

# POTENTIAL OF LOCAL STREET FOOD VENDORS TO SUPPORT MALANG CITY – INDONESIA AS A CREATIVE CITY OF GASTRONOMY

# Rina Rifqie Mariana, Nunung Nurjanah, Issutarti

Department of Industrial Technology, Universitas Negeri Malang Jl. Semarang No 5, Malang, 65145, Indonesia rina.rifqie.ft@um.ac.id, nunung.nurjanah.ft@um.ac.id, issutarti@um.ac.id \*corresponding author

#### **ABSTRACT**

This research aimed to identify the profile of street food vendors and the effort of the government of Malang city, Indonesia in empowering the street vendors to support Malang city as a UNESCO creative city of gastronomy. Data were collected through observation, interview, and documentation. The results showed that in 57 villages of Malang city identified, 9314 street vendors sell 71 kinds of food. The food vendors are dominated by 24-35-year-old married males with low education. The high number of vendors and the various types of food sold certainly have bright prospects. However, the creativity of product creation, aesthetic, and quality remains very low. Malang government has been handling this informal sector intensively since 2014 by relocating the street food vendors to the designated area. There are currently nine street food centers; three of them are handled and guided by the local government.

KEYWORDS: local food, street food vendors, creative city, gastronomy, tourism

# 1 INTRODUCTION

Creative economy is a critical driver of economic development. (Richards 2011)reports that creativity has been used to change a tradition into a greater culture. Furthermore, Vanolo (2013) states that creative economy is created to combine creativity, get knowledge, look for new idea and solution to the proper direction based on the potential and target. Indonesia has potential to develop the creative economy through culinary as one of the fifteen subsectors of the creative economy. Indonesia has an immense wealth of unique and various cultural sources. The 33 provinces in Indonesia have special traditional food withunique and diverse flavors. The target of culinary development in Indonesia for the period of 2015-2019 (Lazuardi and Triadi 2015) is creating a cultural, competitive, creative, dynamic and sustainable culinary industry as a firm basis to develop the creative economy. Indonesian society as a big nation should be aware that diversity of dishes becomes the uniqueness of gastronomy of Indonesia (Lazuardi and Triadi 2015).

Supporting Malang city, East Java, Indonesia, to be a nominee of the creative city in the field of gastronomy by UNESCO is a proper action since Malang has high potential in culinary. The local dish of a particular area becomes a valuable tool to promoteits culture, and thus it can catch the foreign tourist's attention (Gyimóthy, Rassing, and Wanhill 2000; Joppe, Martin, and Waalen 2001; Kastenholz, Davis, and Paul 1999). This idea is supported by Sormaz et al. (2016) stating that Gastronomy Tourism has quickly escalated and has the attraction of tourism destination in the last recent years. The marketing opportunity for gastronomy tour is the reflection of daily lifestyle, religious belief,



habits, tradition, and customs. Shenoy (2005) and Kivela and Crotts (2006) even state that gastronomy today is seen as the determining factor in catching the tourist's attention when they choose their travel destination. Gastronomy tourism can be the alternative of special tourism type, and the environment can support this goal as well. This in line with (Björk and Kauppinen-Räisänen 2016), stating that in general, tourists seek information about the uniqueness of local food before they decide to travel to a certain place; culinary tours are dominated by female tourists (Robinson and Getz 2014). The local food they eat and bring back as a gift has an impact on their travel satisfaction. Meler and Cerovic (2003) further pointed out that culinary tourism has a potential importance in national economic development. Nevertheless, some attributes need to be considered in the development of tourism, which should be based on the requirements and tastes of tourists including culinary products and services (Henderson 2017). In the resort town of Victoria Falls in Zimbabwe, for instance, hotel foods dominated the tourist market in 2012. However, in the past three years, fast food restaurants have eaten up the competition, and thus hotels almost lost their market share (Mkono 2012). The demand of Indonesian society for local street foods are everincreasing. In fact, street vendors that often promote local food characteristics also have the opportunity to attract the attention of local and foreign tourists.

Data of Association of Indonesian Hotel and Restaurant (PHRI) of Malang shows that in 2015, there are 975 culinary businesses like cafés and restaurants, and street food vendorsare abundant. However, there is no accurate data related to the condition and potential of street food vendors especially in Malang city, East Java, Indonesia. Based on the analysis of Regional Tax from Income Department of Malang city, in 2014, the Original Regional Income of Malang is mostly from culinary business and the second one is from the hospitality industry(BPS 2014).

