

BUSINESS CRISIS AND ITS MANAGEMENT

*Crisis management as a part of
safety and security management in
a tourism company*

Pekka Iivari

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ABSTRACT

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Customers, partners and employees expect a tourism company to have a high level of know-how in safety. Safety-orientedness has become one of tourism's most important megatrends. Ensuring business continuity is a strategic question in areas and companies that depend on tourism. At the business and organisational level, security is a component of quality. More and more often, the tourist's choice of destination is also based on safety information and the security situation, but also on the image of safety associated with the tourist destination.

The main emphasis in organisational safety and security management is on preventing undesired incidents. Quite rarely is it realised that safety and security management should also include prevention and management of a possible crisis following an incident. A crisis occurs when an abnormal situation endangers the physical and immaterial existence of an organisation. Crises are unavoidable also in the tourism sector, which is susceptible to various abnormal situations. The impacts of crises are easily reflected around the world.

Crisis management is also reputation management. If something abnormal occurs, the company or organisation is evaluated in public more and more on the basis of how it was able to handle the crisis that befell it. This evaluation is no longer based so much on how well the company has been able to list all possible and impossible risks in its operation.

This "Business crisis and its management" book offers tourism companies guidelines for crisis management and communication. This book deals with the basic characteristics of crises, the various phases of an individual's experience of a crisis, development of a company's readiness to deal with a crisis and planning of communication.

This book is intended to support tourism safety and security management at the practical level in companies and in organisations belonging to a tourism safety and security network.

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KEYWORDS: safety, security, co-operation, domestic security, rescue operation

FOREWORD

Tourism is one of the world's most rapidly growing businesses, which cannot develop without a secure operating environment. Customers, partners and employees expect a tourism company to have a high level of know-how in safety. Safety-orientedness has become one of tourism's most important megatrends. Ensuring business continuity is a strategic question in areas and companies that depend on tourism. At the business and organisational level, security is a component of quality. At the societal level, safety is a part of well-being which depicts the functional reliability of infrastructure and services. More and more often, the tourist's choice of destination is also based on safety information and the security situation, but also on the image of safety associated with the tourist destination.

In a tourism company, safety is organised through safety and security management, which also includes risk management. Risk management seeks to prevent materialisation of undesired incidents within the tourism service process. In spite of safety and security management, risk management and the organisation's good safety culture, it is always possible that something may happen. Daily abnormal situations and deviations in quality and safety are part of the organisation's routine events which are taken care of with proper attention and documentation, but nearly automatically, without endangering the continuity of operation or the very existence of the organisation. Ordinary daily abnormal situations and disturbances are usually taken care of well, so in such cases we are not yet speaking of possible crises developing.

A crisis occurs when an abnormal situation endangers the physical and immaterial existence of an organisation. The main emphasis in safety and security management is on preventing undesired incidents. Quite rarely is it realised that safety and security management should also include prevention and management of a possible crisis following an incident. Crises are unavoidable also in the tourism sector, which is susceptible to various abnormal situations. The impacts of crises are easily reflected around the world.

This book was produced in the "Lapland's tourism safety and security system – research and development network" project. The project was funded from the European Regional Development Fund. The piloting project, that produced the Finnish version of this book, was awarded on 2011 as Finland's best university of applied sciences' research, development and innovation practice. As the project's preparatory work was being done at Rovaniemi University of Applied Sciences in the spring of 2009, it was noticed that there is very little literature dealing with safety intended for the tourism

business. In addition to this crisis management guide, a tourism safety textbook is being compiled for secondary level studies and HEIs. This crisis management guide is meant to support tourism safety and security management at the practical level in companies and in organisations belonging to a safety and security network.

Very little Finnish literature about business crisis management has been published. However, encountering someone in a crisis and post-crisis follow-up are quite extensively covered themes also in Finnish professional literature and textbooks. In compiling this book it has been necessary to rely to a significant degree on foreign literature. References dealing with this topic ranged from descriptions of crisis theories to field-specific publications and guides. This book emphasises a broad perspective on crises and their management expressly from the viewpoint of companies and business networks. The topic is approached from general crisis theories, but the focus gradually shifts to business, tourism company and tourism centre crises and their management. As a hint to the hurried reader, concrete issues begin in chapter 2.

Crisis management is also reputation management. If something abnormal occurs, the company or organisation is evaluated in public more and more on the basis of how it was able to handle the crisis that befell it. This evaluation is no longer based so much on how well the company has been able to list all possible and impossible risks in its operation.

