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Resilience frameworks in tourism studies: a literature review

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Abstract: In recent years, there has been an increased interest in studies on economic resilience. There have been several contributions from scholars who have applied theoretical frameworks on various social and economic fields. Among these is the subject of tourism. Using a traditional narrative style, this paper summarises the main findings concerning resilience and tourism that have been published in academic journals over recent years and it provides some critical reflections about the research directions. For the selection of papers in this literature review, the author has considered those studies that have analysed the relationships between tourism and resilience within a tourist destination, in a framework of resistance and / or a recovery from shocks. The main results of this study will allow for one to acquire a complete picture of the studies in this line of research. This may be useful for future studies on resilience in the tourism sector.

Keywords: *resilience; literature; review*

JEL Codes: L83; Z32

1. Introduction

Tourism is often considered to be a useful tool for promoting economic and social development, but at the same time, its strength can significantly influence the structures and the processes of ecosystems, while deteriorating the natural resources that are non-renewable (Lacitignola et al., 2007). In addition, the tourism industry is particularly sensitive to destabilising forces, such as war (Butler & Suntikul, 2012; Mansfeld, 1999), together with the economic complexity that happens in the transition from a local market to a global market (Holling, 2001; Milne & Ateljevic, 2010), as well as with natural occurring disasters (Beeton, 2006; Ritchie 2004; Scott & Laws, 2005). However, some systems can demonstrate an ability to adapt to these disturbances and this is an obvious characteristic of resilience (Buikstra et al., 2010; Cumming et al., 2005; Gunderson, 2000; Magis, 2010; Plodinec, 2009).

The concept of resilience has emerged from the ecological sciences (Holling, 1973; Gunderson & Holling, 2002). It has always attracted more attention among researchers for its usefulness as a framework

for understanding the abilities of a community to face crises and systemic shocks. As an interdisciplinary concept, resilience has been applied to different contexts, such as communities (Maguire & Hagan, 2007), human organisations (Sriskandarajah, et al., 2010) and industries (Cochrane, 2010). Resilience has also been applied as a lens for understanding the responses to different types of changes (Benard, 2002), including social traumas (Bonanno, 2004), environment deterioration (Berkes & Jolly, 2002), and economic and political changes (Simmie & Martin, 2010).

Resiliency is the ability of a system (or a subject) to absorb disturbances and to learn and to adapt to the turbulence in order to grow and become more dynamic (Holling 1973; Walker & Salt, 2012). Increasing the adaptability of economic systems and the capacities of communities, and hence, the growth of resilience, are necessary conditions in the light of fluctuating economies and global threats (such as climate changes and the loss of biodiversity) (Berkes et al., 2008; Gallopin, 2006; Rockstrom et al., 2009). Moreover, sustainable development is also one of the most common prescriptions for making a tourism destination more resilient.

Tourist destinations and economic players of global tourism compare themselves with different models of governance, when trying to deal with climate changes, demographic changes and economic crises. While the possible paths of adaptation to these impacts have been extensively analysed in the literature, in recent years, the number of studies has increased when addressing the complexities of the governance of tourism, the development of destinations, as well as their management, all from the point of view of resilience.

The aim of this work has been to assemble a review of the studies on the relationships between resilience and tourism. In particular, the work will examine those studies that have analysed the external shocks on tourist destinations, together with their effects on a particular territory, by reviewing conceptual frameworks of resiliency, and thus, highlighting useful strategies in order to restart these tourist destinations.

The paper is structured as follows: the section about "Tourism and Resilience" names the principal issues that are related to tourism Resilience research. The section "Literature Review" covers the existing literature that has analysed the resilience of tourism destinations. The paper will be concluded with some recommendations for further research.

The author hopes that the objectives and the results of the present study will be useful to future researchers on the resilience of tourism sectors.

2. Tourism and Resilience

Tourism is increasingly characterised by dynamism and complexity. There are several factors that contribute to this condition: globalisation, the development of technologies, transport, together with changes in the labour markets. Such complexities are more evident when we consider a tourist destination from a structural point of view. It can be understood as a system that is composed of a number of elements, with different types of relationships (Baggio, 2008). A tourist destination is sensitive to several factors that make it vulnerable to shocks. This would be a place-specific nature of the tourist activities, the dependency on tourism as a primary livelihood, the marketing strategies of international tour operators, and the levels of seasonality (Calgaro & Lloyd, 2008; Knox & Marston, 2001). This sensitivity to the complexity of the sector and the interrelationships between the different components of the system-destination, justify the application of a resilience theory. This concept is useful for understanding how tourist destinations are able to respond effectively and to adapt positively to sustainable development path, to increasing global changes and disturbances (Farrell & Twining-Ward, 2004; Tyrrell & Johnston, 2008). However, the link between

resilience and sustainable development remains a fruitful evolving field of study. While sustainability is a key point for tourism research, the concept of resilience is relatively young in the literature on tourism development.

The resilience theory has been studied by many researchers in tourism sectors since the early 1990s (Sheppard et al., 2014). The concept of resilience was initially analysed in terms of tourism market fluctuations (O'Hare & Barrett, 1994) and the impacts of tourism on the environment (Nyström et al., 2000). Subsequently, in the last decade, the resilient studies applied to destination tourism are increased. Scholarly attention has focused on the resilience that is linked to climate and environmental changes, together with the related sustainability issues in tourism (Klint et al., 2012), environmental disasters, and risk management (Biggs et al., 2012a; Hall, 2010; Badoc-Gonzales et al., 2021), particularly in a spatial perspective (Cochrane, 2010; Larsen et al., 2011). Most recently, an emerging stream of literature has been examining those factors that enhance resilience in tourism governance systems.

This growing interest has manifested itself, in spite of some critical positions on Resilience conceptual vagueness (Strunz, 2012). It has led to the development of discussions about the usefulness of theoretical frameworks of resilience as a concept that is needed in order to study the impacts of tourism (Strickland-Munro et al., 2010).

This reflection on resilience, when in relation to tourism and its sustainability, inevitably involves the discussion of three important aspects. These would be the relationships that are observed between resilience and tourist destinations (meant as systems), the relationships between communities and resilience, and finally, the issues of vulnerability.

The social and economic impact that produces tourism in an area and in particular, in a destination, is the result of a complex process of actions that stem crosswise, by tourists, by the host community, and by the characteristics of the destination. These relationships have been illustrated by several authors (McMinn, 1998; Farrell & Twining-Ward, 2004; Faulkner & Russell, 1997). The features and the effects of this complex system of relationships can easily be understood within theoretical frameworks, such as socio-ecological systems (Gunderson & Holling, 2002). These outlooks allow for us to consider more carefully, the fragility of a destination and the risks that are associated with the excessive pressures of tourism (Kerr, 1997; Nelson et al., 2007; Cheer et al., 2019). An analysis of tourism from within this systemic vision, also allows for us to consider the nonlinearity of tourism, that is, its complex interactions with other internal and external elements of the system, framing those issues in a theme of chaos and complexity (Farrell & Twining Ward 2004 and 2005). It is precisely this aspect that represents the main differences between socio-ecological resilience and the resilience of other forms of systems. It recognises the inevitability of changes and embraces the transformation and the adaptation thereby, in order to address and manage the changes (Hegney et al., 2007).

