# INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS' DEMAND ON FOOD TOURISM IN KUALA LUMPUR

# NOOR SYAZANA BINTI NOORDIN

A project report submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of

Master of Science (Tourism Planning)

Faculty of Built Environment Universiti Teknologi Malaysia

#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

In the Name of Allah, Most Gracious, Most Merciful.

First and foremost, I would like praise to Allah SWT because of His Blessing, giving me strength and patience, I was able to complete this project within its own expectation and the allocated time given. I would like to take this opportunity to thanks my supervisor, **Assoc. Prof. TPr. Dr. Hairul Nizam bin Ismail** for his continuous support and guidance towards my research project. I would also like to acknowledge the support of my family members. I cannot express my gratitude towards my parents for their motivation, support and believing in me to finish my research project. It would be impossible for me to even start this journey without the backup they provided me.

Lastly, I would like to thank my course mates, for all the attention and suggestions given in order for me to complete and improve this research project. I am also deeply indebted to all my lecturers and friends of the UTM for their support and invaluable help. I humbly extend thanks to all the people who have co-operated with me in completing this project.

#### **ABSTRACT**

The purpose of this paper is to identify the demand on food tourism in Kuala Lumpur among the International Tourists' who have visited Kuala Lumpur. Food tourism nowadays plays an important role in branding a destination of the place. Kuala Lumpur is well known for varieties of cuisine and this can make it as a food tourism destination in order to attract the International Tourists' to revisit the place. This study is using quantitative approach to measure the food preference, demand and perceived image of Kuala Lumpur on food tourism in Kuala Lumpur. Variable that were identified to measure in this study are the food preference patterns, demand on food tourism and how international tourists' perceived image of Kuala Lumpur on food tourism. In addition, survey questionnaire is chosen because it is consider the most productive tool to collect information that represents the general views of the group. A total of 146 respondents was sampled. Analysis that were used are descriptive and frequency analysis. The findings indicated that the International Tourists' agree to suggest Kuala Lumpur as a food tourism destination. They are interested with the cuisine such as Arabic Cuisine, Thai Cuisine, Malay Cuisine and Indian Cuisine. Overall, they love to explore different type of cuisine in Kuala Lumpur and more studies can be improve on food tourism in Kuala Lumpur for future researchers.

#### **ABSTRAK**

Tujuan kertas ini adalah untuk mengenal pasti permintaan ke atas pelancongan makanan di Kuala Lumpur antara pelancong antarabangsa yang telah melawat Kuala Lumpur. Pelancongan makanan pada masa kini memainkan peranan yang penting dalam penjenamaan destinasi tempat itu. Kuala Lumpur terkenal dengan pelabagai jenis makanan dan ini boleh menjadikan ia sebagai destinasi pelancongan makanan untuk menarik pelancong antarabangsa untuk mengkaji semula tempat tersebut. Kajian ini menggunakan pendekatan kuantitatif untuk mengukur keutamaan makanan, permintaan dan imej tanggapan Kuala Lumpur pada pelancongan makanan di Kuala Lumpur. Pembolehubah yang telah dikenalpasti untuk mengukur dalam kajian ini ialah corak pilihan makanan, permintaan kepada pelancongan makanan dan bagaimana imej pelancong antarabangsa 'tanggapan Kuala Lumpur pada pelancongan makanan. Di samping itu, kajian soal selidik dipilih kerana ia adalah dianggap alat yang paling produktif untuk mengumpul maklumat yang mewakili pandangan umum kumpulan. Seramai 146 responden telah disampel. Kaedah analisis yang digunakan adalah analisis deskriptif dan kekerapan. Hasil kajian menunjukkan bahawa pelancong antarabangsa bersetuju untuk mencadangkan Kuala Lumpur sebagai destinasi pelancongan makanan. Mereka berminat dengan masakan seperti masakan Arab, masakan thai, masakan melayu dan masakan indian. Secara keseluruhan, mereka suka meneroka pelbagai jenis masakan di Kuala Lumpur dan lebih banyak kajian boleh meningkatkan pelancongan makanan di Kuala Lumpur untuk penyelidik masa depan.

# **CHAPTER 1**

# **INTRODUCTION**

# 1.1 Introduction

This chapter is to evaluate the demand on food tourism in Kuala Lumpur. The purpose of this research is to study international tourists' demand on food tourism in Kuala Lumpur. The chapter is divided into nine subchapters which are namely, background of the study, literature review, problem statement, research objectives, research questions, scope of study, conceptual framework, research framework, research approach and instrument, study area, significance of the research and limitation of the research.

# 1.2 Background of the Study

Tourism comprises the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes. Over the decades, tourism has experienced continued growth and deepening diversification to become one of the fastest growing economic sectors in the world. Modern tourism closely linked to the development and encompasses a growing number of new destinations. Additionally, the contribution of tourism to economic well-being depends on the quality and the revenues of the tourism offer. Today, the business volumes of tourism surpasses oil exports, food products or automobiles. Tourism plays a significance role in international commerce and as a main income for many developing countries. Literally, this growth has increasing diversification and competition among other destinations. (World Tourism Organization- UNWTO).

