

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEWS

In this study, the researcher aims to study an Innovative Model for Cultural Tourism Management: Local Islamic Food in the Andaman Sea Region for Supporting the International Tourists. That is, the researcher studied additional information based on the following concepts, theories, and related researches:

1. Identity of local Islamic food
2. The management of Creative Cultural Food Tourism
3. Participation of community
4. Behavior and needs of cultural-food tourists
5. Marketing composition and value added creations for tourism
6. Tourism management innovations
7. Related research

1. Identity of Local Islamic Food

1.1 Meaning of Identity

Identity is the expression of oneself including the uniqueness and special characteristics of a particular individual's, goods, services, or products. In these days, identity is an important component for businesses to be successful; also, it represents uniqueness and provides support in terms of image or particularity of the products and organizations.

Identity means the sum of the uniqueness of a particular object which is made well-known or recognized. Each society has its own cultural identity. Globalization has caused a change in Thai society. The way to create a clear identity can be separated into many important topics, which are based on the particularity of each business and their surrounding factors. In this research, the main topic concerns local Islamic food products' identity, which consist of components in terms of uniqueness, symbolic expressions, image of the products, and dominant characteristics of the tourism products' uniqueness which are summarized below:

1.1.1 Uniqueness refers to remarkable characteristics, especially in reference to local Islamic food of which goods or products can display their distinctive characteristics well. This is because the Islamic food is local, unique, and specific. Even though the food is called Islamic it contains different specific characteristics in the different localities. The distinction, in this case, is the appeal which is the means to arouse customers' desire by creating a need. One that is able to attract target customers and motivate them to want to purchase a particular product. Appeal is the theme of that particular type of advertisement of which the object designed to attract the target customers is what is to be considered. Therefore, we should explore what the customers want, e.g. comfort, convenience originality, etc. If we know exactly what the customers want, it will be easier to find an appealing way to attract them. There are many ways to determine what will appeal to customers such as:

1) **Self-Inspection** is one way to investigate whether the company which supplies goods or services has advertising which presents its products with appeal. This method determined by an individual or on a group basis.

2) **Consulting Lists of Inspective Tendency** is a rather organized method that asserts that human beings are stimulated by psychological and physiological pressure. These things can be useful in advertising products such as food the advertisement should be in a way that offers psychological satisfaction relating to hunger or the desire to eat the food in the advertisement.

3) **Conventional Sources of Ideas** involve customers' preferences and purchasing ability including impression.

4) **Creative Research** is an objective research that aims to obtain points of view and useful information from creative persons so that appeal can be decided on in particular situations.

It can be noted that choosing an appeal for an advertisement in order to achieve effectiveness normally depends on the mixing components and suitability in many aspects. Moreover, the appeal is dependent on each society during a particular time; that is, the results of using one appeal at a certain time may not be as effective as the same appeal used at another time. In addition, a slogan may be created to combine important thoughts about product or reasons to purchase the product to help

customers develop ideas about the product and remember their brands. The slogan is a tool for continuity and unity in advertising. That is to say, the stories in product advertisements within different series keep changing but the slogan stays the same. Additionally, the slogan creates a distinctive personality and is easily recognized together with the product.

1.1.2 Symbol is the result of graphic design involved with symbolism, which includes symbolic pictures and marks that build the identity that is of the products and their manufacturing company. For example, a symbol design for both the products and their manufacturing companies which can create its own unique identity for customers' remembrance, reliability, and a long-lasting imprint on their hearts, can have the following different characteristics:

1) Symbol is considered a tool without any letters featured. It expresses a collaboration e.g. companies, organizations, legally established institutions, etc.

2) Pictograph no letters are involved but pictures, which express or communicate directions or activities, or substitute particular objects such as safety direction or transportation symbols.

3) Letter marks are normally in the form of abbreviated phrases or the full name of organizations, companies, or institutions. They can be a substitution symbol.

4) Logos are pronounced according to the language's phonetics and only consist of letters.

5) Combination marks are marks used together and suitably related.

6) Trademarks are displayed in five different forms, as mentioned earlier, which depend on the entrepreneur's decision of what form or position the trademark should have including suitability (Prachit, 1987).

Additionally, symbols are also connected with memorization ability, expression or communication through different types of media; for example, using meaning derivation within a pictogram instead of verbal speech as a medium for delivering information to every level of interlocutors who may or may not understand the language but do get the message from symbols if they are seen often. In general,

symbols can be used together with the message to be presented on signs or in different kinds of media. Symbolic pictures can be separated into the following two types:

1) Symbolic pictures of tourist attractions are used along with messages telling about attractions inside national parks which are direction signs and names of the attractions.

2) Symbolic pictures in service sections are included with messages showing service activities, which compose of activities available inside the national parks, e.g. public relations or the tourism service center, telephones, restaurants, toilets, parking lots, etc. Symbolic pictures are considered public pictograms, which are termed as public for every level, gender, age, and nationality of tourists. Therefore, it is necessary that they should be composed of features presented meaningfully and clearly; that is, they should be in a form which is easy to understand and prevents ambiguity and misunderstanding.

Also, there should be images simulating the dominant features of those remarkable places or activities of the particular tourist attractions that tourists can recognize within a short time and remember for a long time. Moreover, they should contain a clear pattern and be visible from both near or far away distances. The symbolic pictures should also be fine, eye-catching, orderly, and relevant to each of all other pictures as a unity. The relevancy among the symbolic pictures and other compositions on the sign should also be taken into consideration. Lastly, the fast, convenient, and uncomplicated production should be produced so as to save time and cost.

In conclusion, symbols are one of the most important compositions for communicating an organization's image as humans usually perceive things through a visual nature. The brand logo of organizations, therefore, can create perception and memorization within the target groups by relying on different kinds of media or channels which are unlimited. The brand logo has become an important composition which plays a major role in communication about the organization and it can be more powerful than the name of organization.

1.1.3 Image is the sum of objective facts and personal judgments and is formed by the perception of an individual towards each particular thing.

Image can be put into the following four categories:

1) **The image of an organization** is the picture which exists in the minds of people towards a particular organization including the management and arrangement of goods and services of the organization.

2) **Institution image** is the picture which occurs in people's minds towards an institution. Mostly, it puts emphasis on the institution itself but only the organization not the goods and services. Hence, this kind of image is a reflection of management and the processes of the organization in terms of human resources management (managers and employees), social responsibility, and public volunteering.

3) **Product/Service Image** is the picture which exists in people's minds towards only the goods and services of the organization --not including the organization itself or the company. Each organization or company may produce various kinds of goods and plenty of brands to be in the market. Therefore, this kind of image is the overall picture of all products or services under the responsibility of that particular company.

4) **Brand Image** is the picture that appears in people's minds towards a particular brand, which makes them view such goods and services above other competitors and which leaves a lasting memory in the minds of consumers. Although many brands come from the same company, it is not necessary for all the brands to contain the same image because the brand image is considered unique and is based on product positioning of the particular brands of which differentiation is specified by the company to be more outstanding than other brands.

However, image can be created and also changed continuously. It may change from a good image to bad image or from a bad one to a good one. Thus, building an image, especially a good one, needs time and may not be successful within a limited time. The reason is that it develops and gradually grows until its roots become planted in people's minds and attitudes or feelings. As a result a reputation, honour, admiration, respect, and faith can eventually be gained. That is to say, an image can be created, and the public relations play a big role in supporting and changing the organization's image.

1.1.3.1 Image building and management techniques

Apart from planning systematic communication of brand image in order to create a desirable image as mentioned earlier, the image building and management of numerous business corporations depend on the following important techniques or strategies:

1) Management Decisions

Building the organization's image requires consent and decision making by executives based on reliable information from research. Especially, should the executives be those who specify the 'corporate wish' image in relation to expected long-term effects on the organization's reputation.

2) Outside Agencies

Making a decision on use of outside agencies or consultants to be responsible for processing in directly communicating the organization's image is a highly effective method as the communication process and image management is heavy burden which relies on strategic planning and processing which requires expertise that has stability and continuity. Moreover, in processing communication, there are various techniques and many details that must be conducted systematically and taken care of thoroughly. That is, the organization's public relations are the ones who have control over the policy and process directions, so that, in the end, this will bring success to building the organization's image.

3) Sponsorship

This method can normally have a positive influence on social members' feelings both in terms of support for public charities e.g. donations for the government hospital's new building, etc. and of aid in the form of things i.e. labour and money donated for arranging activities for the community.

4) Word of Mouth

Since communication between individuals can have advantages both in terms of relationships and reliability, word of mouth passed from one person to another can be a powerful channel for an organization to spread information. Especially, in such an era where online communication technology is an effective spreading tool, passing words or impressive stories about an organization can reach a wide range of people and shape their perceptions within a short amount of

time even though both sides are vastly distant. Therefore, it is necessary for the organization to develop a plan and try to create value with stories that have social appeal as well as those that emphasize organizational cultures, working process results, creative social activities and so on.

5) Corporate Advertising

Many big businesses see the importance of allocating a big annual budget to be spent on advertising the organization's value through different kinds of media by investments in advertising on radio and websites which have lesser costs than the budget to purchase advertising by press which includes daily and weekly newspapers and magazines with a high sales rate. Moreover, many businesses use television as a medium to communicate their uniqueness and to earnestly and continuously create an organization's image by investing sky-high costs in producing a commercial and buying the air time. As for the advantages of each kind of advertising media which are able to reach a wide range of people, there is importance in the way to purchase the media for advertising the organization, and such media can tell the details of the organization in order to create an impression according to the limits and direction which the organization has specified without abridgement.

6) Corporate Image Evaluation

Verifying the organization's image at least twice a year will help gather valuable information for the target achievement of that particular organization's communication. That is, feedback assessment should be conducted to enhance communication strategies, communication plans, as well as, techniques and methods to reach each target group more effectively.

To summarize, while the organization's uniqueness is intentionally designed for systematic communication with the target groups, the organizational image may not be conveyed to the minds of those in the target groups in a way that the organization wants.

1.1.4 Trait is a property or a distinctive nature of something. In addition, the Royal Institute stated that a trait is a mark or the tool for pointing out goodness or regular features. Moreover, traits can be learned and transmitted heritably to react to stimulus or specific experience. Generally, "trait" is also an important

component of identifiable character because trait is the distinctive nature of different individuals.

Generally, the character of an organization or its products is usually indicated by:

1) **Simplicity:** Noted as uncomplicated, placing emphasis on one idea which can be expanded to various creative ideas in the future.

2) **Uniqueness:** The chosen main idea has to be different from those of competitors, for example, if technology is mainly presented as uniqueness, expertise and modern technology should also be talked about.

3) **Appropriateness:** The suitability of the institutional advertisement to attract people to the trait of an organization. The successful institutional advertisement should be relevant to the trait or the objectives of the organization.

4) **Relevance:** Good institutional advertisements should reach the first target group selected.

5) **Foresight:** The main objective of advertising for building image is to reach the receivers before they can have negative attitudes towards the organization, so this kind of advertisement will adjust the receivers' point of view towards the organization in the right way.

6) **Continuity:** Continuity is a necessary factor of successful institutional advertising because this kind of advertisement uses sight to impress vividly and continuously upon one's mind.

7) **Credibility:** Although institutional advertising is well-planned or has high financial support, it is not going to be successful if it does not refer to reality. (Kanlayanee, 1980).

Therefore, in summary, trait is important and is the main component for expressing an individual's goods, or product identity as it is the expression of specific innate traits, and distinctive characteristics which are important in portraying one's own uniqueness.

In conclusion, the significant points on the identity of local Food Tourism products are composed of components in terms of uniqueness, symbol, image, and the special traits of identity of the tourism products. In this research, the

identity of local Islamic food in the Andaman Sea, southern part of Thailand, is being considered as a cultural heritage of Thailand, which can be developed into a tourism product.

1.2 Identity of local southern Thai Islamic food in the Andaman Sea

Thai food is known as one of the cultural heritages of Thailand. This research, presents southern Thai food that has been passed down from many generations. Southern Thai food can help to explain southern people's characteristics and personalities, which are clearly different from those in other regions as seen by their conversation; consumption of hot, spicy, salty, and sour food as main flavours, and use of various kinds of vegetables as side dishes, and spicy dishes. These are expressions of the art and cultures of the southern part of Thailand in terms of food and traditions (Thongyaow and Srisamorn, 1980). The local southern food consumption culture is highly suitable for the climate and health because the climate in the southern part is tropical, wet and normally causes sickness, so most of the food is therefore hot and spicy in order to keep consumers of it warm and to prevent them from contracting illnesses. Thus, most visitors who come to the southern normally want to try the well-known local southern food.

Local people normally pass down customs on food consumption until they become a "food consumption culture" of that particular location which reflect the resources and local wisdom. The southern region is remarkably different from other regions of Thailand; that is, it is a peninsula that lies horizontal from north to south, and its two sides are flanked by the sea. In the east, there is the Gulf of Thailand (which is a part of the Pacific Ocean) while in the west, there is the Andaman Sea (which is a part of the Indian Ocean). Such physical features affect the southern region with its long coast, many gulfs and ponds, numerous islets, and lake in the east of the region. These topographic features are different from other regions of Thailand. Most of the southern region's topography is highly important to the social structure and generates the impetus to steer the cultures of other areas into different directions. Also, these particular ecological features have influenced the historical, economic, social, and cultural development of the communities within this region since the beginning of this era until the present.

In addition, the communities in the southern region have had a long historical development and contact with foreigners since times past so the people there have assimilated various different cultures and have gradually turned them into their own specific cultures. According to Suthiwong Pongpaiboon, the fact that the southern region is a peninsula has encouraged relationships and contact with outside people since long ago. This is one of the important factors which has led to different social and cultural structure for this region. These differences of the physical features of the area and the long standing relationships with other national groups have impacted the people of the southern region --giving them different “cultures” from other regions, especially the “food culture,” which has remarkably distinctive features from other regions in terms of types and kinds of food, ingredients, cooking methods, tastes, and consumption cultures.

Southern people normally eat rice and side courses. The rice eaten is mostly round shaped rice or Asian rice (Scientific name *Oryza sativa*). The side courses are mostly curry e.g. Kaengtaipla, Yellow curry, Nam phrikkapi (a pungent dip made mainly from shrimp paste, chillies, and raw, steamed and/or fried vegetables), and deep-fried fish (fried Pakria). These courses are well-known and generally the most often eaten. A popular menu which is usually eaten has Khāoyam or Nasikerabu and Khanom chin namya (Thai rice noodles served with a fish based sauce). Festive southern food is rather special, such as mussaman curry, green curry, or chilli curry together with a side dish. Apart from the main courses, there are many kinds of desserts of Sat Thai of the tenth lunar month festival which are Kao Tom Look Yon wrapped with palm leaves, KanomLaa (a rice pancake with sugar flavour), Ear-pierced donuts, and KanomKo (sugar dumplings with coconut). Moreover, there is glutinous rice with different pastes or toppings e.g. shrimp topping, chilli curry with shrimp filled with rice sausage; fried candy bats, including one popular dessert in Songkla province called “Tao Kua” or “Lake Sald” (Kobkaew, 1999).

1.3 Kinds of local southern food

Each kind of local southern food is spiced with different ingredients according to culinary methods, ingredients, and mixtures including curry pastes and local vegetables put in the dish that are nutritious for health and also tasty in the southern way. The kinds of local southern food are as follows:

1.3.1 Curry or soup (Tassanee, 1996) can be categorized as mentioned below:

1.3.1.1 Soup made from pounded chilli and put in a chilli paste: This kind of soup normally puts in many more chillies than ones in other regions. Most of the soup is made with fresh water; however, there is also coconut soup but it is not as prevalent as ones in the Central region. The soup made with fresh water is sour soup made from tamarind paste (Yellow curry) and chilli soup, while that made from coconut milk is chilli curry with meat seasoned with a little curcuma e.g. curry with cockles and chaplooleaves (wild be talleafbush). This kind of soup contains more spice than the one in the Central region e.g. Ko-lae curry, curry with southern potatoes, and Islamic curry.

1.3.1.2 Soup made from chilli paste without chillies: This kind of soup is similar to those in the Central region which are hot and spicy from peppers. However, in this kind of soup, coconut milk is normally used as the soup e.g. coconut soup with jackfruit or with pakria or pure water soup. There is also pure water soup such as KaengLiengMalakho (Thai Spicy Papaya Soup with Prawns), KaengLiengSommao, and KaengLieng Do-Day Leaves. Chilli paste for KaengLieng in the southern region is not seasoned with pepper. The soups which are not made from chilli paste are clear soups such as PlaTuNaa, Southern Chicken Soup with galangal, pork soup with cucumber tree, fish soup with galangal, and salted fish soup with nitta tree.

1.3.2 Yum (Thai dressed salad) or Plaa (a spicy and sour dish):

This southern dish is similar to ones in the Central part of Thailand, but there are some differences in the seasoning spices and/or main local ingredients. Yums are very popular such as Yum Look Mud, Yum with light mangoes, Yum Meng Fish, and Yum with Asiatic Pennywort.

1.3.3 Dip

1.3.3.1 **Nam Phrik:** In the southern part of Thailand, there are many kinds of Nam Phrik and they are normally made of Kapi or shrimp paste like ones in the Central region. However, some ingredients make southern Nam Phrik different from the Central's Nam Phrik for example, Nam Phrik Jone or Nam Phrik Ka-yam (made from shrimp paste and mixed with all ingredients sliced roughly

altogether), and Nam Phrik Kapi with smoked fragrant wood shrimp or roasted salted shrimp used instead of dried shrimp. Southern Nam Phrik is seasoned not only with lime, but also with other plants that make it sour. This method is used in other dishes of Nam Phrik such as Nam Phrik with Yumyai fruit, Ma-mut, Kumquat, Ma-pring, and cucumber fruit. Different kinds of plants give different fragrances to the dishes.

1.3.3.2 Lhon or stew: Lhon is cooked in the same way as those in the Central region, but it is made from local ingredients e.g. Boo Doo Lhon, Jing-jang Lhon, etc.

1.3.3.3 Other kinds of dip: Nam Phrik is not only a famous dip in the Southern region but also fish entrails curry (in some locals, the curry is made clear and its taste is softened by putting water and vegetables in the soup, which makes it look similar to other kinds of soup in general.)

1.3.3.4 Sauté: This kind of dish is similar to those in the Central region but it is made from local ingredients.

1.3.3.5 Sauté without a hot and spicy taste and made with meat. There are also pure vegetable sautés e.g. Ka-pake sauté, Pak Nham sauté, Pak Kood sauté, Yod Lum-peng sauté, Sweet and sour pakria sauté, pakria sauté with coconut milk, and pakria sauté with shrimp.

1.3.3.6 Sauté with a hot and spicy taste is made from chilli paste or other pastes fried with meat. What is different is that Pad Kreung Roy is a hot and spicy fried dish seasoned with many kinds of spices to weaken the smell of some of the wild meats.

1.3.4 One meal dish or miscellaneous dish

This kind of dish contains different recipes such as fried shrimp with sweet fish sauce and trimmings, roasted pork or chicken, steamed egg galangal, fried egg-dipped pakria, steamed fish with curry paste (on wild betel leaf), fried fish patty with Chong grass, and steamed egg with salted and sweetened krill.

1.3.5 Side dish

The most popular side dish of the Southern region is salted fish, from very little ones to huge ones which can weigh many kilograms such as Moora fish, anchovy, barb, yellow striped cad, mullet, salted mackerel, king mackerel, queen mackerel, etc. Apart from the fish itself that is salty and tasty, the eggs of many kinds

of fish also taste good such as those of mullets, Mok fish, and octopus. Also, salted squid and dried shells can be a delicious side dish along with dried mussels, razor clams, etc.

