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Tourism Crises and Marketing Recovery Strategies

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SUMMARY. The recent frequency and intensity of crises and disasters affecting the tourism industry has resulted in a growing body of research into their causes, effects and management, as the bibliographies of the ensuing papers catalogue. To date, most papers and collections of research have taken a broad approach, describing the origins of a particular event which triggered a tourism crises, followed by an examination of the differential effects of the crisis on local residents, staff, tourists and tourism organizations or the environment and infrastructure. They have also discussed rescue efforts and the complexity of management tasks in the immediate aftermath of an event, often pointing to the need for preplanning to mitigate the consequences of any future disaster. Other researchers have contributed directly to the academic debate about how to theorise tourism crisis management, often by drawing on the wider crisis management literature.

The present collection of research differs in that it focuses on one phase of the tasks which managers face after the immediate consequences of a crisis have been dealt with. This phase addresses the question of how to rebuild the market for a tourism service or a destination which has experienced a significant catastrophe, and how to learn from the experience in planning for future crisis response strategies. It is suggested in this paper that the challenges are actually more varied and complex than is implied by the suggestion, found in much of the literature, that the task is about 'restoring normality.' The chaos and complexity experienced in the aftermath of a crisis raise general issues of how organizations learn and adapt to change. doi:10.1300/J073v23n02_01 *[Article copies available for a fee from The Haworth Document Delivery Service: 1-800-HAWORTH. E-mail address: <docdelivery@haworthpress.com> Website: <http://www.HaworthPress.com> © 2007 by The Haworth Press. All rights reserved.]*

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INTRODUCTION

What does it actually mean for a tourism organisation to suffer a crisis and to recover from it? In the case of natural disasters such as earthquakes, hurricanes or tsunamis, the devastation to life and property is all too evident, both to those in the locality and to global audiences who may be described as remote witnesses through the medium of TV, press and internet

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coverage. Similarly, the suffering and ruin caused by acts of terrorism as well as disasters involving transport, communications and other infrastructure is immediately visible to the global community through the media. The media also rapidly draws attention to the outbreak of a war or insurgency, and on epidemics, thereby turning tourists' travel intentions to alternative destinations. In all these cases the need for rescue, clear up operations and rebuilding is self-evident. It is also widely understood that a further set of management responses are required at a later stage to inform the public and industry partners that tourism services have resumed and that recovery is taking place.

In developing this volume, we have focused on the specific skills and understandings that can assist in post crisis tourism recovery. As the papers in this collection demonstrate, there is more to recovery than the restoration of normal services. Although each crisis has its own distinct causes, impacts and pattern of recovery, it is evident from the papers which follow and from the wider tourism crisis literature that certain tourism organisations are more resilient than others in terms of the speed of recovery and/or their ability to adapt to change in the post crisis period. An organizations' vulnerability to crises and the effectiveness of their recovery efforts vary in ways, and for reasons which are not yet fully understood.

Earlier studies of crises (including previous work by the present editors; Laws, Prideaux and Chon, 2007; Laws and Prideaux, 2005; Prideaux, Laws and Faulkner 2003; Campiranon and Scott, 2007) have focussed on management of the crisis itself and have highlighted how a crisis precipitates a complex and changing situation where the pre-existing rules of action for the organisation are suspended and other tasks take priority. These other tasks lack the normal clarity of organisational procedures, and at first glance many appear to be difficult to prioritise on the basis of past experience. There may be no consensus about what to do, how to do it and who should be undertaking the work. In these situations, leadership becomes a critical issue, both within an organisation and in terms of co-ordinating and directing the multitude of stakeholders participating in recovery. In summary then, crises are chaotic, dynamic and dangerous and are events where leadership becomes a key factor in prioritization, redirection and creation of new patterns of post event activity.

In this paper the editors of this volume argue that tourism crisis recovery may mean a change to the pre-existing ways of operating. The standard means of measuring recovery by the success of an organisation in restoring business flows to an earlier trend line may not be adequate because this benchmark it does not take into account the adaptation that may take place during the crisis and ensuing recovery period processes. The consequences for an organisation of a crisis (beyond its immediate impacts in terms of suffering, damage, and loss of business) are often more fundamental and may necessitate changes to the way the organisation operates, forces it to create new networks, and even stimulate the development of new business opportunities or social objectives.

