

# 1 Tsunami risk perception in Southern Italy: first evidence from a 2 sample survey.

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8

## 9 **Abstract**

10 The Italian Tsunami Alert Center of the Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia (Centro Allerta Tsunami, hereinafter  
11 CAT-INGV) promoted a Computer Assisted Telephone Interview (CATI) survey to investigate tsunami's risk perception in  
12 two pilot regions of Southern Italy. The survey was carried out on a stratified sample of 1,021 interviewees representing about  
13 3.2 million people living in 183 coastal municipalities of the two regions, namely Calabria and Apulia. The main goal of this  
14 research is to verify whether and how people's perception of tsunami hazard matches with what assessed by scientific data  
15 (TSUMAPS-NEAM Project, Basili et al., 2018). As shown by the results of this project, both investigated regions are  
16 characterized by high tsunami hazard. Nonetheless, the long return time of such events could lead people to consider the  
17 occurrence of a tsunami in the Mediterranean Sea as very unlikely.

18 The survey results reveal that people's risk perception is low: for almost half of the whole sample the occurrence of a tsunami  
19 in the Mediterranean Sea is considered quite unlikely, with a clear difference between Apulia and Calabria. In the latter region  
20 the risk perception is much higher than in the former, probably due to the shorter time elapsed since the last event. Also  
21 belonging to different coastal areas<sup>1</sup> appears to have a significant influence on the way tsunami hazard is conceived, having a  
22 stronger effect on risk characterization: the interviewees of Tyrrhenian Calabria are indeed more likely to associate tsunami  
23 risk to volcanoes with respect to the Ionian side citizens, coherently with the presence of active volcanoes and related tsunami  
24 precedents in the Tyrrhenian.

25 Television emerged as the most relevant source of knowledge for almost 90% of the sample, and the influence of media also  
26 results in the way tsunami risk is characterized. In particular, the survey showed that people's perception and understanding of  
27 tsunamis are affected by media accounts of large events, such as the 2004, Sumatra, and the 2011, Japan tsunamis. At the  
28 same time, it is evident that the risk posed by smaller events is underrated. Furthermore, the survey's results show that the  
29 word 'tsunami' occupies a different semantic space with respect to the Italian traditional headword 'maremoto', with  
30 differences among sample strata. In other words, the same physical phenomenon would be understood in two different ways  
31 by younger, educated people and elders with low education level. The results of this study, although limited to two regions,  
32 provide a first assessment of tsunami risk perception in Italy, also entailing important consequences for both risk  
33 communication practice and mitigation policies.

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<sup>1</sup> For the purposes of this paper, the term "coastal area" refers to the part of the coastline defined by both seas and regions' limits, according to current geographical conventions. Tyrrhenian Calabria indicates the coastal region between the municipalities of Tortora and Scilla; Ionian Calabria spans from Reggio Calabria to Rocca Imperiale; Ionian Apulia from Ginosa to Castrignano del Capo, and Adriatic Apulia from Gagliano del Capo to Chieuti.

## 34 **1. Introduction**

### 35 **1.1 Relevance of tsunami risk in the Mediterranean and Italian coasts**

36 Almost all countries surrounding the Mediterranean have faced the effects of historical tsunamis in the past four millennia,  
37 with more than 200 events documented for the area, as shown in the catalogue published by Maramai et al. (2014). According  
38 to this catalogue, most of the tsunamis in the area were generated by earthquakes (~83%), a fraction similar to that of other  
39 oceanic regions worldwide (Davies et al., 2018). Since 1700 AD, an average of 20 events every 50 years is reported in the  
40 catalogue (Maramai et al., 2014), i.e., one event every 2.5 years (including small tsunamis).

41 Besides large historical tsunamis, such as the big one occurred for an earthquake in Crete in 365 DC (Papadopoulos et al.,  
42 2010), in the 20th century at least two important events did occur in the Mediterranean: the 1908 tsunami in southern Italy  
43 (that hit Messina, Reggio Calabria and the surrounding coasts) due to a magnitude 7 earthquake in the Messina Straits, with  
44 run-up as high as 13m in Pellaro (Tinti and Maramai, 1996) and a large number of fatalities; the 1956 tsunami in Greece, due  
45 to a magnitude 7.7 earthquake occurred close to the Cycladic island of Amorgos (Greece), that hit the coasts of Amorgos,  
46 Astypalaia and Folegandros with run-up values of 20, 10, and 14 m, respectively (Okal et al., 2009), or even up to 30m  
47 according to other sources (Ambraseys, 1960). More recently, in 2003 a relatively small tsunami caused by a magnitude 6.9  
48 earthquake in Boumerdes (Algeria) hit the Western Mediterranean coasts causing damage to properties in at least eight  
49 harbours in Balearic Islands (Vela et al. 2011). Finally, two small tsunamis occurred in Dodecanese in 2017 (due to  
50 earthquakes with magnitude 6.4 and 6.6, respectively), along with the most recent one occurred in the Ionian Sea (Zakynthos)  
51 in October 2018 (magnitude 6.8). Other potential sources of tsunamis in the Mediterranean are volcanoes, such as those  
52 presently active in the Tyrrhenian Sea. Rosi et al. (2019) have investigated the occurrence of past tsunamis in this area  
53 through geological, archaeological and carbon datings, along with historical sources. Their work allowed to identify three  
54 large tsunami deposits, triggered by volcanic landslides which occurred at Stromboli volcano between the 14th and 16th  
55 centuries, possibly including the one observed in Naples in 1343 and described by the poet Petrarch. A database with all the  
56 observations related to the tsunamis known in the Italian region has been recently published by Maramai et al. (2019).

57 Based on these and other geological data, the first probabilistic hazard assessment for tsunamis (of seismic origin) (S-PTHA)  
58 in the NEAM region (North Eastern Atlantic, Mediterranean and connected seas) has been computed and published  
59 (TSUMAPS-NEAM Team, 2018). In an S-PTHA approach, the hazard in any specific point on the coast comes from the  
60 various tsunami sources affecting that point, including close and distant sources (Selva et al. 2016; Grezio et al, 2017; Davies  
61 et al., 2017; Volpe et al. 2019). For Italy, it is evident that the most hazardous areas are those exposed to both local  
62 earthquakes and distant ones. In particular, the most active region in the Mediterranean is the Hellenic arc, where strong  
63 tsunamigenic earthquakes have occurred in the past (Papadopoulos et al., 2010; Maramai et al., 2014). Consequently, the  
64 coastal areas of Apulia, Calabria and Eastern Sicily facing the Ionian sea, have the highest hazard in Italy. However, a  
65 significant hazard exists for many other coastal areas throughout Italy, as the Ligurian Sea, the Adriatic Sea, and the  
66 Tyrrhenian Sea, due to both local earthquake sources and distant ones, as for instance the northern African fault system from  
67 Gibraltar to Tunisia.

68 Despite the high hazard of the Italian coasts, the memory of tsunamis is weak in Italy, mainly due to the long time elapsed  
69 since the last deadly event in 1908. In that circumstance, the tsunami significantly increased the already heavy death toll  
70 determined by the earthquake, also due to people's unawareness of the tsunami risk: many people escaped from the damaged  
71 and dangerous streets of Messina and other towns, looking for a safe place near the sea. After more than one century from this  
72 tragedy, we do not know if any memory is left in the region.

73 Another recent event that could have modified the perception of tsunami risk in Italy is the collapse of the unstable flank of  
74 the volcanic island of Stromboli in 2002 that generated a local tsunami with measured run-up of up to 10 m (Tinti et al.,  
75 2005).

76

## 77 **1.2 The general tsunami context in the Mediterranean and the CAT-INGV**

78 Coastal areas bordering the Mediterranean basin are subject to tsunami hazard. For this reason, in 2005 the Intergovernmental  
79 Oceanographic Commission of UNESCO (IOC-UNESCO) established the Intergovernmental Coordination Group for the  
80 Tsunami Early Warning and Mitigation System in the North-eastern Atlantic, the Mediterranean and connected seas  
81 (ICG/NEAMTWS), in response to the tragic ‘Boxing Day’ tsunami of December 26<sup>th</sup> 2004, in which over 230,000 lives were  
82 lost around the Indian Ocean region. Nowadays, the Mediterranean coasts are among the most densely populated areas of the  
83 world, with about 130 million people living along a 46,000 km coastline, 230 million tourists visiting the Mediterranean Sea  
84 every year, and 7 coastal cities with more than 2 million inhabitants (Marriner et al. 2017). The Mediterranean Sea also fosters  
85 a thriving maritime economy: according to the estimates of WWF-BCG report, economic activities related to the  
86 Mediterranean worth US\$ 450 billion for year (Randone et al. 2017).

87 As far as Italy is concerned, according to the Italian National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT), in the fifteen Italian coastal  
88 regions there are 644 coastal municipalities, i.e., 8.0 % of the total number. These municipalities cover an area of 14.3% of the  
89 whole country surface area, hosting a population of 28.4% of the entire Italian population (more than 17 million inhabitants).  
90 Furthermore, coastal areas are the most densely populated, with 400 inhabitants per square kilometre, against an average of  
91 168 for the internal areas, also showing a population growth rate which is more than twice that of the non-coastal population,  
92 i.e., +3.3% vs. +1.6% for the remaining areas (Istat, 2016). This means that tsunami risk exposure is relevant and constantly  
93 growing, suggesting the need for effective mitigation measures. Following the establishment of ICG/NEAMTWS, in 2013  
94 Italy started to build a tsunami alert centre at the Istituto Nazionale di Geofisica e Vulcanologia (INGV). Although residents  
95 in coastal municipalities are not all located in the inundation areas which might be directly hit by a tsunami, they are likely to  
96 face non-direct consequences of a tsunami event. After a three-year testing phase, the CAT-INGV has become operational in  
97 2016, after being formally accredited as a Tsunami Service Provider for the whole Mediterranean area by the  
98 ICG/NEAMTWS. Soon after that, the CAT-INGV became operational at national level within the framework of the SiAM  
99 (*Sistema d’Allertamento nazionale per i Maremoti di origine sismica*), coordinated by the Italian Department of Civil  
100 Protection (hereinafter DPC), and together with the Istituto Superiore per la Protezione dell’Ambiente (ISPRA), which  
101 manages the national sea level network.