The criteria to be designated as a UNESCO City of Gastronomy are: 1) well-developed culinary traditions representing the characteristics of the city/region, 2) thriving culinary community and traditional restaurants, 3) use of locally-sourced ingredients in traditional cooking, 4) knowledge of the local community about traditional cooking techniques and culinary practices that have survived in technological and industrial advances, 5) availability of traditional markets and traditional food industry, 6) tradition of organising culinary festivals, awards, contests, and other promotional activities, 7) environmental conservation efforts and sustainable use of local products, 8) efforts to nurture public appreciation, promotion of good nutrition in educational institutions, and efforts to conserve the diversity in natural resources integrated in cooking school curriculum (UNESCO 2017). According to Rahmawaty and Maharani (2014), a creative city should create sound infrastructure and sufficient public space to enable people to interact comfortably and explore their talent and potential. Based on such requirement, the food sold by the street vendors has potential to contribute to creating Malang as a creative city of gastronomy and becomes promising tourism. One characteristic of traditional food sold by the street vendors is the main compositions which are bought from the traditional market and cooked traditionally (Almerico 2014). De Chabert-Rios and Deale (2016), through their research in the USA, stated that food consumers have an understanding that local foods are safer and healthier for consumption. Finding Indonesian food sold by a street vendor is very easily such as pecelblitar, sotolamongan, tahucampur, sate madura, and so forth. This phenomenon is



interesting to observe since the people have accepted traditional food nationally even globally like *rendang*—a specialfood of Padang—which is now in the first rank of World's 50 best Foods according to CNN (Cheung 2017). In 2010, Chengdu, the city in Sichuan Province, China, won the creative city of UNESCO as the creative city of gastronomy. It is the first creative city of gastronomy in Asia since it has unique and traditional culinary culture that can explore the local potential and maintain the culture(Lazuardi and Triadi 2015).

There are some common weaknesses of a street vendor. Any research explains that almost in all Asian countries, the street vendors do not have legal status (Fairman and Yapp 2004; Jensen and Peppard 2003). This is supported by Bebasa, Musa, and Dirawan (2016) explaining that the government tends not to give license and recognize the informal sector. Commonly, street vendors do not get attention from the government with a program of regulation or city management. One of the reasons is that street vendors are seen as a non-profit activity since they do not contribute to the local or national economy through tax (ILO 2014b; ILO 2014a). Lack of government's support will have a negative impact on the conditions of this informal sector—and thus affect urban poor whose livelihood depends on street vending(Muinde and Kuria 2005). The informal economy is an important part of the city economy. Almost in a half of Colombia country, the work population relies on the informal economy to get income; in fact, almost a half of the citizens of Columbia work in this informal sector (Martínez, Short, and Estrada 2017). Another research reports that most of the urban people in India rely on the food (McKay et al. 2016). Many street vendors lack food safety awareness. Also, Cortese (2016) mentions that many street vendors in Brazil do not follow the standardized production process of food starting from material storing, cooking, distribution to serving. Poor sanitation and hygiene among street vendors result in serious microbial and chemical contamination in food. This condition is similar to the situation in Sinja, Sudan (Elneim 2013) in which 44.44% of 20 respondents of street vendors do not have the knowledge of food contamination. This phenomenon is the same with the condition in Vietnam as well. Samapundo et al. (2016) report that 95% of street vendors have not followed training or got food safety education, so they have poor understanding of food safety. This case gives impact to the selling behavior (52.5% of vendors do not cover their foodproducts from pollutants; 47.5% of them do not have clean water, 52.5% of them do not have a trash can. Such research results are in line with Moir (1981), Sasono and Rofi'ie (1988), Sethuraman (1981) and Omemu and Aderoju (2008) identifying that many street vendors have such problems and characteristics mentioned before. This condition also happens in some developing countries especially for not innovative food industry (Traitler, Coleman, and Burbidge 2016). As has been stated by Van de Vrande et al. (2009) and supported by Lindegaard (2010), special for small and medium business including street vendor operating in traditional sector must struggle for innovation of their product by collaborating with the others and do not stop to look for new idea externally and internally. According to the food consumers in Kenya, the most important attributes in developing culinary-gastronomic tourism are the input, output, and process of food service (Obonyo, Ayieko, and Kambona 2012). Whitworth et al. (2017) states that problems arising from food such as food poisoning cause consumers to worry and tend to avoid consuming more. Consumers' anxiety over the impact of the food leads to economic and social losses (Wright et al. 2013).



