0%  | 75.0%  | 100.0% |
|                   |   | % within Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food? | 1.7%   | 2.1%   | 2.0%   |
|                   |   | % of Total  | 0.5%   | 1.5%   | 2.0%   |
| Total             | Count   | 60  | 142    | 202    |        |
|                   | % within country of origin  | 29.7%   | 70.3%  | 100.0% |        |
|                   | % within Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food? | 100.0%  | 100.0% | 100.0% |        |
|                   | % of Total  | 29.7%   | 70.3%  | 100.0% |        |

|                    | Value               | df | Asymp. Sig. | Phi  |
|--------------------|---------------------|----|-------------|------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 27.551 <sup>a</sup> | 4  | .000        | .369 |

a. 4 cells (40.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.19.

Source: Author

These results might explain that lack of promotion, knowledge sharing and materials highlighted the Malaysian food and culture overseas that caused the unfamiliarity amongst many tourists to obtain any food-related knowledge of Malaysia. However, food and cultural differences by each nation could also be affecting their considerations to acquire the local food knowledge at the holiday destination. The second result focused on the associations between frequency of visit and knowledge of Malaysian food in Table 6.28. There were large numbers of first time tourist with 78.8% of them did not have any knowledge of Malaysian food compared to 21.2% of tourist that had it. Meanwhile, 85.7% of

tourists who visited Malaysia for more than three times were part of the 'knowledgeable group'.

Table 6.28: Frequency of visit vs. knowledge of Malaysian food

|                    |   | Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food?          |        |        | Total  |
|--------------------|---|---|--------|--------|--------|
|                    |   | Yes   | No     |        |        |
| Frequency of visit | FIRST TIME  | Count   | 35     | 130    | 165    |
|                    |   | % within Frequency of visit   | 21.2%  | 78.8%  | 100.0% |
|                    |   | % within Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food? | 58.3%  | 91.5%  | 81.7%  |
|                    |   | % of Total  | 17.3%  | 64.4%  | 81.7%  |
|                    | 2-3 VISITS  | Count   | 7      | 9      | 16     |
|                    |   | % within Frequency of visit   | 43.8%  | 56.3%  | 100.0% |
|                    |   | % within Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food? | 11.7%  | 6.3%   | 7.9%   |
|                    |   | % of Total  | 3.5%   | 4.5%   | 7.9%   |
|                    | MORE THAN 3 VISITS  | Count   | 18     | 3      | 21     |
|                    |   | % within Frequency of visit   | 85.7%  | 14.3%  | 100.0% |
|                    |   | % within Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food? | 30.0%  | 2.1%   | 10.4%  |
|                    |   | % of Total  | 8.9%   | 1.5%   | 10.4%  |
| Total              | Count   | 60  | 142    | 202    |        |
|                    | % within Frequency of visit   | 29.7%   | 70.3%  | 100.0% |        |
|                    | % within Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food? | 100.0%  | 100.0% | 100.0% |        |
|                    | % of Total  | 29.7%   | 70.3%  | 100.0% |        |

|                    | Value               | Df | Asymp. Sig. | Phi  |
|--------------------|---------------------|----|-------------|------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 38.762 <sup>a</sup> | 2  | .000        | .438 |

a. 1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.75.

Source: Author

Although the dominant group recorded little or no knowledge of Malaysian food amongst the first time tourist, the differences derived from the results clearly emphasized that the knowledge of food is important. Knowledge can be obtained from the past and repeated travelling experiences, and might be useful for the first time tourist that they will also generate the same food knowledge after their first visit due to the familiarity, understanding, and involvement with the local food.

The third significant variable that associated with tourist food knowledge variable is the main purpose of visit reported in Table 6.29. It is evident that when the primary purpose of tourists travelling to ECM is led by the nature-related activities which in fact what ECM is well-known for their intentions to obtain food knowledge become an unimportant aspect of their holiday itineraries. Interestingly, for food and beverage or F&B, the equal number of tourist (50.0%), have and do not have the knowledge of Malaysian food. The rationale is probably due to tourist preferences regarding food involvement.

Table 6.29: Main purpose of visit vs. knowledge of Malaysian food

|                       |   | Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food?          |        |        |        |
|-----------------------|---|---|--------|--------|--------|
|                       |   | Yes   | No     | Total  |        |
| Main purpose of visit | FandB   | Count   | 20     | 20     | 40     |
|                       |   | % within Main purpose of visit  | 50.0%  | 50.0%  | 100.0% |
|                       |   | % within Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food? | 33.3%  | 14.1%  | 19.8%  |
|                       |   | % of Total  | 9.9%   | 9.9%   | 19.8%  |
|                       | ENTERTAINMENT   | Count   | 4      | 12     | 16     |
|                       |   | % within Main purpose of visit  | 25.0%  | 75.0%  | 100.0% |
|                       |   | % within Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food? | 6.7%   | 8.5%   | 7.9%   |
|                       |   | % of Total  | 2.0%   | 5.9%   | 7.9%   |
|                       | CULTURAL  | Count   | 10     | 37     | 47     |
|                       |   | % within Main purpose of visit  | 21.3%  | 78.7%  | 100.0% |
|                       |   | % within Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food? | 16.7%  | 26.1%  | 23.3%  |
|                       |   | % of Total  | 5.0%   | 18.3%  | 23.3%  |
|                       | NATURE  | Count   | 15     | 55     | 70     |
|                       |   | % within Main purpose of visit  | 21.4%  | 78.6%  | 100.0% |
|                       |   | % within Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food? | 25.0%  | 38.7%  | 34.7%  |
|                       |   | % of Total  | 7.4%   | 27.2%  | 34.7%  |
|                       | BUSINESS  | Count   | 8      | 4      | 12     |
|                       |   | % within Main purpose of visit  | 66.7%  | 33.3%  | 100.0% |
|                       |   | % within Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food? | 13.3%  | 2.8%   | 5.9%   |
| % of Total            |   | 4.0%  | 2.0%   | 5.9%   |        |
| RECREATIONS           | Count   | 3   | 14     | 17     |        |
|                       | % within  | 17.6%   | 82.4%  | 100.0% |        |
|                       | % within Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food? | 5.0%  | 9.9%   | 8.4%   |        |
|                       | % of Total  | 1.5%  | 6.9%   | 8.4%   |        |
| Total                 | Count   | 60  | 142    | 202    |        |
|                       | % within Main purpose of visit  | 29.7%   | 70.3%  | 100.0% |        |
|                       | % within Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food? | 100.0%  | 100.0% | 100.0% |        |
|                       | % of Total  | 29.7%   | 70.3%  | 100.0% |        |

|                    | Value               | df | Asymp. Sig. | Phi  |
|--------------------|---------------------|----|-------------|------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 20.991 <sup>a</sup> | 5  | .001        | .322 |

a. 2 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.56.

Source: Author

Some of them might have a preliminary knowledge from any media or printed resources or even from the previous food experience and some may want to gain knowledge during their F&B involvement at the destination. The final significant variable under the demographic characteristics in relation to the tourist knowledge of Malaysian food shows in Table 6.30.

Table 6.30: Type of accommodation vs. knowledge of Malaysian food

|                       |   | Do You Consider Yourself to Have a Good Knowledge of Malaysian Food?          |        |        |        |
|-----------------------|---|---|--------|--------|--------|
|                       |   | Yes   | No     | Total  |        |
| Type of accommodation | REST HOUSE  | Count   | 22     | 57     | 79     |
|                       |   | % within Type of accommodation  | 27.8%  | 72.2%  | 100.0% |
|                       |   | % within Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food? | 36.7%  | 40.1%  | 39.1%  |
|                       |   | % of Total  | 10.9%  | 28.2%  | 39.1%  |
|                       | RENTED  | Count   | 14     | 10     | 24     |
|                       |   | % within Type of accommodation  | 58.3%  | 41.7%  | 100.0% |
|                       |   | % within Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food? | 23.3%  | 7.0%   | 11.9%  |
|                       |   | % of Total  | 6.9%   | 5.0%   | 11.9%  |
|                       | RESORT COMPLEX  | Count   | 5      | 26     | 31     |
|                       |   | % within Type of accommodation  | 16.1%  | 83.9%  | 100.0% |
|                       |   | % within Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food? | 8.3%   | 18.3%  | 15.3%  |
|                       |   | % of Total  | 2.5%   | 12.9%  | 15.3%  |
|                       | HOTEL   | Count   | 19     | 47     | 66     |
|                       |   | % within Type of accommodation  | 28.8%  | 71.2%  | 100.0% |
|                       |   | % within Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food? | 31.7%  | 33.1%  | 32.7%  |
|                       |   | % of Total  | 9.4%   | 23.3%  | 32.7%  |
|                       | OTHERS  | Count   | 0      | 2      | 2      |
|                       |   | % within Type of accommodation  | 0.0%   | 100.0% | 100.0% |
|                       |   | % within Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food? | 0.0%   | 1.4%   | 1.0%   |
|                       |   | % of Total  | 0.0%   | 1.0%   | 1.0%   |
| Total                 | Count   | 60  | 142    | 202    |        |
|                       | % within Type of accommodation  | 29.7%   | 70.3%  | 100.0% |        |
|                       | % within Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food? | 100.0%  | 100.0% | 100.0% |        |
|                       | % of Total  | 29.7%   | 70.3%  | 100.0% |        |

|                    | Value               | df | Asymp. Sig. | Phi  |
|--------------------|---------------------|----|-------------|------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 13.159 <sup>a</sup> | 4  | .011        | .255 |

a. 2 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .59.

Source: Author

Despite the existence of the general domain of tourist who stayed at rest house accommodation in both groups which majority of them did not have local food knowledge, the results demonstrate a slight evidence for a higher percentage of tourists who stayed at the hotel that also depicted a similar pattern of the rest house tourist group. If this could be generalized, then it becomes an important outcome since it might represent the platform to educate, expose, or even promote the local food-related activities and dining at these accommodations, especially at the hotel. It is to increase the tourist knowledge and understanding of local food as a conversion to encourage more food-based tourist in the future as well as network-collaboration between hospitality providers and food at a

destination to develop food tourism.

Moving on to the second key variable of food motivation and its link to tourist knowledge of Malaysian food, there were two dimensions out of four identified as significant. The first result is related to food experience engages significantly with tourist knowledge of Malaysian food, as shown in Table 6.31.

Table 6.31: Food Experience vs. Knowledge of Malaysian Food

|                        |   | Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food?          |                     |                    |            |      |
|------------------------|---|---|---------------------|--------------------|------------|------|
|                        |   | Yes   | No                  | Total              |            |      |
| <b>Food experience</b> | <= 3.67 (low)   | Count   | 14                  | 73                 | 87         |      |
|                        |   | % within Food experience  | 16.1%               | 83.9%              | 100.0%     |      |
|                        |   | % within Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food? | 23.3%               | 51.4%              | 43.1%      |      |
|                        |   | % of Total  | 6.9%                | 36.1%              | 43.1%      |      |
|                        | 3.68 - 4.00 (medium)  | Count   | 11                  | 38                 | 49         |      |
|                        |   | % within Food experience  | 22.4%               | 77.6%              | 100.0%     |      |
|                        |   | % within Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food? | 18.3%               | 26.8%              | 24.3%      |      |
|                        |   | % of Total  | 5.4%                | 18.8%              | 24.3%      |      |
|                        | 4.01+ (high)  | Count   | 35                  | 31                 | 66         |      |
|                        |   | % within Food experience  | 53.0%               | 47.0%              | 100.0%     |      |
|                        |   | % within Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food? | 58.3%               | 21.8%              | 32.7%      |      |
|                        |   | % of Total  | 17.3%               | 15.3%              | 32.7%      |      |
| Total                  | Count   | 60  | 142                 | 202                |            |      |
|                        | % within Food experience  | 29.7%   | 70.3%               | 100.0%             |            |      |
|                        | % within Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food? | 100.0%  | 100.0%              | 100.0%             |            |      |
|                        | % of Total  | 29.7%   | 70.3%               | 100.0%             |            |      |
|                        |   | <b>Value</b>  | <b>df</b>           | <b>Asymp. Sig.</b> | <b>Phi</b> |      |
|                        |   | Pearson Chi-Square  | 26.154 <sup>a</sup> | 2                  | .000       | .360 |

Source: Author

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 14.55.

The results show that when the tourist perceives themselves as having a low food experience in the context of motivating them to try local food, then the percentage of no local food knowledge is high, respectively 83.9%. In contrast, the higher the level of tourist food experience indicates that they have good knowledge in terms of local food as the percentage reaches 53.0%. This result signifies the important influence of food knowledge through the incorporation with the local food and other food-related activities to induce a positive, novel and enjoyable food experience. The second variable of food motivation that has a significant impact on tourist food knowledge is food intention, as shown in Table 6.32.

Table 6.32: Food intention vs. knowledge of Malaysian food

|                |   | Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food?          |        |        |        |
|----------------|---|---|--------|--------|--------|
|                |   | Yes   | No     | Total  |        |
| Food intention | <= 3.50<br>(low)  | Count   | 13     | 69     | 82     |
|                |   | % within Food intention   | 15.9%  | 84.1%  | 100.0% |
|                |   | % within Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food? | 21.7%  | 48.6%  | 40.6%  |
|                |   | % of total  | 6.4%   | 34.2%  | 40.6%  |
|                | 3.51 - 3.80<br>(medium)   | Count   | 16     | 38     | 54     |
|                |   | % within Food intention   | 29.6%  | 70.4%  | 100.0% |
|                |   | % within Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food? | 26.7%  | 26.8%  | 26.7%  |
|                |   | % of total  | 7.9%   | 18.8%  | 26.7%  |
|                | 3.81+<br>(high)   | Count   | 31     | 35     | 66     |
|                |   | % within Food intention   | 47.0%  | 53.0%  | 100.0% |
|                |   | % within Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food? | 51.7%  | 24.6%  | 32.7%  |
|                |   | % of total  | 15.3%  | 17.3%  | 32.7%  |
| total          | count   | 60  | 142    | 202    |        |
|                | % within Food intention   | 29.7%   | 70.3%  | 100.0% |        |
|                | % within Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food? | 100.0%  | 100.0% | 100.0% |        |
|                | % of total  | 29.7%   | 70.3%  | 100.0% |        |

|                    | Value               | df | Asymp. Sig. | Phi  |
|--------------------|---------------------|----|-------------|------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | 16.956 <sup>a</sup> | 2  | .000        | .290 |

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16.04.

Source: Author

The percentage indicates an almost similar pattern of tourist in Table 6.32, which in this case, large percentages of tourist (84.1%) with low food intention commit with insufficient knowledge of local food. Nonetheless, the knowledge also affected the pattern of tourist with high food intention behaviour; as a result that even their food intention behaviour was high which shows the active engagement on food motivation, their food knowledge remains negative for 53.0% of tourist. But the gap between the tourists that are considered as having good food knowledge in the same category was just less than 6.0%. This result points out that in assessing the tourist food intentions, although knowledge is impartially required to enhance their overall intentions to consume local food, it could also be stimulated by other reasons such as satisfaction, perceived value and attitude as well as physical factors like price, hygiene and service.

In the final section, Table 6.33 demonstrates the significant influence between knowledge of Malaysian food on the level of the food tourist. For the tourists who are in the group of the high-level food tourist, 31.1% are confident regarding having knowledge of Malaysian food, compared to another 12.3% of high-level food tourist that were unknowledgeable about local food. However,

only 40.9% of total food tourists at all levels (high, medium and low) were committed to attaining Malaysian food knowledge, slightly lower to those food tourists who did not have Malaysian food knowledge (59.1%).

Table 6.33: Knowledge of Malaysian food vs. level of food tourist

|                                 |       |   | Level of food tourist |        |        | Total  |
|---------------------------------|-------|---|-----------------------|--------|--------|--------|
|                                 |       |   | High                  | Medium | Low    |        |
| <b>Malaysian food knowledge</b> | YES   | Count   | 14                    | 27     | 4      | 45     |
|                                 |       | % within Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food? | 31.1%                 | 60.0%  | 8.9%   | 100.0% |
|                                 |       | % within Level of food tourist  | 63.6%                 | 39.1%  | 21.1%  | 40.9%  |
|                                 |       | % of total  | 12.7%                 | 24.5%  | 3.6%   | 40.9%  |
|                                 | NO    | Count   | 8                     | 42     | 15     | 65     |
|                                 |       | % within Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food? | 12.3%                 | 64.6%  | 23.1%  | 100.0% |
|                                 |       | % within Level of food tourist  | 36.4%                 | 60.9%  | 78.9%  | 59.1%  |
|                                 |       | % of total  | 7.3%                  | 38.2%  | 13.6%  | 59.1%  |
|                                 | Total | Count   | 22                    | 69     | 19     | 110    |
|                                 |       | % within Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food? | 20.0%                 | 62.7%  | 17.3%  | 100.0% |
| % within Level of food tourist  |       | 100.0%  | 100.0%                | 100.0% | 100.0% |        |
| % of total                      |       | 20.0%   | 62.7%                 | 17.3%  | 100.0% |        |

|                           | Value              | df | Asymp. Sig. | Phi |
|---------------------------|--------------------|----|-------------|-----|
| <b>Pearson Chi-Square</b> | 7.890 <sup>a</sup> | 2  | .01         | .2  |

a. cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.77.

Source: Author

This result establishes that the relation might reveal an important determinant of food tourists that are drawn by the opportunity to consume local food at the destination that comprises the knowledge-based prospects of formal and informal activities that devoted to food depending on the tourist food knowledge resources and preferences.

Consequently, local food knowledge is considered as one of the instruments for tourists to identify their food interests and decisions on holiday that later will determine their segmentations on the food tourist levels; neither have they had high nor low local food knowledge. Both variables (knowledge and food tourist levels) are integrated, in which with knowledge, tourist could easily understand their interests and make decisions on food at a destination, and without knowledge, the tourist can develop their destination food engagements from other potential factors such as physical desires, cultural influences, inter-personal or social drives and status belongings (Fields, 2002).

## **6.7 The segmentation of group structures of food motivation factors and demographic characteristics**

The next step in the data analysis is to provide tourist group segmentations with demographic characteristics and food motivation factors. The analysis was undertaken through cluster analysis. The aim of using the cluster analysis is to identify the homogeneous group of respondents into clusters and to assign observations to groups (clusters). As posited by Mooi and Sarstedt (2011) and Tyler (1997), the clustering first involves the observation or evaluation of variables and characteristics within each group of the respondent is similar to one another depending on the area of interest and later the group themselves stand apart from one another based on several differences. The two-steps cluster analysis as explained earlier in Chapter 4 (Section 4.8.2) is used for the categorical and continuous data, to group different tourists according to their food motivation factors to consume local food during their holidays.

Two-step cluster analysis in SPSS statistical software was used to handle categorical and continuous variables simultaneously and provide the flexibility to specify the clusters/segments and create a profile for respondents, which in this study are international tourists in ECM. This cluster analysis functions and interprets data based on how the respondents are naturally clustered around the set of chosen variables. In this study, the tourist clusters identified from the distributions of demographic variables (categorical data) around food motivation factors (continuous data). Later, the clusters that are produced from the analysis will explain different types of food tourist patterns determined from three distinct clusters.

The demographic characteristics were emphasized to exhibit the pattern of tourist demographics (e.g., age, country of origin, education) as a determinant to evaluate the most important and critical dimensions of food motivation factor (food preference, food expectation, food experience and food intention). By using the mean values of each attribute and cluster comparison figures, the values and interpretations were highlighted by comparing each of three clusters based on the size and the clusters patterns shown in Figures 6.1 to 6.3. The segmentation method is important to identify the dominant dimensions of food

motivation factor amongst the nine demographic characteristics of tourist groups. The analysed and reported results for age group, country of origin, length of visit and the main purpose of the visit were the continuity based on the Bonferroni Adjustment outputs in Table 6.8 that were used to run the Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis tests. The descriptive results of the two-step cluster analysis are presented in Table 6.34.

Table 6.34: Cluster distributions between demographic characteristics

| Demographic Characteristics           | Cluster 1 (N=109) | Cluster 2 (N=87) | Cluster 3 (N=8) |
|---------------------------------------|-------------------|------------------|-----------------|
| <b>Gender</b>                         |                   |                  |                 |
| Male                                  | 33.0%             | 51.7%            | 25.0%           |
| Female                                | 67.0%             | 40.3%            | 75.0%           |
| <b>Age group</b>                      |                   |                  |                 |
| 40 and below                          | 94.5%             | 82.8%            | 100%            |
| 41 – 60                               | 5.5%              | 16.1%            | 0%              |
| 60 and above                          | 0%                | 1.1%             | 0%              |
| <b>Highest Education Attained</b>     |                   |                  |                 |
| High school or equivalent             | 11.0%             | 21.9%            | 0%              |
| Diploma or equivalent                 | 12.9%             | 11.5%            | 0%              |
| Bachelor's Degree or equivalent       | 41.3%             | 42.5%            | 100%            |
| Master's Degree or equivalent         | 33.9%             | 16.1%            | 0%              |
| Doctor of Philosophy or equivalent    | 0.9%              | 8.0%             | 0%              |
| <b>Country of Origin</b>              |                   |                  |                 |
| America                               | 12.8%             | 8.0%             | 100%            |
| Australasia                           | 0.7%              | 4.6%             | 0%              |
| Europe                                | 83.5%             | 59.8%            | 0%              |
| Asia                                  | 2.3%              | 24.1%            | 0%              |
| Africa/others                         | 0.7%              | 3.5%             | 0%              |
| <b>Frequency of visit to Malaysia</b> |                   |                  |                 |
| First time                            | 95.4%             | 67.8%            | 50.0%           |
| 2 – 3 visits                          | 3.6%              | 13.8%            | 0%              |
| More than 3 visits                    | 1.0%              | 18.4%            | 50.0%           |
| <b>Length of Visit to Malaysia</b>    |                   |                  |                 |
| Less than 1 week                      | 4.6%              | 18.4%            | 0%              |
| More than 1 week                      | 95.4%             | 81.6%            | 100%            |
| <b>Main Purpose of Visit</b>          |                   |                  |                 |
| Food and beverage                     | 17.4%             | 24.1%            | 0%              |
| Entertainment                         | 1.8%              | 16.1%            | 0%              |
| Cultural                              | 29.3%             | 13.8%            | 37.5%           |
| Nature, Sport and recreation          | 49.5%             | 40.2%            | 0%              |
| Business                              | 2.0%              | 5.8%             | 62.5%           |
| <b>Type of Accommodation</b>          |                   |                  |                 |
| Rest house/hostel                     | 60.6%             | 16.1%            | 100%            |
| Rented                                | 9.1%              | 6.9%             | 0%              |
| Resort Complex                        | 11.0%             | 22.3%            | 0%              |
| Hotel                                 | 17.4%             | 54.0%            | 0%              |
| Others                                | 1.8%              | 0%               | 0%              |

**Estimated Expenditure of Food (Daily)**

|         |       |       |       |
|---------|-------|-------|-------|
| £1.85 > | 1.1%  | 3.4%  | 25.0% |
| £2.78   | 3.6%  | 1.2%  | 37.5% |
| £3.71   | 24.7% | 2.3%  | 37.5% |
| £4.63   | 39.4% | 12.6% | 0%    |
| £5.56 < | 31.2% | 80.5% | 0%    |

Source: Author

The patterns of tourists' demographic characteristics in all three clusters identified that tourists in Cluster 1 consisted of a higher proportion of female respondents aged 40 and below. The majority of them (41.3%) had attained a Bachelor's Degree or equivalent. In terms of country of origin, a large portion of respondents were mostly from European countries (83.5%). In comparison with Cluster 2, the demographic pattern recorded that this group of respondents had a higher proportion of male tourists (51.7%) compared to females. Nevertheless, other characteristics including age, education and country of origin depicted a similar pattern of demographics with Cluster 1.

Interestingly, this pattern demonstrated that male respondents in Cluster 2 might have travelled in the same scheduled from Europe with the female respondents in Cluster 1, with other possibilities including both groups came to ECM on a similar package, interests or activities. In Cluster 3, which contained the smallest number of respondents (N=8), was dominated by 75.0% of female tourist. This group recorded a significant difference in their countries of origin compared to Clusters 1 and 2. Flight travel is one of the factors why many Europeans travelled to ECM and Malaysia. The direct flights of Malaysia Airlines and British Airways from London (LHR) to Kuala Lumpur (KLIA) and other options of connecting Asian flights from Europe to Kuala Lumpur (e.g., Etihad, Emirates, Qatar Airways, Turkish Airlines) provide a huge travel opportunity for European tourists to visit Malaysia and South East Asia.

While Europeans have a strong influence in Clusters 1 and 2, with the percentages of more than 59.0% in both clusters compared to other regions such as Asia and America, 100% of respondents in Cluster 3 were dominated by tourists from America of which half of them were first-timers, and another half had visited Malaysia more than three times. Clusters 1 and 2 continued to record a comparable pattern regarding the frequency of visits to Malaysia with 95.4% in Cluster 1 and 67.8% in Cluster 2 were first-timers. The total length of

stay of tourists in all clusters demonstrated a large number of respondents stay in Malaysia for more than one week with the significant percentages of more than 80.0% in all clusters.