102 As a Tsunami Service Provider, CAT-INGV sends alert messages to about fifteen countries and Institutions of the Euro-  
103 Mediterranean region in case of potentially tsunamigenic earthquakes. At national level, CAT-INGV cooperates strictly with  
104 DPC and ISPRA for disseminating alert messages to the local authorities and the population. As well, CAT-INGV is involved  
105 in increasing knowledge and people’s awareness on tsunami hazard and risk.

106 Although the Italian tsunami early warning system has been established in 2017, a comprehensive risk communication  
107 strategy is still under development. The main goal of this study is to contribute to identifying people’s knowledge and  
108 perception and defining the best strategy.

109

## 110 **2. Background: risk perception studies**

111 The perception of risks involves the process of collecting, selecting and interpreting signals about uncertain impacts of events,  
112 activities or technologies. These signals can refer to direct observation or information from others (for example reading about

113 an earthquake in the newspaper). Perceptions may differ depending on the type of risk, the risk context, the personality of the  
114 individual, and the social context.

115 Within natural sciences the term 'risk' seems to be clearly defined and measured as the probability distribution of adverse  
116 effects. However, the everyday use of the word 'risk' has different connotations (Renn, 2008). For social sciences the  
117 terminology of 'risk perception' has become the conventional standard (Slovic, 1987). Current studies on risk perception,  
118 grounding on sensorial human perception research from the beginning of the XX century (Wagemans, et al. 2012), have  
119 shown that people's perception is affected by cognitive processes and past experience. The mental models and other  
120 psychological mechanisms that people use to judge risks (such as cognitive heuristics and risk images) are internalized  
121 through social and cultural learning and constantly moderated (reinforced, modified, amplified or attenuated) by media  
122 reports, peer influences and other communication processes (Morgan et al., 2001).

123  
124 **2.1 Theoretical references of studies on risk perception**

125 In recent decades, many research studies have been carried out on psychological, social and cultural factors that influence the  
126 perception of risk. At present, the perception of risk is considered fundamental to understand what lay people think about risks  
127 and to adopt suitable political and communication strategies to cope with it.

128 Renn and Rohrman (2000) developed a structured framework that provides an integrative and systematic perspective on risk  
129 perception. Figure 1 illustrates this perspective by suggesting four distinct context levels (originally presented by Renn and  
130 Rohrman, 2000: 221; adapted from Breakwell's, 1994 generic model).

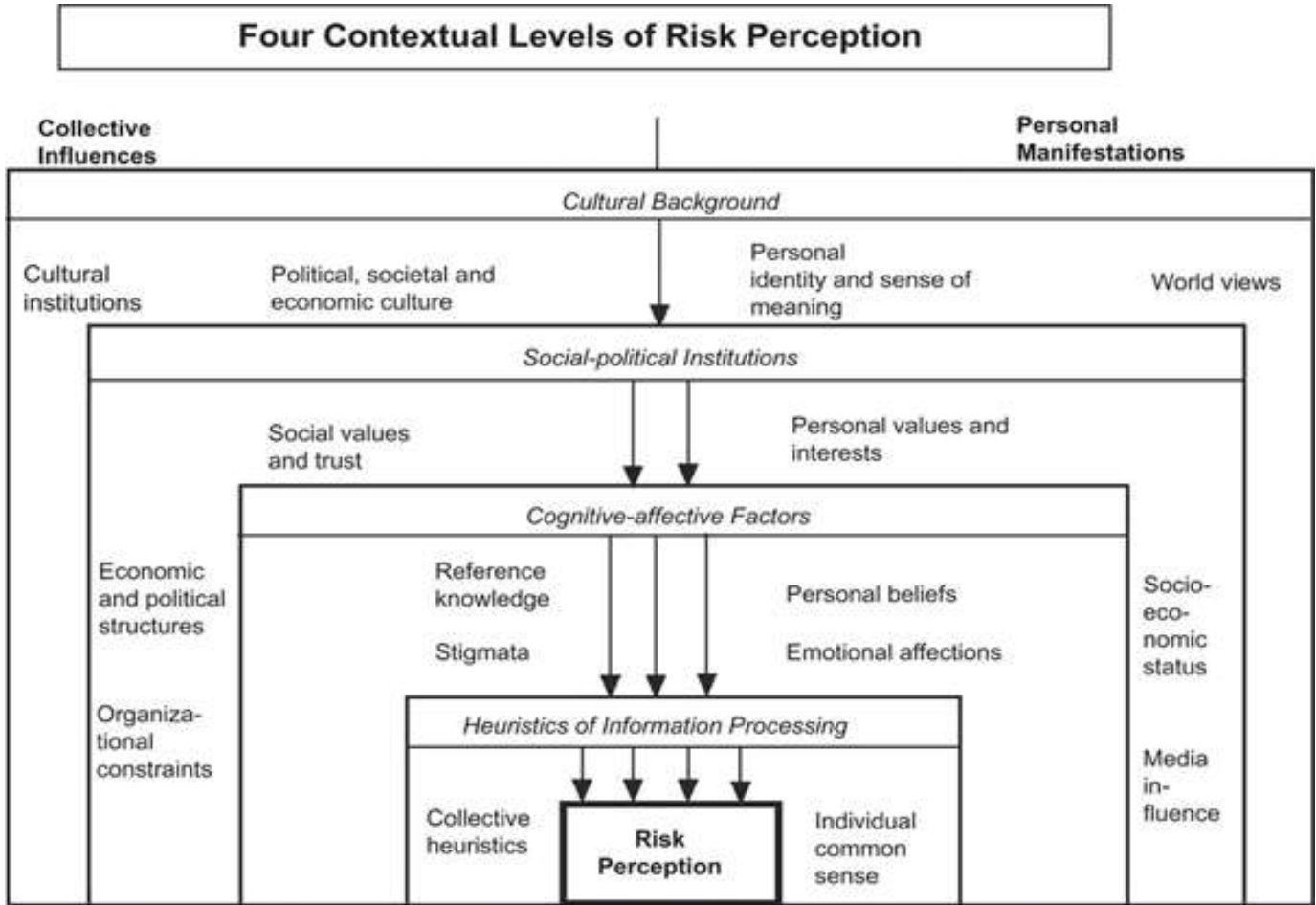
131 The first level, from the bottom center in Fig. 1, includes the collective and individual heuristics that individuals apply during  
132 the process of forming judgements. These heuristics are independent of the specific risk nature, personal beliefs, emotions or  
133 other conscious perception patterns of the individual. Heuristics represent common-sense reasoning strategies that have  
134 evolved over the course of biological and cultural evolution (Ross 1977; Kahneman and Tversky, 1979; Breakwell, 2007), and  
135 may differ among cultures. However, a number of evidence from psychological research shows a surprising degree of  
136 convergence across different cultures (Renn and Rohrman, 2000).

137 The second level refers to the cognitive (knowledge-based) and affective (emotion-based) factors that influence the perception  
138 of specific properties of the risk in question. Cognition about a risk source – what people believe to be true about a risk –  
139 governs the attribution of qualitative characteristics (psychometric variables) to specific risks (e.g. dread or personal control  
140 options) and determines the effectiveness of these qualitative risk characteristics on the perceived seriousness of risk and the  
141 judgement about its acceptability (Slovic, 1992). Recently, psychologists have discovered that emotions play an important  
142 role in people's decision processes (Loewenstein et al, 2001; Slovic et al, 2002). People's feelings about what is good or bad  
143 in terms of the causes and consequences of risks colour their beliefs about the risk and, in addition, influence their process of  
144 balancing potential benefits and risks.

145 The third level refers to the social and political institutions that individuals and groups associate to either the cause of the risk  
146 or the risk itself. Most studies on this level focus on trust in institutions, personal and social value commitments,  
147 organizational constraints, social and political structures, and socio-economic status. One important factor in evaluating risk is  
148 the perception of fairness and justice in allocating benefits and risks to different individuals and social groups (Linnerooth-  
149 Bayer and Fitzgerald, 1996).

150 Other studies have placed political and social organizations, and their strategies to communicate with other organizations and  
151 society at large, as the prime focus of their attention (Clarke, 1989; Shubik, 1991). Press coverage appears to contribute  
152 substantially to a person's perception of risk, particularly if the person lacks personal experience with that risk and is unable to  
153 verify claims of risks or benefits from their own experience. In contrast to popular belief, however, there is no evidence that

154 the media can create opinions about risks or even determine risk perceptions. In fact, studies on media reception suggest that  
 155 people select elements from media reports and use their own frame of reference to form their opinions. Most people reconfirm  
 156 existing attitudes when reading or viewing media reports (Peters, 1991; Dunwoody & Peters, 1992; Breakwell 2007).  
 157 The last level (the external frame in Fig. 1) refers to cultural factors that govern or co-determine many of the lower levels of  
 158 influence. The most specific explanation for cultural differences about risk perceptions comes from the so-called ‘cultural  
 159 theory of risk’ (Douglas and Wildavsky, 1983).  
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161  
 162 **Fig. 1. Levels of Risk Perception (Renn, 2008)**  
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164 All four levels of influence are relevant in order to gain a more accurate understanding of risk perception. In spite of many  
 165 questions and ambiguities in risk perception research, one conclusion is beyond any doubt: abstracting the risk concept to a  
 166 rigid formula, and reducing it to the two components’ ‘probability and consequences’, does not match people’s intuitive  
 167 thinking of what is important when making judgements about the acceptability of risks (Slovic, 1992). The framework of  
 168 social amplification may assist researchers and risk managers to forge such an integrative perspective on risk perception. Yet,  
 169 a theory of risk perception that offers an integrative, as well as empirically valid, approach to understanding and explaining  
 170 risk perception is still missing (Wachinger & Renn, 2010).