In this research, the researcher talks mainly about Ching-Chang fish or anchovies. Anchovies are considered an economic product of the Andaman Sea. This kind of fish is the same as the one called Ka-tak in the Central part of Thailand. An anchovy is a small, common salt-water forage fish and normally lives in groups. Its body is slender and flat on the sides, with barbs on its belly. Its upper jaw extends to the rear of its eyes. It has a single rear fin and a deep round fish tail with blue stripes along its body. There are a lot of fisheries of anchovies in the Andaman Sea as this kind of fish is one of the top money-making exports of Thailand. This kind of fish can be exported to every region of Thailand and also outside the country, especially, in Asian countries such as Malaysia, Singapore, Brunei, etc. There are many kinds of anchovies, from the smallest white ones which are normally called Bora or Buraby fishermen to the biggest ones, both white and those rather dark in color.

To preserve anchovies, they need to be washed with clean water and boiled in water heated on a big cement stove before adding big lumps of salt. After boiling them until they turn white and float up, they are taken out of the pot and put in a basket to be dried. Finally, the fish are put on a dense net to be exposed to the sunlight until they are dried. During the hot season such as in March or April, it takes about eight hours to complete the process and the fish can be sold right away. However, if there is not much sunlight or if the monsoon season comes, it may take a longer time and more salt should be put on them. The fish should be kept free of humidity; otherwise, they will be spoiled. The producers must wake up early to examine the fresh anchovies to be used in the cooking process and sunned. If any procedure is neglected or done carelessly the fish will not be fresh and therefore will be distasteful and dried out. The wholesale prices may vary during different periods depending on the quality of the fresh fish. If the fish are high quality, the price will be high, and it also depends on the size of the fish which can vary from small sizes to medium to large and jumbo respectively. Moreover, anchovies are exported to neighbor countries such as Malaysia and China. Although some provinces on this side

of the gulf of Thailand also have dried anchovies, the taste different. The anchovies in the Andaman Sea and the gulf of Thailand have the following differences: those in the Andaman Sea are more oily because of the fresh fish are frozen before being boiled while those in the gulf of Thailand are normally salted, which increases the weight of the fish, but when it is fried, it doesn't swell and is more salty.

Moreover, one southern side dish which is widely accepted in the Southern region is Khao Yum or Nasikerabu. This dish is not only tasty, but is also nutritious with five main nutrients. It contains a lot of different vegetables and fruits such as garcinia and mangoes. It also has protein from parched sliced coconut, dried shrimp, and boodoo sauce or shrimp paste sauce. Southern people have Khao Yum for breakfast, lunch, and dinner. Besides Khao Yum, KanomJeen (Thai vermicelli eaten with curry) is another popular side dish that can be eaten with anything, for example, chilli curry, green curry, Kaeng pa (jungle curry), fish entrails curry, chilli soup for vermicelli and fresh Nam Phrik, etc. Southern people also have KanomJeen for breakfast, lunch, and dinner.

1.3.6 Southern Dessert

The desserts of the Southern region are similar to those of the Central region, yet there are some desserts which have different special characteristics. For example:

- 1) Boiled dessert: KanomKo, Rice seed dessert
- 2) Fried dessert: Fish egg dessert, KanomLaa, ear-pierced donuts, Sa-baa dessert, and Dee sum dessert
- 3) Steamed dessert: Bald head dessert
- 4) Baked dessert: Snowflake moon cake
- 5) Stirred dessert: stirred durian
- 6) Fruit salad or fruit in syrup: Lod Chong Kaew

It can be seen that the cuisine culture of the southern provinces are basically the same as or similar to one another but are also different in terms of daily routines. This is due to resource factors and cultural factors which have resulted from a mixture of Thai-Buddhist, Thai-Muslim, and Hokkien Chinese who migrated from Penang. Ethnic groups which have fishermen in the Southern region have rice as their main dish and they have only two big meals a day which are breakfast and dinner.

Their food is heavily seasoned as well as spicy, sour, and mainly salty; however, a sweet taste is not widely accepted. When the main course is finished, it is followed by fruit or dessert to weaken the hot and spicy taste or stinking smell within the mouth. The ways southern people have their breakfast is different and remarkably unique in each area as a result of situations from the past which have been linked to the present.

Southern food is the hottest and the spiciest because the climate is hot and humid and there is a lot of rain. Phuket people also like hot and spicy food; however, the food tends to taste rather Chinese as it was influenced by the Chinese culture in the city when Chinese people came to work on the mines and during that time Phuket people were interested in sending their children to school in Penang. Therefore, Chinese food spread throughout China and passed through Penang until it reached Phuket. Even though Muslims already had their own kinds of food, they adapted it into their daily food by changing the pork with chicken and turned Chinese food into Khao Yum or Kanom Chine Nam Phrik or Nam Ya, etc. A lot of the food represents the cultural exchange and adaptation from different cultures until it had become a distinct new local food such as Kari Mai Fun (chicken curry on soft-boiled Bee-hoon noodles, eaten with soft-boiled vegetables or cockles) and Too Mee curry which was derived from Malaysia. Apart from the various kinds and tastes of food, southern food uses a variety of culinary methods: pounding, squeezing, boiling, sauté, deep frying, steaming, roasting, grilling, and broiling in order to make the food palatable.

For breakfast, there is Kanom Chine with different curry dishes including Nam Ya, Nam Phrik, soup, meat curry, chicken curry, and fish entrails soup eaten with boiled eggs, Char Kuey (u char kway), Hoh Mok (steamed fish with curry paste), PlaMok, and fried fish patties. These are also eaten with side-dish vegetables which are cucumbers, cowpeas, fresh or soft-boiled bean sprouts, cashew nut leaves, Man Pu leaves, Mui leaves, Ching fruit, pickled cabbage, sliced pickled turnips, pineapples and anchovies. Some people choose to have coffee with dim-sum. Some have coffee with both sweet and salty or Chinese and Thai dessert such as bald head, Ka Nom Tao, Ka Nom Tien, Ka Nom Ton Taii, glutinous rice with different toppings, Ka Nom Hoh, Ka Nom Tarn, Kanom Si Kaa, Chi-cho, Ko-sui, Bun Char Kueh,

Ki Kuih, HuadKuih, Chu Chun KiemKuih, Chai Tao Kuih, KuihTalam, RempahdUang, Ba Chang, Ki Chang, etc.

There are many kinds of side dishes to have with afternoon tea which are easily found. Some of the famous dishes are Hokkien noodles, Pa Chang noodles, O-tao, Lo-ba, Hu-chae, Fried Buea, Khao Yum Prik, Phuket salted krill, acar, O-eaw, bubur, Bi taibak, etc.

The biggest meal of southern people (Phuket) is dinner which is the gathering time for the family. The main dish is Nam Soup Yumn or fresh prawn soup. Moreover, there is Nam Phrik Gung Sieb (salted and sweetened shrimp chilli dip); Nam PhrikPlaChing Chang (Anchovy chilli dip); fresh, soft-boiled, or roasted side-dish vegetables, tree beans, djenkolbeans, pakriars, cowpeas, Man pu leaves, cashew nut leaves, wild olive leaves, soft-boiled vegetable fern, melinjo, morning glory, cucumbers, fresh and boiled bitter gourds, winged beans, look mud, pluantree, poodshoot, kratue shoot, pickled naam, sian, and bean shoot, etc. As part of a set there are yellow curry, fish entrails soup, coconut milk soup, too-mee soup, moo hong, sauté shrimps with tamarind, ba-tim, steamed salted krill, sauté pork with pickled bean curd, sauté yam bean, coba or water bamboo shoot, ham clear soup; salted fish clear soup with streaky pork, sausage clear soup, pork stomach clear soup with Chinese cabbage, etc, and Tom Som (fish soup with ginger) which has two kinds: fish tom som and vegetable tom som. In addition, as Phuket is located by the sea, there are many kinds of fish to be caught and cooked in many different ways. The most popular fish are sand whiting fish, mullets, mackerel, Indian mackerel, barramundi, red snapper, king mackerel, grouper, and many kinds of jacks. These kinds of fish are normally deep-fried, especially the deep-fried sand whiting fish with curcuma. Some kinds of fish are steamed with Chinese plums or with soy sauce, made curry with coconut milk, steamed with curry paste, or made curry for ka-nom chine. Beside fish, there are lobsters, squid, blue crabs, giant mud crabs, and many kinds of shellfish to eat. The most popular is roasted fish with special sauce.

1.4 Value of local food: herbal medicinal quality

Humans of the pre-historic era used leaves, grass, flowers, fruits, roots, and shoots of trees as food, and when they wanted to add flavor, they added different parts from various kinds of plants to make the food more tasty. Moreover, the food

was healthy for its consumers and was able to cure illnesses, and therefore became part of the folk recipes used until the present. Folk food not only tastes good but it also unique which indicates the culture and wisdom of the Thai people in each locality who cook such local food. Local food is food which contains a nutritional balance between the type and amount of food served in which rice is the main dish including round shaped or glutinous rice, determined by the locality, and it is usually coarse rice. The cooking methods are normally boiling soup, making curry, yum (Thai salad dressing), tum (pounding), or simple methods which don't take much time or which use little oil and meat. Protein sources come from fish, chicken, eggs, pork, and other kinds of animals. Some sources can be found in the locality. All condiments are from natural resources. Most importantly, one kind of food that cannot be neglected is "vegetables". The folk foods use many kinds of local vegetables that can be used as the main dish or side dish eaten with dip, Nam Phrik, or Lohn. There are no fixed rules for satisfaction with the taste or flavor. As we can see, local food is nutritious and non-chemical; further, it has an herbal quality which can be found in the food. At the same time, it encourages a good relationship among family members as it opens opportunities for them to talk to one another during the meals as well as preserves and develops the local food to make it last as long as the country.

The Southern region has a wide variety of animals and flora and fauna which add to the quality of life because both plants and animals bring benefits in almost all aspects of living. Local plants in Thailand have been a part of society for a long time and they have become even more important today since we now know of their positive impact on both the environment and on health. One thing that can help to improve the environment and our health is being interested in the local plants. In many local dishes, it was found that local vegetables have an impact on human life in terms of food, culture, traditions, rituals, health, tools and equipment. Each kind of local southern food consists predominantly of many condiments which have properties beneficial for more than just food consumption.

Kanya (1993) stated that nutritional value and domestic herbal medicine constituents such as onions and garlic have long been known and accepted as seasonings for more fragrant food and the ingredients for folk medicine. In these days, medicinal properties or supplementary food for health are of special interest in

modern medicine, especially in the developed countries in which people regularly consume such kinds of food. Herbal food not only creates tasty dishes, it also adds nutritional value, wholesomeness, it strengthens our body and can be used as an elixir to help us live longer.

Vijit (1994) studied the properties of herbs in Thai food and made the following summary: Garlic: prevents heart disease and coronary thrombosis and is a rather highly effective antibiotic

1) Ginger: keeps the body warm, makes us perspire, nourishes the stomach, heals nausea and vomiting, contains an antibiotic quality and reduces cholesterol collected in the liver and blood vessels.

2) Lemongrass: contains qualities to heal cold weather sickness, headache, waist pain, and toothache.

3) Chilli: used as a carminative and digestive, reduces flatulence and gassiness and makes us perspire.

4) Mint: is carminative; gets rid of fever; reduces headache, sore eyes, and sore throat.

5) Basil: reduces colds, fever, and headache; keep the body warm (H. Wagner and Norman, 1990)

Moreover, Banyat (1984) studied the properties of herbs used in Thai food as follows:

1) Finger root: cures oral diseases e.g. ulcers and blisters and helps digestion.

2) Cardamom: used as medicine to help urination and cures diarrhea caused by indigestion.

3) Curcuma: used as an antacid and carminative, reduces stomachache, and promotes appetite.

4) Kaffir lime: purifies the blood and can be used as a haematic for women.

5) Lime: prevents scurvy, helps destroy poisons, reduces stomachache and promotes appetite.

6) Fennel: used as a carminative, increases and stimulates appetite and cures the diarrhea.

7) Red onion: reduces gas, flatulence, anuria, and dysuria and gets rid of colds (Chaiyo, 1981).

In conclusion, all condiments and ingredients, including curry paste and local vegetables added to the food contain herbal medicinal qualities which are able to cure illness or prevent diseases.

1.5 Standard framework of Halal Tourism in Thailand

The Department of Tourism (2011) stated in 2007 that there were 393,000 tourists from Middle East Muslim countries that came to visit Thailand which was a 34.13% increase from the year 2006. Later from January to July 2008, the tourism situation expanded and brought approximately 500,000 tourists from Middle East Muslim countries to Thailand which was 20% growth rate. This did not include Muslim tourists from other countries such as Malaysia, Indonesia, India, etc. of which the number was more than a total of two million.

The Office of Tourism Development and Ministry of Tourism and Sports have created strategies for developing tourism service standards that are related to particular targets. Apart from the establishing of new routes for tourists from the Middle East Muslim countries, food is also considered a major factor which is important to attract this group of tourists. This group of tourists follows a strict dogma of the Muslim lifestyle. As a result, in their daily life, both utilization and consumption of food must be according to what is called 'Halal'. The food having the Halal symbol is the food that Muslims trust and are sure they can eat safely. To encourage Muslim tourists to travel to Thailand it is necessary to prepare adequate Halal food to meet their demand as well as to communicate with entrepreneurs who provide food services, by helping them to better understand the food consumption culture according to Islamic dogma.

Apart from food, buildings and places for having the meals must be well-decorated, clean, and in good taste. Also, the service personnel should have proper manners, be courteous, friendly, and service minded. The food products used in the kitchen should be fresh, clean, and hygienic the same as the surroundings in order to build customers' trust and satisfaction with the service so they will return again in the future. Recognizing the importance of preparing Thailand to have quality Halal food establishments, it is necessary to develop the competence of tourism

entrepreneurs concurrently. Especially, should restaurants, food shops, and hotels which provide Halal food be prepared to understand, gain insight, and be able to properly provide services for tourists according to Islamic standards.

According to the Royal Decree concerning the Administration of Islamic Organizations, B.E. 2540 (1997), the Central Islamic Council of Thailand regulated an examination process standard for guaranteeing Halal products and using the Halal certification mark. This council defined Halal business as any activities related to Halal products and gave assurance of the standard by exercising the authority to cancel Halal certification marks on products, public relations, or any kinds of services that the council specified.

However, in section 2, item 9, the council stated the need to control and take responsibility in regulating and promulgating an accurate Halal products standard for the country according to Islamic provisions and international standards that should not conflict with the religious dogma which allows use of the Halal symbol on Halal products. The Halal Accreditation Body (HAB) is the organization that gives certification to corporations which produce Halal products according to standard. Also, it coordinates with and controls related offices that process Halal businesses in order to keep the businesses going effectively following the Halal products standard.

1.6 Halal Tourism Standard

Halal standard in terms of tourism means the action or maintenance of rules and regulations in tourism services (tourism which has specific objectives such as for health, marketing, economy, education, technology, or related pilgrimage). The rules and regulations are as follows: (report of the Department of International Trade Promotion, Tehran, 2011)

- 1) The tourists must be given services following Islamic dogma throughout the journey.
- 2) The tour guides and staffs should respect and maintain the rules and disciplines according to Islamic dogma.
- 3) Any infidel service is forbidden.
- 4) The agency is obliged to choose the accommodations according to Halal standard e.g. hotels, camps, etc.

- 5) The agency should select restaurants or food shops with Halal standard
- 6) The agency should choose the transportation service with Halal standard.

Moreover, these are specifications for Halal tourism as mentioned below:

Section 1 The service must be provided according to Halal standard.

Section 2 There should be training for the tourism service staffs.

Section 3 The services involved with health care e.g. hospitals, medical clinics, or mineral water wells and others should be selected according to the specification for Halal.

Section 4 Throughout the journey, the tourists must be allowed to perform religious activities. Therefore, there should be religious services, time and places for the activities, and instructions for the worship of Allah's or fasting.

Section 5 Males and females are not allowed to be together in any activities that goes against religious dogma.

Section 6 Arrangement of programs that involve forbidden or unholy places is prohibited.

Therefore, it is important to establish the identity of local Islamic food that Muslim people eat. In this study, the researcher made references to the same rules as Halal standard. Also, there are many academicians who gave remarkable definitions about Halal and Halal food which is the food of Muslims. The word “Halal” relates to food or condiments that are not against Islamic dogma. Such kinds of food normally have the Halal label which means uncontaminated food; especially the meat, which must be Halal and uncontaminated by the Haram (any act that is forbidden by Allah) such as alcohol, pork fat, etc. The meat or products will be considered Halal if the animal is properly killed according to the following Islamic methods:

- 1) The butcher must be a Muslim who understands and knows how to slash in the Islamic way.
- 2) The animal to be killed in the Islamic way must not be unclean animals such as swine; carnivores (animals that eat other animals) i.e. tigers, canines, etc.,

certain kinds of poultry that hunt or eat other animals such as eagles, hawks, etc. and reptiles such as snakes.

- 3) The animals must still be alive during the slashing process.
- 4) The slashing process must begin with the word “Bismillah” which means “In the name of Allah”.
- 5) The slash should be conducted by using a sharp knife to cut off the aorta, windpipe, and gullet apart from one another so that the animals do not suffer.
- 6) The animals must be completely dead before being sliced or going on to any further processes.

The word “Halal” means permission; therefore, Halal food is food that is Halaled according to the religion’s permission to consume without going against the dogma. The Halal book and Haram in Islam written by Yusuf 'Abdullah al-Qaradawi (The Halal Standard Institute of Thailand), says the word “Halal” is the Arabic word which generally means *permission*. When this word is used in terms of religion, it means *the things which the religion allows* (such as permission to eat, drink, act, or use, etc.). The word “Halal” has the opposite meaning of the word “Haram” which means *to forbid*, and when we use it in relation to religion, it means things that are forbidden by the religion. The permissions and prohibitions for anything in Islam are considered the commands of Allah who is their god and that came only from his prophets. This is the highlighted principle which every Muslim must strictly follow without hesitation or wanting to find the reasons for those permissions or prohibitions since Allah did not inform them to do this. This is because Muslims have faith in his permissions and believe those permissions are good and beneficial for them. Prohibited objects are considered harmful and dangerous. Allah who created human beings knows well what is good or bad; therefore, he allows good things and prohibits bad ones. Humans can determine some things that are considered advantages in what the religion approves of and things that are considered disadvantages in those things that are prohibited, which Allah has not declared as such. However, these are only referred to as components not principles because what humans can be changed is not the same as that of Allah who is immortal and whose decisions cannot possibly be changed.

In addition, there are some teachings about forbidden food, which are divided into four categories and are described in details in the following ten points:

1) Prohibition against eating carcasses and the reasons for not doing so

The first thing about forbidden food that is stated in the Koran is that carcasses are animals and poultry that died without being killed or hunted by humans. The reason for this is that eating such dead animals is disgusting to other people. Allah does not want humans to eat things, while taking them for granted as in this case of animals that have died on their own. If they died in this way, it may be possible that they died suddenly or from a pandemic. Therefore, eating them may cause harm to life. Besides, this can be explained as the mercy of Allah, who prepares food sources for animals and birds that live together in groups, which is similar to what is done for human beings. This fact can be understood by considering a picture of different kinds of animal carcasses lying outdoors being nibbled and devoured by other kinds of animals and birds.

2) The second prohibition is against blood

Someone asked Ibnu Abbas about eating a spleen and he said “You shall eat it.” They said, “But it is blood.”, so he replied, “For you all, only flowing blood is prohibited.” The reason for not allowing the eating of blood is that it is disgusting to human beings and it might harm their health as well.