It is also important to note that the main purpose of visit verified a high percentage of respondents in cluster 1 commit to nature, sport and recreation activities at 49.5%, as well as in Cluster 2 at 40.2%, compared to food and beverages or cultural. Food and beverage purposes accounted for less than 25.0% of respondents in both clusters. Cluster 3 did not record any interests in food and beverages, entertainment and nature, sport and recreation, but did have a large number of respondents that went to Malaysia for business purposes. The majority of tourists chose nature, sport and recreation rather than other activities. This could be interpreted by several factors such as location, season and activity. ECM is known for its ecotourism and nature-based tourism products (see Chapter 2) and has become the main attraction for tourists to engage with water sports, diving, snorkelling, nature-trails and sun-bathing particularly during March to September annually (highest temperature and sunniest). The results also showed that food and beverage and cultural purposes ranked the second highest purposes of tourists in Clusters 1 and 2 indicating that it is perceived as supplementary/supporting activities to enhance and complement tourists' experience. Both purposes (culinary and culture) could be potentially increased and developed in the future as primary tourism attractions.

A large percentage of respondents in Cluster 1 stayed at rest house/hostel accommodations (60.6%) as well as Cluster 3 (100%). In comparison, the numbers of respondents who stay at rest house/hostel were the lowest in Cluster 2, because many of them chose hotels as their accommodation preferences at 54.0%. On the other hand, 80.5% of respondents in Cluster 2 spent an average £5.56 (MYR 30.00) on food during their trips to ECM that recorded a different spending pattern with Clusters 1 and 3. 39.4% of respondents, which was the most significant group in Cluster 1, with an average spending of £4.63 (MYR25.00) for the daily expenditure on food, in which there were no people who spent more than £4.00 in Cluster 3. 75.0% of them preferred to spend around £2.78 to £ 3.71 (MYR15.00 to MYR 20.00) for food

during their trips. These two characteristics (type of accommodation and estimated expenditure of food) defined male tourists (Cluster 2) were more 'financially stable' and willing to spend more on accommodation and food.

Hotels are relatively expensive in ECM, compared to other types of accommodations and MYR 30.00 (£5.56) is considered very expensive to spend on food on a daily basis. Besides the financial factor, their preferences to stay at a better or proper place and consume a better quality of food which normally cost higher than a standard meal in ECM which is very cheap or less nutritious, also proved this group has a better purchasing power and lifestyle. Interestingly, the disparity was obvious compared to the majority of female tourists (major gender group in Clusters 1 and 3) who preferred to spend less on both accommodation and food. Female tourists in ECM belong to a 'budget tourist' category; they have simpler food preferences and choices, and their spending patterns showed that they prefer to eat cheaper meals (less than MYR 20.00 or MYR 15.00). This result indicates that this group of tourists are more connected with the local food because local food in ECM is relatively very cheap and easy to find.

The demographic characteristics, as previously explained within the three different clusters, identify the unique and dynamic patterns of tourists during their visit to ECM. The clusters have contributed to the understanding that allows researchers to have greater insight into the demographic and other behavioural elements of certain groups of respondents, particularly tourist groups (Wedel and Kamakura, 2012). The further insights of the tourist segments will be interpreted based on the clusters patterns in four dimensions of motivation factors, as shown in figures 6.1 to 6.3.

Table 6.35: Mean and Standard Deviation of motivation factor for three clusters

| Motivation factors | Cluster 1<br>(Active enthusiast) |                            | Cluster 2<br>(Dynamic enthusiast) |                            | Cluster 3<br>(Opportunist enthusiast) |                            |
|--------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------------------|----------------------------|
|                    | Means<br>(M)                     | Standard<br>deviation (SD) | Means<br>(M)                      | Standard<br>deviation (SD) | Means<br>(M)                          | Standard<br>deviation (SD) |
| Food preference    | 37.77                            | 3.27                       | 35.72                             | 5.88                       | 36.25                                 | 3.05                       |
| Food expectation   | 22.62                            | 2.98                       | 23.59                             | 3.90                       | 20.25                                 | 3.73                       |
| Food experience    | 34.75                            | 4.46                       | 33.98                             | 5.19                       | 133.75                                | 3.05                       |
| Food intention     | 36.76                            | 4.33                       | 35.54                             | 6.88                       | 131.50                                | 1.77                       |

Source: Author

Figure 6.1: Cluster distribution of motivation factor in Cluster 1

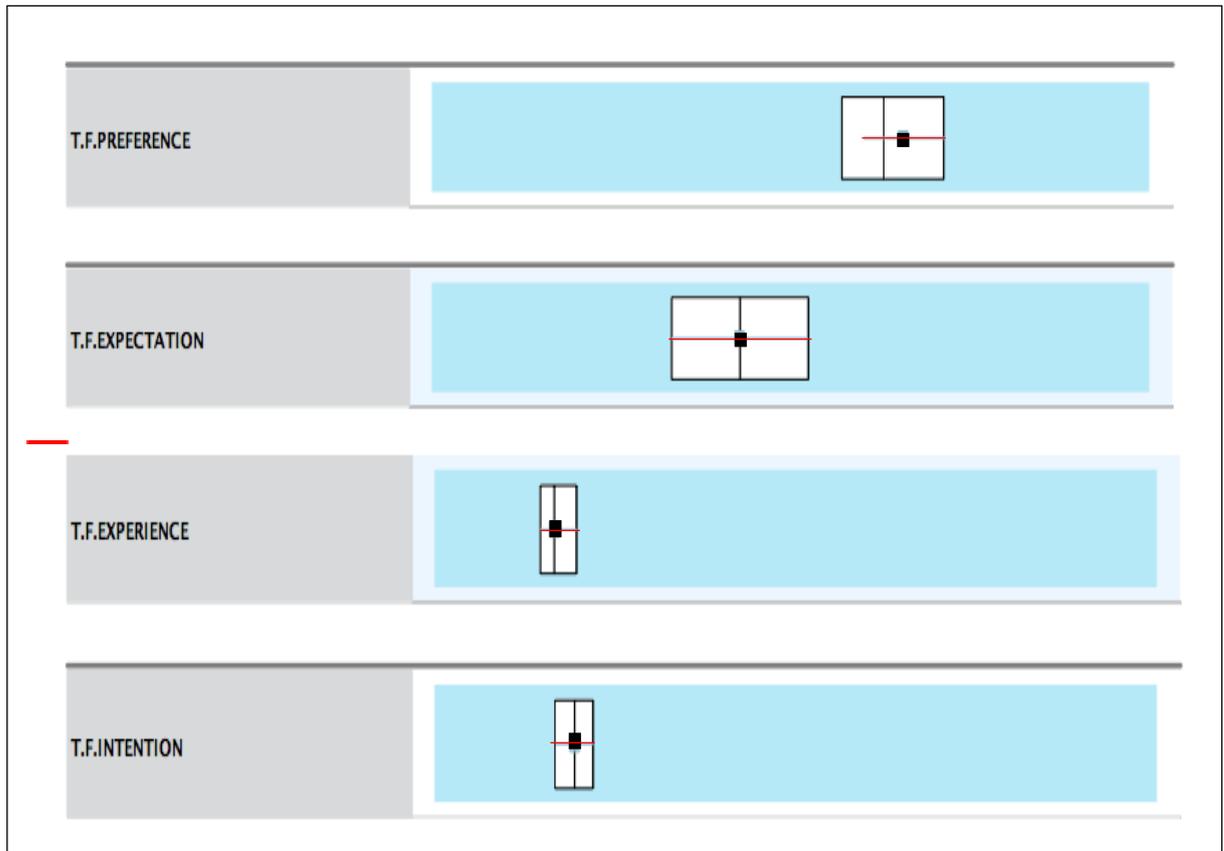


Figure 6.2: Cluster distribution of motivation factor in Cluster 2

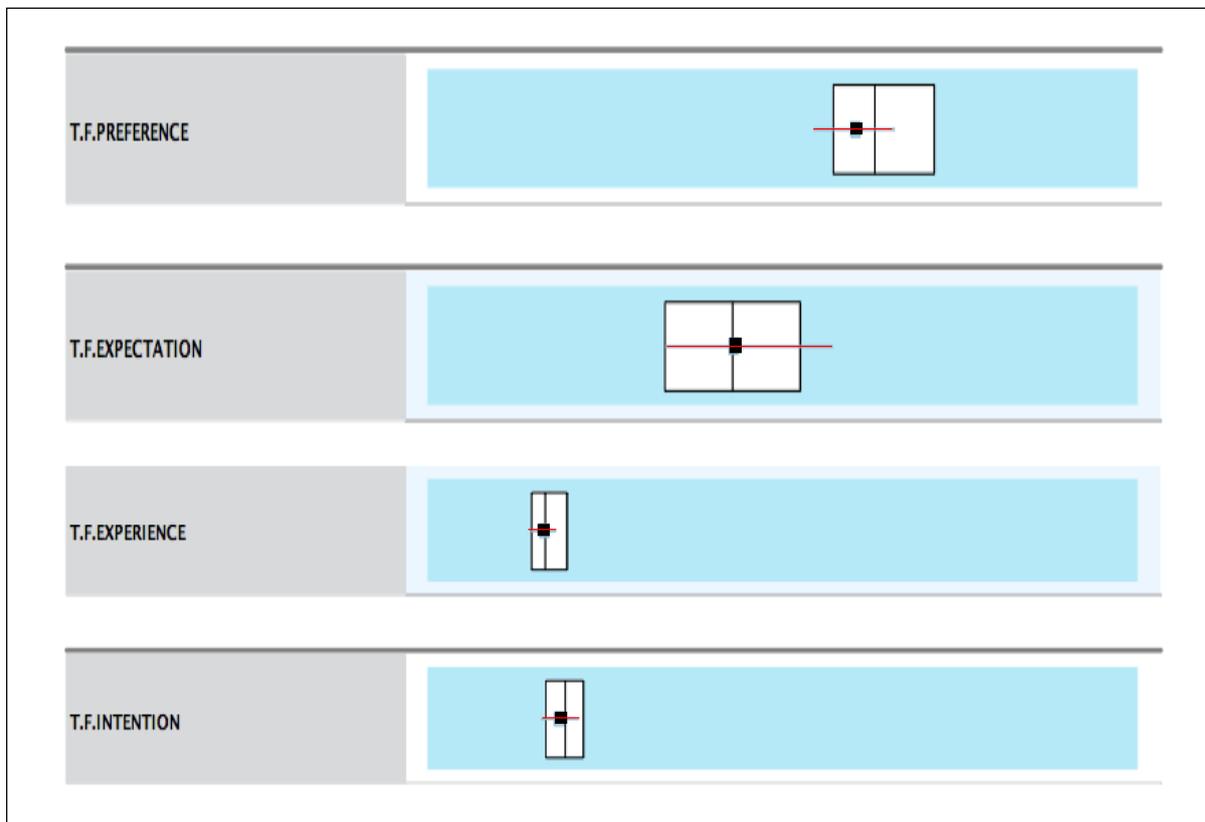
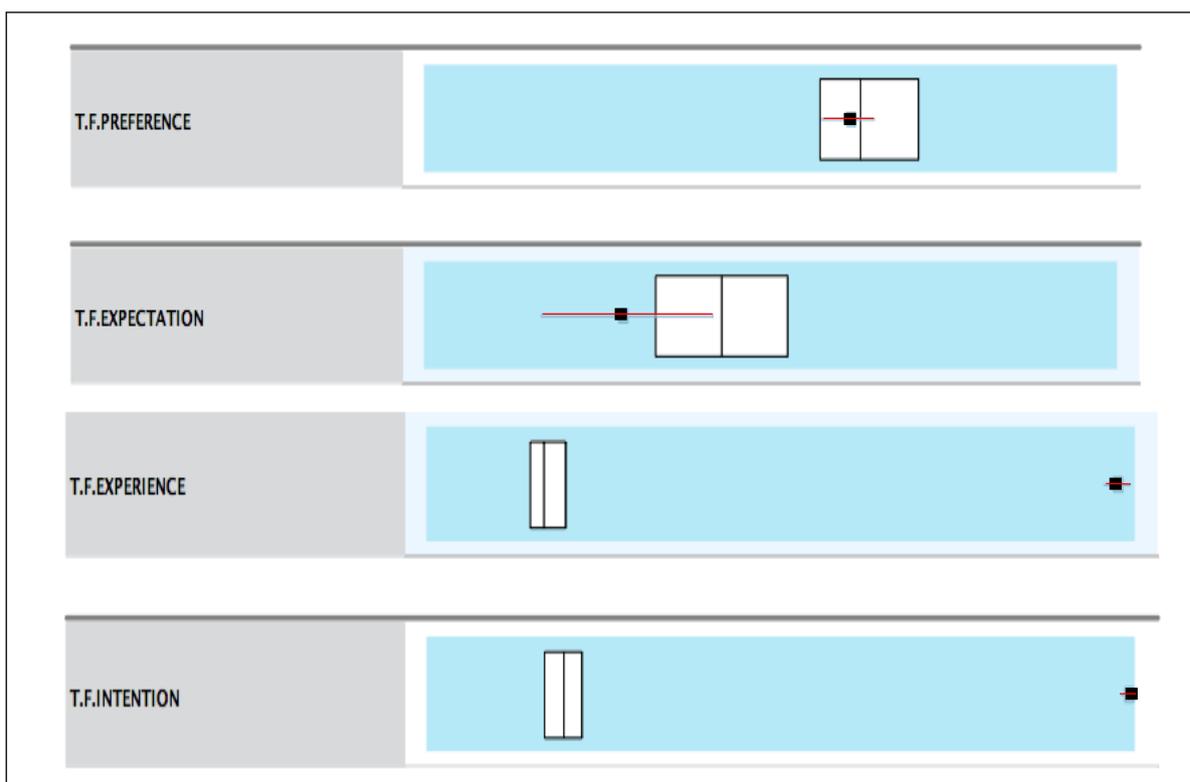


Figure 6.3: Cluster distribution of motivation factor in Cluster 3



Source: Author

Cluster 1 detected that this large group of 109 respondents dominated by females, Figure 6.1 illustrates that respondents are highly motivated with their food preference ( $M = 37.77$ ) to consume local food at the destination. Other factors received moderate interests and influence on their food motivations. Tourists in Cluster 1 verify the influence of female tourists on holiday have an important link with their preference or fondness regarding familiarity, food presentation, low priced food, positive reviews, and popularity, that seems very important for this group to get involved with local food. The emerging pattern of a large group of female respondents, in particular, implicates the changes of gender influences in the tourism industry and holiday trend. It is also important to note that the food preference is important amongst these individuals due to its relation with food-related personality traits which might also closely link to certain demographic stimulus (e.g., personality based on gender traits) and the inclination to select one food item over another (Mak et al., 2012; Rozin and Vollmecke, 1986).

In comparison with Cluster 1, Cluster 2 had a lower percentage of female respondents than male, which the pattern could be clearly distinguished by the

gender influences by both clusters. Respondents in this cluster perceived food expectation (M= 23.59) and food experience (M=33.98) as the most important motivating factor to get involved with local food during the holiday. On the other hand, food preference (M= 35.72) and food intention (M=35.54) proven that both factors had small influences in motivating Cluster 2 respondents' food consumptions based on Figure 6.2. Food expectation is the act of an individual towards his or her high inclinations of food planning or decision-making. It underlines that this type of tourist is likely to fulfil their expectations when they "immerse themselves in the culture they are visiting through authentic and engaging experiences with people, cuisine, wine and other cultural activities" (MacDonald and Deneault, 2001:13).

It is worth noting that tourists in Clusters 2 and 3 also achieved the similarity regarding their high dependability of food experience factor. Cluster 3 has the lowest group of respondents and interestingly all of them came from the American regions, are highly motivated by their food experience (M=133.75) and food intention (M=131.50) towards local food consumption. Tourists in Clusters 2 and 3 identify food experience which helped them not only to extend but also intensify their self-identity and satisfaction towards the food that they will choose and consume, which is one of the ways to expose something unique and different from their daily food intakes (Quan and Wang, 2004). In addition, regarding with food intention based on the distribution in Figure 6.3 that also receives as the important impetus for respondents in Cluster 3, they are more likely to be apprehensive about their attitude and emotions, which relate to fundamental aspects of the individual on targeted food or certain objects. Their past travel experiences and also places that they live or grew to have the strong influences regarding how they evaluate the quality and satisfaction of food that they choose to consume, that seem like an imperative factor to bring along when they travel in the future.

The tourist segmentation contributes to the study that goes beyond the norms of measuring the element of relationships with two or more significant variables or factors. Cluster 1 or '**active enthusiast**', covers the largest percentage of female respondents with majority age between 40 years old and below and contained the most educated group of people. Regarding their country of

origins, many of these are first-time visitors who came from Europe, stayed for more than a week in Malaysia. Cluster 1 also had a high proportion of respondents who interested in nature, sport and recreational tourism activities. They chose to stay at the rest house/hostel accommodation with the estimation of £4.63 of daily food expenditure in ECM. They were also a group of individuals that were highly motivated by food preferences and these tourists were dominated by high food preference motivation, and can be classified as 'enthusiastic' to sample local food (Mak et al., 2012).

For Cluster 2 or '**dynamic enthusiast**', the patterns of respondents indicated many similarities regarding demographic characteristics with Cluster 1; the only difference was the numbers of males were more than female respondents that stayed at hotel accommodations and had an estimation of food expenditure around £5.56 daily. In relation to food motivation, this group was verified their motivations to engage with local food strongly driven by the food experiences and food expectations. In this notion, these tourists represent the importance of food experience have the quest for broadening their perspectives about the social world, including the history and cultural backgrounds of foods they consume at destinations (Tung and Ritchie, 2011). Hence, such new information adds to the individual's intellectual achievement about people and their food, which leaves an eternal memory (Mcintosh, Goeldner, and Ritchie, 1995).

Cluster 3 or '**opportunist enthusiast**' is the smallest group of respondents that had a large group of female and young tourists with degrees from the American region. Their visiting purposes consist of a major segment of business travelling which generally related to work or industrial attachment while in Malaysia that let them stay for more than a week with the average daily food expenditure around £2.78 to £3.71. These business travellers have the predispositions of food experience, which was similar to Cluster 2 and food intentions as the motivator of the local food choice of destination. Given these findings, besides food experiences, when this group participates with food at a destination, their intention to consume local food is probably profoundly influenced by the perceived quality and satisfaction that affects the intentions to behave positively on what food to choose and consume (Oliver, 1999).

## 6.8 Summary

The analysis verified the key indicator of tourist food consumption influences of the overall food tourism development at the destination, specifically for ECM and produced a comprehensive understanding of tourist dynamics regarding their food choices, involvements and motivation during the holiday. The results of the relationships of tourist demographic characteristics including age group, country of origin, length of visit, frequency of visit, main purpose of travel, type of accommodation and estimated expenditure on food, generated a significant influence with four dimensions of motivation factors as shown in the previous results (Table 6.9 to 6.18) that are summarized in Table 6.36. In particular, the further analysis of effect size results (Table 6.19 to 6.26) that concisely summarized in Table 6.37 showed that 9.9% ECM tourists within the age of 41-61 years old were highly motivated by the food preference factor to consume local food at the destination.

Table 6.36: Summary of results (with significant *p* value) of the relationships/differences between motivation factor and demographic characteristics

| Demographic / Motivation factors | Age group | Country of origin | Length of visit | Frequency of visit | Main purpose of visit | Type of accommodation | Estimated expenditure |
|----------------------------------|-----------|-------------------|-----------------|--------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Food preference                  | .05*      |                   |                 |                    |                       |                       | .05*                  |
| Food expectation                 |           | .05*              |                 |                    | .05*                  |                       |                       |
| Food experience                  |           | .05*              | .05*            | .05*               |                       | .05*                  | .05*                  |
| Food intention                   |           | .05*              |                 |                    | .05*                  | .05*                  | .05*                  |

Note: Confidence Interval, \**p*<0.05

Source: Author

Table 6.37: Summary of results (with significant *p* value) of the effect size

| Output                                   | Effect Size |         |
|--|-------------|---------|
|  | Asymp. Sig. | r value |
| <b>Food preference</b>                   |             |         |
| <b>Age group</b>                         | .04*        | .1      |
| 40 and below                             |             |         |
| 41-60                                    |             |         |
| <b>Estimated expenditure on food</b>     | .08*        | .1      |
| £3.71                                    |             |         |
| £4.63                                    |             |         |
| <b>Food expectation</b>                  |             |         |
| <b>Country of origin (by continents)</b> | .04*        | .3      |
| Asia                                     |             |         |
| Africa/others                            |             |         |
| <b>Main purpose of visit</b>             | .02*        | .2      |
| Food and beverage                        |             |         |
| Cultural                                 |             |         |
| <b>Food experience</b>                   |             |         |
| <b>Country of origin (by continents)</b> | .03*        | .2      |
| America (North and South America)        |             |         |
| Asia                                     |             |         |

|                                      |       |    |
|--------------------------------------|-------|----|
| <b>Frequency of visit</b>            | .01*  | .1 |
| First time                           |       |    |
| More than 3 times                    |       |    |
| <b>Type of accommodation</b>         | .006* | .2 |
| Hostel/Rest house                    |       |    |
| Rented                               |       |    |
| <b>Type of accommodation</b>         | .009* | .3 |
| Rented                               |       |    |
| Resort                               |       |    |
| <b>Estimated expenditure on food</b> | .07*  | .2 |
| £2.78                                |       |    |
| £3.71                                |       |    |
| <b>Food intention</b>                |       |    |
| <b>Type of accommodation</b>         | .000* | .4 |
| Hostel/Rest house                    |       |    |
| Rented                               |       |    |
| <b>Type of accommodation</b>         | .002* | .3 |
| Rented                               |       |    |
| Resort                               |       |    |
| <b>Estimated expenditure on food</b> | .03*  | .3 |
| £2.78                                |       |    |
| £3.71                                |       |    |

Note: Confidence Interval after Revised alpha value= \*.017

Source: Author

The total of 25.5% Asian and American tourists defined their local food consumption by the motivation that is significantly based on the food experience factor. In fact, the food experience is considered as the primary food consumption motivator for tourists who visited ECM more than three times, tourists who stayed at the rented/rest house accommodation and 3.9% had an average estimation of food expenditure of £2.78 (MYR15.00) daily. In the same vein, tourists who stayed at rented/rest house accommodation and spent less than £3.00 on daily food were also motivated by their level of food intention to consume local food in ECM. Finally, the decisions of visitation to ECM were primarily made by the individual who travelled for food and beverage as well as local culture purposes, in which for them food expectation was the most relatable to their food consumption motivations.

The overall result of the first purpose for the data analysis regarded the relationships of the tourists' demographic characteristics and motivation factors affected TFC, suggested an interesting synergy and concept of the emergence of tourists' food consumption pattern in ECM and Malaysia. Demographic characteristics played an important role in the choices and decisions through tourist motivation to consume local food at the destination. Therefore, amongst four different dimensions of motivation factors, food experience possessed a high level of influence on TFC stimulated by the tourist demographic

characteristics of tourists' country of origin, the frequency of visit, type of accommodation and estimated expenditure on food. Based on Table 6.38, the results confirmed that the level of food tourist has high levels of linkages with tourist knowledge of local food.

Table 6.38: Summary of results (with significant *p* value) of the Chi-square of food tourist determinants

| Factors                     |             | Level of food tourist | Food experience | Food intention | Country of origin | Frequency of visit | Main purpose of visit | Type of accommodation |
|-----------------------------|-------------|-----------------------|-----------------|----------------|-------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| Knowledge of Malaysian food | <i>Sig.</i> | .01                   | .000            | .000           | .000              | .000               | .001                  | .01                   |
|                             | <i>Phi.</i> | .20                   | .30             | .20            | .40               | .40                | .30                   | .20                   |

Note: Confidence Interval, \**p*<0.05

Source: Author

More specifically, the food tourist level confirmed that tourist demographic characteristics (country of origin, frequency of visit, main purpose of visit and type of accommodation) and motivation factors (food experience and food intention) crucially influenced the tourist knowledge of local food. The effect size (*Phi* value) indicated that the country of origin and frequency of visit has a stronger association (large effect size) with knowledge of Malaysian food compared to other variables (medium effect size). The results suggests that, for individuals who categorized in those four demographic characteristics with high motivations of food experience and food intention, they have a keen interest in participating and acknowledging the knowledge of local food that subsequently determined their food tourist level with 62.7% of them were a medium level food tourist. Finally, the cluster analysis to determine the ECM tourist segmentations using two-steps cluster manage to identify 3 principal clusters of *active enthusiast (Cluster 1)*, *dynamic enthusiast (Cluster 2)* and *opportunistic enthusiast (Cluster 3)*. This clustering is essential for this study to understand the classes or conceptually meaningful groups of the object (tourists) towards the subjects (local food) that share common characteristics or natures. In this case, the clustering able to form the logical structures or patterns based on how ECM international tourists perceive local food, and each cluster help to classify the variations of needs and attitudes or other characteristics in the homogeneous groups that are not previously known or investigated in ECM or other related studies as well.

## CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION

### 7.1 Introduction

This thesis has shown that East Coast Malaysia (ECM) food can become a central tourism product and attraction to the destination. Not only does local food attract tourists, or 'foodies', but also food-related activities have the potential to communicate broader functional and experiential benefits of a destination. The inter-relationship between producers, tourists and the destination stimulates social interaction, which through the food-tourism distribution process, creates value to the tourist experience and food businesses. It builds up the confidence and trust that is critically important for regional food supply chain and tourist relations (Roy, Hall and Ballantine, 2017).

The case of tourism development in ECM shows that tourism products are dominated by nature-based tourism and eco-tourism through time, which has attracted a massive number of local and foreign tourists. However, the research has identified the potential for food businesses in ECM to work cooperatively to build capacity that might enhance the development of local food and food producers. A huge impact can be generated for ECM food tourism implementation, and as Andersson et al. (2017) argue, food tourism increases the value of tourism within the local economy. Likewise, the rediscovery and development of crops and livestock, food products and dishes may have positive effects on local residents' sense of cultural belonging, just as it may enhance tourists' understanding of the destination. However, the issue of tourism 'inconsistency' and 'instability' is set to be a potential issue if the destination fails to innovate to ensure the continued growth of the local tourism industry.

This study has focused on food tourism as a niche tourism market/product for tourism destination development in ECM. It set out to investigate the relationships between food production and consumption in a regional food tourism development context. The elements of the tourism production process (Smith, 1994) and tourist motivation and demographic factors (Kim et al., 2013), provided the interface between theoretical and applied perspectives in integrating destination food tourism supply and demand to promote local food

as an added-value tourism product, with a particular view to targeting foreign tourists. This final chapter sets out to reflect on the research objectives, based on the conceptual frameworks developed in Chapter 3. The next part of this chapter will discuss the research contributions, research limitations and recommendations for future research.

## **7.2 Discussion of research objectives and findings**

This section reflects the main findings in the light of the three research objectives, and also the validation of conceptual frameworks. From a conceptual perspective, the research highlights the linkage between food tourism and destination development, and food as the pull factor for tourism in a destination (Okumus et al., 2007), food creates destination competitiveness and branding advantages (Henderson, 2009) and food as a symbolic feature of local people and place (Everett, 2012). Accordingly, the main strand of this thesis demonstrates the producers' views on current and potential ECM food tourism strategy in implementing extensive tourism channels and network to market their product, on which food tourism is highly dependent. It is essential to note that food tourism is not just associated with gourmet or sophisticated dining experiences, but is a valuable tourism asset when it promotes traditional, casual, authentic food product (Ottenbacher and Harrington, 2013), and, of course, brings the producer and tourist together to further add value on both sides. Furthermore, it is important to extend the viewpoint that food projects destination tourism development. In this case, food also provides a tangible mechanism to engage tourists actively in experiencing local food and thereby the destination's culture, history and identity (Alonso, 2013; Horng and Tsai, 2012).

To address the first objective, the tourism production process introduced by Smith (1994) was used to frame ECM food producer's engagement with destination food tourism development. The production process defined as a systematic approach to food tourism supply system (resources to final output: tourist experience), aligned with the demand and growing interests (Robinsons and Getz, 2016) of ECM tourist food involvement. Reconsidering food

production can generate a competitive edge for the local tourism industry in terms of generating added-value to food-based tourism products.

Objective 2 set out to investigate tourists' food consumption characteristics and patterns to explore the complex tourist behaviours in making food decisions at a holiday destination. The literature review highlighted that despite the importance of food consumption in affecting destination choices, relatively little research exists on understanding the motivation aspects of tourist food consumption (see e.g., Mak, Lumbers, Eves and Chang, 2017) as an exception to the lack of research in this area. In this context, the role of tourist food consumption can be seen as the 'obligatory and symbolic' functions of food at a particular destination. Thus, the focus of the objective was to verify the influences of ECM tourist behaviours through the relationships of demographic characteristics and motivation factors, the determinants of food tourist levels based on their high, medium or low levels of food interests and segmenting tourist patterns based on their levels of food motivation during the holiday. Finally, the linkages of food production and consumption were determined in the third objective, by exploring the influences of both combined approaches in the tourism production process (objective one) and factors affecting tourist food consumption frameworks (objective two). The discussions in Objective 3 highlight the conceptual framework of the primary interlinkages between the tourism production process and tourist food consumption towards the impact of food tourism development. The following sections evaluate the primary findings of each objective.

### **7.2.1 Objective 1: To examine the role of local food producers in developing food tourism at the destination**

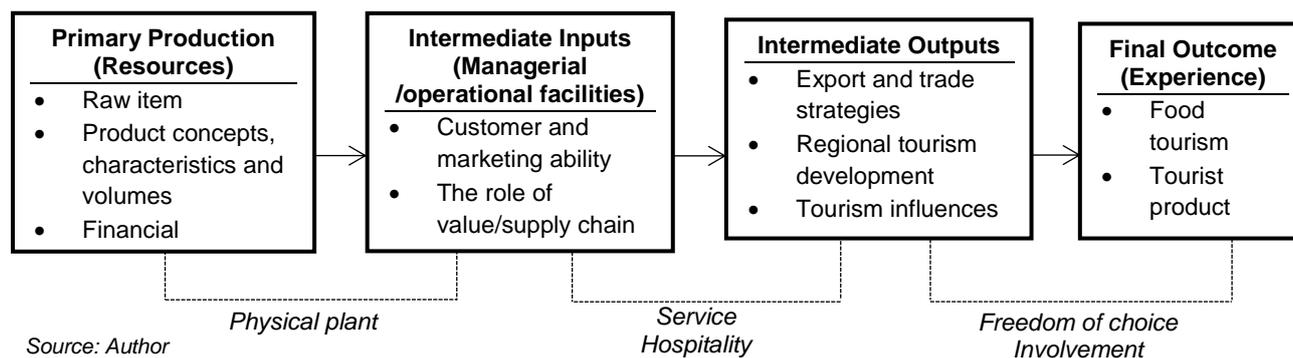
Local food producers can influence the development of food tourism, by capitalizing on the 'added-value' feature of existing tourism products. The research shows that linkages of food production and local tourism, particularly in ECM require major transitions, as it is one of the major contributors in creating additional yet vital economic activity in a destination. The inclusion of this objective in the thesis is justified by the concern of Boesen, Sundbo and Sundbo (2017) on local food, who identify that locally produced food has not been successfully related to tourism. These authors also mentioned that the

conditions for successful collaboration in tourism networks and particularly network-collaboration between food production and tourism actors have not been explored in-depth.

In relation to regional food tourism development (ECM in particular), the evidence presented in this study indicated that food produced by local producers could play a critical role in strengthening the destination's tourism industry by transforming food resources (e.g., raw items and financial resources) into a food-based tourism product. In this case, it is important for producers, as mentioned by Sims (2010), to adopt a geographical context of local food that provides a distinction between the origin of the ingredients and the place of manufacture. Therefore, clear information about a destination's local food is a useful proxy to influence tourist food choice (Hu et al., 2011).

Understanding the tourism production process as applied to ECM can promote greater recognition of the process and elements in food tourism development. The production process was a clear concept for food producers in understanding the nature of tourism and its planning, development, management and delivery of the tourism product. The production process used as part of the conceptual framework; to further highlight the key findings of this thesis (see Figures 7.1 and 7.2). Figure 7.1 illustrates an adapted model of the tourism production process (Smith 1994) based on the findings of qualitative research with producers (see chapter 5). It is important to note that the features in the model involved different elements in product supply or production that was not only limited to Smith's ideas. The different elements added in Figure 7.1 corroborate the ideas of Torres (2003), who suggested that the critical factors such as physical condition, the nature of food system, the resources quality, quantity, reliability, seasonality, the elevated price of local production, technological capabilities and the existence of food processing facilities were critical to understanding the impact of production in tourism.

Figure 7.1: Food tourism production process modified from Smith (1994)

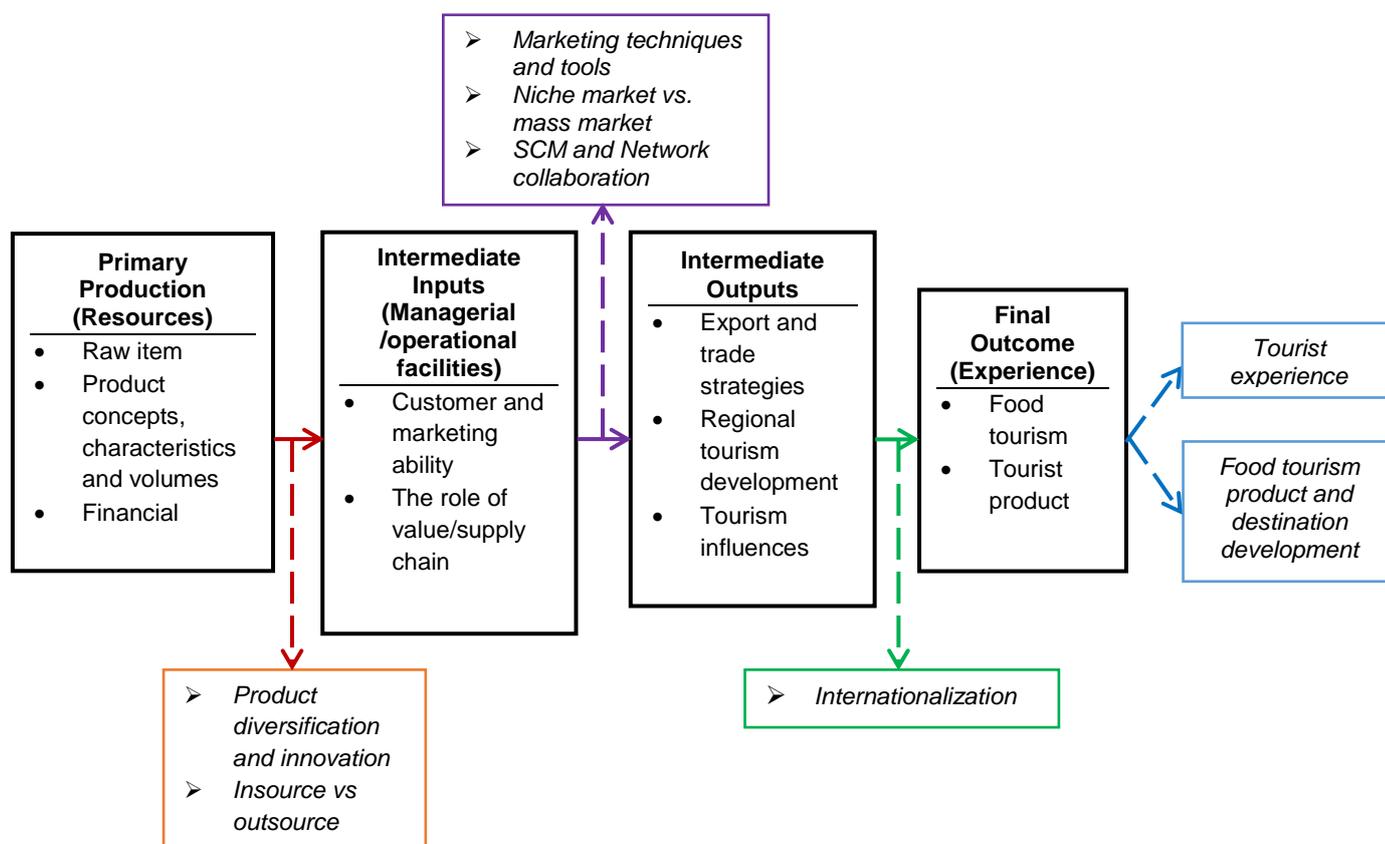


Initially, the production process according to Smith (1994) creates two specific features: (i) added-value is injected at each stage of the process and; (ii) the consumer becomes an integral part of the entire process because the tourism products experience is only exist until a consumer (tourist) activates the process and actively gets involved in the final phase. Furthermore, the production process comprises five elements of tourism product; *physical plant, service, hospitality, freedom of choice and involvement*; designed as the primary component in developing or producing tourism product that is later facilitated through the tourism production process as shown in Figure 7.1. The physical plant element transforms into a generic product between the primary production and intermediate input phases. Service and hospitality are both added as the intermediate inputs to be processed into intermediate output. In the final stage, freedom of choice and involvement are transmuted to the intermediate outputs into the final outcome of the tourist experience. The original tourism production process had several distinctions compared to the modified model. In general, therefore, it enhances a new understanding of Smith's concept in the area of food tourism production.

The study has shown that the sub-themes of each process were identified based on the nature and setting of food producers in ECM, while Smith's model was designed to evaluate the tourism industry in general without any specific niche or sub-tourism sectors. It is necessary to extract more focus from a broad concept in Smith's model to be adapted for ECM. For instance, under the *primary production element* (see Figure 3.4), Smith highlighted eight sub-themes such as, land, labour, water, agriculture produce, fuel, building and capital. These themes were specified as the main functional resources to be

exploited and transformed into a tourism product. However, in the case of ECM, the result of this research support the idea that food producers were highly dependent on these three main factors; attaining and sustaining locally sourced raw items, product diversification and concentration and producers were relying on financial and capital supports from the government for the business. Figure 7.2 demonstrates the issues and outcomes derived from the findings of the ECM food production process.

Figure 7.2: Main issues and outcomes of ECM producers in the food-tourism production process



Source: Author

The process above was applied in the semi-structured interview results highlighted in Chapter 5. In the first stage, the primary inputs (resources) recognize how raw items were self-planted, obtained, supplied or exploited by producers. More important, it was also suggest that the primary input generated a strong foundation at a local level, based on a specialization that is fostered by the producer's ability to producing/manufacture products with distinctive or unique characteristics. This includes: (i) the possession of goods or materials that are not obtainable elsewhere; (ii) innovation; (iii) the ability to create

products with distinctive features, and; (iv) a unique image linked to a given geographical area (Musso and Francioni, 2015). The results of this investigation show that in Pahang and Terengganu, food product diversifications and innovations (see Figure 7.2) exhibited distinct attributes. Pahang's producers are relatively 'adventurous' in producing different types of food product from different resources compared to Terengganu's producers who mainly focused on fish-based food products (see producer P2 in Table 5.2, chapter 5). One example derived from the data was producer P8 in Pahang who produced a diverse range of agricultural-food based products including fruits, vegetables, palm oil, livestock, honey and freshwater fish.

The element of diversification and innovation of local food products might influence producer's concentration on certain products, such as to preserve local signature food like fish sausage (*keropok lekor*) in Terengganu, as well as to meet current 'market' demand. There is a strong link for those locations, especially in the Pahang case. The existence of a capacity for food production variations, the use of local foods by tourism operations or channels could assist in agricultural-food based product diversification and innovation, and create new trade markets via the development of long-term relations with tourists, supporting the study by Hall and Gossling (2016).

Based on Figure 7.2, the issue of 'Insource vs. outsource' defined the producers' approach and preference towards the resources that captured contradicting arguments in terms of quality, cost, reducing carbon footprints and implications of the food system to the production. For example, Producer P2 commented on his reason for outsourcing the resources that also denotes producer-supplier reliability and loyalty:

*"We get our fish stock from the local supplier. He has been supplying raw fish to us since 2006/2007. He will come here every day."*

In contrast, Producer P13 emphasized insource capabilities:

*"We plant ourselves and we also source it locally from people in the villages."*

The notion of local food resources in ECM is, therefore, considered as fluid and relative and depends upon the producer's knowledge and understanding of their food business operations including their awareness of the destination environment, current issues and socio-economic justice (Allen and Hinrichs, 2007). Nevertheless, it is important to note that the geographically focused local food resource system has a strong link with tourist interests in locally produced foods (Darby, Batte, Ernst and Roe, 2008).

Secondly, effective intermediaries are needed in the food tourism production process to provide the 'platform' for the product to reach the tourist market. Both intermediaries' input and output were associated with the internal and external mediators for product distributions. The intermediary inputs functioned as the management inputs/tools including managerial or operational expertise and knowledge, technical services as well as food packaging before the commercial transaction takes place in the intermediary outputs. It is clear that customer and marketing knowledge helped the producers to identify the market to focus promotional activities to attract those from different demographic backgrounds. The findings also revealed that ECM producers acknowledged how marketing created the right channel and had a positive impact on their operations and performance and helped them to be more competitive with other commercial food products. For instance, Producer P12 strongly targeted his cooking paste products to local Malay households or on a large scale as in the case of Producer P3, by investing in the local football team to gain a larger group of customers outside Terengganu.

However, with a lack of commercial acquaintances (media and networks) and the presence of household brands and product competitions, ECM food producers might be dealing with a slow-phase growth to penetrate a global market in the near future. In addition, one of the important findings to emerge was the issues related to ECM producers' marketing techniques and tools. For example, Producer P10, who stated whether marketing or production capacity should be prioritised first:

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*“Marketing or promotion is very minimum, very minimum. The main concern is capacity. In Cameron Highlands itself, we do not have a sufficient supply capacity to fill the demand.”*

But the virtue of pursuing the tourism market has a greater potential to be successful if the producers are first improving the production capacity so that it is ‘realistic and relevant’ to meet demand. This issue is related to the producers’ lack of capacity to supply or produce food when the demand is too high. Furthermore, the focus should be on creative and diverse marketing strategies instead of solely depending on one or two types of similar strategies for many years, such as word of mouth and social media that are widely used by several ECM producers (see e.g., Producers P5, P2, and P11). From a the marketing perspective, to establish linkages of food production and tourism, several options could be established including cooperatives and farmer shop, establishment of a marketplace, food souvenirs, establishment of cafes/kiosks, the use of a touristic farm/food map and participation in agri-food production (Hüller, Heiny and Leonhauser, 2017).

Regardless, the marketing issue was intertwined with the producer’s aspiration to penetrate niche or mass markets in this research. Some of the producers had identified their potential to grow and succeed outside the region, as mentioned by Producer P3:

*“... I have to try and market my product outside of Terengganu.”*

It appears to be a business preference and capacity to invest not only for promotional resources or marketing initiatives but also for producers to explore other new market entry options, for example, to export their products to different parts of Malaysia or Asia. The outcomes of producers’ decisions to approach a niche or mass market were not merely positive or negative, as the producers had their specific target market and a group of customers that certainly would purchase or consume their food products, which in some cases they came from ECM, other parts of Malaysia and countries. Thus, it still depends on the effectiveness of their marketing efforts to enter the desired markets and to what extent it helps to sell or position the product.

The assessment of a producer's intermediary inputs also identified the issue of how value/supply chain system could benefit the product distributions as one of the potential ways to position local food in the tourism market. However, one important finding in this research is that significant financial and physical constraints impede the ECM producers value chain, despite capital investments and external support from government institutions such as the Small Medium Enterprise Corporation (SME Corp), Federal Agricultural Marketing Authority Malaysia (FAMA), Malaysian Agricultural Research and Development Institution (MARDI) and Majlis Amanah Rakyat (MARA).

The issue of tourism supply or value chain (TSC) implementation was highly associated with long-term and strict commitment, especially for small domestic food producers in ECM. The reason for such preferences in relation to producers' commitment to TSC depends on the success of demand management. As Zhang, Song and Huang (2009) mentioned, TSC demand management critically involves tourism investment decision making and relies on tourist demand estimation. This is because long-term financial commitment is required, and the sunk costs can be very high if the investment fails to fulfil their designed capacities as well as the interference of government macroeconomic policies that make it more inflexible and complex for local producers to employ. The involvement of the supply/value chain has become an important component of the food business environment and the research found that this can be used as a direct network to reach ECM tourists. However, major problems were identified in the case of ECM including supply inconsistency and unstable economic conditions, as stated by producer P4:

*“... We failed due to the inconsistency of supply and we are not capable of increasing our production on time.”*

Martikainen, Neimi and Pekkanen (2013) argued that the challenge for food producers, with their low product volume and limited capacity and key infrastructure, is how to adapt to the requirements of the conventional food system and to choose the appropriate food channels. Certain remedies are needed to reduce the gap in the food tourism value chain that could be implemented in ECM, but the key aspect to improving the chain is by conducting the contractual relationships by taking a proactive approach to

building local network collaboration with other food and tourism organisations or stakeholders. This finding is in agreement with Mei, Lørfald and Bråtå's (2017) viewpoints which indicated the ENRD (European Network for Rural Development) in Austria has funded project to encourage the modernisation of the European agri-food sector, by engaging consumers and local farms together through the use of technologies such as smart phone apps. While the main agenda might not be considered as tourism-focused or only partially related to tourism, it is important to note that food tourism is advocated by local agricultural/food policies because food tourism strategies can help the agriculture, agri-food and food industry to combat some of their main problems with economic instability (Telfer and Hashimoto, 2013: 174).

Thus, networks in ECM food tourism value chains contribute not only to draw more tourists' to experience food consumption or purchase; they increased producer's reputations, food production capabilities, capacities, food quality and standards. As a result, the collaborations help the producers to plan, develop and market food product in engaging with the tourism sector and build networks with other food tourism sub-sectors including agriculture, fisheries, heritage and culture (Robinson and Getz, 2016). In the same vein, this finding further supports the idea of Marsden et al. (2000) who adds that food networks link local food with upstream producers/stakeholders to engage in more direct relationships with end consumers. The food network helps to produce, process and market products on a localized basis, in what has been described in tourism as alternative food networks.

In the third stage, the intermediary output as according to Smith (1994), are those services usually associated with the tourism industry but remained a potential commodity. As shown in Figure 7.2, the results of this study indicate that the three components of export and trade strategies, regional tourism development and tourism influences were the key antecedents incorporating ECM food product in the tourism service platform. In terms of export and trade, local producers 'internationalization' prospects given impressive evidence from several producers that had marketed their food products overseas (e.g., Singapore, Middle East, Australia, Thailand) (Chapter 5, section 5.4.1) to gain global engagement and secure network collaborations with local stakeholders,

tourists and foreign investors. It is part of the two strategic directions to endorse the food product at the same time promoting ECM (via food) as a food and tourism destination and to gain international exchanges for the benefits of the ECM socio-economic developments. Thus, internationalization with strong network collaborations can reduce a firm's market entry costs, time and risks enhance the competencies, capabilities for starting and expanding their international activities to identify business opportunities (Baffour Awuah, Abraha Gebrekidan and Osarenkhoe, 2011; Harris and Wheeler, 2005; Zhou, Wu and Luo, 2007).

Despite the credibility of producer internationalization initiatives that seem positive, the tourism dynamic of the destination needs to be observed in terms of producers' understanding of current tourism issues and conditions in ECM (Chapter 5, section 5.4.2). Chapter 5 identified the primary issues as ineffective tourism collaborations with local producers and stakeholders, poor tourism resources and product management. Overall, these issues show that local food producers might be more effectively incorporated in a responsive food tourism channel, for example, the implementation of food tourism production process or other alternative tourism networks, to ease market access for local food products in ECM. There is also an urgent need in ECM to create an integrative food tourism system for local producers to virtually break into the region's tourism market, accompanied by parallel efforts to improve the quantity, quality and consistency of local production. Although tourism plays an impactful role in supporting local producer's business growth, some participants claimed that tourism was their 'ultimate dependency and reliance' in locations such as Cameron Highlands and Kuala Terengganu because "food and tourism are part of systematic network of production tourism or food alone is not able to increase the value of quality food" (Montanari and Staniscia, 2009:1482).

The findings also suggest that it is essential to improve and aid the fragmented relationship of local food production and tourism, which proved to be the main challenges in ECM tourism development. It must undergo the strategic impetus at the governmental level and local tourism authorities. Previous government plans including the 10<sup>th</sup> Malaysian Plan (10MPs), of the national tourism strategy developments highlighting the food tourism product more than

destination niche products and now food tourism viewed as an essential element in attracting more international tourists (Mosbah and Abd Al Khuja, 2014; Jalis et al, 2009). The continuation of food tourism plans at a national level is required and a new element could be added on uniting food and tourism through integrated policy, developing distribution networks, knowledge exchange and effective promotion (Everett and Slocum, 2013). It is possible therefore that these are some of the important themes in assessing the challenges as the mechanism to recover the regional tourism development in ECM.

