

Co-flourishing: Intertwining community resilience and tourism development in destination communities

Md Abdul Wakil, Yi Sun^{*}, Edwin H.W. Chan

Department of Building and Real Estate, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hung Hom, Hong Kong

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Tourism development
Community
Resilience
Community capital
Co-flourishing
Planning

ABSTRACT

This paper contributes to the understanding of community resilience in tourism development in the destination community. Accordingly, we propose a 'co-flourishing' framework integrating community resilience and tourism development by mobilising six types of community capital – human, social, natural, physical, financial, and psychological – which strengthen community capacity during disturbances or crises. We argue that the existing understanding of the tourism system tends to be resource-driven and market-oriented. Such approaches neglect the needs of the destination community, which should have adequate resources for its goal of providing a good life for its members. We first review the six forms of community capital and their implications for community resilience, and argue that tourism development has a negative impact on various kinds of community capital – particularly in destination communities. Hence, we propose a co-flourishing framework which advocates a paradigm change in tourism development to cater to the capital needs of the community. The proposed framework highlights practical long-term policy suggestions for tourism development and planning. We identify further necessary research is needed to accumulate empirical evidence to better apply the co-flourishing framework in various development scenarios in both developing and developed economies.

1. Introduction

Tourism is about temporary trips beyond the usual place of residence instead of pursuing a paying profession within the place visited (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997). Tourism has been very influential in the world economy in many respects (Eshliki & Kaboudi, 2012). For example, every year tourism contributes 10% of global GDP and 6% of total world exports (Qian, Sasaki, Jourdain, Kim, & Shivakoti, 2017). The increasing global fascination with tourism has been motivated by its potential economic benefits for communities of all sizes (Mill & Morrison, 2009). Therefore, this particular benefit has become one of the most important reasons for destination communities to consider tourism as a development strategy (Andereck, Valentine, Knopf, & Vogt, 2005; Wu & Wall, 2018). The economic benefits of tourism include contributions to foreign exchange earnings and the balance of payments (Inskoop, 1991; Lea, 2006; Mason, 2003; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Mill & Morrison, 2009); the generation of income (García, Vázquez, & Macías, 2015; Mason, 2003; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Mill & Morrison, 2009); and the generation of employment opportunities (García et al., 2015; Mason,

2003; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Mill & Morrison, 2009).

However, substantial economic benefits are acquired at the cost of natural resources, environmental damages, social disorders, and traditional cultural activities, which create vulnerabilities within local communities (Butler, 2018; Kasim, 2006; Tsai, Wu, Wall, & Linliu, 2016; Wall & Mathieson, 2006; Wu & Wall, 2018). Sroyetch and Caldicott (2018) claimed that the development of tourism as an economic driving force can severely impact ecosystem structures and processes and degrade natural resources. Tourism development is considered an agent of change and shock which can significantly affect destination communities and residents. This includes economic development, ways of life, employment opportunities, and community activities (Butler, 2018; Wall & Mathieson, 2006; Wu & Wall, 2018).

Moreover, tourism development modifies the livelihood of the destination community, which may accelerate changes in the local environment, economy, culture, and society (Andereck et al., 2005; Ap & Crompton, 1998; Mason, 2003; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Pizam, 1978; Tsai et al., 2016). The negative impacts of tourism are multifaceted and often problematic, and cannot be simply categorised as social, economic,

^{*} Corresponding author.

E-mail addresses: md-abdul.wakil@connect.polyu.hk, mawakil@urp.ruet.ac.bd (M.A. Wakil), yi.sun@polyu.edu.hk (Y. Sun), edwin.chan@polyu.edu.hk (E.H.W. Chan).

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2021.100803>

Received 23 June 2020; Received in revised form 5 February 2021; Accepted 9 March 2021

Available online 31 March 2021

2211-9736/© 2021 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

or environmental (Mason, 2003). Some significant negative impacts of tourism on destination communities include the increase in the price of labour, land, and goods; inflation; an increase in the cost of living; social problems; family structure change; crime and the use of drugs; degradation of natural resources; environmental pollution; congestion; crowding; unbalanced economic development; low-paid seasonal employment and economic fluctuation; and transportation problems (Andriotis, Styliadis, & Weidenfeld, 2019; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2012; Gu & Ryan, 2008; Mawby, 2017; Styliadis, Biran, Sit, & Szivas, 2014).

The negative impacts of tourism increase the sensitivity and exposure of destination communities to various kinds of disturbances, consequently decreasing the adaptive capacity when these communities cope with these changes and disturbances (Becken, 2013). From a resilience perspective, tourism development may have a negative impact on the deterioration of various community resources or assets, which are vital for people to attain desirable livelihood outcomes (Department for International Development [DFID], 1999; Flora, Flora, & Gasteier, 2016). The deterioration of community assets and resources can decrease communities' capabilities to withstand stresses or disturbances and make them less capable of managing and adapting to the changes in their places, community, and everyday life (Norris, Stevens, Pfefferbaum, Wyche, & Pfefferbaum, 2008; Platts-Fowler & Robinson, 2016).

Community resilience is essential in the context of tourism. The nature of community resilience is that it values various types of community capital (i.e. various resources and assets in the community) that are important for developing unity, mutual help, and a better use of various resources (Butler, 2018). Community resilience is not a new concept in urban planning and development but it is novel in tourism – particularly against the New Urban Agenda. With community resilience, residents of destination communities can adapt to environmental changes and uncertainties, embrace self-help, share their knowledge and experiences, and create opportunities for inter-sectoral cooperation (Ruiz-Ballesteros, 2011). The idea central to the resilience perspective is the accumulation of community capital, which is conducive to the well-being of community dwellers and tourism development. Community capital nurtures the community's ability to address different conditions through collective efforts and diversified resources (Magis, 2010).

There is an urgent need for the tourism sector to implement the 'co-flourishing' framework. However, foundations and principles related to resilience and development remain less known among tourism research and practices (Schroeder & Pennington-Gray, 2018). There is no globally agreed-upon resilience framework or resilience assessment scale in tourism development (Cahyanto & Pennington-Gray, 2017; Pennington-Gray, 2018). It is important to understand the intertwined relationship between tourism development and its impacts on the destination community and address the community's resilience and its own capacity (Cartier & Taylor, 2020). Hence, in this paper, we articulate co-flourishing in community resilience and tourism development by mobilising six different types of community capital. The framework aims to enhance the destination community's capacity to resist various unfavourable changes due to the development of tourism. A conceptual framework is proposed that elaborates how community resilience should be promoted in tandem with tourism development to reveal the challenging nature of the tourism system.

The remainder of this paper is organised into four parts. In the first, we review two major views of tourism – supply and demand perspectives and social and environmental perspectives – and address their insufficient emphases on the community and the community's own capabilities in coping with the negative effects of tourism development. In the second part, we introduce the importance of resilience in tourism development and elaborate the role of community capital in nurturing a community's capability of absorbing and adapting to disturbances. In the third part, we examine how tourism development has a negative impact on community capital. Finally, we establish a co-flourishing framework and propose long-term suggestions for tourism development.

2. Tourism revisited: a missing link between tourism development and community resilience

People desire to travel and visit different places where they can encounter diverse cultures across the world (Bhatta, 2014). Tourism is a temporary movement of people to destinations outside their usual places of residence and work, so as to fulfil their needs for leisure, exploration, and new experiences (Mathieson & Wall, 1982). According to Pearce (1995), 'tourism is essential about the people and places, the places that one group of people leave, visit, and pass through, the other groups who make their trip possible and those they encounter along the way' (p. 1). Tourism has become a significant worldwide socio-economic activity owing to several influencing factors such as sufficient disposable income available for travel, fewer working hours, the provision of paid holidays, and significant improvements in transportation networks (Inskip, 1991).

The conventional understanding of tourism dictates that it is a complex phenomenon (Dredge & Jenkins, 2007) which comprises tourists' ideas and opinions that structure their choices about going on trips and other trip-related activities (Leiper, 2004). Moreover, tourism development is a reflection of stakeholders' interests and perceptions, which are sometimes opposed to each other (Smith, 1988). These stakeholders include public sectors, economists, private sectors, conservationists, communities, and individuals (Bhatta, 2014). Outside the stakeholder perspective, many researchers agree with the systemic perspective to analyse tourism. This system depicts an interrelated combination of things or elements forming a unit (Cooper & Hall, 2008). Broadly speaking, the tourism system consists of consumption (i.e. demands) and production (i.e. supplies) (Cooper & Hall, 2008; Gunn & Var, 2002; Holden, 2016).