Referring to the condition of street vendors in Malang, the government and the related institutions should pay attention to the existence of street vendors that have potential to make Malang a creative city of gastronomy. The complete and accurate data on the presence and potential of food sold by the street vendors in Malang complement the data of culinary potential in Malang comprehensively as the tool to meet the requirements of UNESCO.

## 2 METHOD

This research aimed to 1) identify the profile of vendors and types of traditional food and beverages sold by street vendors in Malang city and 2) to investigate the effort of the government of Malang in empowering the street food vendors to make Malang a creative city of gastronomy by UNESCO. This descriptive research applied the qualitative approach. Direct observation and semi-structured interviews were done to collect data from the street food vendors in five districts and 57 villages in Malang since the five areas can portray the variation of terrestrial environment involving all research areas. An analysis to the documents of regional government and interviews to some committees of street vendor organizations and the leaders of street vendor communities were conducted to gain insight into the effort of Malang government in developing culinary through street vendors. The centers of street vendors are Sentra Sriwijaya, Sentra Night Market, Velodrom, Taman Kuliner Raya Sulfat, Pujasera Sentani, Food Counter, Pulosari Street Vendors, and Simpang Balapan Area.

#### 3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

## 3.1 Identity of Street Vendors in Malang

The research results uncover the identity of street vendors in five districts and 57 villages in Malang. The results of observation and the vendors' identity form are presented in Table 1.

**Table 1: Identity of Respondents** 

No	Age	Gender		Number	%			
		Male	Female					
1	15-24	1246	293	1539	16.52			
2	25-34	1842	487	2329	25.01			
3	35-44	1621	423	2044	21.95			
4	45-54	1726	367	2093	22.47			
5	55-above	902	407	1309	14.05			
	Total	7337	1977	9314	100.00			
	Last Education							
1	Elementary	1710	478	2188	23.50			
	School							
2	Junior High	4021	889	4910	52.71			
	School							
3	Senior High	1582	591	2173	23.33			
	School							
	University	24	19	43	0.005			
	Total	7337	1977	9314	100.00			
				_				



Marital Status							
	Married	6489	1349	7838	84.15		
	Single	848	628	1476	15.85		
	Total	7337	1977	9314	100.00		

Table 1 shows that the street vendors are dominated by males (79%), and the age is around 25 to 34 years old (25.01%). This concurs well with Moir (1981) stating that the majority of street vendors are in Indonesia and males dominate them. Previous studies also show that most street vendors in other countries are dominated by females such as in Guawahati Assam city, India (Choudhury et al. 2011), Nairobi, Kenya (Muinde and Kuria 2005), Tainan, Taiwan (Chukuezi 2010; Sun, Wang, and Huang 2012), Ghana (Donkor et al. 2009; Mensah et al. 2002), Nigeria (Omemu and Aderoju 2008), and Bahia, Brazil (da Silva et al. 2014). In Peru, the street vendors in urban areas are 66.5% of the total of citizens, and they are dominated by females (71.3%) (INEI 2015). Such phenomena are contra with the condition of street vendors in Indonesia, especially in Malang. One of the causes is that the street vendors operate more at night starting from 6 p.m. up to 12 a.m. in which the male ones are more flexible to be outside the house at night.

The majority of vendors are junior high schoolgraduates (52.71%). Regarding marriage status, 84.15% of vendors have got married. This case shows that the street vendors mostly are in their productive age and have a role as the head of the family, and hence their reliance on income in selling food. Such condition is similar to the situation in Nigeria where street vending is a standout activity done independently the society having the characteristic of low socio-economy and education (Roever 2014). The research results of Muinde and Kuria (2005) in Nairobi, Kenya report that more than 35% of street vendors categorized as 20-25 years old and 60% of them are male. The vendors with primary school background are 36.3% and only 1.3% of them who graduated from middle school and high education. Mitullah (2004) explains that the growth of street vending as the main livelihood is commonly from poor citizens and they are women, youngers and migrants. This statement is supported by Sulistio (2013) stating that the reasons for people taking street vendor as their profession are life survival factor, the lack of capital to take formal sector of business, fulfilling the need for children's education fee, the difficulty in finding job, the difficulty of bureaucracy and just temporary job. Such conditions influence the vendors' creativity to make innovation and develop their products.

## 3.2 The Number and Variety of Food Sold by Street Vendors in Malang

The observation results of the number and type of food sold by street vendors in five districts and 57 villages in Malang are presented in Table 2 and 3.

