ATLAS

Tourism and Leisure

Review

**ATLAS Tourism and Leisure Review
Volume 2017 – 3
Tourism and Risk**

The Association for Tourism and Leisure Education and Research (ATLAS) was established in 1991 to develop transnational educational initiatives in tourism and leisure. ATLAS provides a forum to promote staff and student exchange, transnational research and to facilitate curriculum and professional development. ATLAS currently has members in about 60 countries. More information about ATLAS can be found at http://www.atlas-euro.org/.

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Content

Introduction

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Between 20-23 October 2015 the Centre for Geographical Studies, University of Lisbon (CEG-ULisboa) hosted the ATLAS - Association for Tourism and Leisure Education and Research - annual conference. The conference under the umbrella topic of "Risk in Travel and Tourism: geographies, behaviours and strategies", was co-organized by Territur - the CEG-ULisboa tourism research group – and ATLAS, together with the following scientific partner institutions: School of Hospitality and Tourism Management, University of Surrey, United Kingdom; Business School, University of Queensland, Australia.

Risks in travel and tourism are inherent and to some extent boosted as individuals move away from the place of residence to unknown and different places/destinations. Also, as an economic activity, tourism is – as any other "industry"/business sector – submitted to risks, derived from macro and micro economics and market fluctuations. Even from a territorial point of view, tourism places and spaces (either local, regional or national) have to deal and manage different kinds of risks.

The aim of this Conference was, not only to consider the aforementioned dimensions of risk in travel and tourism – individuals, businesses, destinations, institutions – by discussing geographies, behaviours and strategies, but also to integrate and put into perspective different risk typologies.

The conference themes included - but were not limited to - the following list of topics:

- Tourism and the natural environment: biophysical hazards and environmental impacts;
- Global and regional geopolitics: resilience and adaptation in tourism flows;
- Social and demographic issues: societal changes and challenges;
- Hosts-guests encounters/conflicts as a risk factor;
- Destinations at risk: tourism induced pressures;
- Safety and security in tourism industry;
- The lure of risk: niche tourism and adrenaline seeking;
- Risks as determinants of travel profiles and behaviours;
- Planning and management of risks/crises: business perspectives and strategies;
- Risk and crisis management in travel and tourism: policies and practices;
- Community approaches on risks and local tourism development;
- Tourism in times of uncertainty: a bridge over troubled waters?
- Risks and crisis communication in tourism;
- Rethinking tourism related risks in the age of the Anthropocene.

Overall, the conference gathered 128 participants from 27 different countries, around 3 keynote speaches, 4 plenary sessions, 1 workshop, 7 parallel sessions, 75 presentations, 1 doctoral seminar and a field trip.

This book came about as the result of some spontaneous contributes of some of the participants in publishing a few study cases presented during the conference. It does not intent to mirror the full scope and range of the conference theme but only a compilation of some works that were presented at the conference, and that we believe are interesting exemples of how important this theme is for tourism studies and reflexions today.

The opening text was generously written by Brent W. Ritchie, one of the keynote speakers of the conference and it is a contribution to the state of the art of this theme in terms of tourism studies.

The book is organized in three different parts.

The first part gathers three texts about how risk, safety and health issues can affect Tourism Destination Management: in Brazil, Nigeria, and in 28 European Countries. The first case was presented by Maria Rita de Oliveira Nunes d'Angelis and Maria Aparecida Pontes da Fonseca and is about Risk and Tourism Crisis in a Coastal Destination; the second case is from Olugbenga Kehinde Sonubi, A. I. Adeyemo and A. A. Ogunjimi and presents a Community Perception of Safety and Security in OMO Biosphere Reserve, in Ogun State, Nigeria and the third text is

from Ericka Amorim, Mathhew Lee Smith and Jorge Umbelino and is an input about how Tourism, safety, and health information provided on European country websites: A content analysis.

The second part texts deal with Tourism Supply and Demand issues. The goal was to put together two cases on how some tourism companies deal with risk, in particular the travel agency sector and the food sector. The first case is from Zsófia Papp and Krisztina Priszinger, presenting Risk Management by Hungarian Travel Agencies and the second case is from Anderson Gomes de Souza, Maria de Lourdes Barbosa and Mariana Bueno de Andrade and is about the Perceived Risk and Food Consumption by Tourist in Brazilian Northeast Beaches.

The third part of the book give us some other points of view about risk management: Brazil and Irland were the exemples choosen. The first text is from Antonio Russo, Gülden Demet Oruç, Alessandro Scarnato: Reconstructing Rio's Tourismscape: Urban Reforms in the Centro, in Rio de Janeiro. And the second and last text is from Angela Wright and presents the case of Tourism in a Heritage Town in the South East of Ireland: Open for Business in the Aftermath of Recession – Current Situation, Challenges, & Opportunities. These two last texts are not about Risk it self but how societies have respond to risk situations and have created solutions based on tourism opportunities.

We would like to thank to all participants and organizers that made the conference possible and a mobilising and awareness raising scientific event.

A very special thanks to Leontine, Jantien and René!

Ana Isabel Inácio and Carlos Cardoso Ferreira

Mind the Gaps? Tourism Risk Management Research

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Introduction

As the number of potential risks, crises and disasters affecting tourism has grown, so too has research in the area. Despite the growth of tourism research on risk, crises and disasters, much of the research appears to be concerned with the response and recovery stage of large scale crises and disasters (Ritchie, 2008; Wang and Ritchie, 2010). The literature appears to be very fragmented and disjointed with no clear indication of the nature of research, gaps and future directions. Past research has also been criticised for comprising largely descriptive qualitative or cross sectional case studies, restricting the generalizability of research findings. Theory driven research is also lacking (Williams and Baláž, 2014) which affects the quality of research and its ability to adequately inform managers in tourism organisations.

This paper provides an overview of research related to tourism risk focusing on organisational and tourist risk management. It identifies a number of issues and challenges, and highlights research and information gaps based on these deficiencies. The paper outlines research that begins to address these gaps and practical issues. It highlights the need for cross-disciplinary collaboration with researchers from other fields and use of novel methods. The paper argues that by raising the quality of our research we can contribute both to academic knowledge and gaps but also provide sound evidence to inform government and industry decisions – helping to also bridge the gap between academics and industry.

State of Research

Research (i.e. Ritchie, 2009; Ritchie, Mair and Walters, 2014) has argued that tourism risk, crisis and disaster management research is generally focused on the response and recovery phase ignoring planning and preparedness phases. They argue that research is focused on case studies at specific locations or within certain sectors, with few comparative studies undertaken. Research also tends to use a qualitative research methodology and work tends to lack a theoretical framework (Williams and Baláž, 2014). This suggests that the quality of research must be improved to provide better insights to enhance not only academic knowledge, but also to assist industry practices and policy making to improve the management of risk, crises and disasters. The following sections outline the key research gaps/issues and suggest future research based on the stages of crisis and disaster management. Some examples of recent work are provided as a basis for moving forward.

Planning and Preparedness

Studies show that tourism businesses have lower levels of risk and crisis planning compared to other sectors, demonstrated by low levels of both business risk planning and preparation through education and training activities. Tourism is also not fully integrated with emergency planning. According to the UNWTO only 25% of countries have an emergency management plan with tourism included. Hystad and Keller (2008) found only 27% of businesses in a bushfire prone area were aware of local emergency plans and 26% had their own disaster plan. Further research (Johnston, et al. 2007) indicate that in a tsunami prone area in Washington, USA only 22% of accommodation establishments had training on hazard events and only 1 from 18 had tsunami training programs.

From a tourist perspective there is limited understanding of tourist risk decision making and risk reduction strategies beyond information search behavior. Further, research tends to focus on prospective travellers and not the risk reduction strategies of actual travellers. This leads to several key research questions from a business and tourist perspective, such as:

- What planning and preparedness tools are used in tourism businesses and destinations?
- What barriers or constraints exist in the adoption of tourism crisis and disaster planning?
- How does this compare to other sectors?
- What influences tourist risk perceptions and their risk reduction behaviour?
- How to effectively communicate risks to travellers?

Recent research which takes a business perspective (Wang and Ritchie, 2012) has tried to address the questions above from an accommodation perspective. The study found that from 386 managers surveyed, 74.9% of respondents indicated that their organisation had undertaken crisis and disaster planning activities in the past six months. However, when asked what activities or processes they implement, very low levels of actual behavior were found ranging from highest at 36% to lowest at 13%. Most focused on compliance activities such as evacuation procedures and reviewing and updating their risk management plans. Future crisis and disaster planning intentions were low at less than 50%. The study found that planning did lead to higher levels of crisis preparedness and larger organisations that had been operating for longer had higher levels of preparedness and intentions to prepare than other organisations. The study also found that planning intentions were influence by positive attitudes, social pressure and past crisis/disaster experience. The implications of this research suggest that changing attitudes is crucial and that larger operators who have experienced crises or disasters can illustrate the benefits and provide social pressure needed to change behavior.

Recent research has also taken a tourist perspective and examined risk perceptions and actual risk reduction strategies of outbound travellers (Ritchie, Chien and Sharifpour, 2016). The study found three distinct segments of outbound travellers. One segment had very low levels of risk reduction strategies. For instance, only 51% had taken out travel insurance. This group comprised

independent travellers who travelled to visit friends and relatives. They were also more likely to be repeat visitors to the destination and were more likely to be male and older (average 48 years old). The findings can inform recommendations about communication strategies and the content of messages (imagery and actual messaging), which may encourage this segment to undertake risk reduction strategies.

Response and Recovery

As outlined earlier, the majority of research focuses on this stage of crisis and disaster management. We have a very good understanding of the impact that crises and disasters can have on tourism industries and actual response and recovery strategies. We are also aware of the importance of stakeholder collaboration in response and recovery, as tourism is very disjointed and fragmented. Good response and recovery efforts require strong leadership and effective stakeholder networks to deal with issues and 'bounce forward.' Businesses face a range of interconnected and complex challenges (such as a drop in demand, reduced profit, increased costs).

This leads to several key research questions, such as:
- How do stakeholders collaborate?
- What influences stakeholder collaboration and its effectiveness?
- What is the role of leadership?
- What problems are facing tourism related businesses in response and recovery phases?
- How do stakeholder networks change during recovery to manage problems?

Recent research has attempted to address these questions. Jiang and Ritchie (2017) found three important factors that influenced effective tourism recovery from a cyclone. First, relationships were very important for successful collaboration. They helped initiate collaboration and led to the second important factor that encouraged collaboration – trust. Finally, communication to other stakeholders was essential to improve the flow of information and build trust and relationships.

Challenges were also identified including Competing interests and demands across different stakeholder groups, and secondly, different management structures of organisations and agencies which constrained collaboration. The study findings have implications for effective stakeholders collaboration and suggest that planning before a disaster can help build trust and open up communication before response is required. Further, new structures for response and recovery may be required to encourage recovery after a major disaster, as current structures may constrain collaboration and slow down recovery time.

Another study used social network analysis (Becken, Scott and Ritchie, 2015) to explore stakeholder networks before and after a disaster. The study found interrelated issues central to the network such as downturn, cash flow and marketing. More interesting is the changing network before and after the disaster.

Before it was highly dispersed and focused on tourism organisations (public and private sector). The network was highly engaged. However, after the disaster the network was smaller and focused on agencies outside of tourism. This has implications for how to support businesses and ensure they maintain their networks and manage central issues first to speed up recovery efforts.

Another line of research work looks at crisis communication and recovery marketing. Marketers try to stop cancellations by restoring confidence and by attracting visitors back through a range of communication and marketing techniques. As Heath (1998:26) suggests *"Crisis management is as much about dealing with human perceptions about the crisis as it is about physically resolving the crisis situation."* Key issues include when to begin recovery marketing, who to market to and what to include in recovery marketing messages.

Research on recovery marketing has also been important focus of past work, yet a number of questions remain unresolved, such as:
- When to start recovery marketing activities?
- Who should be targeted in the campaigns?
- What should go into the campaigns (stimuli)?
- Can campaigns be trustworthy or credible and influence consumers?

Some research has tried to address these questions (Walters and Mair, 2012) and found that the open for business message was least credible and trustworthy, while the celebrity endorsement message, followed by community readiness message, was most credible and effective at getting people to consider travel after a bush fire. The research also found that those that had been to the destination were willing to come back in greater numbers and quicker than other consumers. Nearly all consumers felt that it was appropriate to conduct recovery marketing. The study has implications for what type of message might work best in recovery marketing (celebrity and community readiness) and who might be best targeted (past visitors).

Conclusion

This short paper has attempted to provide a framework for future research. It has given a short state of the research in tourism risk, crisis and disaster management. It has outlined what we know from past research but importantly what questions remain. The paper has provided an overview of recent research which tries to address the remaining questions – yet research gaps are plentiful. Some of the research presented at this ATLAS conference provide an excellent start to address these gaps and issues.

Studies are growing in the field but have limitations. Research needs to go beyond 'what' to 'why' and 'how' questions. Research also needs to move beyond descriptive case studies to provide more theoretically driven and deep studies. Researchers need to also go 'beyond their silos' and collaborate with other researchers from different fields to tackle some of the research gaps and important questions. More novel research methods and techniques (such as experiments

and measurement of actual behaviour), are required to advance knowledge. Some of these methods and approaches can be found in other disciplines and fields such as marketing, policy, planning etc.

It is hoped that a much better understanding of risk in tourism and planning and management approaches can contribute both to knowledge and inform industry practices and government policy. As pressure grows for academics to have impact, there is a need to consider not only the knowledge gaps but also how our research can help improve business and society.

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Part 1 – Destination Management Perspectives

Risk and Tourism Crisis in a Coastal Destination

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Abstract

Mobility and risk are concepts , which are changing how tourism is being studied. Theories to the human ability to motility are being formed to understand it in a macro-level or micro-social approach. According to Williams (2013) the risk in tourism can either be systematic or unsystematic. This article aims to analyse how an unsystematic risk such as the global financial downturn affected the tourism destination of Tibau do Sul in Northeast of Brazil. The survey data was obtained through 13 semi-structured interviews with owners and/or managers of travel accommodations. The results shows that the destination was highly affected by the financial global crisis but had it sector rebuilt by the mobility access of Brazilian middle class to tourism and travel. Further researches to improve the studies of the emerging countries and it progressive mobility capacity must be conducted to wider the analytical approach.

Introduction

Tourist activity has expanded over the years and tends to remain on a growing rate. The World Travel Organization predicts that in 2030 will be 1.8 billion international tourists travelling around the world. Tourism consolidates itself in the global economy accounting for 9% of global GDP, and is responsible for one in eleven jobs (OMT, 2013). As a result, cities are more competitive to receive the most different types of tourist and with the most different demands (Baldacchino, 2006; Gustavo, 2012; Hampton & Christensen, 2007; Lim & Cooper, 2009; Najmi *et al*, 2010).

In Brazil, tourism, due to Public policies, from the 1980s, had the expansion of tourism especially in the Northeast. This region was a historically disadvantaged place with vast social issues (Ab'sáber, 1999). To change this reality, a series of public policies were executed and one was named, Tourism Development Program in the Northeast - I and II. This policy set investments in basic infrastructure, as roads and airports, to expand the regional tourism (Cruz, 2002).

Because of those policies, the region attracted a large numbers of tourists and investments, becoming part of the international segment in the tourism market (Demajarovic, *et al*, 2010). Among the investments, here, we highlight the dwelling tourism, connected with the tourist activity and real estate segment (Silva, 2010). These investments is also linked with the private house booming all world over including peripheral coastal tourist destination as Tibau do Sul (Praia da Pipa) on Rio Grande do Norte, focus of this study (Map 1).

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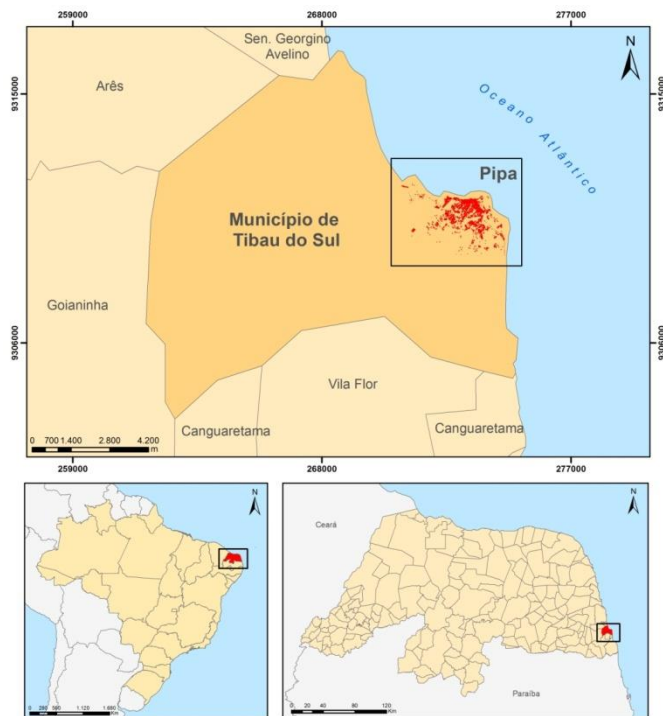
Map 1: Study Area
Creation: Mariana Torres.

In his work, Paris (2014) founds that there is a gap in critical studies to second home ownership. To fill hits gap in knowledge the studies that analyses second home and it consequences on the territory must go beyond uni-casual explanation of the problem. Using, Müller and Hoogendoorn (2013), Paris (2014), affirms that the studies of second home must approach themes relates to the impacts of second homes on communities and places, especially rural areas, in the internationalization and mobility, in economic dimensions and the future growth of second homes.

Cohen & Cohen, (2014a) affirms that the researchers in tourism are being accused of having a Eurocentric and 'post-colonialist' view of tourism. To change this perspective it is necessary studies in emerging regions of the world, especially the ones related to mobility.

From the problem outlined above, the aim of this article is to analyse how the international financial crisis reflected in the tourism destination of Tibau do Sul / Pipa. In addition, it aims to understand the destination responses to avoid global financial consequences, and how that has influenced the tourism sector and the city it self. Connecting to it the discussion about mobility and risk in tourism. Furthermore, an attempt to fill the gap in knowledge argued by Cohen and Cohen (2014) in providing from a Latin American emerging country a different approach perspective about mobility, second homes and tourism.

Literature Review

Society mobility

The connection of people flows around the world is much easier now than years ago. Great humans' innovations have created a good environment to peoples' mobility. Mobility is a concept that is changing the ways tourism is being studied. Theories to the human ability to motility are being formed to understand either in a macro-level or micro-social approach (Cohen & Cohen, 2014).

Castells (1999) affirms, the world is a net and we are all connected. He developed the conceptual of network society, which process and key social structures are related by and through informational networks. This fact, the existence of a network society, shapes also people movements such as virtual tourism, virtual work, overseas transactions and many other possibilities.

Flamm & Kaufmann (2006) argue that mobility is well connected with motility, a biological and medical concept for animal movement, as fish in water, also used in sociology, especially by Bauman in Liquid Modernity. In addition, the authors, connects motility with three main factors: access, skills and cognitive appropriation. They have argued that the access to the available options, the abilities (skills) to acquire knowledge, organize capacity to plan activities and the cognitive appropriation linked to strategies, has shape mobility. These factors also may or may not be connected with travels.

Moscardo, *et al.* (2013) affirms that globalisation and technology advances have changed society and the movements between places, expanding the boundaries between tourism and ordinary life. They also present the New Mobility Paradigm – NMP that goes beyond the fact of the movement into a wider perspective. This paradigm analyse mobility further than a movement through places, it seen as a cultural behaviour and inherent human characteristic.

Firstly proposed by Sheller & Urry (2006), NMP affirms that the new ways of mobility in our world is correlated with the fluidity of everyday life, with network than with places. With the NMP, tourism is more connected to the nature of modern society, a network society (Castells, 1999).

Cohen & Cohen (2014), adopt the conceptual of mobility of Cresswell (2010) as comprising an entanglement of movement ('physical movement – getting from one place to another'), representation ('the representations of movement that give it shared meaning') and practice ('the experienced and embodied practice of movement').

Cresswell definition of mobility contribute to an understanding that movement or mobility have not only been relate to accesses, skills and knowledge as proposed by Flamm & Kaufmamm (2006). It is, as well, related to what Urry (2006) affirms, as a cultural move, a representativeness of a practical experience.

"Mobility is a disarmingly simple concept for describing a complex and changing field of movements (…)" (Williams, 201:1). Yet according to Williams (2013), there are many factors related to mobility in our society and a great number of those are linked with tourism and in this work, we will adopt Williams (2013) definitions. Nevertheless, four are the major determinants of societies' mobility trajectory: technology, market relationship, culture of mobility and the State.

Humans' migrations dramatically changed due to technological advances. The industrial revolution has opened the gate to mobility. It gave to humanity the power to shift from one place to another changing the way in doing it by time and science evolution. Firstly, was the railways, which, by Thomas Cook was the first organized travel, afterward, especially in USA and Europe, come about the mass car ownership, which gave independency to the mass tourist and intensification of mobility. After World War II was, the commercial flights, which connected people in longer distances and abruptly, changed mobility.

The technological innovations is also argued by (Flamm & Kaufmann, 2006) as a key factor of human mobility but they add to conceptual analysis the social innovation factor, which changed society in a way that it has become an ideology that includes or excludes individuals.

The second issue, Williams (2013) supports, which has shaped mobility in our society, is the market relationship with supplies and demands. Low cost and budget hotels caused a great shift in supply that increased mobility. Easy access to it gave to the public capacity in movement, which was never seen before. However, gender equality, the aging of societies, incomes, sexuality and the development gap between global north and global south are challenges to overcome in demands in our culture of mobility.