171 **2.2 Recent research on tsunami risk perception**

172 In many countries where the tsunami hazard is high, such as those in the Pacific and Indian Oceans, several studies have been  
173 carried out on risk perception and people's understanding and preparedness (Raine, 1995; Bird and Dominey-Howes, 2006;  
174 Kurita et al., 2007; Paton et al., 2008 and 2017; Oki and Nakayachi, 2012; Goeldner-Gianella et al., 2017; Arias et al., 2017,  
175 etc.). Unfortunately, research on tsunami risk perception in the Mediterranean are neither numerous nor homogeneous.  
176 Nevertheless, one of the oft-cited figures in research is a tendency of coastal populations to underestimate tsunami risk.  
177 Recent research has been carried out in the NEAM area (North Eastern Atlantic, Mediterranean and connected seas) by the  
178 EU project ASTARTE, that has investigated tsunami risk perception and community preparedness, through the collection of  
179 1159 questionnaires in six coastal areas of France, Greece, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Turkey. The survey was based on a  
180 standardized questionnaire (about 50 questions), and random face-to-face interviews being administered on main beaches,  
181 boats, ports, city centers (Papageorgiou et al., 2015; Goeldner-Gianella et al., 2017; Liotard et al., 2017). Despite the precious  
182 insights coming from this investigation, such as the perception of negligible tsunami hazard in European shores, the method  
183 was based on interviews of a convenience sample (also known as accidental sampling). Such a non-probabilistic approach is  
184 based on the availability of participants, their geographical proximity or their willingness to participate rather than on well-  
185 defined statistical criteria to select and include subjects, and unfortunately it does not guarantee results' significance and  
186 generalizability (Etikan et al., 2016).

187 The 2004, Sumatra, Boxing Day tsunami and its global scale consequences revealed how cultural and societal resources have  
188 actually resulted into different abilities to cope with tsunami risk, thus triggering a fresh new interest for risk perception  
189 research in its broadest sense, also including psychological, sociological and anthropological approaches. The lack of  
190 information or of cultural memory of past events, including their negative outcomes, may jeopardize the effectiveness of any  
191 mitigation program, while the improvement of knowledge and emergency plans should be prioritized. Such programs should  
192 not be dropped from the top, but must always be placed within a given social context. The communities involved should  
193 indeed mediate between agencies' proposals and pre-existing knowledge through a variety of patterns of relationship, which  
194 should always include and properly consider the value of participation, self-efficacy, empowerment and trust (Paton et al.,  
195 2008). In Italy, despite a long tradition of tsunami research, the issues of tsunami risk perception have not been deepened yet.

196  
197 **3. Research, design and methods**

198  
199 **3.1 Goals and research hypotheses**

200 Our pilot study, conducted in Apulia and Calabria regions (Fig. 2), has the main strategic goal of providing empirical data on  
201 citizens' understanding and risk perception in a tsunami risk-prone area, also allowing future comparisons with different areas  
202 of the NEAM Region. Moreover, the results will contribute to identify key messages, channels and techniques to effectively  
203 communicate tsunami risk in the Mediterranean area.

204 The results of our survey will provide both CAT-INGV and DPC with data on people's perception and preparedness in Italy,  
205 contributing to better address a communication strategy on tsunami risk. A comprehensive and sound risk communication  
206 strategy will hopefully improve people's ability to understand phenomena and to enforce both individuals' and communities'  
207 response capabilities.

208 Our research lies on a general assumption: the lack of awareness and the misconceptions about tsunami dynamics and impact  
209 may considerably hamper the effectiveness of any mitigation measures. More in detail, the scope of this study is to provide a  
210 general description of what people know about tsunamis, and how do they perceive this risk. In particular, we move from the  
211 following two hypotheses:

212 RH1: Does the tsunami risk perception of Apulia and Calabria match with the hazard assessed by scientific data?  
213 RH2: Does people's perception in Italy about tsunamis rely upon media representations of catastrophic events such as the  
214 ones occurred in Sumatra and Japan?  
215

### 216 3.2. Methods and techniques

217  
218 According to a well-established standard in social science and risk perception research, a questionnaire survey was deemed to  
219 be the most suitable method of investigation. This method allows us to obtain valid, accurate and robust data in a reasonably  
220 short time, as well as to check data quality and validity of empirical evidence as it emerge from the survey.

221 The tsunami risk perception survey was based on a semi-structured questionnaire, consisting in 27 items, also including closed  
222 questions, open questions, and Likert scales as to measure respondents' attitudes with respect to the topics under investigation  
223 (see Attachment A). The number of questions was optimized for being administered by telephone, taking duly into account  
224 the need for brief and comprehensible questions. To date, despite some problematic elements such as the increasing  
225 undercoverage rate (De Vitiis & Righi, 2011), Computer Assisted Telephone Interview (CATI) is still considered the most  
226 suitable technique in order to reach all the population strata (i.e., the oldest and the youngest, the most and the least educated,  
227 etc.), thus obtaining a statistically representative sample. It is no coincidence that the *Italian National Institute of Statistics*  
228 (*ISTAT*) along with similar organisations across the world, make a massive usage of CATI interviews for their research.

229 The questionnaire is structured in six areas of interest: 1) socio-demographic data and characteristics of the territory; 2) level  
230 of knowledge of the phenomenon and sources used for the collection of information; 3) perception of the tsunami risk in the  
231 geographic and social context of the interviewees; 4) social representations of the tsunamis; 5) cultural attitude towards the  
232 risk and 6) messages and channels suitable for early warning messages (see SM1).

233 The questionnaire was developed in the light of pre-existing research literature (Lindell and Perry, 2012) on tsunami risk  
234 perception (e.g., Bird and Dominey-Howes, 2007) also considering the need to encompass the different ways in which  
235 scientists and lay people are used to understand tsunami risk. A number of papers has been considered to formulate, include o  
236 re-adjust questions to be included in the questionnaire. Questionnaire structure and contents were formulated according to  
237 both cited risk perception research and tsunami risk perception studies. As an example, the idea of including some questions  
238 about familiarity, understanding and the occurrence of events in the local area came from Raine (1995) and Alam (2016);  
239 beliefs about possible regions of tsunamis' origins are from Bird and Dominey-Howes (2007); the effectiveness of tsunami  
240 knowledge and optimal channels of information from Kurita et al. (2007); risk evaluation of tsunami heights were readapted  
241 by Oki and Nakayachi (2012), and so on.

242 The questionnaire was drafted in a simple and non-technical language so as to be easily understood by lay people without any  
243 knowledge of seismology, geology, physics and related fields. Furthermore, questions were intended to ensure maximum  
244 adherence between physical concepts (e.g. maximum inundation height, run-up, ingression and so on) and the way they were  
245 turned into common language. For these reasons, the questionnaire has been drafted and reviewed in the light of results of two  
246 focus groups with 1) scientists and 2) lay people, respectively. The first one involved INGV tsunami scientists for a first  
247 review and an elicitation of scientific content of the questions. Then, the questionnaire was tested on forty people with low  
248 and medium level of education and different age, to assess questions' readability, identifying possible biases in the way  
249 questions were formulated. Their feedback was used to adjust and rephrase some questions as to make them easier to  
250 understand.

251 **3.3 Study area and sample characteristics**

252 The research covered two regions of Southern Italy, Calabria and Apulia, representing over three million inhabitants living in  
 253 some of the most tsunami prone areas of the Italian peninsula (Table 1), as it appears from historical catalogues of the Italian  
 254 tsunamis (Tinti et al, 2004; Maramai et al., 2014) and S-PTHA studies (Lorito et al. 2008; Basili et al., 2013) (Fig. 2).

255 The research was carried out on a proportional stratified sample of 1,021 respondents, including 474 men and 547 women  
 256 aged between 18 and 95 years across 138 different coastal municipalities of Apulia and Calabria. These two regions have  
 257 shorelines extending for 865 and 780 km, respectively, covering 22% of the Italian coasts and 16% of the whole Italian  
 258 coastal population. The interviews have been collected following research team directions about a) reference universe, b)  
 259 sampling strategy, c) stratification variables, d) number of interviews to be implemented and administered. Interviews have  
 260 been carried out using Computer Aided Telephonic Interview (CATI) methodology. The sampling plan was aimed at ensuring  
 261 the best possible representativeness in accordance with the available resources, in order to provide scientists, end-users and  
 262 Civil Protection with robust and reliable data to ground mitigation actions, also improving scientific debate on these topics.  
 263 Sampling operations followed these steps: (a) defining the population; (b) choosing sample size; (c) sorting the population; (d)  
 264 assigning numbers to cases for each class; (e) calculating the sampling fraction; (f) selecting the sample (Table 2).  
 265 Interviewees were selected by using three stratification variables: age, gender and coastal areas, as to guarantee the best  
 266 possible correspondence between subpopulations in the sample and in the reference universe. 833 questionnaires were  
 267 administered to landlines users and other 188 to mobile phone users, for a total of 1,021 questionnaires. The decision to  
 268 contact mobile phone users was due to the need of including a larger number of young people, who are less likely to use  
 269 landlines. Data collection was completed between April and May 2018 by a team of over twenty trained interviewers,  
 270 supervised by highly trained research experts of Questlab S.r.l., a specialized research company based in Venice.