Table 2. Recapitulation of the Number and Type of Food Sold by Street Vendors in Malang

Food Type	Kedung Kandang	Klojen	Lowok Waru	Sukun	Blimbing	Total	
Main course	727	1133	643	268	402	3173	
One dish meal	1009	1246	652	458	523	3888	
Snack	575	548	618	470	474	2685	
Beverage	164	205	188	189	215	961	
Number	2475	3132	2101	1385	1614	10707	



Table 3. Recapitulation Based on the Food Groups Mostly Sold by the Street Vendors in Malang

Food Group	Food Name	Kedung Kandang	Klojen	Lowok Waru	Sukun	Blimbing	Total
Main course	Ayam Lalapan	210	222	133	70	82	717
One dish meal	Bakso	132	129	97	84	83	525
Snack	Sempol	90	59	64	51	38	302
Beverage	Es campur	20	20	34	22	15	111

Based on Table 2 and 3, the number of food group sold by the street vendors in Malang is 10707 foods sold by 9314 vendors. The food group is dominated by one dish meal (3888). The main course is dominated by ayamlalapan (717 vendors). One dish meal is dominated by bakso of Malang (525 vendors) known as the favorite culinary of Malang, East Java. Snack is dominated by sempol(302 vendors). The beverage type is dominated by escampur (111 vendors). Besides such foods, there are many other traditional foods sold by the street vendors by using any types and models of selling place. The food types mostly sold based on their group are presented in Figure 1 to 4.



Figure 1. Nasi ayamlalapan. It is rice served with fried chicken and other side dishes such as catfish, eel, tempe, and tofu. It is added with sambal (hot sauce) and served with lalapan, which is fresh vegetable salad consisting of cucumber, cabbage, basil, and long bean. The vendors of nasiayamlalapan commonly open their stalls at night.





Figure 2. *Bakso* (meatball soup) of Malang. A typical *bakso* in Malang consists of meatball, dumpling, tofu, noodle, and fried wonton. It is served with side condiments such as fried onions, leeks, sauce, and chilli. *Bakso* is the most popular dish in Malang sold in the morning up to the night.



Figure 3. Sempol. It is a snack made of chicken, wheat flour, tapioca flour, oyster sauce and it is stabbed with a skewer, bowled, and then fried. Sempol is usually eaten with tomato or nut sauce. It is usually sold by travelling vendors using motorcycles, but some vendors are stationing themselves in one place. It mostly can be found near schools and campuses.



Figure 4. *Es campur.* It is Indonesian cold beverage consisting of fresh fruits, grass jelly, syrup, and condensed milk. The vendors sell *es campur* at noon until late afternoon using a cart.

Based on the observation and interview with some street vendors, they get satisfying visitors and profits. This case is experienced mainly by the vendors



selling at night, and their location is in the center of street vendors. The research of Nielsen (2016) finds that in 63 countries, 48% of the population has a habit of eating out. Aguilera (2017) also explains that eating out has become a popular option among modern food consumers. This statement is supported by Fellows and Hilmi and Fellows (2011) mentioning that over the world, it is assumed that around 2.5 billion people consume food in the street every day. Besides, the street food selling supports the livelihood of the million poor people in the urban areas and contributes much to the economy of the developing country. The food safety of the street food is not the primary concern up to now (FAO 2013; Muinde and Kuria 2005; Rheinländer et al. 2008).

If we see the number of street food vendors in Malang, this phenomenon is potential enough to support Malang to be a creative city of gastronomy although nowadays, there are many foreign foods sold by the street vendors such as *kebab* of Turkey, burger, hot dog, and so forth. However, traditional food still dominates and occupies the first rank as the food mainly sold by the street vendors in Malang. The main materials used are from local areas and bought in the traditional market. This case is in line with the requirement of UNESCO stating that an area that wants to propose as a creative city of gastronomy must fulfill some requirements, for example 1) the development of culinary representing the characteristic of city, 2) the development of traditional culinary community, 3) using local material, and 4) the availability of traditional market.

However, many street vendors are less creative. Based on the research reported by Rhodes (1961) and supported by Taylor (1988), creative includes primary fields, i.e. creative people, creative process, creative product, and 4) creative environment. Moreover, Hagadone and Grala (2012) explain that the ones included in the creative culinary industry should have the uniqueness of their product. They have to have proper development in creating innovations indicated by the creation of new products and eye-creative packing. In other words, not all activities related to food and beverage are included in the creative culinary industry.