A culture of mobility it was developed in our society, Urry (2010 cited by Williams, 2013) affirms that the world has created a "binge mobility". Traveling is an excessive consumption of places. This culture boosted by car usage, with United States in vanguard of this incentive, forms society mobility in a social status and a cultural capital. The mobility culture also acquires and demonstrates individual competences.

The last issue related to shape society mobility, said for Williams (2013) is the State, which with it political policies and actions incentive either internal or external mobility. The construction of roads, avenues, the reduction of car taxes, the neo-liberal economy, is all related to how society mobility is shaped and influencing.

Due to mobility, according to Castells (1999), the network society makes possible not only people flows but also, and in a revolutionary way, the capital flows. Factories are built everywhere especially in countries as China, with neglected labour policies that decreases production cost and increase profits (Chan & Zhai, 2013; Ngok & Cheng, 2010).

The connection of countries' economies has created a global market which boundary merely exists. As a result, of it consecutiveness, the capital flows with

the real estate investment finds, in peripheral countries, places to spread it profits. The technology has been facilitating the mobility and the economy. Because of those factors above mentioned it is possible to invest in different countries, like Brazil (Kuştepeli, Gülcan, & Akgüngör, 2012; Siegel, Licht, & Schwartz, 2011). Nevertheless, with the mobility and the network society the problems as diseases, crisis and terrorism are easier to spread and more difficult to block (Hall, 2010).

Tourism and International Investments in Second Homes

According to Brazilian Central Bank, it was invested on real estate segment in Brazil, in 2007, US$ 646.5 million by non-residents. The proceeds from the USA reached US$ 102 million, followed by Spain (US$ 82 million). United Kingdom, Portugal and Germany were also among the top ten most investors (Brazil, 2008).

These investments were related to the financial process of the global economy, associated with pension funds and international banks. Entrepreneurs envisioned investment opportunities in the Brazilian Northeast coast and many projects were spread along the coast, introducing new types of leisure facilities, the second homes (Assis, 2009).

The expansion of real estate (second homes) occurred in Mediterranean countries in previous decades and, more recently, in Northeast of Brazil. This fact is linked to the absorption of capital surpluses that has been encountered in real estate segment creating accumulation possibilities in the emerging peripheries (Demajarovic *et al.*, 2010).

Harvey (2011:146) notes, "placing-making and the creation of dwelling place that becomes the secure environment called house and home, is as extensive as capital accumulation in its impacts upon land, even as the production of such places becomes a major vehicle for surplus production and absorption. The production of 'the urban', where most of the world's burgeoning population, now lives, has become over time more closely intertwined with capital accumulation, to the point where it is hard to disentangle one from other.

Second home ownership is a major issue that needs to be analysed seriously, with profound analysis and criticism (Paris, 2014). A great number of studies is being held to explain the phenomena for instance, in Spain, real estate investment are transforming the landscape and the space of coastal areas (Demajarovic *et al*, 2010).

In Dubai, Guerrero (2009) demonstrated that even with the Government policies to attract the real estate investment, it has been shown that this segment is not sustainable for the destination. In Canada, McNicol & Glorioso (2014), reveals the difficult in planning and organizing the community facilities and services with second homes. Walters & Duncan, (2014) argued that in New Zealand second home owning is a luxury good which excludes local community.

In Ireland, Norris & Winston (2010) affirms that second home ownership is related to three main reasons: escaping, investment and retirement, corroborating with

Paris (2014). Studies in Brazil (Tulik, 2001; Fonseca, 2005; Aledo et al, 2007; Assis, 2009; Brasil, 2008; Fonseca & Lima, 2012) and in Portugal (Patuleia, 2012; Roca *et al*, 2011) reveals the connection between tourism urbanization, investment and capital flow related with second home ownership.

The interest of investors of real estate market in tourist destination is because of it urbanization. Developed destinations, even in developing economies, has an infrastructure that support and guarantee the investment (Wagner, 2014). Nevertheless, these investments are surrounded by risk, and, as it happened, can be abruptly reduced due financial crisis.

Risk / crisis in tourism

Williams & Baláž (2014) affirms that risk is inherent to tourism. Risk in tourism can be systematic due to the activity, related to operational system as competition. Risk can also be unsystematic because exogenous events such as earthquakes, diseases, or even the Eyjafjallajokull eruption in Iceland, furthermore a global economic crisis.

Hall (2014:1) affirms that the global financial downturn from 2007 has affected tourism at a global scale. It can be supported by many studies and articles relating tourism, financial crisis and management (Blake & Sinclair, 2003; Cohen & Neal, 2010; Guerrero, 2009; Hall, 2010; Li, Blake, & Cooper, 2010).

Since 2000, there was a growing importance of the Northeast for real estate and tourism investments (Demajorovic, 2011). This fact coincides with the favourable macroeconomic environment for the internationalization of European companies and housing bubbles forming. Banks were lending to exceptionally low interest rates in Europe and the United States provided to the population credit for purchasing homes and consequently increase of its debt (Harvey, 2011).

Specifically in Tibau do Sul occurred investments in second homes or occasional use dwellings, according to Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics (IBGE, 2011). Prominently the significant increase of second home ownership in Tibau do Sul was largely driven by foreign investment that occurred in that period. The growth of approximately 280% over the past decade was the biggest in the Polo Costa das Dunas (PCD), the main tourist pole of Rio Grande do Norte.

Tibau do Sul has 75% of the GDP in the service sector, many agricultural and fisheries activities were substitute by tourism. Krippendorf (2000) says it is a monoculture of tourism, which causes a great venerability in the destinations. The currency exchange rate resulting from the crisis leads to shrinkage of the tourist flows, as well as to the international investor. The reduction of this public changes affects the dynamic of the tourism. Tibau do Sul, whose economy is limited and notably dependent on tourism, has to reshape the local tourism.

As a result, to it unsystematic tourism risk, Tibau do Sul in Northeast of Brazil has been hit by the global financial crisis and has being changed since then. The coastal destination, which used to have international, mostly European, tourist as

the main target public had the tourism sector unstable. Furthermore, the mobility access from the middle class also reshaped the tourism activity.

Methodology

Aiming to understand how the recently experienced global financial crisis affected the tourist activity, semi-structured interviews were conducted with owners and/or managers of travel accommodations. This research group was chosen because the municipality does not have official record about the tourist flows. The accommodation establishments, by surveying the managers and/or owner of those enterprises provided data that approximated to the reality.

The research was divided in three main parts: 1) the importance of international tourism to the locality; 2) the activity of second residence and its relation to tourism and 3) the strategies and actions taken by the entrepreneurs to improve local tourism. The statistical procedures in this step occurred as follows:

- Target population: divided in two groups of accommodations: Hotels and Bed and Breakfast establishments. Tibau do Sul, according to the municipality, has 70 B&B and 24 hotels.
- Sampling Plan: the sampling technique used was the Stratified Random Sampling in three stages, with proportional allocation. This method dived the population of study in smaller homogenous groups, known as strata. The strata are formed according to the members' common characteristics. Since then, a sample was taken from the existing number of accommodation, allocating the size of this proportional to the size of each strata (Bolfarine; Bussab, 2005).
- Sample size: the sample in composed by thirty-one travel accommodation has been calculated with a margin of error of 0.10 and divided into two stratas. Due to the repeated responses and the saturation of the results obtained, the sample was reduced to 13 individuals.

The reduction of the sample was also justified by the difficulty to do the interview with the owners and/or manager. The refusal of many of the interviewers in responding to questionnaires suggest the difficulty of assuming the crisis by omitting data of their properties or even refusing to answer the survey. The low season period was another embarrassment to do all strata interview because a great number of establishments were closed and would be opened only in summer time.

Results and Discussions

The interview demonstrated that 70% of the tourists during the year of 2000 and 2007 were from Europe, mainly, from Portugal and Spain, and only 30% from Brazil. However, after 2007 – during the crisis - it statistic abruptly dropped. In the years of 2007 to 2012, 80% of the tourist that visited Tibau do Sul and overnighted in hotels or B&B were from Brazil, and the other 20% were Europeans (Graphic 1).
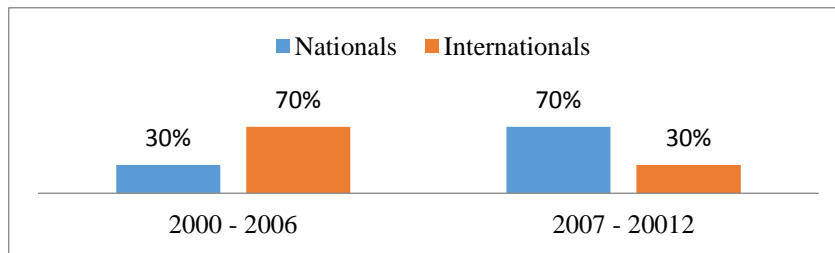
Graphic 1: Origin of tourists, according to interviews, in Tibau do Sul - RN
Source: research data (2013)

The fall of international tourists, argued from twelve of the thirteen interviews, was the financial crisis, which hit, mainly, Europe and United States. The results evidences that the global changes in capitalism interfered even peripheral destinations. Everything is connected (Harvey, 2006).

The reason of the growth of the national tourist attribute by the interviews was the fall of prices due the recessional period. To change it some promotional packages were released to attract off seasonal tourists (see picture 1). However, it growth was also because of the development of a Brazilian middle class, or class "C" (class in Brazil is divided in accordance to the monthly household income, as shown in Figure 1), according to the Institute of Applied Economic Research (IPEA) definition.

Picture 1: Advertisement saying discount of 66%
Source: www.groupon.com.br
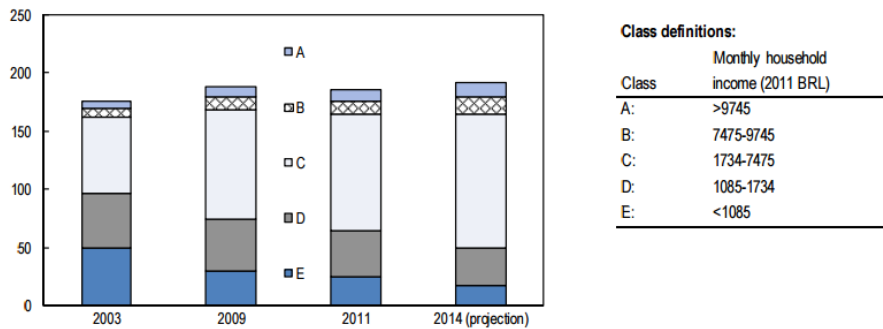
Graphic 2: Distribution of population by income classes in Brazil (in millions)
Source: Arnold & Jalles (2014)

The number of travellers in this population, class "C", also increases and reveals the reason of the growth of Brazilians on consumption in travel accommodations in Tibau do Sul. The Graphic 2 shows an increase of about 250% in the access of this class to tourism, and travel.
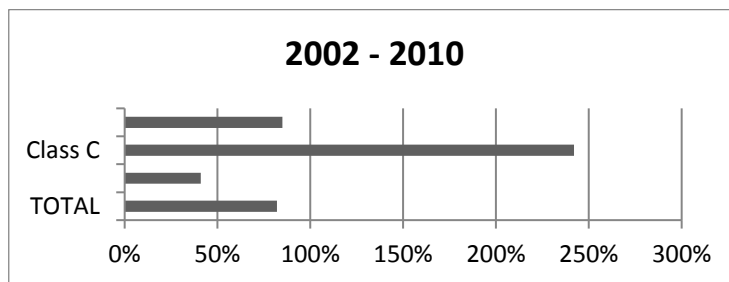
Graphic 3: The growth of travel by social class in Brazil
Source: Curry (2011)

The increase of class "C" to mobility corroborated what Williams (2013) affirms that, there is a growing demand for mobility, despite the fact of the global financial downturn. "This is because of increasing global incomes and the expansion of a middle class, outside the Global North (…)" Williams (2013:14).

The purchasing power of the class C in Brazil due to political policies grew nevertheless, the products price of the destination such as, accommodation and travel packages also decreased.

This access to the travel sector exposes another interesting factor. One of the interviewed statements was about the behaviour of the class C tourist: "they don't know how to behave in a hotel, I think it is because this is the first time in their lives they travel." This quote shows the significant change not only in the tourism destination but also in the access to travel for the Brazilian population.

The access to internal mobility in Brazil reveals that it gave access not only to a shift from one place to another, it gave new life opportunities. Despite, the fact that

Tibau do Sul is a Brazilian destination it was not accessible for Brazilians. The market decided who is interested or not interested to attract and to have access to tourism, but the incremental of Brazilian mobility also changed the destination.

The last results of the survey were the major reflection of the financial crisis on the destination: jobs reduction. Although there is no official data to evidence that, due to the reduction of tourist, a great number of employees were displaced in order to the accommodations' profits. The tourism activity is developed to promote profit to it entrepreneurs as a capitalist activity. In doing so, it uses all tools available for that, such as mass unemployment, price reduction, promotions, change of target group, wages cuts.

Tibau do Sul is highly dependent on the tourism economy. However, the sector is not well organized by the municipality, for this reasons the market, tourists and agents has been working by themselves, not in a congruent and organized manner. As a results, as showed by the survey, the unplanned activity suffer more with the unsystematic risk than it could be if it had planned and prepared to understand and cope with a crisis.

Conclusion

This research shows how mobility, network society and second homes are connected with tourism. By data presented here it seems clear that the access to mobility by emerging regions changed in a positive way the tourism sector of Tibau do Sul. Even though with limited access or nonexistence of official data, it is possible to affirm that the global financial crisis, hit the travel accommodation sector but due to internal mobility, the growth of Brazilian middle class and it traveling consume, helped the economy.

International financial crisis started in 2008, and was originated in the housing sector booming, and covered even remote areas of the global economic system. In Brazil, some specific locations were very affected, as is the case of Tibau do Sul / Pipa. Which, over the last decades, has been investing in the tourism sector in place of other traditional economic sectors such as agriculture and fishing.

As the destination had a fragile economy, that causes a quite impact, largely because of the coastal tourism governance, the "monoculture" of tourism. The town focused it economy in one fragile segment, one culture, and a massive risk for the economy. A significant intensification of second homes, at the pre-crisis period, by investments in residential units (houses and apartments) from international investments, together with the decline of tourist flow caused a crisis in the destination. The reflection of it was a retreating of prices, unemployment and focus in another target market, the Brazilian middle class.

In conclusion, there is a clear relation between success in a tourism destination and tourism planning. Tibau do Sul as a costal destination has great problems from mass tourism but is compulsory to invest in others activities. The tourism is an important economic segment but it has to be managed to reach positive balance. The diversity in economy avoids major risks.

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Community Perception of Safety and Security in OMO Biosphere Reserve, Ogun State, Nigeria

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Abstract

Ecotourism offers a great opportunity for African countries and their protected areas hosting a variety of ecosystems and traditional cultures that are major attractions to nature-oriented tourism for their economic development using sustainable tourism development. Safety and security have become global issues of concerns for tourists and for host communities. The perception of the communities towards ecotourism development of Omo Biosphere Reserve was conducted between 2013 and 2014. This was achieved through the determination of the perceived threats to safety and security of flora, fauna and avifauna resources of Omo Biosphere Reserve. A total of 250 structured questionnaires were administered on the 10 randomly selected communities of OBR to collect information on their perception of ecotourism development in the reserve. The government staff, NGO and community leaders were interviewed on the potential challenges to safety and security in ecotourism development in OBR. Data were analysed using descriptive statistics such as frequencies, mean/mode, and standard deviation. A total of 26 flora species were identified. A total of 27 fauna species belonging to four families were identified. The overall perceptual statement of Local communities showed that there are enough flora, fauna and avifauna resources to attract security and safety threats. The study recommends that there is a need for a community based ecotourism development that will include all stakeholders of OBR communities that will ensure sustainability.

Introduction

Biosphere reserves are sites established by countries and recognized under UNESCO's Man and the Biosphere (MAB) Programme to promote sustainable development based on local community efforts and sound science. As places that seek to reconcile conservation of biological and cultural diversity and economic and social development through partnerships between people and nature, they are ideal to test and demonstrate innovative approaches to sustainable development from local to international scales (UNESCO, 2010). Ecotourism only works when it yields economic benefits to local people, supports conservation and reduces the human impact of travel. It requires the active and educated participation of tourists and the travel industry alike, and it involves everyone from the visitor to the tour operator and airline, the hotelier and the local labour force to agriculturists to individual conservationists (Conservation International, 2011). Ecotourism is about

uniting conservation, communities, and sustainable travel. This means that those who implement and participate in ecotourism activities should follow the following ecotourism principles such as minimize impact, build environmental and cultural awareness and respect positive experiences for both visitors and hosts (TIES, 2013).

Ecotourism offers a great opportunity for African countries and their parks, reserves and protected areas hosting a variety of ecosystems and traditional cultures that are major attractions to nature-oriented tourism for their economic development using sustainable tourism development (World Ecotourism Summit, 2002).

The study area

The OBR is part of the Omo forest reserve that was legally constituted as a forest reserve by Order No 10 of 1925 and the Order was amended in 1952 (Ola-Adams, 1999). The area of Omo forest reserve was 1305.5km2. The core (SNR), which covers an area of 8km2, was managed as a Strict Nature Reserve (SNR), and is located within Area J4. UNESCO approved it as a Biosphere Reserve in 1977. A buffer zone (Extension) covering an area of 142km2 was demarcated in 1995 (Ola-Adams, 1999).

Location and Accessibility

Omo Biosphere Reserve is located between $6^0\,35^1$ to $7^o\,05^{'}$N and $4^o\,19^1$ to $4^o\,40^{'}$E in the South-west of Nigeria, about 180km North-East of Lagos, about 80km East of Ijebu-Ode and it covers about 130,500 ha in area (Ola-Adams, 2001).
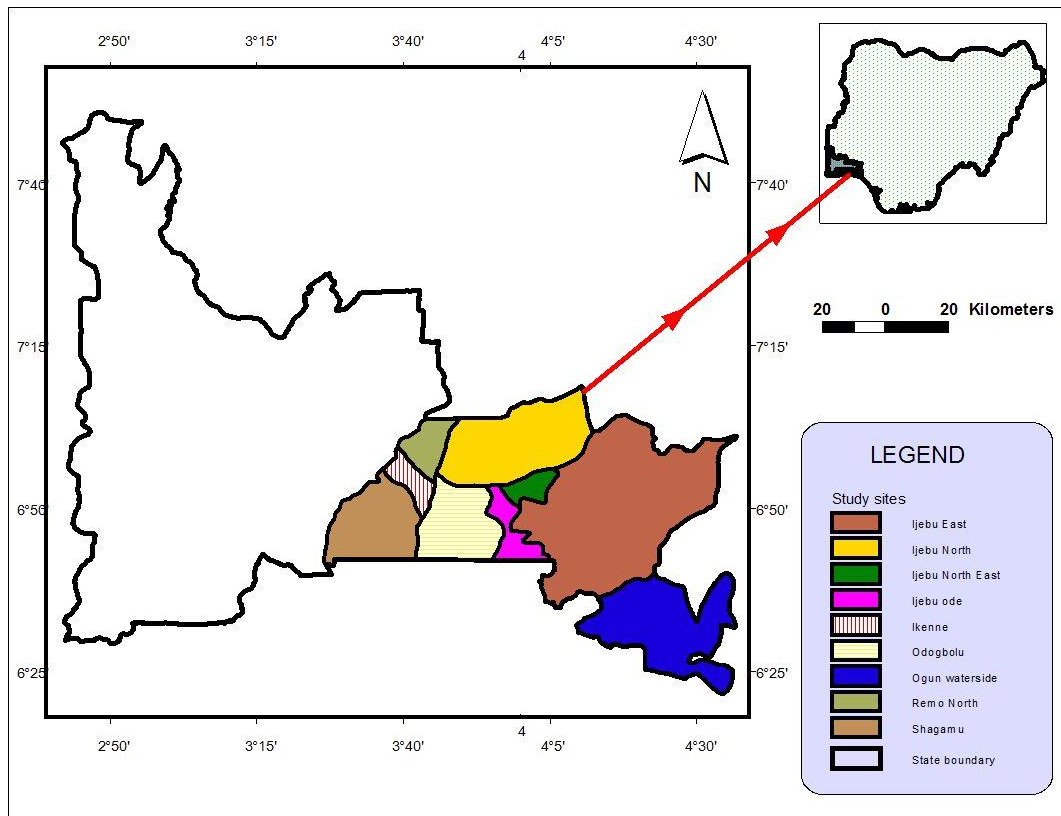
Figure 1: Local Government Areas surrounding the study area in Ogun State, Nigeria

Figure 2: Communities within the study area.

Omo Forest Reserve falls within the Tropical wet-and-dry climate characterized by two rainfall peaks separated by a relatively less humid period usually in the month of August. The vegetation of Omo Biosphere Reserve is mixed moist semi-evergreen rain forest. *The most common tree species include: Diospyros spp., Strombosia pustulata, Rinore dentate, Voscanga africana and Drypestes spp* (Ola-Adams, 1999). The presence of fauna in OBR is varied and contains 34 mammalian fauna species, 10 reptiles and 3 other animals. The common ones include: forest elephants (*Loxodonta africana cyclotis*), buffalos (*Syncerus caffer nanus*), red capped Mangabey (*Cercocebus torquatus*), Mona monkey (*Cercopithuecus mona)*, White throated monkey (*Cercopithecus erythrogaster pococki*). Red-river hog (*Potamochoerus porcus*), Bushbuck (*Tragelaphus scriptus*), Grey duiker (*Sylvia leucophaea*), Civet cat (*Civettictis civetta*), Tree hyrax (*Dendrohyrax dorsalis*), grasscutter (*Thryonomys swinderianus*) (Ola-Adams, 1999).