Malaysia's tourism industry is indicating signs of recovery in 2016. Latest figures showing more tourists visiting the country after the slowdown in 2015. Tourist arrivals to Malaysia for January to June 2016 showed improvement, registering a hike of 4% compared to the same period in 2015. The country received 26.8 million tourists compared 25.7 million tourists in 2015. Correspondingly, tourist receipts rise by 18.8%, contributing RM 82.1 billion to the country's revenue against RM 69.1 billion in 2015, which translates to an average per capita expenditure of RM 3.068.2. Besides that, total receipts in shopping also recorded positive growth, with RM 26 billion in 2016 compared to RM 21.6 billion in 2015, which increasing of 20.3%. The average length of stay of a tourist increased 0.4% in 2016 to 5.9 nights. The top 10 tourist generating markets in Malaysia as per 2016 were Singapore (13.3 million), Indonesia (3.1 million), China (2.1 million), Thailand (1.8 million), Brunei (1.4 million), India (0.64 million), South Korea (0.44 million), the Philippines (0.42 million), Japan (0.41 million) and the United Kingdom (0.40 million). The ASEAN region are the largest contributor of tourist arrivals with 75.8% share of the total arrivals. Thailand are among the highest growth (32.5%), followed by Laos (+27%), Brunei (+22.7%), Indonesia (+9.4%) and Singapore (+2.6%). Tourist arrivals from the long-haul markets reached 5.8% share of the total arrivals to Malaysia. (Source by – Tourism Government Malaysia, March 2017).

In Malaysia, tourism is increasing with more and more tourist travelling to Malaysia besides leisure, it has become an ideal place for tourist to experience the food. Malaysia is rich with varieties of food to offer to the tourist. There have been many attempts to promote this growth of food tourism to make it an ultimate destination for food lovers around the world. The importance of tourist trips concerning dining has grown. Food and beverages played a major role in the tourism product, although the supply to the tourist mainly are via hotels, restaurants and resorts. Food is one of the vital elements which develops the experiences of visitors and plays an important role in influencing tourists' selection of a destination (Long, 2004).

In tourism field, there are many names that involves travelling with an interest and motivation. The most common name is food tourism, culinary tourism, cuisine tourism, gourmet tourism, food and wine tourism, food and beverage tourism, rural tourism, cuisine travel, urban tourism, gastronomy tourism and taste tourism, which includes the ideas of travelling to experience and taste food products (Henderson 2004). Culinary tourism includes a large variety of activities such as food festivals, seasonal harvest, brewery tastings, farmers markets, cooking *schools*, *chocolate tasting, cellar-door visits, farm stays and cheese factory* visits mostly for tourists and domestic travellers (Deneault 2003), *wine museum, cheese museum, traditional restaurants* (Bessiere 1998).

According to Hjalager & Corigliano (2000), food tourism give the selection for the tourists to relax (have a coffee in a quiet café), enthusiasm (explore new food and habits), escapism (shift away from daily life/food), status (experience expensive food products), knowledge (gain knowledge about various kinds of food and how to

cook and serve them), lifestyle (to sit outside enjoy the scenery while eating a nice dish). Most travellers will go through the experience of food and beverages. Besides that, food is also related to cultural exchange and it allows the tourist to involve in local customs and learn a better understanding of the unique features of a specific culture (Marsh, Hau, Balla, & Grayson, 1998). Furthermore, food tourism has the potential of competitive advantage in the branding of a country or destination by marketers (Henderson, 2009). Therefore, local food and cuisine has the advantage to increase the importance of differentiating and promoting specific tourist destinations. (Horng & Tsai, 2010).

Kuala Lumpur is the study area for this research. Kuala Lumpur is the capital city of Malaysia. As one of the most vibrant cities in Asian, KL has a distinct and charming character. Many visitors will be greeted by the Petronas Twin Towers, a world renowned icon of the country. It is divided into numerous districts and its main hub is called the Golden Triangle which comprises Bukit Bintang, KLCC and Chinatown. KL is widely recognised for numerous landmarks, including Petronas Twin Towers (the world's tallest twin skyscrapers), Petaling Street flea market, and Batu Caves, which is over 400 million years old. Also, among the biggest tourist attractions in the city are the shopping malls like Pavilion KL and Suria KLCC which range of upmarket labels from all over the world. Besides that, KL is rich with food delights that serves thousands of hawker stalls, cafes and restaurants with different type of delicacies. The purpose of choosing the study area in Kuala Lumpur are because Ashworth (2011), mentioned that tourist visit cities for many purposes either as primary attractions or as providers of supportive facilities, especially transport and accommodation. Kuala Lumpur is accessible by using public transport such as bus, train, and taxi. Generally, the tourist will use all the urban facilities and services for their convenience.

However, this research will look in depth of the international tourist demand on food tourism in Kuala Lumpur. The aim of this research is to provide an understanding of how to make food tourism more attractive and popular among the international tourist and how the demand can improve the food tourism in Kuala Lumpur. This research will focus on what international tourist demand understand by food tourism and the role of food tourism that are serve in Kuala Lumpur.

