

## STREET FOOD AND FOOD SAFETY: A DRIVER FOR TOURISM?

Claudio BELLIA

Assistant professor, University of Catania, Italy, e-mail c.bellia@unict.it

Manuela PILATO

Lecturer in Business Management, University of Winchester, UK, Manuela.Pilato@winchester.ac.uk

Hugues SÉRAPHIN

Lecturer in Event and Tourism Management, University of Winchester, UK, Hugues.Seraphin@winchester.ac.uk

### ABSTRACT

*What link is there between tourism, street food, and regulations on food safety for street food? Street food is characterized by three elements: it is cheap, it's convenient and is easily obtainable around the city through kiosks and/or vans, located at street markets, festivals and especially in highly frequented tourist locations. One element that should not be neglected is given by because it is decided to consume food on the street, certainly for the time need to do it quickly or to save. But also for the pleasure of being part of traditions, places and cultural landscapes in spite of social, cultural and economic. Everything depended, also, by the crisis of progress made globally with repercussions on consumption and therefore the duration of the holidays. In this article we will focus in analyzing a phenomenon of gastronomy benefit from traveling, gastronomic sciences related to poor food, or "street", a quality of food that conforms to the essential elements such as flavor and aroma, the sustainability of production processes, distribution and consumer, involved in the food chain. Therefore it needs to lead the tourists to discover the identity of the territory, through a tour of the dual value - that of the "typical and cultural and environmental product" and that of "typical food product".*

### KEYWORDS

*tourism, street food, food safety, food quality*

### INTRODUCTION

This article would like to answer the question: what are the relationships between tourism, street food and food safety? In order to seek justification in the choice of street food as a tool to promote and enhance the area's identity (Platania, 2013). The food for the street food quality, as well as intended by the authors, is produced, sold, consumed, but mostly told through the experience of the tourist that comes close to the culture of the place visited by the local food. Street food as a means of promotion and distribution of fresh produce, making system with small reality food in the area. In this way it encourages sustainability.

In terms of methodology this paper is based on secondary research reviewing literature on food tourism, customer consumption, street food and food safety.

This paper is to some extent contributing to the literature in the field of tourism management based on the fact that it provides evidence that tourism destinations (and particularly emerging destinations) does not need to be about staging or showcasing a way of living that is different from the real life of the locals as tourism are first of all looking for authenticity (Ballengee-Morris, 2002). Experience and typicality. Street food to some extent tick all the boxes. Current literature about tourists education is very limited and yet extremely important (Novelli, Morgan & Nibigira, 2012). This paper fill a gap as it presents street food as a way to educate visitors in a playful way.

This paper also challenges existing literature about the negative impacts of tourism on local culture. We are arguing that the development of street food tourism can contribute to improve the quality of life of the locals on the basis that the preparation process, the method of preparation and packaging highlighted by the World Health Organization as being issues will be tackled as the locals will have to up their game to meet the standard that the tourists are used to in their home country.

This example shows that tourism can be a win-win for locals and tourists. So doing, the paper is articulated around three main sections.

The first section presents the key features and background of street food.

The following question establishes the link between food safety and street food.

The third and final section stresses on the role that street food can play in the sustainable development of tourism. This conceptual paper is based on secondary research data.

This paper advocates a more sustainable development of tourism and urges destinations to put forward primarily assets that can be used by both locals and tourists (Bellia et al. 2015b).