The second aspect to consider when addressing a study of resilience in tourism, concerns the relationship between resilience and the community. This relationship is very important, because long-term resilience plans that are placed in order to ensure strength cannot be practiced without an understanding of the underlying socio-political processes (Cutter et al., 2000; Thomalla et al., 2006). In this sense, when considering the relationships between resilience and tourism, the role of the host community also needs to be analysed. It must be specified that resilience can be defined in both systemic and individual terms. When in a relationship to individuals, resilience is seen as the ability to personally cope and recover from adversity. It is embedded in clinical dimensions, development (children and youth resiliency), subjective well-being, and the social aspects of a job (Sheppard & Williams, 2016). Resilience can be thought of as a mix of personal and behavioural qualities, rather than specific characteristics (Ayala & Manzano, 2014), and as so,

it is an important quality for entrepreneurs (Sutcliffe & Vogus, 2003; Magnano et al., 2022).

Community resilience is the ability of community components to use internal resources in order to guide their communities within a changing and precarious environment (Berkes & Ross, 2013). Thus, community resilience concepts refer to the ability of communities to cope with stress, overcome adversity, and to positively adapt and to recover from negative experiences. This can all be the result of learning and experience.

In the context of community resilience, the ability to recover can be considered through economic, ecological, social, and institutional dimensions (Berkes & Ross, 2013; Martini & Platania, 2021; Paton & Johnston, 2001). For the governments of a resilient territory, the governance of the destination must support the preparation of "noise", through the creation and the maintenance of diversity (e.g. by strengthening the decentralised processes of social learning). It must respond to disturbances by creating and maintaining flexibility (e.g. by strengthening the central collective actions). Therefore, the amount of resilience in a community can be determined by the capacities of the community to buffer unexpected disruptions (Adger, 2000), its ability to self-organise (Walker et al., 2004), and its learning and the adaption of its abilities (Folke, 2006). A high degree of a combination of all of these elements leads to higher levels of persistence and a robustness of the system (such as tourism) (Folke 2006). The “Experiences of Community-Based Tourism” (CBT) is an example that these communities can improve their living conditions, without disappearing and without irreversibly damaging the environment (Musavengane & Kloppers, 2020; Cáceres-Feria et al., 2021). The aims of CBT are multiple and ambitious: “community” empowerment and ownership, a conservation of natural and cultural resources, social and economic development, and quality visitor experiences” (Hiwasaki, 2006, p.677). The pressure of tourism on a community could enable a society to pass from an unstable economy to a stable economy, but it would be necessary that this development remains characterised by the so-called "triple bottom line", in which policies and actions attempt to balance the social, economic and environmental costs and benefits (Hall & Lew, 2009). This attention to detail is vital for communities in order to protect and promote what is precious and essential for their survival (Amir et al., 2015).

Studies on resilience are complementary to vulnerability, which is an important issue in tourism sectors, especially with respect to climate changes (Batabyal, 2016; Moreno & Becken, 2009; Nyaupane & Chhetri, 2009). According to Turner, vulnerability is “the degree to which a system, a subsystem, or a system component, is likely to experience harm, due to exposures to a hazard, either as a perturbation or a stress/stressor” (Turner et al., 2003: 8074). In this definition, it is evident that there are links with resilience.

Other authors have identified vulnerability according to the following factors: (1) exposure, which is the degree of risk that a system faces from natural disasters; (2) sensitivity, which is a system’s ability to defend itself against disasters; and (3) an adaptive capacity, which is a system’s ability to recover from extreme events (Adger, 2006; Cutter et al., 2000; Gabriel-Campos et al., 2021; Gallopìn, 2006; Tsao & Ni, 2016; Turner et al., 2003). In addition, for Cochrane (2010), a resilience theory is a framework and “it is possible to analyse the factors which cause vulnerability in systems and by extension, the factors which can enhance their capacity to absorb disturbances”. In this way, the two frameworks then appear complementary. According to other studies, these two approaches differ substantially (Becken, 2013). It could be a resilience study on complex systems, with more emphasis on the size of social and governance aspects (Miller et al., 2010). As Becken (2013) clarified, the goal of resilience is to increase robustness in a dynamic sense, rather than to support stability. In contrast, studies on vulnerability have focused primarily on a reduction of vulnerability for specific groups (Nelson et al., 2007) and they have tried to understand the causes and the dimensions of the phenomena. In addition, considerations on vulnerabilities often result

in managerial aspects that are related to the management of shocks, regardless of the development paths that are undertaken by destinations (Cioccio & Michael 2007).

3. Literature Review of Tourism and Resilience

3.1. Aims and significance of the review

The aim of this paper is to present a review of the research that has considered the behaviour of tourist destinations in the face of shocks of a different nature, and to investigate those effects in terms of the resilience of community, of the economic actors or of tangible and intangible resources.

The significance of this review is threefold: first, despite the fact that the effect of a shock on a touristic destination in the resilience framework has been recognized, a systematic literature review in resilience and tourism is long overdue. By mapping what is known, this review allows to identify gaps and opportunities for future research. Second, this review advances existing understanding of the different mode of the resilience framework is applied on the touristic destination behavior in front to change.

Third, the resilience framework is strictly related to sustainable development. The different approach presented in the review are usefull to have a complete picture of the implemented policies to deal with the crisis and the change.

3.2 Methodology

There are three different kind of literature review methodology: systematic review, meta-analysis and traditional. In this paper we use the last one, the traditional narrative style, which can summarize, explain and interpret evidence on a particular topic/question, because the method is more malleable and hence comprehensive (Mays et al., 2005).

A search on major citation databases (Web of Science and Scopus) (van der Zee and Vanneste, 2015), by using appropriate keywords ("resilience" AND "tourism" in keyword field), returned more of 580 entries. We next considered only studies before the 2022 (from 2021), published in referred journal articles in economics, sociology, management, finance, ecology and environmental areas. Regarding the period, following Modica and Reggiani (2015), that state in the 1980s and 1990s economic resilience did not receive the level of scientific attention, we decide to consider the contribution over the last 15 years. The results of this selection are 207 (web of science) + 271 articles (scopus) that were published between 2007 and 2021. This underlines the popularity of this topic and the growing academic interest for its applications in the field of tourism. We next considered only studies on the resilience of tourism destinations, excluding literature review articles. Finally, we consider only 186 articles.

In order to simplify the reading, the articles have been organised into subject areas. The topics that have been reviewed and a list of the references are provided in Tables 1-6. The section order was designed as being a logical way to follow the structures of the papers on resilience.

4. Review findings

4.1 Theoretical Framework on Resilience

The first elements to classify the different studies were related to the theoretical reflections on the

resilience definition (table 1). A first consideration that must be made is that several studies lacked a clear theoretical framework, which refers to one of the different interpretations of resiliency that was presented at the beginning of this paper. This theoretical clarity was also evident in another way. Many of the studies have had no clear theoretical approaches and for this reason they were not of an immediate or easy arrangement.

The first group of authors set the study of tourism destinations within the Socio-Ecological Systems (SES) theory (Folke et al., 2005; Walker et al., 2006). They analysed resilience, as was stated by Holling, in since it was a measurement of the abilities of a system to persist in the presence of changes and disturbances (Holling, 1973). The need to refer to the SES theory would seem to be connected, for some authors, to the studies of community resilience that were related to the tourist phenomena (Ruiz-Ballesteros, 2011). This is no surprise, because tourist destinations are the first examples of a SES theory, in which the interactions between resources, both social (including economic) and natural, can take many different configurations (Alvarez & Cortes-Vazquez, 2020; Becken, 2013). In this sense, references to the SES theory allow for one to explore the ability of socio-ecological systems to face, proactively, unexpected changes.