This statement is supported by Focus Group Discussion of culinary subsector, the Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy (May-June 2014) stating that culinary sub-sector of Indonesian creative economy is "the activity of preparation, cooking, serving the product of food and beverage becoming the element of creativity, aesthetic, tradition and local wisdom as the most important element in increasing the flavor and product value to catch the consumer's interest and give experience to the consumers".

Street food industry like street food vendor has a major role in the developing country to fulfil the demand of urban citizens (Latham 1979). The street food feeds million people every day with any cheap and accessible foods. This phenomenon is supported by the statement of Njaya (2014) and Cross (2000). In their journal, they mention that although the street food vendors are illegal, they significantly help to reduce the jobless, increase the vendors' income and provide the original, cheap and various foods for the urban citizens. Thereby, the government should be aware of the importance of the existence of the street vendors for the society by guiding and involving many competent elements and providing the available infrastructure.

The effort of Malang government in handling the street vendors refers to the Regional Rules of Malang Number 15, 2013; they are giving business license to street vendors, providing business places, empowering vendors, and imposing



sanctions against street vendors in the form of oral or written reprimand. The business areas for street food vendors have also been provided by the government; the designated areas are mostly in public places, except markets and terminals. Nowadays, Malang has nine centers of street traditional food vendors spread over Malang city. Three of them are provided by the Regional Government of Malang. 1) Sentra Night Market started on 24th of November 2014; the number of kiosks especially selling any kinds of traditional foods and beverages is 89. 2) Sentra Sriwijaya was built by the Regional Government of Malang city in 2014. There are 24 kiosks selling traditional foods for 24 hours every day. This place is complemented with adequate facilities and infrastructures including clean water and washstand provided without charge. The vendors only pay the retribution every month and must keep the cleanness of the environment and food they are selling. 3) Velodrome culinary centerwas built 15 years ago. This culinary center is open every Sunday and sells a hundred kinds of foods and beverages and has a community of shopping tourism vendors of velodrome monument of Malang city and there are always many visitors from Malang city and around coming to this place. The condition of the three centers of street food vendors is better than the ones managed by the society independently.

Based on the result of an interview with the head of Street Vendor Association of Malang in the half of 2017, there will be a center of street vendor namely "Senggol Market" in Sutan Syahrir Street of Malang city. In the next three years, another center will be built representing five areas of Malang city. However, it seems that this program has not been sufficient for street vendors to achieve a favorable and competitive position. Thus more determined and sustained efforts should be initiated by all related stakeholders, e.g. by learning from other cities' success in developing street vendors as an attractive tourist destination. For example, Bandung has "Bandung Culinary Club", a program that focuses on entrepreneurship coaching for street vendors and food lovers. This club provides excellent non-formal culinary education and training. It gives impact to improve the quality of food and offers innovation to the marketing model of street vendors like "food truck" and so forth (Kariodimedjo and Maharani 2014). Singapore is also one example of a country with the best Street Food in the world. Although the foods are served on the "street", the taste, aesthetic and the cleanness are well maintained (Lazuardi and Triadi 2015). Moreover, the development of communication and information technology, as well as social media, have grown rapidly to support the exploration and promotion of ideas for innovation in food production (Henderson 2017).

#### 4 CONCLUSION

The research results show that the street vendors in Malang are potential enough. There are 9314 street vendors spread over Malang city, East Java. From that number of street vendors, only 71 types of traditional food sold and handled by male vendors in productive age. Nowadays, Malang city has three centers of street vendors guided by the Malang government. For the next three years, besides the street vendors managed independently by the society, Malang government will have five centers of street food vendor located in five areas which are accessible to the closest society. This case can be concluded that although the street food vendors in Malang is potential enough in terms of



number to support Malang as a creative city of gastronomy, the vendors' creativity to develop their products regarding the safety, aesthetic and serving of the food is still low.

## 5 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We wish to thank the Local Governmentof Malang and small and mediumsized enterprises in Malang for their assistance and support during the data collection.

#### **REFERENCES**

Aguilera, José Miguel(2017): "The Emergence of Gastronomic Engineering." Innovative Food Science & Emerging Technologies 41 (June): 277–283. doi:10.1016/j.ifset.2017.03.017.

Almerico, Gina M. (2014): "Food and Identity: Food Studies, Cultural, and Personal Identity." Journal of International Business and Cultural Studies 8: 1.

Bebasa, Rahman, Chalid Imran Musa, and Gufran D. Dirawan(2016): "Mechanisms in the Formulation of the Management Policy in the Informal Sector in Makassar." Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences 7 (3): 367–373.

