

# **RECIPE FOR THE GLOBAL PLATE: POLICY RECOMMENDATION TO GLOBALISE INDONESIAN CULINARY ARTS**

**Yusuf Rahmadi Kadarisman**

Master of Public Administration Candidate  
The University of York  
Heslington, York YO10 5DD  
United Kingdom  
yrk501@york.ac.uk/yusuf.rahmadi.k@gmail.com

Received: 05 August 2022. Approved: 27 October 2022. Published: 28 November 2022

## **Abstract**

*Low Indonesian culinary exports indicate that Indonesian cuisine is not well-known internationally. Culinary promotes national identity, multiethnic cultures, and tourism. On the other hand, tourism exposes local culinary practices and can become a country's international brand. Furthermore, culinary relevance to public diplomacy is recognized. Through these connections, Indonesia can utilize gastro diplomacy to capture the global culinary arts market. Indonesia can learn from Thailand and South Korea how to implement the program more effectively by using the policy transfer framework. Thailand programs addressed various elements that must be developed when opening an overseas culinary arts business. They involved governmental and non-governmental agencies because the programs are board. The South Korean program was more formalized than the Thai programs by enacting a specific law and establishing a distinct organization to oversee the program's execution. In addition to the healthy image of South Korean cuisine and the global trend toward healthier lifestyles, South Korea's program rode the Korean pop culture wave, which set the stage for the success of the program. Based on the analysis, the recommended model for Indonesia's program implementation consists of six components in terms of menu and target diners, regulation, responsible organizations and coordination, goals, financing sources, and personnel.*

**Keywords:** *creative economy, culinary, gastro diplomacy, policy transfer, tourism*

## INTRODUCTION

Indonesia categorizes the creative economy into seventeen sub-sectors, including culinary arts. In 2021, 39% of Indonesia's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in creative sectors was from the culinary subsector, placing it in first position among other sub-sectors in terms of economic output. The export of culinary arts, however, was remarkably low at 6,99%. Even worse, the trend is falling, as culinary exports accounted for 9,93% of the entire export value of the creative industry in 2013. In 2021, the export value growth rate for culinary products (15,7%) is less than the average export growth rate for the total creative sector (27,3%) (Kemenparekraf, 2022).

This juxtaposition of statistics exemplifies the primary cause for why Indonesia's export of culinary items has consistently trailed behind its relatively considerable contribution to the Indonesia's GDP. It might be because Indonesian cuisine is not as well-known as other cuisines, particularly those from the same Southeast Asian region. YouGov polled more than 25.000 individuals in 24 different nations, leading to results that Korean, Thai, Hong Kong, Turkish, and Taiwanese cuisine are more popular than Indonesian cuisine. Even among other Southeast Asian nations' culinary offerings, Indonesia's reputation is not as strong as that of its neighbors like Singapore (Smith, 2019).

Although Indonesia has not yet established a substantial global presence, the nation's culinary industry continues to face several hurdles. The reoccurring problem is that the market development aspect is still lacking. The level of market penetration is not yet optimal internationally. Existing institutional efforts are not aligned and integrated, which is one of the reasons for this situation. Even within the government, several entities have their agendas, which frequently overlap and are inefficient. It is one of the reasons why some participants in the food industry are not yet collaborating effectively to advance the sector. There must be strong collaboration between commercial companies, government, industries, communities, and universities to make the culinary industry more competitive (Lazuardi & Triady, 2015).

Interdisciplinary policy solutions requiring cross-departmental collaboration have never been more crucial than they are right now for the market issues the culinary subsector is facing. Culinary is used as a means of demonstrating national distinction and multiethnic cultures, as well as a significant tourism draw. Tourism, on the other hand, plays a crucial part in exposing local culinary practices and also serves as an attraction that may become a country's international brand.

The linkages between culinary and tourism have been the subject of research (Nair, 2017), with some studies tying them together as a tool for public diplomacy within the context of diplomatic procedures (Zhang, 2015). Rockower and Chapple-Sokol pioneered the trans disciplinary notion of gastro diplomacy, or food diplomacy, in the early 2000s. It is a culinary manifestation of a country's foreign policy within the broad space of public diplomacy. The importance of cuisine in bridging cultures through the eating experience may be used as a practical ground for strategy in the context of tourism. Rockower (2012) argues that appealing to people's tummies is the best strategy for winning people's hearts and minds. In light of this, it is possible that Indonesia may employ gastro diplomacy to capture the global market for its culinary offerings.

## **METHODOLOGY**

This paper is a policy recommendation using qualitative methodology with inductive reasoning mainly based on the comparative policy analysis derived from Rose (2004). The qualitative technique is valuable to policymakers because it describes the implementation contexts (Anderson, 2010). It enables the collection of valuable contextual knowledge regarding policies, programs, and power relations. The qualitative technique is used to comprehend why a certain program or intervention may or may not operate as planned and how to enhance it (Ford & Goger, 2021).

Based on a comprehensive review, it is reasonable to select specific countries based on the criterion of countries that were not previously well-known in terms of their culinary appeal on the global market but have taken center stage within these several decades. Thailand, South Korea, Taiwan, and Peru are among the countries selected in this instance. However, it would be best to sidestep programs from other countries, such as Peru and Taiwan, whose culinary traditions and institutional and administrative systems are less similar to Indonesia. It is to make the lesson applicable in the Indonesian context. Learning from Thailand and South Korea, combining and synthesizing their programs, and adjusting them to fit Indonesia's needs is a sensible and prudent choice. Consequently, this study examines these two countries' programs in greater detail.

The examination is conducted by the approach outlined in Rose's Learning from Comparative Public Policy (2004). It includes indicators from Rose (2004) that consisted of: (1) laws and regulations that determine how to produce outputs; (2) organizations responsible for administering the program; (3) personnel needed to deliver the program; (4) sources of funding for the program; (5) the program's outputs; (6) program recipients, which explain who the intended targets are; (7) goal that is to be attained by the program. According to Rose (2005), these are the seven parts that make up a model that describes how a program works in a general way. The goal is to explain a program in words that are generic enough to be transferable across national boundaries but detailed enough that officials in the country importing a model may link each of its components to activities with which they have familiarity.

However, in this study, the researcher substituted menus and target diners for the program's outputs and recipients, as these components are more specific to the culinary arts sector. It ensures that the proposed program model will be applicable and relevant. The factors were ultimately also employed as comparison parameters. The recommendations come from these lessons.

## **FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

### **Thailand**

Thai food has seldom been served outside of Thailand until the last several decades. The knowledge of Thai food was likewise quite limited. Additionally, finding chefs who could prepare Thai dishes with them and exporting Thai products abroad were quite challenging (Scharf, 2016). The Thai government was motivated to find solutions to these problems.

Thailand was the first country to introduce the idea of gastro diplomacy, or gastronomic diplomacy, via this issue (The Economist, 2002). The "Global Thai" campaign was launched in 2002 by the government's public relations division. The Thai government sought to advance several objectives, such as expanding the number of Thai restaurants abroad, increasing export and tourist revenues, and improving the country's standing on the global stage via cultural and culinary diplomacy (Karp, 2018). In addition to expanding the availability of Thai restaurants overseas, the Global Thai campaign aimed to raise the caliber and grade to those that already existed. The Thai government released a set of regulations that Thai restaurants located outside Thailand were asked to follow. The strategy helps Thai eateries gain a good reputation and boost their attraction to tourists (Pornpongmetta, 2019).

The Thai government also created a similar project called "Thailand: Kitchen of the World" that same year. It sets itself apart from "Global Thai" by attempting to educate international audiences about the Thai traditions, cultures, and ways of life that underlie Thai cuisine (Pornpongmetta, 2019). So, compared to Global Thai, the Kitchen of the World program is more extensive. It is still unclear, however, why the Thai government created two distinct programs against one comprehensive one.