From the supply and demand perspective, the origin of the tourists (the tourist-generating regions) represents the demand side, and the destination regions (the attractions) represent the supply side (Cooper & Hall, 2008). Travel components such as transport links and transit facilities are linked in between them (Cooper & Hall, 2008; Mathieson & Wall, 1982). Tourism demand is manifested as the cumulative number of people who visit or plan to travel and then use tourism facilities and amenities in the destination areas. Notably, tourism demand is a broad and imprecise term consisting of three main components: actual demand, potential demand, and deferred demand (Lea, 2006). Tourism supply is a composite of events, facilities, and sectors that promote travel and leisure activities at the tourism destination. Key components include attractions (e.g. natural and man-made resources, environment, flora, fauna, beaches, and historic buildings); transportation (e.g. aeroplanes, vessels, trains, and taxis); infrastructure (e.g. harbours, airports, bridges, hotels, and restaurants); and hospitality and cultural resources (e.g. citizens' mindsets towards visitors, the arts, heritage, customs, sports, etc.) (Lea, 2006; Pulina & Cortés-Jiménez, 2010).

Gunn and Var (2002) argued that interrelated parts support the functioning of tourism as a system. The system is like a spider's web – touching one part of it produces a ripple effect throughout it (Mill & Morrison, 2009). Fig. 1 illustrates the tourism functioning system with the two main drivers being demand and supply. The tourists' origin side constitutes the demand, and the destination constitutes the supply, with the following five key interrelated components: attractions, transportation, services, information, and promotion. Moreover, tourism development is influenced by several external factors such as labour, entrepreneurship, communities, government policies, natural resources, cultural resources, and finance (Gunn & Var, 2002).

The demand and supply perspective is useful for navigating complicated tourism systems by thoroughly examining what is necessary for destinations to create attractiveness and promote the tourist experience (Wijayanti, Damanik, Fandeli, & Sudarmadji, 2017). This framework will provide an important reference for the reform of the destination supply side, whereby policymakers can identify and optimise the shortage of supply factors in the tourism destination

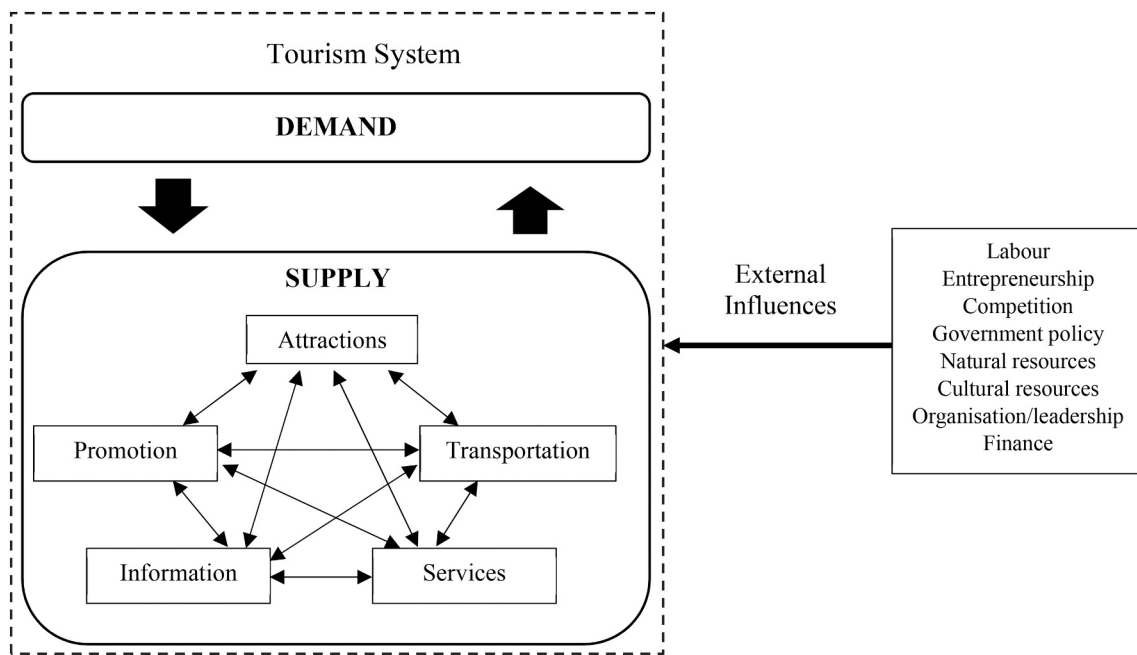


Fig. 1. Functional tourism system.

Source: Adapted from Gunn and Var (2002).

community (Xue & Fang, 2018). However, the framework, particularly its orientation to optimisation, is resource- and market-oriented, as it acknowledges competition. To serve the needs of tourists, the supply demand framework neglects the negative impacts of place branding and place-making on the destination community. For example, if there is a rising demand for tourism, services, and transportation, the destination community may be abused, which will undermine the quality of the local environment and tourists' experiences (Wall & Mathieson, 2006). When the destination communities cannot absorb demand which surpasses the capacity of local communities, not only will the attractions become unfavourable to tourists, but the local communities will also become vulnerable social groups (Wall & Mathieson, 2006).

The social and environmental perspectives stand out as unique approaches that include not only businesses and tourists but also societies and environments (Holden, 2016). Social and environmental resources are essential, including cultural, human, and natural resources. These resources underpin the tourism system in the destination community (Fig. 2). Government policies, consumer demands, expenditures, and investments in tourism sectors have a direct bearing on the possession of these resources in the destination community (Holden, 2008). For example, government policies could encourage entrepreneurial activities, whereby the local community will make use of natural and cultural resources to create attractions and place branding.

Beyond the tourism system, social influence – that is, the structural forces surrounding the tourism system – affect the functioning of the tourism destination community. Such factors include changing consumers' tastes, environmental changes/crises (e.g. pandemics), political freedom to travel, benefits from media and technological use, and demographic changes (Holden, 2016). Tourism also brings about environmental and cultural changes, which can be either positive or negative. For example, making use of natural resources to create attraction can enhance environmental quality, but can also destroy ecological systems. Tourists' satisfaction is important to support the profits of tourism-related enterprises and industries, thus increasing the economic benefits desired by destination communities (Holden, 2016). The livelihood of indigenous residents can be improved with more business opportunities. Nevertheless, they are likely to face displacements from original lands and natural resources, posing significant

threats to cultural preservation.

The social and environmental perspective is useful for understanding how resources play a vital role in supporting the tourism system as well as the impacts of tourism on the community from social and environmental aspects (Holden, 2016). However, the framework is resource-driven; accordingly, all three subsystems require substantial investment and resource inputs to support retailing, infrastructure, and transportation. Moreover, this systemic approach is oriented towards the tourism market because all three subsystems aim to produce and adjust their products to meet the demands of tourists and the tourism sector and, if possible, create new market functions in the destination community. In the system, different parts work as subsystems to create attractions and maintain infrastructure, facilitating and managing businesses that provide services to tourists (Holden, 2016; Mill & Morrison, 2009; Nelson, 2017). It neglects whether the destination community can withstand negative environmental, cultural, and social changes, considering the influx of tourists and a series of changes in their social and ecological environments. The tourism sector may extract more resources to fulfil these demands, making the community vulnerable. However, this systemic approach offers insufficient outline in terms of how the community can cope with vulnerabilities.

Although the systemic approach simplifies the real-life situations of tourism through a model that demonstrates the linkages of the different elements (Page, 2009), the role of the community is neglected. Specifically, a rising demand for tourism cannot be accommodated at the cost of social and cultural change in destination communities. The destination community may exhibit apathy or hostility towards tourism development if no balance between demand and supply is considered (Deery, Jago, & Fredline, 2012). In tourism development, maintaining social and environmental resources helps in constructing the long-term capacity of community members to develop and make use of tourism to achieve a better quality of life (Inskip, 1991). From a resilience perspective, changes in the physical and social environment in the tourism destination communities are also opportunities if community members can actively adapt to, cope with, and mitigate the changes in a positive way.