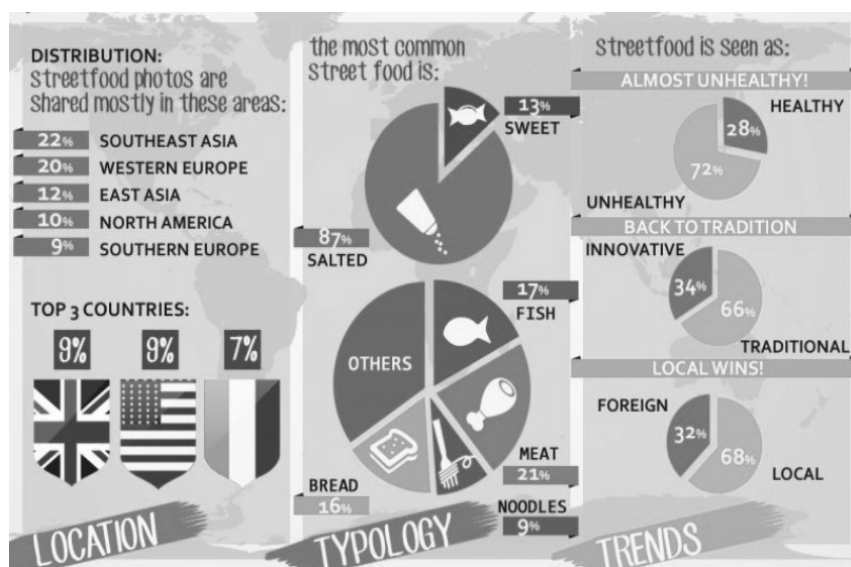
### 1. STREET FOOD

The consumption of products by street, resulted how these have accompanied the eating habits of man since ancient times. In fact, since the Roman times it was the custom of the people consume, standing, quick meals at the typical "cauponae" and "tabernae". There were also street vendors on the streets selling bread, sausages and many other foods. The modern meaning of street food has obviously changed compared to the past, but from what emerges is increasingly greater desire to preserve the traditions and typical, even in a society that is in ferment and frenetic like today.

With the passing and coming time to this day, due to the phenomenon of industrialization, of the increasing employment of women, the reduction of the breaks at work, the increase in income of the population is seeing an increase demand for street food because of the absence of the female figure in the kitchen home: eating out had become a mass need. The phenomenon of globalization and migration resulted in the mixing of many different ethnic groups, each of which brings its own cultures and traditions, especially in the culinary field. Street food, then, can be considered not only a phenomenon of fashion since the act of eating on the street is part of the mentality of the past generations, due in search of food less expensive and at the same time fast.

According to the FAO definition given “street food is made from food and drink prepared for consumption, prepared and sold on the street or in other public places such as markets and / or exhibitions, often sold on counters or through temporary vans and carts street vendors” (FAO, 2009). Another feature required of the street food is definitely a packaging that encourages immediate consumption, without using plates or cutlery. The street food, today, is fully part of the broader phenomenon of casual food (informal food sector), a sector that is one of the strategies adopted to provide for their food needs, especially in developing countries. The street food is closely linked to the phenomenon of takeaway food (take away–take-out), and other phenomena of informal consumption of food, such as snacks, snacks or lunch. is necessary, also, that some foods are included in the categories of finger food and fast food, in other cases, the consumer is directed to street foods, mostly poor value food and cultural, are classified in the category of junk food (junk food). It is necessary to specify, also, that some foods are included in the categories of finger food and fast food, in other cases, the consumer is directed to street foods, mostly poor value food and cultural, are classified in the category of junk food (Rapisarda et al., 2015).

Again the FAO points out that street food is consumed daily by some 2.5 billion people around the world; India 2.5% of the population is represented by street food vendors; in Latin America, accounting for up to 30% of the expenditure of urban households and Thailand are estimated 20,000 street food vendors, who supply the population about 40% of energy. Even New York is no exception, its streets are poured millions of citizens and visitors who are attracted by the sellers of hot dogs, served in typical pickups placed at key points in the city, open at any time of day or night. Among other street food that can be enjoyed in other parts of the world we can mention the “samosa” in India; Spain are the “churros”; in Romania there are the “Pretzel”, street food typical of the Middle East are the “falafel”; the “kebab”, of Turkish origin is a dish made of meat.



(Source: taccuinistorici.it, 2015)

Figure 1. The representation of the street food phenomenon

In Italy the great success is primarily due to two main reasons: the economic crisis and the rapid consumption. The first motivation leads us back to the cost of street food, definitely more accessible to a lunch at the restaurant, in fact just a few euro to fully meet the energy requirements that are required for a day's work. The second reason is realized when workers do not have material time to reach their home for lunch; then arises the need for a quick meal close to the place of work.

Hurry therefore is a component that integrates perfectly with the nature of street food, as well as the tradition that binds a single street food to their land, and all those feelings of psychological well-being that arise during the consumption of a food road.

From a semantic point of view, the combination of “street food” is mainly explained by the first component, the food, not taking into account that make these products “unique” than the infinite gastronomic universe is precisely the second part: the road. Road understood not only in the sense of path, soil viable. But street as a place - even ideal - for instant sharing, human contact, the mix of stories and different cultures. According to the Census report on the eating habits of the Italians in 2010, 80% of the population eats at least once a week outside the home and the street food can really be one of quality roads of “eating out”.

According Qualivita Foundation(view the website), which has attempted to quantify the phenomenon in Italy, to 2014, there were 55,000 business “Street food” of 312,000 catering activities “Total”, about 18% of the total. Numbers that, given the capillarity of the phenomenon, make an idea of the world that characterizes the street food in our country.

It appeared, also, as the street catering sector, is regulated and supervised by the competent authorities, therefore the fear of consumers to be in the presence of non-respect of the law, should not exist.