I have gotten bits of information from several specialists and companies during the various phases of compiling this book. I wish to thank the municipalities, companies, authorities and organisations participating in Lapland's tourism safety and security system for their expert comments during the manuscript phase. The tourism safety and security network created in Lapland is a nationally and internationally unique practice which also supports national domestic security and daily safety work. The 2010 Diamond Act award granted to Lapland's tourism safety and security network indicates its uniqueness. The Ministry of the Interior has strongly supported the development of tourism safety and security network co-operation via a partnership agreement entered with the Lapland Institute for Tourism Research and Education. I wish to thank the Ministry of the Interior for including the Finnish edition of this in its publication series. I also wish to express my thanks to Rovaniemi University of Applied Sciences for publishing the book in its publication series. Rovaniemi University of Applied Sciences, a founder of the Multidimensional Tourism Institute (MTI), has a robust background in international development of safety and security. For example, RAMK started Business in Russia security work in 2004.

Special thanks go to the awarded project's professional, efficient project team for creating an innovating work environment. However, the undersigned assumes full

responsibility for the factual content. The Multidimensional Tourism Institute (MTI) and the undersigned will gladly accept feedback, both critical and encouraging, which you readers are ready to give. If the safety and security management tools of a company, and particularly a tourism company, are supplemented with the help of this book, the author's wish will have been fulfilled.

Pekka Iivari

Project Manager

The Multidimensional Tourism Institute (MTI)



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1 DEFINITION OF A CRISIS

1.1 A crisis is a change

A crisis is an essential component of the phases of national and business economic cycles and also in the lives of individual people. In speaking of the impersonal world, such as economics, it is possible to specify the cycles or phases of economic development in which crises act as forces of change. The phases of both national and business economies include stable growth, drops in production and weakening of financial indicators, depression, gradual replacement of old systems with new ones and finally, a downward spiral which is the hot phase of a crisis. At both the individual level and in economic life and the business world, a crisis is preceded by countless random factors that define the manner in which the crisis materialises. According to crisis research literature, all structures and living organisms experience a crisis in some phase of their life cycle.

On the theoretical level, a crisis is defined as a state of extreme incongruities in a socioeconomic system (organisation) or in an individual's various phases, threatening its viability and the immediate surroundings. The causes of a crisis may be objective (modernisation, reorganisation, undesired phenomena caused by nature) or subjective, such as a series of events resulting from administrative errors and accidents caused by people. A crisis is possible and even probable in all organisations and communities. A crisis may evolve gradually or develop suddenly. Negative factors may accumulate in and around an organisation over a long period; sufficient accumulation may trigger a crisis. In such a case equilibrium is disturbed, making the organisation labile, unpredictable. Nevertheless, to cope with the new and changed operating environment, the organisation (a business is also an organisation) then seeks a new state of equilibrium.

At the level of an individual person, a crisis is a situation in life or an event that cannot be explained through prior experiences and learned methods of action. Therefore, it becomes impossible to understand the situation. Thus, a crisis is an unavoidable

part of life. The probability of a crisis occurring grows if a system's foundation of existence is shaken. Then the elements of development of a new system or a change take control of the old system. A crisis is considered to be a sudden and abrupt downward change in an individual's life or a company's line of development. It may even be a free-fall, at least momentarily. A crisis threatens vital functions and also endangers the core functions of socioeconomic systems.

Originating from the Greek language, the word crisis originally meant a "decision." This brings us to the idea that a crisis is not always bad. It is also a fork in the road, an opening and a possibility to find something new, for renewal. This idea is also present in the Chinese concept of a crisis, according to which a crisis is also an opportunity. A crisis in the market opens a so-called strategic window, which depicts an abrupt change in the market. The strategic window gives competing organisations an opportunity to enter the playing field stronger than before. Also, new functionaries appear in the field and old ones leave the picture.

A crisis is nevertheless always a change, a decisive turn, after which the organisation and the world and individuals around it are different in comparison with the time before the crisis. During a crisis an essential change occurs in the organisation and its immediate surroundings. The organisation, staff and operational principles acquire a new form, a new position. It is an old truth that no crisis will ever repeat itself in exactly the same manner.

Different fields and sectors encounter different types of crises. Stafford et al. (2006, 308) define crisis management in the tourism sector as follows: "*The planning, coordination, and execution of response and recovery strategies to tourism and hospitality business crises caused by natural disasters, epidemics, terrorist attacks, and management failures.*" This definition limits the emergence of a crisis primarily to materialisation of safety problems, although management failures may include a variety of reasons for different types of crises. Indeed, a business crisis is most often linked to a shaking of its economic foundation.