The program was handled in several different ways by the Thai government. In restaurant business creation, the Department of Export Promotion of the Ministry of Commerce has created models for three different master restaurants that investors may choose from as a type of ready-made restaurant plan, including aesthetics and menu items (Karp, 2018). The approach was divided into three categories based on the customer's purchasing power. The fast-casual option was called Elephant Jump and cost US\$5 to US\$15 per person. The reasonably priced alternative is Cool Basil, a restaurant concept with prices per person ranging from US\$15 to US\$25. Golden Leaf is the restaurant that would cost US\$25 to US\$30 per person and include genuine Thai materials and objects of art (Karp, 2018). It is expected that by appealing to all market groups, this ready-made restaurant concept would increase Thailand's culinary export revenues. The Department coordinated and organized meetings between Thai and foreign businesses, in addition to the three master restaurants. It also conducted market research on local preferences (Karp, 2018).

The Thai government also concentrates on quality and standardization since it has determined that the rise of Thai restaurants run by non-Thais and serving unauthentic Thai food was a problem in the past. Foreigners who dine in these restaurants mistakenly believe that the food served was authentic Thai cuisine, when it was not (Sunanta, 2005). Therefore, the Thai government utilized "Thai Select" to regulate the quality of products and services in Thai restaurants around the globe. Thai Select was essentially a certification program offered by the Ministry of Commerce's Department of Business Development. The accreditation is awarded to several Thai restaurants in an effort to promote standards. The award will be presented to those restaurants that adhere to the Kitchen of the World's standard operating procedures. Thai restaurants are rated on multiple dimensions. A panel of committees will analyze the eateries based on the established criteria. The criteria include the employment of Thai chefs with experience and knowledge of Thai culinary history, the chef's ability to produce "authentic" Thai dishes, selection of raw ingredients,

flavor standardization, kitchenware and utensils sufficiency, service standard, hygienic standard, and the restaurant's overall ambiance (Sitthika, 2018). Thus, when target customers see the Thai SELECT award, they may be sure that the Thai government has certified the eateries as "genuine".

To develop its human resources, the Thai government supported culinary training programs in Bangkok since chefs and kitchen workers are the foundation of the culinary industry. The Department of Export Promotion sends Thai culinary school teachers to train cooks at foreign restaurants. The Ministry of Labor established rules for Thai chefs' training and gave them instructions on how to purchase ingredients from supermarkets, in addition to conducting theoretical and practical cooking classes. Additionally, local academic institutions took part by offering professional Thai cooking lessons (Zhang, 2015). The Ministry of Public Health released a Guide for Thai Chefs Traveling Abroad. It included information about jobs, education, and even what foods foreigners like to consume (Karp, 2018). It suggests that one of the essential components is human resources, making this initiative an inter institutional endeavor.

In terms of financing, Thai nationals wishing to operate restaurants overseas might obtain loans from the Export-Import Bank of Thailand. The Small and Medium Enterprise Development Bank of Thailand created an infrastructure enabling food industry businesses, especially Thai restaurants abroad, to obtain loans of up to US\$3 million. In addition to the ease of acquiring loans, the Thai government utilized other financial instruments, namely equity and permitted private investors to engage in a restaurant business in which it had acquired a minority stake of less than 30 percent and would distribute the remaining shares to Thai investors. When deemed necessary, the government will solicit foreign investment. The obligation was delegated to the more capable franchise partners in each country. The government was solely in charge of the fundamentals, such as menu standardization (Karp, 2018). By offering both loan and equity financial instruments in addition to the government's national budget, it states that the Thai government is ensuring that the private sector will participate in financing the project. Each debt and equity financing carries its own risks, thus it is preferable to offer both, as this will allow for a greater variety of financial access options.

In international mobility, the Thai government has implemented further immigration measures. New Zealand's special Thai chef's work visa, for example, allows Thai nationals who qualify to remain in New Zealand for four years (New Zealand Government, 2021). This is because Thai restaurants were created to serve Thai immigrants living abroad. So, the Thai government acknowledged the diaspora's capacity to improve the program's execution by assisting cooks in relocating abroad.

The Thai government made it easier for Thai businesses to package and export Thai ingredients, as the preparation of Thai food involves not only a skilled chef but also ingredients that are unavailable elsewhere. When a restaurateur launched the first Thai restaurant in 1995, most curries in the United States were prepared with evaporated milk rather than the usual coconut milk. As a result of government support for manufacturers and producers, a range of traditional Thai products, such as coconut milk and green curry, have become supermarket staples (Sunanta, 2005). To ensure the freshness of food

products, the flag carrier, Thai Airways, was active in shipping food items from Thailand to Thai restaurants overseas.

As a consequence, Thai food began to reach a worldwide audience and soon earned international recognition. In a couple of decades, the number of overseas Thai restaurants has increased from 5.500 in 2001 to 15.000 in 2018. The US has 1/3 of these Thai restaurants, with about 500 eateries receiving the “Thai Select” award. Thailand has not only improved the cultural associations foreigners have about the country, but it has increased tourism. Thailand is now the most visited country in Southeast Asia, and tourism spending makes up 10% of its national GDP (Wallace, 2020).

According to Pornpongmetta (2019), several contextual factors have contributed to the success of the Thai program. First, the financial crisis proceeding the year of launch was catastrophic. At the time, Thailand required an immediate economic boost. Export industries were seen as a ray of hope for the revival of the economy. Though many business empires had fallen, exporting companies earned a competitive advantage due to the Thai baht strengthening. The country already had a lengthy history of food and agriculture.

Second, globalization provided the ideal environment for its implementation. Before the implementation, Thailand had significantly expanded its number of import-export partners. Further, various modes of transportation have become faster and cheaper. The number of tourists visiting Thailand has increased as a result. Thai cuisine accounted for a sizeable portion of Thailand's increased tourism revenue. Besides, rapid mechanization in Thailand's agricultural sector has increased national output. Machines have enabled Thailand to mass-produce agricultural products and regulate exports. These factors have paved the way for the successful launch of Thai gastro diplomacy.

Nevertheless, this execution of the program is also subject to criticism. The Kitchen of the World strives to develop national culinary assets, requiring participating Thai restaurants to prepare and promote particular propagandized dishes (Booth, 2010). Some have argued that they have become overblown to increase these foods as an integral part of Thai culture. The propaganda specifically omits other equally authentic foods and preparation methods. In Thailand, for instance, it is common to put a fried egg on top of the rice dish. Thai restaurants outside of Thailand only provide eggs upon special request and frequently charge extra for this authentic addition. The fried egg with rice is not necessarily the appetizer for international diners. Therefore, Thai cooks always forgo the addition of eggs. It is claimed that these Thai restaurants contradict themselves. Despite their claims of authenticity, the eateries adhere to Western culinary standards of desirability (Molz, 2004).

There are other further challenges. According to overseas restaurant owners, the shortage of personnel is the most challenging component of operating Thai restaurants. It occurred, for instance, in Vancouver, Canada. Some restaurants insist on using Thai wait staff and chefs to preserve their status as authentic Thai diners. Thai staff recruitment is designed to improve their ability to communicate with one another (Sunanta, 2005). Although Thai government has negotiated specific visa arrangements with the target market country, official procedures that restrict cross-border mobility continue to exist. Acquiring labor certifications and work visas for Thai cooks from Thailand remains a challenging and time-consuming process (Sunanta, 2005). The high cost remains a

challenge too. The expenditures associated with opening a Thai restaurant abroad consist of rent, personnel fees, and taxes. Some Thai investors are deterred from starting a Thai restaurant in a foreign country by the high start-up costs, particularly those whose investment capital is denominated in Thai baht, which is much less value than the local currency in many target countries (Sunanta, 2005).