Always study Qualivita affirms that in Italy in 2013 were more than 40 thousand of fixed kiosks, itinerant and bars that often offered with food products Denomination of origin, to more than 12 million Italians, for a value that was around 13 billion euro, contributing to national GDP significantly. Many of PDO, PGI and TSG are in fact the Italian dishes from street in Italy and beyond. There are many realities, also made up of young people who try to engage in the street catering and food truck, in order to achieve the highest possible profits. We have seen how useful the tool of the business plan, how to help and guide in planning and strategic and operational management of a street catering.

Mainly in an extremely competitive market, it is essential to have clear your organization so that you are never wrong-footed in front of the first difficulty. A comparison with the consumers of street food resulting representation of a community, which sees in the street food a leitmotif of his own life, consuming these products in the most varied of the day, during holidays and festivals. Wondering, then, that in the age of globalization, where everything is connected and connected to large kilometres away, and the big fast food chains there is room in the market for street food, it is lawful. Fast food and street food are actually very distant, united by the fact that in both there is a phase of consumption of food very fast and the prices not too high.

The same speed of consumption therefore, but logical, business goals and ethics at the antipodes. In the case of fast food products are standardized and standardized in order to provide consumers, at low cost, a food always identical to itself in any place it is consumed.

In the case of street food, however, imagination and care in preparing food is a fundamental trait that makes each different from the other, even within the same stall. The different ways of understanding the consumption of food, are, in both cases, different types of business organization by those who run it. “The fast food mainly employ young workers employed on contract, part-time, which in turn hold different jobs within the structure (food, cash, cleaning)” As regards the street food is more logical to think of a craftsmanship in the act is that the preparation of the sale of the product, which therefore requires experience: and in fact these “masters of the street food” are characterized by the fact that his age no longer young.

Another important element of distinction between the modern fast food and street food is represented by the type of customer. The large restaurant chains are addressed especially to kids still in school age, attracted by the atmosphere of the stores, and the proposed food that would not normally be consumed at home because of restrictions by the family. This creates an escape from the canons food that makes inroads especially adolescents. Consumers of street food do not seem to be based on age; especially when it comes to traditional products, are close to street food in different ages, and not workers. According to a University of Milan Bicocca, the average age of consumers is about 32 years. Also concerning the experience of the specific consumption of the product, fast food and street kitchens are placed in positions tendentially opposite (Caracciolo et al., 2015).

The fast food chains, in fact, force the customer to follow a sort of path behavioural schematic that will greatly affect consumption in the local restaurant (choice from the options available generally structured in a menu, ordering, payment at checkout, withdrawal of the tray, looking for a place to sit, consumption, waste storage, finally exit). Each item has been studied, in order to encourage the maximum efficiency in the service (Lachina, 2015).

This however fails, in the context of street food; these shops located on the street, in the middle of continual coming and going of people, can offer the customer situations, meetings, exchanges of ideas are always different day by day, in contrast built from the atmosphere and less of spontaneous chain restaurants. An enormous difference that exists between these two ways of understanding the consumption of food, it is definitely the massive amount of capital invested.

It seems that on the one hand we find chains operated by multinationals investing several millions mainly in infrastructure, advertising, research and development, while on the other we found simply vans or stands often run by family.

Two different worlds therefore, in which only a proper gastronomic culture can be the key to conscious choice for the final consumer (Wongprawmas et al., 2015).Concluding the street cooking or street food represents a constant in all cultures (from the Latin American, to the Middle East, in the African and European, etc.)

It can be stated that the consumption of street food permits, in general, to be fed in a more informal, faster, and less expensive than the consumption of food in a restaurant; for this reason, this form of power is often preferred over a more formal method of consumption, so that occupying an important place in human nutrition (Timpanaro et al., 2015a).

## 2. FOOD SAFETY AND STREET FOOD

Street food is a form of traditional restaurants full of positive values and social utility more than ever in modern cities (Pappalardo et al., 2014; Timpanaro et al., 2015b). The issue of food security in a country with great gastronomic culture such as Italy, it is still topical (Lombardi et al., 2013). In the past however its meaning was much different from today as in historical and economic context in which the food was not available in the present quantities (after World War II), the concept of food security referred to the need to resolve the problems linked to the scarcity of food in most Italian families (Cavazzani, 2008). This definition does not mention absolutely implications on human health.

When the “economic well-being” came on almost all of the families, we put our attention on the healthy food security. The American Ministry of Agriculture (USDA) defines it as the ability of a product that “*when ingested by man or animal, not because of health risks to*

*those who consume it*" In the case of street food, the issue of food safety is a knot very prickly, because "there is a perception of hygiene adopted by these activities, which limits the success, despite being strictly regulated on a regional, national and Community guarantee the consumer" (Privitera, 2014).