The objectives of this paper are to: present a summary of theoretical understanding of tourism crisis management from the perspective of crisis recovery with a particular emphasis on the systems approach and the role of networks; to introduce the other papers in this collection; and to contribute an adjustment to Faulkner's (2001) model of disaster management to incorporate that role of marketing in post crisis recovery. This aspect of the paper is summarised in Figure 4.

TOURISM CRISIS RECOVERY–
AN OVERVIEW

From the practical perspective of managers, the general challenge of the recovery phase is to restore operations to normal, but increasingly there is evidence of more radical, strategic thinking in reshaping the offer as social and tourism infrastructure, equipment and even staff may have to be replaced, new patterns of operation developed and new markets sought. It is in this context that viewing tourism as a system has a number of advantages. It is interesting that the Chinese word for crisis (shown in Figure 1) is composed of two symbols meaning "danger" and "opportunity." Some destinations, including a number of Thai resorts devastated by the 2004 Boxing Day Tsunami, have

FIGURE 1. The Chinese Word for Crisis Is Composed of Characters Meaning Opportunity and Disaster

used the event as an opportunity to restructure by identifying new market segments and in some cases discouraging some market sectors they feel are less desirable. This usually equates to 'moving up market.' A related recovery strategy focuses on rebuilding high margin sectors such as MICE (Campiranon and Arcodia, below).

The focus of much of the existing research has been on the events leading up the crisis which then results in a perturbation of the normal state, followed by the steps required to restore the 'normal' situation. In their review of different perspectives on the study of crises and their development of propositions for further study, Pearson and Clair (1998:6) discuss the outcome of a crisis as a system being restored to its normal state. This approach views the crisis as distinct from the remainder of the environment in which the organization functions, with the consequences of the crisis affecting internal technical and social elements of the tourism system operating at the time of the onset of the disaster or crisis event. Restoration in this view is achieved through a series of steps or stages. An alternative view is to consider crisis events from a systems perspective where a change such as a crisis event causes changes to other parts of the system. In many cases these changes have system wide implications that prevent a return to the pre-crisis specifications of the system.

The previous discussion has conceptualized the study of crises and disasters by using a view of tourism systems in which there exist networks of organizations. Three implications of this should be considered. First a systems view questions the boundaries that should be used to study crisis and disasters. Second, the idea of complexity or chaos theory can add new insights to recovery. Third, a social network view provides a different perspective focusing on the interactions between organizations. Together, the implications point to the need to review existing models and incorporate new perspectives from the lessons learnt during recent disasters and crises.

The Role of Boundaries

A systems perspective is useful as it highlights another range of effects or impacts of crises that have not been sufficiently recognised within the tourism literature. Scott and Laws (2006) discussed the idea of system resilience, of change in system states and in improvements or degeneration in the overall system of tourism as a result of a crisis. These ideas were also identified and explored in a paper using floods in Katherine, Australia as a case study to examine how a disaster may lead to a positive change in a destination's tourism (Faulkner & Vikulov, 2001).

Within a system the impact of an event such as a crisis is felt to either a greater or lesser scale by all members of the system. The implication of this is that the effects of a crisis may be transferred across system boundaries by organizational relationships. As a simple example, a baggage handlers' strike at one airport may delay passengers, impose costs on airlines in accommodating passengers, moving luggage and rescheduling flights, and result in extra stress for airport staff. However it may also have follow-on effects at distant airports and cause a loss of business to hotels in those destinations. Systems theory perspectives can therefore assist to identify the range of stakeholders

involved, and lead to a study of factors influencing speed of recovery, the intensity of effects and the factors causing the effect (see Armstrong and Ritchie; Carelsen and Hughes; and Vitic and Ringer, below).