Several conclusions appear from the implementation of the Global Thai and Kitchen of the World programs. First, the programs were comprehensively organized by addressing areas that must be developed when establishing a restaurant business, such as human resources, including how they import from the country to maintain an authentic taste, financing, ingredients, and quality standardization. Second, because the programs can be viewed as comprehensive strategies, they cannot be carried out by a single ministry or organization. Many departments, ministries, cooking schools, hotels, and business organisations from the public and private sectors are involved in the execution. It is consistent with the emerging post-NPM (Christensen, 2012) ideas emphasising the importance of collaboration between government institutions and other actors (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2015). Collaboration is to improve public services in and of themselves and build the capacity to address contemporary meta problems of public sector service delivery (Keast & Brown, 2002).

#### South Korea

At the 2008 Korea Food Expo, the Ministry of Food, Agriculture, Forestry, and Fisheries of South Korea announced the Global Promotion of Korean Cuisine Campaign. The campaign began in 2009, coordinated by the Korean Cuisine Global Promotion Team which chaired by First Lady Lee Myung-bak. This government-led initiative aimed at making Korean cuisine one of the five most popular ethnic cuisines by 2017 (Cwierka, 2014). Compared to that of Thailand, this South Korean objective is considerably narrower.

In May 2009, a law named Hansik Foundation Act was enacted, and the Hansik Globalization Development Agency inaugurated, comprising 36 members from relevant government departments, academic institutions, and chief executive officers from the food industry (Pham, 2013). In March 2010, The Korean Food Foundation, a separate organization and created specifically for this purpose, was given the responsibility of leading attempts to globalize Korean cuisine. The foundation receives US\$620,000 in contributions from the Korea Tourism Organization, the Korea Agro-Fisheries Trade Corporation, the Korea Foundation, the National Federation of Fisheries Cooperatives, the National Agricultural Cooperative Federation, the Korean Food Research Institute, and the Korean Racing Authority. The passage of laws specifically devoted to the operation of the South Korean program differs markedly from that of the Thai program, for which no publicly known high-level legislation has been enacted. It might be due to the South Korean government's strong commitment to the purpose or the importance of legalizing a policy by official law in South Korea.

South Korea's approach to separate organization varies from Thailand's. Creating a one-of-a-kind institution demands a high level of program formalization. Provan & Kenis (2008) outlined three network governance models, the most complex of which is the development of a distinct and centralized administrative organization to oversee networks.

Where power is concentrated in the lead organization, the power balance among networking organizations is unbalanced.

In this instance, it is also important to note that the program's funding did not come entirely from the government budget but from other nongovernmental sources, such as private sector donations. It was also actually the case for Thailand. Thai government explicitly encouraged private sector investment in restaurants, whereas no publicly known comparable opportunities are known to exist in the case of South Korea.

South Korea is a small, but each province has its cuisine and specialty cuisine. In South Korea's case, the national government centralized the decision-making process for the marketing of specific food service goods or cuisine components. The South Korean strategy entailed the development of a specific perception of Korean identity. Royal court meal from the Joseon period was chosen to represent Korean cuisine abroad because of their historical significance as a traditional dish passed down through generations and containing ingredients from all regions of the country (C.-H. Kim, 2017). It also appears to be the case for the Thailand program.

Comparable to that of Thailand, the Global Hansik campaign highlighted the nutritious advantages of the national cuisine. The South Korean government marketed Korean food with the following attributes: (1) natural ingredients and recipes; (2) health via organic, fermented, and environmentally-friendly foods such as kimchi, and; (3) low-calorie diet that emphasizes vegetables and fish over meat. Though meat-heavy Korean dishes like Korean BBQ are popular abroad, The Global Hansik campaign emphasizes Korean food's healthy components (Lipscomb, 2019).

As part of the program, South Korea held several international events to promote its food. In 2011, for instance, the Korean Food Foundation worked with several Korean restaurants in New York City to drive a food truck around the city and distribute free Korean meals. The event introduced Korean cuisine to new American audiences who may not have tried it. The Global Hansik campaign also launched a side event to encourage international university students in Korea to engage in food tastings and food tours in the hopes that they will return home and promote knowledge of Korean food (Pham, 2013).

What makes Korean program really different from Thailand, is that it capitalizes on the increasing popularity of the Hallyu wave (Korean wave), which is the global diffusion of Korean pop culture, music, and film/TV (C.-H. Kim, 2017). Simultaneously, the South Korean government invested substantially in the development and export of K-pop. In the 2013 fiscal year, for example, the Ministry of Culture, Sports, and Tourism allocated US\$286,4 million) to support Hallyu assistance and grants, demonstrating the importance of Hallyu and K-pop to the South Korean government (Oh & Lee, 2013).

As a consequence, South Korean government used opinion leaders' strategy, including the deployment of local celebrities and figures (Zhang, 2015). The Hansik campaign of Korea were also represented in Korean television and cinema culture. Using platforms such as social media and television shows may be an efficient method of promoting Korean cuisine abroad, as it generates interest organically through culture and the Hallyu wave (D.-S. Kim, 2018). The Korea Tourism Organization partnered with renowned chefs and Korean entertainment stars to offer culinary tours and integrate Korean food culture with television (UNWTO, 2012). The combination of packaged Korean food



and popular culture helps to develop indirect links between the two, which can act as an extra motivation for people from other countries to travel to Korea in order to try Korean food. It will raise tourism revenue and exports in international travelers' food expenditures.

From the components mentioned above, it concludes that South Korea's Global Hansik program places a greater emphasis on marketing by organizing food events that promote South Korea's culinary products through various advertising channels. It also rode the wave of Korean entertainment, which paved the path and became the contextual factor for the successful implementation of the program. Indeed, the program increases the number of restaurants and cuisine popularity. It was discovered that the number of Korean restaurant franchises launched abroad has increased from 234 locations by 41 companies in 2012 to 732 units by 73 chains in 2016 (Lee, 2017). However, the success of popularity can also be attributed partially to the influence of the Korean wave (Hallyu) in the United States, Asia, and Europe, as well as the global trend toward adopting a healthy diet and lifestyle. It created a favorable environment for Korea to pursue the program (Choi, 2012).

Nonetheless, the program drew significant criticism. Although the declared major purpose of the Global Hansik initiative was to raise Korean cuisine to one of the top five ethnic cuisines by 2017, it is difficult to assess whether or not this target was achieved owing to the intangible nature of this ambition. The Hansik campaign was criticized for its narrow scope, and Korea is attempting to quantify the unquantifiable because there is no credible, official worldwide ranking system to determine the most popular ethnic cuisines and if South Korean cuisine is among them. In the absence of a comprehensive process for monitoring progress and completion, the South Korean government is essentially pursuing an unrealistic objective, which could jeopardize the program if the enormous amount of money cannot be politically justified (Lipscomb, 2019).

The other aspect of this story is the inefficient use of time and resources for this effort. The National Assembly Budget Office (NABO) reported that around US\$20,65 million had been spent on it, and that as the campaign was launched, similar efforts by various groups arose, resulting in a waste of public money. The Global Hansik campaign cost the South Korean government a significant amount of money that was used inefficiently and yielded mediocre impact, which negatively influenced domestic public perception toward the program and made it difficult to justify its costs for its continuation (Lipscomb, 2019).