Food safety involves the protection of supply from microbial, chemical, and physical hazards that may occur during all stages of food production including growing, harvesting, processing, transporting, retailing, distributing, storing, preparing and consuming to prevent food borne diseases (WHO, 2006). Street food are ready-to-eat foods or beverages prepared and/or sold in the street and other public places for immediate consumption or at a later time without further processing or preparation (WHO, 2006).

In the local food discourses, alternative food systems and local food systems assume that foods are safe because they are produced under natural and organic conditions and with a shortened distance between production and consumption (Sonnino, 2009; Willer, Yussefi-Menzler, & Sorensen, 2008; Hughner, McDonagh, Prothero, Shultz, & Stanton, 2007; Renting, Marsden, & Banks, 2003; Haleegoah, Ruivenkamp, Essegbey, Frempong, & Jongerden, J. 2015).

The food industry is only as strong as its weakest link in the food chain (Taylor, 2001; Pilato, 2014). The benefits of reducing hazards in food include reduced morbidity, mortality and demands on healthcare services, a reduction in absences from education or loss of productivity at work and increased consumer confidence in food safety (Food Standards Agency, 2011).

As noted many scholars, practitioners pointed out how the United Kingdom's efforts could strengthen the food services and manufacturing sectors to become more competitive while ensuring consumer safety with continuous food safety requirements as well as sensitization programmes for food handlers and consumers along the food chain; good Hygiene practices which are mostly called Prerequisite measures to be available and enforced as the basic requirement for food industries and vendors. These also include cleaning procedures for both equipment and food environment, waste management, pest control, routine training programmes for staff, planned preventive maintenance and transport, supplier and raw material monitoring and control, process control and temperature monitoring (WHO/FAO, 2009; Ababio & Lovatt, 2015). These when available creates a safe and conducive environment for the processing and or preparation of food; HACCP which is a more flexible, industry specific food safety tool could be made a legal requirement for manufacturing and processing industries with a given period within which absence could be a breach of the national law. This will help to raise the standard of operations and practices of the food industry at international level (FAO/WHO, 2009; Ababio & Lovatt, 2015), enabling them to compete in the international market; Small and Medium Size Enterprises (SMEs) support systems could be initiated by the Government's appropriate agencies and educational institutions to help them establish acceptable food safety management systems (Chinnici et al., 2014). Government and local authority's intervention in the form of free or subsidized training, developed food safety standards by appropriate agencies, training manuals and videos on good practices for the easy training of food vendors, could go a long way to solve some of the existing hurdles (FSA, 2007; Ababio & Lovatt, 2015; Pappalardo et al., 2015).

Due to the economic and cultural dimension of the phenomenon, the street food received considerable interest from scholars of supply and food safety, and especially in the world to be part of international organizations that deal with nutrition and health (Bellia et al., 2015a). One aspect is to the safety and nutritional quality of preparations. The World Health Organization has identified three critical points: the preparation processes, which must be capable of eliminating the danger food or make them as less acceptable; the method of preparation, minimizing the proliferation of pathogens, the development of toxins, and especially the risks at work; packaging serving food in individual portions and packaged in a way that they can eat anywhere, such as to avoid any subsequent contamination.

Another aspect is linked to the risk that the tendency to greater economy of the product push manufacturers to prefer the use of products (eg. Fats and edible oils) less expensive, and therefore less valuable from a food point of view and harmful for the final consumer. It is important to make a distinction between what is the quality of the products and the health and hygiene safety of foods. In fact, if we refer to quality, is the conscience of the individual vendors offer fresh food bought at the market, perhaps from organic production (Chinnici et al., 2013). From the point of view of health and hygiene, however, in developing countries the concern can be founded.

Street food, in fact, is seen as a phenomenon that could pose a risk to consumers' health, due to the perception of insecurity and lack of working conditions, the inadequacy of the managers of the business and the lack of controls. This, in part, can be especially true in developing countries, where the concept of food security is not well rooted in the mentality of these people. Most vendors do not come from social classes particularly wealthy, living in the slums where maybe no drinking water, and this of course can be a risk factor. Even in the national context the correct starting point is that the street vending is deficient from the point of view of sanitation, and generates distrust in the final consumer, related to the food safety.

Surely to decrease this perception need strategies by the sellers of street food that require (Carrà et al., 2014), for example, an innovation infrastructure, compliance from a legal perspective and knowledge especially in the food and safety, (use of self-control system HACCP, in order to control and/or eliminate those points in the preparation and cooking of foods considered to be critical). Thus in the eyes of consumers, management in full compliance with existing rules in the field of food street vending, will not create any prejudice. In Italy the health standards for trade in foodstuffs on public areas are regulated by Ministerial Order of 03/04/2002, consisting of 13 articles. Articles 1 and 2 define the health standards of the places where to pursue the activity of mobile catering (public land) and the means by which exercise it (permanent constructions, furniture shops, temporary stalls) and the general characteristics of the public areas. Articles 3, 4 and 5, respectively, list the characteristics and requirements to be respected, stable construction, furniture stores and temporary stalls.