According to Ruiz-Ballesteros (2011), the framework that relate to the SES theory has identified four factors that can influence the development of resilience in a tourist community. They concern living next to the changes and the uncertainties, the support diversities for reorganisation and renewal, combinations of different knowledge, and the creation of opportunities for self- organisation. The nourishment of these factors strengthens the SES theory and reduces the vulnerability (Ruiz-Ballesteros, 2011). For Larsen et al. (2011), a link to the SES theory was also necessary for when the roles of the stakeholders in a tourism destination agency are deepened. These authors, in fact, refer to the conventional epistemology of social–ecological systems, in which a stakeholder agency is perceived as a practice of individuals or groups (the 'informal' domain) that relate to institutional structures (the formal domain).

Table 1. Summary of the arguments and the articles that have been reviewed - Theoretical Frameworks on Resilience.

Subject Areas	References
Resilience and Socio-Ecological Systems (SES)	Alvarez & Cortes-Vazquez (2020); Araral (2013); Bangwayo-Skeete & Skeete (2021); Becken (2013); Bui et al. (2020); Diaz-Aguilar & Escalera-Reyes (2020); Espeso-Molinero & Pastor-Alfonso (2020); Felicetti (2016); Hassan et al. (2019); Jones et al., (2011); Kim et al. (2017); King et al., 2021; Kutzner (2019); Larsen et al., (2011); Prayag et al. (2020); Roca Bosch & Villares Junyent (2014); Ruiz-Ballesteros (2011); Ruiz-Ballesteros & Tejedor (2020); Stotten (2021); Uddin et al. (2021); Wang et al. (2015); Weis et al. (2021).
Community Resilience	Almeida-Garcia et al. (2020); Amir et al., (2015); Bakas (2017); Bec et al., (2016); Caceres-Feria et al. (2021); Cahyanto et al. (2021a); Cerquetti & Cutrini (2021); Erdmenger (2019); Gabriel-Campos et al. (2021); Guo et al. (2018); Helgadottir et al. (2019); Lee et al. (2021); Matarrita-Cascante & Trejos (2013); Musavengane (2019); Musavengane & Kloppers (2020); Pilquiman-Vera et al. (2020); Posch et al. (2019); Powell et al. (2018); Pyke et al. (2018); Sheppard & Williams (2016); Sisneros-Kidd et al. (2019); Stotten et al. (2021); Sydnor-Bousso et al., (2011); Torres-Alruiz et al. (2018); Wakil et al. (2021); Yang et al. (2021a); Yang et al., (2021b).
Organisational Resilience	Bhaskara & Filimonau (2021); Biggs et al., (2015); Chowdhury et al. (2019); Dahles & Susilowati (2015); Mandal et al. (2021); Melian-Alzola et al. (2020); Njuguna et al. (2021); Orchiston et al., (2016); Pathak & Joshi (2021); Senbeto & Hon (2020).
Resilience and Sustainability	Awedyk & Niezgoda (2018); Badoc-Gonzales et al. (2021); Barata-Salgueiro & Guimarães (2020); Chen et al. (2021); Cheung & Li (2019); Choi et al. (2021); Coghlan & Prideaux (2009); Holladay & Powell (2013); Hu et al. (2021); Jimenez-Medina et al. (2021); Keahey (2019); Lambert et al., (2010); Sheppard & Williams (2017); Sobaih et al. (2021).
Resilience and Vulnerability	Breiling (2021); Brown et al. (2018); Calgaro & Lloyd (2008); Espiner & Becken (2014); Filimonau & De Coteau (2020); Kim & Marcouiller (2015); Liu-Lastres et al. (2020); Mackay & Spencer (2017); McCartney et al. (2021); Pyke et al., (2016); Pyke et al., (2021); Tsao & Ni (2016); van der Veeken et al. (2016).

Source: Author elaboration

In this theoretical space, the relationship between SES and the stakeholders present in the area is very interesting. Ruiz-Ballesteros & Tejedor (2020) argues that in order to understand the effect of community-based tourism (CBT) on sustainability, the resilience framework is useful as a theoretical-methodological resource suitable for this purpose. The authors focus on two elements related to CBT: (1) diversification of productive activities; and (2) collective participation in tourism, thus highlighting the contribution of CBT to the resilience of the socio-ecosystem and its coherence.

There was also an agreement in the SES theory literature that regions are an appropriate scale for improving ecological and social resilience (Yorque et al., 2002). Jones et al. (2011), in particular, starting the definition of social resilience and defined regional resilience as the capacity of a region to cope with disturbances and changes. It was also said that regional planning that was focused on the development of tourism required careful consideration. This thoughtfulness was because of the diversity of the groups that

are affected by tourism, the organisational requirements of a destination over time, and the wide range of areas which are affected by the various changing circumstances (Farrell & Twining-Ward, 2005; Schianetz et al., 2007). Resilience within the SES theory derives a line of study that considers the resilience of communities to long-term structural changes that are driven by tourism (see for example Amir et al., 2015; Bec et al., 2016; Sheppard & Williams, 2016; Sydnor-Bousso et al., 2011). Community resilience is often defined in terms of the physical infrastructure, together with the economic and community resources that are able to respond to adversity (Sheppard & Williams, 2016; Paton & Johnston, 2001). Community resilience explores the opportunities that can emerge from changes (Berkes & Ross, 2013) and it integrates both the social and environmental systems, drawing from the socio-ecological interpretations of resilience (Magis, 2010). Caceres-Feria et al. (2021) illustrate the relationship between community, resilience and tourism through CBT, an activity which, if organized and managed locally, can help to cope with the crisis and support recovery processes. Close to the resilience of communities, we found some studies that showed the resilience of community organisations. The term "organisational resilience" has emerged as an important concept in disaster management literature (McManus, et al., 2008; Smit & Wandel, 2006). It refers to the capacity of organisations to adapt to disturbances and to seize the opportunities that emerge from the changed environment. The studies of Biggs et al. (2015) on the resilience of coral reef tourism enterprises, Orchiston et al. (2016) on tourist sectors, and Pathak & Joshi (2021) on the relationship between psychological capital and organizational resilience during COVID-19, have been examples. The fourth group of studies have explored some aspects of community resilience and they have analysed the relationships between resilience and sustainability. A definition of sustainable development for tourism-based communities is the "triple bottom line", in which policies balance the social, economic and environmental costs, together with the benefits (Hall & Lew, 2009). Sustainable development is one of the most required assumptions for making a community more resilient, that is, a sustainable community is more resilient than a community that has not adopted significant sustainable development policies. Sustainability is referred to both destinations as a whole and in parts of it. Holladay & Powell (2013), in some communities in the Commonwealth of Dominica, have examined the resilience and the sustainability of community tourism development. Lambert et al. (2010) have shown that changes may affect the sustainability of whale-watching operators, from a resilience perspective, while Coghlan & Prideaux (2009) studied health and the resilience of reef ecosystems. Awedyk & Niezgoda (2018) propose new resilience planning techniques relevant to the implementation of sustainable development, which include scenario planning for the development of future strategies, for more dynamic activities, in regions that attract large numbers of tourists. Vulnerability and its relationships with resilience has been another line of study. In these researches, a theoretical approach that was based on the need to study the vulnerability of tourist destinations, as to the degree to which an exposure unit (human groups, ecosystems and communities) is susceptible to harm, due to an exposure to perturbation or stress and the ability of that exposure unit to cope, recover, or fundamentally adapt. The theoretical justification is that the design of resilience is not effective without an understanding of the underlying socio-political processes and the environmental linkages that underpin vulnerability (Cutter et al., 2000; Thomalla et al., 2006; Turner et al., 2003; Pyke et al., 2021; Tsao & Ni 2016; van der Veeken et al. (2016). The vulnerability of a community or group is determined by three dynamic and inter-connected dimensions: exposure, sensitivity, and resilience (Turner et al., 2003).