Materialisation of business risks causes an economic crisis for a company. This is usually a consequence of unsuccessful management. A product may be out of date, marketing may be deficient or the company's ability to react may be inflexible. In business operation, a crisis is always lurking on the flip side of the coin. A crisis also prunes an organisation in the manner of natural selection. An economic crisis may destroy companies operating on the weakest and least sustainable business principles. The depth and duration of a crisis determine how strong a company will buckle in a crisis.

1.2 We live in a crisis-prone society

We have become a society of risks and partly also a society of crises in which various crises reoccur regularly. The concept of a society of risks depicts the complexity of our living environment's technical, economic and social structures. The vulnerability of the technical structure, in particular, triggers our modern society's proneness to crises and the broad extent of crises. During the next couple of decades the electricity-dependent digital, networked world will change the internal processes and even the very nature of tourism. A serious crisis may result in simultaneous, multi-level materialisation of risks and a collapse of operations. Risks may materialise geographically anywhere. The formation of various regional and national scenarios is emerging as a special question that must be addressed by authorities and companies in co-operation.

After World War II, Finland had hundreds of thousands of citizens who, according to modern criteria, would have been in need of organised crisis help. During the Continuation War many soldiers ended up in psychiatric hospital care. At the time, the Finns dealt with crises primarily by applying the agrarian society model, in which the community comprised of relatives, neighbours and family was the only security network. Beginning in the 1960s, attention was also paid to providing crisis help for peacekeepers. The explosion at the Lapua cartridge factory in 1976 can be considered the activator of civilian crisis help organised by society; the need for extensive mental help began to be understood. Altogether 40 people were killed in the explosion and 60 were injured; 76 children lost their parents. The Finnish Red Cross distributed monetary aid and arranged home help for the victims of the Lapua accident and their families. The Red Cross also provided funds with which to hire a psychologist for the Lapua healthcare centre (Tikka et al. 2010, 24).

Typical of today's crises is that a number of negative issues and events affecting in the same direction trigger rapid development of a crisis that is difficult to control. Usually, several things have had to go wrong simultaneously to trigger a risk. This also applies to the birth of a crisis after a risk has materialised. A crisis nearly always happens unexpectedly. A good example of this unexpectedness is the strategy for securing functions vital to society, passed in 2003. The strategy did not take into consideration a large-scale catastrophe occurring abroad, in which possibly hundreds of Finns are involved. The tsunami in Southeast Asia opened our eyes to this possibility, also. However, the occurrence of a crisis in a foreign tourist destination had been practiced six months prior to the tsunami. Preparation for the post-crisis period involves applying in practice what was learned about communication, reorganising operations, developing staff readiness, and developing and introducing new production technologies.

This book deals with individuals' and organisations' ways of reacting to a crisis and provides tools with which organisations can prepare for crisis management. First, however, we will scrutinise the crisis dynamics of a community or organisation more broadly than that of an individual. An organisation's reaction to a crisis depends on the rate at which the crisis progresses. A gradually progressing crisis (creeping crisis) may threaten part of the organisation. It is initially hard to recognise a gradually and slowly progressing crisis. Organisations usually react to this type of crisis in a very bureaucratic manner. The crisis may not be acknowledged and an attempt may be made to maintain *status quo*, i.e. outward dominance or seeming stability. This is exactly what happened in Nokia's water epidemic crisis in 2007, for example. Existence of the crisis was denied both within and outside the organisation, especially in public.

An occasional threat or loss of part of an organisation causes a crisis that is dealt with through an internal negotiation process. This type of crisis often results in internal disputes in the organisation. A sudden threat and incident or a danger of organisational paralysis leads to wide acknowledgement of the existence of a crisis also outside the organisation. In such a case the organisation's first reaction is defensive (Booth 1993, 87).