Article 6 lists the special provisions in the area of food preparation, storage of foods within the structure and management of health and hygiene safety. Article 7 deals with the scope of feeding equipment. Article 8 refers to the permissions necessary to carry out health and fitness of the restaurant street vending. Article 9 takes care of the activity of self-control in compliance with the principles and procedures

laid down. Article 10 defines the control and supervision, to be conducted by the competent bodies, or by the command of the Carabinieri for health. Article 11 defines the transitional and final provisions. Article 12, however, repealing the previous order of 02/03/2000 and Article 13 there is the entry into force on 03/04/2002.

Even at EU level the issue of food safety is of particular importance, for street food vending are into force the Community rules arising from Directive 2006/123/EC on services in the internal market, implemented by the Italian Legislative Decree 26 March 2010 n. 59.

The European Union aims to safeguard the health of consumers along the route that follows a particular food, from farm to fork, so that they can have food, plants and animals, safe and nutritious. These objectives are pursued through promulgating laws regarding the limits of the addition of additives in food, feed or on the limits for residues of pesticides or plant protection.

They are also important actions to support innovation in the food sector, the promotion of traditional products and quality, nutrition education and reduction of food waste. These actions are supported by an institution fundamental to the European level which is the EFSA (European Food Safety Authority), which provides scientific consultations in this area. What must be clear to the consumer of street food Italian and European, it is that there are laws and regulations that ensure protection by the competent authorities, which periodically check the numerous activities of mobile catering, thanks to numerous inspections, aimed at controlling of all necessary approvals and compliance with sanitation standards (Bellia and Pilato, 2014).

In addition, to take a concrete example, in 2015 was ensured a regular presence at the site of the World Exposition 2015 Milan, Italy (EXPO), throughout the course of the event, in order to monitor food security through surveillance with preventive purposes, increasing also in the area surrounding urban surveillance, especially in the areas of so-called "movida", with particular attention to new food operations that were arising at the event (kiosks, street food, etc.).

In this new phenomenon at the border between fashion and trend is the desire for quality products, also certified as PDO and PGI, and product traceability.

Alongside a mobile catering unpretentious, what we are accustomed to find in front of stadiums and festivals which provide various products such as sandwich with roast pork, hot dogs, kebabs, etc., what are emerging today are new exercises where tradition and quality are the buzzwords. Media attention and the contribution of star chefs with the preparation of "gourmet", with selected ingredients, organic, local, seasonal contribute to the development of the street food quality.

### 3. STREET FOOD AND TOURISM

#### 3.1. Food as a way to communicate with tourists

The tourism industry is one of the world's largest industries and also the fastest growing of the market (Cooper and Hall, 2008). Worldwide, tourism is ranked second highest revenue-generating industry next to the oil industry (Rathore, 2012) and can contribute to knowledge of foreign places, human interaction, empathy and tolerance (Salazar, 2006). Thus, in this paper we argue that food (and particularly culinary events) can be a driver for tourism and can be even more effective if used as an education tool. Subtle strategy (like food tasting experience) are effective marketing tool due to the fact affective components (feelings and emotions) are key to tourists when it comes to choosing a holiday destination (Alvarez & Campo, 2014).

An aggressive marketing and promotional strategy (marketing campaign off and online) is not always a solution. Non-promotional communications can be more powerful than more explicitly promotional ones (Connell, cited in Stepchenkova, 2013). When people have a better knowledge of the true nature of a destination (history, tradition, context, etc), they are more likely to visit it because they will be less open to distortions, exaggerations and unbalanced accounts (S  raphin, 2014). We consider food as a tool that can educate people about the true nature of a destination.

The lack of experience and/or ignorance of a destination can lead to the acceptance of misleading narratives. Education can play an important role in countering such narratives.

#### 3.2. Developing feelings and love for a destination using food

Kirillova, Fu, Lehto, & Cai (2014) explained that what tourists consider as aesthetically pleasing or beautiful (environment, product or services, tourism experience) contributes to their decision to visit a destination, to return to the same destination and in the long term to show loyalty to that destination. Kirillova et al (2014) also suggest that knowledge and objectivity about the environment can influence appreciation. Their analysis implies that objective knowledge and exposure to more balanced narratives influence the way potential tourists approach destination choice not just on a cognitive / rational basis but also on an affective one. Hence the education of tourists can be considered as a way to facilitate a more favourable affective disposition towards destinations. Appealing to education and a desire for knowledge rather than romantic imagery and persuasive prose could be very effective.