It is important for the destination community to improve its resilience status, so as to enhance its ability to maintain its living quality and

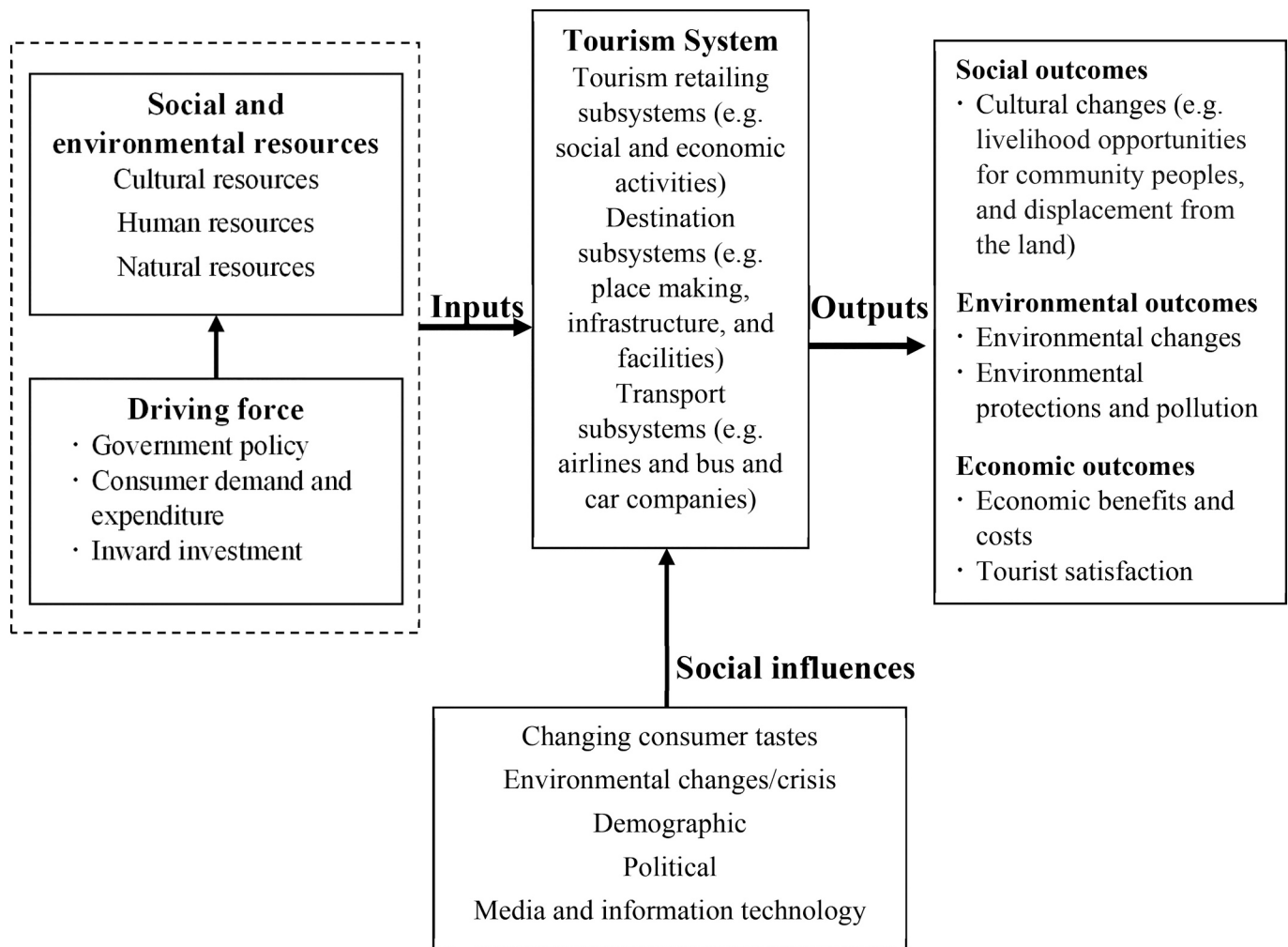


Fig. 2. Tourism system: Social and environmental perspectives.
Source: Adapted from Holden (2016).

collectively take the necessary actions to preserve its traditional way of life and natural processes (Butler, 2018). Articulating resilience in tourism development helps in coming up with a framework ‘with regards to how the different actors involved in tourism can respond to, learn from, adapt to, and transform in response to growing global uncertainties and changes’ (Hooli, 2018, p. 103). In addition, the community resilience perspective can contribute to the balance between the demand and supply sides by reducing vulnerabilities that community members may face. A resilient community has the ability to absorb disturbances, adapt to changes, and reduce vulnerabilities (Adger, 2000; Berkes, Colding, & Folke, 2003), which can facilitate tourism development. Co-flourishing in community resilience and tourism development is essential to the well-being of community residents and the sustainability of tourism.

3. Resilience and development: the role of community capital

Resilience has gained great attention in scholarly research as a novel concept in various academic fields (Grove, 2018). Associations with and ways to deal with changes or disturbances are the fundamental strength of the resilience concept (Wilson, 2012). Initially, the concept of resilience was introduced into the field of ecology, such that ecosystems with a variety of attractors better endure disturbances (Folke et al., 2010). In a broader sense, resilience is the capability of a system to return to its prior state after an exogenous disturbance (Holling, 1973). Moreover, resilience is ‘a dynamic process encompassing positive adaptation

within the context of significant adversity’ (Luthar, Cicchetti, & Becker, 2000, p. 543). Central to resilience is a capacity-building process to acquire resources and gain more knowledge to respond to risks, through which the original system becomes strengthened and consolidated (Béné, Newsham, Davies, Ulrichs, & Godfrey-Wood, 2014).

The community is the best scale to nurture resilience capacity and respond to disturbances, as the community is important for people and their well-being (Forjaz et al., 2011). The understanding of a community should avoid seeing the term as merely referring to a piece of land on Earth. The community can be appraised by utilising the following four important concepts: an affective unit of identity and belonging, a functional unit of production and exchange, a network of relations, and a unit of collective actions (Chaskin, 1997, 2008; Coleman, 1988). These four concepts make the community an important module in human society (Chaskin, 2001). Specifically, the community is about building a shared identity with which people may develop a positive self-perception by linking themselves with a large social organisation (Chaskin, 2001, 2008). Close interpersonal relationships in a community are essential to nurturing social cohesion and solidarity (Coleman, 1988). A community functions as a network for exchanging expertise and knowledge, which are important when communities face challenges and disturbances.

Hence, within a community, interpersonal relationships, socio-economic structure, cultures, memories, aspirations, and social orders (i.e. governance) are important assets that provide community members with a certain level of capacity to cope with unfavourable changes and

disturbances (Lerch, 2017). Understanding community resilience should highlight the social factors conducive to nurturing a community's adaptive capacity (Guo, Zhang, Zhang, & Zheng, 2018a). In the face of climate change, public health emergencies, and social events, the presence of community capacity helps it to absorb and adapt to the stressors or shocks by identifying the issues, deciding and following up on them, and finally allocating available community resources through networks and shared identity (Kais & Islam, 2016).

Community resilience is defined as 'the existence, development, and engagement of community resources by community members to thrive in an environment characterised by change, uncertainty, predictability, and surprise' (Magis, 2010, p. 402). Community resilience is the capacity to envision a threat, determine the adverse impacts of various threats, and come back and make adjustments when confronting a threat (Community and Regional Resilience Institute [CARRI], 2013; Pfefferbaum, Van Horn, & Pfefferbaum, 2017). Such a capacity is essential to almost every development scenario. Community resilience constitutes different cooperating and connecting factors, processes, structures, and actions with a view to generating an improved outcome such that communities can beat external aggravations and return to their prior state (Pfefferbaum et al., 2017; Platts-Fowler & Robinson, 2016). People who live in resilient communities develop their individual and collective capacities that help them respond to disturbances, maintain (and renew) their skills of development, and create new paths for the communities' future (Magis, 2010).

Magis (2010) argued that engagement of community capital and community members is significant in community resilience. Generally speaking, a community's capital includes different types of resources and assets, as well as established social networks, trust, and attachment among a group of community members. Community capital helps members of the community to take collective endeavours to address and accomplish community objectives (Magis, 2010). Community resilience is not only about capacity to confront adversity but also capability to access needed resources or capital to maintain well-being (Pfefferbaum et al., 2017; Ungar, 2011). According to the literature, there are six types of community capital, including human, social, natural, physical, financial, and psychological capital (Atreya & Kunreuther, 2016; DFID, 1999; Ungar, 2011).

Human capital refers to the knowledge, skills, working ability, health conditions, and individual attributes of individual members (Bennett, Lemelin, Koster, & Budke, 2012; DFID, 1999; Moore, Severn, & Millar, 2006). Human capital empowers community residents to deal with and recover from disturbances through enhanced levels of risk preparedness and awareness (Atreya & Kunreuther, 2016). For example, disasters have a number of negative impacts, including evacuation of homes, reduced personal hygiene, pollution of water supplies, interruption of sanitation systems, mental health stress, and deaths related to drowning (Keim, 2008). Education and communication are effective mitigation strategies to preserve human capital. Public education is essential in raising consciousness about a crisis and finding solutions (Atreya & Kunreuther, 2016). Public health communications facilitate preparedness at various locations; information and knowledge sharing is equipped with a better understanding of response plans and evacuation strategies (Keim, 2008).