In addition, political issues and corruption scandals against politicians and private companies surrounded the program, which harmed its image and effectiveness. Former president Lee Myung-bak, who initiated the initiative, was accused of fraud and bribery, and former first lady Kim Yoon-ok, who was key in the Hansik campaign, was also investigated (Jo, 2018). The following president, Park Geun-hye, who continued the initiative, was also prosecuted and incarcerated for corruption. Even, several of her close associates were probed and charged, including a film director who had produced some videos for the Hansik campaign (Doo, 2016). These arrests have led to the unfavorable public opinion of the President, the Ministry of Culture and its affiliated departments. Given Lee and Kim's significant roles in promoting Korean globalization and Korean culture and cuisine export, these issues magnify the program's critics and overshadow its

accomplishments. It serves as a useful reminder for Indonesia to ensure that the program it intends to implement is accountable.

There was a challenge as well. Korean restaurants serving foreigners abroad were impeded by a number of cultural variables. The obstacles consist of several side dishes, unhygienic communal utensils, communication issues, and a lack of photographs and descriptions of menu items. So, it was necessary to standardize the titles of Korean dishes in several languages (Kim, 2016).

At the time of the Global Hansik program, there was a global push toward the consumption of health-conscious foods. Citizens in industrialized nations adopted a lifestyle centered on wellness while the slow food movement's popularity continued to rise (the slow food movement is about food that is good, clean, and fair for all). The trend was supported by the fact that demand for fast food was falling (Choi, 2012). In this sense, the South Korean government recognized the trend and used it as a basis for crafting a strategy congruent with the cuisine of South Korea that was introduced. Then, Indonesia needs to match what the world desires with what Indonesia has to give. Indonesia must first undertake a comprehensive market analysis of the global food trend and demand. It will be presented in the following section.

In conclusion, the South Korean program was more formalized than the Thai program (table 1). It is accomplished by enacting a specific law and establishing a distinct organization to oversee the program's execution. The success of the South Korean gastro diplomacy program was due to its ability to ride the Korean pop culture wave that was gaining popularity at the same time. Because of it, the emphasis of the program is on promotional factors such as the involvement of prominent Korean celebrities. The healthy and nutritious image of the marketed South Korean cuisine and the global trend toward healthier lifestyles have set the stage for the program's success. The contextual lesson can still be a catalyst for Indonesia if it adopts and recognizes the current similar trend. However, Indonesia must also take care of the criticisms of the South Korean program regarding political concerns and corruption scandals, as Indonesia ranked 96 on the Corruption Perception Index for 2021, a significant distance below South Korea (Transparency International, 2021).

**Table 1.** Program Model Differences Between Thailand and South Korea

Elements	Thailand	South Korea
Laws and regulations	There is no regulation dedicated specifically for the program's implementation.	There is a law specifically enacted for the program's implementation.
Organizations responsible	There is no distinct organization. Existing ministries provided leadership.	A separate institution was established to oversee the program. The institution received contributions from governmental and private parties.
Personnel	Chefs, kitchen staff, culinary practitioners, other Thai overseas citizens working for the restaurants.	Chefs and culinary professionals, and key opinion leaders such as public figures in the entertainment industry play a significant role.
Source of funding	Government budget, start-up investment funds from private sectors.	Government budget, contributions from private sectors.
Goal	Increasing the number of Thai restaurants worldwide, promoting exports and tourism,	Korean cuisine to be one of the world's five most popular ethnic

Elements	Thailand	South Korea
Key emphasis	and boosting Thailand's international status through cultural and culinary diplomacy.	cuisines. (Rather narrow than that of Thailand's).
	The programs covered all aspects of opening a restaurant business.	Marketing through organizing culinary events to promote the cuisine of South Korea via various advertising mediums.
Contextual element that drives the implementation	Various governmental and private agencies, academic institutions, hotels, and commercial organizations are involved.	
	The 1997 financial crisis strengthened the Thai baht, giving exporters a competitive advantage. Additionally, Thailand already had a lengthy history of food and agriculture.	Increasing popularity of Korean wave as the global diffusion of Korean pop culture, music, and film/TV.
	Globalization increased import-export partners, tourism earnings, and agriculture mass-production.	The global trend toward implementing a healthy diet and lifestyle.

Source: Own Formulation, 2022, Adopted from Rose, 2004

### Global Dietary Trends and Changing Diner Behavior

Never before has the rate of global change been faster. Globalization, the climate crisis, and the pandemic are influencing the behavior, demands, and preferences of consumers worldwide. The proposed model of a program that increases exports of culinary arts and internationalizes Indonesian cuisine should account for these changes. It will allow for a comprehensive and clear understanding of global and domestic food and eating trends. According to Rose (2004), it will increase the probability of success.

First, the issue of sustainability. The climate problem has brought food miles to the public's attention. The food miles refer to the distance travelled by food from the moment it is produced until it reaches the consumer. When calculating the environmental impact of food, such as its carbon footprint, food miles are one of the aspects that are calculated. (Engelhaupt, 2008). The model for the program should reduce as much as possible the negative environmental impact resulting from the export of certain culinary goods or ingredients. The Indonesian government must carefully assess both the type of ingredients and the supply chain. In addition, program publications can incorporate this element into their content and promotion to capture the interest of consumers by addressing current concerns and trends through transparency. The content, for instance, can provide information to persuade global consumers to dine in rather than opt for delivery or takeout, which will lessen their carbon footprint and allow them to enjoy the fullest and novel culinary arts experience.

The next concern is the current pandemic's acceleration of the trend toward health-conscious dietary needs. In the past decade, vegan and vegetarian diets, and plant-based diets in general, have gained popularity. Additionally, diets emphasising sustainable food options and limiting meat-based products are gaining favour (Heath et al., 2022). Therefore, the position of Indonesian cuisine has prospects as the demand for increasingly unique flavors that promote health will be favorably appreciated. The program executed should capitalize on this opportunity by selecting a flavor profile, such as tempeh, that complements this trend. Tempeh is a fermented soy product that serves as a vegetarian meat substitute and a versatile component with various health virtues.

### The Recipe for Global Plate: Programme Model Recommendation for Indonesia

It is feasible to create a model that is a synthesis of the lessons acquired from Thailand and South Korea by combining features of domestic programs that are consistent with those of Thailand and South Korea (Rose, 2004). Consequently, the Indonesia's effort can be implemented by incorporating the lessons learned from the Thai and South Korean gastro diplomacy programs. The recipe for the program is broken down into its component parts below, based on modified Rose's concept.

#### *Menu and Target Diners*

Given budgetary and time limitations, the selection of target nations as primary markets is extremely critical. Indonesia can target nations based on the compatibility of the flavor profile of a certain Indonesian dish with the characteristics of diners and their appetites in the target countries. Gado-gado, for example, is an Indonesian salad consisting of steamed vegetables accompanied by hard-boiled eggs, boiled potatoes, fried tofu, tempeh, and rice cake, and served with a spicy peanut sauce (Suriyani, 2013). Since most of the ingredients can be acquired locally, this recipe is great for nations with significant numbers of vegetarians, vegans, and those seeking primarily plant-based, sustainably derived dishes. This strategy tries to capitalize on the healthy and eco-friendly living trends mentioned above.

The decision of target countries can be made through extensive and exhaustive market research. Among the factors considered in the research are: the population size, as this will significantly increase the export amount, the size of the Indonesian diaspora and the additional and potential immigration measures Indonesia can arrange, as this will allow a large number of cooks to create authentic-tasting dishes, and the nation's openness to new culture, especially in the form of food from countries that are not as popular as other Asian countries. Indonesia should seriously consider choosing suitable cuisines for appropriate market countries to avoid such criticisms of following Western culinary standards of desirability that it gradually loses authenticity, as happened in the case of Thailand. It ensures that the menu that will soon be available does not need any modifications that could potentially lose the essential qualities of the original dish.