3) The third prohibition is against eating pork.

Pigs like dirtiness and filth, and apart from that medical research shows that eating pork is harmful to health in every type of climate, especially in tropical zones. In addition, scientific findings reveal that pork contains something that can cause the disease Encephalitis and a parasite called trichina.

4) The fourth prohibition is against eating animals killed other than in the name of Allah.

This means they are slashed by the butcher who calls a name other than that of Allah. The reason for such a prohibition is completely about faith to conduct holy religious services for Allah and to reject everything that has no association with him.

In terms of Halal cuisine, Halal culinary is an important factor. Halal food requires the condition of the materials for cooking to be clean according to the

religion's dogma. It must pass through washing to get rid of Najis (objects considered dirty by the religion) and must adhere to a proper and clean cooking process. The meat must have been slashed and cleaned correctly according to the religious specifications.

Halal food is food which has been through the process of cooking, mixing, preparing, combining and transforming according to the religious dogma. It guarantees that Muslims in general trust that they can consume such food or utilize goods and services. In order to know which goods are Halal or not, the label "Halal" should be clearly visible on the side of the package. "Halal mark" is the mark which the committee of Islamic Affairs of the Central Islamic Council of Thailand or the Islamic committee of each province allows entrepreneurs to stamp or make present on any labels, products, or businesses by using the symbol called "Halal" written in Arabic letters. The mark is inside a diamond shape, which is on a rectangle with vertical stripes. Under the rectangle frame, there are two parallels between which is written "The Central Islamic Council of Thailand". This particular mark is used for Halal food and drink products or meat which are imported from other countries and so on.

In summary, the study of local Islamic food according to Halal standard refers to religious food which does not contain any kind of prohibitions. For the eating places, Islam is very concerned about the cleanliness of everything, especially food and drinks in conjunction with the religion of Islam. Eating food is considered part of worship the same as prayer and other religious activities. Similarly, Muslims do cleansing so as to wash themselves before their daily prayer. In addition to that they have to have confidence that the food they eat is clean and well-prepared, starting with avoiding foods prohibited in the Islamic nutritional law. The Koran states clearly the prohibition for Muslims not to consume these kinds of foods: carcasses, flowing blood, swine, animals killed in other names rather than Allah, and alcoholic drinks.

In this research, the identity of local Islamic food has been stated. The meaning of local Islamic food according to the standard of Halal food consists of four principles, which include uniqueness, symbol, image, and traits, which were used in order to meet the objectives of determining the identity of the study areas. That is to say, all the materials put in local Islamic food must contain quality medicinal herbs

that each can be used as medicine, food, and to prevent different kinds of diseases. Also, if the food is not against the Halal food standard, it is considered religious food that contains no prohibitions.

2. The Management of Creative Cultural Food Tourism

2.1 The definition of cultural tourism management

Culture is one of the important resources for tourism. Culture represents value, aspect or identity created by humans (Bradford et al., 2000); it is the major component which reflects the condition of the society (Richards & Wilson, 2006). Cultural tourism concerns the study of art, culture, traditions, or the way of life of the local people (Chookiat, 2542). It is not just a journey of tourists who are interested in the culture and want to gain new experiences (Richard, 1996), but the aims are also to learn and understand more deeply about the history of the place and the different lifestyle by local (Siri, 2543). The cultural motivation urges the tourists to travel from their own place to other destinations in order to create and gain new experiences which, in return, satisfy their own needs (Richard, 2003). It then becomes a meaningful journey producing cultural knowledge for these tourists.

cultural tourism is another form of tourism created by humans to satisfy their needs, where the travelling style and objectives of each trip are varied. Nowadays, many academics attempt to define the meaning of Cultural Tourism as follows:

McIntosh and Goeldner (1986) stated that “cultural tourism is a travelling style which covers all aspects of travelling where men can mutually study the way of life and each others thoughts.”

Smith (2009) stated that “cultural tourism interacts between culture and community where tourists will gain new experience from creatively observing and enjoying the place.”

Tourism Authority of Thailand also defines cultural tourism stating that it is a journey to experience culture through observing castles, palaces, temples, ancient places and items, traditions, ways of life, all types of art and other things which represent the prosperity developed to fit with the surroundings in each period.

Tourists will learn more about the history, beliefs, aspects, ideas, faiths, and people's behavior in the past which pass on to the present generation.

From the definitions above, cultural tourism is then summarized as “the voyage of a person or a group of people who travel to another location where that community's way of life and culture are presented so as to observe the unique character of that particular place. Nevertheless, the visit has to show respect to the local cultural value in each community.”

2.2 Types of Cultural Tourism

Hughes (1996) grouped the types of Cultural Tourism into Heritage Sites, Performing Arts Venues, Visual Arts, Festivals and Special Events, Religious Sites, Rural Environments, Indigenous Communities and Traditions, Arts and Crafts, Language, Gastronomy, Industry and Commerce, Modern Popular Culture and Creative Activities.

Sigala and Leslie (2005) and Smith (2009) also grouped Cultural Tourism attractions similarly. Therefore, the researchers has categorized these attractions or activities which represent the various types of cultural tourism.

Table 3 Types of Cultural Tourism Attractions

Type of Cultural Tourism	Activities
1. Heritage Tourism	Castles, Palaces, Country Houses Archaeological Sites Monuments Architecture Museums Religious Sites
2. Arts Tourism	Visiting Theatres Concerts Galleries Festivals, Carnivals, Special Events Literary Sites

Table 3 Types of Cultural Tourism Attractions (Cont.)

Type of Cultural Tourism	Activities
3. Creative Tourism	Photography Painting Pottery Dance Cookery Crafts Creative Industries
4 .Urban Cultural Tourism	Historic Cities Regenerated Industrial Cities Waterfront Development Arts and Heritage Attractions Shopping Nightlife
5. Rural Cultural Tourism	Village Tourism Agro or Farm Tourism Eco Museums Cultural Landscapes National Parks Wine Trails
6. Indigenous Cultural Tourism	Hill Tribes Deserts Jungles Rainforests Mountain Trekking, Tribal Villages Cultural Centres Arts and Crafts Cultural Performances Festivals

Table 3 Types of Cultural Tourism Attractions (Cont.)

Type of Cultural Tourism	Activities
7. Experiential Cultural Tourism	Theme Parks Theme Restaurants Shopping Malls Pop Concerts Sporting Events Film and TV Locations Celebrity-endorsed products

Coltman (1989) suggested ways to develop Cultural Tourism as follows:

- 1) Promoting campaigns to make local people recognize the value of the tourism
- 2) Tourism development which comes from community cooperation and objectives.
- 3) Tourism promotion and advertising that has to be approved by the local people.
- 4) Cooperation between private and public sectors which is necessary for the tourism development.
- 5) Tourism strategies must not negatively affect the local people's culture and values.
- 6) Managers, workers and budget which comes from the local people in order to develop in the right direction.
- 7) Communities having an active share in the activities.
- 8) Tourism festivals and activities which represent the history, way of life and geography of the area.
- 9) Addressing any unresolved problems in the community before beginning the tourism development stage.

In this research, the researcher studied the food culture which is the main core of the community. Food is considered Cultural Tourism in the category of Creative Tourism. Communities and tourists cooperate in using local ingredients, developing Islamic restaurants to reach the Halal standard for tourism, and developing other activities to attract foreign tourists including using local cooking recipes for healthy meals according to blood types.

2.3 Food Tourism

2.3.1 Definition

Food Tourism is, in fact, not a new discovery in the tourism industry. Still, experts in all types of tourism have focused on “culinary” as the main topic of the study as the issue is getting more and more popular. Food tourism is related to culture, society and the economy. Food tourism receives much attention due to the fact that nowadays the world is interested in the cuisine of different cultures. Today, there are new and interesting restaurants popping up on every corner. Also, marketing tactics are used as an attraction to draw tourists in. Besides, dining out gives a new experience when compared to eating at home which is another form of cultural exchange.

Hall and Sharples (2003) said that food gave tourists deeper feelings and sensations otherwise known as a Sense of place. It can then become part of the character of that particular place even though food nowadays has been adapted due to influences from other places; it is then difficult to distinguish the food according to geography, weather or history. Therefore, it is considered a changing culture which is continually being changed through time and external factors.

Regarding Food Tourism, the words Cuisine and Gastronomy, have already been defined. Cuisine means the preparation and cooking of food while Gastronomy is related to the art of eating and drinking and also represents the happiness which comes from eating. As for Culinary Tourism or Food Tourism, many translators and experts have different opinions when giving its definition.

Hall and Mitchell (2000) suggested that Food Tourism was the journey of those who were inspired to travel to places where food was well-known or where there were food festivals, popular restaurants or exclusive food locations. The level of the meaning of Food Tourism in English is divided into Gastronomic Tourism

or Culinary Tourism which focuses on the tourists' overall interest in food which is at the medium level while Cuisine Tourism or Gourmet Tourism suggests that visitors have a specific interest in food; for instance, participating in a food course. The latter group pays more attention than the first. In this research, the term Food Tourism, which covers all definitions, is then employed.

Ignatov and Smith (2006) said that Culinary Tourism meant a travel which includes a purchase of food, a consumption of food and drinks, food observation, and a study of food and other related activities.

Wolf (2004) said that Culinary Tourism meant that the top priority of tourists when travelling was in order to gain new experiences and pleasure from eating and drinking in a particular place.

Therefore, it can be said that Culinary Tourism is more than just travelling for food, but it also includes gaining special experiences, especially in the areas of the eating culture and local knowledge. Cohen & Avieli (2004) said that to make local food become popular and widely acknowledged, it had to be supported along with tourism also known as "Food Tourism". When managing food for tourism, local food is sometimes adapted to satisfy tourists, especially foreign visitors. This process of cultural exchange comes from mixing the tourists' taste with the local culture or taste; it is then considered an outcome from the culture.

According to the experts' definitions of Food Tourism above, food is more than just something consumed to sustain life. It represents the identity of the culture, cooking process, method of eating and increased sustainable production. Also, the meaning of Food Tourism is, combining the natural geography, culture, services, facilities, access, pleasant hosts and unique character of the place which leads to a unique experience for visitors, especially tourists who have experience and knowledge about the process of cooking.

Many experts suggest that food is popular among tourists while travelling, which can be observed through various medias. That is why there is another type of consuming culture i.e. Food and Beverages Tourism, as can be seen from the popularity of food and wine. Food and beverages is another area which creates a wide range of places to visit, especially when it comes to food, wine or beer. This concept can be promoted to attract eaters and drinkers, especially in faraway

places where this practice was first introduced. Hall (2002) suggested the relationship between food and tourism with the development of faraway places such as in the countryside. He also suggested major strategies including using existing resources to stimulate the economy, reusing financial resources in the system such as from local wine consumption, adding value to local goods, connecting people who get benefits from the activities, using external information and technologies, promoting and creating character in the brand, starting direct sales through retailers without the middlemen and creating good relationships between manufactures and consumers.

These tactics are what help local communities to survive in the economy and also create income for the community. The important component of Food and Beverage Tourism is the display or the presentation to tourists as can be seen from the case study of the Canadian government which supported Food Tourism through Ale Trail or the Legend of Beer Production. The beer industry is very popular in Waterloo and Wellington which are located in the south of Ontario in Canada. The history of beer production has long been in operation and the unique manufacturing process lies in a process called Craft Brewing which is the production of a small amount of high-quality beer. Also, both the private and public sectors have helped to promote these two cities to become a place for Beer Tourism. In 1998 Ale Trail activities were held every Sunday afternoon from April to October where tourists could come and taste local beers and participate in other activities including learning about beer production, the history and types of beer. This goes along with the experimental theory of Kim et al. (2013) which suggested that local food presentation is the main factor which attracts tourists. Also, he stated that a good presentation of food is a main component which draws visitors to that particular place as it is considered a marketing factor of Food Cultural Tourism.

Willson (1999) said that tea, coffee and cola were the three most popular drinks in the world and they had a loyal customer following from around the globe as making them tourism products.

Boniface et al. (2003) said that many touristic places used food and drinks to differentiate their business and expand their market even though the consumption and drinking behavior or factors which contribute to the purchasing decisions of tourists are still unknown. Mitchell and Hall (2003) stated that Food

Tourism has been developed through the years in China and many other countries. The development of Food and Beverage Tourism is an exciting period. Tea Farm Tourism is becoming interesting Niche Tourism and many people are starting to pay more attention. However, there have only been few researches and projects conducted (Sharples, 2008).

Jeffrey et al. (2008) mentioned key challenges in Wine and Culinary Tourism with practical recommendations and he also gave several suggestions on how to carry on successful business regarding the Food and Wine Tourism industry. In Niagara, Canada wine making received world-class standard recognition and became the standard for developing Food and Wine Tourism in 1980. After wine and alcohol regulations were granted in 1990 allowing wine makers to be able to own a restaurant, Food Tourism in Niagara then started to grow. That growth has attracted many well-known chefs to work in the city. According to a TAMS (Travel Activities and Motivation) study in 2006, 74% of tourists (a total of 15.4 million people) between 2004 and 2005 were interested in visiting at least one type of food business. Almost five million Canadian people participated in wine activities while another 15 million participated in food activities. Two million Canadian people attended food and beverage festivals or attended food or wine tasting courses. Also, the National Restaurant Association revealed that there were 63% of tourists who travel for relaxation and 85% of those travellers tried out a new restaurant every day while on the vacation (NRA, 2007). The case studies from British Columbia, New Zealand, Victoria, and Australia have found similar results to those in Niagara.

Industry Research: There was a team of conductors and researchers in a project called Destination Niagara with various duties in various departments who conducted primary and secondary researches for developing strategies for Food and Wine Tourism in Ontario. From the use of these strategies an operating team was formed.

Basic Structure Support: After the 911 incident, the number of tourists in the USA had been significantly decreasing. The tour companies in Niagara then solved that problem by attracting more tourists and lessening the gap between the two countries in order to create Food and Wine Tourism locations for both countries including places like Niagara Gateway which goes from Long Island to Pelee Island.

In addition, there was a foundation called Bi-national Tourism Alliance (BTA) in 2004 to support the Tourism industry at both borders. The objectives were to eliminate obstacles between the two places while enhancing wealth, sustainability and the quality of life of the people at the touristic locations.

External Factors include the destination of food travellers: Food tourism accounted for 45% of the total tourism in Canada (Ignatov, 2003); however, Ontario failed to attract Food tourists. Ontario Wine Association produced a guidebook and a map, but nothing was included which prompted tourists to think of Niagara as a culinary place. The project, the Culinary Trail, was then established to recommend farms, markets, food, local restaurants, culinary schools and wine farms. The project was financially supported by the Ontario Ministry of Tourism. This project helped create an awareness of the place regarding food and beverages.

Quality of Service: Since food and wine tourists want to learn and gain more experience in food areas, their expectations and standards are higher than those of normal tourists. Dwyer (2003) said that this situation adds more advantages to the touristic location.

Cooperation/ collaboration/ connection between organizations in the industry: The Ontario Ministry of Tourism developed strategies in 2005. There were conferences held by two countries to bring interested persons in the tourism industry together to discuss the success factors. These factors included leadership and industry relations, empowerment and communication, existing and new Food Tourism support, the process of scholarships and support and useful presentation.

Signage: Customers need accurate and reliable information about tourism.

Cheng et al. (2012) mentioned Tea Tourism development in Xinyang, China: Stakeholders' View – He said that tea was a popular beverage around the world as a niche market. The official development of tea farms in China started when China opened its country in early 1986. Hang Zhou's local government, the capital city of Se Jiang and the well-known tea plantations, set the first strategy by constructing the first tea museum in China for the purpose of tourism and culture. In 1990, China's tea museum was opened to the public. The opening was followed by

an event called West-Lake Tea Symposium. Since 1992, Hang Zhou has managed to become the capital city for China's tea culture and has drawn many tourists from all over the world by using tea as an attraction, especially tourists from Japan and Southeast Asian countries. Hang Zhou became a major touristic tea plantation in 1989. The weekly event called "Tea and Chinese Culture" held in Beijing attracts tea lovers from more than 33 countries and various regions (Yu, 2005). The tea event became so popular in China that the number of tea events for tourism and trading was estimated to reach over 138 in 2006. There were also tea leaf competitions, tea utensils exhibitions and national festivals (Shen, 2007).

Apart from the tea museum and tea events, tea plantations in the countryside were turned into sightseeing farms with activities. Certain villages, like Mei Cha Wu where Dragon Whale Tea was originally grown, were registered as a recommended sightseeing places in Hang Zhou (Huang & Wang, 2005). Tea sightseeing, tea picking and cooking with tea ingredients became very popular in China. Wuyi Mountain in Fujian and west of the lake in Hang Zhou are now famous for their outstanding tea plantation trips.

In China, tea tourism developed rapidly; the same has happened in other countries. It is possible to combine tea and coffee as part of the activities for tourists during holidays (Patricia, 2008). In Asia, Mae Kum Pong Village in Thailand started tea tourism in 2000 (UNWTO, 2005). Mae Salong Village located in Chiang Rai in Thailand was considered a recommended village in the OTOP campaign for health and relaxation with the best Oolong tea in the world (UNWTO, 2005). At the same time, in Sri Lanka, tea farms and tea shops in Nuwara Eliya were added to the sightseeing program. The government of West Bengal, India, tried to promote "Tea Tourism" in Dooars and Terai of North Bengal with a high budget. Also, the activities in India included tea tasting, tea picking, tea cooking, tea sightseeing at the tea plantation along with yoga, massage, spas and local dishes and handcrafts.

In Europe and North America, London and Boston were the potential tea touristic places (Jolliffe, 2003). The tea shop called The Bridge in Bath in England was promoted by the Tea Association as an excellent tea shop where many tea lovers come for relaxing and drinking the tea called Bridge Cream. Also, tea serving in the afternoon is the highlight in many important touristic places.

Jolliffe (2007) suggested that apart from visiting tea plantations, tourists were also inspired by Chinese history, traditions, and tea drinking habits. Tea Cultural Tourism which is studied by observing the relationship between tea and culture is a little different from the study of Tea Tourism. According to Sun (2005), Tea Cultural Tourism is another Cultural Tourism where the study of tea, tea tasting, visiting tea plantations, tea collecting and tea purchasing are major objectives contributing to the activities for tourism, business and education.

Li (2007) gave the definition of Tea Cultural Tourism as an activity which allows tourists to experience the ecosystem and lifestyle of local people at the tea plantation. Also, Tea Tourism should have experiencing tea as the motivation when spending holidays or relaxing.

Gunasekara and Momsen (2006) studied the tea industry in terms of tourists' attractions in Sri Lanka. In their opinion, Tea Tourism was related to Ecosystem Tourism, Heritage Tourism, Health Tourism, and Agritourism. This type of tourism was said to raise the standard to a higher or more special level. It is also considered a way to support the community and poor people. Some suggested that when Tea Tourism was involved, developing a small area might be more effective in creating positive outcomes for the community. Most of their researches were collected from their former work called "Tea and Tourism, Tourists, Traditions and Transformations". Additionally, food and beverage tourists were defined as "tourists who are inspired by tea history, tradition and consumption".

The example of food marketing in the function of a tourist product development of Marcel Meler (2003) suggested that food was a part of tourism products; he said that the experience in eating was adapted to values in each tourist's culture. The uniqueness of the Croatian National Dish was not presented well. The new products in the fairs and hotels did not need a large budget, but they did need to be presented with an understanding of the business, innovation and creativity. However, modern tourism has to change from defense strategies to approach strategies. Also, value should be added to organic foods and low-energy foods with low fat and low sugar. In addition, there should be more choices of food in the menu at fairs and hotels such as eco food, ethno food, fast food, slow food, exotic food and hit food etc.