Social capital connects community members and other stakeholders for resource sharing and mutual help, which includes close and reciprocal relationships, social cooperation, trust, and the development of collective norms (Guo, Zhang, Zhang, & Zheng, 2018b). Three types of social capital are bonding (strengthening existing associations), bridging (building new associations), and linking (improving linkages between community organisations and community members), which are all crucial for community resilience (Beckley, Martz, Nadeau, Wall, & Reimer, 2008; Guo et al., 2018b; Kais & Islam, 2016; Magis, 2010; Minkler, 2005; Pfefferbaum et al., 2017). Social capital strengthens existing networks among community members and community organisations, which helps community members access community resources,

and receive support in times of disturbances (Bennett et al., 2012; Minkler, 2005). Community organisations, cooperatives, and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) are important platforms for generating social capital. These organisations provide opportunities for community members to interact with a wide range of people. Community members with rich social capital easily find support through various connections linked with specific goals (Kais, 2018). Community members who lack social capital have a limited capacity to cope with stresses or disturbances (Masterson et al., 2014; Minkler, 2005).

Natural capital is a term derived from a wide variety of resources, such as intangible public goods and divisible assets. Intangible public goods, including the atmosphere and biodiversity, are not used for direct production. Divisible assets such as trees, water, and land are directly used for production (Atreya & Kunreuther, 2016; DFID, 1999). Moreover, natural capital is characterised as extractable natural resources (renewable and non-renewable), ecosystem services, and appreciation of nature (Beckley et al., 2008; Moore et al., 2006). Community individuals and groups must preserve natural capital, as such capital constitutes the environment carrying capacity and is irreplaceable (Moore et al., 2006). For example, waterbodies act as natural sponges to soak up excess flood water and reduce the impacts of floods, which is a function that is essential for preventing flooding (Atreya & Kunreuther, 2016).

Physical capital refers to the existing infrastructure and physical assets of the community. It includes various types of buildings (e.g. residential, commercial, and office buildings); roads; water systems; sewer systems; and critical facilities such as hospitals, schools, colleges, police stations, and fire stations (Beckley et al., 2008; Magis, 2010; Minkler, 2005). Physical capital has a significant effect on community resilience. Notably, housing is considered a primary element because 'housing is not only the shelter and primary investment of most residents, it is also a critical component of the local economy and social fabric' (Zhang & Peacock, 2009, p. 5). Other types of existing infrastructure are also essential elements in ensuring the proper functioning of the community (Masterson et al., 2014; Minkler, 2005). Critical facilities, like hospitals and fire stations, play a vital role in ensuring that people have resources and support arrangements during disturbances (Masterson et al., 2014).

Financial capital refers to financial resources such as income, savings, businesses, investments, and credits at the household and community level that can sustain the resilience goal of the community (Atreya & Kunreuther, 2016). The financial status of a community is important to its access to credit, funds, and insurance which provide the necessary assistance to maintain livelihoods and subsistence (Atreya & Kunreuther, 2016; Beckley et al., 2008; Magis, 2010; Masterson et al., 2014; Mileti, 1999; Walter & Hyde, 2012). For example, in the immediate wake of disturbances, insurance accelerates the rehabilitation process by allocating available funds for restoration (Kousky & Shabman, 2012). Literature suggests that community resilience increases if the financial portfolio of a community is steady, whereas a shrinking financial situation is a sign of increasing vulnerability (Buckle, Mars, & Smale, 2000; Minkler, 2005).

Psychological capital comprises a sense of community, place attachment, and citizen participation (Norris et al., 2008; Sherrieb, Norris, & Galea, 2010). These forms of capital contribute to community resilience in various ways by establishing and strengthening bonding between people and places and ensuring people's participation in community affairs (Leykin, Lahad, Cohen, Goldberg, & Aharonson-Daniel, 2013; Maclean, Cuthill, & Ross, 2014; Mishra, Mazumdar, & Suar, 2010; Norris et al., 2008). The sense of community provides an environment that encourages bonding (trust and belonging) with other members of the community, including mutual concerns and shared values (Goodman et al., 1998; Norris et al., 2008). It is characterised by a significant concern for community issues, respect for and service to others, a sense of connection, and the fulfilment of needs (Goodman et al., 1998; Norris et al., 2008). Place attachment implies an emotional and functional link

to where people live, whereby people integrate self-identity with place-identity and explore the usefulness of a place in supporting daily life (Norris et al., 2008). Place attachment has a positive influence on the perceived resilience of community residents in tourism destinations (Guo et al., 2018a). Citizen participation ensures a platform involving various community members who have clear roles and responsibilities (Norris et al., 2008).

The presence of community capital constitutes the mechanism underlying the association between community resilience and community development (Table 1).

4. Negative impacts of tourism development on community capital

As mentioned, community capital is recognised as an essential factor in building community capacities and is vital for people in the community who wish to accomplish desirable livelihood outcomes (DFID, 1999; Masterson et al., 2014). Accumulation of community capital in tourism destination communities is important for the sustainability of tourism and the well-being of community members. Tourism development has substantial and complex negative influences on destination communities (Mason, 2003). The negative impacts of tourism development are multifaceted and can be further analysed in terms of how they are related to community capital.

The negative impacts of tourism such as increasing crime, use of drugs, and diseases affect human capital in diverse ways, which have become a severe concern for tourism destination communities (Inskip, 1991; Lea, 2006). The use of drugs negatively impacts the health status of the young generation and affects the quality of the workforce in the tourism industry (Inskip, 1991). Certain examples also reveal that the arrival of tourists has altered the health status of community residents by bringing new infectious diseases and, in some cases, dramatically decreasing the number of local populations (Bauer, 1999; Wall & Mathieson, 2006). The accelerated spread of infectious diseases has become a focus of tourism development from the perspective of human capital (Wall & Mathieson, 2006).

From a social capital perspective, tourism contributes to changes in

Table 1
Community capital and its implications for community resilience and development.

Community capital	Actual embodiment	Implications for resilience and development
Human	Knowledge, skills, working ability, good health, and individual attributes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Raise awareness and facilitate communication. - Knowledge to cope with crisis.
Social	Bonding, bridging, and linking social capital	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Trust building. - Reciprocal relationships to strengthen the network among the community members and different organisations. - Create platform for interactions. - Seek supports and pursue specific goals.
Natural	Natural resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Protect ecological values and ecosystems. - Defend against extreme weather.
Physical	Existing infrastructure and physical assets of communities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Safeguard the community at the time of a disturbance. - Provide shelters and fulfil needs for residence.
Financial	Income, savings, business, investments, insurance, and credit	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Maintain livelihood and subsistence. - Accelerate rehabilitation.
Psychological	Place attachment, sense of community, and citizen participation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Strengthen bonding between community residents and places. - Assure residents' engagement in various community activities.

local cultural values, behaviours of local residents, family relations, social cooperation, and community organisations (Andereck et al., 2005; Ap & Crompton, 1998; Minkler, 2005; Tatoglu, Erdal, Ozgur, & Azakli, 2002; Tsai et al., 2016). For example, tourism development modifies the internal social structure of communities by splitting apart those who have and do not have a relationship with tourism (Brunt & Courtney, 1999). When social networks within a community decline, external assistance is needed. Subsequently, the assistance from outside may interrupt the original cultures and social values (Cheer, Milano, & Novelli, 2019). Hence, the connectivity among members of tourism destination communities may decline, which is crucial in the time of disturbances (Herrschner & Honey, 2018). Tourism development has become a huge business attraction, leading to an influx of new inhabitants from other communities (Perdue, Long, & Kang, 1999). Intense immigration from different cultures can bring about social conflicts in these areas (Tatoglu et al., 2002). Again, if the population growth rate is accompanied by inadequate planning and management, there is likely a loss of community identity and local cultural values (Andereck et al., 2005). As a result of tourism expansion and changing demographics, participation and cooperation may become inefficient as new inhabitants show less interest in social mingling. For example, social capital among seasonal workers is low, which does not work in favour of community cohesion.

With the development of tourism, interpersonal relations tend to be commercialised, and extra-market relations begin to lose their importance in the community (Tatoglu et al., 2002). As a result, social bonding among community residents may be reduced as not everyone values intimate relationships (Cheer et al., 2019). Therefore, the disruption of kinship and community bonds will reduce cohesiveness within destination communities, which negatively impacts community development in the long run (Wall & Mathieson, 2006).

Tourism development may trigger environmental damage and natural resource depletion because of environmental pollution, abuse of natural resources, and damage to ecosystems (Tsai et al., 2016). This will have a negative impact on natural capital in destination communities. For example, changes in land use and an increase in foot traffic will lead to a loss of vegetation and inhabitants (Andereck et al., 2005; Mill & Morrison, 2009). Uncontrolled and unplanned construction, development, and inadequate infrastructure damage natural resources, environment, and wildlife, which also causes air and water pollution (Inskip, 1991; Tatoglu et al., 2002). Poor ecological and environmental management in destinations will increase the cost of preservation, which may also reduce the number of visitors (Inskip, 1991; Tsai et al., 2016).