#### 1.3 Problem Statement

Kuala Lumpur is the federal capital and most populous city of Malaysia. Kuala Lumpur is the fastest growing metropolitan area of the country. It has an estimated population of 1.76 million people in 2016. Furthermore, by 2020, Kuala Lumpur is projected to have a population of 2.2 million. Besides that, Kuala Lumpur has numerous of great places to enjoy a nice breakfast, lunch or dinner and there are many options for the international tourist. However, many researchers have discussed on the issues of food tourism, but this research will focused on international tourist's demand on food tourism in Kuala Lumpur.

#### 1. International Tourist Demand on Food Choice Behaviour

Understanding international tourist behaviour patterns are essential in food tourism. According to Chen (2007), personal interests and behaviours are vital elements to make a food choice decision. Hence, when people are selecting different food styles and express their pickiness in choosing a food this is based on their personality traits. (Furst, Connors, Bisogni, Sobal & Falk, 1996).

# 2. Understanding the Level Interest of International Tourist in Food Tourism

To understand the level interest of international tourist in food tourism is very crucial because it can be used as a tool for segmenting the market that facilitate the development of food tourism in a country.

# 3. Kuala Lumpur is not a Hub for Food Tourism

Kuala Lumpur is rich with varieties of food but it is more well-known for shopping heaven among the tourist. As for international tourist, they will usually come to KL for shopping and visit all the attractions like KLCC and Pavilion. However, there are a bunch of food lovers who like to try different type of food in KL.

# 1.4 Research Objective

The aim of the study is to evaluate the demand on food tourism in Kuala Lumpur. The purpose of this research is to study international tourist demand on food tourism in Kuala Lumpur.

The objective of this research are as follow:

- 1. To determine type of food preferences by the international tourists in Kuala Lumpur with specific reference to food tourism.
- 2. To identify the demand on food tourism in Kuala Lumpur.

3. To investigate the perception of international tourists' perceived image of Kuala Lumpur on food tourism.

# 1.5 Research Questions

As stated in this research objectives, this study will evaluate the demand on food tourism in Kuala Lumpur and to seek the issue that have been discussed by previous researchers.

Therefore, it focuses on the following questions:

- 1. What are the type of food preferences by international tourists in Kuala Lumpur with specific reference to food tourism?
- 2. To what extent are the demand of food tourism in Kuala Lumpur?
- 3. How to investigate the perception of international tourists' perceived image of Kuala Lumpur on food tourism?

# 1.6 Scope of Study

- 1. Determining the type of food preferences by the international tourists in Kuala Lumpur with specific reference to food tourism.
- 2. Identifying the demand on food tourism in Kuala Lumpur.
- 3. Investigating the perception of international tourists' perceived image of Kuala Lumpur on food tourism.

# 1.7 Conceptual Framework

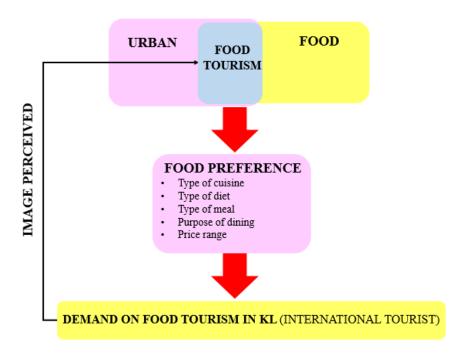
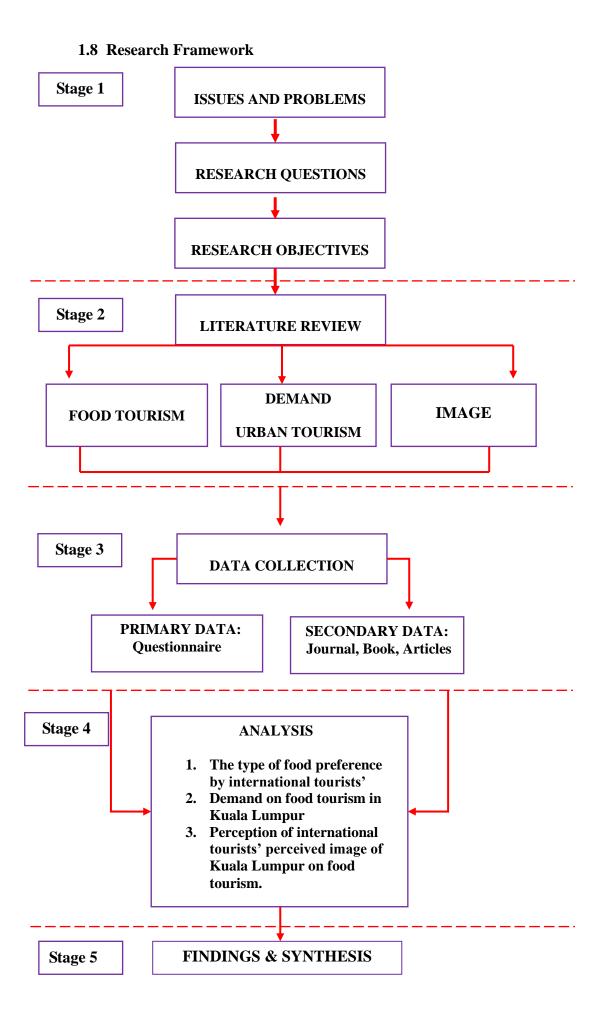


Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework for this Study



The framework of the study based on figure 1.1 in order to conduct the research. It is divided into five stages. Stage 1 and Stage 2 is a desk study. In the Stage 1 is identification of issues and problem of the research, and then formulation of the research questions and objectives based on the problem and what to reach from the research. From stage 2 it's involved assessment of secondary data which are by reviewing previous research, journals, articles, book, news and other related to the research. The review including:

- The type of food preference by international tourists'.
- The demand of food tourism in Kuala Lumpur.
- The perception of international tourists' perceived image of Kuala Lumpur on food tourism.