4.2 Resilience Dimension

The second reading key concerns the dimensions of resilience (table 2). It seems evident that this is crucial to the researchers for the existence of a shock of any type (economic, environmental, social), which justifies the interest of scholars. The shock dimensions and the conditions of the system's pre-post crisis (resistance and recovery) have been predominantly investigated. Most of the studies did not make a distinction so precise. Several authors have considered various shock affects, or the subjects whose might suffer in the tourist destinations. They have examined the consequences. There is, therefore, no precise examination of the stages of resistance and recovery. This has not been shown in the literature. In the first group of studies that were analysed, the question of research was limited to understanding those factors that enabled or enhanced the resilience of tourism destinations and for their own characteristics that appeared sensitive (Biggs et al., 2015; Cirer-Costa, 2021; Holladay & Powell, 2013; Ruiz-Ballesteros, 2011; Wyss et al., 2015; Zeng et al., 2005), or to define theoretical frameworks that could help to understand the modes of adaptation of the particular tourist destinations (Lew, 2014). Cirer-Costa (2021) for example, highlights the importance of a competent business community and a social consensus able to cope with the disadvantages of tourism development for the local population while Sheppard & Williams (2016) took into account several shocks of various kinds: they tried to understand the factors that allowed for destinations to endure different moments of crises. Other studies have illustrated those factors and they have determined the vulnerabilities and the resilience (resistance and recovery) to natural shocks and disasters (seismic risk, climate changes, tsunami, war, etc.). They have all analysed the ante and post periods in terms of planning and development (Burnett & Johnston, 2020; Calgaro & Lloyd, 2008; Hillmer-Pegram, 2014; Kim & Marcouiller, 2015; Luthe et al., 2012; Orchiston, 2013).

Table 2. Summary of the arguments and the articles that have been reviewed - Resilience Dimensions.

Subject Areas	References
Resistance and Recovery	Barata-Salgueiro & Guimarães (2020); Bernini et al. (2020); Biggs et al., (2015); Bimonte et al. (2019); Calgaro & Lloyd (2008); Cirer-Costa (2021); Cui et al. (2021); Espeso-Molinero & Pastor-Alfonso (2020); Hillmer-Pegram (2014); Holladay & Powell (2013); Kim & Marcouiller (2015); Lee et al. (2021); Lew (2014); Luthe et al., (2012); Orchiston (2013); Ruiz-Ballesteros (2011); Sheppard & Williams (2016); Wyss et al., (2015); Zeng et al., (2005).
Resistance (disturbance): Pre Shock Conditions	Biggs (2011), Burnett & Johnston (2020); Cellini & Cuccia (2015), Coghlan & Prideaux (2009); Lopez et al. (2021).
Recovery	Bhaskara & Filimonau (2021); Biggs et al., (2012a); Buultjens et al., (2015); Cahyanto et al. (2021a); Cahyanto et al. (2021b); Cedeno et al. (2020); Cerquetti & Cutrini (2021); Chan et al. (2020); Chan et al. (2021); Cheng & Zhang (2020); Chin & Musa (2021); Chowdhury et al. (2019); Dahles & Susilowati (2015); Fountain et al. (2021); Gabriel-Campos et al. (2021); Gago-Garcia et al. (2021); Ghaderi et al., (2015); Jiang et al. (2021); Joshi & Gupta (2021); Larsen et al., (2011); Liu-Lastres et al. (2020); McCartney et al. (2021); McCartney et al. (2021); Morakabati (2020); Murdana et al. (2021); Orchiston et al., (2016); Paiva & Santos (2020); Prayag et al. (2020); Pyke et al. (2018); Pyke et al., (2016); Qi et al. (2021); Soliku et al. (2021); Sydnor-Bousso et al., (2011); Tsao & Ni (2016); Wearing et al. (2020).

Source: Author elaboration

These resistance dimensions have been faced in a few studies (Biggs, 2011; Cellini & Cuccia, 2015; Coghlan & Prideaux, 2009; Lopez et al. 2021). Even in these cases, what distinguished these papers was the determination of the shock periods, especially when they considered measuring the resistance of the destinations. In those studies that have taken into account economic data, this was easily determined, as in Cellini and Cuccia (2015). They described the evolution of the tourism sectors in Italy over the last few years of the so-called 'Great Recession' (2008-12). They highlighted the most important features of the changes, focusing on the differences between the regions and on the target types and the categories of accommodation. Resilience was used to explain the different degrees of success of the responses to the national negative shocks that hit the sectors. In other studies, has been taken into account the socio-economic and political problems, referring to general disturbances. Both Biggs (2011) and Coghlan & Prideaux (2009) have deeply described tourism in the Great Barrier Reef (GBR), whose natural characteristics are very sensitive, both to climate changes and to the general economic and political frameworks, such as an economic recession, a crisis in resource prices, as well as issues at a national and local level. Biggs (2011) defined a shock scenario and analysed the behaviour of enterprises in the reef tourism sectors. Coghlan & Prideaux (2009) studied the weather conditions and the reef experiences of tourists, suggesting that these issues may also be an important indicator of changes. Finally, there have been several researchers that have only investigated the subsequent periods to the shock. In most of the studies, they have analysed the responses of the different economic actors to natural types of shock (Biggs et al., 2012a; Ghaderi et al., 2015; Larsen et al., 2011; Tsao & Ni, 2016) and to man-made shocks (Buultjens et al., 2015). Several paper, as Larsen et al. (2011), Biggs et al. (2012a), Cahyanto et al. (2021a), Liu-Lastres et al. (2020) have both presented primary evidence of the governance of post-disaster recovery in Thailand's coastal tourism-dependent communities and enterprises following the 2004 Indian Ocean Tsunami. Tsao & Ni (2016) examined the Shanmei community in Taiwan following Typhoon Morakot and the community's responses to crises in general and Typhoon Morakot in particular. Ghaderi et al. (2015) investigated the effects of the floods which covered parts of Thailand in 2011 and the responses (the resilience) of the public and the private sectors. Sydnor-Bousso et al. (2011) attempted to 'model' job resilience after an industry experiences a disaster. Pyke et al. (2016 and 2018) investigated the impact of bushfires on the tourism economics of Harrietville, a small town in North East Victoria, Australia. They presented adaptations that were necessary for the town to minimise the economic effects of future fire shocks. Finally, Orchiston et al. (2016) examined organisational resilience within a post-disaster context.

4.3 Characteristics of a Tourist Destination

The features of a destination in which the characteristics of resilience have been observed are another factor that has been taken into account in the literature (table 3). On the basis of the results of our literature research, an initial distinction between seaside and mountain destinations can be made. As for the first, we found several papers that referred to natural resources that may undergo changes, which could be the attractions within a destination. Indeed, we have found studies that have focused on the environmental and economic shocks that are linked to coral reefs (as Biggs, 2011; Biggs et al., 2012b; Biggs et al., 2015; Coghlan & Prideaux, 2009; Jones et al., 2011) or island (Bangwayo-Skeete & Skeete, 2021; Mazzola et al., 2019; Uddin et al., 2021) and to natural disasters (as Calgaro & Lloyd, 2008; Larsen et al., 2011). Other studies have taken into consideration some types of tourism products in seaside destinations, such as when Adams (2010) considered cruise ship tourism and when Hillmer-Pegram (2014) studied diving tourism, by

referring to economic shocks. Lambert et al. (2010) analysed whale-watching tourism and the consequences of climate changes. As for mountain destinations, the studies that we considered (Cocolas et al., 2016; Espiner & Becken, 2014; Luthe, et al., 2012; Orchiston, 2013; Sheppard & Williams, 2016; Stotten, 2021; Stotten et al., 2021; Wyss et al., 2015) have some relatively common traits. Those tourist destinations that are on mountains are very appreciated by tourists and whose easy equilibrium (economic and environmental) could be altered by natural shocks. Destinations, such as mountain or seaside resorts, often may be within a protected area. In two studies that we have collected (Strickland-Munro et al., 2010; Woosnam & Kim, 2014), the analyses of resilience have also taken into account the further "wealth" of a destination and the consequent problems that are related to the presence of tourism.