Tourism development has a huge impact on physical capital. For example, tourism demands that local people build more vacation hostels. This creates urban sprawl problems, increases the building density, and causes traffic congestion. In addition, the local infrastructure (e.g. water supply and sewage disposal) may become overloaded, which will ultimately impact the well-being of community dwellers (Inskip, 1991). Some studies have reported that deterioration in the quality of tourist sites has become a common phenomenon because of littering, vandalism, desecration, and souvenir taking (Inskip, 1991; Mill & Morrison, 2009).

Various types of developments in tourism destination communities require a certain proportion of financial capital from the local community. When tourism activities achieve success, the income of local community members will increase (Husbands, 1989), which may drive up the cost of rent and land prices for building new hotels and houses (Pizam, 1978; Var, Kendall, & Tarakcioglu, 1985). Nevertheless, due to the seasonal nature of tourism, income can be unstable. The unstable financial status in tourism destination communities is a sign of vulnerability (Buckle et al., 2000; Minkler, 2005). This is because communities need funds in the process of recovery when facing crises and emergencies (Magis, 2010; Masterson et al., 2014).

The impacts of tourism on financial capital are also manifested through changes in destination economies, including occupational shifts

and changes in business structure. Farmers and wage earners have abandoned agricultural activities to pursue lucrative jobs in the tourism sector, which may influence the food supply (Wall & Mathieson, 2006). Pandey (2006) noted that mountain communities in India have increased their earnings by exploiting tourism demand in their localities by providing accommodation, food, handicrafts, and transport at the expense of some of their traditional agricultural activities. In the long run, the positive effect of increasing employment in services may be offset by siphoning labour from the agriculture sector (Cater, 1987). The structural change from agriculture to tourism also creates changes in land-use patterns. Tourism increases land prices, which encourages land sales and competition.

Tourism is responsible for overcrowding in the destination community, which then has a negative impact on psychological capital (Cheer et al., 2019; Seraphin, Sheeran, & Pilato, 2018). In search of business interests and profits, tourism development seems to favour economic expansion and encourages shifts from agrarian livelihoods to service-driven economic activities supported by tourism (Cheer et al., 2019). This will change the self-identity and self-perception of the local people. Tourism development is sometimes associated with place disruption (Hess, Malilay, & Parkinson, 2008). Such interruptions include relocation, landscape changes, and loss of symbolic designations, which affect local people's perceptions of place and place attachment (Cheng & Chou, 2015; Clarke, Murphy, & Lorenzoni, 2018; Devine-Wright, 2013).

5. Co-flourishing: linking community resilience and tourism development

Tourism destination communities should improve the status of their resilience conditions by nurturing various kinds of community capital. Articulating community resilience in the course of tourism development is important to ensure that the community has the ability to adjust to changes and challenges in the environment, nurture self-help, share expertise and experiences, and finally develop interdisciplinary collaboration opportunities (Ruiz-Ballesteros, 2011).

For a long time, tourism development has emphasised the growth and maintenance of tourism systems in a destination community. Various planning and development strategies have been deployed to enhance the system by building attractions, improving services, and making necessary improvements (Stainton, 2020). However, most development scenarios are driven by market incentives. Therefore, great emphasis is placed on profit-making, branding, and promotion (Logan & Molotch, 2007), yet these marketised behaviours seem to neglect the community's right to enjoy the benefits of tourism.

Moreover, tourism planning itself reflects the deficiencies in fulfilling the needs of community members. Exiting tourism planning is prone to incurring numerous obstructions from the community because of a lack of genuine participation. Consensus-oriented planning decisions are important but difficult to achieve, considering that officials, planners, and community members all have different values and perceptions regarding development. The power structure, particularly in a top-down mode of tourism planning, may treat communities as passive recipients of policy changes, which is likely to provoke strong resistance from the bottom. In addition, tourism planning and development in many places is driven by demand, instead of the needs of the supply side. Most of the time, the planning process is simplified as making changes in the physical environment and providing business opportunities. Therefore, tourism planning should re-articulate its role as a medium for collective efforts and conflict mediation.

From these perspectives, community resilience is highly essential in the context of tourism development and tourism planning. Resilience in destination communities emphasises their ability to adapt, learn, and self-organise following a crisis or a disturbance (Filimonau & De Coteau, 2020). The use and preservation of community capital helps to establish unity, promote mutual help, and mobilise various community resources (Butler, 2018). Co-flourishing is critical to the tourism destination

community, which is conducive to achieving sustainable development with improved well-being. On the one hand, resilience itself is closely related to the community, as resilience treasures the capacities and resources of people who are facing stresses and disturbances. On the other hand, people and communities are constantly '(re)invented, (re)produced and (re)created' in developing resilience (Salazar, 2009, p. 49). Effective utilisation and management of community capital helps the destination community to make better use of tourism as opportunities for development while adapting to the changes that tourism may bring about in their local communities (Stone & Nyaupane, 2018).

Tourism development and planning consists of complex and diversified decisions and actions while considering land use and infrastructure, stakeholder engagement, entrepreneurial activities, local markets, and the well-being of community members (Esfehani & Albrecht, 2019; Hall, 2008). Articulating community responses to crises and disturbances from a resilience perspective allows decision-makers and planners to better understand the impact on the community and tourism industry (Cartier & Taylor, 2020). A paradigm shift in tourism development should eliminate the simplified systemic approach, considering that such an approach is entrepreneurial in nature, thus encouraging the development of market principles to create attraction and maximise demands. It is important to know all the essential components of the community and determine its vulnerabilities and susceptible situations (Bec, McLennan, & Moyle, 2016; Smit & Wandel, 2006). The promotion of destination resilience also needs to involve the identification of how the various types of community capital, assets, and resources help withstand the vulnerabilities and susceptible situations within the tourism supply system (Bec et al., 2016) while examining the needs of the broader community beyond the purpose of development (Amore, Prayag, & Hall, 2018).

Addressing community capital is key to co-flourishing by intertwining community resilience and tourism. The accumulation and use of community capital will provide opportunities, materials, resources, networks, and individual competencies to cope with the negative effects of tourism development (Bennett et al., 2012). This capital is also helpful in monitoring tourism development and balancing interests from various stakeholders (Zielinski, Kim, Botero, & Yanes, 2020). A paradigm shift in tourism planning and development requires the proposal of ways to identify, manage, and use community capital to transform community capacities and accommodate both tourism demands and the community's own aspirations of living a good life.

Several instruments in tourism development and planning can facilitate co-flourishing. First, training and development of managerial skills in destination communities is important for risk preparedness and capacity building, which introduce new skills, knowledge, and working ability to community members (Biggs, Hicks, Cinner, & Hall, 2015). This is particularly the case for tourism development in developing economies. Human capital will be consistently improved if community members know how to provide better service while maintaining their own strength to cope with stressors and disturbances (Agyeman, Yeboah, & Ashie, 2019; Biggs et al., 2015).

Community building is essential in the course of tourism development, which is conducive to the development of social capital. Social capital acts as the glue which not only connects community members but also links communities with various types of resources (Macbeth, Carson, & Northcote, 2004). For example, in the face of changes due to tourism, networks provide solidarity, connectedness, support, and cooperation (Guo et al., 2018b). Members of a community feel a sense of belonging. They are also empowered to access various resources and types of support, which creates opportunities for collaboration (Hwang & Stewart, 2017).

A variety of activities and practices can be used for community building, ranging from small events such as potlucks (which is common in some rural areas in China) to large-scale activities such as festivals. The involvement of community planners, community workers, and activists is also important to address collective well-being and problem-

solving. People who are active and enthusiastic possess more local knowledge.

Considering natural capital and ecological values, tourism development should focus on conservation in order to save water bodies, landscapes, and coastal resources. Sustainable tourism should uphold the non-declining inventory of natural capital in the destination community in the long run (Collins, 1999). Preserving natural capital also requires planners and decision-makers to revisit tourism demands by taking note of the carrying capacity of the environment, particularly for destinations famous for natural resources (Holden, 2016).

Facility maintenance (e.g. accommodations, road networks, and water supplies) helps consolidate physical capital. Well-maintained destinations provide a better experience to tourists. Furthermore, regular maintenance ensures the proper functioning of communities in the face of crises including climate change and public health emergencies (Masterson et al., 2014; Mayunga, 2007; Minkler, 2005). For example, good road networks and better security facilities encourage tourist flows. These elements of the infrastructure also safeguard local communities in fulfilling their needs for mobility and safety, as in the areas of evacuation strategies and crime prevention (Agyeman et al., 2019; Stone & Nyaupane, 2016).

Financial capital is essential to resilience. Reserving some funds from savings and investments is necessary even if the destination community is more willing to construct new places of interest and expand their business enterprises. These funds will help the community to recover after particular shocks or crises. Money can be used for rehabilitation, enabling quick recovery for destination communities; again, due to seasonality in tourism (Agyeman et al., 2019), such funds can offset shrinking incomes and help community members overcome hardships.