To use food as a tool for promoting the location: The aim of tourism marketing is not only to increase the number of tourists but also to create sustainable development. Buhalis (2000) said that the touristic places were considered an important factor which drew certain types of tourists and it is an important factor that attracts different types of tourists to the unique character of the place whether it is abstract or concrete. Furthermore, Food Tourism is considered one of the main components which creates both abstract and concrete products. Hu and Ritchie (1993) said that food is the fourth component in attracting tourists, apart from the weather, accommodations and view. Also, Jenkis (1999) ranked food as the ninth component.

In addition, studies showed that there was an increasing trend of local food purchasing by tourists through marketing activities; for example, Telfer (2000) found that the popularity of the Niagara program in the south of Ontario in Canada was due to its food manufacturers, owners, hotels, restaurants, wine shops and well-known chefs. Similarly, Boyne, S., Williams, F., & Hall, D. (2002), according to a study in Scotland, found that visitors and tourists who used guidebooks spent more money on each meal and paid more attention to the cooking details of the local food. Therefore, it can be assumed that food is more than just something to eat; it reveals identity, culture, cooking process, eating methods and the rise of sustainability. Food can be presented through various methods including pictures, leaflets, brochures and photographs.

Also, Narisa and SuanDusit of Rajabhat University (2556) created innovation in Food Tourism through an important research study in the area of travelling for food (Gastronomic Thailand) via website and food travelling routes. The objective was to support and help create an outstanding identity of food culture to bolster the tourism industry by establishing travelling routes to local communities in order to promote the local food in each region. Then, they published guidebooks to point out locations in each region which cooperated with local government sectors from each province. According to the research, the most popular touristic places are natural locations and historic places. The north region is the most popular region among tourists. The study of touristic places and local products were conducted for data collecting. The results showed that northern Thailand's local foods that are popular are those such as OTOP products including winter fruits, teas and northern

Thai spicy sausages. The popular OTOP products of the northeastern region include Thai vermicelli, Somtum, sour pork and food products with a unique traditional taste (Gin Kao Kum). For the central region of Thailand, the OTOP products include freshwater products and Ayutthaya's traditional noodles. The old markets like the Hundred-Year Market and Bang Pla Ma Market are very famous among tourists. For the eastern region, OTOP's products include seasonal fruits, local curry (Moo Cha Muang) and Chan noodles. Ecotourism is popular here. For western Thailand, the OTOP products include Phetchaburi's desserts and seafood from PrachuapKhiri Khan. The popular OTOP products from the southern region are seafood, Hokkien Chinese food and Dim Sum. Bangkok also offers a variety of food especially around the Rattanakosin area where much cultural food can be experienced. From these findings, seven travelling routes have then been created via website in order to serve tourists and tourism business organizations including both the public and private sectors as another travelling program tool set up to improve the food eating experience. This is considered an important innovation in developing Food Tourism in Thailand.

Last, Maslow's hierarchy and Food Tourism in Finland: Five cases by Irma Tikkanen (2007), there were five case studies of Food Tourism strategies following the five levels of Maslow's theory. The case studies were compared to each stage of Maslow's hierarchy of need along with other researches, literature and related documents. The findings were then analyzed in order to use them practically in real life. The research findings were divided into the following groups:

Stage 1 The basic needs are directly related to food.

Stage 2 The need for safety is compared to food hygiene and good health.

Stage 3 The social need means tourists want to interact with Food Tourism such as visiting vineyards or food festivals.

Stage 4 Esteem relates to the need of tourists for fulfillment such as the study of tourism in order to be part of the cooking process.

Stage 5 Self-actualization is the need for tourists to be acknowledged through attending exhibitions or conferences in order to gain more food knowledge.

The above comments are examples of Food Tourism criteria from many academics and to explain them more clearly the researcher has summarized the main points of Food Tourism components from the study of literature as per the following table:

Table 4 Food Tourism Components

Food Tourism Components	Academics and the Research									
	Hall (2002) / Beer Tourism	Boyne (2001) / Food production	Cheng et al.(2012) / Tea Tourism	Jolliffe (2003) / Tea Tourism	Gunasekara&Momsen (2006) / Tea tourism	Jeffrey(2008) /Wine and culinary tourism	Telfer (2000) / Taise of Niagara program	Tikkanen (2007) / Maslow	Meler (2003) / Food marketing	หิราม(2556) /Gastronomics Thailand
1. Creating local products		✓	✓			✓			✓	✓
2. Local food services		✓	✓			✓		✓		✓
3. Learning to cook						✓		✓		✓
4. Famous chefs		✓				✓	✓			
5. Advertising (leaflets, brochures)		✓				✓				
6. Guidebooks										✓
7. Touristic place guide via website		✓	✓			✓				✓
8. Good quality and service		✓				✓				
9. Production process	✓	✓								
10. Participation of local people	✓				✓					✓
11. Support from public and private sectors	✓		✓			✓				✓
12. Holding of Events (Festivals)	✓		✓	✓		✓		✓		
13. Exhibitions	✓							✓		

Table 4 Food Tourism Components (Cont.)

Food Tourism Components	Academics and the Research									
	Hall (2002) / Beer Tourism	Boyne (2001) / Food production	Cheng et al. (2012) / Tea Tourism	Jolliffe (2003) / Tea Tourism	Gunasekara & Momsen (2006) / Tea tourism	Jeffrey (2008) / Wine and culinary tourism	Telfer (2000) / Taste of Niagara program	Tikkanen (2007) / Maslow	Meler (2003) / Food marketing	Wong (2005) / Gastronomics Thailand
14. Health Tourism			✓		✓				✓	
15. Healthy food (Organic)			✓						✓	
16. Food hygiene										
17. Museums			✓							
18. Registering the touristic location			✓							
19. Niche markets		✓	✓							
20. Preexisting interest							✓	✓		

2.4 Creative Cultural Tourism Management in the Area of Food

Creative Tourism is travel in which tourists can use their creativity through participation in activities and the experience gained during the travelling period (Richards and Raymond, 2000). The following definition on Creative Tourism was also given: Wurzbürger (2009) said that Creative Tourism is a form of travelling that focuses on gaining real experiences by participation and involvement in activities in order to learn more about art, cultural heritage or the identity of that particular place.

Therefore, Creative Tourism can be summarized as a form of travelling which allows travellers to get involved in touristic activities at a place resulting in developing the learning process and creative ideas of the travellers.

This idea goes along with UNESCO's concept of The Creative Cities Network which is divided into seven categories.

- 1) Literature
- 2) Crafts and Folk Arts
- 3) Design
- 4) Music
- 5) Gastronomy
- 6) Cinema
- 7) Media Arts

One important example of Creative Tourism is the method of Creative Tourism in management of food areas which concentrates on the cooking process of the local food by helping travellers to understand the learning process and develop self-improvement. Another example is the chili grilling and cooking lesson of a Mexican school called Santa Fe School of Cooking where the instructors taught chili grilling and Tortilla bread cooking methods to travelers developing their learning processes and nurturing self-improvement (Creative Cities Network, 2006).

Today, Thailand is famous for its food culture ranging from local dishes, eating culture and cooking processes as can be seen from various events such as:

- 1) Thai Food, World Food, popular at the international level
- 2) Thailand's sidewalk food
- 3) Thai Food to the World

Creative Tourism is in conjunction with regulations of Tourism Authority of Thailand. YuwadeeNirat, Director of the Marketing Research Team, pointed out that Creative Tourism is especially important when combining creative business ideas to tourism and service to increase value. Creative Tourism should not be relied on to advance technology or assemble a huge workforce. Instead, Creative Tourism should focus on these four factors which are "Cost", "Creativity", "Cultural Assets" and "Individual Skill" which will help add value to the service and tourism industry.

Processes in creating Creative Tourism ideas are:

- 1) Observing Natural / Cultural Assets, Identity and Wisdom.
- 2) Differentiation for Added Value
- 3) Value Creation

- 4) Redefining for Marketing
- 5) Thinking Outside the Box

Also, Yuwadee (2551) suggested that Creative Tourism could be combined with tourism marketing strategies by employing creative business ideas or the 4 Ps which is a classic theory. When integrating this creative business theory, the tourism and service ideas can be explained in the following three categories:

- 1) Tourism products are needed to fulfill physical and emotional needs. When achieving this requirement, the price setting of products and services can be raised without having to offer explanations.

- 2) Placement or distribution channels made available digitally therefore the places become unlimited. This will enable travellers to freely search for travel information; they can manage their own trip however they like (Self – Arrangement). Travelling to well-known places becomes obsolete while visiting local places like local markets or local food sellers becomes trendy.

- 3) Promotions which use traditional techniques and discount promotions. This tactic is no longer effective; emotional value and engaging strategies need to be applied instead in order to raise social & environmental concern. This type of technique which puts the focus on social and environment issues, especially in the area of global warming, become popular including issues like Green Landing / Green Globe / Green Key / Ecotel / Blue Flag.

In addition, the management of Creative Cultural Food Tourism is very important since it creates opportunities for creativity and integration of folk knowledge and Cultural Food Tourism. It helps develop communities' sustainability and makes possible creative presentation between tourism management and food management. Food is such an important part of life and it can be integrated in to Cultural Tourism creatively. One example can be seen through Khun Mon's creative Cultural Food Tourism farm (Manager News, 2013). Visitors not only visit and purchase products from Mon's farm, but there are also activities enabling the visitors to learn more about local products while trying out local dishes and goods and also tasting the food they have cooked themselves. These travellers gain more knowledge from those activities; this is considered Creative Cultural Food Tourism.

3. Community Participation

3.1 Definition

Erwin (1976) said that it was a process allowing people to engage in brainstorming, making decisions and solving problems. It heavily focuses on people's participation, using of creative ideas, skills, right solutions and tracking standards to follow the results of the organization's operation.

Cohen and Uphoff (1980) created basic rules to explain and analyze participation of the following four types:

- 1) Decision Making – This can be done in the early stages, in the middle of the activity and before continuing the activity.
- 2) Implementation – Participation by support of resources, while focusing on management and cooperation.
- 3) Benefits – Social and shared benefits
- 4) Evaluation – Controlling and examining the whole of activities for improvement of the project.

Fornaroff (1980) suggested that community participation included these methods: 1) strategic planning which means decision making in objectives, tactics, resources and assessment 2) operation 3) project practicality and 4) deriving benefits

Norman Uphoff (1981) identified community participation by the following four methods: Decision Making, Implementation, Benefits and Evaluation.

Yuwat (1983) explained that people's participation means allowing people to have a part in creating ideas, making decisions, operating and sharing responsibility tasks which affect them.

Kasperson and Breitbat (1985) said that community participation is the moment when people are not just followers, but they became leaders in developing and changing along the whole process.

- 1) Objectives of development
- 2) Setting prioritys
- 3) Planning
- 4) Following plans
- 5) Gaining knowledge for improvement

Bangorn (1985) said that there are three participation processes which are involved in decision making including the beginning stage of planning, the operating process and gaining benefits from the project.

Pravet (1989) said there were five participation processes which went along with The Working Style of Women in the Countryside, 1) establishing participation ideas to set the standard 2) engaging in planning the project 3) participating in the activity 4) participating in the outcome 5) participating in maintaining the results

Kiatsak (1993) said that participation in the areas of workforce, resources, financial support and idea sharing had four processes which were: collective decision making, co-operating, sharing benefits and co-assessing the project.

Stavenhagen (1997) said that local participation was a process where community members work together in order to achieve the objective whether in the area of economy or society or politics. This cooperation can also be in order to strengthen the community's power to change community conditions, politics or economy.

Nares (1998) said that people's participation in the whole process includes the research (community study), decision planning, the operation, the management and the assessment of management benefits.

Somma (1999) said that the participation of people involved allowing people to create ideas, make decisions and share responsibility. All people want to live peacefully with one another, want to be treated fairly and need to be accepted. They are ready to sacrifice for one another and participate in community activities and they can be changed into a better person if the right advice is given.

Misara (2000) said that participation in community tourism management is a process in which a group of people, a club, a foundation or volunteer organization come and work together in community tourism management in order to achieve the objective together.

Sureporn (2001) stated that people's participation in tourism was mostly because of the shared benefits, which was only one of the factors. To engage in a sustainable development, all five elements had to be fulfilled.

1) Co-planning – Planning together to facilitate the community. Attending meetings and giving opinions to improve the tourism development plan by explaining reasons for agreement or disagreement with the plan. If there is an unknown local place that needs to be promoted, the community has the responsibility to brainstorm with one another to bring out the different points of interest in the community to attract tourists. Also, issues like the managing tactics, the persons in charge, the location of the stores, the types of retailers, the store patterns and environment protection need to be discussed.

2) Co-operating – When there is a plan, people in the community need to execute the plan together, for instance, if setting out a plan to reduce garbage in one year the community needs to follow this plan.

3) Co-benefit sharing – All members need to be able to access the resources from the local touristic place. The financial and material benefits have to be equally managed in regard to fairness and equality. Impartial benefit sharing means those who do more, receive more; this can ensure that the participation of the community will be carried on.

4) Follow up process and assessment – Problems can always occur when work is done. Therefore, there should be an exchange of opinions and discussion in order to find solutions.

5) Perseverance – After the resources are complete, everyone has to maintain the condition of the resources in order to attract tourists or else those benefits will be lost.

Sureporn (2000) said that community participation is needed to engage people through the whole process including thinking, planning, operating, evaluating and receiving benefits from the activity and from the study of tourism management in the community. The overall success of participation of the community will come from cooperation among related organizations of both private and public sectors. All private organizations need to support the local community in managing their own development. They can help by sharing the right information regarding the tourism industry and by giving support to help local activities run smoothly and sustainably.

Samrit (2002) said that participation means allowing operators or related working personnel to be a part of the activity in order to make them connect

with the task or the organization. This connection can be helpful; as the community decides things together they will be bound to carry out that plan together.

Yuwat (2002) gave the definition of people participation as the processes they must go through including research (community study), decision planning, operation, management, and assessment of benefits management. The processes were divided into the following four methods:

- 1) Planning – People engaged in analyzing the problems, prioritizing the targets, setting resources management, determining evaluation methods and, most important, decision making.
- 2) Implementation – People need to cooperate, manage resources, handle their responsibilities and control costs and management.
- 3) Utilization – People must utilize real life activities; this improves self-dependence and social control.
- 4) Obtaining Benefits – People need to equally share the benefits with the community.

Narinchai (2002) summarized participation as when a party which never engaged in or participated in any activity or never joined in any event decides to engage in the process with real eagerness from the first stage to the final stage.

Udom and Suparwiree (2002) said that it means to control and take care of the tourism process from the observation stage and throughout management planning and operation. Participation does not only create income for the community, but also enhances local significance and self-dependent development.

Akin (2003) defined participation as the following four stages: 1) outlining problems, determining cause and solution of the problem; 2) choosing a solution and developing the solution strategy; 3) performing the activity and following the plan; 4) evaluating the activity.

Pairat (2003) arranged the types and stages into the following seven categories:

- 1) Finding problems and causes of the problems together
- 2) Improving work reducing problems and satisfying needs together
- 3) Developing policies, frameworks, projects and activities to solve problems together

- 4) Deciding on usage of resources together
- 5) Adapting a management developing system together
- 6) Cooperating on each project according to each one's ability
- 7) Following the plan and activities together

Pinij (2004) said that people participation came from a belief that the best and longest lasting developments come from the people's power and ability to work together. When allowing people to participate in the development of their own community, the plan would, more likely, cater to their needs; it would make them feel as part of the development and as owners of their outcome.

Amara (2004) said that participation in a developing tourism system between private and local sectors had the following three elements: 1) touristic places, 2) tourism markets and 3) tourism services. These three elements are related to the ecology, environment, economy and society. Participation between private and public sectors and related regulations in the present and future should be supported by the government sector allowing local communities and the private sector to manage the operation.

Tosapol (2005) said that community participation, especially from local people, should allow people to engage in the whole process to create local benefits which are a fair share of the income. Also, it would improve the quality of life with benefits from tourism maintenance, tourism control planning, sustainable resource preservation and enhanced social conditions. A necessary element is to appropriately conserve tourism resources and the environment along with increasing skills in management and coordination with outsiders.

According to the definitions, participation means allowing people, either from the public or private sectors, to operate, discuss, think, express opinions and find solutions together freely and equally. From the previous explanations of participation, the researcher concludes that people participation should allow people to think and make their own decisions while receiving cooperation from all parties in establishing a unified tourism development process. The study of community participation in developing tourism should include decision making, operation, benefit gaining and evaluation. People need to be fully engaged in the entire process in order to achieve the objectives for individual and overall benefits.

4. Tourists' Cultural Behaviors with Food

4.1 Tourists' Behaviors

Tourists' behaviors refer to perceptual behaviors or actions, as well as psychological needs, in response to tourism, such as purposes, frequencies, travelling preparation, companions, tourist attractions, tourism activities, sources of information, accommodations, etc.

4.1.1 Influential factors on consumers' and tourists' behaviors

The analysis of consumptive behaviors needs to start with the study of influential factors on consumers' behaviors; for example, motivation is a major influential factor on consumers' behaviors. At the same time, culture, personal characteristics, and social influence are also fundamental factors in a consumers' decision-making process. The following figure (Figure 6) illustrates seven influential factors on consumers' behaviors.

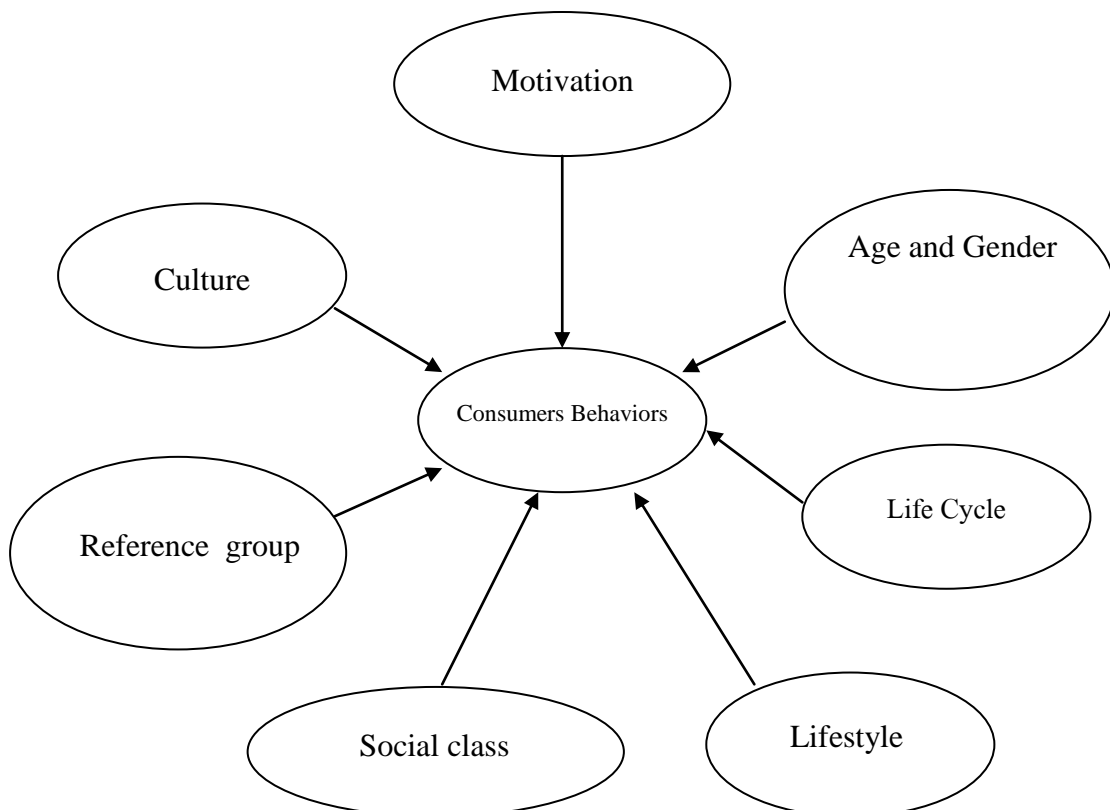


Figure 1 Influential Factors on Consumers' Behaviors

Adapted from: Hudson (2008)

1) Motivation: an individual's inner drive response to his or her own desire. Entrepreneurs who have a good understanding of consumers' motivations have an advantage over other business opponents since they know what the tourists want. Furthermore, the entrepreneurs understand the ways in which a consumer's motivation is a contributing factor when the consumer purchases goods or services. According to the motivation theory, the key point is that a consumer's internal needs, or inner drive, lead to certain consumerist behaviors.