A crisis also has geographical dimensions. A crisis may have a local, regional or global impact. A local crisis means the foundation of one part of a system is shaken. An example is the shutdown of a pulp mill belonging to a global group, which caused crisis feelings and phenomena in Kemijärvi in 2009. Crises are also categorised as macro- and micro-crises. Macro-crises have extensive volumes and scales (Chernobyl's atomic power plant accident), while micro-crises only affect through one problem or a small cluster of problems. Micro-crises may escalate into a series of events that threatens the entire system if it is not possible to contain them at the outset (USA's real estate and bank crisis in 2008). On the basis of the aforementioned, crisis management provides protection at the following levels: micro-level (individual/family and business), regional and field-specific level (meso-level), national economy level (macro-level) and global economic security (mega-level) (see e.g. Orehov et al. 2006, 9). Typical causes of crises can be categorised as follows:

- 1. Accidents**, which are the most rapidly developing, sudden and unexpected crises in business crisis management. Accidents include fires, explosions, emissions, natural catastrophes or personal injuries. These types of situations and incidents significantly hinder service production and threaten staff members, customers and the environment. Various types of accidents are considered the primary source of crises in planning tourism company safety and in developing the readiness of the tourism business.
- 2. Violence-caused crises** include bomb threats, extortion, theft/invasion, sabotage or information breaches. Acts of violence are intentional deeds that target a company, its facilities or its staff and customers, and their purpose is to damage the facilities and/or injure people.

3. **Staff crises** may develop from, for example, lay-offs/resignations, strikes, discrimination or occupational protection and occupational wellness problems. Staff crises are often problems caused by the organisation's management culture.
4. **Financial crises** may be caused by interruptions in production or delivery, faulty business strategies, changes in the competitive situation, a lack of raw material or low-quality (service) products.
5. **Field-specific crises** may originate from accidents or neglect within the field, but not necessarily within the company itself, actions taken by environmental or animal rights activists or perhaps a boycott against the field.
6. **Publicity crises, so-called reputation crises**, often originate from ill-advised statements, accusations of cover-ups, inept communication or erroneous rumours and news.

Crises can also be categorised as financial, political, social, organisational, psychological, technological and ecological crises. In a financial crisis the management must implement robust measures, including restructuring and closing down production units. Companies hovering at the brink select crisis leaders and leaders of change who have the courage to implement drastic cuts. Apparent or visible crises are noticed immediately and are easy to recognise. Hidden crises progress unnoticed, making them difficult to prevent, notice or contain (Greece's growing budget deficit, Ireland's financial crisis). Deep (abrupt) crises again may destroy a system (the Soviet Union's collapse). Moderate crises advance more smoothly and are relatively short in duration. Moderate crises most often affect management but not the actual foundations of production. The impact of Iceland's ash cloud on air traffic management, but not on the demand for air transport, is a good example of the latter.

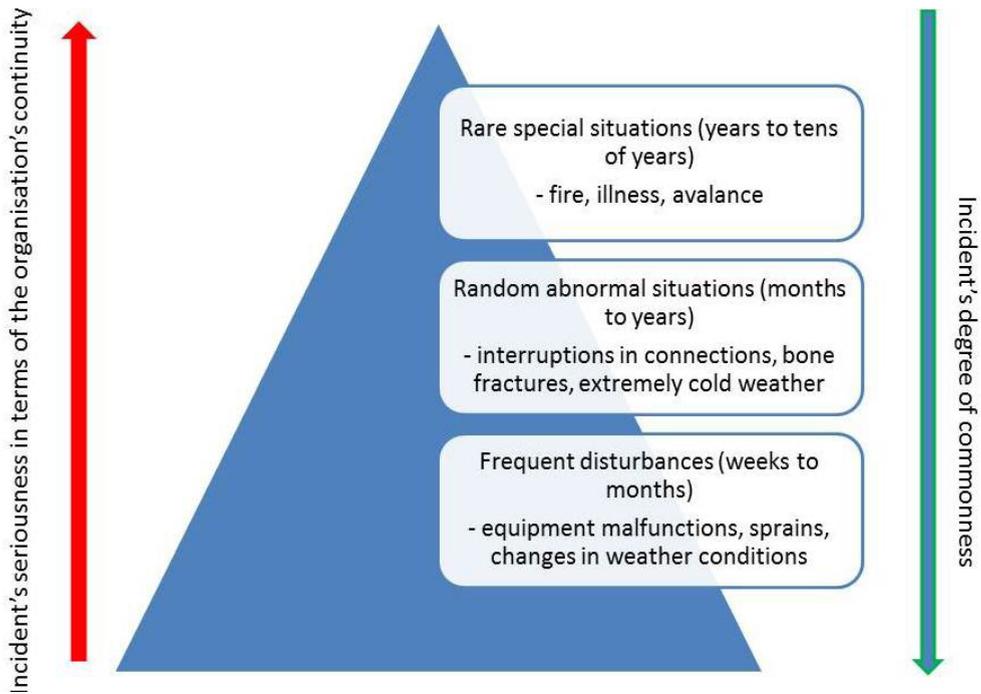


Figure1. Intensity pyramid of abnormal situations. Incidents that are calamitous from the standpoint of continuity are usually rare.