Krippendorff's (1987) call for tourists to be educated about the destinations they visited.

Some research suggests that lifelong learning involving education of the tourist impacts positively on the performance of the destination (S  raphin, 2012). As for Anderson, 2001 (cited in Walters & Mair, 2012), he explained that the art of convincing a target relies on three elements: (a) an 'ethos' element based on the credibility and trustworthiness of the source of the message; (b) a 'pathos' element is linked with the emotional appeal of the message and finally, (c) a 'logos' element referring to the capacity of the message to inform. In this process Beatty and Ferrell (1998), highlighted the importance of the interactive aspect. They found that in-store browsing has a positive relationship on impulse buying behaviour. While browsing in-store a consumer will come into physical proximity with products and therefore this close contact can result in driving the urge to buy impulsively. In that respect, street food can be used as an effective marketing tool if the people selling the food provide information about the origin of the food, when it is usually served, what it is made off,

etc. (ethos). Because quality and ethics are nowadays used as buzzwords, making customers aware that the food was made using fair trade and organic products is always a bonus (pathos).

Street food as part of an organised event (culinary event) can maximise the positive impacts of food as a tourism tool and can be an excellent opportunity to inform the tourists about other aspects of the destination.

As street food is particularly popular in developing countries, we can argue that this rather traditional habit could be used as a low cost and sustainable tourism tool.

### 3.3. Street food as a strong tourism potential option for post-conflict destinations

Using the case of Northern Ireland (which went through 35 years of civil conflict) discussed by Gould (2011), a post-conflict destination can be described as having:

- A great deal of conflicts during a short period;
- No sense of national identity among the people;
- Positive features troubled by conflicts;
- A lack of consistent message due to a huge number and type of stakeholders involved in creating and communicating messages about the place to various target audiences;
- A lack of political support.

To this list, can be added:

- Weak institution and governance (Novelli et al, 2012)
- Coup by factions (Sonnez, 1998)

Taking the example of Israel, Alvarez and Campo (2014) also explain that incidents (even small-scale) like conflicts negatively impact on the image of a destination and on the intention to visit the place. Therefore, it remains a challenge to effectively promote those destinations (Avraham, 2015). Novelli et al (2012) also argue that post-conflict destinations are most of the time among the poorest countries in the world and are defined by United Nations Millennium Development Goals as 'states that are failing, or at risk of failing, with respect to authority, comprehensive basic service provision, or legitimacy'. Sustainable tourism development in post-conflicts and/or developing destinations not only should remain low cost in terms of investments but should also be part of the daily life of the locals. Street food meets all these criteria (figure 2).

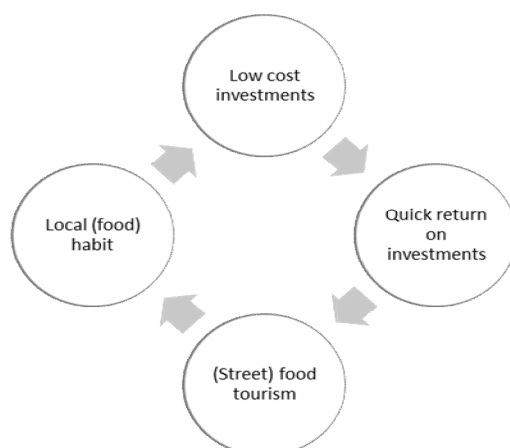


Figure 2. (Street) food tourism and (developing) destinations

As mentioned in the previous section of this paper (section 3) preparation process, methods of preparation and packaging are the three main issues related to supply and food safety.

The sustainable development of tourism requiring high level of quality (Vitic & Ringer, 2007) means that for street food to be a real factor of development, it will have to match the requirement of the tourism industry, in other words: quality (safety).

This example shows that tourism can positively impact on challenges faced by a destination and maximise their opportunities.

### CONCLUSION

The street food is presented as a global phenomenon, not only present in major capitals, but also actually smaller, involving a large number of consumers, both young and not only. There has been an increase in the number of people dining outside the home; preferentially choosing specialties.

This poses serious street food as an alternative to the normal food. It turns out that street food is experienced, also, as a rediscovery of the typical national.

Consumers of street food say "Enjoying meals street food, you are not only making up a physical need for energy needs, but it is guaranteeing the perpetuation in time of the culinary tradition of their own and other territories".

The street food is loved and has many admirers around the world, so much inside the World Exposition 2015 Milan, Italy the area devoted to street food has been one of the most visited.