2) Age and Gender: in the past, traditional marketing share was based on age. At present, many tourism companies tend to focus on elderly tourists as a target group since the group is growing steadily. The elderly tourist market is a group that is wealthy and unique because this group does not need to travel during tourist seasons or on the weekends. As a result, hotels have more customers on weekdays. In addition, this group is able to travel for a longer period of time since the elderly have more free time. Furthermore, they prioritize values rather than prices and are loyal to the brands or services they use frequently. Setting up the prices, however, needs to suit the income of the retirees. For example, Disney Land tends to pay more attention to the senior tourist groups.

3) Lifestyle: lifestyle analysis includes management of time, money, and energy. However, only using lifestyle analysis is not enough for the tourist industry. The marketers usually analyze lifestyles, along with demographics and psychological factors, in order to measure individuals' activities, interests, and opinions. In America, the VAL System divides the population into eight psychological groups based on personal image, inspiration, value, and commodities as follows: Innovator, thinker, achiever, experiencer, believer, striver, maker, and survivor.

4) Life Cycle: this is defined as the period of time in life in relation to someone's age and family status. For instance, single people or families without children have different lifestyles than married people or families with children. As a result, these people change their tourism behaviors based on their age and family status.

5) Culture: this refers to norms, beliefs, and rituals that are unique to each individual, which contributes to different desires and behaviors. The

different cultures are influential in different ways on lifestyles of people in communities. An individual tends to meet his or her own needs in response to social norms. For example, ecotourism is trendy. Commercial tourism, on the other hand, is not popular anymore. Cultural changes are also important; for example, smoking in public affects services in flights, hotels, etc.

6) Social class: this refers to the social position to which an individual belongs based on his or her income, wealth, education, occupation, family status, and the value of housing, as well as its location. Social class is associated with certain institutions with which an individual gets involved, like castes in Hinduism in India. Even developed countries are divided into social class such as high, medium or average, and low. The marketers must know the kinds of products or services each class is likely to consume with a variety of reasons. In terms of tourism industries, those with higher incomes, and possibly higher levels of education, tend to travel more often.

7) Reference group: this refers to groups who directly and indirectly influence an individual's attitudes or behaviors. Reference groups include family, educational institution, workplace, temple, etc.

4.1.2 Identifying Types of Tourists and Tourism Behaviors

Cohen (1972), a socialist, divided tourists into four types as follows:

1) Organized mass tourist: this refers to the tourists who buy package tours in popular tourists' destinations from tourist companies. They prefer travelling in a group mostly to beaches or to just in hotels to rest.

2) Individual mass tourist: this refers to the tourists who buy more flexible tourist packages, such as packages which include only airfare and accommodation. They prefer travelling by themselves to major attractions in tourist cities.

3) Explorer: this refers to tourists who organize travel programs by themselves and avoid popular tourist destinations. They prefer meeting local people, but they still need a certain level of convenience and security.

4) Drifter: this refers to tourists who wish to be a part of a community. They prefer not thinking about any travelling plans and choose a tourist city depending upon their own desire.

Plog (1977) proposed a psychological theory that divided tourist behaviors into five categories as follows:

1) Psychocentrics: this refers to tourists who are self-centered and prefer visiting well-known attractions but who avoid trying new things like food, accommodation, entertainment, meeting new people, troubles or unusual situations.

2) Near Psychocentrics: this refers to the tourists who are somewhere in between the self-centered and the mid-centrics. They dare to have a new experience if there is nothing they must get used to.

3) Mid-Centrics (Neutral): this refers to tourists who dislike adventure but do not mind trying a new thing as long as it is not too risky or unusual.

4) Near Allocentrics: this refers to tourists who are in the middle between the mid-centrics and allocentrics. They do not mind adventurous trips.

5) Allocentrics: this refers to tourists who are interested in a variety of activities. They are straightforward, confident, fond of adventure, and willing to face new experiences. Travelling is a channel to express their curiosity.

Dorden and Dorden (1979) conducted a household survey including 2,000 participants and subsequently categorized five types of tourists as follows:

1) Budget traveler: a traveler with average income who usually searches for inexpensive holidays.

2) Adventurous tourist: a traveler with high education and average-to-high income who prefers adventurous tourism.

3) Homebody tourist: a methodical traveler who dislikes talking to others during a journey. He or she spends a little time planning his trips.

4) Vacationeer: this refers to low income travelers who tend to travel in a small group. They are enthusiastic to deliberately plan where and how to go.

5) Moderates: the travelers who prefer a long journey, they so avoid any trips on weekends.

Cohen (1979) proposed types of tourists' behaviors based on their experiences.

1) Recreational tourists mean the tourists who emphasize recreational or resting activities.

2) Diversionsary tourists mean the tourists who avoid monotonous activities through a variety of travelling.

3) Experiential tourists refer to the tourists who are interested in having real and new experiences with communities they visit, such as learning about the lifestyle of local people.

4) Experimental tourists like to talk to local people to learn and understand their lifestyle. They are good at adapting themselves to new local environment.

5) Existential tourists refer to the tourist who desire to submerge or spend their lives under the same culture or lifestyle of local people. They spend a long time staying in the tourist attraction.

For the types of food tourists, or gastronomic tourists, scholars explain and differentiate them in many ways. Differing characteristics and behaviors amongst tourists are influential on the types of tourism, as well as on the management of tourism activities as response to different needs. According to many scholars, this type of tourism shares similarities in meanings.

Cohen (1972) stated that tourists are divided into two types, namely, the Institutionalized tourist and the non-institutionalized tourist. Plog (1974) grouped them as allocentric and psychocentric. Both Cohen and Plog's groups share similar meanings. That is, institutionalized and psychocentric tourists are those who enjoy safe and fashionable destinations, while non-institutionalized and allocentric tourists are those who like adventure and new experiences.

Hjalager (2003) stated that food tourists are divided into four categories, namely: recreational, diversionsary, existential, and experimental. Recreational and diversionsary gastronomic tourists are the tourists who avoid taking risks or trying new foods. On the contrary, existential and experimental gastronomic

tourists are food tourists who love trying new or exotic foods. Likewise, the food tourists were also grouped based on their attitudes toward food. In other words, neophobic referred to those who disliked exotic food; however, neophilics preferred eating unusual food. Scholars explained that the different food behaviors were from different cultures, environments, and experiences.

A study by Kivela and Crotts (2006) regarding food safety found that food-neophobia is a concern for western tourists who travel to Asia. These tourists were anxious about food safety and were also afraid of being disappointed by Asian food. They preferred going to franchise restaurants or having hotel food, making them feel like they were home. Communication with local people was also a problem, thereby causing tourists to lose great experiences, like talking to street food vendors or local shop people who did not speak English.

Cohen and Avieli (2004) state that tourists took more risks trying local food. Some tourists said that the unusual or exotic food made the place more challenging and worth visiting. New food consumption was a major part and a memorable experience for visiting a tourist attraction.

Du Rand, Heath and Alberts (2003) state that food represented national belief and identity, bridging other cultures.

MacCannell (1973) states that not only did tourists like having new experiences, but they also wish to experience authenticity; that they want to have real and direct tourist experiences which are independent of tourist attractions set up for solely for tourism. For instance, if they happened to eat food at a tourist destination, the food should be exactly the same as what local people eat.

Hu and Ritchie (1993) state that food was the fourth part of attracting tourists besides weather, accommodation, and scenery. Similarly, Jenkins (1999) prioritized food as ranking in 9th place for attracting tourists.

Buhalis (2000) states that tourist sites are vital to magnetize certain groups of tourists. In other words, the tourist attraction was a major factor for attracting different kinds of tourists. Referring to the uniqueness of a tourist attraction, no matter if its products were tangible or intangible, food tourism was a key component contributing to the experience of both touchable and non-touchable products.

Furthermore, more studies accepted that the trend of decision-making of tourists tended to focus more on local food through marketing activities.

Telfer (2000) found that the Taste of Niagara program in the southern part of Ontario, Canada, was popular in terms of food manufacturers, entrepreneurs, restaurants, wine shops, well-known chefs, etc.

Boyne, Williams and Hall (2002) found that in Scotland the tourists and guests considered tour books very important, spent more money on food in each meal, and seemed to be interested in local food processing.

To sum up, not only does the food satisfy the tourists, but it also reflects the culture and lifestyle of local people of each country. The concept of food tourism refers to experiencing other cultures through food. Du Rand, Heath and Alberts (2003) thought that food tourism was an alternative method of tourism which was much more competitive at each tourist destination. Also, it was the tourists' desire to experience new things and try real local food. Moreover, Kivela and Crofts (2006) conducted a qualitative study by means of interview and found that food was a cultural tourism product; it impressed tourists and made them want to come back. Additionally, it brought in money for many tourist attractions.

As mentioned above, food tourism includes not only food, but also beverages and types of food tourists. For the purpose of this research topic, the researcher applied the ideas from the above-mentioned scholars in order to develop cultural tourism innovations for Islamic food in the Andaman Islands to attract international tourists. The research utilized these models and conceptual frameworks and adapted them into the study area in order to create ways to improve the current situation for cultural tourism in the Andaman Islands.

Schmoll (1977) studied and developed the ways of decision-making of tourists based on the concepts of persuasion, desire, and expectation, all of which determine tourism behaviors. Purchasing behaviors are influentially associated with the following four factors:

- 1) Travel stimuli: communication, marketing promotion, recommendations from friends, and commercial associations, such as advertisements.
- 2) Personal and social determinants: these determinants set up tourists' goals in the form of desires, wishes, expectations, and traveling risks.

3) External variables: these variables involve the reliability of the service providers, image of tourist city, past tourism, time limitation, and expenditure.

4) Destination characteristics: these characteristics affect tourists' decision-making, such as tourist place, relationship between value and price, quantity and quality of information, types of tour guide management, tourism opportunity, etc.

Model of Tourists' Decision-Making on Purchase by Schmoll

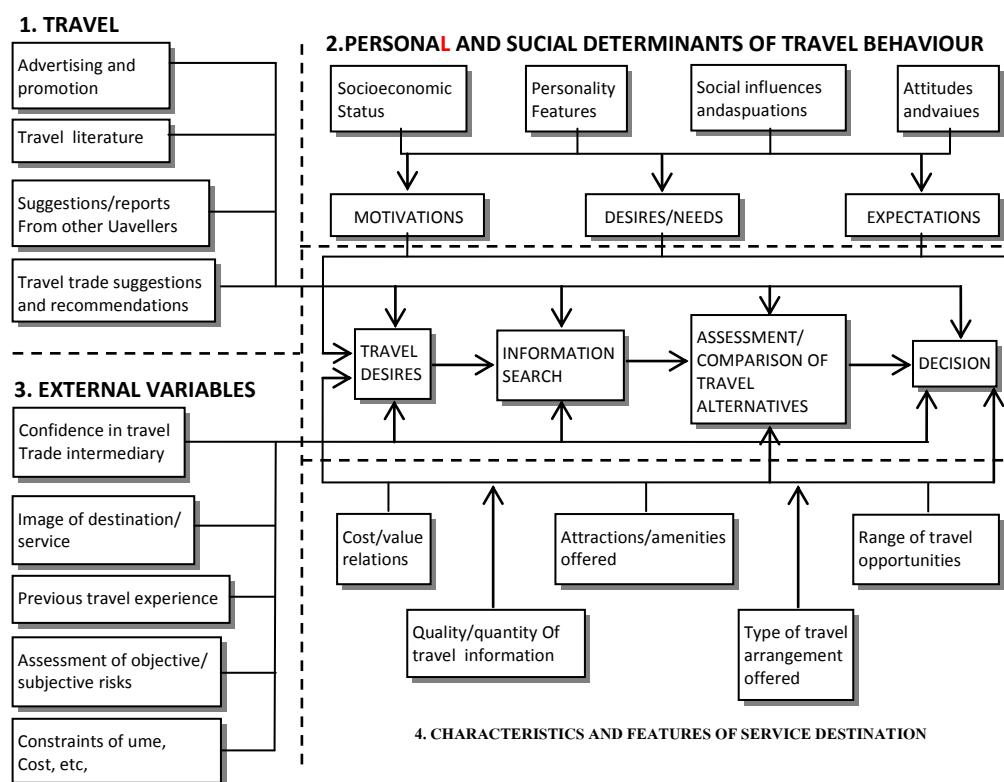


Figure 2 Model of Tourists' Decision-Making on Purchase by Schmoll

Source: Schmoll (1997)

Mathieson and Wall (1982) studied and proposed a model of tourists' decision-making which included four stages, as follows:

Stage 1: Felt need or travel desire

Stage 2: Information collection and evaluation

Stage 3: Travel decisions

Stage 4: Travel preparations and travel experiences

Stage 5: Travel satisfaction evaluations

All of these stages are influenced by the following four associated factors:

1) Tourist profile: personal characteristics, such as gender, period of education, income, attitude, motivation, past experience, and behavioral characteristics, such as desire, value, motivation, etc.

2) Travel awareness: accessing tourism information, facilities and services; this includes where tourists receive formal tourism information from, such as leaflets, tourism magazines, advertisements, as well as informal information from friends or relatives. Travel awareness also includes images of tourist cities, facilities, and services.

3) Destination resources and characteristics: the attractive uniqueness of each tourist place including the variety of activities and facilities in a tourist place, accessibility of the place, city-entering check, city infrastructures, etc.

4) Trip features: length of travel, distance, expenses, etc.

The current research integrated concepts and theories of tourists' behaviors, mentioned above, into Mathieson and Wall's Model, shown below:

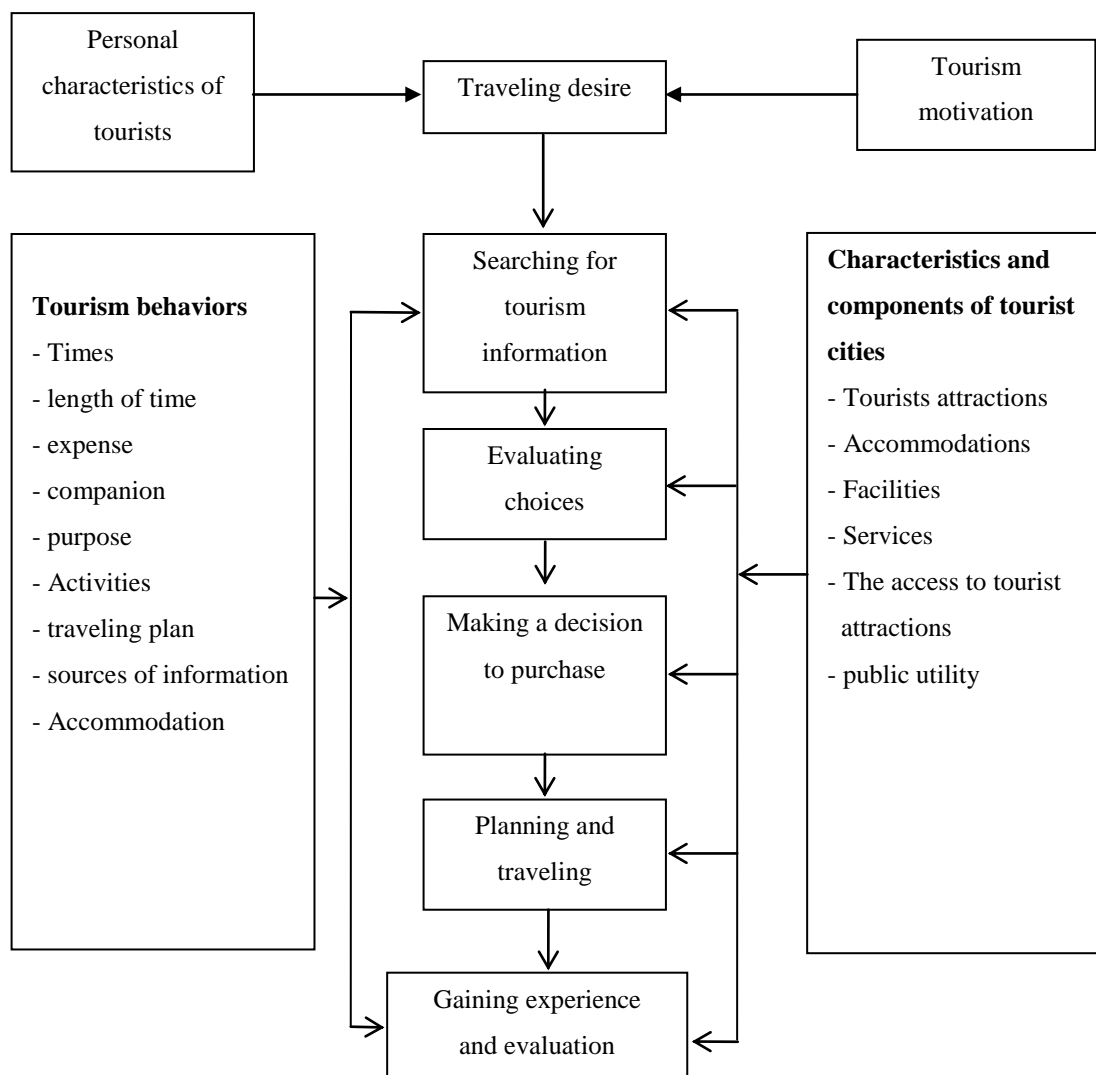


Figure 3 Conceptual Framework of Tourists' Behaviors

Adapted from: Mathieson and Wall (1982)

Tourists' behaviors are crucial for tourism management, especially understanding the dramatic changes in styles of traveling. Therefore, a well-planned study, combined with an understanding of changes in tourists' behaviors, contributes to an up-to-date adaption of the new trends of tourism management.

4.2 Tourists' Behaviors and Desires Toward Food Culture

Tourists' behaviors have an impact on making decisions and choosing tourism services, especially at the present moment because the tourism industry is dramatically growing and diversifying everywhere.

Food tourism is one of important tourism channels to study and comprehend tourists' behaviors, thereby creating successful tourism management. Many scholars have constructed a variety of theories and models of tourists' consumption.