The final stage of the process relates to the role of the food tourism product in enhancing the tourist experience. In the research, food producers identified how to engage to tourists' demand and characteristics based on their understandings of food tourism and the development of the tourist-oriented product. The impact of food tourism received mixed interpretations and the implementation is scarce in ECM, even though many producers were well aware of the benefits and importance of tourism to the food production sector and destination development. Producer P5 addressed the issues of scarcity in food tourism:

*“For local, I could not engage very well on the business opportunity, because there are abundances of food products in Terengganu and the competition is quite stiff.”*

Producer P11 added to the arguments:

*“In terms of business, our core product is Sambal Hitam, but not well-promoted or highlighted. The business opportunities in Pahang are excellent, but one thing's needed is the rigorous support from the state government and state tourism as well.”*

Despite the need to improve food product competition and government support, as mentioned in both arguments above, the findings identified that product diversification and concentration were an effective stimulus for ECM food producers to connect with tourists. This suggests that there is a growing interest in food tourism and that food tourism in ECM has great potential to contribute to

destination development and overall tourist satisfaction. However, there are challenges to deepening the linkages of the 'tourist' element in the production process. For food tourism to flourish in the destination and achieve economic benefits, the sector needs to improve a better spatial distribution, where food tourism can be promoted as trails rather than by individual business (see e.g., Green and Dougherty, 2008). To achieve this, the product needs to be strengthened with better business knowledge of tourist food demand (e.g., food motivation, demographic features) that could effectively help commercialize food products as a critical aspect of a holiday.

It can thus be suggested that the models in Figure 7.2 constitute two important outcomes that would significantly re-generate and position ECM food products in the tourism sector. Firstly, the tourist experience represents a positive influx of tourists to a destination, which directly requires food consumption and impacts on the local food production process and value chain. The findings also suggested that achieving the 'food experience' involves a critical process which must be well understood and delivered sequentially from the first stage until the end-stage in food tourism production process as illustrated in Figures 7.1 and 7.2. Food production and tourist experience derived from consumption activity are vital, because food is grounded in the experience economy, and value is created based on how the destination and its food are chosen and consumed (Ellis, Park, Kim and Yeoman, 2018). Secondly, the production process inherently encourages the development of food tourism and destination development as shown in the research where participants linked tourism impacts with food product and destination. For example, producer P4 clarified:

*“There is a connection with tourism itself because if we keep selling our product to the locals, they get used with it already (nothing new), but for tourists, we need to introduce it to them, that based on my previous participation with Tourism Terengganu programmes like Visit Terengganu in the past 3 years. We joined some of them. The tourism more or less gives an impact actually.”*

Producer P11 shared his opinion as well in Pahang:

*“We do think so that tourism influence is important, not only is it applicable to us, but to benefit the entire village as well.”*

The research findings in Chapter 5 suggest that the ECM food system depends on the support of the tourism sector, and it affects the socio-economic impact for producers and the destination. Therefore, this study has been able to demonstrate that the extensive potential of food for regional development identifies a strong relationship between food as a keeper of cultural knowledge and expression and the function destination as common locations for food production (see Bartella, 2011). This finding also is in agreement with Everett (2012) ideas which indicated food tourism production process had proven the transformative and ‘place-making’ impact of food tourism, whereby ‘production places’ could be altered and into consumption spaces.

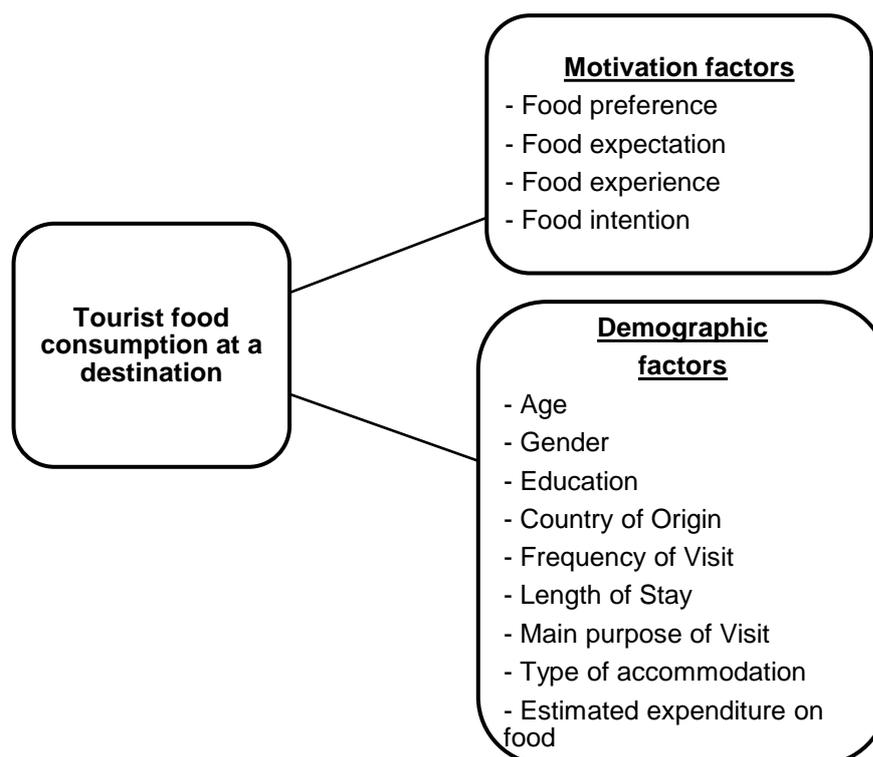
### **7.2.2 Objective 2: To determine tourist food consumption characteristics and patterns**

As Chapter 2 highlighted, the growth of demand for food tourism has stimulated critical research interests in the food tourist and interactions with unique cuisines while travelling (Ottenbacher and Harrington, 2010; McKercher, Okumus and Okumus, 2008). This is an important aspect as the incremental growth in the numbers of food tourists has shown that leisure travellers seek and actively participate in a wide variety of food/beverage experiences. Food tourism has arguably developed beyond a niche tourism activity, given that 59% of respondents from a ten-country survey mentioned that food travelling is more significant nowadays compared to five years previous (Stone, Soulard, Migacz and Wolf, 2016). In this context, emerging tourism research focuses on food tourists, showing the complexity and diversity of tourist attitudes and behaviours, including the role of demographic characteristics and motivation factors (see Kim, Eves and Scarles (2013); Kim and Eves (2012); Chang, Kivela and Mak (2010); Sims (2009, 2010) and Tse and Crotts (2005).

In this thesis, the construction of a model on tourist food consumption that could be applied to the case of ECM developed from the work of Kim, Eves and Scarles (2013) (see Chapter 3), has helped to explore the factors affecting local food and beverage consumption by tourists established through investigation of participants' local food experiences and a synthesis of existing literature on tourism and food (Kim et al., 2009). Kim et al. (2009) developed the conceptual model of local food consumption based on three main factors; motivation, demographic and food-personality traits. In comparison to the original model, the motivation factor was composed based on five constructs such as cultural experience, interpersonal relationship, excitement, sensory appeal and health concern. In determining the demographic factors, three main elements were assessed; gender, age and income.

Following on Kim et al. (2013), one of the objectives of this thesis was to determine tourist food consumption characteristics and patterns, which was possible to establish the final model of analysis to determine the relationships between the demographic characteristics and motivation factors in affecting the tourist food consumption. The final model of motivation factors comprised of four main elements; food preference, food planning, food experience and food intention motivation factors. The four motivation factors reflected not only the findings of the quantitative study by Kim et al. (2013) and qualitative study by Kim et al. (2009), but also the multi-dimensional studies on food consumption, such as Chang, Kivela and Mak (2010) on Chinese tourists' food preference, Ignatov and Smith (2006) on Canadian culinary tourists segments and Pieniak, Verbeke, Vanhonacker, Guerrero and Hersleth's (2009) investigation of traditional food consumption and motives for food choice in six European countries. Figure 7.3 illustrates the new tourist food consumption (TFC) (in full first) model developed from the literature, and it is supported by the findings in Chapter 6.

Figure 7.3: Modified framework of the factors affecting ECM tourist food consumption



Source: Author

This study identified **food experience** as the most significant effect on tourist food consumption (Chapter 6), which was further influenced by demographic factors of the country of origin, the frequency of visit, type of accommodation and estimated expenditure of food. These findings seem to be consistent with the previous studies which found that food experience could be regarded as one of the most significant factors affecting the returning preferences of food tourist to a destination (Kivela and Crofts, 2006). These findings also confirm the idea from Alderighi, Bianchi and Lorenzini (2016), who suggested that tourist food experience was a motive to promote food tourism in both places of origin and other similar destinations by demonstrating strong local food specialities product. Tsai (2016) also supported that travellers who experience local food and gastronomy imposed a higher level of attachment to a destination.

Consequently, Madelano, Eusabio and Vorum (2018) discuss as far as motivation factors for local food consumption on holiday are concerned that only the variable of experience had a significant impact on visitors' expenditure on local agro-food products. In this thesis, the findings indicate that it is important

not only validating the influence of food experience, but to further the understanding that the experience of local food products on holiday can be viewed as a form cultural and authentic experience (Kim et al., 2009; Mak, Lumbers, Eves, and Chang, 2012). It suggests that more marketing efforts regarding a country's local food products included in this study should be pursued to emphasize the authentic experience they offer to visitors. Another important finding was that the advantages of linking motivation and demographic factors which had several significant relationships as mentioned in the previous paragraph created the additional components and diversified the effect of tourist demographics compared to the previous model (Kim et al., 2013) that only tested three important demographic variables; age, gender and annual income. The work by Steptoe, Pollard and Wardle (1995) the importance of demographic factors that can influence by the food choice motives are marital status and the socio-economic factors.

The second purpose of this objective is to understand the determinants of food tourist levels, which are, according to Hall and Sharples (2003), based on high interest, moderate or medium interest, low interest and no interest in food tourism. Identifying the food tourist level is part of understanding food as a travel motivation and special tourist interest. Otherwise, as argued by Robinson and Getz (2014), local food may only attract foodies: high interest food tourists who are committed to food and explicitly search for extraordinary local food experiences. This is in contrast to those who just engage in food tourism casually (Bjork et al., 2014). In this thesis, the food tourist level was analysed based on the local/Malaysian food knowledge obtained pre-visit or during their visits to ECM. The results demonstrated 62.7% of international respondents in ECM were considered themselves as medium level food tourists. The food knowledge of the respondents indicated that their demographic characteristics with high food experience and food intention factors positively influenced the respondent's interest in participating and having knowledge of local food that mainly determines their perceived level of food tourist self-identification.

These findings highlight the need to generate a specific destination strategy to develop a niche food tourism market based on the high, medium or low level of

food interests. Accepting that knowledge of local food before the trip has a positive impact on visitors' exposure to local food products, past experience and increased exposure may intensify local food preferences and affect the consumption of local food products when visitors travel abroad (Chang et al., 2010; Cohen and Avieli, 2004; Ryu and Jang, 2006; Seo et al., 2013; Tse and Crotts, 2005); as well as, expenditure on local food products depends on the attitudes of visitors towards and their familiarity with these products (Skuras et al., 2006).

It is important to note that the individual's food tourism participation and commitment to local food activities could be utilized or worked differently for tourists; for some food as a supplementary interest or vice versa. However, based on Mandala Research (2013), these individuals should not be ignored by food producers, practitioners and destination tourism stakeholders since, on the whole, this group of tourists who participate in food tourism while travelling spend more than the average tourists. This view is supported by Robinson et al. (2014) as they emphasized the development of an instrument to simultaneously model highly involved foodies or tourists interested in food and map their travel preferences, patterns and motivations would provide destination entities with even clearer guidelines as to who their market is and how to access them.

Chapter 6 highlights that food tourist classifications based on local food knowledge confirmed significant associations with several dimensions of tourists' demographic characteristics and motivation factors. For instance, in some cases, even the number of tourists who conceived a higher level of food experience (see Table 6.31) achieved a lower percentage of knowledge compared to tourists with a lower level food experience. The results suggest that the role of local food knowledge could influence the patterns of tourist motivation for food consumption; the higher the level of food motivations indicated the higher possibilities of tourists' food knowledge were engaged upon their food interests. The findings reinforced the results of Frisvol et al. (2016) who concluded that tourists with previous knowledge of regional local food products are more prone to purchase meals than the tourist who did not have food knowledge exposure. This supported the conceptual basis of Mak, Lumbers, Eves and Chang (2012) and findings by Tse and Crotts' (2005) about

the effect of exposure, knowledge acquaintances and past experiences on tourist food preferences, repeat visits and food consumption.

Turning now to the final purpose of Objective 2; to define the potential food tourists segments based on a combination of two dominant variables of demographic characteristics, as well as food motivation factors. The most obvious finding to emerge from this objective is that the tourist food motivation segments let the practitioners or destination marketers to identify their niche group of consumers and enhance the abilities to tailor their marketing, product, services and customer relations precisely, to cater for a distinct set of demands (Wedel and Kamakura, 2012). In accordance with the present results, the previous study from Yun, Hennessey and MacDonald (2011), have demonstrated that an attempt was developed by the Ontario Ministry of Tourism to segment food tourist based on their level of travel activities and motivation. This research measured tourists' motivation to participate in 14 food-related activities and the respondents were then categorized into three segments: low, moderate and high interest based on their motivations to participate in those food-related activities.

In the case of ECM, the results of cluster analysis (Chapter 6, section 6.7) identified three clusters of food tourists. Cluster 1 included a high proportion of female respondents within the age group below 40 years that were mostly well educated (Bachelor - Doctorate Degree holders) and originated from Europe. Many of them were first-time visitors who stayed for more than a week in Malaysia, that loved nature, sport and recreation activities and preferred to stay in rest house/hostel accommodation with the estimation of £4.63 of daily food expenditure. This first cluster is called "active enthusiast", due to the large proportion of cluster members who were highly motivated to consume local food. This resembles findings from Mak et al. (2012) on tourist food consumption factors, which described tourists driven by their food preferences as 'enthusiastic' to try local food during their holiday.

Cluster 2, the "dynamic enthusiast", male respondents were more dominant, with a preference to stay at a hotel, spending on average £5.56 on food per day. They were highly driven by food expectation and food experience factors in

consuming local food. This group of tourists perceived food as important as a tourist in Cluster 1, but according to Quan and Wang (2004), in the tourist experience perspective, food consumption in tourism can be conceptually distinguished into 'supporting consumer experience' or 'peak touristic experience'. The 'dynamic' appropriately belongs to this group because they were the 'enthusiast' to see food differently, in the context of social, history, cultural and authenticity characteristics (Tung and Ritchie, 2011).

The third cluster represents the smallest group of respondents, where all were business travellers with the smallest estimation of daily food expenditure. The results achieved similarity with Cluster 2, where food experience also became the important reason for local food consumption. But with the addition of food intention factors, this potential group is termed as 'opportunist enthusiast', who seeks quality and satisfaction in food choices during a holiday (see Oliver, 1999). Even though this small group consisted of business-oriented travellers, the 'opportunistic' is represented through their behaviours to take the opportunity to try local food during the business trip. These 'opportunists' would though spend the minimum price and time in doing so, and not as a highlight of the trip compared to the other two clusters.

Taken together, these results of the analysis in Chapter 6 provide a clear opportunity to address the conceptual framework of the study, in particular, the role of TFC for destination food tourism development. It asserts the presence of a significant link between tourist motivation factors and demographic characteristics in determining or influencing TFC at a destination. Second, different classifications of each element defined different types and patterns of food tourist when they are visiting ECM. The results demonstrated that food experience in relation with tourists' country of origin, length of visit, the frequency of visit, type of accommodation and estimated expenditure on food, play a significant role as a central element of destination TFC. Other factors also indicated different patterns of correlations, but food experience was valued as the most integrative factors with five tourist demographic characteristics (other factors achieved less than five statistically significant links with demographic characteristics). These results do not provide definitive evidence that food experience is the most important factors in defining TFC. Instead,

each of the motivation factors represents different appreciations and influences with the demographic characteristics of how a tourist positively or negatively react to local food.

Furthermore, to profile and segment food travellers, this study sought to extend the idea from Mak et al. (2012), that all tourists require food and typically spend a significant portion of their travel expenditures on food purchasing and consumption. The use of different analyses to identify different levels of tourists based on their food interests embraced the fact that there is a growth in tourists with a deep association with food, often marked as 'the rise of foodies' in modern travel patterns. It is essential to understand food tourist influences in the current tourism market, as mentioned by Oates (2016:1), "the biggest shift in the evolution of food tourism strategy today is segmentation. What appeals to one foodie might differ to anyone else, so it's paramount for destination tourism providers to outline the different activities within their unique food tourism experience." Thus, the evidence from Oates match the findings in this study, in which it will be valuable for ECM and other destinations to invest in tourists planning and process in establishing food tourism products. Based on this notion, by improving the tourism destination's ability, it helps to market food product for specific and as yet under targeted tourist group.

### **7.2.3 Objective 3: To understand the inter-relationships between food production and consumption in food tourism development**

The first two objectives explored the producer's role in developing food tourism and the influence of TFC characteristics in shaping food tourism 'environment' at a destination. In this third objective, the discussion is related to the integration of these two perspectives (producers and tourists) in influencing the ECM food tourism. This thesis set out to assess the importance of modelling the interlinkages between food producers and tourists by validating the development of the conceptual framework in Figure 7.4. As mentioned in the literature review, the conceptual framework was constructed to provide a clear and explicit concept of the production in tourism and integrates it with TFC concept to add-value and further understanding of producers-tourists interplay in food tourism. The quantitative and qualitative findings suggested that better

connecting producers and tourists would give a positive association with the overall food tourism development. The qualitative findings identified that food producers had concerns about the importance of tourist food involvement to their businesses. Key elements derived from the responses including, *local food as a source of the tourist experience, tourist-related contribution to the producer's incomes and tourist help to sustain food quality*, were strongly linked to the connection between producers and tourists. The quantitative findings also indicated that there was a strong association of *tourist level of food experience* in shaping TFC, and the data shows that tourists show interest in seeking out and actively participating in consuming local food produced by local producers.

The findings of this thesis demonstrated how several producers address the importance of tourist food involvement (consumption) and how it adds value to their businesses and food products:

*“We plan on it to strategize our product in tourism. For me, when a tourist comes to our place, they not only to enjoy the panorama, sometimes for them, food is a source of attraction, because I also received a customer before who was only wanted to taste the sata. So it is closely related to each other.”* (producer P4)

The results also suggest that tourists' engagement helped producers to gain benefits such as increased consumer exposure, building product and destination awareness, economic output and indirect local food educational opportunities which as stated by Hall et al. (2003: 318), “creates awareness and appreciation of specific types of foods or food as a whole, the knowledge and interest generated by this can be expected to result in increased consumption.” This is further emphasized by participants in this study, who stated:

*“So when people think about traditional food, they will come to Terengganu. What I mean is there must be a way on how to attract people to come to Terengganu, later once we have achieved of declaring Terengganu as a state for traditional food, it must be followed in sustaining food quality by the food businesses.”* (producer P7)

*“Those things are a must to be the enticement [for tourists], we’re affected less [tourists] coming in. People who sell kerepek or bahu, they’d be affected by the tourist arrivals. Tourists contribute to their source of income.” (Producer P13)*

These quotes suggest that as a result of tourist involvement in local food-related activities, business operations had focused more on creating food tourism experiences. However, some food producers were not keen to develop tourist engagement at all. This incongruity is not unexpected, as food producers may primarily be concerned with production and output than visitor experiences (Hall et al., 2003; Telfer and Hashimoto, 2013). Addressing the focus of ECM as a food destination, the ECM local food system appears to have the potential to develop beyond agricultural, production and food retailing. Destination food tourism development shows growing interest and concern in ECM, especially amongst local food producers as this research demonstrates. The development of the FTPC model (Figure 7.4) shows the elements in how tourist food consumption could be a transformative tool for local food production as well.

From another perspective, **food experience** demonstrated a high level of influence on the tourist food consumption stimulated by the tourist demographic characteristics of the country of origin, the frequency of visit, type of accommodation and estimated expenditure on food. Chapter 6) identified strong links between these five demographic characteristics in determining the tourist level of food experience. The results recognized the importance of experiences in adding value for tourists in ECM in TFC relationships. The finding is in line with Grunert (1997) who stated that tourists’ food choices are not only driven by consumer’s intrinsic (texture, taste) and extrinsic (retail environment, communication) factors, but strongly controlled by the demographic and socio-economic characteristics. This response to ECM producers’ concerns on how to attract more tourists (see Chapter 5: low tourists’ arrival affected their businesses; see e.g., the view of producer P13), by understanding who are the tourists’ in their areas and have the knowledge about the tourist’s socio-demographic characteristics. As depicted by Kivela and Crofts (2006), food experience and tourist characteristics can be regarded as one of the substantial factors affecting the returning preference of food tourist to a destination.

Tourists contributed as a motive to indirectly promote both the places of origin and other similar destinations by demonstrating strong local food specialities or products, and stimulating a higher level of attachment to a destination and local producers (Alderighi, Bianchi and Lorenzini, 2016; Tsai, 2016).

The consumption of food will always be an important determinant of a food tourism experience. The concept of food tourism experiential value lies in the increasing number of tourists interested in food that becoming a central motivation for their tourism experience. This finding has shown the connection of tourist experience to ECM food production, as these tourists continue to be engaged as a niche or emerging tourism market, it is valuable for local producers to understand their food involvement (consumption). In Figure 7.3, this is highlighted in the patterns of tourists' food motivations and demographic characteristics. The final outcome (experience) which is the final stage in the food tourism production process has emphasized the influential factors of food tourism understanding and tourist-oriented product (see Figure 6.5) was set out to be the effective stimulus for ECM producers to engage with tourist. Furthermore, developing such elements of an experiential value is reinforced by Andersson, Getz, Vujivic, Robinson and Cavicchi (2016), who suggested that more experienced food tourists preferred connection with local food providers (local producers, chefs) while less experienced tourists preferred more general tourism activities (nature, heritage). In the same vein, the food experience is also depicted by the personal interaction in the local food system, where it is important for tourists to develop a sense of trust in producers alongside insights into the production system, status and identity of the products (Sage, 2003).

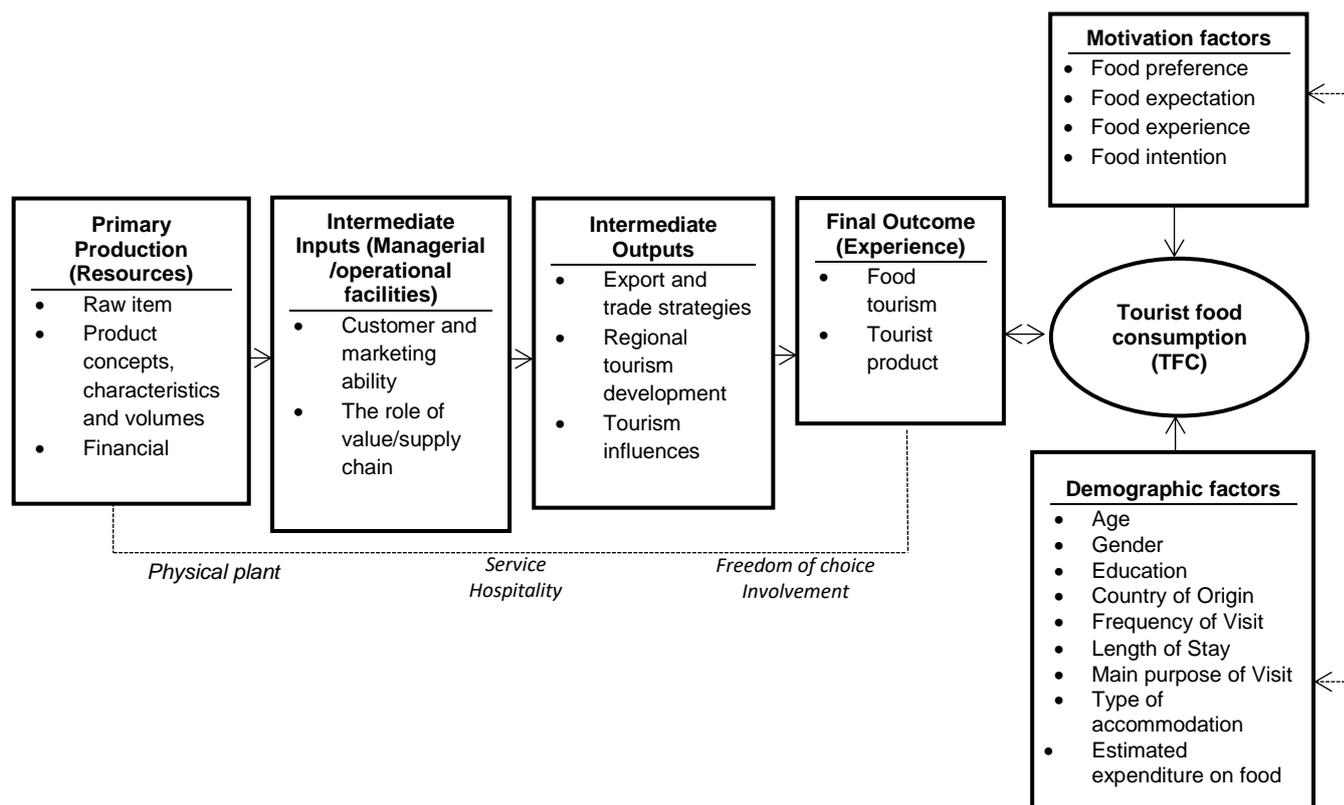
With these issues in mind, a further development of the conceptual basis of this study is the creation of a ***Food Tourism Production-Consumption conceptual framework (FTPC)*** (Figure 7.4). The framework is based on the research findings and draws on the perspectives of both producers and tourists. It integrates the *food tourism production process model* (Figure 7.1) and the *ECM tourist food consumption conceptual frameworks* (Figure 7.2). Returning to the conceptual framework posed in Chapter 3 of this thesis, it is now possible to state that this FTPC conceptual framework is set to be an integration and additional approach between producers and tourists,

providing a new 'horizon' of inter-sectoral tourism mechanism to enhance local food and tourism sector, in realizing regional food tourism development in ECM.