Table 3. Summary of the arguments and the articles that have been reviewed - Characteristics of Tourist Destinations.

Subject Areas	References
Seaside	Adams (2010); Anasco et al. (2021); Bangwayo-Skeete & Skeete (2021); Banos et al. (2019); Biggs (2011); Biggs et al. (2012a); Biggs et al. (2012b); Biggs et al., (2015); Cahyanto et al. (2021a); Calgaro & Lloyd (2008); Cheer et al. (2019); Choi et al. (2017); Cirer-Costa (2021); Coghlan & Prideaux (2009); Cook & Jóhannsdóttir (2021); Hernandez et al. (2018); Hillmer-Pegram (2014); Jones et al., (2011); Kim et al. (2017); King et al. (2021); Lambert et al., (2010); Lam-Gonzales et al. (2021); Larsen et al., (2011); Mackay & Spencer (2017); Mazzola et al. (2019); Melian-Alzola et al. (2020); Pathak et al. (2021); Podhorodecka (2018); Ruiz-Ballesteros & Tejedor (2020); Uddin et al. (2021); Usher et al. (2020); Vereb et al. (2020a); Weis et al. (2021); Williams et al. (2020).
Mountain	Chen et al. (2021); Cocolas et al., (2016); Espiner & Becken (2014); Luthe et al., (2012); Orchiston (2013); Sheppard & Williams (2016); Sherpa (2017) Stotten (2021); Stotten et al. (2021); Wyss et al., (2015).
Protected Areas, National Parks	Strickland-Munro et al., (2010), Woosnam & Kim (2014); King et al., 2021; Felicetti (2016); Maciejewski et al. (2015); Chidakel et al. (2020).
Others (Tropical Forest, Sites for Eco-Tourism, Community, Rural Destinations; inner areas; lake)	Amir et al., (2015), Becken (2013), Holladay & Powell (2013), Pyke et al., (2016), Ruiz-Ballesteros (2011), Tsao & Ni (2016); Cerquetti & Cutrini (2021); Gabriel-Campos et al. (2021); Caceres-Feria et al. (2021); Chin & Musa (2021); Ibanescu et al. (2020); Chen et al. (2020); Alvarez & Cortes-Vazquez (2020); Espino, (2020). (2020); Engeset (2020); Rindrasih (2018); Bui et al. (2020); Grimstad et al. (2019); Kamarudin et al. (2019); Wang et al. (2015).
Urban areas	Almeida-Garcia et al. (2020); Barata-Salgueiro & Guimarães (2020); Dai et al. (2019); Erdmenger (2019); Finzi et al. (2021); Jimenez-Medina et al. (2021); McCartney et al. (2021); Naef (2020); Setiadi et al. (2021); Terhorst & Erkus-Ozturk (2019); Vecco & Srakar (2017); Yang et al. (2021b).
Macro Destinations: National or at a Regional Level	Amoamo (2021); Awedyk & Niezgoda (2018); Bernini et al. (2020); Bhati et al., (2016); Bozovic et al. (2021); Buultjens et al., (2015); Cellini & Cuccia (2015); Cruz-Milan & Lagunas-Puls (2021); Gago-Garcia et al. (2021); Karunarathne et al., (2021); Kim & Marcouiller (2015); Lee et al. (2021); Noorashid & Chin (2021); Otoo & Kim (2019); Paiva & Santos (2020); Senbeto & Hon (2020);

	Soliku et al. (2021); Yang et al. (2021a); Zeng et al., (2005).

Source: Author elaboration

In addition to these two types of places (seaside and mountain), there are many other types, such as valleys (Grimstad et al., 2019; Pyke et al., 2016), sites for eco-tourism (Tsao & Ni, 2016), rural sites (Amir et al., 2015; Caceres-Feria et al., 2021; Ruiz-Ballesteros, 2011) and lakes (Becken, 2013; Wang, 2015).

In recent years, researchers have increasingly focused on urban resilience and sustainability. Almeida-Garcia et al. (2020) and Barata-Salgueiro & Guimarães (2020) examine the relationship between residents of urban tourist destinations and tourism, evaluating the attachment to the place and the level of satisfaction with tourism, highlighting the role played by public policies. In some cases, studies have emphasized "urban resilience" as a core value of the city and its residents. In particular, Naef (2020) relates the notion of "branding" with that of "resilience". In the Medellin case study, showing how in the community it tends to reject the vision of resilience as self-sufficiency (adaptation), requiring instead structural changes (transformation).

Finally, the last group of researchers have proposed a macroeconomic perspective and they have analysed tourism resilience in relation to large areas, such as regional areas or national areas. They have taken into consideration, not only the effects of the shocks in terms of arrivals and presences (Bonham et al., 2006), but also those that propagate on the entire tourism sectors (Bhati et al., 2016; Buultjens et al., 2015; Cellini & Cuccia, 2015; Kim & Marcouiller, 2015; Senbeto & Hon, 2020; Zeng et al., 2005).

4.4 Typology of Shocks

Overall, the shocks on tourist destinations that the literature has examined have been of two types. The "natural", that is, those that were produced by the environment naturally or artificially and those that were "economic and social", which instead, focused on the disturbances that were produced by economic cycles and by social variables (table 4).

Inside of the studies of the first type, we found different types of shock. The first group of seven articles have focused on the effects of climate changes and on the resilience of tourism destinations, with respect to such changes. Climate changes, indeed, may potentially have an important impact on tourism models, because environmental assessments were a significant component of the decision-making processes by tourists (Braun et al., 1999). Climate changes certainly produced high levels of uncertainty between individual actors and policy-makers (Jopp et al. 2010). Climate changes were carefully considered, especially with regard to the effects of rising temperatures. These changes covered mountain destinations (Cocolas et al., 2016; Knowles, 2019; Luthe et al., 2012; Wyss et al., 2015) and seaside resorts (Biggs et al., 2012b; Coghlan & Prideaux, 2009; Lambert et al., 2010). In these kinds of ecosystems, climate changes were one of the most serious problems and they were likely to have the greatest impact.

In mountain tourist destinations, effects that were linked to changing weather patterns, threatened to produce large-scale effects and irreversible changes to the plant and animal communities and the landscapes. In particular, for these types of destinations, two studies (Bulkeley & Newell, 2015; Meehl et al., 2007) have expressed concerns about the future profitability of low-altitude farmland, for two reasons: a) the snow is decreasing in glaciers and b) the possible large-scale loss of biodiversity, caused by the increment in global temperatures.

Table 4. Summary of the arguments and the articles that have been reviewed - Typology of Shocks.