In tourism planning and development, nurturing various forms of social and community organisations is critical to psychological capital. Resident associations, religious organisations, and other forms of connections among community members should be encouraged. These collective forms of organisation contribute to the development of place attachment and active community engagement (Norris et al., 2008; Sherrieb et al., 2010). Residents with close connections to the community are more concerned about their community and the consequences of tourism development (McCool & Martin, 1994). Therefore, residents' participation in various venues creates opportunities for community members to play a significant role in the development process (Goodman et al., 1998; Norris et al., 2008).

6. Conclusion

The existing understanding of tourism from a systemic perspective consists of supply and demand and social and environmental perspective. However, we argue that the systemic approach seems to emphasise tourism consumption, under which key components of the destination community (e.g. attractions, transportation, services, information, and promotion) are resource- and market-oriented. The social and environmental perspective, although it identifies the environmental and social resources and outcomes, views the functionality of the destination community as serving its tourism demands. Insufficient emphasis has been placed on the local community's own capacity, values, attachment, and networks. Tourism prosperity at the destination community does not solely depend on economic benefits (Basurto-Cedeño & Pennington-Gray, 2018). Accordingly, understanding tourism and tourism development should be articulated in broader agendas, including sustainability, societal well-being, climate action, and the aspirations of local communities (Sharma, Thomas, & Paul, 2021).

In this review paper, we call for a co-flourishing framework that integrates community resilience in the course of tourism development. A community is the best level to address resilience. On the one hand, resilience has a great bearing on capacity building and the well-being of community members, while on the other, a community can evolve and develop to a better stage with more solidarity and collaboration by

making use of the process to bounce back. Central to community resilience is the use of community capital. In this paper, we have identified these six types of community capital: human, social, natural, physical, financial, and psychological. The management and use of these forms of capital are essential for community members to develop and explore various community assets and resources to thrive in an environment of change and uncertainty. We find that these forms of capital add value to community resilience in various dimensions.

Nonetheless, tourism development has become a catalyst for local economies which, in contrast, can have negative effects on the community and its sustainability development. For example, the prosperity of tourism changes the local employment structure, thus encouraging a rapid increase in the local population filled by outsiders, which may further change the social structure, community coherence, types of land use, and people's sentimental and emotional attachment to where they live. That is to say, a resource-driven tourism development paradigm may neglect the needs of the community and have negative impacts on community capital.

Intertwining community resilience and tourism development requires a community at the centre when we propose tourism development. We need to change the existing development paradigm that views tourism as a pure market behaviour and gain greater empathy with the needs of communities. We also need to understand that development consists of more than making changes to the physical environment, but includes making use of the community's own wisdom and capabilities to solve problems. A coherent community can mobilise its members in order to share the benefits of tourism with the entire community (Mbaiwa & Stronza, 2010). Related to this, providing training and management skills to local communities, strengthening collaboration and social mingling, preserving the natural environment, performing regular maintenance, setting up ad hoc funds for emergencies, and nurturing a variety of community associations and organisations are useful policy suggestions for long-term tourism development and planning. Our study helps extend the existing scope of community resilience research and provides a guideline on how tourism development can be incorporated into community resilience research – particularly emphasising the co-flourishing of community resilience and tourism development. It is important to note that the co-flourishing framework has many conceptual merits but lacks empirical evidence. Further research is needed to apply co-flourishing to future empirical research in various development scenarios in both developing and developed economies.

Acknowledgement

The work was developed upon Md Abdul Wakil's doctoral dissertation submitted to the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. The authors are grateful to the constructive comments from two anonymous reviewers. Any errors and misinterpretations remain the authors.

References

- Adger, W. N. (2000). Social and ecological resilience: Are they related? *Progress in Human Geography*, 24(3), 347–364.
- Agyeman, Y. B., Yeboah, A. O., & Ashie, E. (2019). Protected areas and poverty reduction: The role of ecotourism livelihood in local communities in Ghana. *Community Development*, 50(1), 73–91. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15575330.2019.1572635>.
- Amore, A., Prayag, G., & Hall, C. M. (2018). Conceptualizing destination resilience from a multilevel perspective. *Tourism Review International*, 22(3–4), 235–250.
- Andereck, K. L., Valentine, K. M., Knopf, R. C., & Vogt, C. A. (2005). Residents' perceptions of community tourism impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(4), 1056–1076.
- Andriotis, K., Styliadis, D., & Weidenfeld, A. (Eds.). (2019). *Tourism policy and planning implementation: Issues and challenges*. London: Routledge.
- Ap, J., & Crompton, J. L. (1998). Developing and testing a tourism impact scale. *Journal of Travel Research*, 37(2), 120–130.
- Atreya, A., & Kunreuther, H. (2016). Measuring community resilience: the role of the community rating system (CRS). Available at SSRN: <https://ssrn.com/abstract=2788230>.