Björk, Peter, and Hannele Kauppinen-Räisänen(2016): "Local Food: A Source for Destination Attraction." International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management 28 (1): 177–194. doi:10.1108/IJCHM-05-2014-0214.

BPS(2014):Statistik Daerah Kota Malang 2014. Malang: BPS (The Indonesian Central Bureau of Statistics).

Cheung, Tim(2017): "Your Pick: World's 50 Best Foods." CNN Travel. http://www.cnn.com/travel/article/world-best-foods-readers-choice/index.html.

Choudhury, Manisha, Lipi Mahanta, Jayashree Goswami, Minakshi Mazumder, and Barnali Pegoo (2011): "Socio-Economic Profile and Food Safety Knowledge and Practice of Street Food Vendors in the City of Guwahati, Assam, India." Food Control 22 (2): 196–203.

Chukuezi, Comfort O. (2010): "Food Safety and Hylenic Practices of Street Food Vendors in Owerri, Nigeria." Studies in Sociology of Science 1 (1): 50–57.

Cortese, Rayza Dal Molin, Marcela Boro Veiros, Charles Feldman, and Suzi Barletto Cavalli(2016): "Food Safety and Hygiene Practices of Vendors during the Chain of Street Food Production in Florianopolis, Brazil: A Cross-Sectional Study." Food Control 62: 178–186.

Cross, John(2000): "Street Vendors, and Postmodernity: Conflict and Compromise in the Global Economy." International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy 20 (1/2): 29–51.

da Silva, Sueli Alves, Ryzia de Cassia Vieira Cardoso, José Ângelo Wenceslau Góes, Jessica Nascimento Santos, Flávia Pascoal Ramos, Rubia Bispo de Jesus, Renata Sabá do Vale, and Priscila Santos Teles da Silva(2014): "Street Food on the Coast of Salvador, Bahia, Brazil: A Study from the Socioeconomic and Food Safety Perspectives." Food Control 40: 78–84.

De Chabert-Rios, Jacqueline, and Cynthia S Deale(2016): "Taking the Local Food Movement One Step Further: An Exploratory Case Study of Hyper-Local Restaurants." Tourism and Hospitality Research, August, 1–12. doi:10.1177/1467358416666137.



Donkor, Eric S., Boniface B. Kayang, Jonathan Quaye, and Moses L. Akyeh(2009): "Application of the WHO Keys of Safer Food to Improve Food Handling Practices of Food Vendors in a Poor Resource Community in Ghana." International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health 6 (11): 2833–2842.

Elneim, Eshraga Abdallah Ali(2013): "Practice in the Preparation, Handling and Storage of Street Food Vendors Women in Sinja City (Sudan)." Literacy 28: 51–85.

Fairman, Robyn, and Charlotte Yapp (2004): "Compliance with Food Safety Legislation in Small and Micro-Businesses: Enforcement as an External Motivator." Journal of Environmental Health Research 3 (2): 44–52.

FAO(2013): "Food for the Cities: Street Foods." http://www.fao.org/fcit/food-processing/street-foods/en/.

Gyimóthy, Szilvia, Charlotte R. Rassing, and Stephen Wanhill(2000): "Marketing Works: A Study of the Restaurants on Bornholm, Denmark." International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management 12 (6): 371–379. doi:10.1108/09596110010343648.

Hagadone, Todd A., and Robert K. Grala(2012): "Business Clusters in Mississippi's Forest Products Industry." Forest Policy and Economics 20 (July): 16–24. doi:10.1016/j.forpol.2012.01.011.

Henderson, Joan C. (2017): "Street Food, Hawkers and the Michelin Guide in Singapore." British Food Journal 119 (4): 790–802. doi:10.1108/BFJ-10-2016-0477.

Hilmi, Martin, and Peter Fellows (2011):Selling Street and Snack Foods. Rome: FAO.

ILO. 2014a. "Transitioning from the Informal to the Formal Economy." In International Labour Conference 103rd Session, V (1):1–83. Geneva: ILO (International Labour Organization).

ILO(2014b):Thematic Labour Overview 1: Transition to Formality in Latin America and the Caribbean. Lima: International Labour Organization, Regional Office for Latin America and the Caribbean.

INEI(2015):Perú: Tasa de Informalidad de Mujeres Y Hombres, Según Ámbito Geográfico. Lima: INEI (National Institute of Statistics and Information of Peru).

Jensen, Rolf, and Donald M. Peppard (2003): "Hanoi's Informal Sector and the Vietnamese Economy: A Case Study of Roving Street Vendors." Journal of Asian and African Studies 38 (1): 71–84. doi:10.1177/002190960303800104.