Subject Areas	References
Climate Changes	Becken (2013); Beery (2019); Biggs et al., (2012a); Cevik & Ghazanchyan (2021); Cocolas et al., (2016); Coghlan & Prideaux (2009); Day et al., (2021); Forster et al. (2014); Hassan et al. (2019); Hernandez et al. (2018); Jamaliah & Powell, (2018); Jopp et al., (2010); Knowles (2019); Kutzner (2019); Lambert et al., (2010); Lam-Gonzales et al. (2021); Luthe et al., (2012); Mackay & Spencer (2017); Pyke et al., (2021); Tervo-Kankare (2019); van der Veeken et al. (2016); Wyss et al. (2015).
Natural and Environmental Disasters (Earthquakes, Tsunami, Bushfires, Floods, Hurricanes, etc.)	Cahyanto et al. (2021a); Cahyanto et al. (2021b); Calgaro & Lloyd (2008); Calgaro et al., (2014); Cedeno et al. (2020); Cerquetti & Cutrini (2021); Chan et al. (2020); Chan et al. (2021); Cheng & Zhang (2020); Cioccio & Michael (2007); Cochrane (2010); Fountain et al. (2021); Ghaderi et al., (2015); Kim & Marcouiller (2015);Larsen et al., (2011); Liu-Lastres et al. (2020); Min et al. (2020); Murdana et al. (2021); Nguyen et al. (2021); Orchiston (2013); Orchiston et al. (2016); Paiva & Santos (2020); Posch et al. (2019); Prayag et al. (2020); Pyke et al. (2018); Pyke et al., (2016); Rindrasih (2018); Sherpa (2017); Sydnor-Bousso et al., (2011); Tsao & Ni (2016); Usher et al. (2020); Wearing et al. (2020); Woosnam & Kim (2014).
Political and Social Crises (Terrorism, Impact of War)	Bonham et al. (2006); Buultjens, et al. (2015); Morakabati (2020); Vereb et al. (2020b).
Social and Economic Perturbations	Adams (2010); Biggs (2011); Burnett & Johnston (2020); Cellini & Cuccia (2015); Espiner & Becken (2014); Hamzah & Hampton (2013); Holladay & Powell (2013); Mazzola et al. (2019); Podhorodecka (2018); Terhorst & Erkus-Ozturk (2019); Walmsley (2019).
Sanitary Disasters and Epidemics	Adams et al. (2021); Bhaskara & Filimonau (2021); Bhaskara & Filimonau (2021); Bozovic et al. (2021); Chin & Musa (2021); Cruz-Milan & Lagunas-Puls (2021); Gabriel-Campos et al. (2021); Gago-Garcia et al. (2021); Joshi & Gupta (2021); Karunarathne et al., (2021); King et al. (2021); Lekgau & Tichaawa (2021); Lopez et al. (2021); Matei et al. (2021); McCartney et al. (2021); McCartney et al. (2021); Melian-Alzola et al. (2020); Noorashid & Chin (2021); Otoo & Kim (2019); Pathak & Joshi (2021); Setiadi et al. (2021); Setthachotsombut & Sua-iam (2020); Sobaih et al. (2021); Soliku et al. (2021); Zeng et al., (2005); Zheng et al. (2021).

Source: Author elaboration

With regard to seaside tourist destinations, these particular studies on resilience were justified by the various effects of climate changes. These most obviously concerned probable rising sea levels and the increased frequency and intensity of hurricanes. However, several studies have also highlighted the dangers

that are associated with the effects on marine ecosystems, both with respect to coral reefs (Hoegh-Guldberg, 1999; Reaser et al., 2000) and the composition of flora and marine fauna (Wilkinson et al., 1999). These effects can subsequently affect tourists' choices (see for example, Amelung et al., 2007). The climate changes require adaptation policies and Tervo-Kankare (2019) presents a study that examines the values and attitudes of nature-based tourism entrepreneurs in relation to adaptation to climate change.

The second line of research is where they have analysed the relationships between resilience and natural disasters, such as earthquakes, floods, etc. These papers were all related to previous studies (many natural disasters were explicable by climate changes), but they differed from them by recognising the facts of what disastrous effects can possibly transpire on tourist destinations. Natural hazards are a constant part of human history. For those people who live near the coast (23% of the world's population live within 100 km from the coast, with a steady growth expected in the coming years), there are specific risks, such as floods, tsunamis, hurricanes, and the transmission of infectious diseases that are related to the sea (Adger et al., 2005). In the last few years, disaster planning and the management of tourism businesses have received great attention, especially in light of recent destructive natural disasters (Hall, 2010; Laws et al., 2007; Orchiston, 2013; Ritchie, 2009).

Regarding the effects of tsunamis on tourist destinations, Calgaro and Lloyd (2008) have tried to understand what socio-political and environmental conditions have contributed to the vulnerability of the affected tourism communities. This was because knowledge of the root causes of destination vulnerabilities was vital, not only for the successful implementation of regional recovery plans, but also for building a long-term resilience against future shocks. Larsen et al. (2011) have examined the efforts of recovery and the reduction of post-disaster catastrophic risks in tourism-dependent coastal communities, after the tsunami of 2004. They have defined a new conceptual framework that puts the concept of resilience in a conception of destination governments, as a result of the regulatory processes that have been negotiated.

Another line of research has been the one concerning hurricanes. Kim & Marcouiller (2015) examined the vulnerability and the resilience of 10 regional economies that were based on tourism, which included national parks and beaches, both affected by weather phenomena. The model that was used made it possible to quantify the negative effects on the regional economies, by showing that those regions with stronger economies have resilient capacities greater than those with weaker economies. Cahyanto et al. (2021b) examine existing partnerships between emergency operations centers and the tourism industry in the co-management of hurricane-related disasters, and highlight the theoretical and practical implications for current public-private partnerships and the need to improve these disaster management efforts.

The literature has also taken into account other disasters that may occur on tourist destinations. Cioccio & Michael (2007) presented the case of North Eastern Victoria (Australia) when it was hit by fire and they demonstrated the vulnerability of the territory and the lack of preparation to deal with a threat of this magnitude. The resilience of operators depended on the accumulated experiences in order to handle these types of situations. Orchiston (2013) presented the empirical results of a survey on business tourism in the Southern mountains of New Zealand, a high seismic risk zone area in which there was a tourism industry that included many micro-enterprises. They highlighted how business size was a key determinant in the uptake of Resilience tools, such as continuity insurances, staff training, induction, and disaster planning.

Crises must be distinguished from disasters. According to Faulkner (2001), disasters are sudden and unpredictable catastrophes, over which a business has very limited control, while crises tend to refer to an event that leads to negative business outcomes, which are in part, exacerbated by a lack of preparatory or planning action by managers. Among crises, there were also terrorist attacks and wars, with more and more frequent events that influenced the preferences of tourists (Rose et al., 2009). Buultjens et al. (2015) focused

their attention on the effects of the armed conflicts between the Sri Lankan government and the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE), which had a considerable impact on the country's tourism industry. The authors highlighted how policies were implemented in order to support the tourism sectors, by favouring large groups rather than small operators. This, in their view, threatened to reduce resilience and, therefore, the sustainability of the industry.

Perturbations and shocks that affect tourist destinations can also be of a social and economic nature. Adams (2010), when debating about tourism cruise ships, highlighted the impact within small coastal communities. This impact on the one side was positive, since it supported the waning economies. On the other hand, however, the magnitude and the intensity of passenger visits appeared to reduce social resilience. To induce changes in an economic regime, leads to a rapid socio-economic reorganisation, with clear effects on the loss of social capital. Hamzah & Hampton (2013) debated the resilience of the socio-economic systems of small destinations and they studied the evolution over time of a tourist destination in Malaysia. They addressed local responses to exogenous factors that threatened their equilibrium, and hence, the sustainability of the tourism industry on the island, by showing non-linear changes, rather than by conventional resort evolutions.

Quite differently, Cellini and Cuccia (2015) addressed the issue of large scale resilience, taking into account the evolution of the tourism sectors in Italy during the years of the so-called "Great Recession" (2008-12). They highlighted the most important features of the changes that occurred, both in terms of the demand and supply sides, as well as the different degrees of responses to the negative shocks and to the national success stories.