Complexity or Chaos Theory

Complexity or chaos theory provides an insightful paradigm for the investigation of rapidly changing complex situations where multiple influences impact on non-equilibrium systems. In these conditions of uncertainty, there is a need to incorporate contingencies for the unexpected into policy framework that may result in adaptation of the system itself. Chaos theory demonstrates that there are elements of system behaviour that are intrinsically unstable and not amenable to formal forecasting. If this is the case, a new approach to forecasting is required. Possible ways forward may include political audits and risk analysis to develop a sense of the possible patterns of events that may emerge. In this sense future tourism activity may be forecast using a series of scenarios. The latter may involve the use of a scenario building approach incorporating elements of van der Heijden's (1997) strategic conversion model, elements of the learning organisation approach based on a structured participatory dialogue (Senge, 1990) or elements of risk management described by Haimes et al. (2002). Which ever direction is taken, there are a number of factors that must be identified and factored into considerations of the possible course of events in the future. A typical large scale disruption precipitates complex movements away from the previous relationships which often trend towards stability and partial equilibrium. Keown-McMullan (1997: 9) noted that organisations will undergo significant change even when they are successful in managing a crisis situation. It is apparent that traditional Newtonian (linear) thinking with its presumption of stability is not able to adequately explain the impact of crises where the previous business trajectory is altered and a new state emerges.

Richardson's (1994) analysis of crisis management in organisations provides another perspective on community adjustment capabilities by drawing on "single" and "double loop" learning approaches (Argyris and Schon, 1978). In the former, the response to disasters involves a linear reorientation 'more' or less in keeping with traditional objectives and traditional responses (Richardson, 1994, 5). Alternatively, the double loop learning approach challenges traditional beliefs about what society and management is and what it should do. This approach recognises that management systems can themselves engender the ingredients of chaos and catastrophe, and that managers must also be more aware and proactively concerned about organisations as the creators of crises. Pike (below) presents a cautionary tale of a destination which suffered a crisis through its inability to recognise that changing government policy could adversely affect it. As Blackman and Ritchie (below) point out, lessons can be learned from the experience of a crisis, or from studying other destinations and organisations which have experienced serious disruption. For example, the absence of any post crisis recovery planning and action following the 1994 volcanic eruption in Rabaul, Papua New Guinea resulted in a slow decline of a destination that was internationally recognised as a dive location. Today, formerly busy hotels lie abandoned and tourism investment has moved elsewhere. Morea (below) argues that crisis recovery requires different approaches depending on whether the onset and impacts of the crisis are sudden or spread over a longer period. Only in this way can impacts of crisis be mitigated and prospects for long term recovery can be more assured (Faulkner and Vikolov 2001).

Social Networks

The third implication of viewing crisis recovery from a systems perspective arises from the view that destinations are networks of stakeholders which may be reconfigured into more efficient structures following a crisis. This is slightly different to the view of Faulkner and Vikulov (2001), who suggested a disaster may have a positive outcome but this was primarily due to new infrastructure rather than realignment or creation of new social networks. Crises may also lead to a more cohesive industry-wide or community-wide response mecha-

nisms, better information flows and indeed the development of new organizational structures (Quarantelli, 1988). The emphasis on the flow of information as a critical issue in crisis management leads to the idea of social network analysis as a means of analysing the structure of this 'flow' of information through communication channels. This is an important element of crisis recovery that needs to be further analysed. For example, Pikkemaat and Peters (2005, 99) discussed the significant role of networks in tourism innovation. 'All experts agree on the most promising vehicle for innovation which is cooperation, alliances and/or networks in various fields such as technology, marketing distribution, and human resources sharing.' In recovering from a crisis the need is often for innovative solutions and clear leadership rather than merely focussing on rebuilding.

As will be demonstrates later in Figure 4 and Subphase 5C in particular, crises may lead to adaptation of the system and its related networks. In this context, an organizational network can be described as a set of interacting organizations that exchange information, share customers, or exchange resources. In the tourism context this involves many companies involved in transport, accommodation, attractions, etc., working together to produce a product. From this perspective, tourism recognises tourism destinations are interactive networks of suppliers of services (Scott & Laws, 2004) that change over time.

As Scott and Cooper (2005) point out, the concept of organizational networks originated in the early sociological writings of Simmel (1908) and the social anthropological work of Radcliffe Brown (1935). These writers developed a structural view on social interaction which highlighted the importance of social organizations, relationships and interactions in influencing individual decisions. Structures are recurring patterns of social relations (Thatcher, 1998). This view may be contrasted with a rationalist perspective that focuses on the attributes and actions of individuals or organizations (Brinton Milward & Provan, 1998).

Social network analysis seeks to define and quantify these relationships. The work of Moreno (1934) indicated that social configurations had definite structures which could be described in 'sociograms' to visualise the flow of information between organizations or the friendships between individuals. This led to the development of graph theory where the relationships between individuals in groups are represented as points and lines and the resulting patterns are described.