While for the Stage 3 is the process of data collection where it include primary data collection as well as secondary data collection. The details as follows:

- Primary data Questionnaire survey will be done in Kuala Lumpur. The targeted sample for this study is international tourist in Kuala Lumpur.
- Secondary data Information related to the research will be gathered from various sources such as books, articles, journals, newspaper, internet. From these sources, it will look into the concept of the study, case study and more.

Next, Stage 4 which is the analysis of the study. In this stage, several analysis technique will be used in order to identify the expected outcomes. It will be carried out according to the objectives and scopes of the study. The results get from the analysis will provide the information for next stage of the study.

Lastly, Stage 5 is the findings and synthesis process. In this stage, all of the information obtained from the findings will be synthesized in order to compare with the research question that has been identified at the Stage 1 of the research.

# 1.9 Research Approach and Instrument

Researcher should come out with background of the research and understand it in order to support the research. In doing research also, three reason that researcher need to understand about the background of the research. First, it will help researcher in explaining the designated of the research in collecting and translating the sources to answer the research question. Second, it will help researcher to determine the appropriateness of the designated research. Finally, it can identify some appropriate approach in doing research. As for this research, a quantitative approach is used, and it will focus on the results from a large number of people, instead of focusing on individuals. Besides that, quantitative methodologies also provides richness and diversity of data via survey as promising data collection method in capturing personal interpretations and experiences in a particular context effectively, and produce more genuine data and findings.

The research instrument used to conduct this study consist of structured questionnaire. Questionnaire used in this research because this is a data collection instrument mostly used in normative surveys. This instrument a systematically prepared form or document with a set of questions deliberately designed to elicit responses from respondents or research informants for the purpose of collecting data or information. It is a form of inquiry document, which contains a systematically compiled and well organized series of questions intended to elicit the information which will provide insight into the nature of the problem under study. It is a form that contains a set of questions on a topic or group of topics designed to be answered by the respondent. The respondents are the population samples of the study. The

answers provided by the respondents constitute the data for the research. Structures questionnaire form is formulated to facilitate the research by using theme that has been identified. The theme identified is based on the objective of the study.

# 1.10 Study Area

This research will be conducted in Kuala Lumpur. Kuala Lumpur has an estimated 2016 population of 1.76 million people in an area of just 94 square kilometres (243 square kilometres). Kuala Lumpur is the fastest growing metropolitan area of the country. Ranked as an alpha world city, Kuala Lumpur is growing with its economic, financial and cultural city of the country and one of the three Malaysian Federal territories.

Kuala Lumpur or 'Muddy Estuary' began as a settlement of tin miners in 1857. Raja Abdullah Raja Ja'afar a Malay chief, sent a group of 87 Chinese miners upriver from the coastal town of Klang to open up a new and larger tin mines in the interior of the state of Selangor at Ampang, Pudu and Batu. As time passes by, these tin miners sailed with their heavily laden boats and landed at the muddy estuary of the Gombak and Klang rivers. It is the most interior point of waterway where their vessels could reach. Back then, the miners established a small base at this confluence and soon it became an important settlement that flourished and became known as Kuala Lumpur.

However, much of Kuala Lumpur's growth coincided with the industrial revolutions in North America and the British Empire, which increased the demand for the tin. It started with the international interest in tin (especially of the British). The Chinese with considerable mining experience in their own country, were among the first foreigners to tap Malaysia's tin deposits into commercial production.

Following the repression of the Manchu rulers in China during this period, thousands of southern Chinese workers came to work in these newly discovered tin mines of Selangor. Later, there was a violent period of Kuala Lumpur's history that initially among the Malay rulers fighting for the rights to the tin and involving Chinese secret societies to control of tin-rich district in Selangor. The incident happened in 1867 when the Selangor Civil War erupted and lasted till 1874.

A year into this civil war, Yap Ah Loy was declared as the third 'Kapitan China', a position he assumed during intense conflict among the Malay rulers. Many people still regarded him as the founder of Kuala Lumpur and the settlement expanded under his leadership. However, the civil war forced Yap Ah Loy to leave Kuala Lumpur and by the time he returned in 1873, much of the small town was in ruins. Meanwhile, at the request of the merchants of the Straits Settlements, the British intervened to end the Selangor Civil War. On 20 January 1874, they brokered the Pangkor Engagement that empowered a new British supported ruler for Selangor. Then, the Pangkor Engagement introduced the concept of British Residents, which had a profound effect on Kuala Lumpur. As the consultants to the various Sultans around Malaysia, the Residents (British Civil Servants) advised on all matters except those that touching on Malay religion and customs.