In the initial phase of the program's implementation, it will be advantageous to consider dishes whose ingredients are readily available at the local market. In contrast to Thailand, which has a long history of agricultural and food exports to many countries according to the contextual factors previously discussed, Indonesia has not yet established such a record. In the meantime, several Indonesian national dishes require ingredients that can only be imported from Indonesia. In this way, Indonesia can rely on the ingredients exported from other countries before relying on its own export of agricultural goods.

#### *Laws and Regulations*

Since there is a law in the creative economy that regulates the area of market development within the creative economy and a law that deals with the tourism domain (Law No. 10 of 2009, 2009), it is unnecessary to enact a second law for the implementation of policies in the field of boosting culinary exports and gastro diplomacy. Due to the implementation of a priority scale in sectors such as renewable energy and disaster

management in the legislative forum, the passage of a law can take several years (DPR RI, 2020).

However, legal underpinning other than an act still needs to be established to integrate activities between ministries and affiliated organizations. In this instance, it is conceivable to create a road map that is codified as a presidential or government regulation. It is a sort of regulation within the Indonesian regulatory system that is lower than an act but higher than an individual ministerial decree. The formation of this type of regulation is also quicker than the passage of an act. The road map may give direction, goal clarity, and the allocation of responsibility among various actors (Trihartono et al., 2020). It boosts the policy's long-term continuity. Typically, policies must persist for a period of time to deliver the desired results. However, the politicians who voted for the policies will not be in office the following term, and their successors may have other objectives (Bardach & Patashnik, 2020).

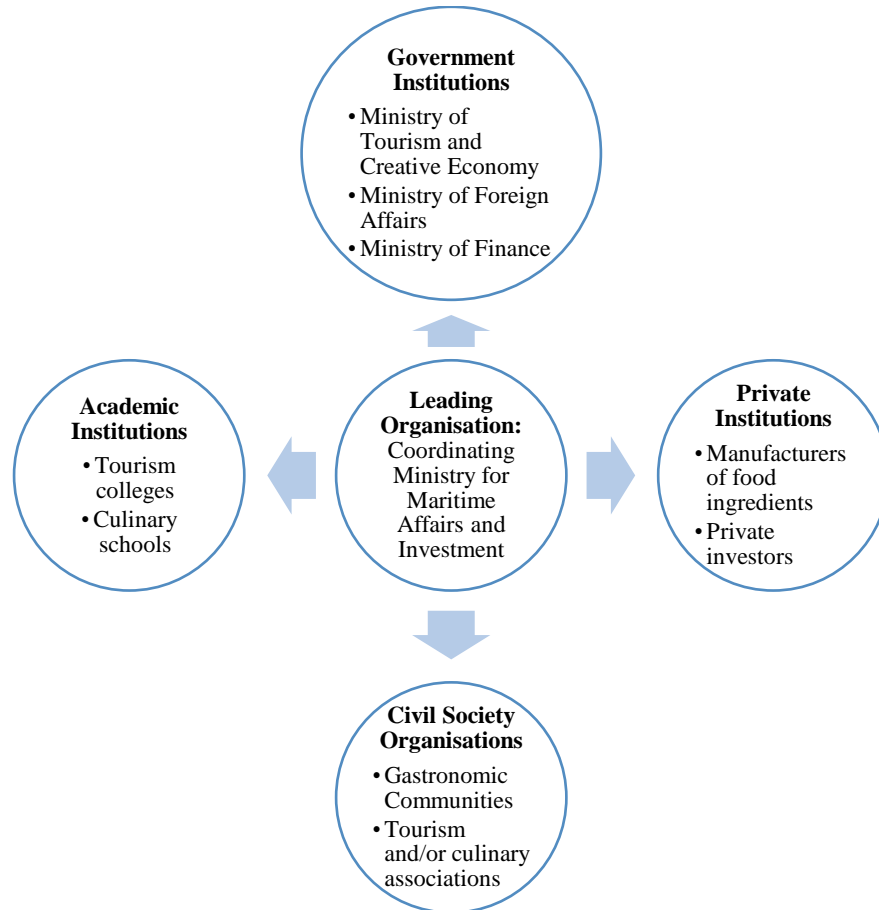
It achieves through the program's coordinating ministry (discussed in the following section) and the National Development Planning Agency, which task is to supervise government affairs in the field of national development planning. The ministry has the authority to incorporate the program into the National Long-Term Development Plan codified by executive order. Since one of the written economic transformation strategies is to strengthen the creative economy through culinary (Appendix Presidential Regulation No. 18 of 2020, 2020), incorporation is highly likely.

#### *Responsible Organizations and Coordination*

It determines that the Coordinating Ministry for Maritime Affairs and Investment will oversee the program. It is the best option within Indonesia's current executive branch because it already has coordinating ministries to deal with situations needing cross-disciplinary policy solutions. Indonesia doesn't need to follow South Korea's lead and create its own organization to manage the initiative. It will take more time and a significant amount of taxpayer money before a program is fully operational. The Coordinating Ministry for Maritime Affairs and Investment is tasked with coordinating, synchronizing, and controlling ministry affairs in the government administration in the maritime and investment sectors (Presidential Regulation No. 92 of 2019, 2019). Tourism and creative economy are included in its scope.

In addition to the Coordinating Ministry for Maritime Affairs and Investment, responsible agencies include the Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy, the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Trade, and the National Development Planning Agency, among others. Other relevant private institutions such as manufacturers and producers of Indonesian food ingredients and private investors, civil society organizations such as the gastronomic community, and academic institutions such as tourism and culinary schools with international academic networks are also part of the program's governance network. It is recommended that Indonesia follow Thailand's example in the comprehensiveness of the program's implementation. It embraces all aspects, including finances, human resources, and more. It is consistent with the Quadruple Helix concept because it accommodates the perspective of a culture-based society, which has become an integral part of the modern innovation process (Park, 2014). It will facilitate

the formation of a multidisciplinary network (Carayannis & Campbell, 2014). The recommended structure is depicted on figure 1.



**Figure 1.** Responsible Organizations  
Source: Own Formulation, 2022

### *Personnel*

Indonesia can follow Thailand and South Korea's examples. First, the government of Indonesia should invest more in culinary training. The programs could involve sending culinary school instructors to train chefs in international restaurants and encouraging culinary school graduates to launch restaurants abroad. The curriculum must include both academic and practical culinary workshops that are extremely contextual and relevant to the objective of internationalizing Indonesian cuisine. To enhance international mobility, the Indonesian government should introduce extra immigration measures, such as a special work visa for chefs and culinary school graduates. It is because the involvement of the diaspora is an additional crucial aspect, as it is the primary vehicle for the international dissemination of Indonesian cuisine. Therefore, the Indonesian government should recognize the diaspora's ability to improve program implementation by assisting chefs and other culinary professionals in relocating abroad. New Zealand currently has distinct immigration work visa provisions with Indonesia for 100 Indonesian chefs (New Zealand Government, 2021). The Indonesian government can engage in future negotiations with the

New Zealand government to add further measures and with other English-speaking countries, including Australia and the United Kingdom, to reach a similar agreement.

Second, in the execution of its promotional strategy, the Indonesian government can employ key opinion leaders, such as worldwide celebrities and figures, to draw global attention to the Indonesian cuisine that these persons enjoy. It should be stressed, however, that this will incur significant costs for taxpayers, which cannot be readily justified because the direct impact cannot be defined. Inviting private funds or contributions to particularly finance this type of disbursement is one way it can still be achieved. Contributors are permitted to use their brands in exchange, but the program's brand remains the primary focus.