The findings from this study suggest that this model confirms the existence of producers' and tourists' inter-relationships able to produce a collaborative approach between these two entities, representing a proactive approach for ECM to achieve a status of a food tourism destination. The findings also indicated that the link between the production process and the primary production (resources) until the final outcome (experience) and TFC factors provide a platform and most importantly a 'direction' as the main interface for producers and tourists in co-creating food tourism values. By integrating both concepts, it is not just suggested *how food producers create a tourist food experience or how TFC patterns influence the food production process*, but the findings reinforce the idea of bringing actors together to build a 'collaborative approach' for food tourism development in ECM. The findings also supported by Andersson et al. (2017) who argued that bringing together consumer, producer and destination development perspectives contributes to a comprehensive understanding of food tourism, which considers the multitude of interests at stake, but also the multitude of resources that producers across sectors and public-private divides as well as consumers can contribute with.

The research findings also identified local food producers as lifestyle entrepreneurs who take pride in what they produce and are dedicated to the local area where they are based. These characteristics are central contributing factors to an authentic food experience (Henriksen and Halkier, 2015). However, these producers were typically small/medium scale in terms of resources, exposures, experiences and may not have the capacity to acquire the market knowledge necessary for meeting consumer demands. Growth also may not be the end goal, and this may result in the actual supply of local products and meals being too limited to meet consumer demands. This is supported by a wide literature (e.g., Halkier, 2012; Hall, Mitchelll, and Sharples, 2003). The FTFC model identifies that the market knowledge producers may need to have is to understand tourist attitudes and behaviours (from food consumption activities) and how these tourist characteristics could influence food at a destination.

Figure 7.4: Food Tourism Production-Consumption conceptual framework (FTPC)



Source: Author

In addition, Figure 7.4 illustrates two important aspects. First, food is grounded in the experience economy based on tourist consumption on food contributing to the overall travel experience; and secondly, producers have invested and exploited food resources to create food tourism product for the new tourist experience. Hence, food experience is 'driven' by tourists and 'produced' by producers - food is thus an essential constituent that brings both of them together and reinforces the production and consumption collaborative approach. The linkage can be used to resolve the functional and experiential issues in food tourism. This finding is an agreement with Everett and Slocum (2013), who pointed out that there is a need to develop mutual benefits through producer and tourist connection in tourism, as local producers may find an important market in the tourism sector.

The producer-tourist integrations presented in the FTPC framework also reinforces the approaches mentioned in the literature review by Tregear (2007), suggested that a close local connection between the local producers and consumers linked together by a product through market-driven direct produce systems (MDDPS) in which the nature of the relations between producers and

consumers are translated based on level of shared knowledge and understanding and Close Typicity Systems (CTS), in which the links between the product and the territory or destination play a pivotal role in the consumer's purchasing power and decision making. The interpretation from Tregear is associated with the roles and responsiveness of ECM producers to achieve operational and production goals by thinking about the tourist experience, such as food qualities, food traits and emotional factors, which can support the local economy and increase producers income and reputations (see Penney and Prior, 2014).

The FTPC model affirmed that *experience is driven by tourists and produced by producers*. This finding supports the ideas of Morris and Young (2000) who concluded that the collaboration has been asserted to update into modern market orientation and to respond more proactively to consumer demand for products offering specific qualities and added value. In addition, the collaboration process in the local supply chain gathers producers to engage in more direct relationships with end consumers or tourists: to produce, process and market products, using FTPC model as an alternative local food network for ECM food tourism, to specifically implement in the tourism industry. For food tourism development in ECM based on the collaborative approach initiative, it is important to look at the experiential values generated by local producers and tourists, and the importance of such a connection to add value, as described by Hjalager (2002). This added value component facilitates the visitor's enjoyment of food. In addition, it is important to design activities that increase visitors' understanding of food, such as through creating and promoting regional food quality standards in a region; experiencing the food, through product and activities like the creation of niche or specialty food or food trail; and exchanging knowledge about food.

These findings also may help us to understand that tracing the processes of 'food consumption' back to social relations of food production to explore the personal, social, cultural and economic factors that influence food tourism production can produce potential profits for the destination and can be measured using the FTPC model approach. The local food producer's ability to collaborate and provide unified and consistent food across the production

process, from the 'exploitation of resources' and culminating in the 'tourist experience', could be improvised to help local producers' to understand food tourists consumption patterns and characteristics. In this case, this finding agrees with Weatherall et al. (2003) in which tourists are therefore looking to form a relationship with producers and link the foods they consume with the production origins and methods underlying them. Tourists also have the authority to question food production practices and they demand greater transparency in the supply chain so they could fully experience the food physically and emotionally (Fiedmann et al., 2015; La Trobe et al., 2000)

Subsequently, the results of this study support the idea that the model poses numerous important questions that should be explored. How do food producers negotiate with other local stakeholders (wholesalers, suppliers, vendors, retailers) in making economic decisions? The importance of local food networks with tourism (between stakeholders and tourism providers) raises the important issues of producing tourism-oriented food product. How do food products create an added-value element to enhance tourist food consumption? To what extent do tourists help to shape and how are they 'shaped; by their interaction with local production landscapes with their consumption activities? These examples of questions reinforce the crucial food and tourism issues address within the ECM region that could be solved, developed and improved by the revelation of the integrative food tourism production-consumption process.

### **7.3 Research contributions**

This research has generated a better understanding of the factors affecting food tourism development in a specific destination, focusing on both food production and food consumption perspectives. While previous studies have investigated food tourism from different aspects such as food as part of local culture that tourists consume, food as a tourist attraction, tourism product and touristic experience (Chen and Huang, 2016), there remains the need for more supply-demand or tourism production-consumption research to develop more refined theories to promote understanding of tourist demand, motivation, experience, satisfaction and destination involvement with food (Henderson, 2009; Kivela

and Crotts, 2009; Tikkanen, 2007). The research contributions are outlined in terms of academic knowledge and lessons for practice.

From an academic perspective, the contribution is an expansion of food tourism studies with a focus on both food production and tourist food consumption to explore their influences in food tourism development locally and globally. This study adds to the interdisciplinary body of literature and cross-sectoral applications, including food tourism and destination/regional development. A second contribution is, the development of a Food Tourism Production-Consumption (FTPC) conceptual framework (Figure 7.4) combining both production and consumption dimensions, adapted from the model of the tourism production process (Smith, 1994) and factors affecting tourist food consumption (Kim et al., 2013). This model provides a basis to measure and assess food tourism in different destinations, settings and contexts. It highlights the forward and backward linkages/process of local food production and consumption, stimulated by the responsive roles of food producers and tourists. Thirdly, the selection of ECM (Pahang and Terengganu) as the research context adds to the very sparse literature on this region, particularly in the areas of food and tourism. This study will help to add more research insight to this region.

From an applied perspective, this research contributes to the assessment and interpretation of the different views in food tourism context in destination development by integrating how to plan, develop and market food tourism and its connections with different sectors or perspectives such as agriculture, fisheries, heritage and culture. Furthermore, the potential contributions will also benefit the regional tourism and business policies demonstrated by the advantages that are created by the food tourism market in ECM.

#### **7.4 Research limitations**

As expected in all research, several limitations were found. The primary drawback of this study was the time limit set on fieldwork. All data collection had to be undertaken in a 3-month period, as set out in the conditions of my scholarship. My sponsor, The Ministry of Higher Education of Malaysia authorized the obligatory maximum 3-month period for a Ph.D. candidate to

complete the entire data collection process to avoid any related administrative and funding consequences. The questionnaires and interviews needed to be administered in three months, with an intensive fieldwork process in the two states of ECM (Pahang and Terengganu) and more than ten different collection and distribution sites to reach the numerous ranges of tourists and producers within a very limited time given. The geographic distances in all areas were varied; for example, the distance to reach the district of Cameron Highland in Pahang involved more than 500 kilometres from the district of Pekan. Collectively to reach all data collection areas, the distances involved were approximately around 2000 to 2500 kilometres via different transportation modes.

Although the data collection was performed in different locations, the issue of generalizability emerges in relation to the quantitative data. As a result, the measurement scale might be limited to a certain tourist population. For the questionnaire survey, the targeted population was a group of international tourists who visited ECM during summer and the locations were limited as well as only targeted at the high tourist density areas (e.g., Tioman Islands, Perhentian Islands, Kuala Terengganu, Cameron Highlands), due to time and resources constraints. Additionally, with the similar constraints, as mentioned in Chapter 4, the required sample was 384 respondents, but only 204 respondents were obtained during the data collection process. With a limitation on sample size, cautious must be applied, as the findings might not be transferable to achieve more diverse factors in measuring food tourism consumption pattern and tourist food behaviour/attitude.

Likewise, the type of producers was limited to a specific group, which were Malay, Muslim and some of them produce identical products or utilized/produced similar food resources with other producers, which caused the research to lack somewhat in diversity, both in demographic and production patterns. It is important to further investigate this type of study into different groups of producers segments for example, divided them by race, size of production, years of operations or food product/resources specifications, to see different dimensions of food production sector in ECM that could retrieve more cause and effect factors, as well as develop more resilient tourism-production

strategies that could be more than just looking into food production-consumption indicators for food tourism development regionally and internationally.

## **7.5 Recommendation for future research**

While this thesis has explored many key issues about, it raises several important areas that could form the basis for future research. More research is required to determine the efficacy of food as a destination's primary capital to be 'invested' in tourism, generating more added-value products and destination development, and increase socio-economic wellbeing. Even though the findings of this thesis provide some significant insights about food tourism production and consumption connections, and provides a foundation to understand things better, in ECM, there is scope for further research to include other elements around food production and consumption interventions. It would be interesting to consider more supply and value chain involvements with other destination stakeholders and tourism providers. Further research might also explore the food production by analysing link of so-called 'network-collaboration' with non-food providers to develop other strategies to develop food tourism within local food distribution systems and tourism involvements.

Finally, the mixed-method approach applied to this study has a high potential to replicate with other tourism topics or subject matter to form a better understanding of the relationship, for example, between tourism marketing, governance and policy and food experience or comparative assessment of tourist satisfaction with local food across different demographic segments. Furthermore, the models developed in this study could be used in different destinations and populations, which would permit the conclusions to be validated in other surroundings and provide evidence of generalizability. Thus, further testing and evaluating of the model is required to examine if this model is appropriate with different context of local food/food tourism in other regions and samples.

This study considers tourist segmentation through cluster analysis as one of the key outcomes. However, these segments could be enriched by additional

variables including cultural, psychographic, or food preference for future research. Kim et al. (2013) mentioned in their study that continued development of local food as a tourist attraction might be further studied. Thus, it is important for marketers to target tourists who are likely to try local cuisine and this concern should be considered when organising food-related activities. Therefore, further tourist segmentation would help not only marketers or food tourism providers, but also the entire context of tourism and hospitality to define clearer target markets to sell, distribute or serve their products, which is useful for future destination and tourism development. To end this thesis, a quote is shared in the next page about the universal role of food and why it is not to be neglected as an area of study:

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***“Food is such an integral part of the travel experience that its significance has often been lost. For some it is mere fuel for others, and arguably a growing minority, it is the prime motivation to travel. In between we have the interested and curious. This situation presents not only challenge in the supply of food by the tourism industry but also sets a task for those who are trying to make sense out of the current situation, whether it be for academic or business reasons.”***  
***(Hall and Sharples, 2003: 14)***

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**APPENDICES****Appendix 1: Semi-structured interview questions****SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW  
FOOD PRODUCERS ON FOOD TOURISM DEVELOPMENT (ENGLISH VERSION)****SECTION I (BUSINESS BACKGROUND)**

1. When do you start your business?
2. Can you briefly explain the type of business you are operating and why you choose that?
3. How many workers involved in your production?
4. Where is the production place of your business?
5. Can you explain more on your business capital, about funding from any government or corporate agencies?
6. Do the funds/loans from the third party help your business to grow?
7. What kinds of institutions or agencies support the most towards your business?

**SECTION II (GENERAL PRODUCT PROFILE)**

1. What kind of food product you are producing?
2. How many do you produce per day?
3. What about the demand from the customer?
4. Do you have a specific target market upon your product?
5. What type of distribution channel do you apply to sell your product? Are you produce and sell them to the retailers? Or you produce and sell them directly to the customer?
6. Does your product receive a good reputation/review amongst your customers?
7. Where do you obtain your resources (self-produce or outsource)?
8. Do you market your product outside this state/area? If yes where is it?
9. What are you looking forward in terms of the future development of your product?

**SECTION III (PRODUCTION-TOURISM RELATION)**

1. Have you heard about food tourism?
2. If yes please explain based on your understanding about food tourism?
3. In general, could you describe, what is your best-selling product amongst customers and tourists?
4. Does your production and business strategy consider the influence of tourism?  
Please explain.  
Have you realize or believe the important of tourists and tourism to your business?

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5. To what extent why you feel that way?
  6. Do you provide a product that is tourist friendly? What kind of strategy or plan to make your product more visible and attractive for the tourist?
  7. What have tourism contributes to your production and business?
  8. What is your opinion on tourism development at this state?
  9. Do you engage with any tourism bodies or agencies that probably help your business to grow in the tourism market?
  10. Do you agree that food tourism would give more benefits to your business? Please explain.
  11. Food is such an important industry nowadays, and globalization had changed the food system. What is your opinion on that?
  12. Food tourists are increasing and most of them are travelling to experience local foods as the main purpose. Do you think this might help your business to focus more on this kind of market?
  13. Do you receive any feedbacks or reviews from the tourists about your products?
  14. How are the strategies of promotion for your product to the tourists?

#### **SECTION IV (GENERAL TOURISM REVIEW)**

1. Can you please state the positive aspects associated with this state in general?
2. And negative aspects?
3. What are the main attractive elements of the region?
4. Do you think there are links exist between food industry and tourism? If no, do you think there should be?
5. In your opinion, what is the main positive contribution of tourism to the local development?
6. What is the negative contribution?

## Appendix 2: Interview data tabulations/themes

| PRO. | BUSINESS HISTORY  | WORKERS   | PHYSICAL AND FINANCIAL RESOURCES  |
|------|---|---|---|
| P1   | <i>"The business started since 34 years ago."</i>   | <i>"Currently, we have 5 workers at this house."</i>  | <i>"My personal capital. We started with small capital and all on our own. Hrmmm.....so far I still able to feed and support my family and children."</i><br><br><i>"No! Not at all (strict expression), all by myself without any help or support from any agencies."</i>  |
| P2   | <i>"We started our business around 2005, but it was in a small scale. At that time, we only managed to sell one or two kilos." As far as I could remember, the business deliberately grew between 2008 – 2010 after we received a business license from Companies Commission of Malaysia (SSM). Previously we did not apply for the license due to our small scale business. By owning the license, our business scale expanded and production increased to 10 or 20 kilos roughly."</i>  | <i>"We have 38 staff at the moment."</i>  | <i>"I use my own capital to start the business. We received funding RM 40,000 from Fishery Dept. for commercial building in 2009/2010. They support us by giving that amount of money due to our successful business. Before we get funding from them, our shop/stall is very simple, even the wall was made from asbestos."</i><br><br><i>"As of now, our capital is still stable to support our business. Nowadays, it is very difficult to get government grant because they require many documents and the procedure is just too long."</i> |
| P3   | <i>"I was started with restaurant actually, around 2011. And then we have a lot of demands from the customer requests us to sell the paste for grilled fish. At that time I was an employee at Telekom Malaysia and I have time constraint to do it. But since 2014, I started to take unpaid leave for a year, I registered my company around March/April 2014 and I started to find a suitable place for my factory. September 2014 we started our business with different name of company."</i>  | <i>"Overall we have 34 workers in three segments, i.e preparation/cooking segment, peeling segment and cutting segment"</i> | <i>"At the beginning, I was sharing the capital among three of us, my husband, Hairudin and me for a sum RM976k roughly."</i><br><br><i>"Among the agencies who help us a lot are SME CORP, MARDI, FAMA, MARA, PDNKK, MOF, MOA, MATRADE and a few others, MARDI provides us more on advices on products and branding, with the help from MATRADE we can bring into our product to overseas, such as UK, with MOA we have brought into our product to Brunei and Australia."</i>   |
| P4   | <i>"This business started 27 years ago, started from my late grandfather, inherited by my mother and now I am the manager. It was registered around 2007, so more or less more than 10 years of operation."</i><br><br><i>"This food business was chose is one thing it is a traditional food, and inherited from the family from my late grandfather. One more, sata is a unique food, because not everyone could produce a good sata. But we still manage to continue this type of food business, eventhough there are some difficulties to maintain the quality per say sata is highly perishable."</i><br><br><i>"The recipe is a family inheritance. But our sata is innovated compared to other similar businesses, because we being teach by MARDI about food innovation."</i> | <i>"We have 5 workers at the moment including production."</i>  | <i>"The production is here, we have workshop at the back of the house."</i><br><br><i>"Yes, from family capital. After we registered we received incentives from MARDI, FAMA, YPU and several other agencies, like KEMAS, in terms of materials grant from KEMAS, MARDI provides us courses and technology, and few others. So financially, most we utilized from our own capital."</i><br><br><i>"For innovation, we send our product to MARDI,</i>  |

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|-----------|--|--|---|
|           | <i>"The innovation involved with fish products, methods like frozen products, sata nuggets, sata cheese."</i>  |  | <i>they will do the RandD and help us to improve the product."</i><br><br><i>"We still connected with MARDI, because we are one of the entrepreneurs that officially facilitate and advise by MARDI."</i>   |
| <b>P5</b> | <i>"I was started working with my elder brother who is pensioner around 2000. He was a soldier before, and his experience was totally different from food business. but after a few months running the said business he has get bored with all of these, some more he built a house in Jertih and he shifted over there. So he gave the chance to me to handle it. At that time I was not affordable to buy all the stuffs for making the Bahulu, so that I rented from him with a monthly rental. Meaning to said, we have spent a lot for the rental actually. Until my father advise me to buy that stuffs from my elder brother instead of paying rental every month."</i> | <i>"We have only two or three employees here."</i>   | <i>"From the beginning until year 2005, I use my own capital for a sum of RM20K roughly but since 2005, I started to apply for loan from Amanah Ikhtiar Malaysia. They gave us business loan, for a sum of RM26K per year, meaning to said we have to pay them roughly a sum of RM2400 per month. So far, we manage to pay them every month."</i>   |
| <b>P6</b> | <i>"This business started from my husband's late father and the time I get married to my husband in 1996, the business is already started (more than 30 years)."</i>   | <i>"Me and my family members including my mother in law, sister in law and her husband, my husband and myself. 5 people in total."</i> | <i>"I use my own capital that roll from the profits. We sell them with a cheap price, but during the festive season, we will mark up the price a bit, because all the goods are expensive at that time. I have a supplier, for example if we need 150kg of chicken within a week, we will ask him to directly deliver the chicken, due to the difficulty to personally purchase the ingredient. Plus, we afraid if the chicken is imported from the Thailand, some more if it is frozen, it not taste very good. So, we must maintain the quality as well."</i> |
| <b>P7</b> | <i>"Okay..aar..we register our company as "Sendirian Berhad" in year 2000, August 2000 We have been with this enterprise almost 20 years before we start with "Sendirian Berhad." So basically it started earlier than 2000."</i>  | <i>"Total including the lorry drive and the people who process the fish, overall we have 80 staffs."</i>                               | <i>"We started with RM500 only and until now, we not used any bank loans. So, all the while we use our own capital.</i><br><br><i>There are some agencies, but they only provide us with courses, advises and supports, but not financially. We did apply for the financial supports, but as you know, that they opted plenty of requirements and so on, that's why at last we gave up and decided to use our own. But for courses yes, it is so easy to be accepted."</i>  |
| <b>P8</b> | -  | <i>"We have 14 workers in all sectors and they live in one residential area within the farming territory."</i>                         | <i>"For the palm oil, I took a bank loan (private loan) to buy the land and also we received great supports in terms of financial and advise from government agencies like FELCRA, RISDA in terms of seeds, fertilizers, and advice."</i>   |

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| P9  | <p><i>"It was started back in 1999. Well, actually there are two. It started in 1999. Before that in 1991, we already started a business at Kuantan's Farmer's Market on Sunday, from 1991 at the very end of the year. It all started because I was interested in catfish and then I read an article about the African catfish we started doing that [business] at home. I lived in Maulana at the time; we had some space, so we built a pond. So, the business from '91 started out with just the African catfish. Then we [branched out] to ikan haruan, ikan puyu, ikan sepat. 1995 onwards, we started with ikan patin. But still we were selling them in the Farmer's Market in Kuantan."</i></p>                               | <p><i>"If it's just at this shop, 3. But with Along, there are 5 employees. Because it's only on Sundays and they bring in about 400 to 500 kilos of fish on the Sundays. Here people come and go. They come, they buy, and they leave. But at the pasar tani it's a lot of people at a time so we need 5 people. 5 people in the front row and the 2 people (siang ikan). So, 7."</i></p> | -  |
| P10 | <p><i>"It was a family ventures and my father first opened this place and I joint ventured in 2011, from 2005 – 2011, my father operate the business, after that I slowly taking over the business. But he remains as the boss."</i></p> <p><i>"Since 05, if you can see, this area is conquered by Bumiputera only. Ermmm, if I'm not mistaken in Cameron Highland, there is one house called KHM, owned by Mr. Haji Kharaini. He started everything and then my father was with MARDI at that time. After he retired, he joins ventured with him so they became business partner. After around 3 years, they split. Later than that, my father opened this outlet and another one. It was only 2 of these at the beginning."</i></p> | <p><i>"We have nine local workers and twenty-one foreigners."</i></p>  | <p><i>"Main natures of this business are strawberry plantation and processing and tourism centres (Agro-tourism) at three outlets in Cameron Highlands like this Agro Park. The main production site of your business here at Taman Sedia and the strawberry farms is located at few other locations spread around Cameron highlands. So, Taman Sedia is the headquarter."</i></p> <p><i>"We started with our capital MYR200, 000. During that time we only have this outlet. We also received some injections from FAMA, Agriculture Department, MARDI in a form of grant and machines. They also provide us with training, courses and workshops for entrepreneurial supports. The participation is compulsory, because we had the mutual engagement, so we need to follow their requirements. Another agency is SIRIM. They organized programs that such as MAHA, so we need to take part and currently, Cameron Highlands is one of the districts under the program 'Satu Daerah Satu Industri' for strawberry."</i></p> |
| P11 | <p><i>"This is a retail trading company. The products include Sambal Strawberry Ikan Masin, Strawberry Cordial and Jam. Secondly is the strawberry farm and thirdly we have café. For farming, the fruits that are rejected we will process them to produce sambal, cordial and jam. Rejected fruit is not spoiled."</i></p>   | <p><i>"Twenty staffs for café, four in farming, five in retail and trading, and three in office management. But we still link the HQ office."</i></p>  | <p><i>"Originally we have a small workshop. So we process them by ourselves. Later on, the demand increases; we hire two suppliers one of them is in Bukit Beruntung and Ipoh for mass production. We need to have several suppliers to join the Supplier Certification Program for them to fulfil our standard operation procedures based on scoring lists to determine which of these two suppliers will lead</i></p>  |