272 **Table 1 - Total population per country, region and coastal area**

<b>Country</b>	<b>Residents</b>	<b>Coastal Municipalities</b>
Italy	17,689,240	668
<b>Region</b>		
Apulia	1,716,797	67
Calabria	1,120,698	116
Total	2,837,495	183
<b>Coastal area</b>		
Calabria Tyrrhenian Coast	561,908	45
Calabria Ionian Coast	558,790	71
Apulia Ionian Coast	469,044	21
Apulia Adriatic Coast	1,247,753	46
Total	2,837,495	183

273



274 **Table 2 - Sample of the survey for age, gender, coastal area and educational level**

Coastal area / Education level / Age	Ionian Calabria			Tyrrhenian Calabria			Adriatic Apulia			Ionian Apulia			Total
	L	I	H	L	I	H	L	I	H	L	I	H	
18-49	1	44	49	1	31	22	3	96	64	0	31	17	359
50-64	5	58	33	2	29	10	4	106	28	2	41	13	331
over 64	13	46	23	6	20	11	23	83	41	7	46	12	331
Total	19	148	105	9	80	43	30	285	133	9	118	42	1021

275 L = Low level of education or no instruction; I = Intermediate, secondary school and high school; H = graduate and post-  
 276 graduate

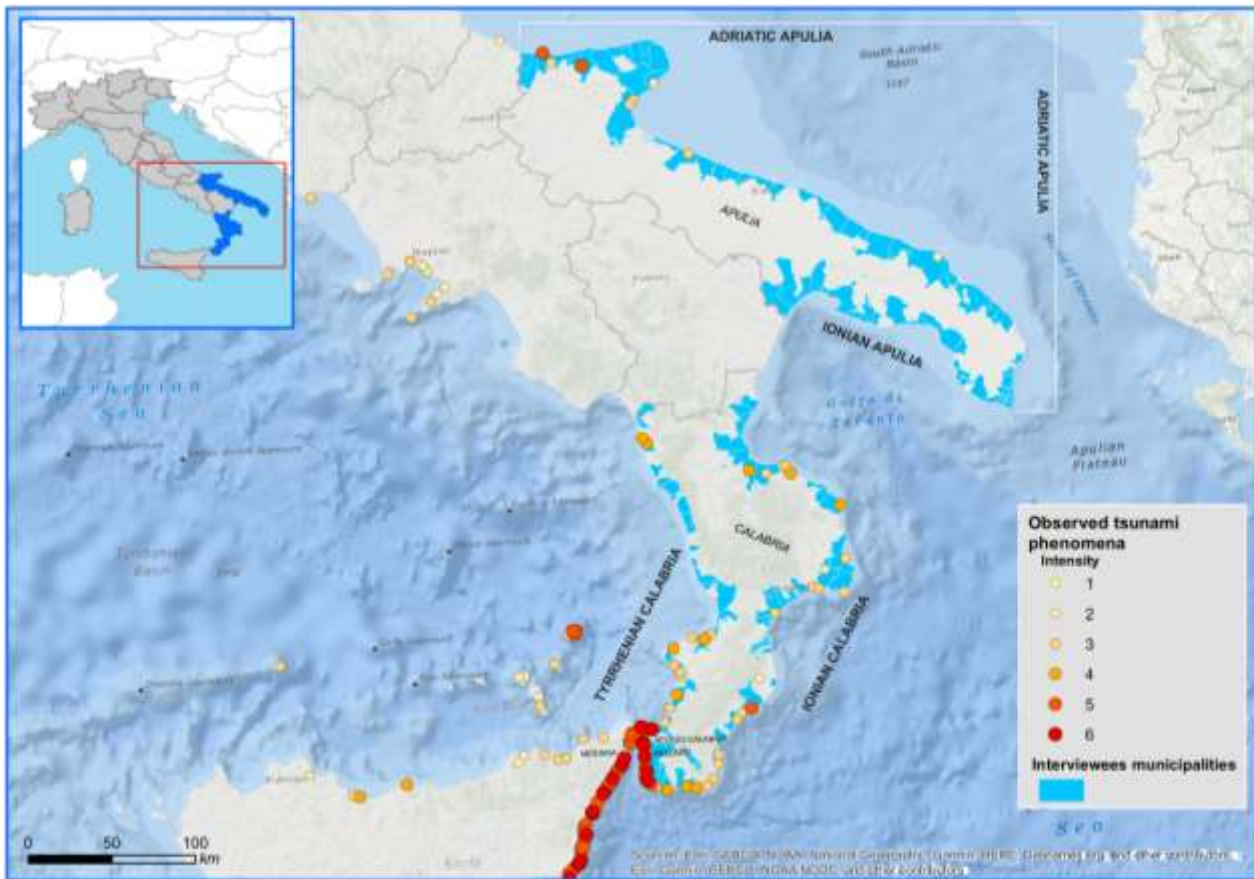
277 **Table 3a – Response rate for age and telephone connection**

	Landline	Mobile	Total
18-34 yrs.	11,0%	29,8%	14,5%
35-49 yes	14,0%	50,0%	20,7%
50-64 yes	35,7%	18,1%	32,4%
65 and over	39,3%	2,1%	32,4%
Total	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

279 **Table 3b – Response rate for gender and telephone connection**

	Landline	Mobile	Total
Men	42,9%	62,2%	46,4%
Women	57,1%	37,8%	53,6%
Total	100,0%	100,0%	100,0%

281  
 282 In order to get 1,021 complete and valid interviews, a total of 20,248 units were contacted. Among these, 15,564 call attempts  
 283 were unsuccessful (unanswered phone calls) and 3,663 units explicitly refused the interview. The response rate is 21.8%,  
 284 calculated as the ratio of the number of positive responses to the total number of responses. The Tables 3a and 3b show the  
 285 response rate by age and gender, and also indicate whether the contact was made through a landline or mobile phone.



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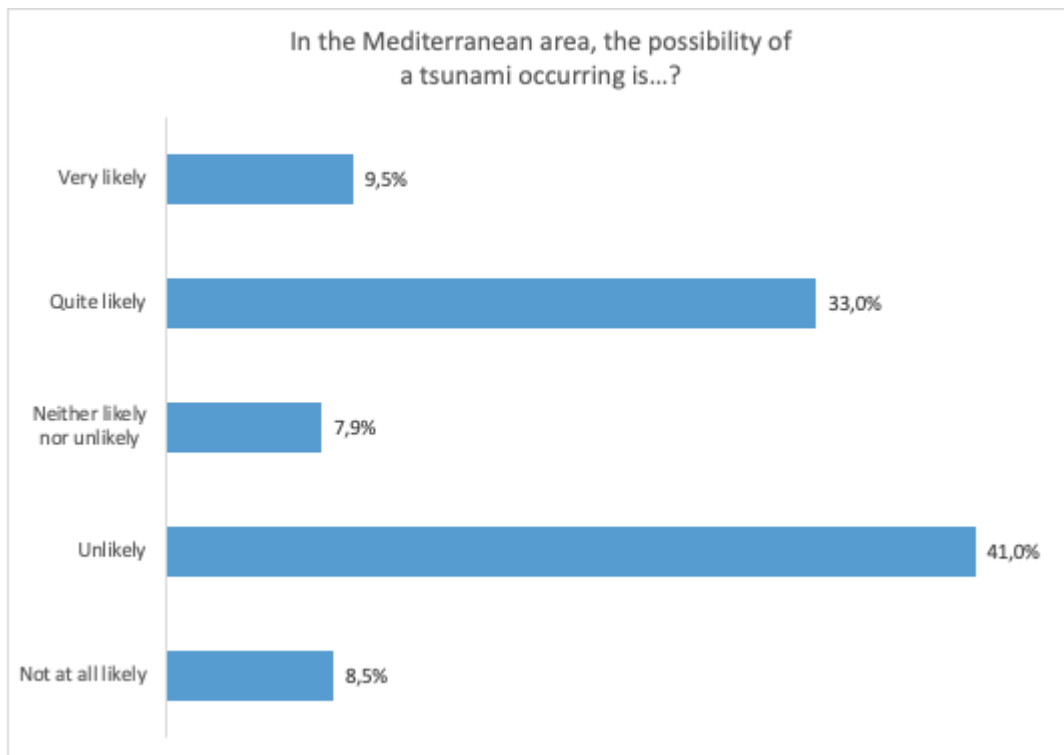
**Fig. 2. Geographical distribution of interviewees' municipalities (light blue areas), with points of tsunami observations (circles). The circles' color is proportional to the tsunami intensity (see legenda). Data are from Maramai et al. (2019).**

**4. Results and discussion**

The results of our research are discussed in two separate paragraphs. The first part is dedicated to the tsunami risk perception, in the strict sense. The second part illustrates and discusses the data on the characteristics of the tsunami phenomenon and examines the data on tsunami knowledge sources.

**4.1 Tsunami risk perception**

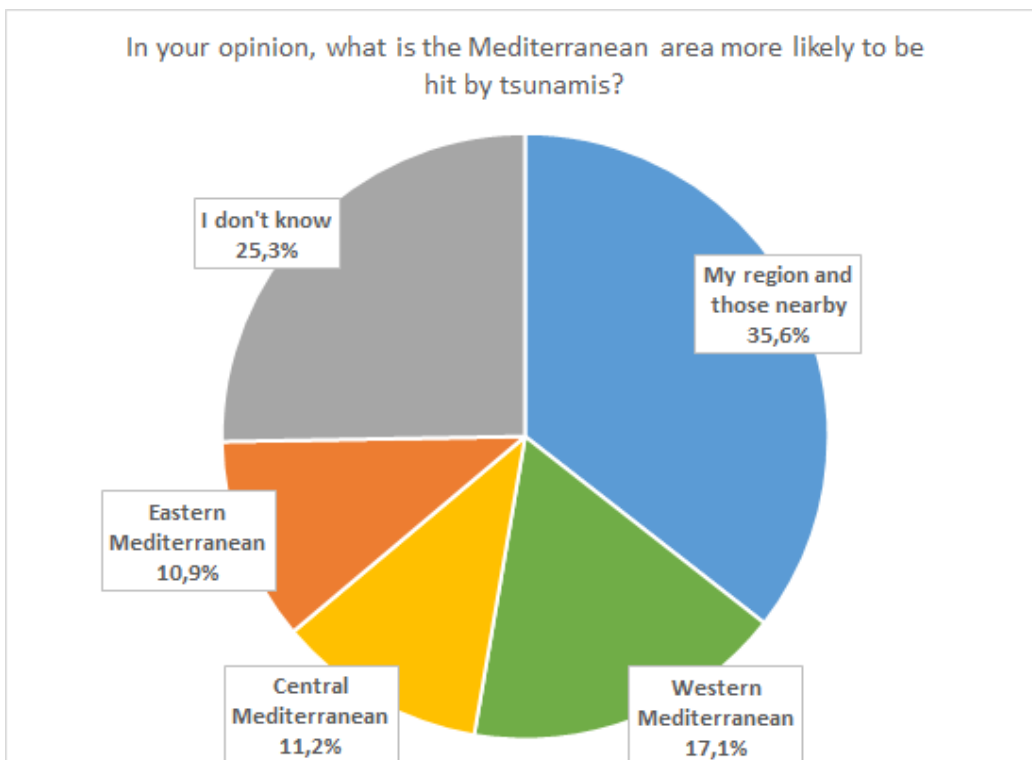
Considering the whole sample, the majority of people (49.5%) consider tsunamis to be rather unlikely in the Mediterranean area. Specifically, 41% of the interviewees believe that the occurrence of such an event is "unlikely" and the 8.5% consider it "not at all likely". By contrast, the overall percentage of those who think that a tsunami in the Mediterranean is a likely event is 42,5%. Of these, most consider it 'quite likely' (33% of the total), and 9.5% holds it even to be 'very likely'. The leftover 7,9% consider the occurrence of a tsunami an event 'neither likely nor unlikely' (see Fig. 3). It may be useful to recall here that the Likert Scale ("not at all unlikely; unlikely; neither likely nor unlikely; quite likely; very likely") is to be considered as a generally accepted standard in social research (see Likert, 1932).