In 1875, the colonial rule began when a British resident was appointed to 'advise' the Malay Sultans. In 1880, the British Resident for Selangor, Bloomfield Douglas relocated the Selangor British Administration from Klang to Kuala Lumpur. From the 1880, British government offices were built across the river from the unruly Chinese settlement on the east bank. In 1881, a major fire destroyed the makeshift huts of the Chinese settlement. The British in firm control of the administration had insisted that the areas destroyed by fire as well as new buildings be built using bricks and tiles, and resulting in the Chinatown we see today. Sir Frank Sweettenham, the British Resident of Selangor from 1882 to 1884, however planned to rebuild Kuala Lumpur to take its present form. After half of the century, there were thousands of Chinese tin miners in Malaya (old name of the country before the

formation of Malaysia in 1963). In 1889, Swettenham persuaded four of the Malay Sultans to unite under the Federated Malay States (FMS). Later then, Swettenham went on to become Resident General and chose Kuala Lumpur as the capital of the newly formed FMS. The multiracial community of this period was settled in various sections of town. Market Square, east of Klang River became the commercial centre for the whole town. The Chinese congregated around this Square and south into Chinatown. To the North, across the Java Street (now called Jalan Tun Perak) were the Malays community. Also, nearby were a number of Indian Chettiars (money lenders) and Indian Muslim traders set up business. West of the Klang river was the focal point of the British Administration. Malaya obtained independence in 1957, with Kuala Lumpur as its capital. Kuala Lumpur remained the capital through the formation of Malaysia, achieving city status in 1972 and Federal Territory status in 1974.

Kuala Lumpur being the capital of Malaysia, as a focal point of entertainment, commercial and business is the heart where most of popular landmarks in Malaysia. The main attractions of Kuala Lumpur are Petronas Twin Tower, KL Tower and Merdeka Square. Besides that, Kuala Lumpur also known as shopping paradise. Shopping complex such as Kuala Lumpur City Centre, Pavilion, Gardens, Mid Valley Megamall and Berjaya Times Square are the main attraction for shoppers. Tourist can also go shopping at Chinatown, Petaling Street or Jalan Masjid India for great flea market with huge variety of stalls. Furthermore, the surrounding area in Kuala Lumpur contains a large number of attractions and sights such at Bukit Nanas Forest Reserve, the National Monument, Butterfly and Bird Park and the National Planetarium are among the interesting places to see. For architecture lovers, can find interesting places like old Railway Station, Parliament House and Sultan Abdul Samad where the Supreme Court is. There are plenty of restaurants in Kuala Lumpur where you can find Malay, Indian, Chinese, Thai and other restaurants dishing out the cuisine. Popular Malaysian food includes nasi lemak, satay, rendang, noodles, and roti canai. Besides that, Western cuisine can be found almost everywhere.

Other than that, Kuala Lumpur also function as a hub for cultural activities and economic centre due to its position as the capital city as well as being a primate city. For example, KLCC offers a numerous of interesting attractions such as nightlife, dining and shopping options which making it a popular tourist attraction. With a host of options to choose from dining, arts, culture, recreation, sightseeing, shopping, and entertainment, the tourist won't be stuck with ideas on what to do around this bubbly city. Kuala Lumpur also is a well-developed city with a state of art public transportation services, including buses, taxis, and commuter, LRT, Monorail and MRT too. Based on this research, it will focus on food tourism in Kuala Lumpur. This research will look in depth international tourist's demand on food tourism in Kuala Lumpur.

# 1.11 Significance of the Research

According to the objectives of the study it is to evaluate the demand of food tourism in Kuala Lumpur and the understanding of international tourists' on food tourism. Hence, the significance of this study is to focus on international tourists' demand on food tourism in Kuala Lumpur. This study will determine the demand of food tourism in Kuala Lumpur among the international tourists'. It will attract more international tourist to visit Kuala Lumpur and boost the tourist arrivals for Kuala Lumpur state.

# 1.12 Limitation of the Research

In order to conduct this study, some limitations have been identified such as:

- 1. Purpose of the tourist visit Kuala Lumpur mostly are for shopping and there will be limitation to find the respondent for demand on food tourism.
- 2. Time limitations is the biggest factor because the time are limited to carry out this research.
- 3. Lack of resources will limit the search of information to make more detailed study, especially involving the definition and the main theory also literature review in this study.

#### References

Arnold, H. J. (1982). Moderator variables: A clarification of conceptual, analytic, and psychometric issues. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 29(2), 143-174.

Ashworth, G. J. (1992). "Is there an urban tourism?" *Tourism Recreation Research*, 17 (2), 3-8.

Ashworth, G., Page, S.J. (2009). Urban Tourism Research: Recent Progress and Current Paradoxes. *Progress in Tourism Management*.

Ashworth, G., & Page, S. J. (2011). Urban tourism research: Recent progress and current paradoxes. *Tourism Management*, 32(1), 1-15.

Baker, M. J. (2003). Data collection–questionnaire design. *The Marketing Review*, *3*(3), 343-370.