New operating methods and ways of thinking introduced in an organisation usually represent the future. Fresh ideas and operating models offer companies new alternatives with which to cope in a changing operating environment. Searching for new possibilities also means taking risks. Innovativeness and investments provide good, albeit not ultimate, protection against business crises. They offer competitiveness and readiness to change according to the conditions set by the external environment. For the best success, crisis management should span the international (EU, IMF, OECD), national, regional and business levels. For crises that occur at the operational level of a tourism company, the regional level and the company's immediate operating environment – its local network – are crucial in crisis management.

Business crisis management can be compared to the space shuttle's approach within the earth's atmosphere. The atmosphere is a crisis and the shuttle is a functionary. To minimise damage, the functionary must approach the crisis at precisely the right angle. Too steep an angle will destroy the shuttle and too gentle a slope will destroy the approach entirely, causing the shuttle to return to outer space where an infinite crisis awaits. Risk management takes into consideration that the shuttle will not burn in the atmosphere and the crew will act correctly in all situations. In this case risk management has preceded actual crisis management.

1.3 A state view on crisis management – Case Russia

Of Finland's neighbouring countries, business crisis management is the topic of very much discussion in Russia, where there is an abundance of literature on business risk management and crisis management (e.g. Orehov et al. 2006; Zaharov et al. 2007; Kovan et al. 2009). What is the reason for such robust research on crisis theory in Russia? There are plenty of natural answers to this question. The emphasis on crisis management stems from the Soviet Union's collapse and the consequential abrupt change in the social system with its various economic, social and political crises. The private sector in Russia was created from nothing. Crisis became a nearly permanent state of affairs in the territory of the former superpower. No one was sure about the future, and this unsureness still has not settled to a "normal" level. The entrepreneur's life was and sometimes still is wild and dangerous. Russia wanted the business situation and operating environment to stabilise by the beginning of the new millennium. Crisis management know-how was in demand in the Eastern superpower. However, due to the language and culture barrier, Russian literature concerning this sector has not found its way to Finnish or Western readers.

The crisis management mind-set in Russia can be considered to originate from the state's and society's need to protect its economic and national security. Russian literature emphasises the role of the state in developing business life's capacity to endure crises (see e.g. Zaharov et al. 2007, 20–24). The experiences of the 1990s in Russia justified the state-centred approach to the business crisis management mind-set. Russian companies were completely non-competitive and vulnerable under the shadow of the changes in the social systems. Fluctuations caused by social crises are less pronounced and less varied in Western democracies than in the former Socialist countries. The social and economic mechanisms that protect against crises have traditionally been stronger in Western countries.

Macro-level crisis management is strongly linked to states' security mind-set. The world has always had and will always have various conflicts, crises. In Russia, national security and its stabilising factor – economic security – are considered the most important top-level elements of the crisis management system (Orehov et al. 2006, 20). Orehov, Baldin and Gaponenko (2006) find the principles of crisis management in the concepts of safety and national security. They are the nation's highest values, which must be protected in all circumstances. In the Russian mind-set, the state is a company's most important partner (Iivari 2007). Preventing and managing social and economic crises at the state level indirectly affect business operation. The state can support companies' capacity to endure financial crises, for example by supporting research and development. As a detail, Orehov et al. (2006) mention that at least 2% of the GNP should be invested in innovation, research and development activity. This way the state and society ensure that their competitiveness is preserved also during financial crises.

Orehov's and his team's model of thinking well depicts the worldwide framework of crises. Economic crises most often have global roots. Of course, a business may face a profitability crisis due to local and company-specific circumstances. Staff crises are also most often local manifestations. But they also have their own worldwide mechanisms in the background. A staff crisis may have been caused by a change in management culture or economic and technological changes.

It is possible to glean something from the Russian mind-set and crisis theorisation and apply it to Finnish business security, nevertheless keeping in mind our special features and Scandinavian culture. It must be remembered that foreign crisis management research and experiences cannot be applied as is in domestic practices or education. Every country has its own culture and legislation as well as inter-authority co-operation and organisational crisis management history. Russia's problem is not so much a lack of crisis awareness or principles of foresight, but rather arrangement of measures in practice, a lack of crisis networks and the weakness of business support systems. Naturally, foreign experiences and knowledge must be mastered when seeking to instil a crisis management mind-set in a company's management. Awareness of international experiences and mind-sets is particularly important for companies that operate in or export to the country in question.