#### *Sources of Funding*

The funding for successful implementation can come from the governmental and non-governmental sources. Business entities (private and state-owned enterprises) and the general public are potential sources of non-governmental or private funding. Regarding government sources, each responsible organization must allocate its allotted funding for the program based on the allocation of each task. The overall budget should be adequate to fund a substantial percentage of the program. At this point, the participation of the Ministry of Finance is crucial in order to secure the necessary capital without prioritizing or deprioritizing it elsewhere. To ensure the sufficiency and continuity of financial streams, the coordinating minister and the head of the executive branch must make political commitments.

Indonesia can also emulate Thailand by explicitly encouraging private sector investment in restaurants. In addition to equity-based financial instruments, the Export-Import Bank of Indonesia can also provide publicly designated loans. It will make it easier for food sector enterprises to get financing to establish restaurants abroad. Indonesia can also seek foreign investment, such as from multinational hotel chains, because the infrastructure to promote cuisine is already in place. In addition, they are more capable business partners who understand the demands and preferences of every customer in every country. The Indonesian government should solely focus on the fundamentals, such as standardizing menus. To simplify the process of establishing a restaurant and to assure a uniform menu and standard across the world, Indonesia can model Thailand's pre-made restaurant plan system.

#### *Goals and Objectives*

A program's goals must be broken down into several smaller objectives if it is to be carried out in a manner that is cooperatively carried out by several institutions including private institutions, civil society organizations, and academic institutions. All of the organizations that are responsible for putting the initiative into action will be able to participate actively because of this. The previously identified road map should include goals and objectives so that it has legal standing. It is important to note that the established objectives must adhere to the SMART (Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Relevant, Time-bound) principles and be rigorously measurable in order to be monitored for accountability. Evaluations should be conducted by independent organizations in order to minimize bias

in the outcomes. To encourage long-term implementation, goals can be established as broadly as in South Korea, whose ambition is to be one of the most popular cuisines in the world. From this point on, the Indonesian government can consider the short-and medium-term objectives it must set.

#### *Potential Challenges During Implementation*

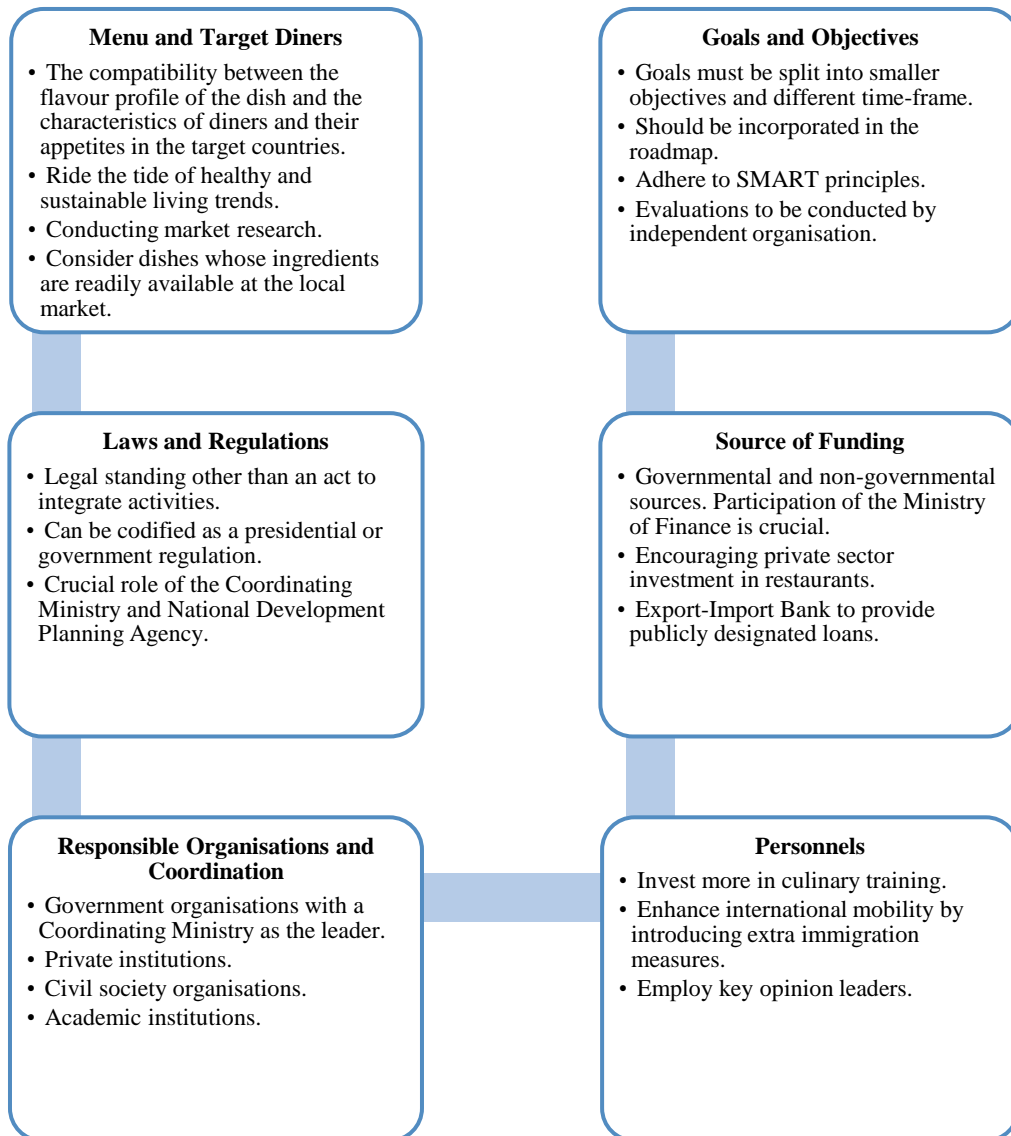
The most crucial lesson from South Korea that applies to the Indonesian context is that Indonesia has no desire to replicate the political and corruption scandals. To avoid similar problems, public sector accountability is crucial. It requires that a variety of stakeholders, including anti-corruption offices such as corruption eradication commission (KPK), private sector organizations, civil society, academia, the media, and the general public, participate in public sector processes and, in particular, the procurement process (OECD, 2016).

To avoid especially the conflicts of interest, they must be declared and dealt with in a manner that prevents corruption. It addresses financial and asset reporting requirements, codes of conduct, and other regulations, including prohibiting public officials, which include high-level officials such as ministers, from engaging in the restaurant business, which could provide them with easy access to government funds (Mattarella, 2014). In addition, having information readily accessible on matters such as asset declarations and the procurement process enables journalists and researchers to analyze data and areas of society that are frequently susceptible to corruption (UNODC, 2019).

#### **CONCLUSION**

Indonesia requires initiatives that promote the international popularity of Indonesian cuisine and grow the export of Indonesian culinary items by increasing the number of Indonesian restaurants overseas and the number of foreign visitors who eat Indonesian cuisine within the country. The initiative should incorporate the lessons learnt from Thailand's and South Korea's gastro diplomacy program through comparative policy analysis, evaluation of the global market trend, and understanding of potential obstacles. The synthesis, which is becoming the Indonesian "recipe for the global plate," consists of the six elements depicted in the figure 2 below. Indonesia, according to Rockower (2012), can "win the hearts and minds" of global diners if it follows this recipe of inter-disciplinary policy responses including tourism, creative economy, and foreign policy.