Methods and Instruments for Data Collection

Population and Sampling Procedure:
The study focused on the OBR communities which are: Abeku, J4 Camp, Olooji, Etemi Oke, Mile 1, Aberu 1, Ajebamidele, Fowowa J4, Abakurudu, and Osoku. Samples of OBR communities were drawn from the target population using Krejcie and Morgan (1970) method for determining sample size. To obtain the sample for the OBR communities, a random sample of communities within 0-5km, 6-10km, and 11-15km were sampled, Sonubi *et al* (2014). 250 residents of the communities were selected for the study. Community perception of safety and security in Omo Biosphere Reserve was obtained through the use of questionnaire (Mathers *et al*, 2007 and Cottrell *et al* 2015). In OBR communities, 250 structured questionnaires were administered in 10 randomly selected communities.

Results and discussions

Table 1 shows the perceptual statements of the OBR host communities on safety and security of the biosphere reserve. 50% and 20% strongly agree and agree respectively that OBR has enough resources to become a security threat. 30% and 40% of the respondents strongly agree and agree respectively that OBR could offer a lot of jobs, employment and income opportunities for people to reduce security threat. 50% and 35% of the respondents strongly agree and agree that they support the protection of OBR resources for safety and security. 31% and 45% of the respondents strongly agree and agree that reliable safety and security system will bring in a lot of benefits to the community. 30% and 32% disagree and strongly disagree respectively that if OBR is developed for ecotourism, it is a potential threat to lives and property. 32% and 30% of the respondents strongly agree and agree respectively that ecotourism development in OBR will make its flora, fauna and avifauna resources open to security threats. 60% and 33% of the respondents respectively were of the opinion that ecotourism development of OBR can become a threat to their cultural values. Ecotourism development in OBR can lead to trampling and destruction of flora in the reserve is the opinion of 55% and 32% disagree and strongly disagree to this opinion. 45% and 45% of the respondents disagree and strongly disagree respectively with the statement that ecotourism

development in OBR has the potential to negatively influence the natural environment. 63% and 33% of the respondents agree and strongly agree respectively that ecotourism development of OBR can lead to increased governmental protection of valued fauna, flora and cultural resources.

Table 1: Perception of OBR host communities on Safety and Security (%)

PERCEPTUAL STATEMENT	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. OBR has enough resources to become a security threat	50	20	18	12
2. OBR could offer a lot of job, employment and income opportunities for people to reduce security threat.	30	40	10	20
3. Will support the protection of OBR resources for security and safety.	50	35	10	5
4. Reliable safety and security in OBR will bring in a lot of benefits to the community	31	45.	12	12
5. If OBR is developed for ecotourism, it is a potential threat to lives and properties.	25	25	30	32
6. Ecotourism development in OBR will make its flora, fauna and avifauna resources open to security threats.	30	50	12	8
7. Ecotourism development in OBR can become a threat to cultural values.	2	5	60	33
8. Ecotourism development in OBR can lead to trampling and destruction of flora in the reserve.	3	10	60	33
9. Ecotourism development in OBR has the potential to negatively influence the natural environment.	4	6	45	45
10. Ecotourism development of OBR will lead to increased governmental protection of valued flora, fauna and avifauna.	35	55	6	4

Table 2: Potential safety and security challenges in OBR

S/N	Challenges	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
i	Illegal hunting/Poaching	237	82.00	1st
Ii	Overlogging	164	56.75	2nd
iii	Lack of government security	164	56.75	3rd
Iv	Weak social structures	132	45.67	4th
V	Inadequate safety measures	106	36.67	5th
Vi	Poor Communication networks	96	33.22	6th

Note: Multiple responses recorded
Source: Field survey, 2014

Discussion

The perceptual statement of the OBR communities according to the study varied. It was both positive and negative from different perspectives. For positive perceptions, if developed into ecotourism, OBR could offer a lot of job, employment and income opportunities that will reduce safety and security threats. More support and protection can come from government if it is developed into ecotourism destination. They also perceived that ecotourism development of OBR could lead to increased governmental protection of valued flora, fauna and avifauna resources. Reliable safety and security will bring in a lot of benefits to the community and most of the residents (85%) will support the protection of OBR resources for security and safety. For negative perceptions the communities believed that the OBR has enough resources to attract safety and security threats. They believed that ecotourism development of OBR will make its flora, fauna and avifauna resources open to security threats and can also lead to trampling and destruction of flora. It can also lead to a threat to cultural values. Moswete (2009) claimed that research shows that achieving the goals of stakeholder support for community-based ecotourism and the conservation of Transboundary Parks requires an understanding of stakeholders' perceptions and attitudes.

This study indicated illegal hunting and poaching, overlogging of flora, lack of governmental security, weak social structures, inadequate safety measures and poor communication networks are some of the challenges facing the ecotourism development of OBR. Ojo (2004) quoting Philips (1996) asserted that it has been espoused that forests have been recently affected by large-scale anthropogenic and natural change.

Conclusion

From this study, the following conclusion could be inferred:
1. There are adequate fauna, avifauna and flora resources that can become safety and security threats in Omo Biosphere Reserve.
2. Safety and security are issues of concern to the OBR communities.
3. OBR communities are willing to support any safety and security measures that can protect lives and properties.

Recommendations

Based on the above conclusions, the following recommendations are hereby made:

1. There is a need for a community based ecotourism development organisation that will include all stakeholders of OBR communities that will ensure protection for fauna, avifauna and flora in OBR.
2. Government should provide security and safety measures in the place. For instance, Police post could be established while providing armed ranchers/volunteers who are familiar with terrains of OBR.
3. Logging should have a more effective control for sustainability.

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Tourism, safety, and health information provided on European country websites: A content analysis

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Introduction

Several internal and external factors can influence the decision-making and purchasing behaviours of tourists. From an internal perspective, the tourist is influenced by their personal preferences and characteristics such as motivation, lifestyle, financial status, and cultural influences. Conversely, when considering the external perspective, the tourist takes into account characteristics of the destination such as political status, socioeconomics, geography, and the local residents (demographics and culture). The external perspective also encompasses the influence of the destination's promotion, which utilizes a variety of strategies to highlight marketable aspects of the area. The combination of these internal and external factors largely influences travellers' decisions as to whether or not they visit a specific destination (Kotler *et al.*, 2010; Middleton, 2002; Cooper *et.al.*, 2001; Moutinho, 2011; Buhalis and Costa, 2006).

Countries viewed as touristic destinations are usually promoted by public management and marketing agencies that provide information to the tourist deemed to be influential, attractive, and persuasive. Although promotion strategies in a competitive market primarily emphasize a destination's strengths, they also acknowledge potential weaknesses. However, as can be expected, promotion strategies often downplay the destination's weaknesses in attempt to avoid travel deterrents. Hiding problems associated to security and safety (e.g., criminality, adverse weather conditions, issues of terrorism), for example, can increase the tourist's exposure to travel-related risk and compromise their satisfaction with the touristic experience. Therefore, if the aim of strategies to promote touristic destinations is to increase the touristic demand, information about a variety of topics should be made widely available and disseminated to tourists to ensure they can make informed decisions when selecting travel destinations.

Despite a variety of channels in which to advertise the destinations, attractions, and amenities available in a country, internet-based traveller recruitment is among the most effective and serves as an informative and educational resource for potential travellers. The benefits of internet-based marketing include their ability to: (1) reach a large number of individuals across geographic boundaries for minimal cost; (2) share as much or as little information as desired (and tailored to specific tourist target audiences); (3) incorporate high quality graphics/images, sound, and video to complement website content and excite the tourist; and (4) provide current

information about local news, events, and travel advisories. Although countries overtly use their official websites for marketing and promotion, they are also useful for educating tourists about potential safety, security, and health-related risks and considerations, which if properly planned for and avoided during travel, can protect the tourist and enhance the overall satisfaction associated with their travels (Buhalis and Costa, 2006; Kotler, 2010).

While the influence and effectiveness of the Internet as a marketing and promotion tool is recognized in the tourism industry (Hudson, 2008), less is known about the specific content provided to patrons online. Herein, the primary purpose of this investigation was to assess the content provided on official national tourism websites of 28 European countries as it pertained to the topics of destinations/promotion, safety/security, contact information, and health/health care. A secondary purpose of this examination was to identify opportunities for countries to improve their tourism websites for potential travellers to enhance their visiting experience. Practical recommendations about specific ways in which website content can be complemented will be provided.

Promoting Destinations

The promotion of touristic destinations is more complex than enterprise-level marketing. The reason for this complexity is because enterprise can somewhat control the quality of the products and services provided in the market; whereas, marketing a country comprises a set of products and services offered by individual entities while represented by a larger public or quasi-public organization (Hudson, 2008). This complexity is an existing reality in tourism industry because the product being sold is an amalgam of different products and services that complement one other. In the case of destination promotion, public agencies are responsible for providing touristic information and shaping the overall image of the destination. However, this causes a situation where there is only indirect control of the "internal variables" by the public organizations because the touristic product quality is part of individuals' enterprise in the private sector (Kotler, 2010; Cooper *et al.*, 2001; Buhalis and Costa, 2006). Stated another way, although the public sector recruits tourists and markets attractions, the actual services provided to tourists upon arrival are in the private sector, thus not regulated by the public organizations.

Public Marketing Agencies of countries develop and implement a set of promotional strategies to share information and construct an image that positions the country to increase their destination's desirability to an international audience (Middleton, 2002). If successful, the country will then increase the number of international tourists as well as the average length of stay and spending per tourist. Although the marketing agency provides the touristic offer to travellers, it is necessary that they first understand the touristic demand (current, potential, and desired) so the offer can be effectively organized and communicated to the target audience (Kozac and Andreu, 2006; Kotler, 2010).

An Emphasis on Official Websites

A country's official website is a fundamental tool international destination promotion because it is a widely available, easily accessible, and inexpensive format in which tourists use to search for and identify information about destinations while deciding where to travel or vacation. Official websites are viewed as a trusted source of information that provides neutral information to potential tourists (Fesenmejer & Werthner, 2006) and where past tourists can share their experiences and recommendations for places, equipment, and services. More than merely promoting a destination's accommodations, attractions, and activities, it is important that these websites provide basic facts about the destination. According to Pearce (2005), "a good tourist site (one likely to promote positive on-site experiences), offers the public clear conceptions of what the place is about, the activities available are understood and accessible, and the physical elements that constitute the setting are distinctive and aesthetically pleasing."

Official websites may be helpful to tourists during the process of deciding where to travel. First, a tourist creates a list of possible destinations of interest, which is primarily driven and influenced by internal factors (i.e., personal characteristics and life experience) (Kozac and Andreu, 2006). Then, external factors lead the potential tourist to search for information and compare the possibilities by analysing relevant variables (e.g. distance, price, climate, vaccination restrictions, safety concerns, security issues) (Kotler *et al.*, 2010; Middleton, 2002; Cooper *et.al.*, 2001; Moutinho, 2011). If constructed well, the country's website can provide information about these variables, which contributes to the tourists' selection process.

Once the destination has been selected and the vacation has been purchased, tourists can also utilize official websites to gather more information about the destination to enhance their touristic experience and minimize encountering risks during their travel (Kozac and Andreu, 2006). By the traveller having the opportunity to learn about the destination, tourists can better protect themselves from potential dangers, choose the better products/services for their needs/desires, and improve their level of satisfaction with the touristic experience and the destination. Traveling without proper preparation, planning, and education causes uncertainty about the forthcoming tourist experience and increases the chances of negative consequences. Therefore, it is encouraged that travellers proactively seek out information about recommended behaviours (e.g., vaccinations, protection from criminal victimization) or healthcare (e.g., medical care options and accessibility); they are decreasing their level of travel-related risks (Fesenmejer & Werthner, 2006; Fuchs & Reichel; Korstanje, 2009).

Methodology

In the context of worldwide tourism, Europe is an important receptor market, which represents 39.2% of the market share in international arrivals and 36.6% in international tourism receipts (WTO, 2012). Five European countries rank in the top 10 categories in international arrivals and receipts (i.e., France, Spain, Italy, United Kingdom, and Germany). In fact, these five European destinations moved

about 240 million tourists which equates to approximately US$231 billion. The relevance of this region as touristic destination justifies the need to analyze aspects of its touristic promotion in response to this expressed traveler demand. The content provided to tourists on official websites is one aspect requiring examination because of their ability to promote destinations and attract potential travelers. It is important to attract more tourists, so that additional money can be introduced into the country, which results in a positive payment balance. It is also important to satisfy this substantial touristic demand by making efforts to earn tourists' loyalty, ensuring their touristic experience will exceed expectations, and increasing the likelihood they will subsequently recommend the destination to their family and friends.

A content analysis was conducted using official tourism websites of 28 European countries (countries adherent of the European Union [EU]).[1] Websites were evaluated utilizing a content rubric, which was developed by study investigators and guided by literature pertaining to relevant tourism, safety, security, and health topics. A total of 36 topics were identified and included in the rubric. Using this rubric, official websites were assessed related to destination/promotion (i.e., city characteristics, recommended destinations, attractions, transportation, lodging, climate, cultural aspects, and accessible tourism), safety/security (i.e., dangerous locations, recommendations to avoid crime, and airline travel as well as food, water, and wildlife safety), local authority contact information (i.e., embassy/consulates, security force, health care), and health/health care (i.e., vaccination requirements, health system information, and prescription medication information as well as laws/regulations about drugs, alcohol, tobacco, driving, and sexual behaviours).

All portions of the websites were reviewed for content regarding the above-mentioned topics and sub-topics. Information obtained from each website was recorded in the content rubric. Rubric cells were marked with an "x" to indicate the website included content about the topic or sub-topic. Column totals were summed and frequencies were calculated.

Findings

Table 1 reports available data for the number of international travel arrivals and monetary receipts by European country (WTO, 2013). In 2011, the 28 countries received an approximate total of 400.8 million international arrivals with France, Spain, Italy, Germany, and the United Kingdom representing the largest proportion of travellers. In 2012, the 28 countries, with the same five countries representing the largest proportion of travellers, received an approximate total of 410.6 million international arrivals. It is important to note that modest growth in international travel arrivals was observed from 2011 to 2012, and this is with missing 2012

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[1] The European Union (EU) is a political and economic partnership between 28 signatories countries: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherland, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom (WTO, 20120).

figures for Bulgaria, Denmark, Ireland, and Lithuania. Regarding monetary receipts, an approximate total of US$ 388.7 million were received in 2011 and US$ 376.5 million in 2012 by the 28 countries. Countries with the largest monetary receipts mirrored the leading countries receiving the largest proportion of travellers.

Table 1. International Travel Arrivals and Monetary Receipts by Country

COUNTRY	Arrivals*			Receipts in US$ Million		
	2010	2011	2012	2010	2011	2012
Austria	22,004	23,012	24,151	18,596	19,860	18,894
Belgium	7,186	7,456	7,505	10,359	11,313	11,381
Bulgaria	6,047	6,324	--	3,637	3,967	3,748
Croatia	9,111	9,927	10,369	8,259	9,185	8,774
Cyprus	2,173	2,392	2,465	2,153	2,520	2,600
Czech Republic	8,629	8,775	8,908	7,121	7,628	7,035
Denmark	8,744	--	--	5,704	6,165	6,162
Estonia	2,120	2,460	2,744	1,062	1,248	1,226
Finland	3,670	4,192	4,226	2,902	3,646	4,139
France	77,148	79,500	83,018	46,560	53,845	53,697
Germany	26,875	28,352	30,408	34,675	38,842	38,114
Greece	15,007	16,427	15,518	12,742	14,623	12,879
Hungary	9,510	10,250	10,353	5,381	5,580	4,845
Ireland	6,515	--	--	4,077	4,644	4,078
Italy	43,626	46,119	46,360	38,786	42,999	41,185
Latvia	1,373	1,493	1,435	640	771	745
Lithuania	1,507	--	--	1,021	1,353	1,313
Luxembourg	793	543	889	4,116	4,535	4,486
Malta	1,336	1,412	1,454	1,079	1,265	1,265
Netherland	10,883	11,300	11,680	12,883	14,445	13,887
Poland	12,470	13,350	14,840	9,526	10,687	10,938
Portugal	6,832	7,432	7,696	10,077	11,339	11,056
Romania	1,343	1,515	1,653	1,140	1,417	1,467
Slovakia	1,327	1,460	1,511	2,233	2,429	2,299
Slovenia	1,869	2,037	2,156	2,566	2,708	2,577
Spain	52,677	56,694	57,701	52,525	59,892	55,916
Sweden	4,951	5,029	10,914	11,080	13,886	15,427
United Kingdom	28,299	29,192	29,282	32,401	35,928	36,373
TOTAL	**374,025**	**376,643**	**387,236**	**345,311**	**386,720**	**376,506**

*Multiply above figures by 1,000 for actual arrivals

Source: World Tourism Organization

Table 2 reports findings from the content analyses of 28 European countries' official websites. Websites were evaluated for content presented based on 36 topics related to categories of destination/promotion (n = 14 topics), safety/security (n = 11 topics), local authority contacts (n = 3 topics), and health/healthcare (n = 8 topics). It is important to note that some topics may be appropriately classified in multiple categories. The percentage of topics represented on official websites ranged from 25.0% to 83.3%. Approximately 61% (n = 17) of countries reported information about 50% or more of the topics contained in the rubric, and 39.3% (n = 11) of countries reported information more than 60% of the topics. Approximately 18% (n = 5) of countries reported information about less than 40% of the topics.

In terms of destination/promotion, all 28 official websites contained information about characteristics of main cities (100%), and each website provided recommendations to tourists regarding destinations to visit (100%), cultural attractions (100%), and natural attractions (100%). While 92.9% of websites contained information about their country's climate, all websites provided information about transportation (100%) and lodging (100%). Regarding aspects of local culture, 82.1% provided information about language, 75.0% about food, and 64.3% about religion. Half of the 28 websites contained information specific to accessible tourism topics including transportation (50%), services (50%), equipment (50%), and locations/attractions (50%).

In terms of safety and security, 35.7% of websites contained information about the security status of the country or in specific regions/cities, 25% reported information about dangerous locations as related to criminality or terrorism, and 39.3% of websites provided recommendations about ways in which to avoid criminality or terrorism. Regarding content specific to airline travel, 92.9% of websites provided information about currency, 92.9% about immigration (or Visa requirements), 50.0% about customs, 7.1% about travel restrictions, and 0.0% about safety recommendations. Of the 28 websites, 35.7% contained information about water safety, 14.3% about local wildlife safety, and 17.9% about food safety.

In terms of local authority contacts, 78.6% of websites provided contact information specific to health care, 67.9% provided contact information specific to security forces, and 35.7% provided contact information specific to national Embassies or Consulates.

In terms of health and healthcare, 75.0% of websites contained information about the health care system including content about insurance, and 46.4% provided information about prescription medications. Approximately 29% of websites listed requirements about vaccinations. Regarding laws and regulations related health topics, 67.9% of websites provided information about driving a motor vehicle, 28.6% about tobacco use, 14.3% about alcoholic beverage consumption, and 3.6% about sexual behaviour.

Table 2. Percent of Countries Reporting Each Topic*

TOPIC	Percent of Countries Reported
DESTINATION / PROMOTION	
Main City Characteristics (size, population, history, etc.)	100.0%
Recommended Destinations	100.0%
Recommended Attractions	--
Cultural	100.0%
Natural	100.0%
Transportation	100.0%
Lodging	100.0%
Climate	92.9%
Aspects of Local Culture	--
Religion	64.3%
Language	82.1%
Food	75.0%
Accessible Tourism**	--
Transportation	50.0%
Services	50.0%
Equipment	50.0%
Locations/Attractions	50.0%
SAFETY & SECURITY	
Security in the Country or Specific Regions/Cities	35.7%
Dangerous Locations (criminality/terrorism)	25.0%
Recommendations about Criminality/Terrorism Avoidance	39.3%
Airline Travel	--
Safety Recommendations	0.0%
Travel Restrictions	7.1%
Customs	50.0%
Immigration/Visa	92.9%
Currency	92.9%
Food Safety**	17.9%
Water Safety (especially for coastal areas)**	35.7%
Local Wildlife Safety (insects, animals, etc.)**	14.3%
LOCAL AUTHORITY CONTACTS	
Embassy/Consulates Contacts	35.7%
Security Force Contacts	67.9%
Health Care Contacts	78.6%
HEALTH & HEALTH CARE	
Vaccination Requirements	28.6%
Health System Information (including insurance)	75.0%
Prescription Medication Information (including purchasing)	46.4%
Drug Consumption (Laws)	3.6%
Alcoholic Beverage Consumption (Laws)	14.3%
Tobacco Use (Laws)	28.6%
Driving (Laws)	67.9%
Sexual Behavior (Laws)	3.6%

* 28 countries represented in analyses
**Topics also considered to be related to health

Discussion

Findings from this content analysis reveal that information about a wide variety of topics is contained on official websites, although some countries provide more information than others. While the primary purpose of these websites is to promote destinations and attract tourists, they offer an outlet to educate tourists about other important safety, security, and health-related topics. Thereby, official websites afford countries with additional opportunity to provide important information necessary to inform and protect travellers.