Joppe, Marion, David W. Martin, and Judith Waalen (2001): "Toronto's Image as a Destination: A Comparative Importance-Satisfaction Analysis by Origin of Visitor." Journal of Travel Research 39 (3): 252–260.

Kariodimedjo, Jennifer Anandari, and Yuni Maharani(2014): "Bandung Culinary Club." ITB Undergraduate Journal of Visual Art and Design 3 (1): 1–7.

Kastenholz, Elisabeth, Duane Davis, and Gordon Paul (1999): "Segmenting Tourism in Rural Areas: The Case of North and Central Portugal." Journal of Travel Research 37 (4): 353–363.

Kivela, Jakša, and John C. Crotts (2006): "Tourism and Gastronomy: Gastronomy's Influence on How Tourists Experience a Destination." Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research 30 (3): 354–377.

Latham, Michael C (1979):Human Nutrition in Tropical Africa: A Textbook for Health Workers, with Special Reference to Community Health Problems in East Africa. 2nd ed. Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.

Lazuardi, Mandra, and Mochamad Sandy Triadi(2015):Rencana Pengembangan Kuliner Nasional 2015-2019. Jakarta: PT. Republik Solusi.



Lindegaard, Stefan(2010):The Open Innovation Revolution: Essentials, Roadblocks, and Leadership Skills. Hoboken: John Wiley & Sons.

Martínez, Lina, John Rennie Short, and Daniela Estrada (2017): "The Urban Informal Economy: Street Vendors in Cali, Colombia." Cities 66: 34–43.

McKay, Fiona H., Arbind Singh, Sangeeta Singh, Suvajee Good, and Richard H. Osborne(2016): "Street Vendors in Patna, India: Understanding the Socio-Economic Profile, Livelihood and Hygiene Practices." Food Control 70: 281–285.

Meler, Marcel, and Zdenko Cerovic (2003): "Food Marketing in the Function of Tourist Product Development." British Food Journal 105 (3): 175–192.

Mensah, Patience, Dorothy Yeboah-Manu, Kwaku Owusu-Darko, and Anthony Ablordey(2002): "Street Foods in Accra, Ghana: How Safe Are They?" Bulletin of the World Health Organization 80 (7): 546–554.

Mitullah, W. V. (2004): "A Review of Street Trade in Africa: Working Draft." Report for WIEGO (Women in Informal Employment: Globalising and Organising), Harvard University, 1–29.

Mkono, Muchazondida (2012): "Slow Food versus Fast Food: A Zimbabwean Case Study of Hotelier Perspectives." Tourism and Hospitality Research 12 (3): 147–154. doi:10.1177/1467358412470556.

Moir, H V. (1981): "Occupational Mobility and the Informal Sector in Jakarta." In The Urban Informal Sector in Developing Countries: Employment, Poverty, and Environment, edited by S V Sethuraman, 109–120. Geneva: International Labour Office.

Muinde, O. K., and E. Kuria (2005): "Hygienic and Sanitary Practices of Vendors of Street Foods in Nairobi, Kenya." African Journal of Food, Agriculture, Nutrition and Development 5 (1). https://www.ajol.info/index.php/ajfand/article/view/135970.

Nielsen (2016): What's in Our Food and on Our Mind: Ingredient and Dining-out Trends around the World. Global Ingredient and Out-of-Home Dining Trends Report. New York: The Nielsen Company.

Njaya, Tavonga (2014): "Operations of Street Food Vendors and Their Impact on Sustainable Urban Life in High Density Suburbs of Harare, in Zimbabwe." Asian Journal of Economic Modelling 2 (1): 18–31.

Obonyo, George Otieno, Monica Awuor Ayieko, and Oscar Ouma Kambona(2012): "An Importance-Performance Analysis of Food Service Attributes in Gastro-Tourism Development in Western Tourist Circuit, Kenya." Tourism and Hospitality Research 12 (4): 188–200. doi:10.1177/1467358413491132.

Omemu, A. M., and S. T. Aderoju(2008): "Food Safety Knowledge and Practices of Street Food Vendors in the City of Abeokuta, Nigeria." Food Control 19 (4): 396–402. doi:10.1016/j.foodcont.2007.04.021.

Rahmawaty, Utami, and Yuni Maharani (2014): "Pelestarian budaya indonesia melalui pembangunan fasilitas pusat jajanan tradisional Jawa Barat." ITB Undergraduate Journal of Visual Art and Design 2 (1): 1–8.