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**Fig. 3. Perception of tsunami occurrence in the Mediterranean area**

Fig. 4 shows in detail which Mediterranean areas are deemed to be subjected to tsunami hazard: 35.6% of the sample indicates their region of residence and nearby ones (Calabria and Puglia coasts) as the most prone area, 17.1% suggests the Western Mediterranean, 10.9% the Eastern Mediterranean, 11.2% the Central Mediterranean, and 25.3% declare they do not know.

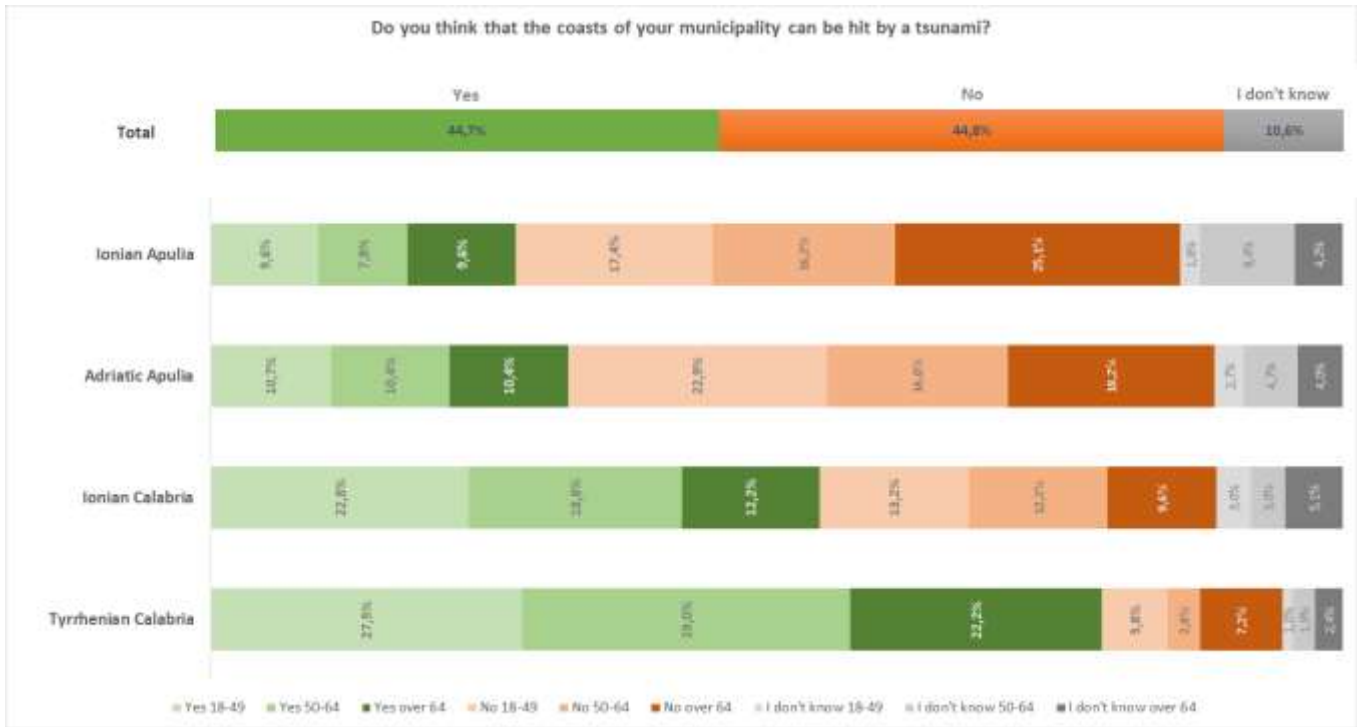


310  
311

**Fig. 4. Mediterranean areas perceived as the most prone to be hit by a tsunami**

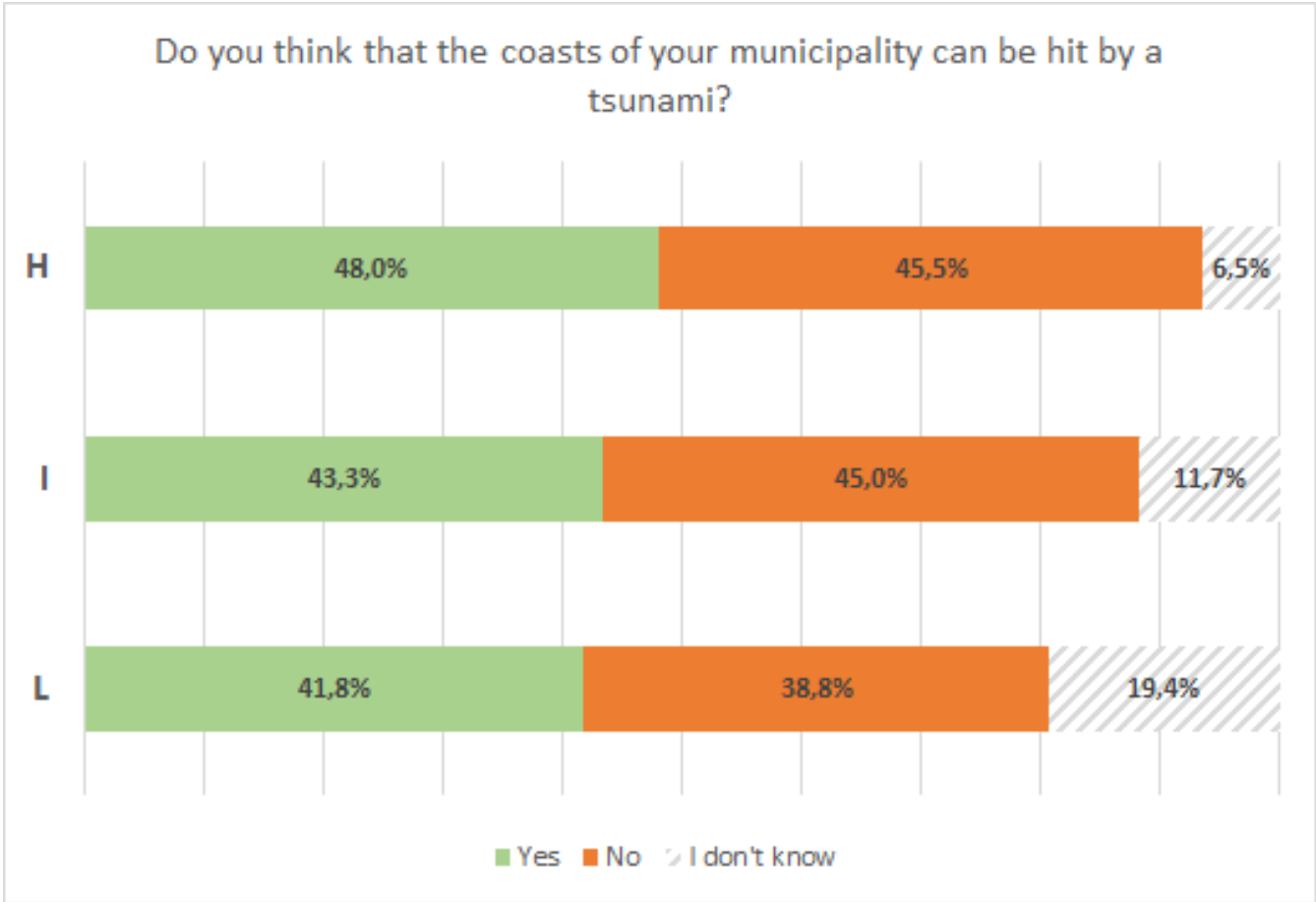
312 With respect to the geographical reference area of the sample (the Italian regions of Calabria and Apulia) the question ‘Do  
 313 you think that the coasts of your municipality could be hit by a tsunami?’ split the sample in half: those who answered Yes  
 314 were 44.7%, whilst No had 44.8%, and the remaining 10.6% answered that they do not know. The answers are slightly  
 315 different depending on the age group. In particular, tsunami risk perception seems to be slightly higher in the respondents  
 316 aged 50-64 (Fig. 5). The comparison also shows that the way risk is perceived strongly differs among the different regions and  
 317 coastal areas: respondents from Apulia appear to have a lower perception than those from Calabria (Fig. 5).