Although some official websites reported only a quarter of the topics encompassed by the content rubric, it is of no surprise that all websites contained promotional information related to their primary cities, destinations, attractions, transportation, and lodging (Avraham, 2006; Kotler, 2010; Cooper *et. al.*, 2001). This is because the primary purpose of official tourism websites is to serve as a promotional tool that enables tourists to access important information capable of influencing their travel-related decisions. To ensure travel to a particular destination materializes, a potential tourist requires a minimum amount of basic information about transportation, hotels, and touristic facilities. However, before this travel can occur, the tourist needs to become motivated to depart their local residence and visit the destination. For this reason, it is not enough that official websites provide basic tourist information, but also promotional information about the destination's attractiveness. In the current study, all 28 European country official websites included basic and promotional information, which indicates the primary purpose of the website was achieved. While additional information was offered on some of the websites (e.g., climate, aspects of culture), they may be seen as "extra" content that is outside the scope of the institutional objectives of the website's hosting agency. Considering official websites are viewed by tourists as trusted and reliable sources of information about destinations, providing additional content about topics external to promotion may be helpful to influence tourists' intentions to travel and attract them to particular destinations. This is because this shows that the agency cares about the touristic experience quality and satisfaction of the traveller, which in turn, can install higher levels of confidence and feelings of comfort among tourists (in both selecting destinations and planning their travels).

Findings from this investigation revealed that only 50% of European country websites contained information about accessible tourism. While the concept of accessible tourism is still emerging, the demand for accessible tourism-related services and equipment (as well as transportation and accessibility to certain attractions) is rapidly growing because of global increases in the aging population and travellers with physical and mental disabilities. The growing proportion of travellers in the accessible tourism market is known to be loyal destination patrons and spend more time and money when traveling than common tourists (Smith and Amorim, 2013. These tourists also travel with others (family or assistants), which results in even larger amounts of potential revenue for destinations. Unfortunately, the demand for accessible tourism may currently exceed the ability of the tourism industry's level of preparation to accommodate these travellers and provide high-quality services. While half of the European countries provided information about accessible tourism on their official websites (which is higher than percentages

reported about other important topics), this providing this information websites critical because it may contribute to decisions about whether or not an aging or disabled travelers selects to travel to a particular destination (Buhalis and Darcy, 2011; Butler and Hall, 2006). Individuals needing particular services are likely to only travel to destinations that can adequately receive them. Although a tourist may not select to travel to a destination only because it is accessible, a tourist with accessible tourism needs will avoid destinations that are not accessible.

Findings from this investigation also revealed that these countries' official websites don't generally provide information about safety or security issues. For example, only about 36% of the 28 websites included information about security in the country or particular regions/cities, 25% reported dangerous locations, and 39.5% reported ways to avoid criminality or terrorism. Making information about safety and security to tourists is especially important because they are commonly targeted for victimization. The reason they are easily targeted is that they are traveling outside the context of their daily lives, visiting unfamiliar locations, and being in contact with a community (and its people) consisting of different cultural and social-economic characteristics. Even in the most secure places, tourists are somewhat vulnerable because the environment is unknown to them and their travel behavior is relaxed and "care-free." It is recommended that official tourism websites provide timely and relevant safety and security information and recommendations to future travelers pertaining to the safety/dangers of certain places, situations, and behaviors (Holcomb and Pizam, 2006; Tarlow, 2012; Fuchs and Racheil, 2006; Hall, Timothy and Durval, 2009).

Limited information was also provided about airline travel and other safety issues. For example, no websites provided information about safety recommendations for airline travel, and 7.1% reported information about travel restrictions. While most official websites reported information about currency and immigration, tourists could benefit from additional information about navigating airport processes and what to expect upon arrival at a new destination. A small proportion of official websites contained information about water (35%), food (18%), and wildlife (14%) safety. Considering tourists often select a destination for the available attractions and outdoor activities, providing additional information about these safety topics can assist travelers to select destinations and plan their excursions while accounting for potential risks introduced to them by indigenous features of a community. Similarly related to travel safety, driving is a common issue that requires particular attention. Although about 68% of official websites provided information about this topic, this percentage seems low considering the vast differences between countries related to road conditions, signage, speed limits, side of vehicle operation (right or left), pedestrian rights, and legal limits in which to operate vehicles after consuming alcohol.

Findings also highlight the importance of health as a safety and security issue, which is commonly overlooked in the tourism industry, but should be included in relevant investigations and discussions. A large aspect of protecting travellers is to emphasize health- and health care-related topics. This enables travellers to know what types of common risks they may encounter and will assist them to adequately prepare and take necessary precautions. Although about 75% of official websites

in this study included information about health care systems, only 46% included information about prescription medications and 29% included information about vaccination requirements. These findings indicate the tourism industry's focus on treatment in the instance of adversity rather than primary prevention. Health is also important to consider because when people travel, they engage in unfamiliar behaviours (e.g., alcohol, sex, driving), visit new locations, and may not speak the native language. This desire to experiment and experience new things may become risky if they are not sufficiently informed about the culture, laws, and risks (Hall, Timothy and Durval, 2009). In this study, information about laws pertaining to drug use (4%), alcohol consumption (14%), tobacco use (29%), and sexual behaviours (4%) were somewhat scant. The absence of this type of information on official websites may foster ignorance about acceptable and tolerated behaviours while traveling, which may have health and legal consequences. Although nations have the need to support and sustain their economy through tourism, they also have the responsibility to inform prospective travellers so they can make informed decisions about whether or not to visit and become aware of the potential dangers.

This investigation justifies the need for official websites to provide trustworthy and complete information to their potential tourists. An honest posture can help establish a reliable relationship with the tourist and also allow more control of and prevention against negative events and occurrences. In terms of marketing and recruiting tourists to a country, it is not advantageous to hide problems about safety or security and safety associated with a particular destination, which may expose travellers to avoidable harm. For example, warning tourists about health and security problems has potential to actually save the destination money related health care, legal issues, and costs of unnecessary action of security and safety forces. Further, in the event of negative experiences of tourists, the destination may be required to spend additional funds to re-establish a positive image and good reputation in the market. Moreover, websites can provide valuable information that informs the tourist about how they should act (in a culturally appropriate manner) and the types of activities, locations, and people they should avoid.

Using the Internet for educational purposes makes information about potential risks and dangers (e.g., security, recommendations for safety, and descriptions of laws/regulations) easily accessible and available to all potential travellers. It is not only a responsibility of the destination country, but it is also a useful way to minimize internal problems that can negatively impact the touristic demand and the destination's image (Tarlow, 2012). As indicated by Kotler and colleagues (2010: 527), "effective destination imaging requires congruence between advertising and the destination […] otherwise, destinations run the risk of losing tourist goodwill and generating bad word-of-mouth."

Limitations

This investigation is not without limitations. It must be acknowledged that the format and organization of information provided on the websites were inconsistent and often in a variety of languages. Thus, locating all relevant information contained in the content rubric was somewhat challenging, and it is plausible that information could have been present but overlooked by the investigators. Only one investigator performed the content assessments for all websites, which is both positive and negative. A single investigator is good for process and context uniformity; however, having a second investigator perform website assessments would have enabled more definitive confirmation about the presence or absence of website content. The authors recognize this investigation was not all encompassing. There may have been other topics omitted from the content rubric that should have been included. Further, a large level of detail about the specific information provided for each rubric topic was not collected and is deemed outside the scope of this study. It should also be acknowledged that the low frequency of topics reported on official websites might be attributed to the absence of an issue in that country (and that it is not the primary purpose of the website). For example, a country may not list vaccination requirements on their website because no vaccinations are required for entry into the country. However, the website should still explicitly state that no vaccinations are required. Because tourists consider these websites to be authoritative in nature, they trust and rely upon the information contained therein. Because these tourists are less educated about the destination and potential dangers, they may misinterpret the absence of information as the absence of danger or risk.

Conclusion

A country's official websites has multiple functions and can work as an efficient promotional tool from which travellers can base their destination selection. Additionally, they also serve as an important support of information and support to travellers during their vacation planning by minimizing the personal fear and potential risks while increasing the likelihood of the tourist having a positive and memorable experience. By providing a variety of information on a country's official website, they may enhance their marketing and promotion by fostering a sense of comfort among tourists. By adding content on websites beyond mere promotion about amenities and attractions, tourists can begin trusting the destination in that they care about their travellers' safety, security, health, and wellbeing.

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Part 2 – Tourism Supply & Demand Perspectives

Risk Management by Hungarian Travel Agencies

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Abstract

Travel agencies (both tour operators and retail agencies) face a permanent risk during their operation. The most visible risk taking behaviour is expected from the holiday tour operators, but on the other hand the success of a small travel retail agency also depends on how it can manage various risk factors.
The aim of the research is to discover the risk management practice of the Hungarian tour operators, focusing on the methods they know and use to avoid or reduce (mostly internal) risks.

The results show that most of the Hungarian tour operators are about to identify and measure risks, and they also know the best management activities. But knowing is not using – they prefer the methods which are easy and not that expensive.

Introduction

Travelling has been always a risky activity – it is risky to visit an unknown destination, where different culture, life environment, services are awaiting, and sometimes the goal of travelling is risky as well, it is enough to think of skiing or hiking. One of the reasons why many tourists choose a travel agency is to reduce risks; travel companies have more information on possibilities, are more experienced, etc. Indeed tour operators are able to find the best fitting services for the best prices – and they are also able to help travellers both in choosing an appropriate package and in giving advices how to behave in the destination and what to do or take with. But despite of their experiences the travel agencies also have to take risks. From the "simple" calculation mistake to the risk of a terror attack in the destination – the spectrum is quite wide. Although tourism-related literature discuss usually risk perception and management of travellers as part of consumer behaviour, this paper focus on travel agencies' risk behaviour.

Most of the travel agencies are aware of the risk, of course, but according to Oroian – Gheres (2012) it is recommended also to categorize and classify the risks that they have identified. They suggest determining the probability of occurrence and the cost of the consequence (or benefit) if the risk occurs (Oroian – Gheres, 2012). Furthermore an active risk management could be a useful tool to minimize the negative impact (Robertson et al, 2006).

Theoretical context

To establish the background of the research, two topics should be reviewed: the characteristics of the risk and risk management and the role of travel agencies. In addition there is a short summary of the Hungarian travel market.

Risk, likelihood, impact

In the literature, we can identify two different approaches of defining risk – the difference is in the possible impact of it. Some authors (eg. Kindler, 1987; Bell et al, 1997; Fehér, 2008; COSO, 2004) declare that risks have always-negative possible results, while others (eg. APM, 1997, Madauss, 2000; Barkley, 2004; ISO 31000) consider positive and negative outcome as well. In this paper the authors take the ISO definition as a basis: risk is "the effect of uncertainty on objectives", where this effect is a positive or a negative deviation from what is expected (www.praxiom.com)

Risk can be described by quantify-ability, output and probability. Based on these, risk is:
- quantitative – it has a probability,
- an output is related to all actions,
- its probability is known (Bélyácz, 2010).

Risks can be represented in the so-called likelihood – impact matrix, based on their probability and rate of impact. This two-dimension matrix can be divided into minimum two, but oftentimes into three or four categories (e.g. Frame, 2003, Tatay-Pataki, 2008). According to Ni et al (2010), risk matrix is a semi-quantitative model, since evaluation of risks is not performed by exact mathematic methods, but on the basis of statistical data from the past (Frame, 2003; Ni et al, 2010). The aim of risk matrix is for an organisation to survey different risk factors related to its operation and minimise probability of negative impacts by adequate action plans (Tatay-Pataki, 2008). Figure 1 illustrates the most typical categorisation of likelihood-impact matrix.

Figure 1: Likelihood – impact matrix (Frame, 2003).

Types of risk

Identifying risk is as difficult as defining it: researchers create risk types from different point of views. However, it is essential for an organisation to know and understand the characteristics of the different risk factors – this knowledge makes them able to manage risks and minimise their possible negative impact (Buehler et al, 2003). In the followings we offer a review about risk categories that travel agencies have to face.

Regarding to possible impact, risk factors can be divided into pure and speculative risks. *Pure risks* eventuate always-negative impact; in a travel agency these are for example natural disasters or accidents (Frame, 2003; Dögei, 2011). Insurance companies usually take out insurance on pure risks (Kahane – Kroll, 1985). Literature mentions *speculative risks* often as complex or business risk, which possible impact is either positive or negative (Banks, 2004; Horváth – Szlávik, 2011). Business risks originate from operational decisions or unimpressionable external events (Pálinkás, 2011; Dögei, 2011).

Considering the assessment, some risk factors need alternative, tailor-made solutions, while others can be managed with the help of standards. Based on this theory, three groups of risk can be identified. For example unethical or unprofessional behaviour of employees are avoidable/*avertable risks*, what stem from internal sources, from the organisation. An organisation face risks on their own decision as well, related to development and innovation. The higher the possible income is, usually the higher these so called *strategic risks* are. Similar to the previous typology, *external risks* are out of control of the organisation, it follows that identification is essential for the company (Kaplan – Mikes, 2012).
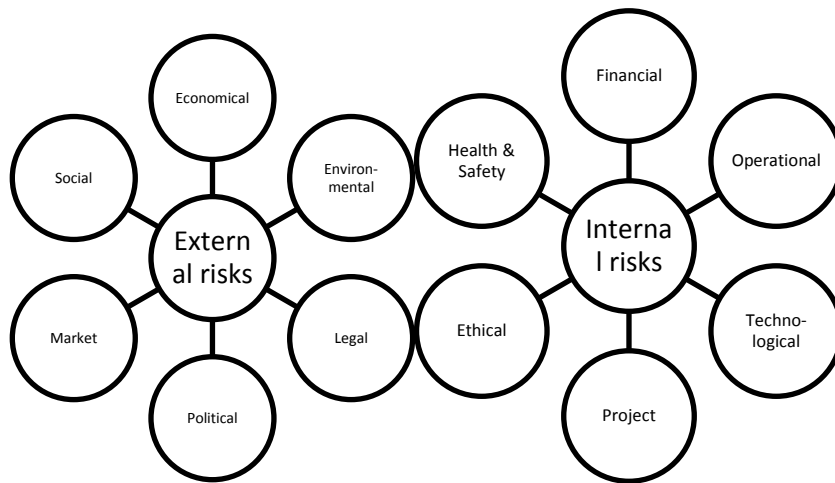
Figure 2: Typology of external and internal risks (Chapman, 2011)

Last but not least, source of risk is an aspect of typology as well. Organisations are not able to act on *external* or macro or exogenous factors (e.g. natural events, legal regulation and demographic trends). However, they are able to manage *internal* or micro or endogenous factors, like qualification and behaviour of employees, or co-operation with partners (Frame, 2003; Hallikas et al, 2004; Hoványi, 2005; Chiu – Chen 2009; Chapman, 2011). According to Chapman (2011), external and internal risks can be grouped as you can see on Figure 2.

As a summery we can state, that all the above presented risk typologies are based on organisation's ability of assessment. Some types of risks are ore, other types are less manageable, but organisations have to face risks anyway.

The role of travel agencies

Traditionally travel agencies (tour operators and travel retailers) are situated between the groups of service providers and travellers in the value chain. According to the used models the tour operator has the job of packaging while the travel retailer is responsible for the sales activity (Holloway et al., 2009). However travellers have the possibility of buying all the services from the provider nowadays – as Figure 3 shows. The easiest way of booking a service is to use the Internet and buy the required service directly.
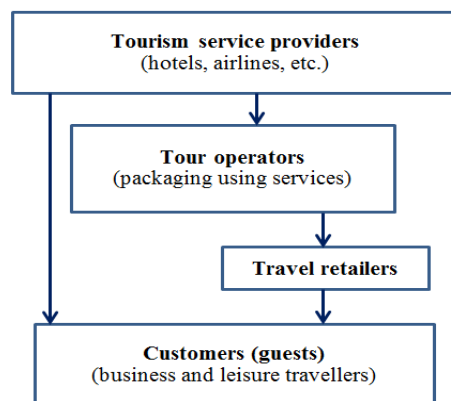
Figure 3: The value chain in tourism (Holloway et al., 2009)

Numerous studies and articles pronounced that the Internet and the worldwide web have created a new competitive business environment (Kim et al., 2007) – and indeed it has not finished yet. First there was a panic attack – mostly in the agents' side; they viewed the Internet as a significant risk; as something that would 'kill' travel agencies (Syratt, 2003; Özturan – Roney, 2004). Tour operators saw it otherwise: rather as an opportunity to expand their distribution outlets that is to get their products (namely their holidays) in front of more potential customers – while also cutting (human resource) costs. It is now clear that the Internet means not the end but the beginning of a new era where the web is the most widely used tool (Chiou et al., 2011).

Travel agency market outline in Hungary

Traditionally medium and small-sized travel agencies have dominated the Hungarian market, but there are large companies as well without serious influence. Although Hungary is traditionally an inbound country it is also a great amount of tourists that travels outside for city breaks, cultural round trips or summer holidays. To fulfil the demand there are outbound, inbound, domestic, online, and retailing offices as well.

According to the Hungarian Statistical Office 1303 enterprises has been registered as travel agencies in Hungary at the time of the research as Table 1 shows (2013) (ksh.hu). 74% of the agencies had the licence for tour operation and sales agency at the same time and approximately half of them originated in the capital, Budapest. Regarding the one-functioned agencies, most of the only operators are in Budapest, but it means only 10% of the whole. In the case of the sales agencies it is just on the contrary: 64% operates in the countryside.

Concerning the market share the German originated NUR Neckermann Kft is the leading tour operator, followed closely by the oldest Hungarian tour operator, IBUSZ Rt. While IBUSZ is the leader in terms of domestic travel as well, Neckermann is the most significant player in terms of outbound destinations.

Table 1: The size of the Hungarian travel agency market

	Number of travel agencies	Number of outbound packages sold	Number of inbound packages sold
2011	1255	732	690
2012	1289	663	727
2013	1303	523	686

Source: Hungarian Statistical Office: ksh.hu

In Hungary there is a special customer attitude towards the travel agencies. After the transition in 1989-1990 many agencies had been launched with more – but usually less success. In the 1990s there was a series of breakdowns and the Hungarian travellers became disbelieving. This wobbliness and the mistrust of the customers slightly remain although now the market is much better regulated.

The role of the Internet is more and more significant in Hungary, a well. Most of the tour operators have own webpage and online booking surface, but the traditional way of buying a package is still important.

Travel agencies (both tour operators and retail agencies) face a permanent risk during their operation. The most visible risk taking behaviour is expected from the holiday tour operators, as for package organisation huge investment is needed to book the services. Even domestic tour operation can include risk factors, like safety problems or natural catastrophe. On the other hand the success of also a small travel retail agency depends on how it can manage various risk factors.

Table 2 shows some typical risks a tour operator has to face and examples how these can be avoided or at least reduced. These risks are mostly internal risks. This paper deals with internal (mostly organisational) risks.

Table 2: Tour operator risk examples (own compilation)

Risk example	Useable method (example)
administration mistake	have a checklist or repeated checking
organisational mistake	evaluation of the guides' reports (using the experiences) competitor monitoring
realization problem	evaluation of the travellers' complaints (to improve the package)
service provider's mistake	learning from previous experiences continuous checking of the service providers
new computer software	trainings for the employees

Financial risks, like exchange rate risk or liquidity problems, are also significant in case of the tour operators. But these risks derive from professional know-how or the lack of this know-how; if the tour operator fails to forecast the demand, or is bad in evaluation the supply, or is not good enough in organisation, the sales will not follow the expectations and that will cause financial and liquidity problems.

The best and overall method is to make a complex risk management plan, which means to find and evaluate all possible risks in advance and assign the proper methods.

Research objectives and methodology

Our objective with the research was to test if Hungarian travel agencies more precisely tour operators realise and evaluate risks and if they have any action or maybe an action plan to avoid or at least reduce risks.

A structured questionnaire was used to assess risk consciousness of tour operators. We had the help of Tourism students of University of Pannonia: they visited various tour operators (only tour operators – travel agencies that do not have own organized packages have been excluded). The respondents were the managers of the travel agencies. As students, who had a short training before, asked the questionnaire the level of the misunderstanding mistakes was minimalized. (It was important to achieve that all respondents understood the definition of risks the same.)

The sample

The sample consists of 98 tour operators altogether. Considering that the number of tour operators was about 965 in the year of the research – the sample means slightly more that 10% of the entire population.

Fitting to the fact that most of the tour operators operate in the capital – 58% of the asked companies had the headquarters in Budapest. Regarding the year of foundation more than half of the respondents (56%) were established in the last century. These tour operators can be regarded as experienced ones, which surely had a lot of risks to survive. The "youngest" company started to operate in 2012.