Moving to an another kind of social perturbations, Burnett & Johnston (2020) presents an analysis of the tourism scenario for an anticipated shock seen through the lens of Irish hospitality managers preparing for Brexit. According to the authors, the buoyancy of the industry has led management to develop complacent tendencies, a myopic point of view and a head-in-the-sand mentality. Their "wait and see" approach to anticipating shock planning suggests an industry that believes it is resilient to threats.

Among the shocks that have been considered in the literature, many have related to social and economic instability. There have also been risks related to tourism sector developments. Some examples of this are the studies of Holladay & Powell (2013) and Espiner & Becken (2014), where they have analysed the effects of changes in tourist flows to heavily dependent tourism destinations. Holladay & Powell (2013) led a case study of investments in tourism that were made in order to diversify the economies and improve the quality of life in the Caribbean. They evaluated the effects of such investments in tourism in terms of resilience, which led them to suggest that communities should invest in the strengthening of social ties, the development of the capacities of local institutions, tourism product diversifications, while also developing their infrastructures. Espiner & Becken (2014) considered as a tourist destination, a national park (Westland National Park), which although popular with tourists, was suffering from a number of conditions (geographical isolation, threats of floods and earthquakes, as well as climate change scenarios) that could undermine the economic and the social longevity of this particular destination. Mazzola et al. (2019) study the economic resilience of the islands and, in particular, the role of the tourism sector in the reaction to economic crises. The results show that the growth factors for regional islands are similar to those normally considered for other regions, but the tourism-led growth hypothesis is widely supported. Tourist demand more than supply plays a role together with accessibility.

Finally, we concluded the classification of shocks, with studies of disease, which may make a tourist destination less attractive. Obviously, this section is full of contributions related to Covid-19. These articles describe the impact of covid in the tourist destination from different points of view (on demand, on supply,

on the system as a whole) and try to suggest tourist policy guidelines to address future pandemics. However, the pandemic is certainly not a new topic in the debate on resilience and tourism. Zeng et al. (2005) referred to the 2003 SARS epidemic that created a negative impact on the development of tourism in China and they considered the realisation of tourism businesses that were affected by this particular crisis. As with previous authors, even Zeng et al. concluded that a resilient system requires diversification and partnerships that can minimise the vulnerability of communities to these crises and then facilitate an economic recovery.

4.5 Elements by which Resilience is Measured

Within a tourist destination, there are basically three categories of subjects on which the shock effects of any kind can operate (table 5). First of all, the operators of the supply chain, in other words, those businesses and economic operators that allow for the accessibility and the usability of attractions for tourists. Secondly, the tourists themselves are the economic actors that activate the tourist destinations. Thirdly, the residents who normally live in the destination undergo most of the negative and positive effects of tourism. In the studies of resilience within destinations, a distinctive feature of the literature review concerned, precisely which of these three categories were to be considered in the measurements of the effects of the shocks and their Resilience capacities.

Two papers have taken into account the opinions of tourists, suggesting that this may be an important indicator of changes for a territory. Prideaux et al. (2010) developed a tourism research that evaluated how tourists were likely to respond to visual changes in mountain landscapes, while Coghlan & Prideaux (2009) tried to understand if weather conditions affected the reef experiences of tourists, suggesting that this may also be an important indicator of changes on a reef. Bernini et al (2020) use an alternative approach, considering the Italian Households Budget Survey data over the period 1997-2013 and comparing the consumption behaviour in the pre- and post-crisis time.

Table 5. Summary of the arguments and the articles that have been reviewed - Elements upon which the Resilience was measured.

Subject Areas	References
Demand Analyses (Tourist Opinions, Consumer Demands; Tourist spending)	Bernini et al. (2020); Bimonte et al. (2019); Canh &Thanh (2020); Coghlan & Prideaux (2009); Lam-Gonzales et al. (2021); Prideaux et al. (2010).
Supply Analyses (Enterprise Resilience, Job Resilience, etc.)	Ayala & Manzano (2014); Biggs (2011); Biggs et al., (2012a); Biggs et al., (2015); Bozovic et al. (2021); Brown et al. (2018); Buultjens et al., (2015); Cruz-Milan & Lagunas-Puls (2021); Cui et al. (2021); Dahles & Susilowati (2015); Engeset (2020); Hillmer-Pegram (2014); Ibanescu et al. (2020); Mandal & Dubey (2020); Mandal et al. (2021); Melian-Alzola et al. (2020); Senbeto & Hon (2020); Sobaih et al. (2021); Sydnor-Bousso et al., (2011); Terhorst & Erkus-Ozturk (2019).
Community analysis	Adams et al. (2021); Anasco et al. (2021); Cahyanto et al. (2021a); Chen et al. (2020); Dai et al. (2019); Diaz-Aguilar & Escalera-Reyes (2020); Larsen et al., (2011); Luthe et al., (2012); Pilquiman-Vera et al. (2020); Wyss et al., (2015)
Stakeholder analysis	Lee et al. (2021); Williams et al. (2020).

Regional/System analysis	Hu et al. (2021); Lekgau & Tichaawa (2021); Min et al. (2020); Podhorodecka (2018).

Source: Author elaboration

Resilience was also studied through analyses of the factors that conferred a resistance to tourism enterprises (Biggs, 2011; Biggs et al., 2012a; Hillmer-Pegram, 2014), through an individual analysis (Ayala & Manzano, 2014) or a sectorial analysis (Buultjens et al., 2015). The results of these studies have allowed for us to identify some elements that characterise the various abilities that are needed to react in a crisis scenario, such as higher levels of social and human capital in the form of governments, families, and community support, rather than formal enterprises (Biggs, 2011; Biggs et al., 2012a).

Another group of papers have taken into consideration the network structures of a community. Their point of view was to study the effects of tourism on the destination residents and their reactions. In two of the papers (Luthe et al., 2012; Wyss et al., 2014), the perspective of their analyses was the network, that is, the social processes of governance. The collaboration between communities through the existence and the strength of the connections between the actors and their embeddedness in a broader socio-economic network, gave stability and flexibility, as well as increasing their regional resilience (Luthe et al., 2012). On the contrary, a low density and a lack of integration by some of the supply chain sectors into the overall network and the lack of an integration by the public sector actors, with a high number of actors in the periphery of the network, weakened the system and made it more exposed to the risks (Luthe et al., 2012; Wyss et al., 2015). Larsen et al. (2011) focused instead on the frameworks of the stakeholder agencies as an interface between the formal and informal institutions. In our study's opinion, this was the main determinant of Resilience building.

4.6 Measuring Methods

As has been explained previously, measurements of resilience were always a critical aspect. As a result of studying the literature, this has led us to identify two different pathways that have been used by the researchers in their analyses (table 6). The first was characterised by a qualitative approach. In this first group, we have distinguished the surveys through interviews (in-depth interviews, focus groups, and resource surveys) that were directed to the various stakeholders and those that were addressed to the tourists. The first group included interviews with national and local governmental representatives (Calgaro & Lloyd; 2008), staff in the public sector (Tsao & Ni; 2016), non-governmental organisations (Sheppard & Williams, 2016), environmental action group members and local figures (Ruiz-Ballesteros, 2011), research institutes and media representatives, business operators (Hillmer-Pegram, 2014), and those operators in the tourism industry (Ayala & Manzano, 2014; Espiner & Becken, 2014). In some studies, the assessments that were expressed by the stakeholders were used to study the social processes of governance, through the existence and the strength of the connections between the actors, as well as their embeddedness in the broader socio-economic networks, by social network analyses (SNA) (Gabriel-Campos et al., 2021; Luthe et al., 2012).