318 In particular, only 30% of Apulian citizens consider their coasts as likely to be hit by a tsunami, whereas the figure for  
 319 Calabria exceeds 60%. A possible explanation of this sharp difference is in the frequency and the time distance of tsunamis  
 320 that have occurred in the two regions. As a matter of fact, looking at data reported in the tsunami catalogue EMTC and in the  
 321 database of observations ITED (Maramai et al.; 2014, 2019), it is evident that the occurrence of tsunamis in Calabria is more  
 322 frequent than in Apulia, at least in the last two centuries. In particular, data from Calabria are dominated by the 1908 event,  
 323 with observations on both coastal areas of the region (Fig. 2) and runup as high as 13 m. On the contrary, Apulian data are far  
 324 less numerous and refer to much older events, such as, the 1627, the 1731, and the 1743 earthquakes, with no tsunami  
 325 reported in the 20<sup>th</sup> and 21<sup>th</sup> centuries. The value of probabilistic tsunami hazard assessment (S-PTHA), such as the one made  
 326 by TSUMAPS-NEAM (Basili et al., 2018), lies also in its ability of considering the contributions from old and/or hidden  
 327 events; this allows to get a better, though still imperfect, image of the real hazard. Comparing the results of the survey only  
 328 with the historical data could provide a misleading image of the perceived risk, whereas comparing them with the estimated  
 329 hazard gives a more realistic view of perception, confirming that tsunami risk in Apulia this is particularly underrated.  
 330 Furthermore, the results of our survey also show that Tyrrhenian Calabria’s residents have a higher perception of tsunami risk  
 331 than all other coastal regions, but this point will be discussed in detail later in the text.  
 332



333  
 334 **Fig. 5 - Comparison of the tsunami risk perception per coastal regions and age groups**  
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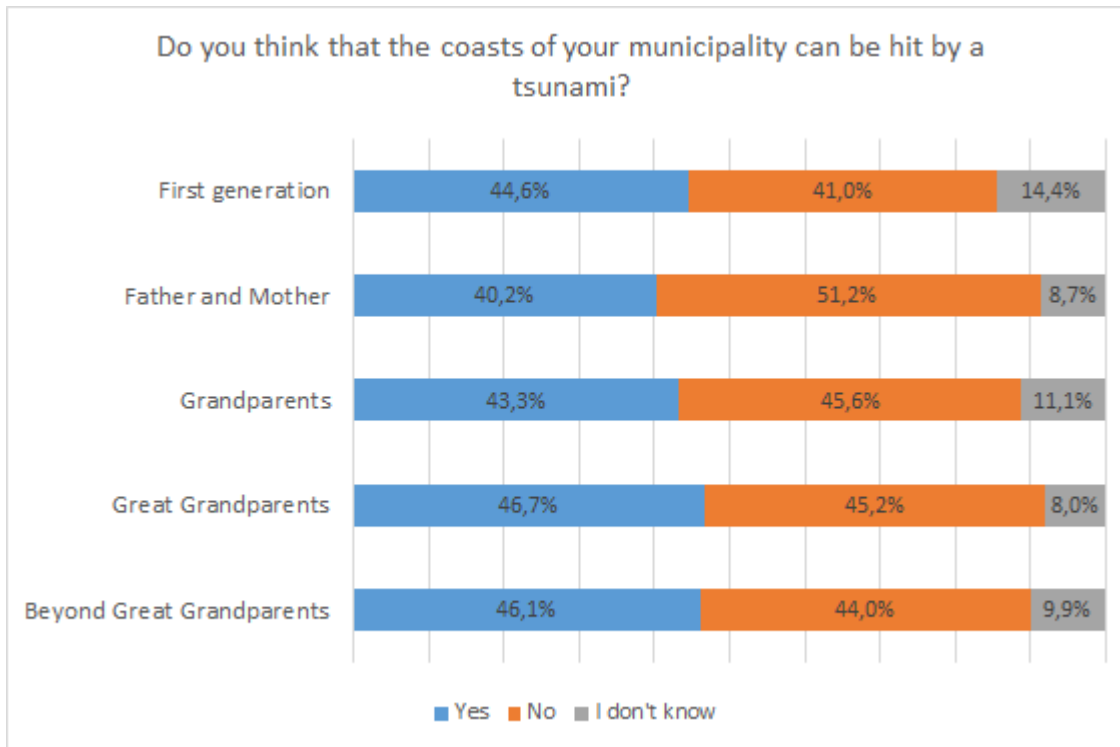
336 We also compared the perception of tsunami risk with the education level of respondents. The data show that the perception of  
 337 risk increases with the level of education, in particular graduates and postgraduates show a perception of risk higher than the  
 338 others (Fig. 6).  
 339



340  
 341 **Fig. 6 - Tsunami risk perception by education (L = Low level of education or no instruction; I = Intermediate,**  
 342 **secondary school and high school; H = graduate and post-graduate)**  
 343

344 Fig. 7 shows the results of tsunami perception for number of generations of residence in the considered coastal municipality. It  
 345 can be noted that, contrary to what happens for the age, the number of generations of residence has a small effect on tsunami  
 346 risk perception. This may indicate that considering the whole sample there is a low transfer of information and experiences  
 347 related to the tsunami risk from a generation to the following ones, while recent local events may trigger other patterns of  
 348 information gathering and seeking.

349 Collective memory of natural disasters is a relevant issue to keep into consideration: although a single definition is still  
 350 missing, some authors highlight it as a dynamic process of functional adaptation to a changing world (Assmann, 1997). Oral  
 351 communication could play a key role, because it would allow memories to circulate, also connecting historically separate  
 352 generations that otherwise could not have mnemonic access to each other. This mnemonic transitivity would allow people to  
 353 preserve memories in the form of oral traditions, passed on from one generation to the next one by means of elders and  
 354 families (Nora, 1982, 1986, 1992).



**Fig. 7 - Tsunami risk perception according to the number of generations of residence in the area**

A peculiar aspect concerns the perception of risk with respect to the different coastal regions. In this case, as we showed in Fig. 6, the Tyrrhenian Calabria has a higher level of risk perception than the other coasts.

At the moment, we are not able to explain this particular result but we can formulate some hypotheses. We have noticed that the respondents from Tyrrhenian Calabria are also more likely to consider volcanoes as a possible tsunamigenic source: 66.2% of them indicate volcanoes as a possible cause of the phenomena, while people from other coastal areas are far below this value, which varies from a minimum of 41.4% for those living in Adriatic Puglia to 45% of Ionian residents. Indeed, the southern Tyrrhenian sea hosts several active and quiescent volcanoes, including the Aeolian Islands (Stromboli, Vulcano, Salina, Lipari and others), and submerged volcanoes like the Marsili, Palinuro and other sea mounts (Figure 2). Therefore, the results outlined above could reflect both people's knowledge of this presence (in bright days people living on the coasts of Tyrrhenian Calabria can see the volcanoes offshore), and the fear of submarine eruptions and tsunamis, particularly from Mt. Marsili, to which a strong devastating power is attributed often by media. Moreover, it must be considered that a 'volcanic' tsunami did actually occur in 2002 triggered by a collapse of the Sciara del Fuoco flank, on Stromboli island, with run-up as high as 10 m in the island and notable effects even in Calabria (Bonaccorso et al., 2003; Maramai et al., 2005; Tinti et al., 2005; Chiocci et al., 2008). The fear for volcanic tsunami risk on Tyrrhenian shores is confirmed by a recent research on tsunami risk perception in relation to a hypothetical volcanogenic tsunami event, conducted on a sample of 888 interviewees from three Tyrrhenian coastal regions of Southern Italy, namely Campania, Calabria and Sicily (Gravina et al. 2019). Albeit the lack of counter-evidence for other coastal areas, this paper has shown that people from Tyrrhenian coasts are very concerned by the occurrence of tsunamis generated by volcanic eruptions, but they are also unable to indicate or recall proper actions and behaviour to be held in case of an event. It is worth noting that two small tsunamis (with maximum wave heights of about +/-30 cm recorded by tide gauges in the Eolian islands, in Sicily and Calabria) have occurred in June and August 2019 after two strong explosions of Stromboli volcano and subsequent landslides or pyroclastic flows on the Sciara del Fuoco.

379 In conclusion, the results on Tyrrhenian Calabria need to be better assessed in the light of multivariate analysis and possibly  
380 deepened through a specific research project on this coastal area.

381 Regarding the perceived size of tsunami waves, one should keep in mind that tsunamis can occur in many ways, and even a  
382 small event can cause serious damage and loss of life (like dragging children and even adults into the sea). Only 16% of the  
383 sample believe that a wave size of 50-100 cm would be dangerous for an adult who is near the shore, and those who think that  
384 even smaller waves of the tsunami can be a serious threat are even less: only 3.2% (Table 4).

385

386 **Table 4: How high should the water level rise to be dangerous for people near the shore?**

	N	%
Less than 50 centimetres	33	3.2
Between 50 centimetres and 1 meter	163	16.0
Between 1 and 3 meters	357	35.0
Over 3 meters	402	39.4
Don't know	66	6.5
Total	1021	100

387

388 Despite the greater probability of occurrence of small tsunamis and the remarkable danger represented by waves of less than a  
389 meter (with speeds up to 10 m/s), it is still probable that people refer to the tsunami being influenced by the strong and  
390 persistent images of great events displayed on television.

391

#### 392 **4.2 Tsunami: sources of knowledge and phenomenon characterization**

393 According to hypothesis 2 (see paragraph 3.1), the way tsunamis and related risk are understood and perceived may be  
394 affected by the sources of knowledge which have been actually used by the interviewees, first and foremost the media.

395 In our survey, we first considered the difference between the Japanese word 'tsunami' which dominates the tsunami risk  
396 governance field in many languages, and the word 'maremoto' (literally sea-quake), that is more common in spoken Italian.

397 Survey results have shown that these two words are associated with two different mental models, in which some given  
398 features of the phenomenon are differently recalled and combined together, although with some degree of overlapping.

399 Putting aside minor differences, the idea of 'big wave' is strongly associated with the word 'tsunami' (60.8 %) rather than  
400 with 'maremoto' (39.5%). Moreover, the word earthquake ('terremoto' in Italian) is mentioned as a feature of 'maremoto'

401 (50%) more frequently than with 'tsunami' (35.4%). Other differences are found for the association of 'maremoto' with sea-  
402 storms (23.7% vs. 17.9% for 'tsunami'), while sea withdrawal is slightly more associated to tsunami (15.9%) than to

403 'maremoto' (10.9%). In general terms, the majority of the interviewees considers more familiar the Italian word 'maremoto'

404 (53.3%) than 'tsunami' (46.7%). Such a difference is more pronounced for elders, for women, and for people with low level  
405 of education, and of course has relevant implications for future risk communication strategies. It would be interesting to verify

406 whether similar differences are present in other languages, where 'autochthonous' words such as the Italian 'maremoto' do  
407 exist, as for instance in Spanish in which the same word is used.