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|            |  |  | <i>the monthly production. So it works like that for the supplier selection. Meanwhile Cameron Highland is only for retail outlet. No more production takes place like what we did in the previous years. All of the activities were subsidiaries to the selected suppliers. All the strawberries come from here and for dried strawberries; they were imported from Thailand and China."</i>  |
| <b>P12</b> | <i>"The business started in 2009. Firstly, I am a cook. I have a certificate of cooking from 'Belia' (Youth entity). Then I was offered [indistinct] to go to Saudi Arabia with Tabung Haji for 2 seasons of Hajj and I went there. And then I thought maybe I could use my skills as a cook I could trade with what I have. If I was a cook and started a</i>   | <i>"We're running this within the family."</i> | <i>"In the beginning, I used my own capital of MYR 25, 000 for the research and development in 2004. The process took 5 years to complete. Then in 2009, I successfully registered the business. Later, I received some helps from the KEMAS Department of Pahang. I also received twice of financial loans from LPP and Department of Agriculture. The rest of the capital was my own until my factory caught fire. At the recovery stage I received support from FAMA and SIRIM in terms of consultations and others."</i>           |
| <b>P13</b> | <i>"The business was started in 2002 but not focusing on SME at first. The small food business started around 2009 or 2010 as far as I could remember. When the Kuala Medang homestay industry started to expand and gain recognition, at the same time we begin to launch our SMEs food business. Sambal hitam is our first product. It was all began with the catering business. We provide the catering service for homestay's visitors and eventually they love our sambal hitam, so from that the idea came to commercialize it. As the tourist arrival grows from time to time, we run the RandD to increase the product shelf life and retain the quality for a longer period. So, technically the collaboration between the homestay industry and the SMEs food business actually supported each other. Up until due to the high demand, we never seem to have enough supply [to meet demand] eventhough I have my own farm to supply the ingredients for production."</i> | <i>"We have 5 people."</i>                     | <i>"I started everything out on my own. I also received supports from The KKW, FAMA, [Department of] Agriculture, FELCRA and AKPP and the District's Office. Mostly they were promotions-based. For example, the District's Office would bring in their experts as well as FAMA and Department of Agriculture. A lot of the agencies really helped us. SIRIM brought ECER. ECER is where we got the packaging from. It's a program under the ECER for entrepreneurs. But, it must be started from us and need to work hard on it."</i> |

| <b>PRO.</b> | <b>PRODUCT CONCEPTS/ CHARACTERISTICS AND VOLUME</b>   | <b>CUSTOMER AND MARKETING</b>   | <b>SUPPLY/VALUE CHAIN</b> |
|-------------|---|---|---------------------------|
| <b>P1</b>   | <i>"Our product mainly focuses on Sate Ikan or traditionally called as lokching with two types of processes; normal and frozen. We produce approximately, 15 000 skewers of fish sate equivalent to 120 kg of fish, using sardine and clupeid."</i> | <i>"The consumer demands are relatively consistent through the years; amongst them are local sellers, direct customers from the locals and other states through recommendations and word of mouth (WOM) from their peers or family. So far the reputations are positive and the demand increase during the school break and festivity seasons."</i> | -                         |

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|    |   | <p>"For marketing we tried to distribute free tasting samples."</p>   |  |
| P2 | <p>"We decided to go for fish crackers and fish sausages because it is one of Terengganu's signature foods. Besides that, Terengganu is also well-known for its turtle eggs and nasi dagang. Originally, we planned to open a food stall if our fish crackers business does not survive but now since the business runs smoothly, we just proceed."</p> <p>"Roughly I can say 4,000 to 5,000 stick of fish sausages. It will increase during weekend, approximately 7,000 to 10,000 sticks. It depends on customer demand. It used to be more than that. But now I guess due to our slow economic growth, people tend to spend less."</p> | <p>"So far business is still good. Demand from customer is still there."</p> <p>"We received feedbacks from our customer. Some of them were happy and satisfied with our product. Nevertheless, there were also complaints regarding our product. But we take it as a lesson. Sometimes we aren't aware when we make mistake. Overall, they satisfied with the taste of our product, quality and price. Our price might be slightly expensive compared to other stalls but our quality is the best. Having said that, there are complaints saying that our fish sausage in vacuum pack is easy to spoil and the quality is not guaranteed for a longer time. Fish sausages in vacuum pack is a half cooked product and its condition must not be compared to fish crackers which is raw and dry. It is obviously long lasting, even for a month."</p> <p>Marketing – "Usually it is through word of mouth. People tend to buy in bulk when they came and resell in Kuala Lumpur. Sometimes they even introduce my products to their friends in KL. That is how I get my connections."</p> | <p>"Oh yea, we have retailer and they will come to buy in bulk and sell our products outside Terengganu. For example, they will buy 200 or 300 sticks and sell at higher price in KL and normally they are our close friends. Local people will come and buy directly from us."</p> <p>"We have agents, but it is not a registered agent who have licensed from government. They are more to personal or individual basis which will sell our product outside in small scale."</p> |
| P3 | <p>"We have Savoury Sauce, Grilled Fish Paste, Grilled Fish Paste Stinky Bean, Grilled Fish Fermented Durian Paste, Anchovies Sambal, Tomyam Paste and Chili in Shrimp Paste."</p> <p>"We produce roughly 750 to 1000 kilos per day. I will normally cook four times in one day, but for anchovies Sambal, I just cook two times only in one day because the process to make it is so fussy."</p>   | <p>"I started market my product in Terengganu, but the mentality of the people in Terengganu was different at that time as they could not accept when I packed my product in pouch, they preferred in Tupperware, but as we know that in the terms of safety and long lasting, tupperware is not advisable. So that, I have to go out from Terengganu and market my product outside of Terengganu, I just came back to Terengganu last year when I have to sponsor for Terengganu Football Team. There, I take chance to market my product by giving them T-shirt, and eventually, my product became accepted by them. In the terms of customer so far so great."</p> <p>Marketing – "I have my team for marketing and I have experienced Sale Managers, She's already 50 years old but in the term of experience and knowledge she is</p>  | <p>"We have brought our products into Giant, we now have 22 outlets overall all around Malaysia."</p> <p>"We have also brought our products into Tesco, Sabasun Supermarket and a few hypermarkets as well."</p>   |

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|                  |  | <p>good. Because, it seems to me that beside we have a good product, we must have a good marketing strategy as well. For me, branding is so important, Because branding or packaging is one of the communication medium for our products. I have spent about two years just only for branding my products, and in the third year, I have known where can I bring into my products and where can't."</p>  |  |
| <p><b>P4</b></p> | <p>Our products bases are sata, otak-otak and fish sausage.</p> <p>In one day we produce around 400 to 500 numbers of sata including frozen one, but not including the customer's bookings which around 2000 numbers of sata per week. For eid Mubarak, we really unoccupied ourselves with all the upsurge bookings.</p> <p>We have regular customers from Kajang and Malacca that work as agents for our business.</p> | <p>"In terms of customer's demand, we received more demands from non-Terengganu customers. But the demand is still going good not that bad."</p> <p>"So far we not received any negative feedbacks yet."</p>   | <p>"So far we don't use any supply chain medium, everything is straight to the customer. For agents we post our product to them."</p> <p>"We don't have the capabilities to adapt with the supply chain method as our production is limited and produce manually. So we do not have the capacity to supply the product for retailers."</p> <p>"Why we don't do it? Because, one thing about retailers or supermarkets, they want us to be consistent. For manual producers like us, it is a problem to keep up with the momentum. Previously, I've entered Sabasun Supermarket, but we failed due to inconsistency of supply and we are not capable to increase our production on time."</p> |
| <p><b>P5</b></p> | <p>"We sell traditional "kuih." We sell "Kuih Bahulu (a fluffy cake with a slightly crusty layer), "Kuih Bakar" ( Baked Kuih) and Akok."</p> <p>"Normally, we for "Kuih Bahulu" we produce around 2000 pieces per day, For "Kuih Bakar" we produce only 600 pieces per day as this is our new product. But for "Akok" we can produce even 2000-3000 pieces per day as "Akok" is the best seller here."</p>               | <p>"In the terms of customer so far is still maintain good unless during the fruit season, the demand will decrease a bit at that time, the customer will choose to eat fruit compared to "kuih muih" as the price for fruit is cheaper during the fruit season. But that one is not take so long, only for a month or half month. Instead, the demand will increase a lot during Ramadhan."</p> <p>Marketing – "We have once promoted our product in newspaper, Info Niaga"</p> <p>"Sometimes, the customers themselves, when they like our product, the will promote our product to their friends, posted in their facebook and so on. We have also get a good response from the tourist."</p> | <p>"Only direct to customer, but sometimes the customer will order in a huge volume from us around 4000-6000 pieces."</p>  |

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|    |  | <p>"So mainly through word of mouth regular customers."</p>  |  |
| P6 | <p>"I am the one, who produce the satay, but I do not really know the recipe, I only know the basic ones, just like the onions, the other ingredients I do not know because there are a lot of ingredients, everyone can make satay but the taste will be different from one maker to another maker. My husband's mother who the one who make the marinade of the satay, and until now it still remains as a secret. She always bought cloves, cinnamon, almonds and so on but the exact quantity of it I do not really know, my routine is only peeling the onions, garlic and lemongrass. But when I grilled satay, I won't take so long, this is because when we grilled it too long, the satay won't be juicy and tender."</p> <p>"Only satay plus satay sauce and "nasi himpit." Meaning to say, one set of it."</p> <p>"In one day we will produce around 3000 pieces, but that one is for two times sale, it is not for one sale. If we cut the chicken by today, we will skew them by tomorrow and so on."</p>   | <p>"I have tried to promote by using Instagram, my friend teach me, but it was just for fun only. There was no any feedback after all."</p> <p>"But mainly through word of mouth regular customers."</p>   | <p>"No, because we do not have enough of time to do it. The process to make satay will take some time. If we have to do it, we have to sell with a high price, but normally, the person who want to buy and resell, they normally ask for lower price and of course we can't give them. Furthermore, the economy nowadays is so bad. But if they want to buy with a high price, we can give them and of course they will sell with price which is higher than that."</p> |
| P7 | <p>"The most famous is instant fish crackers, if we want to count it, we have so many products, all we have is 42 products, but the product that we are running now is 18 products, for the rest we are heading to that."</p> <p>"But other than that we also have fish sausages, mini fish sausages, cheese fish crackers, the only thing makes our fish sausages are different from others is that we put various of taste to our fish sausages, we got curry taste, we got garlic, so that the people who eat our fish sausages will not get bored."</p> <p>Halal and HACCP – "For them should not be a problem, because they are only selling here, but for us we must have as we want to export it, and we want to expand our product, so that we must do it well. Yes, we are heading to that, but we do it little by little, we also always get in touch with the people from Health Ministry so that they can guide us, for example to change the floor, but we do it little by little, we do not do it all in one time."</p> <p>Volume - "For the best seller, normally per day we will produce 200 bundles, one bundle equivalent to 100 pieces, 200 bundles in one shift, we have two shift, so make it into 400 bundles, One shift for one place, we have four places, then it becomes 1600 bundles, one</p> | <p>"Actually, if we look at the marketing strategy, the packaging is not the main factor, but it is depend on our product itself, first of all, we must look whether the customer can accept our product or not, once the customer can accept our product, then only we can upgrade our packaging, make it more beautiful, our packaging is not only beautiful, but there is its own usage, before this our."</p> <p>Reason why our product, mainly malay product is or SMEs is difficult to be brought into?</p> <p>"One that I can see, the owners of the product themselves are not confidence with their own product and so easy to give up, Just like me, I myself have so many competitors, but what the reason I still on the top is because I confidence with my product and before always our product when there is competitor seems like to imitate our product. And one more is most of our entrepreneurs are not aggressive in showing they are good, for example, when people call, eventhough for several times, they just ignore, at least give them some simple message saying that we are busy or</p> | <p>"We do both, sometimes we sell directly to the customer, and we also sometimes sell to the customer through the retailer, but of course both of the price is different each other. And we give the speciality to our stockist as well so that they can continue buying from us."</p> <p>"Actually I prefer to sell directly to the customer, because normally the middle man will costs us a lot."</p>  |

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|    | bundle equivalent to 100 pieces, so that's all."  | whatsoever.. Without any answer given sooner or later the customer will get fed up."  |  |
| P8 | <p>"Our core business is based on food agriculture and plantation, chicken breeding and fish breeding for river and land fishes for example, catfish or fish that lives in a swamp. We also breed 'Kelulut' for honey production"</p> <p>"We also produce a short term plantation project for periods like 3months or less, for examples we have corn, pumpkin, and banana. It is an integration project with other permanent plants like palm oil."</p> <p>Volume<br/>"The chicken breeding is based on contract farming. So every 36 days we produce the mature chicken to be supplied to customers. So there is no daily basis. For the fish It could be more or less between 3 to 10 months to harvest."</p>  | <p>"For the chicken and as well as fish, because it is a contract system, so we already have the permanent customers. Everything is Self-pick-up. We are not a retailer or utilized a retail system. Every product being sold directly to the selected wholesalers."</p> <p>"Yes, I only supply them to the wholesalers."</p>   | <p><b>The supply chain is between you and wholesaler?</b> – "Yes. For fish, we still consider if there are demands from small group of customers but we don't take it as a major part."</p> <p><b>Retail premise?</b> - "Like chicken, we strictly keep the distribution only for the wholesalers. Like kettles or short term plants, I did open a small stall in front of my house, to sell any agricultural products directly to the 'open customers' or for the customers that pass by the road."</p>   |
| P9 | <p>"Ok. With ikan patin, usually 100 kilos because I can easily get the patin supply every day. If we check today and we're running low, we can notify [other suppliers] to deliver additional 120 kilos of fish. Then tomorrow and the day after we can continue to replenish [the stock] so our fish never gets [stored] for too long for like a week. It's must always fresh. With patin, I can say about 100 kilos. That's the minimum. Sometimes it can go up to 150. Because there's one caterer, a restaurant in Kuantan that [buys] at once up to 40 of them but only the big ones, the ones weighing 1 kilo. So 40kg for just 40 fishes that's already [a lot]. That's for one person. There's a lot more like Anjung Selera etc. A lot more that buys from us. Like just now Mr. Junus who has a store in Pekan Lama buys from us every day. So, the minimum is 100. I can say 100"</p> <p>"And then with keli (catfish), in one week we use up 1 ton. 1 ton a week. But the days are different. Tilapia, we don't have that much because with tilapia we can't provide them live so people don't really like it. Because we get them and store them in the refrigerators right away. So, when people see that they're frozen they think they're old when they're actually fresh. Tilapia is about 150 kilos a week."</p> <p>"So, those are our main ones. Patin, keli, tilapia and sometime Baung."</p> <p>"Plus other types of ikan sungai (fresh water fish) supply by the</p> | <p>"From time to time, because before I wasn't managing the shop but now it's my third month, it's not the same people that come. Every day there are new faces. The regulars are restaurants, caterers. But for individual customers, there's always a new one come every single day. And then, don't be surprised if my customers are from Terengganu, Negeri Sembilan, Melaka, Johor and Selangor. They come here to visit their relatives and such and they want ikan patin so where else do they search? They will come here."</p> <p>"Normally, they will ask for my number and the next time they're coming they would call to confirm our availability. We're never closed except on Eid. [Eid Al-Fitr] for 3 days off, and [Eid Al-Adha], one or two days off. So fish is always in stock. If there's none in the back, we'd go and look for them anywhere to ensure it is available anytime the customer's request for it, because our core [business] is ikan patin, right? And most of the locals in Pekan don't mind that much. They can get fish in the pasar tani or other places. But in our case, we prioritize the people who come from the outside of Pekan or Pahang."</p> <p>"Wow. Ok, now Fatiha (daughter) is in Penang. Fahmi</p> | <p>"Yes. Those two (direct customer and restaurant). But of course, the most is to direct customers."</p> <p><b>Retailers/wholesalers</b> - "Yes, we do but not many of them. Because, that's why I said I want to have my own [business] empire but the problem is with this shop it's not yet [settled]. Meaning in my plans I want to have one shop that the role is to do the processing. Then we have to add refrigerators and everything so then we can appoint retailers or anything. Right now, there are many people asking to [be retailers]."</p> |

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|     | <p>locals such as tamalian, gerahak etc. but we don't received the supply regularly."</p> <p>"Another one is ikan haruan. Just now we had someone deliver salted haruan (ikan masin haruan). In one day we'd receive between 20 to 30 kilos of ikan haruan. But sale is dominated in Kuantan. I can't tell you the exact daily [figures] because here we don't [indistinct]. In one week I'd say about 100 kilos, for the haruan."</p>   | <p>(son) is in KL. My younger sibling is in Negeri Sembilan. Right now, these 4 places are selling. The sibling in Negeri Sembilan sells the frozen products. They don't sell the fresh ones. But Fatiha in Penang she sells two concepts. One is the ones not cleaned yet, we sell them a bit cheaper. The other we sell the processed and cleaned ones. Both are frozen. The uncleaned and the cleaned are priced differently so they have choices."</p>   |  |
| P10 | <p>"Yes, strawberry base. Main products are cordial, two types of jam, topping. We also have acar and halwa (dried strawberry). Those are the core products and ready-to-eat meal like ice creams and pudding."</p> <p><b>Volume</b> – "We process the fruit every week. But during fasting month, the process took every day because we have abundance of harvested strawberry and we need to control the quantity due to limited freezer spaces. So all the processing run through during Ramadan. So everything will be ready for the next holiday season like school break, so we don't need to run the processing during the school break (time saving). But for ice cream and other product we do it every day."</p> <p>"If we talk about average estimation per week, around 400 bottles, of cordial, equivalent to 400 litres. For jam, (calculating) 576 something. So combine all the products are 1400 per week."</p> <p>"For acar and halw, they are seasonal items. Not in regular basis because it is quite tricky to make. Like the dried strawberry, we don't have the machine. We use one of the machines at MARDI. We need to concern on the availability due to the complexity of making it. So it is very seasonal."</p> | <p>"So since around 12 years ago, you can check it back later, three new highways opened, because there was only one highway to Cameron Highlands, after that the tourism activity rapidly grow (boomed). I think 12 years ago. So after all the new access roads opened, the tourism industry increases. From that, the demand for agro-tourism centres especially by Bumiputera upsurge. Prior to that, there was nothing much here."</p> <p>"Customers are mostly from KL and Klang Valley area. We have individuals that take our strawberry and process them, or sell them directly to the local marts not the well-known supermarket, at their residential areas but mostly owned by middle eastern, and then customer that produce their own yogurt and juice. One more has ever heard 'Dip and Dip'."</p> <p><b>Marketing-</b> "How can I justify this...Actually marketing or promotion is very minimum, very minimum. We have magazines endorsement for several pages, even for social media, we does not participate that much. Because I don't want to waste my time to sit in front of the computer or mobile phone all the time. It looks traditional, but we can do better. The main concern is capacity. In Cameron highland itself, we don't have a sufficient supply capacity to fill the demand. Several unrealistic orders like fruits, some of them require 5 tons of fruits in a month. I definitely can't because I don't have that much capacity. I just need to work on what I have and focus on the constraint. The demand is there, although we did the contract farming, they cannot produce that much. I myself have 60000 plants and it is still inadequate. So that is the limitation."</p> | <p>"Only direct to customer."</p> <p>"So mostly my customers amongst individuals that own the company we supply direct to them."</p> |
| P11 | <p>"Yes, that's for product only (strawberry). For this café, it is more to</p>  | <p>"Ummm, nasi lemak sambal strawberry is a hit,</p>   | <p>"It is more to agent oriented to supply them to</p>   |

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|                   | <p>restaurant concept but not particular in strawberry. But, we do have several selections of strawberry base drinks, scones. Let say, we did the R&amp;D for the café in terms of customer preferences. Normally, they will choose food items that contain strawberry. Plus strawberry is symbolic to this place. So that's the connection."</p> <p><b>Volume</b> – "For a month, we have two types of sambal, original and extra hot, cordial and jam, we able to produce 1000 units for each product. For café, nasi lemak sambal strawberry is very popular, so average quantity is around 3000 – 4000 portions that we produce every month. For fried rice around 1000 plus, following with white rice and soto. Those are top four bestsellers in this café. We will try to shortlist the menu from time to time based to the popularity and practicality to produce. Plus, the farm also produces around one ton of fruit from 27, 000 trees. So one tree could produce 30 grams of fruit, minus the damage and spoilage, due to the farm condition that is not isolated."</p> | <p>always a hit. We have many repeated customers majority are Malay, and also some Chinese. We aren't received any Indian customers yet. Actually, we have two Chinese agents selling our sambal strawberry. Therefore, we could see the diversion of the target market, from only Malay, now Chinese also takes part in our business, because they can see the opportunity and very consistent compared to Malay agents. I don't why, but that's the reality."</p> <p><b>Target market</b> – "Our main audience is tourist. Cameron Highlands tourists, especially amongst Muslims. But, we also received various customers from various races and also foreign tourists."</p> <p><b>Marketing:</b><br/>         "It's a bit secluded, but there is a campsite located near this village, so the foreign tourists from there which normally subjugated by them, will drop by our shop to have a meal or tea break. As this village is lack of visibility, so our marketing strategy is online marketing which are Facebook and Instagram. For conventional approach, we use buntings and flyers."<br/>         "We utilized the social media and in fact I forgot to mention about the Agrotek, if you realized earlier this year, it showed about our product in television. It's from MARDI if I'm not mistaken."</p> | <p>the customer, because we are not doing online business. What we did is if the prospect customers wanted our products, we will suggest them to contact the selected agents in every state like Pahang or KL agents etc. Instead, it would increase the agents' income"</p> <p>(Firstly, it is between your companies and direct to the customers. Secondly, it's between you to the agents and to the customers)</p> |
| <p><b>P12</b></p> | <p>"I produce 44 halal products. But the ones I'm actively promoting are only two, the gulai kawah and opor. But they're in the form of pre-mix. It's different from the beginning when I made pastes, right? Now we've changed and started to make pre-mix in the form of a powder. The ones we are promoting right now"</p> <p>"The production is depending on the demand. Within small industries such as mine, they won't run the production every day. It depends on the demand and the level of marketing we have. So, in a month we usually run between 3 to 4 productions routines. And when the demand increases, we'll run the production again. If we do it everyday it's probably for products with a short life span that we have to produce every day.. Let's say a week. In one week we can produce quite a lot, about 300 to 400 kilos. In one week we can</p>  | <p>"With respect to demand, when I was making it in a paste form, the demand was quite high because it was easy to [use in] cooking etc. When I came out with the pre-mix product, majority of my Malay customer are bit skeptical because to them, opor or gulai kawah spices in pre-mix form are quite new and instant. So, it was quite hard to penetrate the market. We need time to educate them on everything about this new form of products. Recently, demand has increased, and we receive more customers. But in terms of how much, after the fire incident, I can't. This is the first time I've brought these back to market."</p> <p>"The target is the Malay. The spices that we [produce]</p>   | <p>"Right now, we supply directly to supermarkets. We don't have agents yet because if I wanted to have agents I would need a bigger production. So, at this time we supply directly to supermarkets. For personal customer, they can come to our workshop and buy directly from there."</p>   |