As the level of risks can depend on the profile of the company, the research examined what kind of packages these companies organise. As figure 4 shows, the most preferred package type was the city break and the round trip among the respondents. 71% of the asked tour operators organise "traditional" (seaside, lakeside) holidays, while 44% organise exotic holidays (like "summer in the winter" packages).
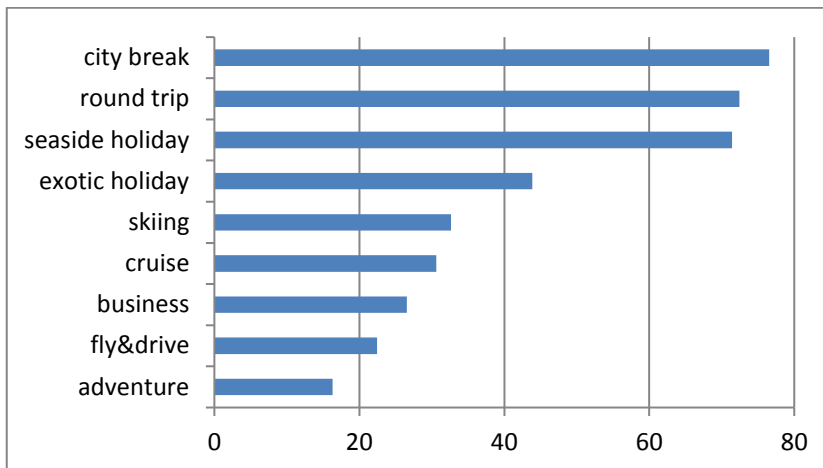
Figure 4: Package types organized by the tour operators in the sample
Source: Own compilation

Further important fact is that 54% organises "all inclusive" packages, which have even more risks (as many services are included as a fix element – and usually these packages are more expensive).

Most of the tour operators organise packages (every kind of) inside Europe (72% – while the second most popular continent is Asia with 35%, and the third is America with 24%).

Concerning the enterprise features 20% of the respondent tour operators said that 100% of their income is from organising only. As an average, 81% of the whole income comes from tour operation.

Most of the asked agencies have only 2 employees – but with a quite large standard deviation: the maximum number of employees was 60 and there was one small agency without employees. The overall average is 5,4 persons.

Results

First it was asked if the respondents pay attention to identify the potential risks. The result is quite good: 87% of the tour operators said "yes". Six tour operators had no information about it. These were member agencies of big networks; it is typical to coordinate management problems like risk management only in the headquarters.
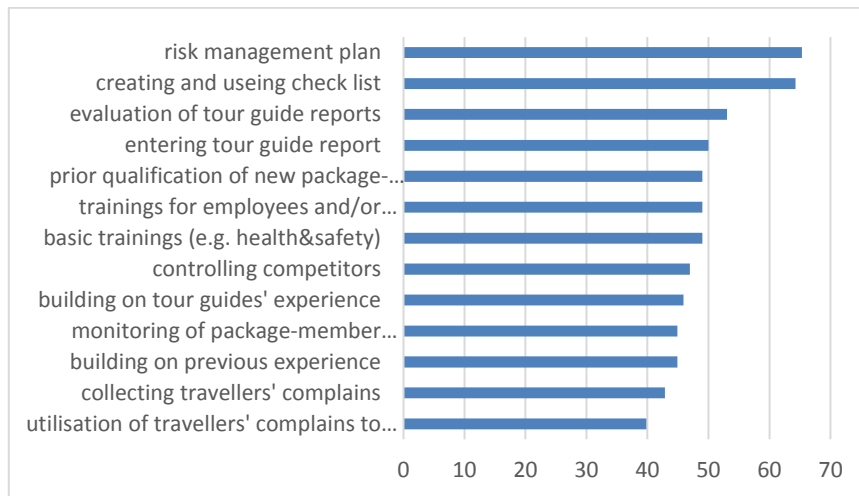
Figure 5: Risk management methods knowledge by tour operators
Source: Own compilation

Concerning the measurement of the risks we asked if the tour operators estimate the likelihood and the impact of the potential risks. The results show that tour operators are slightly less conscious in measurement: 71% said that they evaluate the likelihood and 74% stated to forecast the potential impacts.

These results show that tour operators try to deal with risks – although it is not clear what method they use to evaluate the likelihood and the impact.

With the research we wanted to have a picture about the methods they use to manage risks, therefore we elaborated a list of potential methods and asked the respondents to sign: which methods are they know and which they use. Figure 5 shows the rate of tour operators respondents, who said they knew the mentioned factors.

Figure 6 shows the rate of respondents who also used the known activities (out of the tour operators, who stated that they know these methods).

Figure 6: Risk management methods usage by tour operators
Source: Own compilation

It is very interesting that the factors, which were best known by the agencies – are on the other hand used the least. For example 65% of the respondents know that the risk management plan is a useful method – but only 25% of them said that they also use this method. The reason why it is less used may be that it is a quite time-consuming method, or because if the plan is not made by the tour operator (the manager) itself, it can be quite expensive.

It is much more interesting to take a look at the method "building on previous experience". Only 45% of the managers knew it as a possible risk management method – but 84% of them used it, as it is a cheap and easy method. The reason of the under representation in knowledge of the method may be that it is not always clear that such an easy activity like paying attention of previous experiences can help in avoiding or reducing certain risks.

Tour operators organising seaside and lakeside holiday are considered to have the bigger and more risks. As they deal with mass tourism – they have to book fixed amount of services, like charter flights and accommodation. They are not "simple buyers"; they have to book everything in a whole, usually for the whole season – and well in advance. Obviously they take greater risks.

Therefore we expected that those tour operators, which have holiday packages to organize, are more conscious and pay much more attention to manage risks. Examining the answers of these travel agencies it turns out though that they follow the very same pattern.

Conclusion

Based on the results of the research it can be determined, that number of tour operators dealing with risks at any level is increasing. This is a desirable trend,

especially compared with the late '90s in the Hungarian travel market: at that times dozens of travel agencies and tour operators bankrupt, since the lack of knowhow, experience and (risk) conscious business plans and operation. On the other hand, competition of travel market is still growing, so it is essential for suppliers to minimize and/or avoid risk factors. Conscious risk management is one tool to have a safe market share.

Despite the good percentage of risk-dealing operators, a question comes up at the next level: what is the reason for the lower percentage of measuring risks somehow? As it emerges from results, only 71 and 74% measure likelihood and impact (another upcoming question is the difference between these two aspects). Those operators, who know about existence of risk, all the same time do not measure them, probably are not able to manage them in the adequate way. In a sense, they can be called blind flyers, since they operate without making (all) efforts to avoid and minimise risk they have to face for sure.

As results show, the most well known risk management tools are risk management plan and check lists. On the other hand, these two tools are the less-used ones in practice. Several reasons can be identified in the background, such as creating a complex risk management plan is a very multiple and skilled task. In most cases, small and medium sized tour operators cannot afford money for it. As Figure 6 shows, operators prefer the less-expensive risk management tools they use more and mix them.

We think that the research was successful and able to show an outline of the current situation – but to answer the emerging questions further research is needed, which we plan to implement in the near future.

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Perceived Risk and Food Consumption by Tourist in Brazilian Northeast Beaches: Eat or not to eat?

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Abstract

In developing countries, such as Brazil, industrial, commercial and urban growth has favoured the proliferation of the informal labour market, highlighting the segment of street food. Thus, the relations between risk and consumer behaviour are addressed in this study. The purpose herein was to investigate the construct perceived risk applied to the consumption of food often sold in the Northeastern beaches of Brazil. Notwithstanding, the study verifies the consumers' propensity to take risks and the possible differences in their perceptions of risks. To achieve the study's goals, a survey was conducted among 500 domestic and foreign tourists in Recife, Maceio, Joao Pessoa and Fortaleza beaches. Data analysis was conducted by using statistical techniques, such as factor analysis and descriptive methods. The results showed that most of the risks perceived by tourists were related to health risk, since the consumption of food was pointed to be directly connected to the physical integrity of individuals. In order to reduce the perception of risks, tourists often engage themselves into strategies, such as relying on the personal presentation of the food seller. These results contribute to support tourism policy makers to plan and supervise the sales food in the beaches of Brazil, thus attempting to assure the tourists' health integrity.

Introduction

Food safety is a type of concern that has been increasing lately, and has provoked discussion among public and private organizations on measures to be taken to ensure consumers that products are not harmful to health. This issue has expanded beyond the social issues of access to food for the current discussion about the risks caused by these foods (Cardoso, Santos & Silva, 2009). On the other hand, there has been growing interest and public concern, specifically in relation to food security, due principally of foodborne illness. The term "safe food" can be interpreted in many ways and the different definitions for the term are mainly related to what constitutes a significant hazard or risk (Forsythe, 2002; Richards, 2002). Food security depends on the exercised control over the chemical, physical and biological hazards, which permeate all stages of the food chain, started in the production and finished consumption.

In developing countries, such as Brazil, the industrial, commercial and urban growth in recent decades has favoured the proliferation of the informal labour

market, highlighting the segment of street food. In this context, street food is a cultural heritage and the quality of food should be an on-going concern, as it constitutes a tourist product that should be preserved.

The food is characterized as an attraction that is the possibility of knowledge of new local flavours and characteristics visited (Lobo, 2008). The link between tourism and gastronomy gives the tourist the possibility of establishing a connection with the history, culture and people of a particular locality, "sharing values and customs that come with food from its raw state to the table, allowing the visitor a sort of tasting the visited reality (Gândara, 2009, p. 185).

The street food also included in this perspective are characterized by foodstuffs and beverages ready for consumption, prepared and/or sold in public places (Cardoso et al., 2009). According to the Food ... (2001), about 2.5 billion people worldwide consume daily street food, contributing to reduce nutritional deficiencies and hunger, and to preserve the local culture and the care of tourists (Moy, Hazzard & Käferstein, 1997).

In relation to the health aspect, however, much of the food sold in the streets are unacceptable for consumption, because of chemical contamination and/or biological characteristics (Garcia-Estrada et al, 2002; Garin et al, 2002), offering a risk to health of the population and tourists, representing individual spending and public administration (Arámbulo III et al., 1994), which may contribute to the formation of a negative image by the tourist.

The supply of food on the beaches varies according to the cultural wealth of the population. Products offered, in general, are characterized by low cost, familiarity, convenience, and easy access (Hanashiro et al., 2002). Sometimes, these characteristics have managed to override the real risks associated with eating on the beach. However, despite the existing real risk of the consumption of these foods, little is known about the risks perceived by tourists who frequent the beaches of the Northeast. There is a lack of studies analysing the perceived risk and it is considered a multidimensional construct that can lead to an individual underestimate an objective or real risk. Most studies examining food consumption are on the medical and nutritional area, where there is a vast literature on the subject, especially due to the diseases caused by the consumption of contaminated food.

Due to the importance of the issue, this paper aims to investigate the construct perceived risk for eating beach food, in order to analyse possible differences in perceptions on the types of risks covered by the specialized literature as well as checking the propensity to take risks.

This study may also contribute to a better understanding of risk perception in the consumption of beach food by tourists coming to the Northeast, as a way to provide information to the government which can collaborate in the identification and definition of health policies, handling foods, contributing to an improvement of the offered product and hence to the image of the area from the visitor's perspective.

Literature Review

In the area of consumer behaviour, the perceived risk is defined as the belief that buying a product or service may have certain negative consequences (Solomon, 2002). Despite perceived risk typically applies to negative results, the construct can include the entire spectrum of results, both positive and negative. Even a positive result can be disappointing; if it is considered as being under the level that one seeks (Sitkin & Pablo, 1992). The risk goes beyond the uncertainties about the consequences. It is considered as a personal expectation that losses may occur (Engel et al., 1995), being a function of these uncertainties and the possible consequences (Stem et al., 1977) present in the choices among alternatives in which at least one of possible consequences must be undesired or less desirable than the others so that the risk exists (Weber & Bottom, 1989). However, these perceived risks may be set in relative terms to the environment in general (inherent) or be specific to certain kinds of foods (manipulated).

The perceived risk was initially defined by Bauer (1960) as a two-dimensional construct, involving the consequences of uncertainties and variables. The consequence is the degree of danger in relation to the results of the consumer's decision, that is how much will be lost if the consequences are not favourable. In turn, the uncertainty would be the subjective probability that an event will occur, while the subjective uncertainty is the possibility of the occurrence of these results.

The real risk may differ from the perceived risk. The real risk is the one that is in fact considered to be objective, while perceived risk is the risk that an individual perceives in a given situation also called subjective risk (Cunningham, 1967). Consumers are influenced by the risks that they perceive, regardless of whether or not there is really a risk (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997).

There exists a consistent literature on risk typology cited in different contexts of research, but for the classic consumer behaviour area as defined by Solomon (2002), Shiffman and Kanuk (1997), some risks are more frequently cited. This is possibly due to the issue of being able to be used for risk analysis applied to different categories of products or purchase situations. It is noticeable that there is no consensus in the literature on the general types of perceived risk that influence consumer behaviour. Thus, the main types of risks cited by the literature related to consumer behaviour are presented here.

The financial risk assumes that there can be financial costs if the purchase is unsuccessful (Bateson & Hoffman, 2001), or if any risk is related to the loss of money and goods (Solomon, 1998); the risk of performance or functional risk consists of alternative forms of performance (Solomon, 1998): it is the risk to which the consumer realizes that the various brands of the same product class have different performances (Lutz & Reilly, 1974); the physical risk is associated with lack of physical strength, health and vitality. (Solomon, 1998), Bateson & Hoffman (2001, p.54) state that the physical risk refers to what goes wrong, and the buyer gets hurt or in the case of foods, passes out; the social risk is associated with self-esteem and self-confidence. (Solomon, 1998), defined the way consumers think that other people judge you by the brand of the products used (Lutz & Reilly, 1974);

psychological risk is the risk that a wrong choice can hurt consumer ego (Shiffman & Kanuk, 1997), is any emotion or personal fear (Lovelock & Wright, 2001); time is the risk of the possibility of buying time consuming or being a loss of time (Rindfleisch & Crockett, 1999), risk of satisfaction is the possibility that a purchase has not provide a personal satisfaction (Roehl & Fesenmaier 1992); and the risk of future lost opportunity is defined as an expectation that a better product, or with a lower cost, can be available in the future (Zikmund & Scott, 1974).

In order to minimize the various types of perceived risks the consumers and the companies can use risk reduction strategies (ERR). Companies can develop ways to attract potential consumers through strategies that seek to give a greater sense of confidence about their products and services to potential customers. In turn, buyers vary, as to reduce the risk in some types of gear units have no effect in many potential buyers, so maybe the seller should first examine the type of risk perceived by his customers and then create reduction strategies to appropriate risk to the buyer type of combination and risk (Roselius, 1971, p.61). There are alternatives to reduce the perceived risk, therefore, we present the strategies that consumers use to reduce the level of risk identified in the literature.

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (1997), risk reduction strategies most used by consumers are seeking information, and to buy the most expensive product, and to choose the product through brand image, and to be loyal to the brand and rely on image the offering of products and services. Roselius (1971) points out eleven risks reduction methods: brand loyalty, brand image, store image, free samples, money-back guarantee, tested and approved by an agency (government or private company), word of mouth positive, buying the more expensive model, research in several stores and various brands, buy the brand in which the advertisement includes a testimonial from a celebrity or an expert on the product.
These various risk reduction strategies identified in the literature can be classified as simplifying and clarifying (Cox, 1967). The simplifying strategies are those that seek to minimize the risks perceived with less user effort. For example, buying the most expensive brand can be considered a simplifying strategy. Or even buy a known brand and put off buying. The individual would be just seeking a way to decide faster, with less effort, among the various existing options. In turn, the clarifying strategies would be those which require greater user effort to reduce the risk, for example, to search for information on television commercials or print media. The consumer would be employing a personal effort to decide among the various options with the intention of reducing the risk in question.

Regarding the perceived risk that was found in the literature is that consumers perceive some risks and these and the companies use strategies to minimize these risks to the realization of purchase.

Methodology

The research was conducted in two stages, the first exploratory where we carried out a search and review of the literature related to the perceived risk in the consumption of beach food (desk research), aiming to clarify the risk behaviour construct domain in consumption food. The second stage of the study was descriptive in which the data were processed and presented. To do this it took into consideration the methodology found in similar studies of perceived risks in foreign and domestic periodicals.

The identification of the measurement variables was made from the review of the literature on perceived risks scales searches, so that we had a position to prepare a quantitative instrument. After the questionnaire was prepared, the next step was to perform an instrument of the pre-test with ten people on Boa Viagem beach in Recife, and verify the need for some adjustments.

With the availability of the database, it was analysed using the SPSS by applying the following techniques: reliability analysis of scales, using the alpha coefficient; descriptive statistics for a better understanding of the database; factor analysis to identify the theoretical dimensions in relation to food consumption on the beach (Malhotra, 2011).

The research population was composed of foreign and domestic tourists of Brazilian Northeastern beaches (Maceio, Recife, João Pessoa, Fortaleza and Natal) and the sample was chosen by tourists from consumers who were willing to participate in the survey, featuring a non-probability sampling for convenience. According to the recommendations of Hair et al. (2009) on the total sample size, we would need a sample of size N = 310. However, as a precaution, for the use of asymptotic tests (which require large enough sample sizes), we opted for an N sample size = 500. Assuming also intuitively that the five beaches are also attended, it was decided that the five samples were to be of the same size. Therefore, at each location (beach) a hundred people were interviewed. The information that formed the research database was collected through a survey with the collection technique based on personal interviews, using a questionnaire. The composition of the data collection instrument was based on two scales in order to measure the perceived risks. Both were taken from the book Marketing Scales Handbook (Bruner, Hensel & James, 2005). For application in the national reality the reverse translation was used.

Donthu and Gilliand built the first scale in 1996, and it measures the desire consumers have to avoid taking risks. The reported reliability is alpha 0.78. The second was constructed by Cox and Cox (2001) being a one-dimensional instrument that analyses the uncertainty component having an alpha of 0.77 reported. After research on previous studies and Marketing Scales Handbook any instrument that could not be found being used in this research, additional scale to measure the consequence component was based on the existing theoretical framework on perceived risk.

For statistical analysis of the data it was used descriptive statistics such as mean, median, standard deviation, minimum and maximum sample. It was also used statistical inference techniques such as: Shapiro-Wilk test, Levene, Mann-Whitney, Kruscal-Wallis one-way ANOVA, Tamhane, asymptotic test (large enough sample sizes) Welch and also the Chi test square combination of contingency tables which were used for the study of hypotheses to search. For the selection of statistical tests to verify whether would parametric or non-parametric the following tests were used: Shapiro-Wilk (for verification of normal distribution of data in each group) and Levene (for variances homogeneity between check groups).

The non-parametric tests, Mann-Whitney and Kruskal-Wallis tests were used as means of homogeneity tests for two independent samples and independent K-samples, respectively. For the analysis of variables by gender, the Shapiro-Wilk test rejected the distributions of normality hypothesis for the two groups (male and female) for all variables. On the other hand, the Levene test accepted hypothesis homogeneity of variances of two groups (male and female) for all said variables table. Under these conditions, it was possible to use the non-parametric Mann-Whitney as a mean comparison test (Conover, p. 217).

For the analysis of K-sample independent variables (K> 2) we used the following criteria: (a) where no normal distributions "for all categories" (groups) of the variable, but there was homogeneity of variance was used -if the nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test to see if there was significant difference between the means of the groups involved; (b) Where there were no normal distributions for all categories (groups) of the variable, and there was homogeneity of variance it was applied asymptotic test Welch and also the one-way ANOVA test to see if it confirmed the same decisions Welch test. In all cases ANOVA Welch confirmed the results. So, where accused the existence of significant differences between the groups, we used the multiple comparison test Tamhane (option ANOVA model for different variances groups) to identify which pairs of the categories (groups) who contributed to the existence the said significant difference. Also, for multiple comparisons of Kruskal-Wallis test (SPSS has), we used a program in Pascal, developed (in 1984) by Professor Bartolomeu José dos Santos of the Center of Exact Sciences and Nature (CCEN) of the Federal University of Pernambuco. The level of significance taken in all the research was 5 per cent. Data were analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package of the Social Sciences).

Presentation of Data Research

Regarding the profile of the respondents in all the beaches, the female rate was higher than the male one. The two highest frequencies in females were observed for the cities of Maceio (69%) and Natal (66%) and the two lowest female frequencies were found in the cities of Recife (60%) and Joao Pessoa (62.2%). The two highest male frequencies were found in the cities of Recife (40%) and Joao Pessoa (37.8%) and the two lowest male frequencies were observed in the cities of Maceio (31%), and Natal (34%).

Regarding the age group of 100 respondents in João Pessoa, 30 (30.6%) were in the age group 18-28 years; 25 (25.5%) aged 29-38 years; 13 (13.3%) aged 39-48

years; 20 (20.4%) aged 49-58 years, and 10 (10.2%) aged 59-68 years. In Fortaleza: 26 (26%) were aged 18-28 years; 37 (37%) aged 29-38 years; 26 (26%) aged 39-48 years; 8 (8%) aged 49-58 years and 3 (3%) in the age group 59-68 years; In Maceio: 27 (27%) aged 18-28 years; 27 (27%) aged 29-38 years; 23 (23%) and in the age group 39-48 years; 21 (21%) aged 49-58 years, and 2 (2%) in the range 59 to 68 years. In Natal, 24 (24%) aged 18-28 years; 28 (28%) aged 29-38 years; 29 (29%) aged 39-48 years; 11 (11%) aged 49-58 years; 5 (5%) aged 59-68 years and 3 (3%) aged 69 years or more; In Recife: 37 (37%) aged 18-28 years; 29 (29%) in the range 29 to 38 years; 11 (11%) in the range 39-48 years; 16 (16%) in the range 49-58 years; 5 (5%) in the range 59-68 years and two (2%) aged 69 years or more.