These premises constitute the reference elements with regard to both the development of products from typical street either the identification of new patterns of tourist activity, related to cultural and gastronomic traditions of a given territory. It is also important to highlight the fact that tourism, street food and food safety are closely related and when put together can positively impact on destination performance and image for the benefits of the visitors and the locals.

## REFERENCES

1. Ababio P.F. & Lovatt P., (2015). A review on food safety and food hygiene studies in Ghana, *Food Control* 47 pagg. 92-97.
2. Alvarez M.D. & Campo S. (2014) The influence of political conflicts on country image and intention to visit: A study of Israel's image, *Tourism Management*, 40 (2014): 70-78.
3. Avraham E. (2015) Destination image repair during crisis: Attracting tourism during the Arab Spring, *Tourism Management*, 47 (2015): 224-232.
4. Ballengee-Morris, C. (2002). Cultures for sale: Perspectives on colonialism and self-determination and the relationship to authenticity and tourism, *Studies in Art Education*, 43 (3): 232-245.
5. Beatty S.E. & Ferrel, M.E. (1998). Impulse Buying: Modeling Its Precursors, *Journal of Retailing*, 74, (2), 169-191.
6. Bellia C., & Pilato M. (2014). Perspectives on the EU Food Industry's Safety and Quality: Developments and Challenges, *Agribusiness Landscape & Environment*, Vol. 17/2014 - Special Issue 1, ISSN: 2038-3371.
7. Bellia C., Ademò C., & Allegra V. (2015a). Economic sustainability of a niche supply chain: The case of Maletto strawberry, *Quality - Access to Success*, Volume 16, 1 January 2015, Pages 47-55.
8. Bellia C., Granata M., & Scavone V. (2015b). A tourist network of a coastal region. Development and financial sustainability, *Agribusiness Landscape & Environment*, Vol. 18/2015.
9. Caracciolo F., Di Vita G., Lanfranchi M., D'Amico M. (2015). Determinants of sicilian wine consumption: Evidence from a binary response model, *American Journal of Applied Sciences*, 12 (11), pp. 794-801.
10. Carrà G., Peri I., & Vindigni G.A. (2014). Diversification Strategies for sustaining small-scale fisheries activity: A multidimensional integrated approach, *Rivista di Studi sulla Sostenibilità* (1), pp. 79-99.
11. Cavazzani A. (2008): *Tra sicurezza e sovranità alimentare*, Sociologia urbana e rurale, Franco angeli, Milano.
12. Chinnici, G., Pecorino, B., & Scuderi, A. (2013). Environmental and economic performance of organic citrus growing. *Quality - Access to Success*, 14 (S1).
13. Chinnici G., Pappalardo G., & Pecorino, B. (2014). Economic evaluation of innovative solutions for food safety in cereal sector in Sicily. *Quality - Access to Success*, 15 (S1).
14. Cooper C., & Hall M. (2008.) Contemporary tourism: An international approach. *Elsevier*: Oxford.
15. FAO/WHO. (2009). *CODEX ALIMENTARIUS - Food hygiene basic texts* (4th ed.). Rome: FAO/WHO.
16. FSA. (2007). *Food safety management evaluation research*. [www.jigsaw-research.co.uk](http://www.jigsaw-research.co.uk). Viewed 14/12/12.
17. FSA. (2011). *Food borne disease strategy 2010-2015. An FSA programme for the reduction of food borne disease in the UK*. [www.fsa.gov.uk](http://www.fsa.gov.uk). viewed 11/8/12.
18. Gould M. (2011) Branding a post-conflict destination: Northern Island, In Morgan, N. Green, J.W. (1972) *Journal of Interamerican Studies and World Affairs, Military and Reform Governments in Latin America*, 14 (4), 489-495
19. Haleegoah J., Ruivenkamp G., Essegbey G., Frempong G., & Jongerden J. (2015). Street-Vended Local Food Systems Actors Perceptions on Safety in Urban Ghana: The Case of Hausa Koko, Waakye and Ga Kenkey. *Advances in Applied Sociology*, 5, 134-145. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/aasoci.2015.54013>.
20. Hughner R., McDonagh P., Prothero A., Shultz J., & Stanton J. (2007). Who Are Organic Food Consumers? A Compilation and Review of Why People Purchase Organic Food. *Journal of Consumer Behavior*, 6, 94-110. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/cb.210>.
21. Kirillova K., Fu X., Lehto X. & Cai L. (2014). What makes a destination beautiful? Dimensions of tourist aesthetic judgement, *Tourism Management*, 42 (2014): 282-293
22. Lachina C. (2015). Street food: indagine campionaria sulle preferenze dei consumatori in Sicilia, *Graduate thesis in Food science and technology*, University of Catania.
23. Lombardi P., Caracciolo F., Cembalo L., (...), Tosco D., & Cicia G. (2013). Country-of-origin labelling for the Italian early potato supply chain, *New Medit*, 12 (1), pp. 37-48.
24. Novelli M., Morgan N. & Nibigira C. (2012) Tourism in a post-conflict situation of fragility, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39 (3) 1446-1469.
25. Pappalardo G., Allegra V., & Pecorino B. (2014). A longitudinal analysis of globalization and regionalization in international trade of nurserygardening products: A social network approach, *Quality - Access to Success*, 15 (SUPPL.1), pp. 83-89.
26. Pappalardo G., Pilato M., & Bracco S. (2015). To what extent are local communities involved in the governance of protected areas? Experiences from a case study in Sicily (Italy), *Quality - Access to Success*, 16, pp. 102-109.
27. Pilato, M. (2014). Structural policies and funding priority in regional development of the European Union. *Quality - Access to Success*, Vol. 15, S1 Bucharest.