1.4 A business crisis occurs when a serious risk materialises

At its worst, business crisis management may consist of dealing with matters that befall the company or plugging numerous separate leaks – in other words, fighting against time without dealing with underlying causes. There is a fear that this is the case in most organisations. Businesses trust in good luck. The most unpleasant matters are swept under the rug. The organisation's culture and values are adrift if a foresighted, systematic crisis management mind-set has not been formed and troublesome matters are expected to pass by the company.

A business crisis may be caused by external or internal factors. External factors include fluctuation in product or service demand, credit policy, customer companies' payment difficulties, economic cycles, political/legal uncertainty, accidents, personal loss, government regulation, inflation and international competition. Internal factors include an erroneous market mind-set, low-quality products, incorrect use of resources, faulty management skills and safety culture and a distorted organisational culture. Outward factors of a crisis are events (phenomena, processes or development trends like inflation) which create favourable circumstances for a crisis to occur. Internal factors are born from the organisation's own life cycles, which include a product life cycle mind-set. Each organisation reacts in its own way to changes in its internal and external worlds. Incorrectly planned, scaled and implemented reactions to these changes accelerate crisis formation.

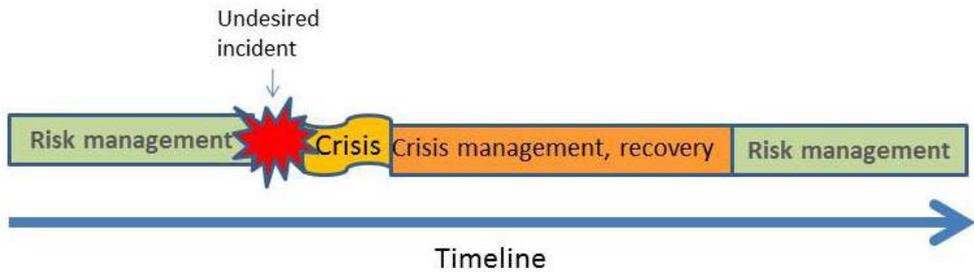


Figure 2. Company or organisation timeline from risk management via a crisis to crisis management and back to a normal state. Of course, if crisis management isn't successful, the alternative is a catastrophe from the organisation's viewpoint.

All kinds of abnormal situations in a company can trigger a crisis through an escalating chain of events. A crisis can befall a business in the same way as an individual or society. A business crisis directly affects the company's management, employees and customers. Indirect effects extend to subcontractors, principal suppliers, surrounding society and reputation – the entire chain of values. Crises also spawn communality. People recognise the event that has occurred as their own and experience it personally even though they are not directly involved. Also religious and ritual meanings are felt during a crisis, and they bring a feeling of security and calm the situation.

Crisis management in business operation is closely connected to the company's risk management policy. A risk management policy seeks to map, analyse, foresee and control risks, both business risks and personal and property risks. A crisis is that part of an abnormal situation which continues after a risk has materialised. A crisis continues on from where a risk ended. With a good risk management mind-set it is possible to also be prepared for crises. However, risk management does not entirely foresee and solve the consequences of a crisis. While risk management is foresighted and preventive management of a company's abnormal situations, crisis management is management and containment of a short- or long-term abnormal situation resulting from a materialised risk and implementation of procedures needed to reach a normal situation and ensure continuity. In crisis management a company can and should rely on its safety and security network. It is the task of the state, regional functionaries and municipalities to create as risk-free operating conditions as possible for business life. It is also in the interests of societies and states to avoid different kinds of crises. Sustainable economic growth also affects the vitality and crisis endurance of states and regions.

Preparing for risks and crises is not a matter of course in the tourism sector, either. An example is the Kelowna area in British Columbia, which is known for its susceptibility to forest fires. The readiness of both the Kelowna area and tourism companies

located there to respond to the risk caused by forest fires and resulting crises has been studied (Hystad et al. 2006). According to a study conducted in 2003, about 27% of the area's companies were unaware of the fact that the city administration had an emergency plan in place in case of a forest fire. It was noted in the study that only 5% of the companies were included in the plan. Around 26% of the companies had compiled some kind of rescue plan, but only 4% of the companies recognised forest fires as a significant risk. Three-quarters of the companies had not taken forest fires into consideration at all in their plans. Neither did most of the companies have a crisis and recovery plan, even though losses in tourism income caused by forest fires were significant for a period of three years after the fires. It has been noticed in Kelowna and elsewhere that the level of preparedness and planning is higher in larger companies than in small companies.