Later developments led to the identification of groups of individuals with similar patterns of relationships (blockmodels) and to the use of statistical methods such as multidimensional scaling to transform relationships into social distance and map them in social space. Social network analysis relates the relationships of the individual to the pattern of the network, and provides insight into the interactions between the two (Stokman, 2002). Social network analysis is philosophically related to systems theory (Boulding, 1956), where the properties of the system are derived from the interaction of many components.

Social network analysis delivers a number of useful outcomes. It provides a means of visualizing complex sets of relationships and through simplifying them delivers a useful method for promoting effective collaboration within a group, supporting critical junctures in networks that cross functional, hierarchical, or geographic boundaries; and ensuring integration within groups following strategic restructuring initiatives (Cross et al., 2002). The use of standard methods and questions enables networks of relationships to be compared between regions or over time facilitating the study of dynamic situations. A more ambitious aim is to offer a structural analysis and suggestions for improving network characteristics such as communication flows. As a result, social network analysis overlaps and informs the study of inter-organizational collaboration and cooperation, networks and strategic alliances. It has been used in studies of inter organizational relationships and in the development of policy (Tyler & Dinan, 2001; Coleman, 2002; Pforr, 2002). A social network has been defined as a specific set of linkages among a defined set of persons, with the additional property that the characteristics of these linkages as a whole may be used to interpret the social behaviour of the persons involved (Mitchell, 1969).

From a social network perspective, the tourism system is a network of organizations. The effect of a disaster or crisis is to place stress on these relationships. This stress is also systemic to the extent that the impact of a disaster on one organization or destination may in turn lead to a flow-on effect on others. One reason for this is that competition between companies and destinations is intense and the effect of disaster in one destination will have an effect on related or neighbouring destinations (Lepp and Gibson, 2003). Thus the effect of Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome on Australian tourism destinations was to reduce international visitor numbers from Asia but boost domestic tourism to popular national destinations. A number of authors have examined the effect of a crisis on organizations outside the initial crisis area. Litvin and Alderson (2003), for example, examined the effect of the 9/11 crisis on the Charleston Convention and Visitors Bureau. In that case effective management was able to avert the full extent of the impact by switching promotion expenditure to different markets.

The effect of a crisis on the destination, conceptualized as a network of organizations, is shown in Figure 2. In this example a crisis has the effect of changing the network of relationships between organizations, potentially through loss of some members or the introduction of new ones. In State A (left hand cluster) firms have loose networks often operating independently. In the post crisis situation the need to work together to overcome the effects of the crisis forges new networks creating the situation illustrated in State B (right hand cluster). As a consequence, a crisis may create potentially unpredictable consequences in destination markets.

A related view is that the nature of other relationship types such as cooperation and alliances between stakeholders is important in minimizing or averting the effects of a disaster through better crisis management (Pearson & Clair, 1998; Pforr and Hosie, below). This is related to the established management approach of scanning for problems and avoiding or minimizing their impacts. But it is also related to