**Figure 2.** Summary of the Recipe for the Global Plate: Program Model Recommendation for Indonesia  
Source: Own Formulation, 2022

## REFERENCES

- Anderson, C. (2010). Presenting and Evaluating Qualitative Research. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, 74(8), 141. <https://doi.org/10.5688/aj7408141>
- Appendix Presidential Regulation No. 18 of 2020 Concerning The National Medium-Term Development Plan for 2020-2024, Pub. L. No. 18, Lembaran Negara No. 10 (2020).
- Badan Ekonomi Kreatif. (2018). *OPUS Creative Economy Outlook 2019*.
- Badan Ekonomi Kreatif. (2019). *OPUS Creative Economy Outlook 2020*. <https://wonderfulimages.kemenparekraf.go.id/read/158/indonesia-tourism-outlook-2020>
- Bangkok Post. (2021, September 24). The Global Competitiveness of Local Creativity. *Bangkok Post*. <https://www.bangkokpost.com/business/2187179/the-global-competitiveness-of-local-creativity>

- Bardach, E., & Patashnik, E. M. (2020). *A Practical Guide for Policy Analysis: the Eightfold Path to More Effective Problem Solving* (6th ed.). CQ Press.
- Baskoro, D. (2016, September 27). Benarkah Masakan Thailand Punya Kemiripan dengan Cita Rasa Indonesia?. *Okezone*. <https://lifestyle.okezone.com/read/2016/09/27/298/1499895/benarkah-masakan-thailand-punya-kemiripan-dengan-cita-rasa-indonesia>
- Bhumichitr, V. (1988). *The Taste of Thailand* (1st ed.). Pavilion Books Limited.
- Bohardt, M. E. (2014). *Peru's "Gastronomic Boom": Critical Perspectives on Elite Gastronomy and Social Food Justice* [Master Thesis]. University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.
- Booth, R. (2010, August 8). Taiwan Launches "Gastro-Diplomacy" Drive. *The Guardian*. <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2010/aug/08/taiwan-launches-gastro-diplomacy-drive>
- Carayannis, E. G., & Campbell, D. F. (2014). Developed Democracies Versus Emerging Autocracies: Arts, Democracy, and Innovation in Quadruple Helix Innovation Systems. *Journal of Innovation and Entrepreneurship*, 3(1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13731-014-0012-2>
- Chapple-Sokol, S. (2013). Culinary Diplomacy: Breaking Bread to Win Hearts and Minds. *The Hague Journal of Diplomacy*, 8(2), 161–183. <https://doi.org/10.1163/1871191X-12341244>
- Choi, J.-M. (2012). Globalising Korean Food and Stimulating Inbound Tourism. In *Food and the Tourism Experience: The OECD-Korea Workshop, OECD Studies on Tourism*. OECD Publishing. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264171923-en>
- Christensen, T. (2012). Post-NPM and Changing Public Governance. *Meiji Journal of Political Science and Economics*, 1(1), 1–11. <https://mjps.meiji.jp/articles/files/01-01/01-01.pdf>
- Cwiertka, K. J. (2014). The Global Hansik Campaign and the Commodification of Korean Cuisine. In K. H. Kim & Y. Choe (Eds.), *The Korean Popular Culture Reader* (pp. 363–384). Duke University Press. <https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctv11smhw7.26>
- Denhardt, J. v., & Denhardt, R. B. (2015). The New Public Service Revisited. *Public Administration Review*, 75(5), 664–672. <https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.12347>
- Dewan Perwakilan Rakyat Republik Indonesia. (2020). *Program Legislasi Nasional Prioritas. Program Legislasi Nasional 2020-2024*. <https://www.dpr.go.id/uu/prolegnas>
- Dolowitz, D. P., & Marsh, D. (2000). Learning from Abroad: The Role of Policy Transfer in Contemporary Policy-Making. *Governance*, 13(1), 5–23. <https://doi.org/10.1111/0952-1895.00121>
- Doo, Romy. (2016, October 30). Cultural Ministry denies being 'taken over' by Choi, Cha, *The Korea Herald*, <http://www.koreaherald.com/view.php?ud=20161030000267>.
- Engelhaupt, E. (2008). Do Food Miles Matter? *Environmental Science and Technology*, 42(10), 3482. <https://doi.org/10.1021/es087190e>
- Esterik, P. van. (1992). From Marco Polo to McDonald's: Thai Cuisine in Transition. *Food and Foodways*, 5(2), 177–193. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07409710.1992.9961999>
- Fahmi, F. Z., McCann, P., & Koster, S. (2017). Creative Economy Policy in Developing Countries: The Case of Indonesia. *Urban Studies*, 54(6), 1367–1384. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0042098015620529>
- Ford, T. N., & Goger, A. (2021). *The Value of Qualitative Data for Advancing Equity in Policy*. <https://www.brookings.edu/research/value-of-qualitative-data-for-advancing-equity-in-policy/>
- Frank, R. (2001, February 6). Thai Government Plans 3,000 Restaurants In U.S. and Elsewhere to Promote Nation. *The Wall Street Journal*. <https://www.wsj.com/articles/SB981416480713537865>
- García, M. E. (2013). The Taste of Conquest: Colonialism, Cosmopolitics, and the Dark Side of Peru's Gastronomic Boom. *The Journal of Latin American and Caribbean Anthropology*, 18(3), 505–524. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jlca.12044>
- Goh, D. (2021, August 8). *Thai Food vs Indonesian Food: What's the Difference?* Cook Me Indonesian. <https://www.cookmeindonesian.com/thai-food-vs-indonesian-food-whats-the-difference/>
- Heath, J., Shapiro, E., & Wang, X. (2022, January 20). *Food Trends for 2022 Focus on Gut Health, Mushrooms, and Kelp*. Johns Hopkins Center for a Livable Future. <https://clf.jhsph.edu/viewpoints/food-trends-2022-focus-gut-health-mushrooms-and-kelp>