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|                   | <p>produce 3 or 4,000 packets of these. About 4,000. In the factory the basic spices we grind once a month a lot of them and then we make the pre-mix week by week.”</p>  | <p>are compatible with the tastes of the Malays and the target demographic are families. That’s our target. Because mostly are Malays who eat the opor and gulai kawah as well.”</p>  |  |
| <p><b>P13</b></p> | <p>“Sambal hitam and mee sanggul. We make mee basah too but only for the local market. As in Kuala Medang locally. We sell it to restaurants, stores, etc.”</p> <p>“In a week, we process it 3 times for the sambal. Meaning that in one production we’d get 250 bottles. So multiply that by 3 times. The mee sanggul we only make it twice a week. Because we only have one machine for that. It takes a long time to make and we can’t rush the process. If anything happens it’d be a big problem. In one run we can make about 100 of it.”</p> | <p>“As of now it’s the whole of Malaysia. We even have customers in Sabah and Sarawak actually. For, overseas tourists when they come, for example from Singapore, they will buy in bulk. So the demands for Sabah and Sarawak are high. FAMA also helped to market to farmers and fisherman because we see a lot of [potential] there.”</p> <p>“With the homestay, there is a link with the food industry. Otherwise people wouldn’t know about us. For example, we’d meet people who say, “Oh Ezus, we had that during our stay in Kuala Medang and sometimes we’d have people whose family members know us. It’s like that.”</p> | <p>“We do sell them through agents.”</p> <p>“We supply to the retailers only if they come directly to us. For example, the homestay owners who do that kind of system. Other than that, we supply to the Darul Makmur supermarket. We target mainly for the non-local customers to cope with the stiff competition here.”</p> <p>“Yes. Actually, we already have a shop in Singapore with MARA. [indistinct] [indistinct] We also have another unit on the highway to Cameron Highlands. With MARA. [indistinct] We are going to have the IKS products there.”</p> |

| PR. | FOOD TOURISM  | IMPORTANCE OF TOURISM INFLUENCES   | TOURIST-ORIENTED PRODUCT AND STRATEGY  | REGIONAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT   | GLOBALISATION  |
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| P1  | <p>"Tourism attraction based on food product. Every state has it owns food specialitiesto attract tourist. For instance, if tourist wants fish sate, they will come to Terengganu or Kelantan and like fish crackers as well."</p>  | <p>"We have not yet thought about the tourist (foreign) segment for our product."</p>  | <p>"We have tourist who buy our product but not that many."</p>  |  | <p>"Before this we used woods to cook the fish. We used our hands to mould/shape the sate mixture. Now we have modern machines to help us increase our production loads and quantity volumes. But the price remains the same."</p>   |
| P2  | <p>"Yes, I've heard about it. Based on my understanding, tourist will come and buy the local food product as souvenir or gift to bring back to their country. For example, Sarawak Kek Lapis (layer cake), Kelantan Dodol (sweet sticky toffee-like candy) and Pahang...ermm I don't know much about its traditional food."</p> <p>"Yes we do. Sometimes travel agent will contact my manager to inform us that there are coming with tourist all over the world. They would like to try local food. I received a warm welcome from them. Some of them are from Japan, America and Africa. I still remember when there was one tourist from Japan came and eat our raw fish fillet which was not processed yet. He liked the taste of our fish maybe because they get used with the taste of raw fish."</p> | <p>"Yes, we do. Approximately 80% are local tourist and another 20% are international tourist will come and buy fish sausage from my shop. Most of local tourists are from KL, Kedah and Pahang. However, most of my international customers are from Japan, maybe because fish is their main dish. So for me, tourism industry is important."</p> | <p>"Yes, for me it is really important and relevant to my business. Although local tourist already gives high impact to my business, with international tourist, it gives even higher impact. For them our local food is relatively cheap and easy to get, might be due to our currency."</p> <p>"Yes, for example our fish sausage in vacuum pack is tourist-friendly."</p> | <p>"For me, I think Terengganu is well known for attractive places to visit amongst tourist and same goes to Melaka. Always been a famous place to visit."</p> <p>"I think one of the factors is because of its geographic area. Terengganu has many beautiful island and beach. Also, local people here are very friendly and helpful. Having said that, the Terengganu signature dish like nasi dagang, fish sausage, satar and lemang could also be another attraction factor."</p> <p>"Especially when it comes to fruit season. Tourist can taste the tropical fruits like rambutan, durian, mangosteen and many more."</p> | <p>"Yes, it does. Especially on food preservative. But there is also a good thing about food preservative. For example, product may last longer with preservative. Whilst new technology helps in terms of food quality and work efficiency. With new technology, they proposed better material and safe to pack or wrap food products."</p> <p>"I can say roughly around 90% of new technology gives a good impact to our food system. I can't give 100% because there are still people who ignored the standard procedure to use better, safe and user friendly material or packaging to wrap food products. For instance, there are people who still wrap their products with old newspaper which may contain carbon from writing ink. For me, I strongly agree with new technology as it is for our own good."</p> |

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| <p><b>P3</b></p> | <p><i>"In my opinion, food and tourism is just like rhythm in a song, it should move together. For example, what's for we go to the beauty country but we can't even find the food to eat. The only thing is that how's strong are we in bringing our product in. I am so sad when the fact shows that Terengganu is the fourth place for the best seller for fish sausages, where as originally the fish sausages is Terengganu signature food, why can't they do just like one stop centre, every time the tourist come to Terengganu, beside they enjoy the beauty of our attractive place, they feel like want to try our signature food."</i></p> | <p><i>"Yes exactly, for example, the tourism centre promotes my restaurant, Restoran Ikan Bakar Adeq Sue to the tourists who come to Terengganu, that's the way they impact my business."</i></p> <p><i>"I have also entered in Asian Food Channel programme, It was a good channel for promoting my products, and my company is among the top five in East Coast Economic Region Development Council (ECERDC)."</i></p> | <p><i>"Yes my product can be tourist-oriented product."</i></p> <p><i>"Now I am in the processing to make my Savoury Sauce, Chili in Shrimp Paste and Anchovies Sambal in sachet, so that it makes easier to the tourist or people who want to travel."</i></p> <p><i>"We have also sent our product to El-Rahman, KLIA. And surprisingly they have repeated their order from us twice."</i></p> | <p><i>"For me, Terengganu have the beautiful beaches and islands to be visited amongst the tourist."</i></p>  |   |
| <p><b>P4</b></p> | <p><i>"Never heard of that."</i></p>   | <p><i>There is connection with tourism itself, because if we keep selling our product to the locals, they get used with it already (nothing new), but for tourists we need to introduce it to them, that based on my previous participation with Terengganu Tourism program like Visit Terengganu in the past 3 years. We joined some them.</i></p> <p><i>The tourism more or less gives an impact actually.</i></p>     | <p><i>"We plan on it to strategize our product in tourism."</i></p>  | <p><i>"How I'm going to say this. The tourism development is still in a slow phase. It need some improvements, for business persons like us, we never been introduced by any tourist segments yet. I think most of us only believe that tourism is all about beautiful places and attractions, but food tourism not yet being recognized and understood in that kind of perspective."</i></p> <p><i>I received a customer's suggestion on this matter before this. He suggested that, I should link with hotels to demonstrate sata making for the tourists, in a</i></p> | <p><i>The globalization had influence ours in terms of lifestyle. The world is changing and younger generations are not so interested to try the traditional food like sata anymore. So, lifestyle that changes everything.</i></p> |

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|    |   |   |   | way of educating the tourists about the local food. But, I don't have the will and capacity to do it yet. Very little exposure amongst the food SMEs to explore the tourism market.   |  |
| P5 | <p>"Never heard of that."</p>   | <p>"Yes, we have customers amongst the tourist and they like our product very much."</p> <p>"At the same time, we must also maintain our food quality so that the tourist will promote our product when they back to their country."</p>  | <p>"Perhaps for "Kuih Bahulu" only because it's long lasting, but we have to pack it nicely."</p>   | <p>"I think in Terengganu we have the beautiful beaches and islands, for example, we have Pulau Duyong."</p> <p>"So with these attractive places, the tourist will eager to come here and indirectly will give impact to our business here actually."</p>   | <p>"For me the globalisation is not everything. I still use traditional method to produce my product in order to maintain its originality. Yes, we can use the new technology to produce it, but somehow we will lose the originality of it."</p>  |
| P6 | <p>"It means that we promote our food to the outsider, right?."</p> <p>"Yes we do, sometimes the owner of the homestay will bring along the tourist with him to eat satay at our place."</p>  | <p>"Just do it with no concern of tourism influences."</p> <p>"Because my satay is a bit sweet, but the outsider does not prefer that, which most of the foods in Terengganu and Kelantan, normally are sweet. Sometimes the people who order the satay from us will ask us to reduce the sweetness. For tourist, normally they will try at least two pieces first of the satay with and without a peanut gravy."</p> | <p>"It is possible if we have many requests from the customers. But, sometimes we are happy when VIPs place order for our satay for their events. They may have many contacts and acquaintances, not possible when they eat our satay, they will like it. But that is so seldom."</p> <p>"Because they (other producer) directly bake it and sell it, Not like us, if people do not order, we cannot simply grill the satay. We just rely on the tourist who comes at the night market and buy our satay, that's it."</p> |   |  |
| P7 | <p>"Based on my understanding, our food as the attraction to the tourist. The tourist will come to taste our food. I give you the closest example, the Singaporean comes to Terengganu just want to taste my fish crackers. They will not only seeing the beauty of the</p> | <p>"They bring the tourist to our place, at the same times, they promote our product to the tourist by giving them to taste our product, give them souvenir to bring back to their country."</p>  | <p>"Normally I got tourist from event or tours which are handled by the state, I will inform the state earlier if there are events which involves tourist, I ask the state to take the tourist to my factory. I never feel embarrassed if they bring the tourist to my factory as my factory is well equipped and some more I am planning to make Kuala Nerus as Seameq Territory, when the outsider comes to Kuala Nerus they will know</p>  | <p>"I think if there are no islands in Terengganu, the people will not come to this place, right? For me, we should refer to the developed countries as example and then we could modify their strategies according to our customs. We have the natural attractions here, but promotional efforts for the tourist are not right. We need to learn that from</p> | <p>"Actually for me, there is no fault in modernizing food system, but there must be a limit for that, we must maintain the originality of the food, for instance, my fish crackers, may last longer with preservative, but we will loss it's originality, so what is the use of making fish crackers if there is no originality? We can</p> |

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|                  | <p>Terengganu, but at the same time, they like to know the process of making fish crackers. So they come to my place.”</p> <p><b>Why food tourism is not well-develop here</b> – “I can see that one of the reason is that the standard of the food. We are very conservative, and when we try to upgrade the product sometimes, the people could not accept it. For instance, we got fish satay which is famous in Terengganu, why not we pack the satay in a nice way, as well as the fish crackers to make them standardize, so that the people tend to buy and bring back to their country as a gift to their relatives and friends. That’s one thing that I can see as the weaknesses in which they do not brave enough to make any differences.”</p> |  | <p>this is our territory/production place.”</p> <p>“I want to build Seameq Marts all around Malaysia, and we will sell the entire SMEs product with the well-equipped boiler or deep fryer so that the customer can directly boil and fry the fish sausages or fish crackers there if they want to. But still with a cheap price.”</p> | <p>the developed countries. The way they promote their country is so amazing, it makes us wanted to be there.”</p> <p>“Actually, Terengganu have sufficient budget to do so, for example, promoting Terengganu as a state for traditional food. So when people think about traditional food, they will come to Terengganu. What I mean is there must be a way on how to attract people to come to Terengganu, later once we have achieved of declaring Terengganu as a state for traditional food, it must be followed in sustaining food quality by the food businesses.”</p> | <p>follow the new technology but not in all matters. So the main point here is although we have new technology but we still need to maintain the originality of the food, because for me that is the most important feature.”</p>  |
| <p><b>P8</b></p> | <p>“Food tourism? I heard of it before, but I not able to implement the concept here. Actually I try to develop the agro-tourism concept not food tourism. But both of them are correlated with one and another. Or aqua-tourism. But it is a good initiative or movement to put forward. Tourism agencies need to play their role to help and</p>   |  |  | <p>“Umm, my opinion is, tourism is very profitable for individual or government. That’s the first one. Secondly, tourism is indirectly able to generate the domestic economy to the local people.”</p>   | <p>“Firstly, if we want to venture in this kind of business, it must be operated in large-scale bases. So, I highly prefer the usage of machine and technology to reduce the labour costs and fasten the production. That’s what large scale business needed, to increase product volumes. We don’t use manual process anymore.”</p> |

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|            | <p><i>promote the food tourism.”</i></p> <p><i>“The primary market is food and with that, customer or tourist would come because of the food.”</i></p>   |  |   |  |   |
| <b>P9</b>  | <p><i>“Yes, I’ve heard of it but not in much detail [about] what the vision is, what the objectives are. Just in passing. Because we’ve heard of Thai food, right? We’ve had Thai food in Kuantan. I’ve heard of that and we heard [of] people opening restaurants overseas [with] Malaysian food. I’ve heard of that. Other than that, I’ve got no knowledge at all.”</i></p> | <p><i>Yes we considered that. The initial idea was, when this shop was still empty, my target was I wanted to prepare the products and put them in here; so when coaches, from Terengganu or Johor, they could stop here and eat or buy our products etc. It’s just still in the plans. This was made for that actually.</i></p> <p><i>Yes. There is. Tourism is important after all. Because our product is one of a kind. There’s no other place that makes it.</i></p>        | <p><i>“In Kuantan, yes. In Kuantan there are African lecturers from UIA or some places I don’t know where [exactly]. Then there’s some from Egyptians etc. there’s a lot of them. In Kuantan, yes but at Agro Bazaar there’s none. 100% of Agro Bazaar’s [customers] are local except for the [migrant] workers like the ones from [Indonesia], [Bangladesh]. But in Kuantan, yes. Kuantan really needs [the use] of English because sometimes they don’t know how to speak Malay.”</i></p> | <p><i>I’ll focus on Pekan because other places I don’t know much of. Pekan has no one-stop centre for tourists. See? There’s none. Like in Kuantan there’s one in Teluk Cempedak that sells clothes etc. There’s none in Pekan. There’s no handicraft, or anything else. So, we need to do something. Nowadays there’s a university here in Pekan, right? Meaning there’s nothing to buy from Pekan for foreigners or outsiders to bring back to their home. I heard a while back the one at (Nasi Kukus Mama?) supposedly wanted develop a handicraft stop-center. But later it became a food court instead. Food is [already] everywhere. Why always focus on food? I want to do that I don’t know how to. Besides, my field of work is aquaculture.</i></p> |   |
| <b>P10</b> | <p><i>“As a phrase yes I came across”....</i></p> <p><i>“One thing that I realize from the tourists is they are quite ‘stingy’ to spend the money. Let say, if they came in a group of five, they will buy one ice cream at first. Once they satisfy with the taste, then they will buy for each of them. So,</i></p>  | <p><i>“Actually, we are depending on tourism, all of Cameron highlands. In fact, we the only district that have Police in Tourism Division (Tourism Police). Everything influenced by tourism, landslide, flood, illegal farming and in 2013 a water dam burst and cause a huge flood. That was the worst year. They whole place was cripple due to the flood and tourists’ cancelled their trips. And since that, everything went downhill from 2013 – 2015. 2016 there</i></p> | <p><i>“Yes, they are not interested (foreign tourists). Locals love packaged products. Somehow, the situation is different when we join the conventions or expos, sometimes I did trade my product with other countries like Yemen. But they are very interested about our product, the desserts and so on. Even the Dip and Dip Company owned by Syrian businessman. They came to my place and try the strawberry with melted chocolate and it</i></p>                                     | <p><i>“Actually, it was opened for the English Army Officers as their holiday destination. William Cameron was the founder of Cameron Highlands. He built a horse ranch for the horses to have their break. Starting from that, this place is slowly developed, from the opening of BOH Tea Plantation and MARDI (was known as Hill Station) as the best agriculture RandD</i></p>   | <p><i>“It (innovation) is important. Nowadays everything is moving swiftly forward than before. So far what we did was, we work with our limited resources, and try to make our way to the future by utilizing on what we have. Even the strawberry seeds could produce oil from it. My dad used to cooperate with KHM and UKM to produce the oils,</i></p> |

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|            | <p>they are very money 'cautious'. This is amongst westerners not for Middle Eastern tourists'. They would not spend so much on food; they prefer outdoor activities like jungle tracking. They love some of the ice-blended products and chocolate dips. But strawberry is very familiar for them, even in their countries; they have a better quality and products. For Middle Eastern, they are lavish spenders. They love to buy and try everything. They don't like free offers, because they will feel offended and it will vitiate their status."</p> | <p>was a slight increment and in this year the tourist arrivals maintain. But the news headlines make it even worst. In reality all the main areas of tourists not affected at all."</p>  | <p>ignites them. For them it's something new."</p>  | <p>center in Malaysia."<br/>"So tourism is a latecomer industry. During my primary school, I did remember the earliest tourism attraction was the flower fest and the last time it was held in 1997 (laughing). Basically around 15 years ago, the tourism marked as the main industry and the popularity increase like 400%."</p>          | <p>but it was challenging in terms of time and cost, and not feasible for the market. We also lack of expertise and everything was trial an error. Plus our resources and capitals are limited. So we need to secure that first for any risks or occurrences. No tourism no business, simple. This is a high-risk business, but we are working hard for it."</p>   |
| <b>P11</b> | <p>"Never heard of food tourism."<br/><br/>"In Cameron Highland itself, the food tourism is not yet familiar here."<br/><br/>"Actually, we had planned to organize a program in Kampung Taman Sedia, similar to what they did in Japan called The Strawberry Festival. So the plan was to collaborate with other producers for the event. But it could be in the future, to create this village as a Food Tourism Hub."</p>  | <p>"We do (Tourism influence is important), not only it is applicable to us, but to benefit the entire village as well. Even, our owner did propose about the tourism plan, but until now, no feedback at all. So, we don't want to do it alone, we want everyone is this village to participate. I'm hoping it could be done one day."</p> | <p>"Our sambal strawberry is already belongs to that category. It is an ultimate tourist-friendly product. It is a must for customer to bring it home at least one jar per customer."</p> | <p>"Actually, this year is Visit Pahang Year right? But, I don't see anything yet in terms of engagement with the locals and lack of promotion. Even, Cameron Highland Town Council is not collaborating with them, no promotional efforts being highlighted. Now we almost reach to the third trimester but still no updates on that."</p> | <p>"We want to shift into digital marketing, because the transformation is moving to that direction nowadays. So in the future, we plan on how to market and sell our product via online platform like ebay or Lazada. People don't need to taste it, just click and buy."<br/><br/>"This initiative (digital/online) needs to be applied to SMEs to enter the digital market. Recently Zakat Pahang, launch an app called BiZakat, helps to promote Muslims food products and premises. But it is more impactful if it's done by the tourism sector."</p> |
| <b>P12</b> | <p>"Yes, I've heard of that"<br/><br/>"In my understanding, it's</p>   | <p>"In the early stages, I used to read to keep updated on that etc. But when you're in business you don't have time</p>  | <p>"If we're talking about this, it's simple. For example, if tourists come, they try the opor and they like it but they don't</p>  | <p>"Actually, what I could see of the tourism in Pahang, even with the aggressive promotions and</p>  | <p>"People think that the worlds nowadays that mobilize rapidly are better, but in my</p>  |

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| <p>about [indistinct]. Because if we're talking about Ubai, there's nasi dagang. Like if Ubai is already known for its nasi dagang, the whole of the state of Pahang would go there for that. Not only with nasi dagang, but there could be other businesses that could be set up. Other than the nasi dagang. Starting from the nasi dagang, a lot more people would come. When tourists come for that, there would be economic development in other areas as well.</p> <p>"You could see that most of the [tourism] in Pahang are centred on beaches. Places like Cherating, [indistinct], etc. But the beaches are not much of an attraction now. People just go there for picnics, etc. So, I think in the future, food is one of the things that will become a source of attraction for tourists. Like Beserah with its mee calung, it's really quite popular. If you want good mee calung you can find it in Baserah. Before this, people just want to go to Cherating. Tourists just want to go to Cherating or somewhere else with beaches. But now its food. Like dodol gula kabung famous in Lipis, Raub. Sambal hitam as well. Patin in Temerloh. I see that food</p> | <p>for that. The only thing we can do is, for example when we get involved in this type of event, we're acting as agents for tourism and we [promote] to people about things that are in Pahang. But when some of my customers come up to me and they tell me, "I came to Pahang and I've never had opor that tasted like this", that's a problem. Because not all cooks can cook opor properly. That's the real issue raises. Like dodol, people can make it quite uniformly. We used to think about considering that but now."</p> <p>"Not yet. Because people who come visiting our place, they don't have any idea of our product. For example, if the Pahang state government is calling for tourists to visit Pahang, They don't have prior knowledge or info about opor in Pahang unless entrepreneurs like us introduces the food to them. Like me I will introduce Pahang's cooking and foods, etc. so people could recognize about them."</p> <p>"Because the government is only interested in attracting outside tourist. If people from Pekan for example, where do they go on vacation? Pulau Keladi, Kenong. Only those places. But the [indistinct], where do you carry them. They want to go see [indistinct] raja, it's not going to be there all the time. That's the problem. There needs to be a different strategy."</p> | <p>know how to prepare it. So, if I produce a ready-made one, I'd need to pack it and so on. I would need to plan and spend a lot of money. Previously I planned to do something like rendang tok, in a bag, when you want to eat you just heat it, take it out then you can eat it right away. Maybe something like that. I did some RandD in 2012 to produce ready-to-eat opor in a can, but due to the capital constraint, I could not determine to proceed or not, so I decided to postpone [that idea]. So, in terms of planning, it's there. For people to come and able to get products that they could use it right away without any cooking involve. The planning is there."</p> | <p>[marketing] overseas, the tourists keep going to the same old places like the National Park, Tioman Island, Cherating. Tourism has yet to expand to other places, eventhough with the rigorous promotions and tourists events like the recent one the Visit Pahang Year, everything is still the same. To be fair, that is not yet effective because tourists still visit to certain places. Like me for example, I live in Ubai. I used to see [foreign] tourists here on their bikes and having drinks, but that's not happen anymore. So, I think the [campaign] has not reached its target."</p> | <p>opinion, it is better to look at things for the next 10 years. Things that grow too fast would also decline very fast. For instance, people left ulam-ulaman (traditional edible greens/leaves) in the past several years, but now everyone demands for it back. Some of them, who produced the greens before, are planting and selling them back in the current market, because the demands are reemerging from this so-called modern society. So, each technology development, on a 20 or 30 years of times would change and unpredictable. Another example is opor that is a traditional delicacy; I have to preserve it, at the same time keep up with the current trends. Following the trends is what I should do but I have to hold on and can't leave my traditions behind."</p> <p>"Yes. We have to protect that. Because I've seen many of my colleagues that promptly chased the new changes, but not long and it remains stagnated. So, I said it's ok for me to move slowly' at [a more manageable pace] and remains sustainable. Many people have gone down the route and closed their business because trends like food and fashion doesn't last long. Food, in 5 years' time they'd be gone. The product becomes popular but in 5</p> |
|--|---|---|---|--|

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|     | attractions for tourists are higher.”  |   |  |  | years period it starts to disappear. What I want for my products is be around in 5 years and for another 5 years, hopefully at that time more people would recognize my product.”  |
| P13 | <p>“People who come to a place to eat the best food? Is that right?”</p> <p>“When that happens, it helps the food industry at villages (rural areas), right? They get whatever’s the most popular food there and indirectly it helps to market them better. Like at Kuala Medang we have sambal. With that it happens indirectly.”</p> | <p>“Yes, I do. We do notice in Kuala Medang, not just me, but other SMEs as well, we’re affected less [tourists] coming in. People who sell kerepek or bahulu, they’d be affected by the tourist arrivals. Tourist contributes to their source of incomes. On the other hand, it is a great deal for us to have many people visiting the homestay because we are already reaching out to market our product. But the concern is upon the smaller businesses in Kuala Medang, it’s not just one person making sambal hitam, there are many others more in this businesses venture and that significantly would affect them as well.”</p> | <p>“Our [sambal] lasts a long time. The one that they steam, the moist ones don’t last long. That’s one of the reasons. It’s also easy to bring along if you travel anywhere. That’s the feedback we got.”</p> <p>“We usually go on TV programs for promotions. That’s what helps us with that.”</p> | <p>“We have many unique attractions in terms of food. For example if you want to eat patin tempoyak, it’s in Temerloh. In Lipis, Raub, we have sambal hitam. Those things are a must to be the enticement [for tourists].”</p> <p>“There are not fully taken the advantage of. The district level SMEs proposed to develop a gallery purposely build for SMEs in Kuala Lipis. When people from the outside come to Kuala Lipis, every SMEs product are there, like gula kabung and all other products. We did suggest to them for that, but it hasn’t happened yet.”</p> | <p>“We really need that (globalization).”</p> <p>“Yes, that’s right. It’s just that we are affected by the state of the economy. It affects us negatively. The prices of goods are up, and our margins are shrinking.”</p> <p><b>Future demand</b> - “We have to be creative. Maybe then we would go into something else. Maybe we can create something else.” Yes, something like that. We have to make it different and be creative with it. Like with the noodle, I have an idea to put it in cup/instant pack and targeting the students with that.”</p> |

### Appendix 3: Survey questionnaire



Code:

#### SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE TOURIST FOOD CONSUMPTION IN MALAYSIA

Dear participant,

This questionnaire is developed and distributed to fulfil the study of Doctor in Philosophy (Ph.D.) thesis requirement. The main idea of this research is to investigate the tourist food consumption characteristics on Malaysian food through pre-conception, satisfaction and experience during their visits to Malaysia. Thus, it is an important procedure for the selected respondents to allocate a brief space and time to answer this set of comprehensive questionnaire that is very much related to your vacation and visit to Malaysia. The key theme of these questions involved food related background on how it impacted your holiday visits and your perspective on Malaysia food tourism. This questionnaire is divided into 6 sections. *Section I: Malaysian Food Tourism Profile. Section II: Food preference. Section III: food expectation. Section IV: food experience. Section V: Food-related behavioural intentions and Section VI: Demographic profiles and travel characteristics.*

Each of the questions must be answered accordingly based on the scale given in which all the answers will be computer generated (data analysis) to identify the results and later given the empirical evidence for this study through the conceptualize findings based on the outcome of this questionnaires. Your participation is very much appreciated due to the enormous contribution to the development of the body of the knowledge, particularly on this investigated area. All your personal information will be stored securely and will be kept in strict confidence. Your answers will be anonymously recorded and non-attributable.

*Please tick one of the statements below:*

I agree to participate in this study  I disagree to participate in this study

Thank you.

**W.M.Adzim**

Wan Mohd Adzim Wan Mohd Zain  
Researcher

**SECTION I: MALAYSIAN FOOD TOURISM PROFILE**

The following statements are about your basic understanding of Malaysian food.