As to the place of origin of respondents from each of the five cities where the survey was conducted it was observed that of the 100 respondents in João Pessoa: 4 (4%) were from the Northern region; 41 (41%) of North-eastern region; 17 (17%) of the Midwest; 27 (27%) of the Southeast region; 9 (9%) of the Southern region and 2 (2%) from Europe. Of the 100 respondents in Fortaleza 3 (3%) were from the Northern region; 13 (13%) of North-eastern region; 31 (31%) of the Midwest; 35 (35%) of the Southeast region; 15 (15%) of the Southern region; 2 (2%) of South America, and 1 (1%) from Europe. Of the 100 respondents in Maceio: 8 (8%) were from the Northern region; 14 (14%) of North-eastern region; 35 (35%) of the Midwest; 35 (35%) of the Southeast region; 5 (5%) of Southern region, 3 (3%) of Europe. Of the 100 respondents in Natal: 5 (5%) were from the Northern region; 20 (20%) of North-eastern region; 22 (22%) of the Midwest; 40 (40%) of the Southeast region; 8 (8%) of the Southern region; 3 (3%) from South America, and 2 (2%) from Europe. Of the 100 respondents in Recife: 24 (24%) were from the Northeast region; 7 (7%) from the Midwest; 46 (46%) from the Southeast region; 22 (22%) from the South, and 1 (1%) from South America. It is worth mentioning that, except in Recife, all other cities (beaches) record the presence of tourists from Europe. Also noteworthy is that the absence of tourists from the countries of South America was found only for João Pessoa and Maceio.

With regard to food beach consumption, the two highest percentages of people who always consume them were found in Recife (26%) and Joao Pessoa (24%). It is also noteworthy that the two lowest percentages of those who never consume beach food were found in Recife (8%) and Fortaleza (9%) respectively. It is also noteworthy that the two highest percentages for those who eventually consume beach food were found in Natal (37%) and Fortaleza (36%) respectively.

The frequency distribution of the total group of five hundred respondents to the subject of the trip were found in four groups: in first place leisure, with 375 (75.6%) respondents, secondly, 63 (12.6%) business; events and conventions, in third place, 35 (7.0%); visiting friends and relatives and fourth and only 9 (1.8%) answered studies or courses. The other results appear with very low percentages.

For all cities, the data revealed that risk perception by tourists in the consumption of beach food most average was above the intermediate value range, and in the situation that one average fell below this value; it did not stay away from it. This means that people believe they are running relatively high risk by consuming beach

food. The median also shows those expectations. This means that people believe they are running relatively high risk by consuming beach food. It is also observed that regarding the city of João Pessoa, the issues that tourists considered of lower risk were feeling anxious when consuming foods Beach (mean 2.76, median 3.00); and concern when consuming beaches of food (average 3.65 and median 4.00). In relation to the higher risk, it was found that by consuming beach foods tourists realize they can generate negative results (mean 4.11, median 5.00); and when consuming beach food results they can be uncertain (mean 4.05, median 4.00). To Fortaleza, the lower risk were feeling anxious when consuming foods Beach (mean 2.42, median 2.00); and concern when consuming beaches of food (average 3.54 and median 4.00). In relation to the higher risk, it was found that by consuming beach foods tourists realize they can generate negative results (mean 4.26, median 5.00); and beach and consume food is risky (mean 3.96, median 4.00). Regarding the city of Maceio, the lowest risks were: feeling anxious when consuming foods Beach (mean 2.55, median 2.00); and beach and consume food tourists can have negative results (mean 3.62, median 4.00). The greatest risks were consuming beach food can lead to uncertain outcomes (mean 4.14, median 5.00); and beach and consume food is risky (mean 4.02, median 5.00). Regarding Natal, the lowest risks were: feeling anxious when consuming foods Beach (mean 2.41, median 2.00); and consume beach food causes concern (mean 3.87, median 4.00). Greater risks, uncertainty in the results when consuming beach food (mean 4.23, median 5.00); and consume beach food is risky (mean 4.23, median 5.00). For Recife, lower risk was feeling anxious when consuming beach food (mean 2.75, median 3.00); and is concern when consuming beach food (average 3.82 and median 4.00). For greater risks were: uncertainty of results by consuming beach food (mean 4.25, median 5.00), and consume beach food is risky (mean 4.17, median 4.00).

As regards the propensity to take risks for tourists when consuming beach food all cities are above the average value of the intermediate (3) of the scale, more precisely, they are above four. Considering the scale where 1 = Strongly Disagree (much propensity or tendency to take risks) and 5 = Strongly Agree (no propensity or tendency to take risks). This means that most people are not likely to take risks to consume food beach. Regarding the city of João Pessoa, consumers showed "greater" propensity to take risks in said medium range (not prone to take risks) for the answer "I prefer rather to be safe than to be sorry" (mean = 4.20 and median = 5.00); and for those who showed less propensity to take risks (not prone to take risks) was "I want to make sure before you buy something" (mean = 4.32; median = 5.00). Regarding the city of Fortaleza, the answer that people have shown greater propensity to take risks, in said medium range (no propensity to take risks) was: "I avoid risky things" (mean = 4, 42 and median = 5, 00). Lower propensity to take risks also within that medium range (no propensity to take risks) was: "I prefer rather to be safe than to be sorry" (mean = 4.56; median = 5.00); Regarding the city of Maceio, the answer that consumers demonstrated "greater" propensity to take risks in said medium range (no propensity to take risks) was: "I prefer rather to be safe than to be sorry" (mean = 4.53 and median = 5.00); and less likely to take risks also within that medium range (no propensity to take risks) was: I avoid risky things (mean = 4.59; median = 5.00). Regarding the city of Natal, the relative response to higher propensity to take risks, in said medium range (no propensity

to take risks) was: "I avoid risky things (mean = 4, 45 and median = 5.00); and the lower propensity to take risks, also, within that medium range (no propensity to take risks) was: "I want to make sure before buying something" (mean = 4.51; median = 5.00). Regarding the city of Recife, the answer that people have shown greater propensity to take risks, in said medium range (no propensity to take risks) was: "I avoid risky things (mean = 4, 07 and median = 5, 00); and less likely to take risks, also, within that medium range (no propensity to take risks) was: "I prefer rather to be safe to be sorry (mean = 4.39; median = 5.00).

On the types and dimensions of perceived risks by tourists to consume beach food, it was found that for each of the cities surveyed were assigned value and/or different importance in relation to the risks types. In João Pessoa the respondents gave less importance to: Social Risk - fear of judgment what other people will do the effected purchase (mean 2.00, median 1.00); and Psychological Risk - fear of being embarrassed in front of others with a product I bought (mean 2.19, median 1.00). The types of risk that people gave more importance were: Physical risk - I'm afraid of getting sick (mean 3.67, median 5.00); Functional risk - fear that the product does not meet my needs (mean 3.43, median 4.00).

Regarding the city of Fortaleza, consumers gave less importance to: Social Risk - fear of judgment what other people will do the effected purchase (mean 1.38, median 1.00); and Psychological Risk - fear of being embarrassed in front of others with a product I bought (mean 1.55, median 1.00); and most important for: Physical Risk - fear of getting sick (mean 3.59, median 4.00); Functional and Risk - fear that the product does not meet my needs - (mean 3.27, median 3.00).

In Maceio types of risk that respondents gave less importance were: Social Risk - fear of judgment that other people will purchase made by - (mean 1.40, median 1.00); and Psychological Risk - fear of being embarrassed in front of others with a product I bought (mean 1.73, median 1.00); and most important for: Physical Risk - fear of getting sick - (mean 3.55, median 4.00); Time and Risk - fear of losing day here in town (average 3.38 and median 4.00).

The types of risk that respondents gave less importance in Natal were: Social Risk - fear of judgment what other people will do the effected purchase (mean 1.47, median 1.00); and Psychological Risk - fear of being embarrassed in front of others with a product I bought (mean 1.76, median 1.00); and most important were: Physical Risk - fear of getting sick (mean 3.70, median 4.00); and Functional Risk - fear that the product does not meet my needs (mean 3.46, median 4.00).

Regarding the city of Recife, the issues that tourists gave less importance were: Social Risk - fear of judgment that other people will make the purchase performed - (average 1.74 and median 1.00); and Psychological Risk - fear of being embarrassed in front of others with a product I bought - (mean 2.04, median 1.00); and most important were: Physical Risk - fear of getting sick (mean 3.80, median 4.00); Satisfaction risk fear that the product does not meet my requirements (mean 3.32, median 4.00).

It notes that for all cities the risks that tourists gave less importance were: Social risk, Psychological risk and Financial risk and the risk of greater importance was the Physical Risk as was to be expected because of the food intake be related to the health of individuals (Solomon, 2002).

When we analyse the strategies used by tourists to reduce risk by consuming beach food, it turns out that for all cities most average was above the intermediate value (3) the scale and in situations where the average was below this value is not too far away from it. This means that tourists devoted great efforts to reduce the risks perceived by consuming beach food. The median also shows relatively those expectations. It is also observed that with respect to the city of João Pessoa the two least valued strategies within that medium range (great efforts to reduce the risks) were: seek information from the professionals of tourism and/or hospitality (average 2, 91 and median 3.00); and researching in various suppliers of food (average 3.00 and median 3.00). The strategies that tourists most appreciated even within said medium range were: food presentation (mean 4.76, median 5.00) and the appearance of the seller (mean 4.35, median 5.00).

Regarding the city of Fortaleza the two least valued strategies were: researching in various suppliers of food (average 3.01 and median 3.00); and seek information from the seller (mean 3.15, median 3.00). The two strategies that tourists most appreciated, even within said medium range were: food presentation (mean 4.78, median 5.00) and appearance of the seller (mean 4.20, median 5.00).

For the city of Maceio, both less valued strategies within said medium range were: Research in several food vendors (mean 3.30, median 4.00); and search for information with the seller (mean 3.35, median 3.00). And the two strategies that tourists more valued within the average "rfaixa" were: food presentation (mean 4.75, median 5.00) and the appearance of the seller (mean 4.31, median 5.00).

In Natal, the two least valued strategies were: research in several food vendors (mean 2.98, median 3.00); and search for information with the seller (mean 3.04, median 3.00). And the two strategies that tourists most appreciated were the presentation of the food (average 4.89 and median 5.00); and the appearance of the seller (mean 4.25, median 5.00).

Regarding the city of Recife, the two least valued strategies within said medium range were seeking information along with the seller (mean 2.85, median 3.00); and research in various suppliers of food (average 3.20 and median 4.00). And the two strategies that tourists most appreciated, even within said medium range, were: food presentation (mean 4.77, median 5.00) and the appearance of the seller (mean 4.44, median 5.00).

Final Considerations

Several authors have studied the issue of perceived risk since 1960. The pioneer, Bauer, found its influence on consumer behaviour. However, little was known about the perceived risk in foods that are sold on the beaches. This study aimed to contribute to investigate this issue.

It was found that few tourists do not perceive risks in the consumption of beach food and among the risks perceived by tourists one stood out: the health risk because the consumption of food is directly linked to the health of individuals. Regardless of the degree of willingness to take risks, most tourists perceived risk in the consumption of beach food, and the research has shown that the greater the propensity to take risks is lower risk perception by tourists.

In the group of tourists who consume beach food, it has been seen that there are two subgroups: those who consume anything, and those who only consume foods that they do not consider "risky". Therefore, for this consumption, tourists used some risk reduction strategies. Among the most used are: the presentation of the food and the presentation of the seller. A better presentation of the seller and the products, and greater disclosure on the quality of the ingredients used in the preparations are factors that help in reducing the perceived risk.

With regard to risk reduction strategies used by tourists, some points have emerged and this information can be used to decrease the perceived risk and buy more easily occur on the beaches of the Northeast. These aspects need to be taken into account by the government so there is an improved policy and monitoring the sale of beach food in order to provide tourists come to the beaches of this region of Brazil safer to consume food that will possibly more positive for the image of the cities and the quality of all the tourist offers of those States.

Despite the relevance of the results obtained in this study and the implications of the findings that emerged and that should contribute to the theoretical development of the subject studied and its social importance, it is essential to recognize their limitations, but that does not invalidate, under any circumstances, the study as a whole. The sample despite not probabilistic allowed a wide observation of the perceived risk phenomenon. The main tourist destinations in the Northeast were evaluated, however, the results can be different to other cities and regions, which does not allow a generalization of the findings.

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Part 3 – Other Tourism Reflections

Reconstructing Rio's Tourismscape: Urban Reforms in the Centro

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Rio de Janeiro is rebuilding its appeal as a tourist destination, after decades of urban decay, also thanks to a program of global events (Fifa Cup, Olympics and the inclusion in World Heritage list), which triggered urban transformations that could fit sustainable tourism. This has raised various issues of contestation, among which the risk to further social polarization as in other areas of the city and the dangers of the adoption of mainstream models of strategic planning. The paper describes the dynamics between tradition and innovation, gentrification and marginalization in the downtown, as well as in other neighbourhoods that have been left behind the construction of the modern extension of the city southwards. These areas showcase a continuum between heritage and new global languages, which the current urban reforms may either valorise by strengthening their social and economic embedding, or undermine through standardization and displacement. Such issue can be appreciated in several Latin-American historic cities, and deserve a further discussion about how to preserve an urban cultural landscape through tourism, and which concerns should a development strategy address.

Introduction

The on-going transformation of Rio de Janeiro's (from now on: Rio) Centro is an example of how a cultural landscape, once deprived of its original functions, can be subject of a regeneration driven by a clear strategy of 'tourismification'. According to literature (Jansen-Verbeke 1998; MacCannell 1976; Salazar 2009; Smith 1989), a critical interconnection is established between the subject of the visit (the tourist) and the object (the place). In touristic areas a change is produced in the functional and physical landscape, re-coding symbolic layers, coming to exclude other practices, notably those of residents.

In this paper we discuss critically the background, the recent socio-political shifts and various initiatives of rehabilitation of Rio's Centro, intersecting remarkably with Rio's mega-events agenda and its ambitions to refashion itself as a global urban tourism destination.

Tourism in Rio de Janeiro

Founded in 1565, seat of the Portuguese imperial court between 1808 and 1822, Rio has been capital of Brazilian Republic until 1960, when the status was moved

to the brand new Brasilia. Currently, Rio has a metropolitan population of more than 12 million (2015, 2nd in Brazil). The city has a 78km coastline framework and mountain ranges with natural landmarks such as the Pão de Azucar or the Corcovado peak. Spread among the interstices of the city, there are the Favelas, informal slums now provided with basic city services after being legalized in 1988.

Few cities are worldwide popular like Rio: Brazilian authorities have conveyed its imagery on an exotic destination for international elites since the early 1900s, through international fairs, music and film productions. According to the RioTur organization, visitors come to the Cidade Maravilhosa for its beaches, sights, restaurants, music, exhilarating city life, and the Carnival. Yet, numbers are not that spectacular: a way less glamorous city like Hong Kong, for instance, counts six times the arrivals of Rio. A long steady handicap has been the echo of extreme criminality, above all after the objective escalation suffered at the turn of last century. This dark side, together with an out-of-date transportation system and a failing economy, has been a hindrance for the attraction of the new generation of urban tourists who crowd dynamic megacities all around the world. In the second half of the 2000s, the city entered in a new phase of big events to contrast its decline, and the Rio de Janeiro State Entrepreneurs' Federation identified tourism as a strong vocation and called 2014 Soccer World Cup and 2016 Olympics as turning points for local economy.

Along with big events, big projects have also been launched, as the strategic plan Porto Maravilha, approved by federal law in 2009, aimed to renovate the waterfront around as an edutainment complex. The whole area, with the nearby Lapa district, reinvigorated through Samba culture as a nightlife hub for young Cariocas (Rio's citizens) and tourists. The historic Centro, also located nearby the port, will likely be the next to receive the regenerating effects from the future establishment of the cultural cluster. The works for Porto Maravilha has started in the early 2010s, thanks to the alignment of the three governance levels, with the ultimate objective to attract investments, tourists and new residents, without losing sight on social issues. But only a niche of culture-oriented urban tourists gets a taste of the original Carioca partying scene in Lapa Samba clubs or gets in touch with the artists' colony of Santa Teresa, both still described as dangerous areas in travel guides. More recently, the municipality questioned the 10% share reserved to social housing in the city's General Plan, arguing that new popular neighbourhoods should instead be erected in suburban communities. Tourism is not alien to such dynamics. Truth is told, present tourist model of Rio does not offer great benefits to the weakest sectors of the community, let alone favelas, whereas it stands in a perverse relation with crime, feeding it (crimes against tourists) and using it (prostitution).

The cultural landscape of a world tourist city

In its early history, Rio did not consider itself as a Cidade Maravilhosa worth visiting. The colonial architecture was far from pretentious: Rio was not a monumental city with self-esteem to transmit to the exterior. Things changed after 1822, when the need to affirm the new republican national identity joined the practical necessity to sanitize the city in order to accommodate new immigrants. The plans of Mayor Pereira Passos (1902-06) and of Alfredo Agache (1925-30) led

the transformation: by tearing down emblematic colonial buildings and some of the centric hills, new monumental avenues gave the suburbanized working class access to the centre and its modern facilities. After the 1920s, federal government promoted abroad the new city as the capital of a rising new State offering an exotic experience to wealthy tourists but also conveying an image of business opportunities. When modern tramlines extended southwards, the districts of Gloria and Flamengo (followed by Botafogo, Laranjeiras and Humaitá) became integrated-with-nature neighbourhoods of the ruling class and Copacabana became the iconic core of this leisure-oriented urban concept. The area was linked to Rio by two tunnels opened in 1892 and 1904 and reached its momentum as a glamorous seafront with the inauguration of Copacabana Palace Hotel in 1922, after the local World Expo. Throughout the whole XX c., Rio continued both its territorial expansion and its construction as a leisure and tourist destination, including more southern districts such as Ipanema, Leblon or Barra da Tijuca, which today marks the frontier of tourism. After 1960, deindustrialization and the loss of capital status produced deep changes in the city's space organization: while most of the working class started to use downtown areas for spare time or festivities, the wealthy created an alternative economic and cultural pole in the south zone. If the old Centro maintained close links with Carioca traditions, Copacabana and Ipanema exercised an irresistible appeal for innovative social trends, even under the dictatorship years (1964-1985). Ipanema, in particular, developed as a green neighbourhood with upscale public space, facilities and interesting architectural episodes. An actual Mecca for intellectuals and alternative travellers, the informal Ipanema has grown opposite of Copacabana, which suffered its own success under a relentless urbanization resulted in one of the more densely inhabited areas of the continent.

The paradoxes of mass-tourismification

The shaping of the touristic Rio during the XX c., deeply integrated with the southward extension of the bourgeois city, has generated more than one paradox.

The first concerns the social landscape of the city. The Centro, in spite of its political decline, has often been described as the area of the city that every Carioca feels most his own and belongs to. Nevertheless, urbanization of last decades has created new centralities with subtle but clear boundaries, especially in southern areas, where public space is designed for an affluent population but gated properties and strict surveillance mark the territory of the few living there. This situation is mirrored in degraded districts, above all the favelas, where very few people from the South dare to venture, especially at night, when the presence of the locals is more intense. In this sort-of classist city, only the beaches still serve as a democratic landscape, a proper public space that has carried on the role of shared representative scene similar to what the Centro used to be one century ago. This lack of interaction between social groups is even more radical when it comes to tourism. Visitors tent to concentrate in upscale areas and are unlikely to share space and practices with popular Carioca, perceived as threatening and risky. Visitors are concentrated in space and time, in a culturally shallow experience that follows the strategies endorsed by the tourism industry.

The second paradox is a counterpoint to the previous one. Slums have always been in Rio's urban history, and the modern city attracted an enormous workforce from all over Brazil that settled in natural interstices between regular neighbourhoods. Those underhand spaces (favelas) were close to the centre, to the port, and to the small plantations by then spreading southwards at the same time with the XX c. urbanization. We can thus say that the favelas have been and still are strongly related to the geography of tourism, since they provide the workforce for most informal services demanded by the industry and are a considerable presence in formal commercial facilities as well. On the other hand, slums in suburban districts start to come in the way of ambitious plans such as Porto Maravilha, the development of Olympic facilities or the construction of new landmark sites apparently not stopped by the sudden slow-down of Brazilian economy after 2013.

The third paradox shows how tourist areas themselves are subject to life cycles determined by the urbanization patterns. As mentioned before, while Ipanema was blossoming as an exotic haven for leftist intellectuals in the 1960s, other areas closer to the Centro underwent deterioration, like Copacabana. Ipanema passed through the same stage when flashy Leblon developed southwards. And when the regular city, as well as the tourist city, could not be contained within its natural limits, it broke loose up to the sprawling Barra da Tijuca. Yet, this district, in spite of being the main location of the upcoming Olympics, might be just too far and de-contextualized to satisfy the expectations of the average tourist. Commentators predict a return to the Centro that would rely on urban renewal and on conquering new land at edges and in interstices of the established tourist realm. A certain resistance to this dynamics is expected since, differently from previous expansions, these targeted areas are inside the city and already occupied by popular slums. The riots occurred previous to 2014 World Cup, even if not directly related to such processes, give a hint of the resistance that could be reached.

Rio as a world heritage cultural landscape

In this section we review the approaches of the past decade to achieve the inclusion of Rio in the UNESCO's World Heritage (WH) List. The theoretical basis of this demand laid in the city's universal value as an outstanding example of integration and mutual moulding between natural and socio-cultural elements, a symbol of human achievement. More pragmatically, the entry in the WH List was supposed to define a conservation framework, applied and monitored under global standards. Discussions rose quite soon about what to emphasize and what and how to preserve. The candidature therefore underwent a long, disputed process that is worth to resume in order to understand the politically sensitive nature of this matter.

The candidature of Rio as a WH Site can be traced since the early 2000s, when the reserves complex formed by the historical urban park of Jardim Botânico and Tijuca Forest was proposed in the category of Natural Landscape. UNESCO rejected this first candidature because its main value laid in the proximity with a dense urban area. Surprisingly, the rebuttal did not ease the threat of aggressive

urbanization, since the political pressure to have the landscape of Rio declared a WH remained very strong.