Randall and Sanjur (1981) initiated a theoretically conceptual framework about the factors, as well as the tourists' behavioral characteristics, on food consumption, as shown in the following chart:

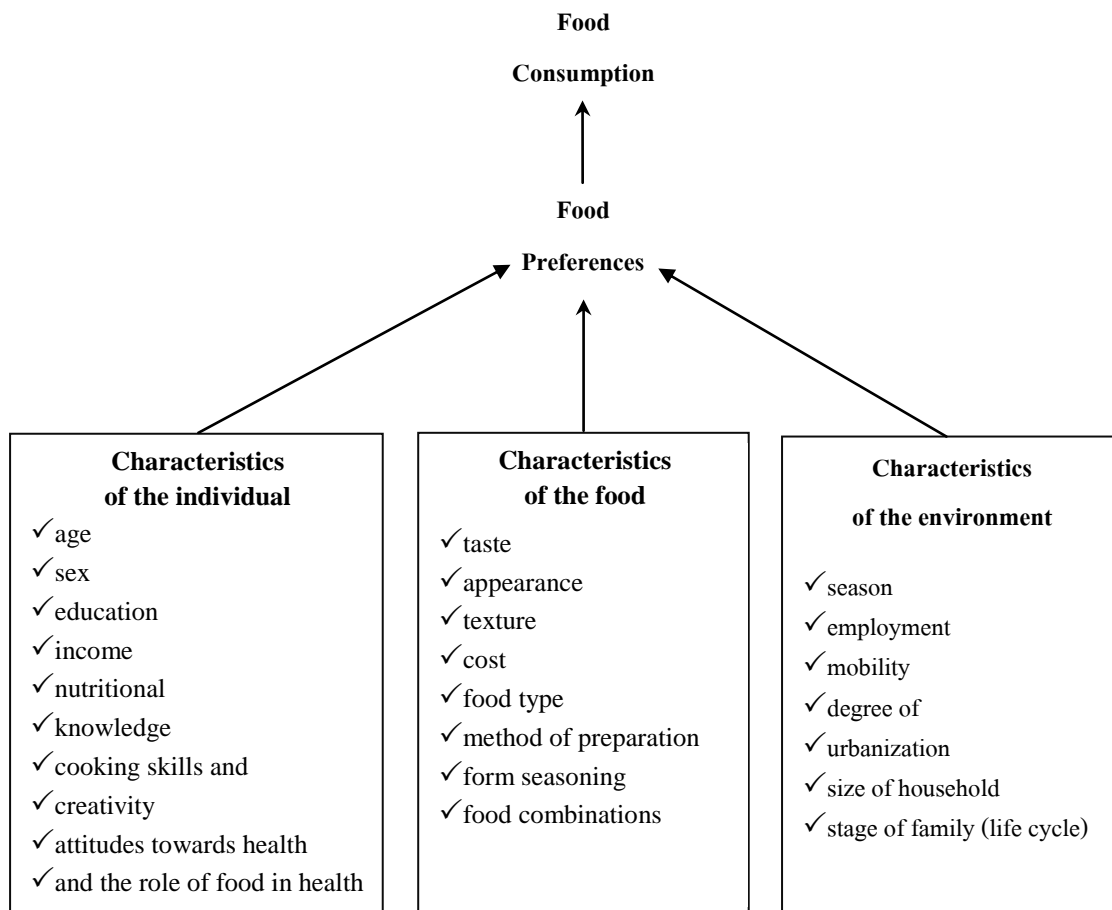


Figure 4 Theoretical Model for the Study of Food Preference

Sources: Randall and Sanjur (1981), Marija, Abele, and Hocquette (Eds.) (2013)

According to what Randall & Sanjur proposed in 1981, food preferences consisted of 1) consumers' characteristics, 2) features of food and its display, and 3) overall features of involving factors. In other words, what attracted tourists, based on food management, was food characteristics. At present, food display is important to attract more tourists and is considered as a stimulus for tourists' behaviors toward food culture. This concept was in association with the ideas from Chang, Mak, Eves & Lumbers (2011). These scholars analyzed patterns of tourists' food consumption and subsequently found that they were related to Randall and Sanjur's study from 1981. They found that there are five key components of tourists' consumption, as follows:

- 1) Taste
- 2) Healthcare
- 3) Cooking method
- 4) Food value and quality
- 5) Tourists' real experiences

The factors mentioned above aided tourists in understanding the history of each place, tailoring a tour to meet individual preferences, food management in tourist locations, and marketing and services, etc. For the research done on promoting local Islamic food in the Andaman Islands to international tourists, the researcher conducted a review study by collecting data from similar research studies on food tourism, shown in the following table:

Table 5 The Summary Table of the Tourists' Desires in Food Tourism

Factors Affecting the Desires in Food Tourism	Sources/Research Titles/Scholars
1. Sensory Attributes	
1) The appearance, composition, and presentation of food make the food unique, interesting, and appetizing.	Factors influencing tourists (Chang, 2012) Empirical verification
2) The smell of a food attracts tourists and leads them choose to eat that food.	(Kim and Eves, 2013) Analyzing factor
3) The tastiness of a menu item attracts tourists to choose that item.	(Chris Ryan, 2012)
4) Feelings or happiness when eating a meal.	
2. Health Concerns	
1) Food is made from local, organic ingredients.	Empirical verification
2) There is evidence of the Clean Food Good Taste Practice, guaranteeing the safety of consumers' health	(Kim and Eves, 2013)
3) The menu has presented a balanced diet and herbal ingredients good for health and prolongation of life.	
4) The menu has been presented by differentiating foods into appropriate categories for each blood type for the benefit of tourists' health.	Analyzing factor (Chris Ryan, 2012)
5) There is a variety of seafood (prawns, shells, crab, fish, and squid), which are fresh, clean, chemical free, and healthy.	
3. Methods of Preparation and Cooking	
1) Preparation of food ingredients follows the standard principles of Halal food.	Factors Influencing tourists (Chang, 2012)
2) The food containers are clean and safe. The cooks are skillful and reliable. Consumers have been able to consume food feeling confident the food is up to the safety	Factors Influencing Tourists (Chang, 2012)

Table 5 The Summary Table of the Tourists' Desires in Food Tourism (Cont.)

Factors Affecting the Desires in Food Tourism	Sources/Research Titles/Scholars
3) standards and in line with the principles of Halal food.	
4) The environment in the kitchen is appropriate for the preparation process, cooking process, and food storage. Equipment is kept orderly. Moreover, there is also environmental management both inside and outside the enterprise.	Attributes that Influence East Meets West (Chang, 2011)
4. Value and Quality	
1) The food has a unique identity, which results in aesthetics in taste during the meal.	Factors Influencing Tourists (Chang, 2012)
2) The value of the food's long inherited history is showcased using interesting themes. The value of the food has been communicated by creating a story, of which the main idea comes from the food's legend.	National Food Tourism (Ireland, 2011-2013)
3) The food has included all five nutritional food groups that are essential for our body and can be consumed by everybody.	
4) There has been the development of good quality processed food products with their own identity and which are as easy to buy as souvenirs.	Factors Influencing Tourists (Chang, 2012)
5) The quality of the food is appropriate for the price.	
5. Authentic Tourist Experience	
1) Cross-cultural learning at each tourist attraction has conveyed the identity of food wisdom through participation, such as preparing food or eating.	Attributes that Influence East Meets West (Chang, 2011)
2) There is cooperation among the local community, the government and private sectors, and stakeholders in presenting food products and services to tourists.	Food Preferences (Chang, 2010)

Table 5 The Summary Table of the Tourists' Desires in Food Tourism (Cont.)

Factors Affecting the Desires in Food Tourism	Sources/Research Titles/Scholars
3) Information on cultural tourism related to food can be searched using technology, the Internet, or online social networks, such as Facebook or YouTube.	Analyzing factor (Chris Ryan, 2012)
4) Tourists have been encouraged to consume food through word of mouth.	

5. The Marketing Mix and Value Added in Tourism

The present marketing mix is fashionable in almost every single business sector since business environments strive to be competitive. Therefore, the channels of having customers, distributing products and services, and the management of marketing mix are crucially beneficial to businesses in terms of uniqueness and advantages over other businesses. This is especially important in the tourism business in which customers are unable to touch the products or service beforehand. Consequently, the combination of marketing strategies is a great way to attract tourists and customers. It is also one of the key parts of marketing and value added for tourism products and services. A good understanding of marketing principles, particularly tourism marketing, is important. Interestingly, many scholars explain the definitions and importance of tourism marketing as follows:

Michel (1989) states that tourism marketing a successful tourism business creates a balance by using the tourists' demands. Marketing is considered to be philosophical management based on research, prediction, and production distribution in response to organizations' objectives, all of which are beneficial to the organizations.

Alastair (1989) proposes the definition of "Hospitality and Travel Industry" as a sequenced and continuous process, namely, one that includes doing research, operating, controlling, and assessing an activity in order to meet the needs, desires, and the satisfaction of customers to achieve the organization's objectives.

Victor (1994) states that tourists' desires and organization are the key components of the tourism industry in response to demands. Marketing mix is a linking tool for these two components.

Philip et al. (1999) says marketing is a management and social process in which an individual person or a group of people fulfill their basic needs and desires by producing and exchanging products with others.

Siriwan (1998) proposes the definition of marketing as the communication about products between distributors and target markets with the objective of promoting purchase behaviors.

Chalongsri (2005) says that it is the process of all that activities promote sales by both persons and non-persons to customers for the purposes of moving as many good as possible goods from producers or distributors to consumers in order to reach the expected amount of profit.

Kotler (2006) says that an important job of marketers is to employ marketing activities as tools and to integrate marketing plans in order to create communication streams and deliver product values to consumers. A marketing plan is conducted by making a decision through figures with reference to marketing activities stimulating product values. The fashionable marketing activity is called Marketing Mix: 4 P's; this refers to a marketing strategy in which companies push all activities forward to reach an ultimate goal. The McCarthy divided the activities in the '4P's' strategy into four groups, namely: product, price, place, and promotion.

In short, tourism marketing means the actions of research, analysis, forecast, the selection of appropriate marketing mix, and services for meeting the needs of customers.

5.1 Tourism Marketing Mix

Marketing mix is vital to marketing administration. The marketing inner factors are controllable by businesses, such as changing or improving the factors in new environments to maintain business operation.

The definition of a product is any good, service, or ideas which is able to satisfy or benefit a consumer; products can be either tangible or intangible. Products' characteristics include quality, logo, package, label, service, and warranty.

Price: the product value. It should be reasonable and appropriate, compared to the product quality or benefits for consumers. Pricing is important in marketing since it means setting up both prices and conditions or, in other words, offering discounts.

Place: the product or service will dissatisfy consumers if it is not in the place and time the consumers want. Therefore, good marketers need to consider about place, time, and who is the seller or service provider. Furthermore, as a result of place consideration, the distributing job is divided into two parts. First is the channel of distribution, which involves whether to deliver products to customers either by direct-sale or middleman. Second is the physical distribution of a product, which involves all facilities for transportation and storage, contributing to perfect delivery in terms of punctuality, right place, and size.

Promotion: the message of the producers passed to target groups with the purposes of providing information, convincing consumers, as well as changing consumers' behaviors in order to bring about purchasing behaviors.

Kotler (1999) states that marketing strategy is one of the most effective tools for executives. At present, there are a variety of marketing strategies that can be adapted for certain types of business.

However, many scholars proposed different definitions of marketing mix, such as Marketing Mix 8 Ps, 16 Ps, etc. The following table is a compilation of the concepts about Marketing Mix.

Table 6 Summary of Marketing Mix Concepts

Scholars	Marketing Mix
Middleton (1985)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Product 2. Price 3. Placement 4. Promotion 5. People 6. Physical evidence 7. Process 8. Partnership
Goldsmith (1999)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Personalization 2. Personal 3. Physical asset 4. Procedure
Lamb, Hair and McDaniel (2001)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Product 2. Price 3. Place 4. Promotion
Lovelock and Wright (2002)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Product 2. Place, cyberspace, time 3. Process 4. Productivity 5. People 6. Promotion & education 7. Physical evidence 8. Price
Borden (2007)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Product 2. Price 3. Partnership 4. Packaging 5. People

Table 6 Summary of Marketing Mix Concepts (Cont.)

Scholars	Marketing Mix
Mittal (2009)	6. Programming
	7. Positioning
	8. Political power
	9. Presentation
	1. Product
	2. Price
	3. Placement
	4. Promotion
	5. People
	6. Physical evidence
	7. Process
	8. Partnership
	9. Positioning of brand/product
	10. Prestige of brand/product
	11. Pace (speed of launch of product/new brands/ advertisement
	12. Profit earning ability of brand/product
13. Professional approach	
14. Pleasure to work for salesmen	
15. Performance consistency of product	
16. Productivity of sales personnel	
Joshi and Srivastava (2011)	1. Product
	2. Price
	3. Promotion
	4. Personal
	5. Public Relation
Rudick (2014)	1. Product
	2. Price
	3. Placement

Table 6 Summary of Marketing Mix Concepts (Cont.)

Scholars	Marketing Mix
	4. Promotion
	5. Perspective
	6. Philosophy
	7. People
	8. Planning

Table 7 Summary of Marketing Mix Concepts

Scholars	Marketing Mix (added from four P's)
Crosby and Stephens (1987)	Personal relationship
Srinivasan et al. (2005)	Proactive marketing
Chen and Hsieh (2008)	Periodic marketing
Morgan et al. (2009)	Profit
Hsieh et al. (2012)	Push/Pull
Ramachandran (2012)	Psychology
Vashishla and Balaji (2012)	Persuasion
Nokandeh et al. (2013)	Perception
Pauwels et al. (2013)	Purchase process
Alba and Williams (2013)	Pleasure
Medjoudj et al. (2013)	Power of customer

According to Table 8, the researcher chose seven P's (Marketing Mix 7 P's) for the construction of the questionnaire about participation in tourism management regarding local Islamic food culture for people living in these communities. The marketing mix's effects on tourism management of local Islamic food culture is shown in the following table:

Table 8 Summary table of marketing mix effects on tourists' demands in food tourism

Marketing Mix's effect on demands in food tourism	Sources/Research titles/Scholars
1. Product	Middleton (1985) Lovelock and Wright (2002) Borden (2007) Mittal (2009) Joshi and Srivastava (2011) Rudick (2014)
2. Price	Middleton (1985) Lamb, Hair and McDaniel (2001) Borden (2007) Mittal (2009) Joshi and Srivastava (2011) Rudick (2014)
3. Place	Lovelock and Wright (2002)
4. Promotion	Middleton (1985) Akhilesh Mittal (2009) Joshi and Srivastava (2011) Rudick (2014)
5. Process	Middleton (1985) Lovelock and Wright (2002) Mittal (2009)
6. People	Lovelock and Wright (2002) Borden (2007) Mittal (2009) Rudick (2014)
7. Physical Evidence	Middleton (1985) Mittal (2009)

All factors from the above marketing mix (7 P's) were used to set up questions in the questionnaire about the participation in Islamic food tourism management in communities and sectors involving the Andaman Islands in order to support international tourists.

According to Table 9, good management of these factors can bring about income for businesses, organizations, tourism industries, as well as add value to products through important marketing channels. 'Value added' refers to the ratio between what customers receive, or customers' benefits, and what customers lose, or the lost capital (Kotler, 2001). It is in relation to the concept from Pansak W., Chief Policy Advisor to the Prime Minister, which states that value added means the increase of the product's value in every step, beginning from production to distribution, by using technology from others for the production of the same commodities; eventually, value added ends in a sale price war against the other suppliers. For example, Thailand brought in motor technology from Japan to produce cars and sell them worldwide. Obviously, the Japanese, being that they were the designers and technology inventors, earned the most money. Thai people, on the other hand, earned only a small percentage from the car sales. The benefits for customers can be divided into two parts, namely, functional benefit and emotional benefit. Meanwhile, the capital is divided into four parts: money, time, labor, and emotion. The value can be shown as the following equation:

$$\text{value} = \text{benefit} / \text{capital}$$

$$\text{value} = (\text{functional benefit} + \text{emotional benefit}) / (\text{money} + \text{time} + \text{labor} + \text{emotion})$$

Therefore, there are several ways of increasing value for customers, including:

- 1) Add more benefits
- 2) Use less capital
- 3) Add more benefits and use less capital
- 4) Add more benefits than capital
- 5) Gain less benefits, but use less capital so that capital still exceeds

the amount of lost benefits

There is a simple principal in business operations consisting of taking raw materials, processing them into products or services, which are worth more, and then distributing this products or services to customers. Product quality needs to satisfy customers, as well as convince them to bring about the exchange of product for money. However, the prospect of increasing values of tourism products is somewhat different from ideas mentioned about economic perspectives. Several important concepts of increasing values for tourism businesses include making product brands, new products, new services, or even new ways of production and product presentation, thereby stimulating the target customers. For instance, some restaurants changed the packaging of a product, resulting in more a valuable product, which increased demands and, eventually, business revenue. In another case, a company sold drinking water that was packaged using paper bag, but the price could then be doubled when the paper package is redesigned for beauty and cooling maintenance, which was considered to be a new innovation.

To sum up, marketing mix and the value added for products and services are considered crucial in the present competitive market. Additionally, these two concepts are a link between restaurant operators and consumers, or, tourists. Product and service advertisements travel as news and messages through media in a variety of ways to and rely on many factors to promote current food tourism markets. The benefits are value added is important in any tourism industry, but especially for products in Islamic food tourism.

6. Types of Tourism Management Innovation

Innovation is a crucial part of moving businesses forward. In addition, innovation can be an advantage over business competitors and can also help maintain business operations under the fluctuation of the present world of business. Innovation means the creation of a new method or a new product for a certain business. At present, the tourism business relies heavily on innovation. For example, innovation might be used for decreasing the number of workers in an organization while still allowing the organization to satisfy a variety of customers. Moreover, due to the current tourism situation, which focuses on tourism in many countries, like in the Asia

Pacific region, the concept of innovation is especially important to enhance the capability and potential of Thai tourism. To accomplish this, Thailand needs to understand innovative management, types of innovation, and methods of innovation in the tourism industry

6.1 Meanings of Innovation

The word “innovation” is derived from the word “innovare” which means to “do something new” in Latin. There are many sources for definitions of innovation that depend on different perspectives. For example, one definition of innovation means making a new product, a new process or technology, or improving personnel or the organization.

Schumpeter (1934) states that innovation means an introduction of new quality things to which customers aren't used to, creating new ways of production or improving old ways of production for more effective performance, and finding new markets and new materials.

Morton (1971) states that innovation refers to making an old thing newer, including developing human and organization resources. In other words, innovation doesn't mean removing something, but rather it means improving an old process or product.

Mole and Elliot (1987) state that innovation refers to the process of integrating new ideas effectively and, as a result, receive profit through the satisfaction of customers.

Lundvall (1992) states that innovation refers to the process of continuous change until it yields new results, products, techniques, organizational structure, or markets.

Stokes and Wilson (2006) state that innovation refers to the process of changing ideas to find new opportunities for the creation of value. The new ideas are then employed for renovating a product or process. In other words, innovation is the invention of a product or process from new ideas and under new processes and technologies, which then brings about new products and services to new markets.

McAdam et al. (2007) states that innovation means the process of developing and applying innovation in an organization for more effectiveness, starting with suppliers and labors, and ending with customers.

Pan-arge (2004) states that innovation means new ideas, actions, or anything that is applied by persons or organizations in order to search for commercial success; it includes changes to anything, such as markets, products, processes, and services. Then these changes are turned into opportunities through which new ideas are created for the benefit of oneself and society.

Supachai (2004) states that innovation refers to production, study, knowledge management, and the exploitation of new ideas for the benefits of economy and society. This definition of innovation is not research-based, but it can still help bridge new ideas and production sectors together. Thus, Supachai (2004) is a major link between knowledge and productivity.

National Innovation Agency (2008) states that innovation refers to anything derived from new knowledge and created to benefit the economy and society.