Such a safe tourism destination as Scotland suffered considerably from hoof-and-mouth disease in the early 2000s (Irvine & Andersson 2006). Studies on the effects of the hoof-and-mouth disease epidemic determined that the country's image and people's mental images of the country, not facts, had the greatest impact on tourist volume.

2 FORESEEING A CRISIS

2.1 From reactive to proactive

The basic principles of a company's safety and security management include the idea that abnormal situations can be foreseen. The company's business management rests on a sturdy foundation if foresight is made a part of all operations. A company or organisation may have practiced foreseeing without being particularly aware that it was a question of foreseeing or without a specific decision concerning foresighted operation having been made in the organisation. Foreseeing may have been a part of operations such as monitoring the economic situation of a market area and drawing conclusions on purchasing power on that basis, or estimating changes in customers' needs. However, introduction of fully effective foresighted operation and implementation of the process means the organisation has to make a decision to systematise all of the company's available internal and external information to support foreseeing. Using the local network around the company for foresight means the members of the network together are aware of the significance of foresight and have made a joint decision concerning the process. A decision on foresight is a strategic one and indicates the organisation's intent to its staff and partners; the goal is to ensure the organisation's continuity and profitable operation.

The various methods of foresight are quite unknown in the business world. There are many reasons for this. One problem is that planning for the future is often minimal due to limited staff, time and information resources. There has been no opportunity or time to become familiar with methods of foresight. In the business world, this problem is emphasised especially among micro-businesses and SMEs. Small companies may have a dim understanding of foresight. The concept is viewed as a specialty in the academic world with no connection to actual reality. On the other hand, foresight is an essential part of business management for large global operators, even more so than for public administration organisations.

FORESIGHT FURTHERS	LACK OF A FORESEEING MIND-SET
correctly focused measures	may bring the organisation astray
controlled development	increases the possibility of a crisis occurring
survival	poses a threat of an organisational shut-down
optimisation of resources	wastes resources
the capacity to endure fluctuations in the operating environment	makes the organisation susceptible to abnormal situations
proactivity	causes reactivity

Foresight starts with a description of the operating environment. The description is an analysis of the impact of the organisation's immediate surroundings and long-term trends on its current operation. The objective of analysing the operating environment is to outline the company's current operating environment and expected changes or factors of change within it. A change in the operating environment necessitates development of a foresight programme for the tourism area, or at least methods of foresight to be used as tools for observing and developing the operating environment and safety. Analysis of the operating environment examines the company's/organisation's financial, political, social and technological environments. Analysis of the operating environment must not become too heavy a task with respect to a SME's resources. Indeed, it is not recommendable to analyse the operating environment's main factors of change only for the sake of foresight; the work should also have a broader value in creating the company's business principles. Most often analysis of the operating environment in connection with business analysis will suffice as initial information for foresight.

A REACTIVE ORGANISATION	A FORESEEING ORGANISATION
concentrates on chains of events that led to the occurrence of accidents	understands that abnormal situations result from complex interconnections
searches for individual factors	includes safety culture as a part of normal operation
experiences fluctuation in the environment as a threat	fluctuation is normal and also an opportunity
bases decisions on limiting fluctuation (rules, routines, standards)	takes risk variation into consideration in decision-making
operates hierarchically with long chains of responsibility	clear responsibilities, but flexible and quick responses

Analysis of the current state of the safety environment means examining the operating environment from the viewpoint of safety. Analysis of the operating environment with emphasis on a safety theme will uncover the factors of change that are most essential for the organisation and its network of influence (Iivari 2007). In some cases the impact of the company on its operating environment also needs to be assessed. This type of reverse – or rather 360-degree – analysis of the safety environment is implemented especially in business operations containing critical safety effects, in the same manner as an environmental impact assessment. Examples include the mining and chemical industries and energy production.

After safety environment analysis, the next step is to map the company's available security resources with which safety and security management and included risk management will be implemented. The company has external and internal foresight resources comprised of specialists and technical solutions. Departmental analysts and the company's security managers are internal resources. The national foresight network (which also includes regional HEIs) and the foresight systems of business partners, principal suppliers and subcontractors are external resources. Safety, quality and foresight work done in the tourism area are also external resources, although they are closely available to the company, and even partly under its jurisdiction.