FIGURE 2. Conceptualization of the Effect of a Crisis on a Destination System

Crisis

Destination
boundary

● New Organization

○ Existing Organization

——— Relationship
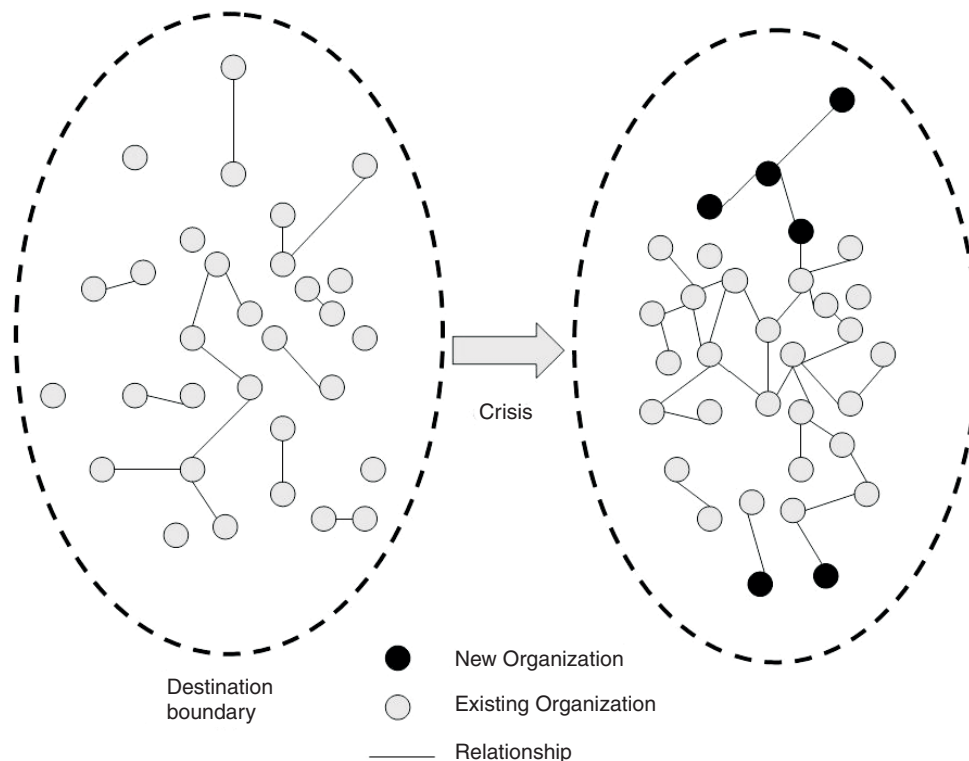
the idea that a network of organizations that cooperate together may be able to better manage the effects of a crisis. This approach is similar to the socio-technical systems perspective and has been examined in a study of social networks and a crisis in the construction sector (Loosemore, 1998).

PHASES OF CRISIS MANAGEMENT

From the preceding discussion, it is apparent that new perspectives on the operations of the post recovery phase have emerged and these need to be incorporated into existing models where possible. Coles (2003) notes that both Sonmez (1998) and Boyd (2000) offer conceptualisations of recovery in which, after falls in demand induced by terrorism, tourism production and consumption, levels come full circle back to those enjoyed before the event. Such expectations echo the advice offered by the World Tourism Organisation (WTO, 1998: 156) which can be described as the standard perspective on recovering from a crisis through a series of remedial steps. The WTO phase model summarised in Figure 3 advises users how to deal with media and tourist responses to the incident, how to mitigate negative impacts of loss of visitors to the area, and the use of media techniques to restore 'the normal pattern.' However, this model in its attempt to be accessible glosses over important complexities in crisis management. As Coles (2003, 177-178) noted "First . . . crises associated with terrorism are likely to be different to other forms of crisis. Second, the model's inherent linearity and the reduction of recovery to a set of practically automatic steps is stark. Finally, and most importantly, it views the events as practically ring-fenced temporally, so there is a "normal pattern" to which production and consumption can return."

Other models show the sequence of rescue, restoration of infrastructure and then the rebuilding of markets. These phase models share the premise that recovery equates to a return to normal operations, with a resumption of the actual or predicted trend of growth in the organisation's business activities. The crisis is itself regarded as the unit of analysis in these approaches.

In the field of tourism research relatively few studies have applied established crisis models. One of the most comprehensive tourism disaster management frameworks in tourism was developed by Faulkner (2001) who synthesised crisis situations based on research by Fink (1986: 20), Keown-McMullan (1997: 9) and Weiner and Kahn (1972: 21) and identified a number of phases in crisis situations as illustrated in Figure 4.

The alternative systems perspective is based on the idea of a continuously evolving system where (gradual) change is endemic but a crisis may suddenly result in a fundamentally different state. From this perspective a return to normality is not necessarily the required (or even desired) endpoint. A crisis is seen as the result of one form of change and the effects of a crisis are not confined to its immediate temporal or geographical vicinity. These changes may be positive or negative but certainly the subsequent state may be different from proceeding ones, and importantly, the changes that occur were unplanned from the perspective of the organisations strategic management. In these terms the effect of a disaster as a catastrophic change event is much more likely to trigger a change of state than other 'lesser' events. This perspective is presented in the case study of a flooding disaster in Katherine (Faulkner & Vikulov, 2001) previously referred to. In that case the disaster was seen as leading to the opportunity to change the quality of accommodation and other infrastructure in the tourism sector. However the opportunities for realignment of the system through changes to or development of new networks were not considered.