- Basurto-Cedeño, E. M., & Pennington-Gray, L. (2018). An applied destination resilience model. *Tourism Review International*, 22(3–4), 293–302. <https://doi.org/10.3727/154427218X15369305779092>.
- Bauer, I. (1999). The impact of tourism in developing countries on the health of the local host communities: The need for more research. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 10(1), 2–17.
- Bec, A., McLennan, C.-L., & Moyle, B. D. (2016). Community resilience to long-term tourism decline and rejuvenation: A literature review and conceptual model. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 19(5), 431–457.
- Becken, S. (2013). Developing a framework for assessing resilience of tourism sub-systems to climatic factors. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 43, 506–528. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2013.06.002>.
- Beckley, T. M., Martz, D., Nadeau, S., Wall, E., & Reimer, B. (2008). Multiple capacities, multiple outcomes: Delving deeper into the meaning of community capacity. *Journal of rural and community development*, 3(3), 56–75.
- Béné, C., Newsham, A., Davies, M., Ulrichs, M., & Godfrey-Wood, R. (2014). Resilience, poverty and development. *Journal of International Development*, 26(5), 598–623.
- Bennett, N., Lemelin, R. H., Koster, R., & Budke, I. (2012). A capital assets framework for appraising and building capacity for tourism development in aboriginal protected area gateway communities. *Tourism Management*, 33(4), 752–766.
- Berkes, F., Colding, J., & Folke, C. (2003). *Navigating social-ecological systems: Building resilience for complexity and change*. London: Cambridge University Press.
- Bhatta, K. D. (2014). *Ecotourism planning and sustainable community development in Nepal* (PhD Thesis). The University of Hong Kong.
- Biggs, D., Hicks, C. C., Cinner, J. E., & Hall, C. M. (2015). Marine tourism in the face of global change: The resilience of enterprises to crises in Thailand and Australia. *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 105, 65–74. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ocecoaman.2014.12.019>.
- Brunt, P., & Courtney, P. (1999). Host perceptions of sociocultural impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(3), 493–515.
- Buckle, P., Mars, G., & Smale, S. (2000). New approaches to assessing vulnerability and resilience. *Australian Journal of Emergency Management, The*, 15(2), 8–14.
- Butler, R. (2018). Resilience in the face of changing circumstances: Fair Isle, Shetland. In J. M. Cheer, & A. A. Lew (Eds.), *Tourism, resilience and sustainability: Adapting to social, political and economic change* (pp. 116–131). London: Routledge.
- Cahyanto, I., & Pennington-Gray, L. (2017). *Toward a comprehensive destination crisis resilience framework* (p. 21). Travel and Tourism Research Association: Advancing Tourism Research Globally. Retrieved from https://scholarworks.umass.edu/ttra/2017/Academic_Papers/Oral/21.
- CARRI. (2013). Definitions of community resilience: an analysis. Retrieved from <https://s31207.pcdn.co/wp-content/uploads/2019/08/Definitions-of-community-resilience.pdf>.
- Cartier, E. A., & Taylor, L. L. (2020). Living in a wildfire: The relationship between crisis management and community resilience in a tourism-based destination. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 34, 100635.
- Cater, E. A. (1987). Tourism in the least developed countries. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 14(2), 202–226.
- Chaskin, R. J. (1997). Perspectives on neighborhood and community: A review of the literature. *Social Service Review*, 71(4), 521–547.
- Chaskin, R. J. (2001). Building community capacity: A definitional framework and case studies from a comprehensive community initiative. *Urban Affairs Review*, 36(3), 291–323.
- Chaskin, R. J. (2008). Resilience, community, and resilient communities: Conditioning contexts and collective action. *Child Care in Practice*, 14(1), 65–74.
- Cheer, J. M., Milano, C., & Novelli, M. (2019). Tourism and community resilience in the Anthropocene: Accentuating temporal overtourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 27(4), 554–572.
- Cheng, C.-K., & Chou, S.-F. (2015). The influence of place change on place bonding: A longitudinal panel study of renovated park users. *Leisure Sciences*, 37(5), 391–414.
- Clarke, D., Murphy, C., & Lorenzoni, I. (2018). Place attachment, disruption and transformative adaptation. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 55, 81–89.
- Coleman, J. S. (1988). Social capital in the creation of human capital. *American Journal of Sociology*, 94, S95–S120.
- Collins, A. (1999). Tourism development and natural capital. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(1), 98–109. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(98\)00059-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(98)00059-0).
- Cooper, C., & Hall, C. M. (2008). *Contemporary tourism: An international approach* (1st ed.). Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Deery, M., Jago, L., & Fredline, L. (2012). Rethinking social impacts of tourism research: A new research agenda. *Tourism Management*, 33, 64–73. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2011.01.026>.
- Devine-Wright, P. (2013). Think global, act local? The relevance of place attachments and place identities in a climate changed world. *Global Environmental Change*, 23(1), 61–69.
- DFID. (1999). *Sustainable livelihoods guidance sheets*. London: The Department for International Development (DFID). Retrieved from <https://www.livelihoodscentre.org/documents/114097690/114438878/Sustainable+livelihoods+guidance+sheets.pdf/594e5ea6-99a9-2a4e-f288-cbb4ae4bea8b?t=1569512091877>.
- Dredge, D., & Jenkins, J. M. (2007). *Tourism planning and policy* (1st ed.). Milton, Qld.: John Wiley & Sons Australia, Ltd.
- Esfehani, M. H., & Albrecht, J. N. (2019). Planning for intangible cultural heritage in tourism: Challenges and implications. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 43(7), 980–1001.
- Eshliki, S. A., & Kaboudi, M. (2012). Community perception of tourism impacts and their participation in tourism planning: A case study of Ramsar, Iran. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 36, 333–341.
- Filimonau, V., & De Coteau, D. (2020). Tourism resilience in the context of integrated destination and disaster management (DM2). *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 22, 202–222. <https://doi.org/10.1002/itr.2329>.
- Flora, C. B., Flora, J. L., & Gasteyer, S. P. (2016). *Rural communities: Legacy+ change* (4th ed.). Westview Press.
- Folke, C., Carpenter, S. R., Walker, B., Scheffer, M., Chapin, T., & Rockström, J. (2010). Resilience thinking: Integrating resilience, adaptability and transformability. *Ecology and Society*, 15(4), 20–28.
- Forjaz, M. J., Prieto-Flores, M.-E., Ayala, A., Rodriguez-Blazquez, C., Fernandez-Mayoralas, G., Rojo-Perez, F., & Martinez-Martin, P. (2011). Measurement properties of the Community Wellbeing Index in older adults. *Quality of Life Research*, 20, 733–743. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11136-010-9794-2>.
- García, F. A., Vázquez, A. B., & Macías, R. C. (2015). Resident's attitudes towards the impacts of tourism. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 13, 33–40. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2014.11.002>.
- Goeldner, C. R., & Ritchie, J. B. (2012). *Tourism principles, practices, philosophies* (12th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Goodman, R. M., Speers, M. A., McLeroy, K., Fawcett, S., Kegler, M., Parker, E., ... Wallerstein, N. (1998). Identifying and defining the dimensions of community capacity to provide a basis for measurement. *Health Education & Behavior*, 25(3), 258–278.
- Grove, K. (2018). *Resilience*. London: Routledge.
- Gu, H., & Ryan, C. (2008). Place attachment, identity and community impacts of tourism—The case of a Beijing hutong. *Tourism Management*, 29(4), 637–647.
- Gunn, C. A., & Var, T. (2002). *Tourism planning: Basics, concepts, cases* (4th ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Guo, Y., Zhang, J., Zhang, Y., & Zheng, C. (2018a). Catalyst or barrier? The influence of place attachment on perceived community resilience in tourism destinations. *Sustainability*, 10, 2347. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su10072347>.
- Guo, Y., Zhang, J., Zhang, Y., & Zheng, C. (2018b). Examining the relationship between social capital and community residents' perceived resilience in tourism destinations. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 26(6), 973–986.
- Hall, C. M. (2008). *Tourism planning: Policies, processes and relationships* (2nd ed.). Harlow, England: Pearson/Prentice Hall.
- Herschner, I., & Honey, P. (2018). Tourism and the psychologically resilient city: Christchurch after the earthquake. In A. A. Lew, & J. M. Cheer (Eds.), *Tourism resilience and adaptation to environmental change: Definitions and frameworks* (pp. 218–235). London: Routledge.
- Hess, J. J., Malilay, J. N., & Parkinson, A. J. (2008). Climate change: The importance of place. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 35(5), 468–478.
- Holden, A. (2008). *Environment and tourism* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.
- Holden, A. (2016). *Environment and tourism* (3rd ed.). London: Routledge.
- Holling, C. S. (1973). Resilience and stability of ecological systems. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics*, 4(1), 1–23.
- Hooli, L. J. (2018). From warrior to beach boy: The resilience of the Maasai in Zanzibar's tourism business. In J. M. Cheer, & A. A. Lew (Eds.), *Tourism, resilience and sustainability: Adapting to social, political and economic change* (pp. 103–115). Routledge.
- Husbands, W. (1989). Social status and perception of tourism in Zambia. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 16(2), 237–253.
- Hwang, D., & Stewart, W. P. (2017). Social capital and collective action in rural tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 56(1), 81–93. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287515625128>.
- Inskip, E. (1991). *Tourism planning: An integrated and sustainable development approach*. New York: John Wiley.
- Kais, S. M. (2018). *Climate change and resilience in industrial aquaculture: a study of community capitals in the shrimp-farming zone in Bangladesh* (PhD Thesis). Nanyang Technological University.
- Kais, S. M., & Islam, M. S. (2016). Community capitals as community resilience to climate change: Conceptual connections. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 13, 1211. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph13121211>.
- Kasim, A. (2006). The need for business environmental and social responsibility in the tourism industry. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, 7(1), 1–22.
- Keim, M. E. (2008). Building human resilience: The role of public health preparedness and response as an adaptation to climate change. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*, 35(5), 508–516.
- Kousky, C., & Shabman, L. (2012). The realities of federal disaster aid: the case of floods. Retrieved from <https://media.rff.org/archive/files/sharepoint/WorkImages/Download/RFF-IB-12-02.pdf>.
- Lea, J. (2006). *Tourism and development in the third world*. London: Routledge.
- Leiper, N. (2004). *Tourism management*. 455. Frenchs Forest: Pearson Education Australia.
- Lerch, D. (2017). *The community resilience reader: Essential resources for an era of upheaval*. Washington: Island Press.
- Leykin, D., Lahad, M., Cohen, O., Goldberg, A., & Aharonson-Daniel, L. (2013). Conjoint community resiliency assessment measure-28/10 items (CCRAM28 and CCRAM10): A self-report tool for assessing community resilience. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 52, 313–323. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10464-013-9596-0>.
- Lickorish, L. J., & Jenkins, C. L. (1997). *An introduction to tourism*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Logan, J. R., & Molotch, H. L. (2007). *Urban fortunes: The political economy of place* (20th anniversary ed.). Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- Luthar, S. S., Cicchetti, D., & Becker, B. (2000). The construct of resilience: A critical evaluation and guidelines for future work. *Child Development*, 71(3), 543–562.