Birch, L.L. (1999) Development of Food Preferences. *Annual Review of Nutrition*, 19, 41-62

Bessière, J. (1998). Local development and heritage: traditional food and cuisine as tourist attractions in rural areas. *Sociologia Ruralis*, *38*(1), 21-34.

Boyne, S., Hall, D., & Williams, F. (2003). Policy, support and promotion for food-related tourism initiatives: A marketing approach to regional development. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 14(3/4), 131-154.

Burns N. & Grove S.K. (2005) *The Practice of Nursing Research: Conduct, Critique & Utilization*. Elsevier Saunders, St Louis.

Burnett, John. "Plenty and Want: A Social History of English Diet from 1815 to the Present Day". *International Journal of Food Sciences and Nutrition* 21.1 (1967): 7-19. Web.

Burnett, J. (1989). Plenty and Want: A Social History of Food from 1815 to the Present Day (3<sup>rd</sup> Ed.) London: Routledge.

Carlsen, J., & Dowling, R. (2001). Regional wine tourism: a plan of development for Western Australia. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 26(2), 45-52.

Cracolici, M. F., & Nijkamp, P. (2008). The attractiveness and competitiveness of tourist destinations: A study of Southern Italian regions. *Tourism Management*, *30*, 336–344.

Chen. (2007). Consumer attitudes and purchase intentions in relation to organic foods in Taiwan: Moderating effects of food-related personality traits. *Food Quality and Preference*, 18(7), 1008-1021.

Cohen, E., & Avieli, N. (2004). Food in tourism: Attraction and impediment. *Annals of tourism Research*, 31(4), 755-778.

Crouch, G. I., & Richie, J. R. B. (1999). Tourism, competitiveness, and societal prosperity. *Journal of Business Research*, 44, 137–152.

Conner, M. T. (1994). An individualised psychological approach to measuring influences on consumer preferences. In H. J. H. MacFie & D. M. H. Thomson (Eds.), *Measurement of food preferences* (pp. 167–201). London: Blackie Academic and Professional.

Costell, E., Tárrega, A., & Bayarri, S. (2010). Food Acceptance: The Role of Consumer Perception and Attitudes. *Chemosensory Perception*, 3(1), 42-50.

Csergo, J. (1996). The emergence of regional cuisines. In J. L. Flandrin (Eds.), *Food. A Culinary History* (pp. 500-515). New York Columbia University Press.

Delormier, T., Frohlich, K.L., & Potvin, L. (2009). Food and eating as social practice—understanding eating patterns as social phenomena and implications for public health. *Sociology of Health & Illness*, *31* (2), 215-228.

Deneault, M. (2003). How-to-Guide: Develop a Culinary Tourism Product. *Ottawa:* Canadian Tourism Commission.

Drewnowski, A. (1997). Taste preferences and food intake. *Annual Review of Nutrition*, 17, 237-253.

Du Rand, G. E., & Heath, E. (2006). Towards a framework for food tourism as an element of destination marketing. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 9(3), 206-234.

Fields, K. (2002). Demand for the gastronomy tourism product: motivational factors. *Tourism and Gastronomy*, 36-50.

Furst, T., Connors, M., Bisogni, C. A., Sobal, J., & Falk, L. W. (1996). Food choice: a conceptual model of the process. *Appetite*, 26(3), 247-266.

Fox, R. (2003). Food and eating: an anthropological perspective. *Social Issues Research Centre*, 1-21.

Garcia-Bailo, B., Toguri, C., Eny, K.M., and El-Sohemy, A. (2009). Genetic variation in taste and its influence on food selection. *A Journal of Integrative Biology*, Vol. 13(1), 69-80.

Gallarza, M.G., Saura, I.G. and Garcı'a, H.C. (2002), "Destination image: towards a conceptual framework", *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 29 No. 1, pp. 56-72.

Green, G.P., & Dougherty, M. L. (2008). Localizing linkages for food and tourism: Culinary tourism as a community development strategy. *Community Development*, 39 (3), 148-158.

Hall, C. M., & Mitchell, R. (2000). Wine tourism in the Mediterranean: A tool for restructuring and development. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 42(4), 445-465.

Hall, C. H., (2004). Preface. In C. M Hall, ed. Wine, food and tourism marketing. New York: *Haworth Hospitality Press*, xiii.

Handszuh, H. (2000). Local food in tourism policies, *Paper presented at the International Conference on Local Food and Tourism*, Larnaka, Cyprus.

Hall & Mitchell, R. (2006). Gastronomy, food and wine tourism. In D. Buhails & C. Costa (Eds), *Tourism Business Frontiers: Consumers, Produces and Industry* (pp. 137-147). Amsterdam: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.

Harrington, R. J., & Ottenbacher, M. C. (2010). Culinary tourism- A case study of the gastronomic capital. *Journal of Culinary Science & Technology*, 8 (1), 14-32.

Hashimoto, A., & Telfer, D. J. (2006). Selling Canadian culinary tourism: Branding the global and the regional product. *Tourism Geographies*, 8(1), 31-55.

Hazbun, W. (2003, March). New Agenda for Tourism Development in the Arab World. Based on a paper prepared for "The New Agenda: The Arab World in the 21st Century". *International Conference on League of Arab States*, Cairo, Egypt.