A new opportunity rose after the introduction of a new WH Site category: the Mixed Landscape, implying natural and cultural values at once. In 2009, Brazilian national heritage ministry (IPHAN) created a committee of experts in order to draft an extensive list of areas showing the mutual influence between human presence and the natural environment of the Guanabara Bay. The list practically encompassed the whole city (and put the natural element in the background) unfitting the WH requirements for conservation and valorisation. Eventually also this candidature was withdrawn, foreseeing a secure rebuttal by UNESCO.

In late 2009, IPHAN endorsed a private foundation to reformulate the candidature in strict accordance to the WH criteria. The new dossier was focused on natural environment as the framework of peculiar urban scenarios influenced by Rio's geomorphology. The area earmarked for the WH candidature included three sectors (two specific areas with a buffer zone in between) well representative of Rio's mixture of nature and human life. Physical and symbolic integrity of the two main areas (Rio's waterfront and the reserves of Tijucais and Jardim Botânico) is put at risk by the combination of increasing massive tourism, the mega-events and the growing global orientation in development plans. The buffer area refers to a landscape of urban fabric genetically linked to two main areas. Outstanding architectural items of Rio's heritage were not considered since the dossier emphasized the most direct connection between natural features and cultural landscape. This third dossier absorbed the notion of Rio as a tourist landscape, a place to be seen. In spite of the great effort spent to meet WH criteria, IPHAN turned down the dossier without not even presenting it. Possibly, the candidature committee envisaged a more integral and dynamic idea of cultural landscape as a springboard for inclusive urban development. The dossier was, indeed, drafted under the assumption that UNESCO would not consider a notion of cultural landscape including social dimensions of the cultural landscape and sought to leave an open door to integrate such elements in the management plans derived from the inclusion.

These circumstances changed when in 2010 UNESCO accepted Urban Cultural Landscape as a new WH category where human elements are inherent to an urban society. Times were mature to prepare a forth dossier that would go straight to the core of the problem: how to manage and preserve physical and social components of Rio's landscape by turning the many internal boundaries in bridges. Eventually, this new vision led to a successful bid in 2012. The inscription refers to "Rio de Janeiro: Carioca Landscapes between the Mountain and the Sea: The site consists of an exceptional urban setting encompassing the key natural elements that have shaped and inspired the development of the city […] Rio de Janeiro is also recognized for the artistic inspiration it has provided to musicians, landscapers and urbanists." (http://whc.unesco.org/en/list/1100).

The designation raises questions about which social and cultural policies have to be integrated in a management plan that should assume the traits of a typical integral urban plan, strategically extended to socio-economic and cultural policy.

Also the governance gets a new layer of complexity, since the envisaged planning tools are supposed to go through several levels both in vertical (federal, regional and municipal), in horizontal (Rio and the surrounding towns) and in depth (by creating a safeguard plan in addition to the existing ones). According to many, this is the real challenge and the most important achievement represented by having Rio's cultural landscape in WH list: not what to include, but how to manage it. Significantly, this process is simultaneous to Porto Maravilha plan, one of Rio's largest ever which included in its original formulation the provision of social housing to alleviate the problems of favelas and achieve a higher level of social mix. According to Nunes de Azevedo (in Albergaria 2010), Rio cultural landscape could be articulated into a new global offer of the city to both residents and visitors, which challenges spatial segregation, placing an emphasis mixed uses and poverty mitigation, and in this sense it could go hand in hand with the conservation efforts that the city is trying to have endorsed through the UNESCO WH label.

The issue is present in many rehabilitation initiatives in various central neighbourhoods, along with the monumental recovery and reactivation of the historical areas. These include: Gamboa, cradle of Samba culture; Praça Tiradentes, a neuralgic hub of theatres and old places reopened as museum spaces; and the grassroots-led redevelopment of the Rua Lavradio area of Lapa, a colonial district refashioned as creative quarter with fancy galleries and cultural institutions like Rio Antigo. All these architectural rehabilitation projects, the outcome of a planning strategy denominated Rio's cultural corridor and on-going since the 1980s, clashed notably with its social encasing. Gamboa, which includes Rio's oldest favela, has lost in the process its share of social housing. The beautification of Lapa could erode its bohemian vitality, due to strategies of surveillance and securization (Lapa Segura). And as of today, there is no real social project to repopulate the Tiradentes area or to attract the middle classes back in Centro, on the verge to be turned into a touristic ghetto. These example, which will be further explored in future research, are but a few illustrations of the need for a WH candidature to be accompanied by a management plan that transcends the mere physical domain and transversally affects and orders the realm of social policy.

Conclusions

The above-described strategies of urban renewal and promotion are due to the availability of public and private investors (often showing a common vision) and to a genuinely participated action plan for a soft tourismification of Rio's cultural landscape, even if considering an international visitor market. This strategy should involve issues of mapping, marketing, funding and protecting the cultural landscape of Rio in its various tangible and intangible elements: from the management of public space as a socially-constructed creation, to the development of an encompassing branded image; from communicating Rio's cultural strengths through new technologies, to protecting collective intellectual property.

Many observers claim the need of reinventing Rio evoking a successful transition to a post-industrial economy. In South America, urban regeneration has in general

arguably yielded to the interests or private capital. It could be argued that a sustainable revitalization of Rio cannot be left to market forces of growth coalitions alone. Yet, rather than fighting a defence battle, negotiating shares of the city's growth with the global capital, societal forces and cultural collectives in Rio are bound take the lead in re-imagining their city and their role in economic development; which also means re-imagining themselves as active place actors with a decisive role in the transformation of the economic bases of the city towards the cultural and the immaterial. In other words, this is about devising a business model – and its social foundations – for sustainable tourism in Rio de Janeiro, possibly serving as a template for all large Latin-American cities.

The picture we sketched reveals that the unique landscape of Rio is by no means static, and the situation may become even more complex in the future, causing substantial transformations. The greatest challenge will be to promote and manage this change in an organic and sustainable form, which could make it a reference for other Latin American countries undergoing similar trends, if not for humanity. A unique opportunity is provided, in this sense, by the inclusion of Rio in the WH List as a Cultural Landscape. However, this latter concept is not clearly identified yet, nor are specific tools for its protection proposed: after all, the notion of landscape is a mental construct involving the existing natural environment, but described and classified in cultural terms. The question has just started to be addressed both in operational and theoretical terms.

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Tourism in a Heritage Town in the South East of Ireland: Open for Business in the Aftermath of Recession – Current Situation, Challenges, & Opportunities

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Abstract

Located in County Cork, on the south coast of Ireland, Youghal is a small seaside tourist town with added tourist attractions in terms of historical and medieval characteristics. The town of Youghal guards an important and unique collection, in terms of history, stories, buildings and artefacts. Boasting connections with an array of historical figures such as Sir Walter Raleigh (Mayor of Youghal from 1588-1589), Richard Boyle, 1st Earl of Cork, Oliver Cromwell (wintered here in 1649), Queen Victoria through the 'Youghal Lace' of her coronation veil, the distinctive figure of Tom Thumb[2], a chapter concerning its very own witch and corresponding witch trial, settlers such as the Vikings, the Anglo Normans, reminders of a Medieval era, Georgian era, a Victorian era, and town walls that were built in 1250 AD, still proudly facing the sea below. Youghal's strengths are in its historical offering and in its exquisite beach location. There are 4.5kms of beach available to the visitor, along with four town parks: 1798 Memorial Green Park, Millennium Park, Keane Park and College Gardens. Youghal offers a rich tourist menu that on a global stage is significant. Historically, Youghal's importance in the region was associated with its role as a Port Town and an industrial centre. Unfortunately, the 1980s witnessed a decline in these roles and the town's population waned (Youghal Town Council, 2010). Recently, however, from a tourist destination perspective, Youghal has benefited in that is was chosen for a pilot programme of the Historic Towns Initiative, together with the towns of Listowel & Westport. This initiative is with the Department of Arts, Heritage & the Gaeltacht, The Heritage Council of Ireland and Fáilte Ireland.

This new research specifically examines the tourist product offering in Youghal and identifies gaps and opportunities for the future of the tourist product offering, together with recommendations for future development.

The empirical data for this study was gathered using both in-depth interviews and projective techniques. The qualitative element consisted of interviews with twenty-two key people drawn from local industry, the local business community, local residents and local politicians. Additionally, 71 people were picked at random to participate in the projective techniques, which yielded some significant findings.

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[2] The Dwarf Tom Thumb's (1838-1883) glove is displayed in the Visitor centre in Youghal today. The glove was presented to Lady Adelaire of Ballynatray House at the end of Tom's visit there.

The aim of this research is to identify and analyse the region's tourism product and services offering, with the specific aim of providing hope for the region in terms of local employment, increasing visitor numbers, and driving the local economy. The research findings will determine the area's strengths, gaps and opportunities, aligned with appropriate markets and potential investment attraction for the region. Immediate actions to boost the tourist offering are identified in this study, together with long-term projects and plans.

Introduction

Youghal is all about Tourism. All we have left is our Tourism – it's a hidden gem!

This research was commissioned in 2014 by the Youghal Socio Economic Development Group (SEDG) in conjunction with Fáilte Ireland[3] to examine the tourism product offering, identify gaps, provide recommendations to enhance the tourism product to promote the Town, and to improve the competitiveness of Youghal. The aim of this research is to identify and analyse the region's tourism product and services offering. This will determine the area's strengths, gaps and opportunities, aligned with appropriate markets and potential investment attraction. The findings of this study will provide a clear understanding of the tourist offering, while also identifying gaps in the tourist product proposition. The first section of this paper will outline the current offering for the Town, the second section will present the empirical data generated from this study which used projective techniques and in-depth interviews from respondents, and the last section will outline the gaps in the offering and provide recommendations for future practice to better enhance the tourist product offering and generate economic growth.

During the period of the Irish financial crisis and corresponding economic downturn in Ireland in 2008 and subsequent years, the Town of Youghal suffered a seriously detrimental impact on local trade, business, and employment, especially the retail sector. The Town Council had a pivotal role in supporting the Town, and were responsible for the commerce and the overall well-being of Youghal, but the dissolution of Town Councils throughout Ireland in June 2014, when the Local Government Reform Act 2014 was implemented, left the Town without local support. The East Cork Municipal District has now taken over from the Town Council, but this research has found that power has now shifted to the County Council.

The Youghal Socio-Economic Development Group (YSEDG)

In 2007, The Youghal Socio-Economic Development Group (YSEDG), a strategic policy group, was established so that Youghal could exploit its significant international heritage, natural amenities, and it's hosting of large-scale

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[3] Fáilte Ireland (FI) is the National Tourism Development Authority supporting the tourism industry & working to sustain Ireland as a high-quality and competitive tourism destination. FI work with other state agencies and representative bodies, at local & national levels, to implement and champion positive and practical strategies that will benefit Irish tourism & the Irish economy. FI promote Ireland as a holiday destination through their domestic marketing campaign (http://www.failteireland.ie/)

contemporary cultural and arts events. The group is made up of local, countywide and regional agencies, together with local authorities, the tourism and business community, and community groups representing Youghal. Since it was established, YSEDG has become Youghal's very own 'Task Force', positioning Youghal as a desirable place to live, work, visit, and invest. Youghal's heritage-led regeneration strategy has seen YSEDG deliver conservation and restoration works to Youghal's Town Walls and The Clocktower Gate Building. Youghal also benefited from the Historic Towns Initiative[4] Pilot Program along with Listowel, Co. Kerry, and Westport, Co. Mayo. In 2014, Youghal received €40,000 in funding to complete the Historic Towns Initiative (HTI) pilot programme. This funding follows an initial allocation of €120,000 to Youghal from the programme in 2013. This initiative has seen the re-launch of the heritage-painting scheme, the marketing and branding of the 'Raleigh Quarter', and the refurbishment of the Nealons Quay and Market Square area of the town:

> *I am . . . very pleased to be able to offer funding to all three towns again in 2014. The enhancement of the heritage of our historic towns can make places better to live in and . . . increase economic activity,* (Dennihan, 2014).

Literature

Since the 1970s, cultural tourism has begun to be recognized as a tourism product category rather than a niche and specialized activity and is considered the "oldest of the 'new' tourism phenomena" (Haydn, 2003). McKercher and du Cros (2002) suggest that cultural tourism represents tourism which is derived from special interests, and involving participation in visiting cultural destinations. Between 35 and 70 per cent of international travellers are now considered cultural tourists. Cultural destinations can be very diverse, including historical, artistic, scientific, lifestyle, heritage and social offerings. Such tourism destinations have become fashionable as disposable income grows and information is made available (Hadyn, 2003).

Distinction can be made between tangible and intangible heritage. The tangible kind includes physical assets such as historic towns, buildings, archaeological sites and cultural landscapes. Intangible heritage is represented by "softer" aspects of culture, people and traditions, (Hadyn, 2003). Chaplin (2003) outlines that a failure to appreciate the nexus between tourism and cultural heritage management results in the suboptimal delivery of cultural tourism. The management of the combined cultural heritage segment tends to work in isolation, leading to many lost opportunities for providing quality experiences. Based on their combined experience, McKercher and du Cros (2002) reveal the close relationship between the subjects and the imperative for professionals to engage in a dialogue (Chaplin, 2003). Tourists visiting historic locations for different reasons should have

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[4] The Historic Towns Initiative (HTI) is a heritage-led regeneration programme undertaken jointly by the Department of Arts, Heritage and the Gaeltacht, the Heritage Council and Fáilte Ireland. To date the initiative has resulted in a series of innovative programmes of works that have enhanced the heritage character of each town, aiming to create a desirable place in which to live, do business and to visit.

implications on the marketing of heritage attractions. Psychographic segmentation according to perception of the site should be examined for such tourists. Managers of historic destinations are advised to identify tourists based on their perceptions and provide them with different angles of interpretation (Poria *et al.,* 2006).

Whether local, national or international, governments share the responsibility for the protection of cultural and heritage sites for present and future generations, (Pereira Roders, van Oers, 2011). In former times, attention was centered on the conservation of these facilities, primarily as individual buildings or structures; nowadays it entails complex processes of management to deal with change of uses, changes in the surroundings, a widening circle of stakeholders and competing demands regarding environmental, economic, social and cultural requirements. As such, management practices have been progressing towards a more holistic approach, where the cultural significance (i.e., range of values attributed to these facilities, from existence to use values and from socio-economic to environmental and cultural values) is taken into account, whenever changes need to be applied to these or other surrounding facilities (Pereira Roders, van Oers, 2011).

As a key resource, cultural heritage has become a driver for development, which, when properly managed, can enhance the liveability of surrounding areas and sustain productivity in a changing global environment. Governments, however, need to have clear strategies and effective methods for planning, designing, executing and managing these facilities in order to optimize their production and consumption potential, while preserving and, where possible, enhancing their cultural significance, (Pereira Roders, van Oers, 2011).

The subject of partnership (or its lack) between managers of cultural heritage assets and cultural tourism is a neglected area of research (Chaplin, 2003).

Methodology

Initially, extensive secondary desk research was undertaken to investigate in detail the current tourist offering in the town of Youghal. This was followed by face-to-face meetings with relevant protagonists who were previously, and are currently, responsible for the Town's tourist offering. In parallel, four visitor journeys were undertaken over a seven month period during summer peak times, and winter off-peak times to gain a further understanding of what the town had to offer during both periods of the year. From this, and for the empirical contribution, a qualitative approach was deemed the best approach to gather the new data in this study. First, projective techniques were executed with 71 people with no connection with Youghal who were asked to offer the first word that came to mind when presented with the word 'Youghal'. The aim here was to see how non-related individuals to Youghal perceived the Town. Projective techniques are based on psychology and are mainly used to get inside the participant's mind – to seek inner thoughts and feelings, to gain an insight - to get to the subconscious. Projective techniques identify a respondent's 'first thought' when a certain brand is mentioned.

For the face the face interviews, 22 in-depth interviews were carried out with participants who were drawn purposely from the local community and who had a direct involvement with the commerce of the town; for example, local business owners, tourism service providers, owners of historical buildings, local politicians, historians, event organisers, archaeologists, and contributors from YSEDG & Fáilte Ireland.

Status of facilities: outline & discussion of findings

Tourist Visitor Numbers

Table 1, presents the visitor numbers to Youghal during the tourist season to the end of October 2014. In all, 32,910 tourists visited the town itself:

Table 1: 2014 Visitor Numbers to Youghal

	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	Totals
Visitors	226	801	2055	2421	4190	4492	2610	1049	17,844
Bus visitors	144	734	2244	2881	2458	2997	2877	731	15,066
Totals	370	1535	4299	5302	6648	7489	5487	1780	32,910

Source: Youghal Chamber Tourism & Development, 2014

248 tour buses visited the town, delivering 15,066 visitors to the end of October 2014. Guided tours are provided for visitors, and Youghal benefits from having its very own 'Town Crier' who meets the visiting tours and guides the tourists around the town in costume. This has proven to be an excellent marketing tool in attracting groups to Youghal. 665 people took walking tours of Youghal town in 2014.

In terms of places to eat when visiting the town, Youghal has 20 outlets for food ranging from coffee shops to luxury seafood, to fast food. In relation to 'things to do and see', 20 activities are available to the visitor, including walking, sailing, cruising, bird watching, tennis, golf, etc. Youghal has 3 societies, and runs 14 annual festivals, including the Queen of the Sea festival in July, and the Medieval Festival in August.

Accommodation Provision

As a town, Youghal offers the visitor a variety of tourist accommodation, but this research has found that during the peak demand periods, there is a dearth of bed nights in the town, and visitors have to stay further afield in adjacent areas such as Waterford.

Caravan & Camping Sector

Quinn (2004) outlines that mobility is implicit in contemporary dwelling and that holidaying and the location of the holiday destination are clearly distinguishable from the rhythms, practices and places associated with home life. In Youghal's case this interest is expressed in the demand, particularly, for camping & motor home availability, and a warm summer, such as that of 2014, further increases this interest. 58% of owners of these sites have seen an increase in visitors in this sector on 2013, (Fáilte Ireland, 2014). To meet demand, planning permission was granted in March 2014 for a 21 Motor Home berth complex[5]. Motor Home tourism is becoming increasingly prevalent across Ireland. Many park in Youghal throughout the year, but, currently, without proper facilities. The question of whether the development of this park will improve the overall economic tourism development of the area, or just scar the landscape, and increase congestion of this historic town, remains to be answered. Youghal, in line with Chaplin (2003), needs to consider all interests when deciding on the future of this historic town. Nasser (2014) outlines for example, that a *conflict between the preservation of the character of existing historic towns and 'change' has formed the central argument for conservation.*

Guesthouse Accommodation

In 2014, 69% of Guesthouses reported increased visitors, and B&Bs reported a 60% increase, (Fáilte Ireland, 2014). This sector is a very competitive one, however, due to competitive hotel offers; and this is echoed in Youghal. Room capacity in B&Bs continued to fall (-8%) for January–October 2013 compared to the first eight months of 2012. Profitability within the PSA (paid service accommodation) sector has also been very positive; 71% report it up on 2013 (Fáilte Ireland, 2014). The majority (62%) of weighted PSA operators report an increase in visitor volumes, compared to the same period in 2013 (Fáilte Ireland, 2014). There are a total of 11 B&Bs within the vicinity of Youghal providing sleeping capacity for 107 people. 5 of these are located within the town of Youghal providing 51 beds—3 of these are Fáilte Ireland approved. The other 6 B&Bs are located further afield and provide 56 beds—4 of these are Fáilte Ireland approved.

Hotel Sector

The hotel sector still remains the strongest. 82% of accommodation providers report an increase in visitor numbers in 2014, with demand for hotel bed nights growing (Fáilte Ireland, 2014). In the context of Youghal and in line with National trends, (demand grew by 10%, Fáilte Ireland, 2013), an additional good quality hotel is needed in the area, either a 4*/5* facility due to the shortage of bed nights in the Town, and a need for another hotel offering. In the vicinity of Youghal and Youghal town combined there are: 10[6] Hotels offering a total of 390 rooms and a

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[5] A designated place where the user parks for less than 72 hours.
[6] Ahernes in the town is internationally renowned for its seafood restaurant. The Cliff House Hotel and the Castlemartyr Resort both have Spa and Wellness centres. The Cliff House Hotel Restaurant holds a Michelin Star.

capacity for 857. 3 of these Hotels are located in the Town offering 71 rooms and a capacity of 165. 7 Hotels are further afield providing 319 rooms and a capacity of 692. All of the hotels are Fáilte Ireland approved.

Self-Catering Accommodation

Self-catering operators experienced a positive 2014 to October 2014. 44% of those surveyed by Fáilte Ireland reported an increase on the same period last year. The overseas market has performed especially well, with half (51%) of respondents reporting an increase on 2013. The overseas market is predicted to be fairly strong, with a third (33%) expecting an increase, (Fáilte Ireland, 2014). Youghal provides 157 self-catering units providing accommodation for 873 adults + 30 infants.