A DISASTER MANAGEMENT FRAMEWORK

In this paper we elaborate on phase 5 of Faulkner's model by indicating that longer term recovery consists of three sub-phases, 5A–recovery of damaged infrastructure; 5B–marketing responses; and 5C–adaptations to the system itself. In his original work Faulkner considered the long term recovery phase as important but did not elaborate to any great extent. In terms of the research reported in this volume it is necessary to examine this phase of the

FIGURE 3. Phase Model of a Tourism Crisis
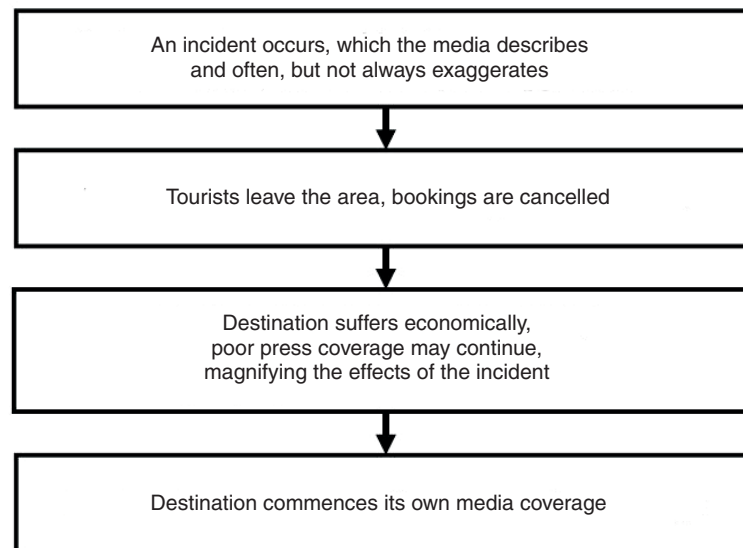
Based on WTO 1998, page 156.

model in more detail with a view to identify specific subphases in the long term recovery phase.

In many cases the three subphases identified above have to occur simultaneously and are often the responsibility of different groups of individuals and authorities who may or may not be acting in a coordinated manner. For example, in the case of Cyclone Larry hitting Northern Queensland in 2006 (see Prideaux et al., below) Subphases 5A (Recovery of damaged infrastructure) and 5B (Marketing) were implemented simultaneously but by different groups. This may lead to confusion but in cases where there is the potential for further loss of life and damage to property, Phase B can be expected to receive relatively little attention by the authorities, forcing marketing authorities to initiate their own activities. Later and once the danger to life and property has past more attention can be focused on Subphase B which will then evolve into Subphase C when the new realities become apparent. Subphase B is a critical element of Phase 5 for even if damaged infrastructure is rebuilt the failure to convince travellers that the destination is reopened for business will result in market failure and economic loss.

It is entirely likely that during Phase 5 the firms and organisations involved in re-establishing the destination will develop new networks as suggested in Figure 4. If this is the case, the previous system will undergo change and a new system will emerge that will, to a greater or lesser extent, differ from the shape and composition that existed in the pre crisis period.

A fuller understanding of the range of recovery challenges may therefore be obtained from more advanced theoretical perspectives which see the organisation as a member of one or more functional networks which are usually characterised as dynamic and complex. This perspective is evolutionary, and does not presume that there is a single solution to a crisis in which the recovered state is a resumption of normal patterns of operation. Instead, the analysis is concerned with the effects of a crisis on methods of operations, relationships with network partners, the ways in which these develop as responses to the crisis, and the emergence of new states of operation which may include some previous partners as well as new partners. In this mode of analysis, interest focuses on a number of issues including: the system and its

FIGURE 4. Faulkner's Tourism Disaster Management Framework (Simplified)

Stage	Phase
1	Pre-event phase: disaster contingency plans, scenarios or probability assessments play a major role in the disaster management strategy
2	Prodromol phase: the disaster is imminent and warning systems and command centres are established. In this second phase contingency plan actions are initiated.
3	Emergency phase: disaster effects are felt and actions are necessary to protect people or property in the tourism destination.
4	Intermediate phase: short-term and immediate needs of people have to be addressed by emergency and rescue teams. A clear media communication strategy is crucial in this phase.
5	Long-term (recovery) phase: the damaged infrastructure has to be rebuilt and environmentally damaged areas have to be reconstructed.. • 5A- recovery of damaged infrastructure; Includes roads, water, electricity, hotels, transport and other services • 5B - marketing responses: by individual firms, DMOs, STOs, NTOs • 5C – adaptations to the system itself: as rebuilding occurs
6	Resolution phase: this phase corresponds to Smith's (1990) feedback loop where existing assessment methods or contingency plans are improved.