Rheinländer, Thilde, Mette Olsen, John Abubakar Bakang, Harriet Takyi, Flemming Konradsen, and Helle Samuelsen(2008): "Keeping up Appearances: Perceptions of Street Food Safety in Urban Kumasi, Ghana." Journal of Urban Health: Bulletin of the New York Academy of Medicine 85 (6): 952–964. doi:10.1007/s11524-008-9318-3.

Rhodes, Mel (1961): "An Analysis of Creativity." The Phi Delta Kappan 42 (7): 305–310.

Richards, Greg. 2011. "Creativity and Tourism." Annals of Tourism Research 38 (4): 1225–1253. doi:10.1016/j.annals.2011.07.008.



Robinson, Richard N.S., and Donald Getz (2014): "Profiling Potential Food Tourists: An Australian Study." British Food Journal 116 (4): 690–706. doi:10.1108/BFJ-02-2012-0030.

Roever, Sally(2014):Informal Economy Monitoring Study Sector Report: Street Vendors. Cambridge: WIEGO.

Samapundo, S., T. N. Cam Thanh, R. Xhaferi, and F. Devlieghere (2016): "Food Safety Knowledge, Attitudes and Practices of Street Food Vendors and Consumers in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam." Food Control 70 (December): 79–89. doi:10.1016/j.foodcont.2016.05.037.

Sasono, Adi, and Achmad Rofi'ie(1988): "People's Economy." In South-East Asian Forum for Development Alternatives (SEAFDA). Jakarta: South-East Asian Forum for Development Alternatives (SEAFDA).

Sethuraman, S. V. (1981):The Urban Informal Sector in Developing Countries: Employment, Poverty, and Environment. Geneva: International Labour Office.

Shenoy, Sajna(2005): "Food Tourism and the Culinary Tourist." PhD Thesis, Clemson, SC: Clemson University. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/256069173\_Food\_Tourism\_and\_the\_Culinary\_Tourist.

Sormaz, Umit, Halil Akmese, Eda Gunes, and Sercan Aras (2016): "Gastronomy in Tourism." Procedia Economics and Finance 39 (January): 725–730. doi:10.1016/S2212-5671(16)30286-6.

Sulistio, Eko Budi(2013): "Analysis and Policy Design of Street Vendors Management in Bandar Lampung." Bisnis & Birokrasi Journal 19 (3): 175–182. doi:10.20476/jbb.v19i3.1854.

Sun, Yi-Mei, Shu-Tai Wang, and Kuo-Wei Huang(2012): "Hygiene Knowledge and Practices of Night Market Food Vendors in Tainan City, Taiwan." Food Control 23 (1): 159–164. doi:10.1016/j.foodcont.2011.07.003.

Taylor, Calvin W. (1988): "Various Approaches to and Definitions of Creativity." In The Nature of Creativity: Contemporary Psychological Perspectives, edited by Robert J. Sternberg, 99–121. CUP Archive.

Traitler, Helmut, Birgit Coleman, and Adam Burbidge (2016):Food Industry R&D: A New Approach. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.

UNESCO (2017): "UNESCO Creative Cities Network 2017: Applicant's Handbook." UNESCO. https://en.unesco.org/creative-cities/sites/creative-cities/files/2017%20UCCN%20Call\_Applicant%20Handbook.pdf.

van de Vrande, Vareska, Jeroen P. J. de Jong, Wim Vanhaverbeke, and Maurice de Rochemont (2009): "Open Innovation in SMEs: Trends, Motives and Management Challenges." Technovation 29 (6): 423–437. doi:10.1016/j.technovation.2008.10.001.

Vanolo, Alberto (2013): "Alternative Capitalism and Creative Economy: The Case of Christiania." International Journal of Urban and Regional Research 37 (5): 1785–1798. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2427.2012.01167.x.

Whitworth, Elizabeth, Angela Druckman, and Amy Woodward (2017): "Food Scares: A Comprehensive Categorisation." British Food Journal 119 (1): 131–142. doi:10.1108/BFJ-06-2016-0263.

Wright, Caroline F., Nick J. Knowles, Antonello Di Nardo, David J. Paton, Daniel T. Haydon, and Donald P. King (2013): "Reconstructing the Origin and Transmission Dynamics of the 1967–68 Foot-and-Mouth Disease Epidemic in the United Kingdom." Infection, Genetics and Evolution 20 (December): 230–238. doi:10.1016/j.meegid.2013.09.009.