Henderson, J.C. (2004), "Food as a tourism resource: a view from Singapore", *Tourism Recreation Research*, Vol. 29 No. 3, pp. 69-74.

Henderson. (2009). Food Tourism Reviewed. British Food Journal, 111 (4), 317-326.

Heal, F. (1972). Hospitality in Early Modern England. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Hjalager, A. M., & Corigliano, M. A. (2000). Food for tourists--determinants of an image. *The International Journal of Tourism Research*, 2(4), 281.

Horng, J. S., & Tsai, C.T. (2010). Government websites for promoting East Asian culinary tourism: *A cross-national analysis*. *Tourism Management*, *31* (1), 74-85.

Hutton, Wendy and Luca Invernizzi Tettoni. 2005. *Authentic Recipes from Malaysia*. Singapore: Periplus

Iordache, C. and Cebuc, I. (2009). The influence of juridical regulations upon tourist town planning. *Theoretical and Empirical Researches in Urban Management*, 1(10), pp. 86-92.

Ignatov, E., & Smith, S. (2006). Segmenting Canadian culinary tourists. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 9 (3), 235-255.

Jansen-Verbeke, M. (1986). Inner-city tourism: resources, tourists and promoters. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *13*(1), 79-100.

Jacoby, J., & Mazursky, D. (1986). Exploring the development of store images. *Journal of Retailing*, 62(2), 145-165.

Jang, S., Ha, A. and Silkes, C.A. (2009), "Perceived attributes of Asian foods: from the perspective of the American customers", *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 28 No. 1, pp. 63-70.

Jaeger, S. R., Andani, Z., Wakeling, I. N., &MacFie, H. J. H. (1998). Consumer preferences for fresh and aged apples: a cross-cultural comparison. *Food Quality and Preference*, 9(5), 355-366.

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

Kittler, P. & Sucher, K. (1989). *Food and Culture in America: A Nutrition Handbook*, New York, NY: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Köster, E.P. (2009). Diversity in the determinants of food choice: A psychological perspective. *Food Quality and Preference*, 20, 70-82.

Leisen, B. (2001). Image segmentation: the case of a tourism destination. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 15(1), 49-66.

Lin, Y.C. (2006), "Food Images in Destination Marketing", unpublished doctoral thesis, ProQuest, Purdue University, UMI Dissertation Publishing, Lafayette, IN.

Lin, Y. C., Pearson, T.E., & Cai, L. A. (2011). Food as a form of destination identity: A tourism destination brand perspective. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 11 (1), 30-48.

Long, L. M. (2004), Culinary Tourism: A folkloristic on eating and otherness, Lexington, K.Y.: *The University Press of Kentucky*, 20-50.

Martineau, P. (1958). The personality of the retail store. Journal of Retailing, 52 (Fall), 37-46.

Marsh, H. W., Hau, K. T., Balla, J. R., & Grayson, D. (1998). Is more ever too much? The number of indicators per factor in confirmatory factor analysis. *Multivariate behavioral research*, *33*(2), 181-220.

MalaysianFood.net. http://www.malaysianfood.net/index.html (accessed 1 December 2008)

McKercher, B., Okumus, F., & Okumus, B. (2008). Food tourism as a viable market segment: It's all how you cook the numbers. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 25(2), 137.

McIntosh, E. (1995). *American Food Habits in Historical Perspective*, Westport, CT: Praeger.

Mitchell, R., & Hall, C. M. (2003). Consuming tourists: food tourism consumer behaviour. In Hall (Ed.), *Food Tourism Around the World: Development, Management, and Markets (pp. 60-80)*. Oxford: Taylor & Francis Ltd.

Muller, T. E. (1991). Using personal values to define segments in an international tourism market. *International Marketing Review*, 8(1).

Nestle, M., Wing, R., Birch, L. DiSorga, L., Drewnowski, A., Middleton, S., Sobal, J. and Winston, M. (1998). Behavioral and Social Influences on Food Choice. *Nutrition Reviews*, Vol. 56, No. 5, 50-74

Ottenbacher, M., & Harrington, R. (2010). Culinary tourism- A case study of the gastronomic capital. *Journal of Culinary Science & Technology*, 8(1), 14-32.

Page, S. J. and Hall C. M. (2003). *Managing Urban Tourism*. Prentice Hall. 17

Parsa, H. & Khan, M. (1992). Menu trends in quick service restaurant industry during the various stages of industry life cycle (1919-1988), *Hospitality Research Journal*, 15(1), 93-107.

Phillimore, J., & Goodson, L. (2004). *Qualitative research in tourism: Ontologies, epistemologies and methodologies* (Vol. 14). Psychology Press.

Pearce, Douglas. *Tourist Development*. Harlow: Longman Scientific & Technical, 1994.

Pearce, D. G. (1982). Recreation research and policy: Implications of the Westland National Park economic impact study, *Tourism Recreation Research*, 7(2) and 8(1), 7-11.

Pearce, D. G. (1987a). *Tourism Today: a Geographical Analysis*, Longman, Harlow and John Wiley, New York.