Source Based on Faulkner 2001

boundaries and their permeability; on the networked and social relationships on which the organisation depends; a historical perspective which can be used to understand the ways in which social relationships may amplify the psychological support or vulnerability of the organisation as it deals with a crisis; and finally on the sources and forms of leadership that are used to deal with crisis situations. This also raises the question of how organisations

cooperate, and how they learn from and share experiences. Many of the papers which follow present detailed analysis of these issues (see particularly Smith, Carmichael and Batovsky; Moreira; Pike; Blackman and Ritchie; Carlsen and Hughes; Carlsen and Liburd, below).

THE EFFECT OF CRISES ON INTENTIONS TO TRAVEL

A major aspect of the special challenges of post crisis recovery can be understood by examining the reasons why a tourist service or destination suffers loss of business after a crisis (see Prideaux, Coglan and Falco-Mammone, below). In some situations, such as destruction in areas prone to wind storms (hurricanes, typhoons and cyclones) there is a need to analyse the significance of an organisation's market orientation to enhance the success of their recovery efforts (Martin-Consuegra, Esteban and Molina, (below). Tourism is usually a discretionary activity, and one which tourists choose over alternative ways of spending time and money. Confidence needs to be restored to a level where intending visitors believe that disruption has been minimised and their holiday investment of time and money is safe. If visitors perceive that there is a risk they are more than likely to select an alternative destination as highlighted by Hunter-Jones, Jeffs and Smith (below). There are also conditions which lead tourists to decide not to travel, or to avoid particular destinations (Floyd et al., 2003). This will be of particular concern in Subphase 5B of Figure 4.

Chief amongst the avoidance factors are risks to tourists themselves, and the likelihood of being in regions where epidemics or wars are raging, or which are in turmoil. In contemporary society, the 24 hour news services such as CNN feature and repeat scenes of devastation and disaster, so that potential travellers rapidly become aware of incidents occurring literally on the other side of the world. Thus the destination suffering a crisis becomes in effect 'demarketed' under a deluge of negative, if not hostile, publicity. In one example of this effect Vitic and Ringer (below) discuss the need for Montenegro to overcome its 'clouded image' after its recent period of conflict. Further, mis-

takes or delays in responding to the needs of those enmeshed in the drama of a disaster stimulate more adverse media interest, and increasingly, governments in countries which generate tourist flows feel compelled to issue advice to their own nationals against travelling to destinations under stress. This can have significant impacts as highlighted by Smith, Carmicheal and Batovsky (below) in their analysis of the impacts of the US Government's new Western Hemisphere Travel Initiative Passport requirements on Canada as a transborder weekend destination.

At the core of these recovery approaches is an acknowledgement of the need to change travellers' (mis) perceptions of the destination or organisation. Volo (below) questions whether an individual destination can achieve this through its website. A more comprehensive marketing strategy, particularly at the destination level, that also includes promotion, advertising and public relations is required. Attention to funding and long term monitoring of the effectiveness of this strategy is also required.

Floyd et al. (2003, 32-34) note that five groups of risk factors are pertinent to travel decision: war and political instability, health concerns, crime, terrorism, and natural disasters. They found that "Travel experience emerged as the most significant predictor of travel intentions." Critiquing the Travel Industry Association of America's persuasive advertising campaign they point out that "intentions to travel in the 12 months following 9-11 were to the risk of family, friends and associates disapproving of vacation choices. Referring Pearce's Travel Career Ladder, they recommend that recovery marketing should target experienced travellers who "would require less attention to safety and security issues."

Thus, a communications-led approach intended to ameliorate travellers' perceptions of risk in a specific area is often a key element in tourism recovery strategies. See Ladkin, Fyall, Fletcher and Shipway; Niineinen and Gatsou; Chacko and Marcell; Carlsen and Hughes; and Armstrong and Ritchie for analyses of recent marketing led recovery programmes (below). Lehto, Douglas and Park (below) analyse the advantages of working with destination stakeholders to mediate natural disasters.