- Macbeth, J., Carson, D., & Northcote, J. (2004). Social capital, tourism and regional development: SPCC as a basis for innovation and sustainability. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 7(6), 502–522. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1368350050408668200>.
- Maclean, K., Cuthill, M., & Ross, H. (2014). Six attributes of social resilience. *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management*, 57(1), 144–156.
- Magis, K. (2010). Community resilience: An indicator of social sustainability. *Society and Natural Resources*, 23(5), 401–416.
- Mason, P. (2003). *Tourism impacts, planning and management*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Masterson, J. H., Peacock, W. G., Van Zandt, S. S., Grover, H., Schwarz, L. F., & Cooper, J. T. (2014). *Planning for community resilience: A handbook for reducing vulnerability to disasters*. Washington, DC: Island Press.
- Mathieson, A., & Wall, G. (1982). *Tourism: Economic, physical, and social impacts*. London: Longman.
- Mawby, R. I. (2017). Crime and tourism: What the available statistics do or do not tell us. *International Journal of Tourism Policy*, 7(2), 81–92.
- Mayunga, J. S. (2007). Understanding and applying the concept of community disaster resilience: A capital-based approach. *Summer Academy for Social Vulnerability and Resilience Building*, 1(1), 1–16.
- Mbaiva, J. E., & Stronza, A. L. (2010). The effects of tourism development on rural livelihoods in the Okavango Delta, Botswana. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 18(5), 635–656. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669581003653500>.
- McCool, S. F., & Martin, S. R. (1994). Community attachment and attitudes toward tourism development. *Journal of Travel Research*, 32(3), 29–34.
- Mileti, D. (1999). *Disasters by design: A reassessment of natural hazards in the United States*. Washington, D.C.: Joseph Henry Press.
- Mill, R. C., & Morrison, A. M. (2009). *The tourism system* (6th ed.). Dubuque, Iowa: Kendall Hunt.
- Minkler, M. (2005). *Community organizing and community building for health* (2nd ed.). New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press.
- Mishra, S., Mazumdar, S., & Suar, D. (2010). Place attachment and flood preparedness. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 30(2), 187–197. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2009.11.005>.
- Moore, S. A., Severn, R. C., & Millar, R. (2006). A conceptual model of community capacity for biodiversity conservation outcomes. *Geographical Research*, 44(4), 361–371.
- Nelson, V. (2017). *An introduction to the geography of tourism* (2nd ed.). Lanham: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Norris, F. H., Stevens, S. P., Pfefferbaum, B., Wyche, K. F., & Pfefferbaum, R. L. (2008). Community resilience as a metaphor, theory, set of capacities, and strategy for disaster readiness. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 41(1–2), 127–150. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10464-007-9156-6>.
- Page, S. J. (2009). *Tourism management: Managing for change* (3rd ed.). Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Pandey, S. V. (2016). Impact of tourism on rural life. *World Leisure Journal*, 48(4), 42–52.
- Pearce, D. G. (1995). *Tourism today: A geographical analysis* (2nd ed.). Harlow, Essex, England: Longman Scientific & Technical.
- Pennington-Gray, L. (2018). Reflections to move forward: Where destination crisis management research needs to go. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 25, 136–139.
- Perdue, R. R., Long, P. T., & Kang, Y. S. (1999). Boomtown tourism and resident quality of life: The marketing of gaming to host community residents. *Journal of Business Research*, 44(3), 165–177.
- Pfefferbaum, B., Van Horn, R. L., & Pfefferbaum, R. L. (2017). A conceptual framework to enhance community resilience using social capital. *Clinical Social Work Journal*, 45(2), 102–110.
- Pizam, A. (1978). Tourism's impacts: The social costs to the destination community as perceived by its residents. *Journal of Travel Research*, 16(4), 8–12.
- Platts-Fowler, D., & Robinson, D. (2016). Community resilience: A policy tool for local government? *Local Government Studies*, 42(5), 762–784.
- Pulina, M., & Cortés-Jiménez, I. (2010). Have low-cost carriers influenced tourism demand and supply? The case of Alghero, Italy. *Tourism Analysis*, 15(6), 617–635.
- Qian, C., Sasaki, N., Jourdain, D., Kim, S. M., & Shivakoti, P. G. (2017). Local livelihood under different governance of tourism development in China—A case study of Huangshan mountain area. *Tourism Management*, 61, 221–233.
- Ruiz-Ballesteros, E. (2011). Social-ecological resilience and community-based tourism: An approach from Agua Blanca, Ecuador. *Tourism Management*, 32(3), 655–666.
- Salazar, N. B. (2009). Imaged or Imagined? Cultural Representations and the “Tourismification” of Peoples and Places (Imagé ou imaginé? Les représentations culturelles et la “tourismification” des peuples et des lieux). *Cahiers D'Études Africaines*, 49(193/194), 49–71.
- Schroeder, A., & Pennington-Gray, L. (2018). Resilience: The new paradigm for planning. What do we know and where do we need to go? *Tourism Review International*, 22(3–4), 229–234.
- Seraphin, H., Sheeran, P., & Pilato, M. (2018). Over-tourism and the fall of Venice as a destination. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 9, 374–376.
- Sharma, G. D., Thomas, A., & Paul, J. (2021). Reviving tourism industry post-COVID-19: A resilience-based framework. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 37, 100786. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2020.100786>.
- Sherrieb, K., Norris, F. H., & Galea, S. (2010). Measuring capacities for community resilience. *Social Indicators Research*, 99(2), 227–247.
- Smit, B., & Wandel, J. (2006). Adaptation, adaptive capacity and vulnerability. *Global Environmental Change*, 16(3), 282–292. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2006.03.008>.
- Smith, S. L. (1988). Defining tourism a supply-side view. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 15(2), 179–190.
- Sroyetch, S., & Caldicott, R. (2018). Backpacker tourism in Fiji as a sustainability intervention: Will they sink or swim? In J. M. Cheer, & A. A. Lew (Eds.), *Tourism, resilience and sustainability: Adapting to social, political and economic change*. London: Routledge.
- Stainton, H. (2020). Why tourism planning is important. Retrieved from <https://tourismteacher.com/why-tourism-development-planning-is-important/#:~:text=tourism%20development%20planning%3F-Tourism%20development%20refers%20to%20the%20growth%20and%20maintenance%20of%20the,encourage%20tourism%20for%20a%20destination>.
- Stone, M. T., & Nyaupane, G. P. (2016). Protected areas, tourism and community livelihoods linkages: A comprehensive analysis approach. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 24(5), 673–693. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2015.1072207>.
- Stone, M. T., & Nyaupane, G. P. (2018). Protected areas, wildlife-based community tourism and community livelihoods dynamics: Spiraling up and down of community capitals. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 26(2), 307–324. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2017.1349774>.
- Stylidis, D., Biran, A., Sit, J., & Szivas, E. M. (2014). Residents' support for tourism development: The role of residents' place image and perceived tourism impacts. *Tourism Management*, 45, 260–274.
- Tatoglu, E., Erdal, F., Ozgur, H., & Azakli, S. (2002). Resident attitudes toward tourism impacts: The case of Kusadasi in Turkey. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, 3(3), 79–100.
- Tsai, C.-H., Wu, T.-C., Wall, G., & Linliu, S.-C. (2016). Perceptions of tourism impacts and community resilience to natural disasters. *Tourism Geographies*, 18(2), 152–173.
- Ungar, M. (2011). Community resilience for youth and families: Facilitative physical and social capital in contexts of adversity. *Children and Youth Services Review*, 33(9), 1742–1748.
- Var, T., Kendall, K., & Tarakcioglu, E. (1985). Resident attitudes towards tourists in a Turkish resort town. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 12(4), 652–658.
- Wall, G., & Mathieson, A. (2006). *Tourism: Change, impacts, and opportunities*. Harlow, England: Pearson Education.
- Walter, C. L., & Hyde, C. A. (2012). Community building practice: An expanded conceptual framework. In D. Mileti (Ed.), *Community organizing and community building for health* (3rd ed.). New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press.
- Wijayanti, A., Damanik, J., Fandeli, C., & Sudarmadji. (2017). Analysis of supply and demand to enhance educational tourism experience in the smart park of Yogyakarta, Indonesia. *Economics*, 5(4), 42.
- Wilson, G. A. (2012). Community resilience, globalization, and transitional pathways of decision-making. *Geoforum*, 43, 1218–1231. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geoforum.2012.03.008>.
- Wu, T.-C. E., & Wall, G. (2018). Learning from Dabang, Taiwan: Sustainability and resilience in action in indigenous tourism development. In J. M. Cheer, & A. A. Lew (Eds.), *Tourism, resilience and sustainability: Adapting to social, political and economic change* (pp. 222–242). London: Routledge.
- Xue, H., & Fang, C. (2016). How to optimize tourism destination supply: A case in Shanghai from perspective of supplier and demand side perception. *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science*, 113(012227), 1315–1755. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/113/1/012227>.
- Zhang, Y., & Peacock, W. G. (2009). Planning for housing recovery? Lessons learned from hurricane Andrew. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 76(1), 5–24. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01944360903294556>.
- Zielinski, S., Kim, S.-I., Botero, C., & Yanes, A. (2020). Factors that facilitate and inhibit community-based tourism initiatives in developing countries. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 23(6), 723–739.



Md Abdul Wakil is currently pursuing his doctorate degree in the Department of Building and Real Estate, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University (since 2018). Supported by the Asian Development Bank, Wakil received postgraduate training in Urban Planning from the University of Hong Kong in 2014. In the meantime, Wakil has been working as an Assistant professor in the Department of Urban & Regional Planning, Rajshahi University of Engineering & Technology. He is interested in tourism planning and development in Bangladesh, with particular reference to community development and resilience.



Yi Sun is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Building and Real Estate, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University. His research interests include urban and regional planning, age-friendly cities and communities as well as identification of environmental factors conducive to promoting health and well-being. Professionally, he has been serving the expert panel for international consultancies and United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific.



Edwin H.W. Chan is a Chartered Architect, Surveyor and Engineer and a qualified Barrister-at-Law called to both the English and Hong Kong Bars. Currently, he is a full Professor of the Department of Building and Real Estate, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University. His research interests include urban renewal, urban sustainability policy and heritage conservation.