Prescott, J., & Bell, G. (1995). Cross-cultural determinants of food acceptability: Recent research on sensory perceptions and preferences. *Trends in Food Science & Technology*, 6(6), 201-205.

Qing-Chi, C.G., Chua, B.L., Othman, M. and Ab Karim, S. (2013), "Investigating the structural relationships between food image, food satisfaction, culinary quality, and behavioral intentions: the case of Malaysia", *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, Vol. 14 No. 2, pp. 99-120.

Quan, & Wang, N. (2004). Towards a structural model of tourist experience: An illustration from food experiences in tourism. *Tourism Management*, 25 (3), 297-305.

Randall, E., & Sanjur, D. (1981). Food preferences – Their conceptualization and relationship to consumption. *Ecology of Food and Nutrition*, 11, 151–161.

Richards, G. (2002). Gastronomy: An essential ingredient in tourism production and consumption? In A.-M. Hjalanger & G. Richards (Eds.), *Tourism and gastronomy* (pp. 51-70). London: Routledge.

Rozin, P., & Vollmecke, T. A. (1986). Food likes and dislikes. *Annual Review of Nutrition*, 6, 433–456.

Saukko, P. (2003). Doing research in cultural studies: An Introduction to Classical and New Methodological Approaches (Vol. 137). Sage.

Shaw, G. and Williams, A. (2002). *Critical Issues in Tourism: A Geographical Perspective*, Oxford: Blackwell.

Stanciulescu, G. C. (2009). The role of urban marketing in the local economic development. *Theoretical and Empirical Researches in Urban Management*, 1(10), pp.114-135

Santich, B. (2004). The study of gastronomy and its relevance to hospitality education and training. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 23(2004), 15-24.

Schmidhauser, H. (1975). Travel propensity and travel frequency, pp. 53-60 in Burkart, A. J. and Medlik, S. (eds.), *The Management of Tourism*, Heinemann, London.

Schmidhauser, H. (1976). The Swiss travel market and its role within the main tourist generating countries of Europe, *Tourist Review*, 31 (4), 15-18.

Schofield, P. (2011). City resident attitudes to proposed tourism development and its impacts on the community. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 13(3), 218-233.

Scarpato, R. (2002). Perspective of gastronomy studies. In Hjalager, A, and Richard, G. (Eds), *Tourism and Gastronomy*. Routledge. London, pp. 51-70.

Sekaran, U. (2003). Research methods for business. Hoboken.

Sobal, J., & Bisogni, C. A. (2009). Constructing food choice decision. *Annals of Behavioral Medicine 38*(supplement 1), 37-46.

Song, H, G Li, SF Witt and B Fei (2010). Tourism demand modelling and forecasting: How should demand be measured? *Tourism Economics*, 16(1), 63–81.

Shepherd, R. (1999). Social determinants of food choice. *The Proceedings of the Nutrition Society*, 58(4), 807-812.

Stones, R. (2005). Structuration theory. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.

Sims, R. (2009). Food, place and authenticity: local food and the sustainable tourism experience. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(3), 321-336.

Smith, S. (2007). Analysis of tourists attending a culinary event: Motivations, satisfaction, and behavioral outcomes.

Smith, S., & Costello, C. (2009). Culinary tourism: Satisfaction with a culinary event utilizing importance-performance grid analysis. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 15 (2), 99-110.

Stewart, J. W., Bramble, L., & Ziraldo, D. (2008). Key challenges in wine and culinary tourism with practical recommendations. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 20(3), 303-312.

Tideman, M. C. (1984) Less Dutch holidaymakers in 1982, *Tourist Review*, 38(2), 28.

Verbeke, W. and Lopez, G.P. (2005), "Ethnic food attitudes and behaviour among Belgians and Hispanics living in Belgium", *British Food Journal*, Vol. 107 No. 11, pp. 823-840.

Warde, A., & Martens, L. (2000). *Eating out: Social differentiation, consumption and pleasure*. Cambridge University Press.

Wahab, S. E. A. (1975) *Tourism Management*, Tourism International Press, London.

Wenkman, N. (1969). *Cultural determinants of nutritional behaviour*, Nutrition Programs News, July/August.

Williams, P. W., & Dossa, K. B. (2003). Non-resident wine tourist markets: Implications for British Columbia's emerging wine tourism industry. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 14(3-4), 1-34.

Xiao, & Smith. (2008). Culinary tourism supply chains: A preliminary examination. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(3), 289-299.

Yeomans, M.R. (2007) Psychobiological mechanisms in food choice, MacFie, H. (ed.): *Consumer-led food product development* Cambridge, UK: Woodhead Publishing Limited.

Yamane, T. (1967). Elementary sampling theory.

Yoder, D. (1972). "Folk Cookery." In Folklore and Folklife: An introduction. In R. M. Dorson (Eds.) pp. 325. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Zhang, H., Fu, X., Cai, L.A. and Lu, L. (2014), "Destination image and tourist loyalty: a meta-analysis", *Tourism Management*, Vol. 40 No. 1, pp. 213-223.

Zainal, A., Zali, A. N., & Kassim, M. N. (2008). Malaysia Gastronomy Routes for Tourist Destinations. *Gastronomic Tourism Conference*, 8.