Table 2: Accommodation Summary for Youghal

Accommodation Type	Units	Total Capacity
Caravan & Camping	441	1566
Guest House & B&B	45	107
Hotel	390	857
Self- Catering	157	873
Stately Home	33	95
GRAND TOTAL	1,066	3,498

Youghal's built heritage

Youghal is unique in that the town possesses a distinctive internationally recognised 'built heritage', with twelve archaeological sites and monuments in state or local authority ownership, and fifty recorded monuments in the town development plan area (Noonan, 2013). Youghal is one of a national network of Walled Towns of Ireland. The built heritage is recognised in many reports as a significant asset and Youghal is designated as a heritage town by Fáilte Ireland, (Rapid Area Report, 2010). Twelve sites of specific interest are as follows: Green's Dock [OUTDOOR], Benedictine Priory of St. Johns [NO PUBLIC ACCESS], The Magazine [NO PUBLIC ACCESS], Market Place [OUTDOOR], Red House [NO PUBLIC ACCESS], Tynte's Castle [LIMITED PUBLIC ACCESS], Boyles Almshouses [LIMITED PUBLIC ACCESS], St. Marys Collegiate Church [PUBLIC ACCESS], Town Walls [OUTDOOR], The College [LIMITED PUBLIC ACCESS], Myrtle Grove [NO ACCESS], Clockgate [NO ACCESS], The Watergate [OUTDOOR].

Table 3: Monuments in the Historic Core of Youghal

	Site	Date	Remarks
A	Main town	13th century	13th century town
B	Base town	15th century	15th century expansion southwards
G	Town Gates	13th & 15th centuries	Five formal town gates
1	South Abbey	early 13th century	Site of Franciscan friary; no surface remains, substantial subsurface
2	Town Hall	late 18th century	Town hall, built as courthouse and public rooms on reclaimed lands on the Mall
3	Site of medieval harbour	15th century	Infilled medieval harbour, defended by blockhouse to south
4	Cromwell's Arch	15th century	Site of water gate that gave access to the walled medieval harbour
5	Clock Gate	late 18th century	Town gaol built on site of Trinity Gate
6	Town Defences	15th century	Line of seaward run of town wall; three shorts run of surviving fabric upstanding
7	The Priory	mid-14th century	Medieval house associated with Benedictine priory
8	The Magazine	late 15th century?	Site of urban tower house known as the Magazine; foundations of north wall remain
9	Medieval Market Place	15th century	Widening of North Main Street to accommodate market from 15th century onwards
10	The Red House	early 17th century	Dutch Baroque style town house built for the Uniakes
11	Tynte's Castle	late 15th century	Urban tower house built by the Walshes
12	Boyle's Almshouses	early 17th century	Six almshouses built by Sir Richard Boyle
13	St. Mary's Parish Church	late 18th century	Roman Catholic parish church
14	Quaker Meeting House & Burial Ground	late 17th century	Some upstanding remains; no surface indicators of burials
15	College & Garden	mid-15th century	College associated with St. Mary's; residence from late 16th century onwards
16	Town Defences	mid-13th century	Upstanding landward run of town wall & external fosse
17	St. Mary's Church & Graveyard	13th century	Multi-period medieval parish church
18	Myrtle Grove	mid-15th century	Probable home of Warden of College
19	Dominican Priory	mid-13th century	Site of Dominican priory; some upstanding remains

Defended harbour c. 1680

William Jones Map of Youghal c. 1600

Monuments in Historic Core of Youghal

Source: Noonan, 2013

Conservation: Built & Natural Environments: Historic towns

In 2012, Youghal was chosen to take part in a pilot scheme involving three historic towns, including Westport, Co. Mayo and Listowel, Co. Kerry. The pilot was led by The Department of Arts, Heritage & the Gaeltacht, in partnership with Fáilte Ireland and The Heritage Council of Ireland. The scheme sought to combine the conservation and protection of the built and natural heritage of the participating historic towns through effective urban renewal while maximizing the economic value of tourism in the towns. For Youghal, areas that benefited from the funding included Nealon's Quay & Barry's Lane. Another key initiative arising from this scheme was the branding of 'The Raleigh Quarter'. In recent years, Youghal Town Council invested in the 'Historic Quarter', which lies in close proximity to Youghal's Medieval Town Walls and Gardens. St. Mary's Collegiate Church, a National Monument of significance is also in this vicinity. It is also the area where Sir Walter Raleigh's former home sits, Myrtle Grove (currently in private ownership).

Ongoing Conservation & Developments

Clock Tower

The story of the Clock Gate Tower is the story of Youghal (Scroope, 2013)

Youghal's iconic Clock Tower, a listed building benefited from essential conservation and restoration works being undertaken in 2013, financed by SECAD and match funded by Youghal Town Council to the value of €243,000. The story of the Clockgate, spanning 600 years, is unique on a national and international level. Its story as a gaol precedes that of Cork Gaol, Kilmainham Gaol and Wexford Gaol heritage sites. It represents a unique opportunity to develop a further tourism product, providing an inspiring and interesting experience to the 'high-value' cultural visitors to the town and region and major boost to the local economy. The future of the Clock Town is now dependent on new funding to finish the final 'fit out' (17 weeks to complete) to make it accessible to the public. If open, it could generate €400,000 to the local economy. Deirdre Cole, Project Officer, Fáilte Ireland, believes that the importance of the Clock Tower will "revolve around the story it will tell and how this is interpreted". Access to this important building will "fill a gap in the product offering for the Town".

St. Mary's Collegiate Church

St. Mary's Collegiate Church is one of the best preserved medieval church sites in Ireland. The built and archaeological fabric of the site is of unique cultural national and international significance, with a nationally significant collection of tomb sculptures containing examples from the 13th-7th centuries. Radiocarbon dating places the roof in the middle of the 13th Century (AD1223-AD1281). The church has seen expansion, destruction and repairs from the 13th Century to the present day [youghalonline.com]. The Church is currently in receipt of funding from The Department of Heritage Arts & the Gaeltacht for repair to the Church Floor [€18,000]. This is additional funding from the original grant of €60,000 made under the 'Buildings in State Care 2014' fund, [June 2014], and [€20,000 September 2013], for essential conservation works. During the repair, in October, 2014, previously unknown important burial sites were discovered, —the tomb of John Fitzgerald, Earl of Desmond who died in 1662, & three other tombs, together with a 200 year old central heating system and a vaulted chamber.

Main findings

Projective Techniques

Interestingly, but not surprising due to the sea aspect of the Town, the results of the projective techniques found that from the 71 respondents, 'sea (12) & beach (10)' came to the fore as the 'top of mind' associations with Youghal in this test. These results were used to feed into the qualitative in-depth interviews.

Table 4: Projective Techniques-Results on Youghal – 71 Responses
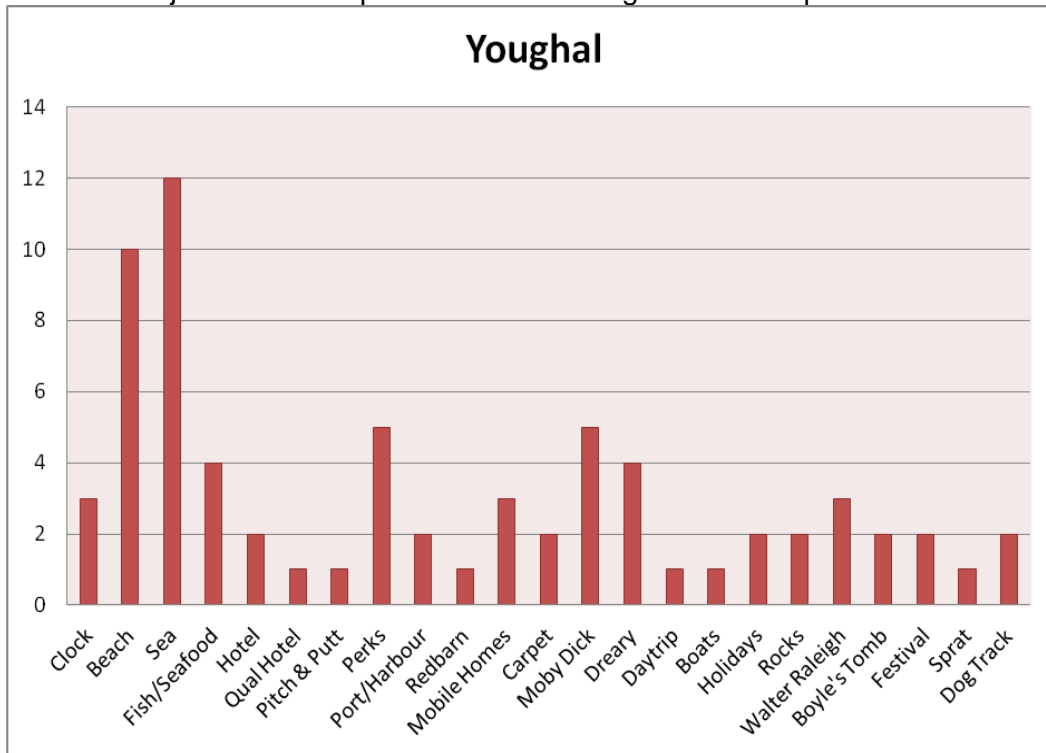
In-depth Interviews

Youghal has it all!... but, who knows about it? Marketing the town is a bigger challenge than anything else facing it… !

The findings from the in-depth interviews reveals gaps in the tourist product offering in Youghal such as the bad quality of the sea water, the urgent need to regain the 'blue flag' beach status, limited toilet facilities & changing facilities, no boating facilities or angling stands, the need to update immediately the Town & Beach area. the need for more bed nights during peaks seasons, better signage, better infrastructures, more and improved walkways, more ancestral and historical connections highlighted, promote more culture, more marketing and PR, the urgent need to develop set-down water facilities, the lack of visitor moorings, the need for a floating breakwater that would work as a floating pontoon and could take 20 berths, but most especially, there is an urgent need to examine the possible development of a Marina for Youghal. A study of the Marine Leisure Industry estimated that almost 1.5 million adults in Ireland partake in some form of water based activity, contributing approximately €434m to the (Department of Agriculture, Food and the Marine, 2011).

Discussion and recommendations

A Marina

A need for a marina has been identified for Youghal and is documented in the southern marine strategy. Marine tourism is growing with visitor nights increasing. "For a seaside town, it is shocking that we do not have a marina for visiting boats". The Irish Government outlines that the Irish coastline offers spectacular tourism and leisure opportunities and a rich maritime culture and heritage (Department of Agriculture, Food and the Marine, 2011). In February 2012, Minister Simon Coveney T.D launched a consultation document entitled Our Ocean Wealth: Seeking Your Views: New Ways; New Approaches; New Thinking.

The economic importance of the sea is a key feature of Government and on June 18, 2014, the first conference on Ocean Wealth was held in Dublin Castle (ouroceanwealth.ie). Ireland has over 9,000 kilometres of coastline and there has been some expansion in marina development in the past few years, with numbers growing from less than 10 in 1996 to over 22 in 2006. Marina development in Ireland needs to expand by at least 50% in the near future to facilitate forecast demand. In relation to Tourism & Leisure, the Department of Agriculture, Food and the Marine (2011), outlines that the Irish marine tourism and leisure sector is significantly under-utilised. Marine tourism and leisure is estimated to represent 7% of our overall tourism and leisure sector and contributed €453 million to the Irish economy in 2007. Marine events such as the *Volvo Ocean Race* (2009 & 2012) alone can generate in excess of €50 million in revenue for the economy. Marine leisure is a lifestyle pursuit of increasing importance contributing to the local economy and to our human and physical health.

Dedicated angling tourism accounted for 173,000 visitors and a spending of €58 million in 2010. Ireland has become one of Europe's top destinations for whale watching, bird watching and outdoor activity enthusiasts (Department of Agriculture, Food and the Marine, 2011). Ireland has a growing reputation as one of the world's best cold-water surfing locations. Cruise ship tourism continued to grow with a 12% increase in 2010; with over 200 cruise liners carrying over 305,000 passengers (Department of Agriculture, Food and the Marine, 2011). The benefits of a Marina to a local economy are substantial. It is estimated, for example, that a 250 berth marina in Skerries would potentially benefit the local economy by between €850,000 and €1.2m per annum (skerriessailingclub.com). Youghal needs a marina, and similar projects have been undertaken successfully in the past, for example, the Carrickfergus Marina, which was completed in 1998 and now has a 350-berth multi-award winning marina development. Spending by the local Authority of £4m attracted an investment of £25m by private developers and the creation of over 300 jobs in the area. This has become an international case study in how local government & private partnership can work for the benefit of the entire community (skerriessailingclub.com).

Accommodation

More bed nights are needed in Youghal, ideally another hotel of at least 4 or 5 star rating. Successful weekends such as that of the *Queen of the Sea* have resulted in a dearth of accommodation for visitors with the surplus travelling to Co. Waterford for accommodation. Many of the Section 23 properties that were originally developed and operated as self-catering accommodation have been sold and are now privately owned and not available for the tourist market. "We need more upmarket accommodation and a conference centre. "Despite the Walter Raleigh being an excellent hotel, more facilities are needed in the town. If people visit, they need places to stay". There is also a current need to update the caravan & camping facilities, as there is not enough capacity at present.

Water tourism

A key strength for Youghal is its sea frontage. 'Sea and beach' were the most cited results from the projective techniques in this research. There is however, a serious lack of water related activities. "More water activities are needed such as adventure kayaking, canoeing surfing etc., Whale & Dolphin watching & more river trips at two hourly intervals". This research finds that water tourism activities must be supported & developed. Issues of space allocation, huts for rental of boats, kayaks, canoes etc., & changing facilities must be addressed immediately. Previous boating providers also mentioned insurance issues as a major barrier to the continuation of their business.

Water quality

While acknowledging that the water quality in the sea at Youghal is currently substandard, the Youghal Main Drainage Scheme sought to address this issue in 2014(this project, however, has now been further delayed). Youghal lacked a proper wastewater treatment, and this has seriously impacted on the town, especially the quality of the bathing water. This has been a major setback for the Town coming into the summer season 2015. "The Front Strand will lose its bathing status this summer as a result of consistent 'poor' water quality ratings by the EPA – something must be done". While the new Water Treatment Plant will eventually be in situ, however, to compete effectively, and enhance the product offering, Youghal will need a carefully drafted plan and strategy to regain the 'Blue Flag' status for its 4 beaches in the future.

Angling

It is a significant loss that the angling club in Youghal no longer exists. Angling is a major tourist activity for Ireland. Angling tourism in Ireland is worth €0.75 billion to the Irish Economy and supports 10,000 jobs in rural Ireland (Inland Fisheries Ireland, 2013). "Angling stands would be great on the Quayside, also an upgrading of the Jetty". The lack of angling facilities is a tourist void that needs attention. The potential for angling should be addressed as there is an opportunity to attract anglers into the region, given the substantial resources available, thereby boosting the local economy.

Walkways

Walkways from the town need to be extended so there are "connections with the town to the Quality Hotel & Red Barn". The consensus of this study is that there is a wonderful opportunity to develop the Marsh Land walks—"a wonderful wildlife amenity" and to "create a number of walk and cycle tracks". This research recommends the development of the old railway line and station and to examine the possibility of developing a 'Greenways Projects'. Westport has developed 42KM and a similar opportunity exists for Youghal. The old train station is apt for development and a plan should be established for it with the inclusion of tearooms and a museum.

Heritage

More investment is needed in the built environment. A heritage building development plan should be developed to identify funding opportunities. The continuation of the development of the historical structures in the town is vital as this historical aspect is a main differentiator (Chaplin 2003; Hadyn, 2003). Build upon the development of the Raleigh quarter around St. Mary's Church as well as the town walls. "Heritage is our differentiating factor", our town walls are a 'stand-out' feature". The clock tower needs to be available to the public with immediate effect. The re-opening of the Clock Tower will appeal to the 'culturally curious' visitor market, providing a first class interpretive and animated heritage site in the heart of Youghal. All contributors are in support of the Clock Gate refurbishment. "We capitalise on the strengths and gems that we have in the town". A major void in the offering is the absence of a dedicated museum space as Youghal has a wealth of history that can rival any other medieval town. Historical spaces like Tynte's Castle could be used. "It is potentially a smaller Bunratty Castle. Some of the people and events in the life of the castle could easily be exhibited. For example, William Penn had a Castle in Shanagarry. In his diary, he mentions visiting Lady Tynte in Youghal.

Marketing

"Youghal has significantly improved the marketing of the historical and heritage offering", but more support structures are needed. Additional resources need to be directed towards a new official website for Youghal: www.youghal.ie. This upgraded and updated site would be 'mobile enabled' and engage in all associated online social media forms. More marketing of the larger festivals is needed and Youghal must appeal to the 'culturally curious' and 'heritage tourist' and not just be associated with 'sea and beach'. This association was very much to the fore in the results of the projective techniques. Youghal can easily appeal to a wider heritage tourist, and also, to an older demographic—the 'grey market'. The historical aspect of the town is under promoted and there is limited visibility and knowledge when one travels away from the Youghal area.

Myrtle grove

In relation to Myrtle Grove, the historical home of Sir Walter Raleigh, much debate ensued in this study. "If we had access to develop Sir Walter Raleigh's villa, then we might develop a world class facility around it (think of Ann Hathaway's cottage, or, Shakespeare's house). However owners and family members living at Myrtle Grove outline that: "people must remember that Myrtle Grove is somebody's home and is in private ownership and not something that can be taken for granted by the town of Youghal". Constructive goodwill does exist from family members regarding the future of this iconic building, its gardens, and stables. Sensitivity in any discussion or negotiation concerning its potential development as a pivotal tourist attraction for Youghal will be needed.

Conclusion

This research has found that Youghal has a unique tourist product offering. The appeal to its target market through cleverly targeted marketing messages should, therefore, counteract the negative effects experienced during the recession. Combining heritage, history, and nature in one accessible setting should now be the key message. In possession of a wealth of vital ingredients, it can be a major and distinctive visitor attraction and tourist 'must see' destination, on a par with any of Ireland's current leading tourism centres. Cork County Council is currently in the process of preparing a new Heritage Regeneration Strategy for Youghal, and, as outlined (Hadyn, 2003; Chaplin, 2003; Poria *et al.*, 2006) heritage is an important tourism driver. The Plan is a strategic approach to the social, economic and heritage development of Youghal up to 2020. In terms of 'must have' developments, the development of a Marina is paramount. A steering group should be appointed to lobby Government. There may be an opportunity for a public/private partnership or a private investor to develop the Marina. Given the correct impetus and determination, Youghal is set to become a commercially successful thriving economic hub, providing a superior quality of life for resident and visitor alike. If evolutionary planning, relevant expertise, common purpose, goodwill and hard work are correctly and urgently synchronised and aligned, then all investment, whether public, private, or philanthropic, will deliver rich returns.

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What is ATLAS

March 2017

The Association for Tourism and
Leisure Education and Research
(ATLAS) was established in 1991 to develop transnational educational initiatives
in tourism and leisure.

ATLAS provides a forum to promote staff and student exchange, transnational
research and to facilitate curriculum and professional development. It currently
has 202 members in 62 countries worldwide.

What are the objectives of ATLAS?
- To promote the teaching of tourism, leisure and related subjects.
- To encourage academic exchange between member institutions.
- To promote links between professional bodies in tourism, leisure and
  associated subjects and to liaise on educational issues, curriculum
  development and professional recognition of courses.
- To promote transnational research which helps to underpin the development
  of appropriate curricula for transnational education.

What does ATLAS do?
ATLAS promotes links between member institutions through regular meetings,
publications and information exchange. The main activities of ATLAS currently
are:
- Organising conferences on issues in tourism and leisure education and
  research. International conferences have been held in London, United
  Kingdom (September 2012) and in Malta (November 2013), Budapest,
  Hungary (October 2014), Lisbon (October 2015). The annual conference in
  2016 will be organised in Canterbury, UK. Regional conferences are also held
  in Africa, South America and the Asia-Pacific region.
- Information services and publications, including the ATLAS website and
  members' portal, the annual ATLAS Reflections, Facebook and LinkedIn.
- Running international courses, such as the ATLAS Winter University in
  Europe and the Summer Course in Asia.
- Organisation of and participation in transnational research projects, for
  example on cultural tourism, sustainable tourism, and information technology.
- Research publications and reports.

What are the benefits of the ATLAS membership?
- Regular mailings of information, updates on ATLAS conferences, meetings,
  projects, publications and other activities.
- Access to the members' portal on Internet with exclusive access code.

- Participation in the ATLAS information lists for everyone within ATLAS member institutions, as well as for the different Special Interest Groups.
- The annual ATLAS international conference, which provides an opportunity to network with other members.
- Conferences organised by regional sections.
- ATLAS members can participate in a wide range of projects run by ATLAS in the areas of tourism and leisure education and research.
- Members have access to research information gathered through ATLAS
- International projects.
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- Distribution of information about member events, programmes, projects and products via the ATLAS mailing list and ATLAS website.
- ATLAS members are entitled to substantial discounts on ATLAS conference fees and selected ATLAS publications.
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- Opportunity for students to take part in an established academic and research network.

ATLAS Special Interest Groups
Members of ATLAS can form and join Special Interest Groups related to specific education and research topics or for specific geographical areas. Special Interest Groups run research programmes and can organise special events and publications related to their area of interest. The current Special Interest Groups are:
- Cultural Tourism Research Group
- Gastronomy and Tourism Research Group
- Business Tourism Research Group
- Capital City Tourism Research Group
- Volunteer Tourism Research Group
- Events Research Group

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ATLAS is also represented at regional and local level by sections such as ATLAS Europe, ATLAS Asia-Pacific, ATLAS Africa and ATLAS Latin Americas. The regional sections of ATLAS have developed their own programme of activities and publications to respond more closely to the specific needs of members located in these regions and those with related research interests. Membership of ATLAS regional sections and Special Interest Groups of ATLAS is open to all ATLAS members at no extra costs.

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