In conclusion, innovation means making new things or improving old ones. These things can be new ideas, which bring about new products, systems, processes, technologies, organization structures, or working cultures, all of which can move an organization forward and enhance its potential for a long-term competition.

6.2 Types of Innovation

There have been widely conducted studies about innovation, but none of them are accepted generally. Some studies considered the expenses used in research and development (R&D) or data from a patent (Breschi, 1999; Malerba and Orsenigo, 1995), while others considered whether a new thing is an innovation or not.

According to literature reviews by many economists, there are many types of innovations using in a variety of ways, especially technological innovations, such as making the production process dramatically different. Some say that products and process could be changed slowly and gradually. According to Lundvall (1992), innovation is a continuous change in order to have new products, techniques, and markets.

Avermaete et al. (2003) compiled two concepts of innovation, initiated by Clarysse et al. (1998) and Lundvall (1992), and then divided the innovation into four types, namely: product innovation, process innovation, organizational innovation, and market innovation, all of which are interrelated.

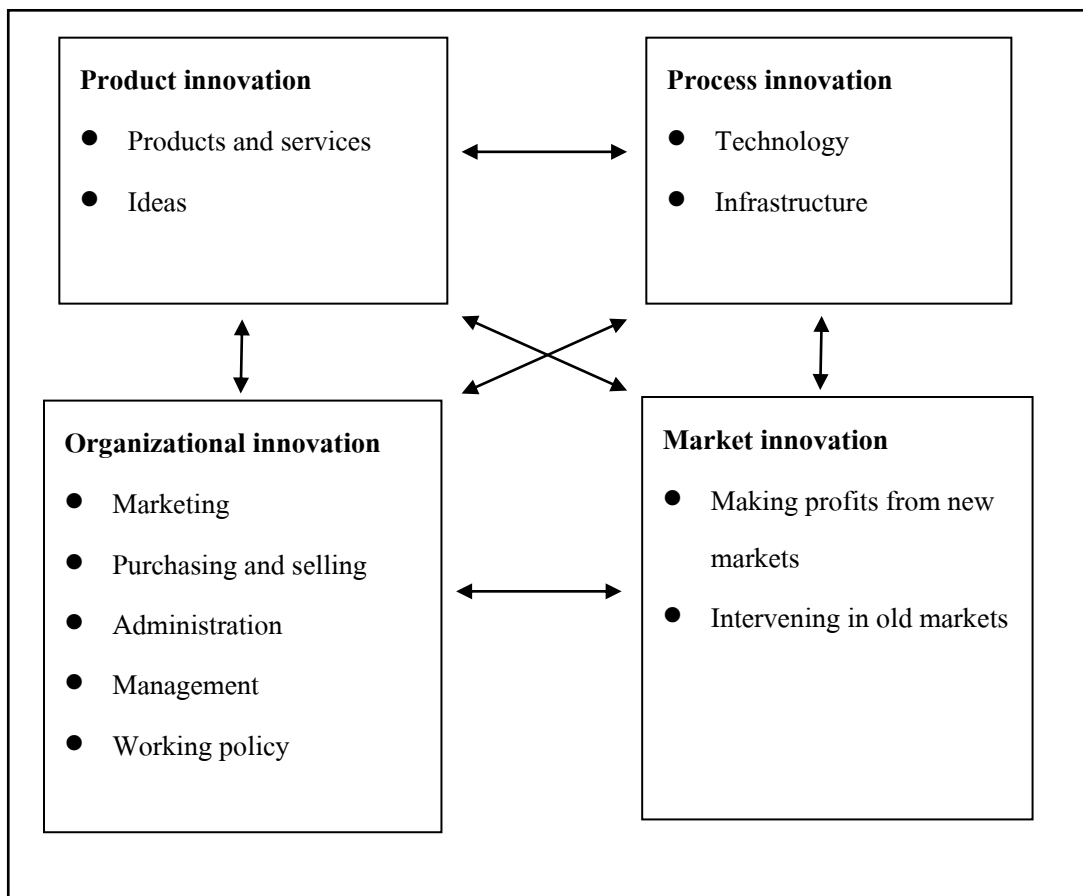


Figure 5 Types of Innovation

Sources: Avermaete et al. (2003)

1) Product innovation means new products or services or new ideas derived from a person or everyone in an organization. Also, it can originate from the change of organizational structure. At times, we find that most of the products sold in general markets are alike or just slightly different, so entrepreneurs, both existing and new, turn to focus on pricing strategies in order to attract more customers, as well as increase sales. At present, the intensified pricing competition tends to be a major obstacle for entrepreneurs to run and plan their businesses. Especially, SME entrepreneurs, who have a limitation of capital, capacity, and labor, are unable to produce a large number of products. Thereby, the product costs per unit are higher compared to major operators who gain benefits from economy of scale. In addition,

major operators tend to bring in business innovations in order to increase value added for products and services and to display their products' uniqueness and difference from other similar products or services available in markets by presenting higher quality and higher value products for customers. However, not only is innovation a tool for making a product different, it can also improve the product and its production process to decrease production cost and time spent in operation, which contributes to the capacity in market competition for a long-term business. It is categorized in three patterns as follows:

Types of Innovation	The Application in Business	Benefits to Business
(Product Innovation)	Using innovations to develop and improve products to increase their value added in terms of effectiveness, function, usage, and maintenance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -make a difference in product to meet the demand of customers -to have an opportunity to increase prices.
(Process Innovation)	Using innovations to develop and improve process in terms of materials, time, loss rate or the discharge of waste from production	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to decrease cost in operation but increase income among the pricing competition in the markets.
(Service Innovation)	Using innovations to develop and improve the steps of services to enhance the customers' satisfaction focusing on convenience and speed of the services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to make a difference in services and increase customers' satisfaction.

Figure 6 Types of Innovation

Source: Kasikorn research center (1013)

There are two purposes for using innovations to increase value added in business sectors:

(1) To develop the quality of products and services, such as functions, qualifications, new packages, etc., in order to meet the needs of customers and to differentiate a product from similar products available in markets. Simply speaking, an entrepreneur uses innovations to redesign both products and services, as well as to improve the quality of materials using in production.

(2) To improve the efficiency in production and decrease the cost in operating businesses. It needs to rely on innovative knowledge to improve production and service systems. According to SME businesses, the quality development and the difference making are important. This is likely due to the costs of operation lower, on average, than improving production efficiency. A business can to bring in process innovation to change the production process by adjusting or changing its machines. Short-term benefits can clearly be seen in the form of both increasing sales and pricing. However, some businesses need innovative knowledge to redesign products and services along with the improvement in production process and machines, which yields higher costs of business operation because of the integration of the innovations. In this case, the entrepreneurs need to prepare extensively before running their business; preparation includes capital, business planning, strategies, and channels for marketing, in order to shorten the payback cycle of the business. At present, innovations used to add value to products and services are receiving interest from entrepreneurs in many industries, ranging from food production in goods and appliances to businesses in the service sector.

2) Process innovation means the improvement of existing production lines by installing new additional infrastructures and technologies. In general, process innovation brings about the creation of new products and is a part of the changes in the new organization. This contributes to the growth of new markets. Both innovation and production process are critical to the success of environmentally friendly production.

3) Organizational innovation means changes in marketing, administration, management, and working policy. Organizational innovation is

important in every industry; high quality and standardized organizations have fine product and process innovations and, therefore, have a competitive advantage.

4) Market innovation means accessing new markets in order to find benefits or profits from gaining more marketing shares.

Katz (2003) explains that there are two types of innovation: incremental innovation and radical innovation. Incremental innovation occurs when the existing technologies or materials are improved or adapted before use. On other hand, radical innovation is derived from non-existent technologies or methods. Some prefer using the term “breakthrough innovation and discontinuous innovation” rather than radical innovation. Clayton Christensen (Christensen, 1997) from Harvard University uses the term “disruptive technology” to explain that some technological innovations went extremely against certain businesses or industries. Disruptive technology replaces and then deteriorates existing technologies. On the contrary, at times disruptive technology is able to bring about new markets. The new markets may be small at the beginning, but they are likely to grow later.

Moreover and Katz (2003) states that process innovation and service innovation are as important as product innovation because process innovation can decrease the cost of production by removing discontinued or outmoded steps. Furthermore, the link between product and process is important because some innovative products require innovative processes to attract customers to make purchases.

Furthermore, service innovation plays an important role in market success. In the past, not only could the company sell products constructed through innovations, but also the company or organization could provide services already invented through successful innovations. However, this does not mean that all service providers were successful. Some companies went bankrupt and quit operating their businesses. Even though a company may have a good concept for a service, the company is likely to go bankrupt due to failure to provide services, as well as high cost of investment.

Rak (2004) divides innovation into three facets:

1) Product innovation means the development of new products, technologies or process, or the improvement of existing things for more efficiency. The characteristics of the innovation can be anywhere from incremental to radical.

2) Process innovation means the application and the change of a process in production, method, and service, as well as organization management. Overall, process innovation depends upon the ability to change, or adjust an organization at every point of the value chain with the purpose of enhancing efficiency and effectiveness, leading to an advantage in marketing competition.

3) Managerial or administrative innovation means an invention in organizational management which increases the efficiency of a working system, production, product design, and service.

Worpat (2007) states that an innovation can be both radical and incremental or evolutionary in the following categories:

- 1) Product innovation
- 2) Process innovation
- 3) Service innovation
- 4) Market innovation
- 5) Financial innovation
- 6) Language, art, and culture innovation
- 7) Administrative and governance innovation
- 8) Faith, idea, and belief innovation

To sum up from the researcher's perspective, innovation can be mainly categorized as follows: product and service innovation, process innovation including production technology, service, and information technology, and administrative technology including administration in finance, personnel, marketing, and organizational culture, etc.

6.3 Process of Innovation

Katz (2003) explains the process of innovation in Figure 13. It is the result of a generated idea followed by opportunity recognition by people in an organization. Opportunity recognition happens when a person says "the materials we invent might benefit our customers" or "if we are able to solve this problem, we may

increase value added for our customers or shareholders”. When an opportunity emerges, it requires an incubation period for the generated idea until a certain time passes in which the decision-maker has assessed the possibility of the idea (idea evaluation).

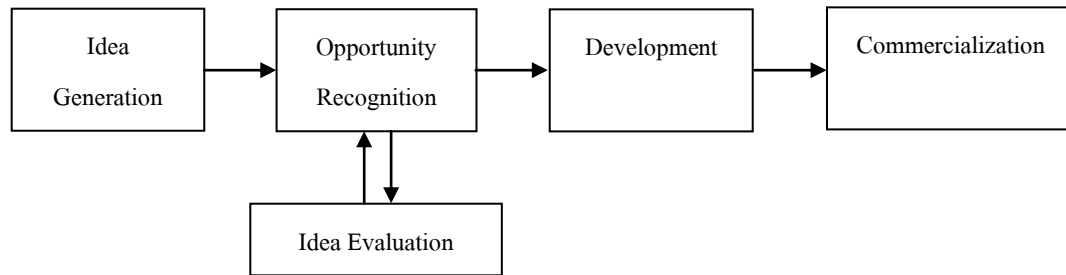


Figure 7 Process of Innovation

Source: Katz (2003)

6.4 Tourism Management Innovation

Most Thai people are not used to innovation; many think it is far from them or not found in daily life. Some think that it only includes communication technology or genetic engineering since it is new in medical sciences. In fact, innovation means more than that. Innovation, in economic perspective, involves five parts, including new product, new method, new market, new material, and new operation, in a business (Schumpeter, 1934). It also involves the creation of products, processes, or services, which lead to value added from new ideas. However, it is directly derived from creativity, along with other factors, which brings about new products, processes, and services (Amabile et al., 1996), as well as the construction of a body of knowledge and dissemination of this knowledge effectively. Therefore, it is unfounded that innovation is only a matter of technology since it mostly involves the construction of new processes or development of efficient business operation.

According to Tuschman and Anderson (1986), innovation is divided into two categories:

- 1) Breakthrough innovation: mostly this type of innovation requires new technologies and new markets researched and developed by researchers or by a

research and development unit (R&D). For example, the invention of cars was brought to the public in the early 20th century and it replaced train and horse users' markets. In another case, the invention of the light bulb by Thomas Edison replaced the use of oil lamps. Yet another example is of digital cameras dramatically lessening the value of film cameras.

2) Incremental innovation: this is development from existing technologies by slightly and gradually changing them in order to increase value of products. For example, the Gillette company produced three-blade razors to replace the old razor two-blade razors; Lufthansa Airlines began serving orange juice to its business-class passengers; and the development of a variety of light bulbs, such as fluorescent or neon, based on the original bulb invented by Edison, etc.

Innovations emerge from challenging environments that stimulate curious people to form hypotheses to resolve issues by searching for new ways or methods of doing something. These new methods are derived from a variety of sources, including external contributors, which drive many motivating ideas. Consumers and contributors have constantly changing needs, which also inspire inventors to create new things that are beneficial to society.

Learning about the types and the sources of innovations can help us understand more about what the innovation is. Some scholars say that tourism industries are rarely innovative, although innovation plays a major role in increasing competitive capacity (Poon, 1993). Innovations bring about new products for tourism circles, such as agricultural tourism and eco-tourism. They also enhance efficiency in services, and, at the same time, they decrease costs of services as well; one example is selling tourism vouchers through online by tourism companies. Innovations also change the working system of tourism markets. For example, Span Tourism created an innovation, which sold a larger variety of products under the brand "Everything Under the Sun." This innovation helped tourists to know more about activities such as cultural tourism, conferences, etc., when compared with the traditional marketing, which focused only on beaches.

However, there are obstacles that impede innovations. First, mostly governments are not interested in tourism innovations as much as they should be, so a small amount of the budget is allocated to develop tourism innovations compared to

investment in other innovations, such as aviation, medicine, etc. As a result, there is a shortage of investing capital for doing research on tourism innovations. Second, tourism industries mostly consist of small-to-medium size entrepreneurs, which are comprised of many supply chains, such as transportation, hotel, accommodation, restaurant, etc. Consequently, the tourism industries compete through price-cutting but still depend on each other. Price-cutting lowers the overall quality of tourism products since there's a deficiency in capital to promote productivity in tourism services (Keller, 2003).

Tourism innovations, therefore, depend on other industrial innovations. For instance, transportation innovations contribute to a variety of tourism methods, such as travelling by train or plane, especially low cost airline offers for moderate-income people who travel abroad. Moreover, information technology has changed commercial systems in tourism by decreasing the role of middlemen, like tourism companies. At the same time, it enhances tourists' power when purchasing on tourism services.

Support of tourism innovation requires much more cooperation from tourism industries; governments need to allocate enough budget money for this industry. Cooperation between government sectors and private sectors is important to bring about tourism innovations, which can be derived from three sources: tourist focus, tourism industry focus, and outside industry focus. Therefore, government sectors need to improve the structure of the tourism industry to create more networking and linkage among business groups in order to have more cooperation. Moreover, there should be incentives, such as awards, to help motivate networking and cooperating, as well. For instance, the UK offers an award called the "Tourism Innovation Development Award (TIDA)"; Ireland tourism founded a fund called the "Failte Ireland Tourism Innovation Funds"; Scotland established a network led by a private sector called the "Tourism Innovation Group (TIG)," which is comprised of 50 business units aimed at supporting two innovations. These two innovations are the electronic tourism market and the sustainable tourism market. Staff or employees in the tourism industry need to be trained to be able to think innovatively. In addition, the exchange of information at conferences or seminars, combined with the

establishment of a research network, can contribute to gaining new knowledge and creativity from outsiders.

If Thailand desires to be a leader in the tourism industry in Asia, it needs to lay a foundation for the tourism industry by promoting innovative thinking more than before. It can begin by establishing cooperation within all levels of business sectors, find funding, and provide rewards for those who think creatively. Nichkun's "72 Hours Amazing Thailand" is a good example of tourism management in Thailand. It is a tourism marketing innovation that draws tourists' attention very well. Innovative concepts in marketing tourism are derived from four major principles:

- 1) Word-of-Mouth marketing: a traditional method of communication, but now it is used online (Saranthita, 2011). At present, Koreans use the internet in about 90 percent of households, in addition to 15 million people, or 25 percent, who use cell phone. These characteristics of Korean communication really support the word-of-mouth strategy. As a result, the Tourism Authority of Thailand launched the "I love Thailand Power Blog Contest" project to enhance the capacity of advertising positive images of Thailand.

- 2) Celebrity marketing: the use of well-known people to promote a good image of products and tourist attractions (Yolawee, 2010). For example, the Tourism Authority of Seoul has been promoting good images of Nichkul, a Thai singer who is a member of the 2 PM band, which currently is popular in Korea. Meanwhile, he was also chosen by the Tourism Authority of Korea in 2009 to present the "Come to Thailand, Let's take a break" campaign. Consequently, the name of this campaign was changed from "72 hours in Amazing Thailand" to "Nichkhun's 72 hours in Amazing Thailand" to promote a wave of popularity and love of Thailand. This contributed to Koreans' desires to visit Thailand through the key message that "Nichkul is a representative of Thailand, so if you admire him, you would love to visit his home country." This message was sent to the target group, which was the whole Korean population.

- 3) Integrated marketing communication: it changes the marketing process from 4 P's (product, price, place, and promotion) to the 4 C's, which includes consumer, cost, convenience, and communication. The 4 C's consist of the following:

1) consumer - the needs of target customers, 2) cost - the saving of advertisement costs with the support from sponsors, 3) convenience - the customers' convenience in purchasing tour packages online, and 4) communication - both online and offline.

4) Customer relationship management: it consists of two levels of communication. That is, the Tourism Authority of Seoul communicates directly through 17 companies in Seoul and Busan, all of which are tourism allies, so that these companies pass the message to both old and new customers online. More examples of innovation are the National Innovation Agency's (NIA) plan for healthy tourism under bio-business groups in order to promote healthy tourism innovations. This is done by developing healthy products from natural materials, health therapy with medical biotechnology, developing methods and places of such services, and developing the system of administration. Since Thailand is equipped with natural resources, environment, service, culture, Thai local wisdom, and a body of knowledge in sciences and technologies regarded as the foundation of healthy tourism, the businesses of healthy tourism is considered important for Thailand at the present moment. In addition, to differentiate tourism businesses, the NIA integrated Thai local wisdom into technology and science knowledge in order to develop innovations for healthy tourism by means of highlighting healthy activities at tourist attractions. The NIA set up two objectives for developing healthy tourism innovation, namely, healthy tourism on weight control and healthy tourism on rejuvenation. The working plan to innovate is designated in three parts: products, services, and medical tools. The example projects are "Sareerarom" (organic medical spa) or "Phu-Klone microcapsule" (face and skin mud), etc. The NIA receives great cooperation from sectors directly concerning tourism, such as the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) for promoting innovations and applying them in order to benefit society.