1. Do you consider yourself to have a good knowledge of Malaysian food? YES ( ) NO ( )
2. Have you heard about Malaysian food before? YES ( ) NO ( )
3. Have you read or find out the information on Malaysian food? YES ( ) NO ( )
4. Which of these Malaysian dishes have you heard of?
  - Satay ( )
  - Rendang ( )
  - Nasi lemak ( )
5. Do you plan or if you have a chance to visit Malaysia, you will try Malaysian food? YES ( ) NO ( )
6. What level of food tourist are you?
  - High ( )
  - Moderate ( )
  - Low ( )
7. What motivate you to travel for food?
  - Curious to experience new food ( )
  - Recommendation and review ( )
  - Media influence ( )
  - Related to my work ( )
8. What is travelling for food means to you?
  - Enjoy the various local foods during vacation ( )
  - Trying food that is popular ( )
  - Taking part on the food preparation/production ( )
  - Learning the food history and culture ( )

| <b>SECTION II: FOOD PREFERENCE</b>                                   |                   |          |         |       |                |
|--|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| <b>The following statements are about your food preferences</b>      |                   |          |         |       |                |
|  | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly agree |
| 1. I chose food that I am very familiar.                             |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 2. I love to explore new food.                                       |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 3. I chose food based on the visual presentation.                    |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 4. I prefer to eat street food.                                      |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 5. Low-priced food is important.                                     |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 6. I like to experience a new food that reflect local culture        |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 7. I chose places based on positive reviews (internet, social media) |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 8. I prefer places based on popularity or hype                       |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 9. Food experience is important to me.                               |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 10. Trying out new places to eat is always important to me.          |                   |          |         |       |                |

| <b>SECTION III: FOOD EXPECTATION</b>   |                   |          |         |       |                |
|--|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| <b>The following statements are about your food related holiday planning</b>               |                   |          |         |       |                |
|  | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly agree |
| 11. No special planning. I just planned to eat when I got hungry.                          |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 12. I decided on places to visit based on the foods I wanted to experience.                |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 13. I planned to make choices based on the needs of my travel group (e.g., family/friends) |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 14. I decided to dine at locations that would allow me to meet local people.               |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 15. I planned food choices to experience local culture                                     |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 16. I planned to eat only foods that fit a healthier lifestyle                             |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 17. I planned to dine in at locations that offer clean facilities                          |                   |          |         |       |                |

| <b>SECTION IV: FOOD EXPERIENCE</b>   |                   |          |         |       |                |
|--|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| <b>The following statements describe your experience of Malaysian food during your holiday</b> |                   |          |         |       |                |
|  | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly agree |
| 18. Malaysian food is full of flavors  |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 19. Malaysian food is presentable  |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 20. Malaysian food is tourist friendly   |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 21. Malaysian food is easy-availability  |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 22. Malaysian food is influence by another region/culture                                      |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 23. Malaysian food is authentic  |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 24. Malaysian food is value for money  |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 25. Malaysian food is strong with a traditional background                                     |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 26. Malaysian food is high quality   |                   |          |         |       |                |

| <b>SECTION V: FOOD INTENTION</b>  |                   |          |         |       |                |
|---|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| <b>The following statements are about your food preferences during your holiday</b> |                   |          |         |       |                |
|   | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly agree |
| 27. I consume food that is popular at the destination                               |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 28. I consume food that the locals recommended                                      |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 29. I consume food that is traditionally made or prepare by the locals.             |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 30. I consume food that is related to local culture and heritage.                   |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 31. I consume food with locally produced ingredients.                               |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 32. I consume food that is promoted or shared in the social media.                  |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 33. I consume food that is adventurous for my palate.                               |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 34. I consume food that give me memorable food experience                           |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 35. I consume food that I had planned to have before travelling                     |                   |          |         |       |                |
| 36. I consume food that is healthy during my travel                                 |                   |          |         |       |                |

**SECTION VI: DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE AND TRAVEL CHARACTERISTICS**

The following statements are about your personal and travel backgrounds.

- |                                      |     |  |     |
|--------------------------------------|-----|--|-----|
| 1. Gender                            |     | 7. Purpose of visit                      |     |
| • Male                               | ( ) | • Food and beverage                      | ( ) |
| • Female                             | ( ) | • Entertainment                          | ( ) |
|                                      |     | • Cultural                               | ( ) |
| 2. Age group                         |     | • Nature                                 | ( ) |
| • Below 20                           | ( ) | • Business                               | ( ) |
| • 21 – 30                            | ( ) | • Recreations and sports                 | ( ) |
| • 31 – 40                            | ( ) |  |     |
| • 41 – 50                            | ( ) | 8. Type of accommodation                 |     |
| • 51 – 60                            | ( ) | • Rest house /Hostel                     | ( ) |
| • 61 – 70                            | ( ) | • Rented                                 | ( ) |
|                                      |     | • Resort                                 | ( ) |
| 3. Highest education attained        |     | • Hotel                                  | ( ) |
| • High School or equivalent          | ( ) | • Others                                 | ( ) |
| • Diploma or equivalent              | ( ) |  |     |
| • Bachelor's Degree or equivalent    | ( ) | 9. Estimated expenditure on food (daily) |     |
| • Master's degree or equivalent      | ( ) | • Below MYR 10.00 (£1.85)                | ( ) |
| • Doctor of Philosophy or equivalent | ( ) | • MYR 15.00 (£2.78)                      | ( ) |
|                                      |     | • MYR 20.00 (£3.71)                      | ( ) |
| 4. Country of origin:                |     | • MYR 25.00 (£4.63)                      | ( ) |
| .....                                |     | • Above MYR 30.00 (£5.75)                | ( ) |
|                                      |     |  |     |
| 5. Frequency of visit to Malaysia    |     |  |     |
| • First time                         | ( ) |  |     |
| • 2 – 3 visits                       | ( ) |  |     |
| • More than 3 visits                 | ( ) |  |     |
|                                      |     |  |     |
| 6. Length of visit to Malaysia       |     |  |     |
| • Less than 1 week                   | ( ) |  |     |
| • 1 week                             | ( ) |  |     |
| • More than 1 week                   | ( ) |  |     |

## Appendix 4: Approved ethical form

### University of Exeter Business School Research Ethics Form

#### MPhil and PhD Research Projects

This form is to be completed by students registered for MPhil and PhD and is to be signed by the primary project supervisor. Only students with a lead supervisor in the Business School can apply for ethics clearance to the Business School ethics panel. Those with a lead supervisor in another school or institution should seek advice from their relevant ethics panels.

When completing the form be mindful that the purpose of the document is to clearly explain the ethical considerations of the research being undertaken. Please include relevant and adequate detail for the ethics review panel to make their decisions about the ethical considerations you have made for your project. Please note that it is the responsibility of the student and supervisors to identify where their research may raise ethical issues, familiarise themselves with the ethics procedures and submit their work for review well in advance of starting their project. Retrospective ethics applications will not be considered.

Once completed, please submit the form electronically to [UEBS-PGRadmin@exeter.ac.uk](mailto:UEBS-PGRadmin@exeter.ac.uk)

#### *University of Exeter's Ethics policy relating to research*

The University of Exeter is research intensive and dedicated to furthering knowledge in a responsible and exacting manner. In the conduct of research by academic staff and students the University strives to protect the safety, rights, dignity, confidentiality and anonymity (except where covered by an appropriate protocol) of research subjects, the welfare of animals and the sustainability of the environment. The University also endeavours to safeguard the wellbeing, rights and academic freedom of researchers and the reputation of the University as a centre for properly conducted, high quality research. The University maintains a separate *Code of Good Practice in the Conduct of Research* which it requires all researchers to follow.<sup>1</sup>

Ethical issues are manifest in a wide variety of research activities and arise especially when the conduct of research involves the interests and rights of others. The adoption of an ethical position in respect of such research requires that the researcher observes and protects the rights of would-be participants and systematically acts to permit the participants to exercise those rights in full accordance with UK law. Ethical practice in such cases requires that participants and/or legal guardians, at a minimum, be fully informed, free to volunteer, free to opt out at any time without redress, and be fully protected in regard to safety according to the limits of best practice. The Business School follows the policy set by the University of Exeter.

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<sup>1</sup> <http://www.exeter.ac.uk/research/toolkit/throughout/goodpractice/>

The University seeks to conduct research in accordance with the UUK Concordat to Support Research Integrity.<sup>2</sup> The University upholds principles of integrity and the need for researchers to be honest in respect of their own actions in research and their responses to the actions of other researchers. Researchers will be required to comply with requests to the University under the Freedom of Information Act 2000 and practice openness in their research endeavours wherever possible.

#### *The University of Exeter's policy relating to health and safety*

The University of Exeter has a health and safety policy.<sup>3</sup> The University sets out safety standards for various aspects of research. Apart from exceptional cases, these standards are not applicable to research in the Business School. However, your research may require you to pay attention to sections on: *Children, Young People and Vulnerable Adults on Campus; Driving Vehicles on University Business; Fieldwork; Lone Working.*

#### *The University of Exeter's policy relating to insurance*

All researchers travelling abroad *must* acquire travel insurance from the University's insurer.<sup>4</sup> You will not be charged for this service.

Many research projects are regarded as normal University activities by our insurers and are automatically covered.

There are some types of activity that need to be referred to our insurers before insurance cover can be confirmed; examples include:

- Contracts where the funder is a military organisation or the funding organisation is based in the US or Canada.
- Working on research offshore, alone in remote areas or in politically sensitive regions.
- Research that includes the development of a prototype.
- Activities rated as 'high risk' on your risk assessment.

For further information, you should consult the University Insurance Office.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>2</sup> <http://www.universitiesuk.ac.uk/highereducation/Documents/2012/TheConcordatToSupportResearchIntegrity.pdf>

<sup>3</sup> <http://www.exeter.ac.uk/staff/wellbeing/safety/>

<sup>4</sup> <http://www.exeter.ac.uk/research/toolkit/throughout/insurance/travel>

<sup>5</sup> <http://www.exeter.ac.uk/research/toolkit/throughout/insurance/>

*Part A: Background of the research project*

|   |   |
|---|---|
| Title of project.   | Food Tourism Development: Through the Perspectives of Food Production and Tourists Food Consumption   |
| Name of lead researcher / Primary investigator for this project and affiliation | Wan Mohd Adzim Bin Wan Mohd Zain  |
| Name(s) of other researchers and affiliation (s)                                | No  |
| Start and estimated end date of project.  | 12 July 2017 – 26 September 2017  |
| Source of funding for the project.  | Self-Funding for this project (student is under the sponsorship of Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia)   |
| Is this application being made prior to a grant application? Which funder?      | No  |
| Aims and objectives of the project.   | <p>The aim of this study is to identify and evaluate the factors affecting the food tourism development of East Coast Malaysia, examining the role of food production and tourist consumption as the primary elements to engage, improve and enhance the growth of destination food tourism. The objectives of the study are:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. To examine the role of local food production in developing food tourism at the destination.</li> <li>2. To determine the characteristics of tourist food consumption.</li> <li>3. To analyse the extent of linkages between food production and tourists food consumption on the food tourism development.</li> </ol> |

|   |    |
|---|----|
| Is the main applicant employed by the UEBS for the duration of this project?<br><br>Note: only researchers employed by the Business School can apply for ethics clearance by the UEBS ethics panel. | No |
| Are there any conflicts of interest that the University ought to be made aware of?  | No |

### Part B: Ethical Assessment

Please complete the following questions in relation to your research project. If you answer Yes to any of the sections, please elaborate. If you answer yes to any of the questions in Section 1, a full review by the University of Exeter Business School Research Ethics Committee (REC) will be required and you may also require external approval from the REC of the partner organisation.

| Section 1  | Yes | No |
|--|-----|----|
| Research that may need to be reviewed by NHS NRES Committee, Ministry of Defence Research Ethics Committee (MODREC) or an external Ethics committee. See <a href="http://www.hra.nhs.uk/about-the-hra/our-committees/nres/">http://www.hra.nhs.uk/about-the-hra/our-committees/nres/</a> and <a href="https://www.gov.uk/government/groups/ministry-of-defence-research-ethics-committees">https://www.gov.uk/government/groups/ministry-of-defence-research-ethics-committees</a> for more information. |     | /  |
| Will the study involve recruitment of patients or staff through the NHS or the use of NHS data or premises and/ or equipment?  |     | /  |
| Does the study involve participants age 16 or over who are unable to give informed consent? (e.g. people with learning disabilities: see mental Capacity Act 2005 / Adults with Incapacity (Scotland) Act 2000. All research that falls under the auspices MCA/AWI should be reviewed by a recognised and appropriate REC operating under the NHS REC).  |     | /  |
| Section 2  |     |    |
| Does the research involve other vulnerable groups: children, those with cognitive impairment, or those in unequal relationships?<br>Have you read the appropriate Act; ethical practices governing research with the group you aim to study?   |     | /  |
| Will the study require the co-operation of a gatekeeper for initial access to the groups or individuals to be recruited? (e.g. employees, students at school, members of self-help group, residents of a nursing home?)  | /   |    |

|   |   |   |
|---|---|---|
| Will it be necessary for participants to take part in the study without their knowledge and consent at the time? (e.g. covert observation of people in non-public places, use of deception in experimental studies) |   | / |
| Will the study involve discussion of sensitive or potentially sensitive topics? (e.g. sexual activity, drug use, personal lives)  |   | / |
| Are drugs, placebos or other substances (e.g. food substances, vitamins) to be administered to the study participants, or will the study involve invasive, intrusive or potentially harmful procedures of any kind? |   | / |
| Will tissue samples (including blood or saliva) be obtained from participants?  |   | / |
| Is pain or more than mild discomfort likely to result from the study?   |   | / |
| Could the study induce psychological stress or anxiety or cause harm or negative consequences beyond the risks encountered in normal life?  |   | / |
| Will the study involve prolonged or repetitive testing?   |   | / |
| Will the research involve administrative or secure data that requires permission from the appropriate authorities before use?   |   | / |
| Is there a possibility that the safety of the researcher may be in question? (e.g. working alone and physically present in an unfamiliar international environment)   |   | / |
| Does the research involve members of the public in a research capacity (participant research)?  | / |   |
| Will the research take place outside the UK?  | / |   |
| Will the research involve respondents to the internet or other visual/ vocal methods where respondents may be identified? (e.g. through the findings)   |   | / |
| Will research involve the sharing of data or confidential information beyond the initial consent given?   |   | / |
| Will financial or other inducements (other than reasonable expenses and compensation for time) be offered to the participants?  |   | / |

[Adapted from the ESRC ethics initial checklist<sup>6</sup>]

**Part C: Further and brief details for any sections answered 'Yes'.** If you answered 'yes' to any of the above sections, please elaborate with detail here. Each in turn.

**1. This research will involve support from the gatekeeper including friends and acquaintances who are working at the airport. They will assist and guide the researcher for the data collection (questionnaire distribution) at the airport for tourist/passengers. A support letter was sent via email to the Malaysia Airport Holding Berhad (MAHB) authority as required from the management officer. I already received a respond from the Miss Siti Eli Ilyana Salim, Public Relation Corporate Communication Division MAHB. She attached the application form (Appendix E) to be submitted to management unit. All the payments that required (MYR 318.00 per day) will be personally paid by the researcher two days before the work take place. I also will send them a copy of official letter of support and questionnaire set. Miss Siti Eli and I will regularly contact through email to keep me**

<sup>6</sup> ESRC ethics initial checklist, Framework for Research Ethics (FRE), (2010).

update. Plus, she also suggests doing the fieldwork inside the main terminal of Kuala Lumpur International Airport (KLIA). All the progress and update will regularly follow-up. Plus as the fieldwork at KLIA will take place on 31<sup>st</sup> July until 3<sup>rd</sup> August 2017, prior to that I will personally going to the MAHB Headquarters at Sepang, Malaysia for further arrangement and confirmation if necessary.

2. The members of the public involve with the respondents amongst food producers/entrepreneurs and international tourists in East Coast Malaysia (States of Pahang and Terengganu).
3. It will take place in Malaysia due to the research requirements and settings. Additionally, the researcher is from Malaysia and bonded with the Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia.

*Part D: Project Summary (Ethical Considerations)*

Provide an overall summary of the Research that will be employed in the study and methods that will be used (no more than 250 words)

The location for the research includes the states of Pahang and Terengganu of East Coast Malaysia. Local food producers/entrepreneurs and international tourists are the main respondents to fulfil the data collection process. Mixed methods will be conducted where both qualitative (semi-structured interview) and quantitative (questionnaire) data will be collected at the same time (convergent parallel technique). The interview will be done at the business properties of the producers mainly located at the capitals of each state. Providing them with a formal letter that will be sent through email first and also will be bring along for walk-in session if necessary. Self-administered questionnaire consists of six sections of English Language questions will be answered by the tourists and several tourist areas were identified for distribution; it includes airports, markets, islands, coasts and national parks that will be supported by the letter of permission to do the fieldwork at these locations. All questionnaires will be distributed and collected instantly. The researcher will get assistance from friends and family as the enumerators to help administer the questionnaires and to record and document the interviews. All respondents (producers and tourists) will receive tokens of appreciation for their full cooperation in engaging and supporting the study

*Part E: Ethical Considerations for method(s).*

List each of the methods you aim to use to recruit participants and describe the methods you will use to gain their 'informed consent' (If written consent will not be obtained for any of your methods, this must be justified). At the least the following should be considered for each method.

- Confidentiality and anonymity for all participants and organisations.
- Storing of data according to the UK Data Protection Act and also any additional provisions you have to make for the data in other countries where your study is based. If the project involves obtaining or processing personal data relating to living individuals, (e.g. by recording interviews with subjects even if the findings will subsequently be made

anonymous), you will need to ensure that the provisions of the Data Protection Act are complied with. In particular you will need to seek advice to ensure that the subjects provide sufficient consent and that the personal data will be properly stored, for an appropriate period of time.

- Voluntary participation following informed consent.

*Please attach a copy of every Information Statement and Consent Form that will be used, including translation if research is to be conducted with non-English speakers. Document in verbatim to be provided in cases where consent is to be obtained verbally.*

| <i>Research Methods</i> | <i>Methods of Gaining Consent</i>   |
|-------------------------|---|
| Qualitative Method      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• There will be two approaches to gain consent of participation amongst food producers. The first approach is to send an email outlining the aim of the project and why they have been selected to participate. The second approach is to bring the consent form and a set of interview questions where email contact is not possible through walk-in session at the production site. Both approaches are considered important and relevant for this study.</li> <li>• The interview will be conducted in both English and Malay languages depending on the respondents preference of language usage and suitability.</li> <li>• Appendix A (consent form), Appendix B (interview questions) and Appendix C (copy of text to be emailed to producers)</li> </ul> |
| Quantitative method     | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The tourists will be randomly selected at the airport and the researcher will instantly administer the survey questionnaires that will include an introduction of project at the front page and a sentence to declare the participation. All tourists will be approached equally and ethically without any personal or sensitive issues to be aroused either related to them or their country of origins.</li> <li>• The survey questions will only be conducted in English language, as the participants are the international tourists.</li> <li>• Appendix D (survey questionnaire).</li> </ul>   |

Will there be any possible harm that your project may cause to participants (e.g. psychological distress or repercussions of a legal, political or economic nature)? What precautions will be taken to minimise the risk of harm to participants?

There are no possible harms that this research project may cause to participants.

**Part F: Data protection**

How will you ensure the security of the data collected? What will happen to the data at the end of the project, (if retained, where and how long for). Please follow guidelines provided by the University of Exeter on Data protection to complete this section.<sup>7</sup>

1. The data will be safe and protected into the external drive and U-drive with password lock.
2. The data will be processed fairly and lawfully.
3. The data will be obtained only for the purposes of the research project, and will not be further processed in any manner incompatible with that purpose.
4. The data will be adequate, relevant and not excessive.
5. The data processed shall not be kept for longer than is necessary.
6. The data will be processed in accordance with the rights of data subjects under the Act.
7. The data will not be transferred anywhere illegally except for Malaysia which I will do the fieldwork.

**Part G: Notes and Additional Information:** Please provide any additional information which may be used to assess your application in the space below.

-NA-

**Part G: Checklist:** Please ensure that all sections are ticked before submission. The form will be rejected without review if any sections are incomplete.

|  |   |  |   |
|--|---|--|---|
| All sections A, B, C (if relevant), D, E, F and G (if relevant) in this form have been completed                                     | / | The study has not started yet  | / |
| Information sheets and consents forms to be used with each research method named in this review are attached                         | / | The form has been signed and dated by the principle investigator/ lead researcher/supervisor   | / |
| Any other relevant documents have been attached (e.g. copies of DBS certificates)  | / | Travel insurance and any related confirmation of insurance are attached (if you haven't arranged travel insurance, this form can be approved, but you should submit your confirmation of insurance to <a href="mailto:UEBS-PGAdmin@exeter.ac.uk">UEBS-PGAdmin@exeter.ac.uk</a> as soon as this is available) | / |
| Where an ethics application has also been submitted to an external ethics panel (NRES) copies of approval letters have been attached |   | Other attachments:   | / |

Signatures:



Please tick the check boxes to confirm the following:

I have considered all ethical implications for this project and declared all the relevant aspects for consideration of the University of Exeter Business School Research Ethics Committee.

I have read and understand the information about insurance contained in this form and will arrange travel insurance in the event that I travel outside the UK to conduct research.

Name: Wan Mohd Adzim Bin Wan Mohd Zain (PhD candidate)

Signature: 

Date: 23.5.17

**Part D: Supervisor's Declaration**

As the supervisor for this research I can confirm that I believe that all research ethics issues have been considered in accordance with the University Ethics Policy and relevant research ethics guidelines.

Name: Joanne Connell (Primary Supervisor)

Signature: *J Connell*

Date: 23.5.17

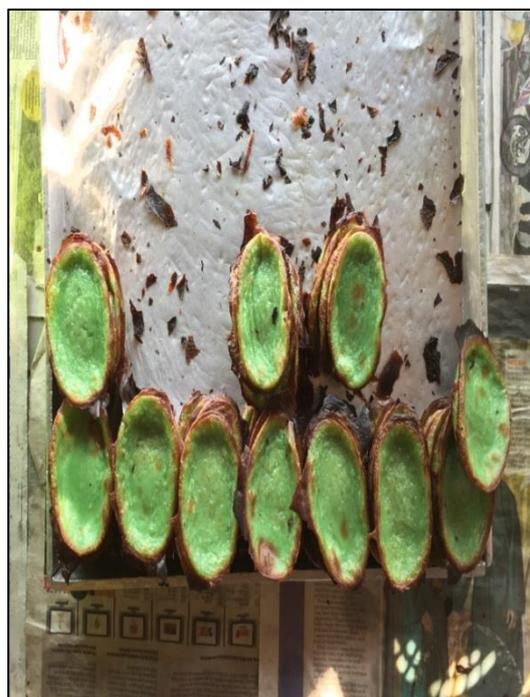
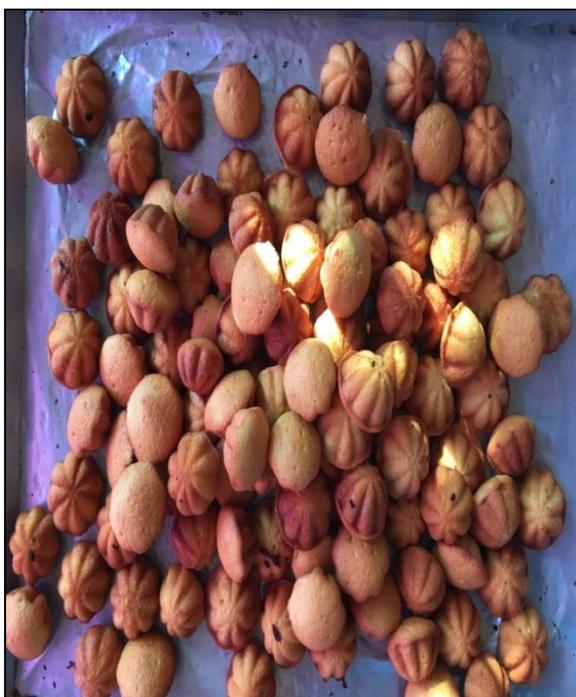
**For administration use only: Ethical Approval**

|  |   |
|--|---|
| <p>Comments of Research Ethics Officer and Research Strategy Group.</p> <p><i>[Note: Have potential risks have been adequately considered and minimised in the research? Does the significance of the study warrant these risks being taken? Are there any other precautions you would recommend?]</i></p> | <p>The researcher has thought about the main risks and provided suitable mitigation through the information sheets and consent forms.</p> |
| <p>This project has been reviewed according to School procedures and has now been approved.</p> <p>Name: Adrian R. Bailey (Research Ethics Officer)</p> <p>Signature: </p> <p>Date: 26<sup>th</sup> May 2017</p>        |   |

**Appendix 5: Local desserts stall near the main road in Gong Badak, Terengganu,**



**Appendix 6: Local desserts from Terengganu (from left; Traditional egg sponge cakes, and right; baked pandan custard)**



**Appendix 7: Fish balls produced at a village in Kuala Terengganu,**