28. Platania S., (2013). *Marketing territoriale e valorizzazione del prodotto tipico locale: una ricerca nel contesto siciliano*, Annali della Facoltà di Scienze della formazione, Università degli studi di Catania, pp. 133-145, ISSN 2038-1328/ EISSN 2039-4934, 7, <http://dx.doi.org/10.4420/unict-asdf.12.2013.8>.
29. Privitera D. (2014). Turismo, territorio e gastronomia, "La valorizzazione dello street food", *Agribusiness Landscape & Environment*, Volume 17/2014 - Special Issue 1.
30. Rapisarda P., Rizzo M., & Scuderi A. (2015). Analysis of a direct selling network for agrifood products, *Italian Journal of Food Science*, 27 (1), pp. 109-117.
31. Rathore, N. (2012). Rural tourism impact, challenges and opportunities. *International Journal of Business Economics and Management Research*, 2 (2): 252-260.
32. Renting H., Marsden T. K., & Banks J. (2003). Understanding Alternative Food Networks: Exploring the Role Short Food Supply Chains in Rural Development. *Environment and Planning*, 35, 393-411. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1068/a3510>
33. Salazar N.B. (2006). Building a 'Culture of Peace' through Tourism: Reflexive and analytical notes and queries. *Universitas Humanistica*, 62, July – December, pp. 319 – 333.
34. Séraphin H. (2014). *Developing a destination image: A way forward for tourism in Haïti*, in Roselé Chim, P. & Raboteur, J. (Eds), *Les Défis du développement du tourisme et l'intelligence économique des territoires. Villes sur mer et en terre*, Paris: Publibook.
35. Séraphin, H. (2012). *L'enseignement du tourisme en France et au Royaume-Uni*, Paris: Publibook.
36. Sonmez S.F. (1998). Tourism, terrorism, and political instability, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25 (2): 416-456.
37. Sonnino, R. (2009). Quality Food, Public Procurement and Sustainable Development: The School Meal Revolution in Rome. *Environment and Planning*, 41, 425-440. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1068/a40112>.
38. Stechenkova S. & Zhan, F. (2013) Visual destination images of Peru: Comparative content analysis of DMO and user-generated photography, *Tourism Management*, 36 (2013) 590-601.
39. Taylor, E. (2001). HACCP in small companies: benefit or burden. *Food Control*, 12(4), 217-222.
40. Timpanaro G., Urso A., Spampinato D., Foti, V.T. (2015a). Cactus pear consumption in Sicily: Results of an intercept survey in large-scale retailers, *Acta Horticulturae*, 1067, pp. 379-386.
41. Timpanaro G., Scuderi A., Foti V.T., Lo Giudice V. (2015b). The social relationships' effectiveness of "agrisocial" farms: A model of sustainable local development. *Rivista di Studi sulla Sostenibilità*. Vol. 1. pp 99-116. DOI:10.3280/RISS2015-001007.
42. Vitic A. & Ringer G. (2008). Branding post-conflict destinations, *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 23 (2-4): 127-137.
43. Walters G. & Mair J. (2012) The effectiveness of Post-disaster recovery marketing messages – The case of the 2009 Australian bushfires, *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 29 (1): 87-103.
44. Willer H., Yussefi-Menzler M., & Sorensen N. (2008). *The World of Organic Agriculture: Statistics and Emerging Trends*. London: Earthscan.
45. Wongprawmas R., Pappalardo G., Canavari M., Bazzani C., Drichoutis A., & Pecorino B. (2015). Disponibilità a pagare per l'acquisto di alimenti funzionali: evidenze da un esperimento di scelta non-ipotetico. *Rivista di Economia Agraria*, Vol. 3.
46. World Health Organization (2006). AFRO Food Safety Newsletter. WHO Food Safety (FOS) Issue No. 2, 1-10.