408 Interviewees were also asked to respond about the possible causes of tsunamis: earthquakes are correctly recalled by 75% of  
409 respondents, while volcanic eruptions were indicated by 46,1%, meteorological phenomena by 12,2%, meteorites befalling in  
410 the sea by 10,1%, landslides by 9.0%, and finally 6% proposed other possible causes<sup>2</sup>. Bivariate analysis has shown that

<sup>2</sup> Multiple responses question, percentages are based on cases. The overall total can exceed 100%.

411 causes listed above are first influenced by coastal area, then by level of education, age and gender: further analyses are  
412 required to better explain these differences. Such percentages reflect in some way the relative distributions of tsunamis'  
413 causes worldwide. Although the interviewees had the possibility to select more than one choice (and therefore they could have  
414 selected all of them), it is possible that they decided to pick only a few of them, i.e., those that were considered as more likely.  
415 The answers to the question about the possible effects of a tsunami on the coasts of one's own region suggest that people are  
416 more likely to recall some aspects of the physical phenomenon instead of others, which appear to be less familiar. Data  
417 distribution shows that the first five items, arranged in decreasing number of 'correct' answers, are consistent with the  
418 catastrophic visual imagery of the great tsunamis of Sumatra and Tohoku, as most of the interviewees were able to address  
419 physical damages to houses, buildings and infrastructures (92.2%), negative impacts on economy and occupation (91.6%),  
420 environment (90.4%), casualties and injured people (89.4%). An interesting result emerging from the survey is that people are  
421 well aware that fleeing to the beach after a strong shaking is not the right choice (85.1%).

422 The greatest difficulties to understand tsunamis are concerned with some relatively unfamiliar effects, such as the possibility  
423 to have great tsunamis (> 20m) even in the Mediterranean (38.6% think this is a real possibility); that tsunami may trigger  
424 strong sea currents (37.8%) and that a tsunami wave of only 50cm can be actually dangerous for people staying near the  
425 shorelines (only 19.2% of the sample consider this a real danger). Evidence from this survey are consistent with what  
426 happened in the aftermath of recent events occurred in the Mediterranean. On July 21, 2017, a small tsunami originated by a  
427 magnitude 6.6 crustal earthquake, hit the island of Kos (Greece) and the nearby coastal city of Bodrum (Turkey) with run-up  
428 elevation up as high as 2m (Yalçiner et al., 2017). On that occasion, surveillance cameras on the Kos waterfront captured the  
429 way people were reacting to sea level anomalies: they were seemingly calm and utterly curious to see the water inundating  
430 quaysides. They were shooting pictures and videos with their smartphones instead of fleeing away, thus emphasizing that the  
431 risk posed by small tsunamis was almost completely ignored.

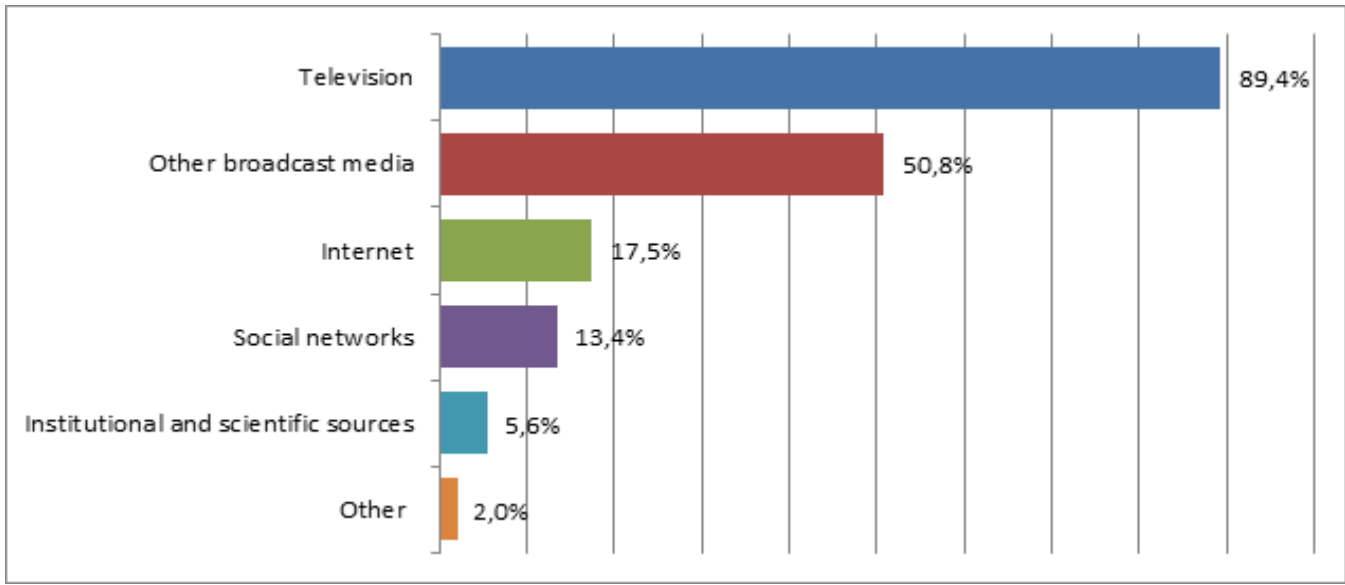
432 In order to get a concise and comprehensive picture of knowledge about the phenomenon, a rough but effective knowledge  
433 index has been developed, simply calculated as the unweighted sum of the number of correct answers to all the above listed  
434 questions about the 'physical reality' of the event, divided by the number of items considered. Given the average value for the  
435 whole sample (0.6952), gender, level of education, age and coastal area differently affect the level of knowledge. It is evident  
436 that a higher level of education implies a higher index of knowledge, as expected. Index values appear to be higher (> average  
437 value) for women, for middle-aged people (35-49), for residents of Tyrrhenian Calabria and Ionian Apulia coastal areas. On  
438 the contrary, elder people (65 and over), less educated people, males in general, together with inhabitants of Ionian Calabria  
439 and Adriatic Apulia, are placed below the average value.

440 These data could be more usefully scrutinized by considering the main sources of knowledge which have been used by  
441 people. Social images of the tsunami and in turn, risk characterizations rely on a variety of sources, combined in different  
442 patterns according to age, education, gender and coastal areas. We assumed that broadcast media, printed media, the Internet  
443 and other sources, including word of mouth through interpersonal networks (relatives, neighbours and friends) would have  
444 different impacts on people's understanding of tsunamis, thus resulting in different mental models. We asked people to list the  
445 sources of information they actually used from a list of 12 items (multiple response questions), thus analysing both the relative  
446 relevance of any single source and of their possible combinations. It is evident that television has a fundamental importance as  
447 first source of information for almost all the respondents, in line with general statistics on cultural consumption in Italy (Istat,  
448 2018).

449 Figure 8 shows the results obtained by grouping the channels into homogeneous categories, the overwhelming role of  
450 television emerges even more clearly, since it is able to reach almost 90% of the sample (89.4%), followed at a considerable  
451 distance by traditional media (newspapers, books, movies, radio), which weighs just over half (50.8%) and then from the



452 Internet (17.5%). This suggests that any effective risk communications campaign must face with the overwhelming role of  
 453 television. Social networks, which include all the interpersonal channel such as friends, parents and other relatives, together  
 454 with neighbours and personal acquaintances were found to be a relevant source for 13,4%, while institutional and scientific  
 455 sources together with other sources are placed at the lower steps of this ranking (9.9%). It is therefore important for research  
 456 Institutions and Civil Protection agencies to work in this field, trying to reach more people and giving the correct information  
 457 about this risk. Unfortunately, the results of our survey highlights the minimal impact that institutional and scientific sources  
 458 on the understanding of tsunami people have had so far (cumulative percentage: 5.6%). In Italy, the efforts of DPC, along  
 459 with INGV and other scientific institutions, to raise people’s awareness on tsunami risk and inform about best practices of  
 460 civil protection, dates back to 2013, through the campaign “Io Non Rischio” (“I don’t take risks”), started in 2011 for  
 461 earthquake risk (see Postiglione et al., 2016). However, only a very limited percentage of municipalities have included the  
 462 tsunami risk among the activities. In 2018, only in 5% of the squares where “Io Non Rischio” took place (a total of 502) the  
 463 tsunami risk was included. In particular, in the two regions where we launched the survey (Apulia, Calabria), no activity on  
 464 tsunami risk was carried out during the 2018 campaign in any of the towns and villages involved (source:  
 465 <http://iononrischio.protezionecivile.it/io-non-rischio/dove-si-svolge/>). The results of our survey seem to indicate that the  
 466 previous awareness-raising initiatives have proved neither numerous nor effective. The number of respondents who recalled  
 467 communication campaigns of civil protection/risk is 34 out of 1021 people interviewed, a number too low to draw any  
 468 significant statistical inference (N = 34/1021, that is about 3.3% of the sample). Furthermore, "Io Non Rischio" is a campaign  
 469 that takes place at the municipal level, and our research has not collected enough answers to draw conclusions at this level.  
 470 Rather, in the future, it would be desirable that the same “Io Non Rischio” campaign, ten years after its launch, provides itself  
 471 with tools to assess its impact and effectiveness.  
 472



473  
 474 **Fig. 8. Sources of knowledge on tsunamis: channels and penetration rates**  
 475

476 Our results seem to indicate that the enormous media coverage of the events of 2004 and 2011 in the Indian Ocean and in  
 477 Japan has left a profound sign in Italy in the social images of the tsunami. Compared to the past, some of the best-known  
 478 images of these events came from accounts of digital eyewitnesses, transmitted through multiple Internet channels, so that the  
 479 contents generated by amateur users quickly became the most important source of transmission news from the most affected  
 480 areas (Allan & Peters, 2015). Images like those of the big waves approaching the beach of Khao Lak (Thailand) after the

481 withdrawal of the sea, as well as the flood wave that overcomes the shores and crashes on the Miyako seafront, in Iwate  
482 prefecture (Northern Japan) have travelled the world, providing a vivid account of the event, contributing to shape people's  
483 understanding and tsunami mental models globally (Yamori, 2013; Couling, 2014; Goeldner-Gianella et al. 2017).