Table 9 Summary of Innovative Management on Food Tourism

Innovative Management on Food Tourism	Source/Research Title/Scholar
<p>“What the customer buys is not what the company thinks it can be sold.” The company needs to look at the customer’s perspective to be successful in creating an innovation.</p>	Drucke (1985), Kotler (2003)
<p>The construction of innovation is a process that can be administrated and evaluated. The key factor that brings about the success is “the customer is your boss.</p>	Amabile et al. (1996)
<p>The role model organization (start-up) is a temporary organization set up to find a way to operate a business that is scaled to a larger or smaller size, as needed. The systematic search contributes to accomplishment.</p>	Blank and Lundvall (1992)
<p>Process innovation and service innovation are as important as product innovation since the process can lower cost.</p>	Kate (2003)
<p>Word-of-Mouth marketing is a method traditional communication, but now it is used online. Korean people use the internet about 90 percent of households and 15 million people also use cell phones.</p>	Saranthita (2011)
<p>Celebrity marketing is the method of inviting well-know people to promote a good image for products and tourist attractions.</p>	Yolawee (2010)

7. Related Researches

Mak, Lumbers, Eves, and Chang (2012) conducted a study titled *Factors Influencing Tourist Food Consumption*. This study attempts to identify the salient factors affecting tourist food consumption. Through the study of hospitality and tourism literature as well as food consumption and sociological research; five socio-cultural and psychological factors influencing tourist food consumption were identified: cultural/religious influences, socio-demographic factors, food-related personality traits, exposure effect/past experience, and motivational factors. The findings further suggest that the motivational factors can be categorized as symbolic, obligatory, contrasting, extensional, and pleasurable. The lack of research in tourist food consumption makes way for the multidisciplinary approach adopted in this study to provide a more comprehensive understanding of this phenomenon, and form the basis for further research.

Henderson (2003) conducted a study concerned with international tourism and the Islamic religion, titled *Managing Tourism and Islam in Peninsular Malaysia*. This paper illustrates some of the many opportunities, problems, and conflicts which arise when religious practices and tourist demands intertwine. Authorities in Peninsular Malaysia, where Islam is central to everyday life for the dominant Malay Muslims, are attempting to resolve this issue. Contrasting actions at state, national, and international levels are discussed; as well as the presentation of Islam in official tourism marketing. For example, the federal government is shown to have placed a higher priority on meeting the needs of tourists, whereas several states have given precedence to the dictates of religion. International initiatives, however, seek to promote intra-Islamic travel. Insights are thus offered into the management of tourism and religion which may have a wider applicability beyond the particular circumstances of this case.

Mkono, Markwell, and Wilson (2013) conducted a study on *Applying Quan and Wang's Structural Model of the Tourist Experience: A Zimbabwean Netnography of Food Tourism*. Applying Quan and Wang's (2004) research model to a netnographic analysis of the food consumption in Victoria Falls, Zimbabwe; tourist food consumption is characterized as both a peak experience, as well as a simple extension of daily life. Netnography makes use of the tourists' "word-of-mouth",

taking advantage of an ever-growing cyber-community; in which two hundred and eighty-five online reviews of five Victoria Falls restaurants were analyzed. Thematic findings illustrate the nuanced nature of various food experiences; including tourists' interests in authenticity, as well as food neophilia and neophobia. The study also demonstrates the potential of Internet-based, qualitative research methods to further enhance the understanding of tourist behavior.

Chang, Jaksakivela, and Mak (2010) conducted a study titled *The Food Preferences of Chinese Tourists*. Given the scarcity of research on tourist food preferences, this study attempts to generate an in-depth understanding of the Chinese tourists' food preferences within a culturally different environment (Australia); through on-site participant observations and focus group interviews. It provides a detailed analysis of motivational factors as well as a typology that describes and contrasts the participants' tourist-dining attitudes and behaviors. This study further examines the influence of Chinese food culture on the participants' dining patterns and daily experiences, as a tourist in Australia.

Chaney and Ryan (2012) conducted the study *Analyzing the Evolution of Singapore's World Gourmet Summit: An Example of Gastronomic Tourism*. The purpose of this paper is to describe the evolution of Singapore's World Gourmet Summit (WGS), and analyze the factors contributing to its success. Developed by restaurant and hotel chefs, and with the support of the Singapore Tourist Board (STB); the WGS has become an established part of Singapore's portfolio of events and special interest tourism. The event web page boasts "a constellation of stars of the culinary world at our Singapore shores." The research paper has four sections: the first examines concepts of gastronomic tourism; the second describes the emergence of *New Asian Cuisine* and its roots in Singapore; while the third describes the role of *New Asian Cuisine* within the content of the World Gourmet Summit; and the final section identifies factors that have contributed to the Summit's success. These factors reflect the coordinated efforts of various stakeholders and the ability of the event to reinvent itself each year, while building upon a growing image of prestige.

Getz and Brown (2006) conducted a study on *Critical Success Factors for Wine Tourism Regions: A Demand Analysis*. Exploratory research was undertaken to

examine the levels and characteristics of the demand for long-distance tourism among wine consumers located far from the various wine regions. A sample of 161 wine consumers in Calgary, Canada, provided data for factor analysis revealing the core wine related features, in relationship to general destination appeal and cultural significance within targeted destinations. It was found that the highly motivated, long-distance wine tourist prefers destinations offering a wide range of cultural and outdoor attractions. These preferences are compared to previous studies of critical success factors according to wine and tourism industry personnel, and to the general literature available on wine and food tourism. Conclusions are drawn for wine tourism theory, and practical applications are suggested for the development and marketing of wine tourism destinations.

Sims (2008) conducted a study on *Food, Place and Authenticity: Local Food and the Sustainable Tourism Experience*. In recent years, attempts to improve the economic and environmental sustainability of both tourism and agriculture have been linked to the development of “alternative” food networks and a renewed enthusiasm for food products that are perceived to be traditional and local. This paper draws on research from two UK regions: Lake District and Exmoor. Sims asserts that local food plays an important role in achieving sustainable tourism; as it appeals to the visitor’s desire for authenticity within the holiday experience. Citing evidence from qualitative interviews with tourists and food producers; the paper records the ways in which local food products are conceptualized as “authentic” products that symbolize the locality and culture of the destination. By engaging in debates involving the propriety and authenticity of local food products, the paper challenges existing theories; and suggests that “local food” has the potential to enhance the visitor experience by connecting consumers to the region and its perceived culture and heritage.

Mohamed and Daud (2012) conducted a study on *Cultural Uncertainty on Brand Trust within the Fast Food Industry in Malaysia*. This study conceptualizes consumer perceptions, religious sensitivity, health threats, and information disclosure issues as the critical factors which influence brand trust. The results of this study will provide insights into better understanding and awareness of consumer sensitivity, and

the successful implementation of branding models used as the prerequisites necessary to succeed in today's competitive environment.

Stephenson (2014) conducted the study titled Deciphering 'Islamic Hospitality': Developments, Challenges, and Opportunities. This paper examines the principles and practices of Islamic hospitality, outlining the diverse ways in which Islam interacts with the hospitality and tourism industries. The intangible elements of Islamic hospitality are initially presented; particularly the importance of the host-guest relationship and its differing cultural interpretations. The study then evaluates the *tangible* aspects of Islamic hospitality; by identifying trends, developments, and challenges within the hotel, food production and service, and festival and event sectors. The work adopts a global perspective, examining Islamic hospitality with reference to both Organization of Islamic Cooperation (OIC) countries and non-OIC countries; and also considers new sector opportunities. The paper further acknowledges the social difficulties associated with the development of Islamic hospitality within the Western world; notably "Islamophobia". Finally, the paper suggests ways for future research.

March (1997) conducted the study Diversity in Asian Outbound Travel Industries: A Comparison between Indonesia, Thailand, Taiwan, South Korea, and Japan. Though Southeast Asia is the fastest growing outbound region in the world (World Tourism Organization, 1993; Tourism Trends to the Year 2000 and Beyond). Few studies have been conducted involving the structure of Asia's outbound tourism industries or the characteristics of its travelers (with the possible exception of Japan). Instead, as evidenced in the case of many Australian tourism operators, there exists a tendency to use the Japanese tourist as benchmark for all Asian tourists. In order to contribute to a better understanding of the emerging Asian outbound markets, a five-country study tour was undertaken in October and November, 1995; to explore the nature and structure of the outbound industries of South Korea, Taiwan, Indonesia, Thailand, and Japan. The study involved interviews with leading outbound agents, local NTO and airline representatives, travel media, government tourism policy-makers, and various travel industry associations.

Kim, Eves, and Scarles (2013) conducted a study on Empirical Verification of a Conceptual Model of Local Food Consumption at a Tourist

Destination. This study empirically tests a conceptual model of local food consumption (proposed by Kim et al., 2009); and quantitatively examines the relationships among key factors found in the model. Five motivational factors are identified (cultural experience, interpersonal relationships, excitement, health concerns, and sensory appeal); as well as food-related personality traits (food neophobia and food involvement); and demographic factors (gender, age, and annual income).

Mak, Lumbers, and Eves (2012) conducted the study *Globalization and Food Consumption in Tourism*. In this paper, the common perceptions of globalization as a threat to local gastronomic identities are contrasted by its other facet; a stimulus to create new opportunities for the reinvention of local food products and identities. Relevant perspectives and theories of globalization are reviewed to provide a theoretical framework for the study. Key dimensions underlying food consumption in tourism are elucidated, along with the impacts of globalization on food supply and food consumption in tourism. This study concludes that the world culture's perspective of globalization may be paramount to the reconstruction or reinvention of local food traditions and particularities.

Steinmetz (2010) conducted a study on *Food, Tourism, and Destination Differentiation: The Case of Rotorua, New Zealand*. Located in the Bay of Plenty in the central North Island, Rotorua is one of the premier tourist destinations in New Zealand. However, on a range of socio-economic indicators; it ranks poorly, compared with other regions in the country. The region is rich in scenic resources and cultural heritage of the Maori tribes. With the exception of the traditional Maori *hangi*, the contribution of food in tourism has not been emphasized strongly by regional food/tourism stakeholders. This study contends that greater use of local indigenous foods in the region's tourist venues would offer a means to potentially strengthening the district's development through differentiation. The country's 100% Pure New Zealand campaign prominently features indigenous food products, yet Rotorua is shown to lag behind many regions in its use of food as a feature of the local tourist experience. Interviews with 50 tourism and food industry experts provided a range of insights into the issues associated with attempting to increase the role of food in tourism in Rotorua; and, more generally, in New Zealand. Lacking an

identifiable regional cuisine in the region, as well as the absence of effective communicative networks; a variety of issues and constraints which work against developing the role of food in tourism were identified. A variety of suggestions are then presented on ways to more effectively link food to tourism in Rotorua, stressing the importance of developing regional food network groups with local tourism strategies.

Hong and Tsai (2010) conducted a study on *Government Websites Promoting East Asian Culinary Tourism: A Cross-National Analysis*. The content of government tourism websites is very important for promoting a tourist destination's exciting cuisine and food culture. Websites help to shape a country's culinary cultural image; and create a virtual experience for culinary tourists. This study explores the contents of the culinary websites of Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Singapore, Taiwan, and Thailand; analyzing the techniques used to introduce and promote these East Asian tourist destinations' cuisines and culinary cultures. Specifically, the researchers examined the ability of such government websites to advertise traditional and local foods, restaurants, gastronomic tours, recipes, and cultural characteristics; such as dining customs and table manners. They also looked more generally at culinary tourism marketing strategies, including the use of restaurant guides and certifications.

Henderson, Yun, Poon and XuBiwei (2012) conducted a study on *Hawker Centers as Tourist Attractions: The Case of Singapore Cooked food Hawkers*. Often a neglected part of the tourism and hospitality industries, food hawkers can play a significant role as a visitor attraction; offering both inexpensive food and insights into the contemporary society and heritage of the locality. Hawking is ubiquitous in much of South East Asia where it is integral to the life of local residents. In Singapore, the cooked food hawker sector in the city state is described (in a recent survey) as 'favorable' overall, but some concerns are also identified. It seems that hawkers may have unrealized potential as an unexpected amenity for tourists; although widening their appeal and usage is a challenging task, compounded by the threats to their survival from urban developmental pressures.

Mana, Aida, Raha, and Son (2007) conducted a study on *Identification of Pork Derivatives in Food Products by Species-Specific Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) for Halal Verification*. Pork identification has been developed in four types of food

products: sausages, sausage casings, bread, and biscuits; using species-specific polymerase chain reaction (PCR) detection of a conserved region in the mitochondrial 12S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) gene. Genomic DNA of the food products was successfully extracted, with exception of the casing samples, where no genomic DNA was detected. The extracted genomic DNA was then subjected to PCR amplification targeting the specific regions of the 12S rRNA gene. The genomic DNA from the food products were found to be of satisfactory quality and produced clear PCR products on the amplification of the 12S rRNA gene of 387 base pairs from pork species. The species-specific PCR identification yielded excellent results for identification of pork derivatives in food products and proved to be a potentially reliable and suitable technique used in routine food analysis for halal certification.

Inhorn and Serour (2011) conducted the study *Islam, Medicine, and Arab-Muslim Refugee Health in America after 9/11*. Islam is the world's second largest religion, representing nearly a quarter of the global population. This study assesses how Islam as a religious system shapes medical practice, and how Muslims view and experience medical care. Islam has generally encouraged the use of science and biomedicine for the alleviation of suffering, in which Islamic authorities have a crucial supportive role. Muslim patients are encouraged to seek medical solutions to their health problems. The study assesses how Islamic attitudes toward medicine influence Muslim engagement within the US healthcare system. Today, the Arab-Muslim population is one of the fastest growing ethnic-minority populations in the USA. However, since Sept 11, 2001; Arab-Muslim patients (and particularly the growing Iraqi refugee population) face huge challenges in seeking and receiving medical care, including care that is judged to be religiously appropriate. Barriers to healthcare, such as poverty, language, and discrimination; are also addressed. The Arab-Muslim patients' religious concerns also suggest the need for cultural competence and sensitivity on the part of healthcare practitioners. Of primary concern here is how Islamic conventions might affect clinical care, and to make recommendations to improve healthcare access and services for Arab-Muslim refugees and immigrants, and Muslim patients in general.

Jafari and Scott (2013) conducted a study on *The Muslim world and Tourism*. The study of tourism in the Muslim world can be about religious topics, such as hajj

and pilgrimage; but it actually means and involves much more. Because Islamic religious and secular life are so closely intertwined, Muslim tourism is also partly about its culture and worldview, as well as a means of reflecting on Western concepts of travel and hedonistic tourism. This review article introduces selected aspects of Islam to non-Muslims; and identifies themes and areas for further research. In addition to scholarly goals, an understanding of the patterns and requirements of the growing numbers of Muslim travellers is of practical importance for today's tourism industry. Significantly, the Muslim world provides opportunities for studying the differences in policy and developmental decisions that may offer new insights into international tourism by providing alternative perspectives.

Fox (2007) conducted the study *Reinventing the Gastronomic Identity of Croatian Tourist Destinations*. "A unique and memorable gastronomic identity is an indispensable asset to any successful tourist destination. In this respect Croatia's tourism falls seriously short." Based primarily on the concept of international cuisine, the Croatian tourist destinations are found to be predictable and conventional. This paper calls for a new, exciting gastronomic identity of Croatian tourist destinations; founded on Croatia's exceptionally rich food heritage. "Apart from the food itself, crucial to the success of this new identity will be its commodification through the discursive practice of *gastrospeak*." Fox feels that learning to appreciate and use *gastrospeak* will be an important consideration in the future of Croatian tourist destination management.

Samuel FolorunsoAdeyinka-Ojo and CatherynKhoo-Lattimore (2013) conducted a study on *Slow Food Events as a High Yield Strategy for Rural Tourism Destinations - The Case of Bario, Sarawak*. For years, the community in Bario has chosen to organize a slow food and cultural festival annually to draw tourists to Bario. The aim of this paper was to explore the staging of slow food events as a high-yield strategy for rural tourism destinations; and how they can be used to move a destination up the value chain in responsible rural tourism practices. The study adopts an interpretative approach. Participant observation and 15 in-depth interviews with local and foreign tourists were conducted to elicit responses before, during, and after the event. In addition, photography and videography were also employed. Findings revealed that the event was seen by many as a catalyst for the development of

infrastructural development. Yet, the majority of the foreign tourists interviewed found the festival to be “a unique cultural experience” and; more importantly, that the price of goods and services at the event were reasonable and affordable. However, findings also show that the event could be better marketed and managed. A significant contribution of this study is its exploration of the use of slow food events in a rural destination as a strategy in generating high yield for a rural tourism destination.

Hall (2004) conducted a study involving Biosecurity and Wine tourism. Biosecurity is a major issue for agricultural-based economies, such as Australia and New Zealand; and specifically, within wine tourism. The paper provides a framework for biosecurity management strategies at the pre-border, border, and post-border stages of the biosecurity threat; and specifically, the customs declaration form. A survey of wine tourists in New Zealand noted that many wine tourists did not recognize vineyards or wineries with the present descriptors used on the Australian and New Zealand customs declaration forms. Further questioning found that the mobility of wine tourists suggest that they posed a significant biosecurity threat for wineries, and outlined the need for biosecurity strategies to be adapted at a winery and vineyard level.

Cheng, Hu, Fox, and Zhang (2012) conducted the study *Tea Tourism Development in Xinyang, China: The Stakeholders' view*. Tea continues to be a popular beverage worldwide. As a new niche tourism market, *tea tourism* has thrived in China as well as many other countries over decades; however academic research has lagged behind tea tourism development. This paper focuses on stakeholders' views of tea tourism development and their potential roles and concerns within the Xinyang prefecture of central China. Interviews and open ended questionnaires were conducted in 2007 and 2008. Qualitative analysis indicated the following: 1) According to the stakeholders' view, tea tourism development in Xinyang has failed, despite the many worthwhile attractions and significant tea tourism planning; 2) Local government, tea garden owners, media, travel agencies, and tea tourists are thought to be the principal stakeholders with different roles in the development of tea tourism; and 3) Greater marketing efforts and collaboration between stakeholders are crucial

for successful tea tourism development. The findings are discussed with a view to permit further recommendations.

Telfer and Wall (1996) conducted a study on the Linkages Between Tourism and Food Production. The relationships between food production and tourism over land, labor, and capital; range from conflict and competition to symbiosis. This paper examines the relationships between food production, particularly agriculture, and tourism. It further studies the efforts of a resort on the island of Lombok, Indonesia; to increase the amount of *local* food products used through the establishment of two projects involving local food producers. It is suggested that the potential to increase backward linkages between tourism and local food production exist; but that there are substantial challenges to be overcome in doing so.

Lan, Wu, and Lee (2012) conducted a study on Promoting Food Tourism with Kansei Cuisine Design. Kansei cuisine design aims at the development or improvement of food products by translating the customer's psychological feelings and needs into the domain of the product design. Factoring the most affective elements into a tangible product is the core of Kansei philosophy. The authors note that “One promising means to innovate the local food (product) is to incorporate essential features of renowned international cuisine into the local gastronomy to serve as a destination marketing enabler.” This paper proposes an evaluation framework by employing Analytic Network Process (ANP) and the Borda count method to select an icon dish of innovative Hakka-Kaiseki hybrid cuisine for a local Hakka restaurant in Taiwan. The decision group selected “Shrimp Tofu” as the icon dish to promote food tourism. The results illustrated that the Kaiseki features have surpassed the Hakka features; among which, the foremost feature is shape; followed by color, material, and aroma. The findings provide useful culinary guides to facilitate the chefs in the development of further Kansei cuisine dishes

Sims (2010) conducted the study Putting Place on the Menu: The Negotiation of Locality in UK Food Tourism, from Production to Consumption. This paper follows a further case study of tourism in the Lake District and Exmoor, UK; to explore the relationship between ‘local foods’ and sustainable rural tourism within the regions. Drawing on qualitative interviews with tourists, food producers, and café, pub, and restaurant owners; an approach based upon the commodity chain is

employed; tracing the shifts which occur as a result of the relationships that exist throughout the food chain. These shifts are shown to occur in response to the need to negotiate the tensions between the ideals and the practicalities of food production and consumption. Such conclusions are shown to be important for our understanding of the links between 'local food' and sustainable rural tourism, because they indicate that we must attend to the values, as well as the practicalities that drive the contemporary food sector in all stages of the food chain, from production to consumption.