- Jewell, C. (2019, October). Leveraging Indonesia's Creative Economy. *WIPO Magazine*. [https://www.wipo.int/wipo\\_magazine/en/2019/05/article\\_0003.html](https://www.wipo.int/wipo_magazine/en/2019/05/article_0003.html)
- Jo, H.-R. (2021, February 12). How Korean Food is Rising to Capture the World's Palate. *The Korea Herald*. <http://www.koreaherald.com/view.php?ud=20210210001004>
- Jo, H.-R. (2018, April 9). Ex-President Lee Myung-bak indicted on embezzlement, bribery, *The Korea Herald*, <http://www.koreaherald.com/view.php?ud=20180409000146>.
- Karp, M. (2018, March 29). *The Surprising Reason that There Are So Many Thai Restaurants in America*. VICE. <https://www.vice.com/en/article/paxadz/the-surprising-reason-that-there-are-so-many-thai-restaurants-in-america>
- Keast, R. L., & Brown, K. A. (2002). The Government Service Delivery Project: A Case Study of the Push and Pull of Central Government Coordination. *Public Management Review*, 4(4), 439–459. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616670210163015>
- Kementerian Pariwisata dan Ekonomi Kreatif. (2021). *Statistik Ekonomi Kreatif 2020*.
- Kementerian Pariwisata dan Ekonomi Kreatif. (2022). *Data Statistik Ekraf 2014-2021*.
- Kim, E.-J. (2016, April 20). New hansik ambassador vows to promote Korean culinary culture. *Yonhap News Agency*, <https://en.yna.co.kr/view/AEN20160419008300320>.
- Kim, C.-H. (2017). Let Them Eat Royal Court Cuisine! Heritage Politics of Defining Global Hansik. *Gastronomica: The Journal of Critical Food Studies*, 17(3), 4–14. <https://doi.org/10.1525/gfc.2017.17.3.4>
- Kim, D.-S. (2018, October 4). Sharing Recipe for Success. *The Korea Herald*. <http://www.koreaherald.com/view.php?ud=20181004000637>
- Lazuardi, M., & Triady, M. S. (2015). *Ekonomi Kreatif: Rencana Pengembangan Kuliner Nasional 2015-2019*. PT. Republik Solusi.
- Lipscomb, A. (2019). Culinary Relations: Gastrodiplomacy in Thailand, South Korea, and Taiwan. *The Yale Review of International Studies*, Spring. [http://yris.yira.org/essays/3080#\\_ftn49](http://yris.yira.org/essays/3080#_ftn49)
- Lee, Hyo-sik. (2017, April 16). Korea's 'hansik' globalization bears fruit, *The Korea Times*, <http://m.koreatimes.co.kr/pages/article.asp?newsIdx=227629>.
- Mattarella, B. G. (2014). The Conflicts of Interests of Public Officers: Rules, Checks and Penalties. In J.-B. Auby, E. Breen, & T. Perroud (Eds.), *Corruption and Conflicts of Interest: A Comparative Law Approach*. Edward Elgar Publishing.
- McDonnell, & Emma. (2019). Creating the Culinary Frontier: A Critical Examination of Peruvian Chefs' Narratives of Lost/Discovered Foods. *Anthropology of Food*, 14. <https://doi.org/10.4000/AOF.10183>
- Molz, J. G. (2004). Tasting an Imagined Thailand: Authenticity and Culinary Tourism in Thai Restaurants. In L. M. Long (Ed.), *Culinary tourism* (pp. 53–75). The University Press of Kentucky.
- Nair, B. B. (2017). The Politics of Tourism Representations: Discourse Analysis of British Travel Brochures About Incredible India. *Journal of Advanced Research in Social Sciences and Humanities*, 2(4), 238–244. <https://doi.org/10.26500/JARSSH-02-2017-0402>
- New Zealand Government. (2021, September 15). *Visas for workers from specific countries*. New Zealand Government. <https://www.govt.nz/browse/immigration-and-visas/get-a-visa-to-work-in-nz/visas-for-workers-from-specific-countries/>
- Newbiggin, J. (2014). *What is the Creative Economy?* British Council. <https://creativeeconomy.britishcouncil.org/guide/what-creative-economy/>
- Nuttavuthisit, K. (2007). Branding Thailand: Correcting the negative image of sex tourism. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 3(1), 21–30. <https://doi.org/10.1057/PALGRAVE.PB.6000045>
- OECD. (2016). *Preventing Corruption in Public Procurement*. <https://www.oecd.org/gov/ethics/Corruption-Public-Procurement-Brochure.pdf>
- Oh, I., & Lee, H.-J. (2013). K-pop in Korea: How the Pop Music Industry is Changing a Post-Developmental Society. *Cross-Currents: East Asian History and Culture Review*, 9, 105–124. <https://cross-currents.berkeley.edu/e-journal/issue-9/oh-and-lee>
- Park, H. W. (2014). Transition from the Triple Helix to N-Tuple Helices? An interview with Elias G. Carayannis and David F. J. Campbell. *Scientometrics*, 99(1), 203–207. <https://doi.org/10.1007/S11192-013-1124-3>

- Peraturan Presiden Nomor 92 Tahun 2019 tentang Kementerian Koordinator Bidang Kemaritiman dan Investasi, Pub. L. No. 92, Lembaran Negara No. 265 (2019). <https://jdih.maritim.go.id/cfind/source/files/perpres/2016-2020/perpres-no.-92-tahun-2019.pdf>
- Pham, M. J. A. (2013). Food as Communication: A Case Study of South Korea's Gastrodiplomacy. *Journal of International Service*, 22(1), 1–22. <https://thediplomatistdotcom.files.wordpress.com/2013/01/jis-spring-2013-issue-gastrodiplomacy.pdf>
- Pornpongmetta, P. (2019). *Gastrodiplomacy of Thailand, 1989-2019* [Master Thesis, Thammasat University]. <https://doi.org/10.14457/TU.THE.2019.1434>
- Provan, K. G., & Kenis, P. (2008). Modes of Network Governance: Structure, Management, and Effectiveness. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 18(2), 229–252. <https://doi.org/10.1093/JOPART/MUM015>
- Pujayanti, A. (2017). Gastrodiplomasi - Upaya Memperkuat Diplomasi Indonesia. *Jurnal Politica Dinamika Masalah Politik Dalam Negeri Dan Hubungan Internasional*, 8(1), 38–56. <https://doi.org/10.22212/JP.V8I1.884>
- Rockower, P. S. (2012). Recipes for Gastrodiplomacy. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 8, 235–246. <https://doi.org/10.1057/PB.2012.17>
- Rose, R. (2004). *Learning Lessons in Comparative Public Policy: a Guide to Analysis*. Routledge.
- Scharf, S. (2016, July 26). *The Campaign to Make You Eat Kimchi*. Priceonomics. <https://priceonomics.com/the-campaign-to-make-you-eat-kimchi/>
- Singh, M. (2015, April 26). Who's Behind The Latest Ethnic Food Trend? Maybe It's A Government. *NPR*. <https://www.npr.org/sections/thesalt/2015/04/26/402055120/who-s-behind-the-latest-trendy-cuisine-maybe-it-s-the-government?t=1654257028418>
- Sithika, S. (2018). *Thai SELECT Symbols How are They Selected?* The Momentum. <https://themomentum.co/what-is-thai-select/>
- Smith, M. (2019, March 12). *Italian Cuisine is World's Most Popular*. YouGov. <https://yougov.co.uk/topics/consumer/articles-reports/2019/03/12/italian-cuisine-worlds-most-popular>
- Sui, C. (2015, June 17). Taiwan Seeks Recipe for Success for Its Cuisine. *BBC News*. <https://www.bbc.com/news/business-33144800>
- Sunanta, S. (2005). *The Globalization of Thai Cuisine*.
- Suriyani, L. de. (2013, December 5). 'Gado-gado' Ayu Minantri. *Bali Daily*. <http://www.thebalidaily.com/2013-12-05/gado-gado-ayu-minantri.html>
- Taiwan Today. (2010, June 4). Cooking a Prosperous Future. *Taiwan Today*. <https://taiwantoday.tw/news.php?unit=2&post=1238>
- The Economist. (2002, February 21). Thailand's gastro-diplomacy. *Asia: Food as Ambassador*. <https://www.economist.com/asia/2002/02/21/thailands-gastro-diplomacy>
- Transparency International. (2021). *2021 Corruption Perceptions Index*. Transparency International. <https://www.transparency.org/en/cpi/2021>
- Trihartono, A., Purwowibowo, Santoso, B., Pamungkas, F. Z., & Nisya, C. (2020). The Early Stage of Indonesia's Gastrodiplomacy: in the Middle of Nowhere? *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science*, 485(1), 012008. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/485/1/012008>
- Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 10 Tahun 2009 tentang Kepariwisata, Pub. L. No. 10, Lembaran Negara No. 11 (2009). <https://jdih.kemenparekraf.go.id/katalog-1-produk-hukum>
- United Nations Conference on Trade and Development. (2022). *Creative Economy Programme*. United Nations Conference on Trade and Development. <https://unctad.org/topic/trade-analysis/creative-economy-programme>
- United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. (2019). Preventing Public Sector Corruption. In *University Module Series: Anti-Corruption*. United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. <https://www.unodc.org/e4j/en/anti-corruption/module-4/key-issues/preventing-public-sector-corruption.html>

- United Nations World Tourism Organization. (2012). *Global Report on Food Tourism*.  
<http://cf.cdn.unwto.org/sites/all/files/docpdf/amreports4-foodtourism.pdf>
- Wallace, S. (2020, August 10). *Pad Thai Diplomacy*. Medium.  
<https://savdwallace.medium.com/pad-thai-diplomacy-d329313107b7>
- Zhang, J. (2015). The Food of the Worlds: Mapping and Comparing Contemporary Gastrodiplomacy Campaigns. *International Journal of Communication*, 9(24), 568–591. <https://ijoc.org/index.php/ijoc/article/view/2847>