484

#### 485 **Conclusions**

486 We carried out a CATI survey in order to retrieve empirical data on tsunami knowledge and risk perception in Italy. The  
487 results of the survey show that the tsunami risk is generally underrated, despite the high hazard of the regions under  
488 investigation. The level of risk perception seems to be quite low for the whole sample, and it appears to be influenced by  
489 education level and gender, as well as by the possibility to access reliable sources of information. On the contrary, the  
490 interviewees' age and their time of stay in the same coastal area (considering number of generations) do not result in  
491 significant differences on risk perception.

492 The general underrating may be due to the infrequency of damaging tsunami events in the last decades in Italy, and amplified  
493 by the lack of available information on this risk, and by the limited number of drills and campaigns focused on it.

494 An interesting result emerging from this study is that the inhabitants of Calabria and Apulia have a very different level of  
495 tsunami risk perception, although the hazard assessed from scientific data show similar levels of occurrence probability in the  
496 two regions. More than 60% of the Calabrians consider quite likely the occurrence of a tsunami in their region, whereas only  
497 30% of the Apulians do. We interpret this difference as due to the lower frequency of tsunami observations in Apulia  
498 compared to Calabria (Fig. 2), and to the larger time elapsed from the most recent event in the former region. This result  
499 confirms the need for raising awareness in areas where the memory of events is loose and the perception of risk is even less  
500 pronounced.

501 Moreover, we find that residents in the Tyrrhenian Calabria coastal area are more likely to consider tsunamis as actual and  
502 impending threats. As discussed in the previous section, this might be related to real or purported sources of tsunamis from the  
503 volcanoes in the Aeolian Islands or from submerged volcanoes (Figure 2). Such a result suggests the need for a thorough  
504 analysis on cultural and historical factors that may locally affect the way tsunami risk is perceived and understood.

505 Mental models of tsunamis, stemming from people's characterization of hazard, appear to be heavily influenced by media  
506 images of Sumatra (2004) and Japan (2011) devastating tsunamis, since TV news coverage and documentaries of these events  
507 are the first source of information in terms of importance for most of our interviewees. Both disasters received huge media  
508 coverage, triggering a global-scale 'media event', which deeply shaped individual and social understanding of tsunami.

509 Evidence from our survey provides a robust support to this interpretative hypothesis: the way tsunamis are understood is very  
510 consistent with such a televised imagery, and almost nine out of ten people cite TV as a primary source of information.

511 Risk characterization, which resumes the way hazard is understood, is affected by different factors, including the words that  
512 are used to refer to certain phenomena. Our results highlight that this event is differently conceived when using the exotic  
513 word 'tsunami' rather than the Italian word 'maremoto'. Although the two terms are equivalent for Italian Earth scientists,  
514 according to people's perception, the two words refer to two different events, with some features in common. Our results also  
515 show that people appear to be conscious that earthquakes are the most frequent cause of tsunamis. Also, they tend to  
516 overestimate volcanoes as a possible cause of tsunamis, while underrating other causes such as landslides. Moreover, there is  
517 a poor awareness of some aspects of this hazard: previous tsunami disasters in Italy are in any case part of a distant past,  
518 whose details are doomed to fade away. In general, the respondents appear to totally neglect the possible impacts of small  
519 tsunamis, as also evidenced in other countries, thus fostering a false sense of subjective immunity. Our research underlines  
520 another critical point: people are likely to match information on tsunamis with their personal experience about sea-storm

521 waves to understand and characterize this risk, thus resulting into misleading assumptions about the real hazard posed by  
522 tsunamis (Oki & Nakayachi, 2012; Santos et al. 2016; Sutton & Woods, 2016; Wood et al., 2018).

523 This research is the first of its kind conducted in Italy, and its findings appear to be promising. Future analyses on this data set  
524 will probably allow us to better identify the main factors affecting tsunami risk perception in Italy, as well as to better  
525 understand the reasons behind the differences between regions and coastal areas. Future steps of this research will include the  
526 extension to other contiguous coastal regions which are most exposed to tsunami hazard together with Calabria and Apulia.

527 This research aims at integrating and enriching tsunami-related literature from social sciences fields, also providing new data  
528 and insights on the Mediterranean area. Currently, most of the available contributions regard only a few coastal areas in  
529 Pacific and Indian Ocean, such as Japan, Indonesia, Chile, Cascadia and Pacific Islands, where tsunamis are considered both  
530 as a matter of fact and a historical reality, and the risk posed by tsunamis is fairly known by local populations. To date,  
531 research papers on this topic are noticeably scarce for the NEAM area, with a few local exceptions, for example some  
532 Norwegian fjords (Lacasse and Nadim, 2011, Rød et al., 2012; Goeldner-Gianella et al., 2017). Lacking directions on people's  
533 perception and understanding of what is a tsunami and its related damages may lead to significant difficulties in setting-up  
534 sound risk communication strategies. Furthermore, the lack of data from social science could result in serious difficulties in  
535 fostering people's engagement and participation in the implementation of effective mitigation measures. In general terms, the  
536 development of tsunami warning systems should not focus only on managing an ongoing event through crisis communication,  
537 but it should improve individuals' and communities' awareness and preparedness in a long term perspective (Lundgren and  
538 McMakin, 2011). This implies a better understanding of targets, messages and channels to be arranged both for informing  
539 people about the hazard posed by tsunamis, and to effectively shape an alerting strategy, to make people conscious about what  
540 it is happening and what they should do in case of an event.

541 The research is first intended to provide viable knowledge about people's perception and attitudes toward tsunami related  
542 risks, in order to improve communication strategies of both CAT - INGV and Civil Protection Department (DPC); it also aims  
543 to provide useful cues and suggestion to the overall Tsunami community in Mediterranean Region and beyond. This is the  
544 first extensive study on tsunami risk perception in Italy, and the first of this kind (with large stratified sample and CATI  
545 interviews) being completed in the NEAM region.

546 Any effective, sound risk communication strategy should lie on the integration of theory, empirical research, best practices  
547 and careful assessment of outcomes, within an open-ended cycle of research and action. Research results may indeed foster an  
548 open discussion on risk and crisis communication strategies to be held, to improve both individual awareness and  
549 communities' involvement and participation to risk reduction programs at national and regional level.

550 Risk communication should be integrated with other initiatives of community engagement rather than being conceptualized as  
551 a stand-alone process. The relevance and the meaning of the information about tsunamis arise from the way they are  
552 interpreted and prioritized within given social contexts, hence to facilitate preparedness any successful communication  
553 strategy must consider if and how information is known and whether it is used, (Paton et al. 2008). In particular, it would be  
554 important to challenge clichés about tsunami, and to consider actual knowledge and education level of people living in  
555 tsunami prone areas, also bearing in mind which channels are more suitable to reach as many people as possible.

556 The validity of the data collected and analysed in this paper is limited by definition to the coastal populations of Calabria and  
557 Apulia, and cannot be generalized to the entire Italian coastal population. As shown by research data, tsunami risk perception  
558 may be affected by a number of factors acting at global and local level such as events' history, risk characterization and  
559 presence of known tsunamigenic sources (volcanoes), along with socio-demographic features of the considered population.

560 In order to improve knowledge and clarify conundrums, in future investigations one may consider the following alternatives:

561 a) using the same sample methodology used in this first survey (stratified population sample) to investigate tsunami risk  
562 perception in other Italian regions and coastal areas (Basilicata, Molise, Sicily, etc.);

563 b) extending the survey to the entire Italian population, considering that many Italians who also live in inland areas spend their  
564 holidays in coastal areas.

565 c) conducting interviews addressed to specific groups of people representing the coastal population in a specific season of the  
566 year, using the same survey questionnaire. However, in order to have a good representative statistical base of the population,  
567 this method requires having data on the tourist population and the non-resident population of the coastal municipalities.

568 The general structure of the questionnaire, the type and number of questions, as well as the duration of the interviews are  
569 strictly designed to be administered by telephone, but the questionnaire could be adapted to be suitable for direct interviews or  
570 self-administration.

571 Survey methodology entails an assumption: data about individuals are used to make inferences about social attitudes and  
572 beliefs, thus underestimating the influence of both local culture and ‘group thinking’ when facing complex problems. For  
573 these reasons the survey should be ideally seen as a first step in a wider research strategy, aimed at providing further  
574 developments within a mixed-method approach, ‘to bring in more robust evidence than either qualitative or quantitative  
575 approaches provide when they are used separately’ [...] and ‘to gain a deeper understanding of hazard perception and  
576 preparedness’ (Alam, 2016). In this way, qualitative research methods (focus groups, interviews, etc.) could be used to  
577 implement and explain the results of the survey, contributing to clarify the role of both culture and individual motivations in  
578 shaping social response and risk awareness.

579 The research is indeed conceived as a set of integrated modules, to fit different needs and social context, and it is suitable to  
580 be replicated as a whole or in part in other geographical contexts, both in Italy and in the countries of the North East Atlantic,  
581 Mediterranean and connected seas region (NEAM). Data comparison and multivariate analysis may reveal underlying cross-  
582 cutting factors of tsunami risk perception predictors, thereby focusing on similarities and differences among coastal areas and  
583 countries.

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#### 592 **Data availability.**

593 Research data can be accessed by contacting Massimo Crescimbene at his e-mail address: massimo.crescimbene@ingv.it

#### 595 **Author contributions.**

596 AC, MC, FLL and AA provided theoretical background, analyzed data and wrote the paper. AC and AA revised it and  
597 supervised the research.

598 **Competing interests.**

599 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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601 **References**

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