DISCUSSION

In this paper crisis is set within a wider systems perspective. In its normal state a system is seen in dynamic balance, given that at any time there will be a number of factors affecting it such as technological change and changes in consumer preferences. Any change to one part of the system may have an effect on other parts of the system. Where these impacts are small and recognised, as occurs when new technologies are introduced, the system usually responds in a predictable manner. When unpredictable events such as a crisis impacts on the system's stability, balance and predictability are lost until a new level of balance is achieved. The foregoing discussion emphasises the editors' view that the outcome of a crisis may not be a return to a normal situation, as parts of the system are likely to have changed. It is pertinent to this discussion that Carlsen and Liburd (below) call for the re-analysis of previously published case studies arguing that they are an important source of knowledge which could provide better insights into crisis recovery management when re-examined from this perspective.

An issue highlighted in this collection of studies is the measurement of the success of a tourism crisis recovery programme. The blunt instruments of visitor arrivals and visitor spending do not: adequately differentiate between recovery of different market segments; indicate the variable recovery rates of stakeholders; identify changes to the tourism system; or assist in understanding the resilience or otherwise of the system. Most crucially, there appears to be no way of measuring a tourism organisation's ability to learn from past crises, either one it has experienced directly or those which have afflicted partners or competitors. Yet improved responsiveness to future crisis situations, as well as the potential to recover from them more rapidly, depends on a full understanding of the complexity and dynamics of crisis situations and a willingness to take a positive approach to solving future problems.

This paper challenges the standard perspective that recovering from a crisis requires only a series of remedial steps to return to the previous normality. The WTO phase model discussed earlier is typical of this approach, first dealing with casualties of the incident, then restoring infrastructure and later rebuilding markets. As demonstrated in this collection of papers this is often not the case. Accordingly, a fuller understanding of the range of challenges that may occur requires more advanced theoretical perspectives which see the organisation as a member of a wider system operating in the context of a variety of partner organisations and as a member of one or more dynamic and complex functional networks. This perspective is evolutionary, and does not presume that there is a unique solution to a crisis. Instead, the analysis is concerned with the effects of a crisis on operations, relationships with network partners, the ways in which these develop as responses to the crisis, and the emergence of new states of operation, with some previous partners disconnected and others joining the new state. In this mode of analysis, interest focuses on the following aspects of the system: its boundaries and their permeability; the networked and social relationships on which the organisation depends; the historical perspectives give understanding to the ways in which social relationships may amplify the psychological support or vulnerability of the organisation as it deals with a crisis; and on the sources of and forms of leadership that are required to deal with crisis situations. This also raises the questions of how organisations cooperate, and how they learn from and shared experience.

CONCLUSION

The major objective of this collection of research, and of this editorial paper, is to focus the attention of researchers and managers on the recovery phase following a tourism crisis. However, as noted earlier, there is a burgeoning literature on general tourism crisis management, and it is important to recognise that considerable advances have been made in preplanning to avoid or to mitigate future disasters.

While some of the crises which trigger the need for tourism recovery marketing originate as humanitarian crises and require urgent responses to the immediate needs of residents as well as tourists, others have their genesis in nature. Initially, the responsibility of managers is

to deal with the humanitarian aspects of crisis to the best of their abilities. Attention must then be given to the infrastructure that supports the tourism industry and importantly, its marketing to alter the perceptions of visitors that the destination is again open for business. Early recovery of the tourism sector is important particularly for countries and regions that depend on tourism.

The papers in this collection demonstrate that new theoretical insight can be gained by examining how organisations achieve recovery as members of dynamic functional networks. This evolutionary perspective is concerned with the way that organization and the system in which they operate adapts to the pressures and opportunities presented by the crisis.

It is apparent that no ideal template exists or will ever be devised to deal with crises because of their varied nature. It is also apparent that understanding the impact of crisis on organisations and destinations is the key to effective post event recovery. Unfortunately, the future will bring with it new crises and disasters and these will in turn be reported in future academic discourses. It is the hope of the authors of this paper and indeed of the papers that comprise this volume, that the learning recorded here will be used as a base for future disaster and crises research and will assist organisations and destinations to better plan and implement post crisis recovery marketing.

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