Often, the issues that were addressed in the interviews to the stakeholders were preceded by past literature reviews, together with secondary document analyses (newspaper reports, NGO recovery reports, and various official and governmental documents) (Calgaro & Lloyd, 2008; Tsao & Ni, 2016). In some papers, the interviews were more emphasised and they were pointed towards tourists, seeking to investigate some important issues. For instance, the tourist's purpose, their motivations and behaviour, their knowledge, their understanding, their responses to shock risks, and their demographic details (see for example, Pyke et

al., 2016).

Regarding the quantitative studies, we collected some papers in which it was interesting to note that they highlighted the variables that were used to measure shock resilience. Cellini and Cuccia (2015) analysed the impact of the crises on the Italian tourism sector in terms of resilience. They defined an index in order to capture the economic resilience at a regional level. They then deepened the structural characteristics of the regions and their strategies, through exploratory analyses. Kim & Marcouiller (2015) considered a number of variables that captured the effects of environmental shocks resulting from hurricanes, particularly the average number of fatalities and injuries from the hurricanes, together with the economic status of each county containing national parklands. Lee et al. (2021) addressed the spatially varying relationships between intertemporal specialization or instability of tourism clusters and community resilience thought spatial and aspatial regression models in a case study of sixty-seven counties in Florida.

Table 6. Summary of the arguments and the articles that have been reviewed - Measuring Methods.

Subject Areas	References
Qualitative Method	
Stakeholder's Survey	Adams et al. (2021); Amoamo (2021); Anasco et al. (2021); Ayala & Manzano (2014); Becken (2013); Biggs et al. (2015); Cahyanto et al. (2021b); Calgaro & Lloyd (2008); Chan et al. (2020); Chan et al. (2021); Chen et al. (2021); Erdmenger (2019); Espiner & Becken (2014); Filimonau & De Coteau (2020); Fountain et al. (2021); Ghaderi et al., (2015); Hassan et al. (2019); Hillmer-Pegram (2014); Jiang et al. (2021); Jones et al., (2011); Kamarudin et al. (2019); Karunarathne et al. (2021); Knowles (2019); Liu-Lastres et al. (2020); Luthe et al., (2012); Orchiston (2013); Paiva & Santos (2020); Pyke et al. (2018); Ruiz-Ballesteros (2011); Sheppard & Williams (2016); Soliku et al. (2021); Stotten et al. (2021); Villavicencio & Pardo (2019); Weis et al. (2021).
Community survey	Almeida-Garcia et al. (2020); Chen et al. (2020); Dai et al. (2019); Gabriel-Campos et al. (2021); Guo et al. (2018); Helgadottir et al. (2019); Jamaliah & Powell, (2018); Murdana et al. (2021); Powell et al. (2018); Zheng et al. (2021).
Visitors Survey	Coghlan & Prideaux (2009); Pyke et al. (2016).
Employees survey	Bozovic et al. (2021).
Supply survey	Bakas (2017); Brown et al. (2019); Brown et al. (2021); Burnett & Johnston (2020); Chin & Musa (2021); Engeset (2020); Forster et al. (2014); Mandal & Dubey (2020); Mandal & Saravanan (2019); Mandal (2019); Njuguna et al. (2021); Noorashid & Chin (2021); Pathak & Joshi (2021); Pathak et al. (2021); Pechlaner et al. (2019); Posch et al. (2019); Prayag et al. (2020); Setthachotsombut & Sua-iam (2020); Sobaih et al. (2021); Tervo-Kankare (2019); Usher et al. (2020); Walmsley (2019).
Quantitative Method	Cellini & Cuccia (2015), Kim & Marcouiller (2015); Gago-Garcia et al. (2021); Lee et al. (2021); Cui et al. (2021); Cruz-Milan & Lagunas-Puls (2021); Bangwayo-Skeete & Skeete (2021); Morakabati (2020); Cheng & Zhang (2020); Canh &Thanh (2020); Bernini et al. (2020); Min et al. (2020); Mazzola et al. (2019); Podhorodecka

	(2018); Cevik & Ghazanchyan (2021).
Mixed methods	Cirer-Costa (2021; Cedeno et al. (2020).

Source: Author elaboration

5. Resilience Tourism: recommendations for future research

Tourism is a social and economic activity, that is integrally part of a contemporary community and, as such, it reflects the challenges that communities face, as well as the increasing pressures of environmental and social global changes. This increasing pace and the complexity of social and environmental contemporary changes, explain the importance of the growth of the Resilience frameworks.

In this paper, we have presented the results of a literature review on the resilience of tourism destinations. The results are threefold. First, the papers have achieved an important result, to put under the eyes of scholars and policy makers the risks deriving from tourist pressures that make destinations weak and the effects of shocks on communities. Tourist destinations, by their nature, react to the weakness that is inherent in the system itself. It follows that understanding of how the resilience cycle works is interesting, but it necessarily configured policies and actions. Almost all of the authors have come to the same conclusion, that it was essential that a destination should have a diversified economy and not be concentrated on a few large groups of operators.

Secondly, the literature analyses have led us to highlight the relation between resilience and sustainability. Tourist destinations, together with their communities and their business operators, face several pressures for change, including the environment (changing natural resources), social (changing cultural resources) and economic situations (changing economic conditions). These pressures occur within different time rates. In some cases, the shock is slow and predictable, while in other cases, there is a need for urgent responses and flexible actions. The pressures for change occur on a variety of social and geographical scales. Sometimes, the impact is on a sole trader, while for others, the impact is on an entire community or a social group. The analysis of the paper allow to highlight the different roles of resilience and sustainability in tourist destinations.

Third, In the process of realizing the goal of sustainable and resilient development, authors should see the dominant role of social factors such as destination governance in the adaptation process. Therefore, the establishment of a “rational” tourism development mechanism could help improve the capacity of the destination more effectively to cope with the various crises involved. The different papers analysed clearly show that the development of tourism continues over time only when it is both resilient and sustainable.

Regarding the areas identified for future research, they start from the weaknesses of the review presented before, and include theoretical and methodological aspects. Some papers did not have a clear theoretical approach to resilience. In many of them, there was a generic reference to resilience, without this being connected to one of the different strands that were present in the literature. It is therefore suggested to proceed to a more thorough and in-depth theoretical framework.

The future research line should put effort into resilience measurement. The results of the literature analysis confirmed the multidimensional nature of resilience. The attempt to quantify this framework has led to the development of a large number of indicators or "metrics" of resilience, which are the formal expression of how researchers define and quantify resilience and its components. A quantitative measurement of resilience can contribute to the resolution of contradictions in the conceptualization of resilience.

Nor was it clear whether resilience was a theory, a metaphor, or rather a conceptual framework (Pike

et al., 2010; Swanstrom, 2008). Moreover, the relationship among tourism, dimensions of sustainability and the benefits of tourism realized by stakeholder groups should be more clarified and debated. It need rather an improve of the dynamic relationships among various dimensions of sustainability, tourist activity and resulting short and long term benefits (Tyrrell & Johnston, 2008).

When studying the behaviour of resilience tourist destinations, it was also possible to grasp the aspects that were related to the environment, the use and the distribution of resources, the equities in their various dimensions, the causes as well as the remedies for shocks, and the effects that they all produce.

Therefore, the resilience approach to tourism has, in our opinion, a great advantage. It allows for one to give a new impetus to the ecological variables that are always an important component in socio-economic systems.

As said by Bristow (2010), the destinations (the resilience regions) are ones that, as the result of shocks, recalibrate their own path, to less standardised paths, and hence, to ones that are more based upon the resources and the territorial specificities.

Conflict of interest

All authors declare no conflicts of interest in this paper.

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