Foresight is also an essential part of crisis management. A company's crisis management mind-set is built upon the assumptions that crises are expected and foreseen, it is necessary to prepare for them, crises can be influenced by accelerating or interrupting them and crisis development processes are manageable up to a certain limit. It is also felt that crisis management requires special expertise and experience as well as instruments developed for that purpose. Like risk management, crisis management seeks to neutralise the most dangerous phenomena and risks thought possible, which could lead to serious crises. Through crisis management the company is warned of a budding threat, has the possibility to soften the crisis and is able to find an exit from it. Arrangement of crisis prevention and crisis management requires recognition of the various phases of the crisis process. The phases of a crisis can be roughly categorised as: a pre-crisis phase, the actual crisis and a post-crisis phase.

CRITICAL QUESTIONS OF FORESIGHT IN TOURISM SAFETY

- more effective utilisation of existing risk information (e.g. near miss situations)
- risks inherent in new services
- new cultures as customers and entrepreneurs
- development outlook of rescue services and other security resources
- future demands on safety and security management
- development of attitudes and valuation and changes in legislation
- availability of research data to businesses and tourism centres
- broad participation of various stakeholders in the process of foreseeing
- creation of a functional link with tourism's national-level foresight
- making foresighted information available to companies

The difference between the definitions of a catastrophe and a crisis is not absolutely clear. A crisis may end up as a catastrophe. On the other hand, a catastrophe may describe a very dramatic incident that immediately triggers a deep crisis. Various indicators have been found with which to recognise the preliminary phase of a catastrophe and a crisis. Typical meters with which the preliminary phase can be recognised are a long-term lack of results in production and decision-making, strong fluctuation in the organisation's basic parameters, existence of only a few minor alternative solutions and a steep decrease in their number, a rapid rate of incurring debts, inability to pay wages, strikes, middle management's dissatisfaction and inability to make decisions, susceptibility to conflicts within the work community, shareholders' dissatisfaction and mass lay-offs. These indicators primarily label crisis formation due to economic reasons.

THREATS MAY BE:

- external
- internal
- real
- subjective
- potential
- intentionally created
- suddenly appearing
- developing over a long period
- direct
- indirect

Catastrophe indicators strengthen as a free-fall accelerates. Internationally, a catastrophe is defined as an accident in which the death toll exceeds one hundred. Healthcare

defines a catastrophe as a situation in which the number of injured exceeds the local treatment capacity. Lasse Nurmi (2006) has written about the definitions of an accident, a major accident and a catastrophe in more detail, so there is no reason to more deeply analyse these concepts here.

Each organisation needs to form crisis indicators that apply to its own operation and can be used to measure the progress of the various phases of a crisis and recognise the preliminary phase of a crisis as quickly as possible. These meters function as fore-warning markers and depict the depth and direction of development of the situation. The range of meters should be developed on the basis of the organisation's nature and needs. The same indicators will not work in all organisations. For example, state-level indicators include GDP, unemployment rate, budget deficit, rate of incurring external and internal debt and the number of people living below the poverty level.

Crisis management that emphasises economic crises includes continuous monitoring of the internal and external environment so that the company is warned of an impending threat of a risk as early as possible. Through monitoring it is possible to detect if the company's relative position is weakening and if there are abnormalities in its internal processes and relations. Every successful strategy is also crisis management. Preparing for crises steers the organisation's arrangement of administration and preparation of necessary measures. Crisis prevention is an administrative process that should be a part of the company's management culture. Crisis management takes into consideration all the characteristics of a crisis, which include problems caused by the crisis, the scope of the crisis, the timetable of crisis development, the current phase of the crisis, causes, possible effects and the abruptness of the crisis.

An organisation's crisis indicates that its chosen strategy was unsuccessful. In such a situation the organisation's resources, objectives and internal and external factors of change were estimated insufficiently or incorrectly. A crisis occurs when problems are encountered which lurk outside the ordinary framework of problems and are not recognised in time. Although a crisis is always unexpected, the game is still not lost. When a crisis occurs suddenly, it is necessary to act quickly and logically, preferably according to choreography practiced in advance. Nevertheless, a crisis always means acting in an unforeseen environment, which puts major pressure on the organisation as a whole and particularly on its management.

FORESIGHT NEEDS INDICATED BY TOURISM COMPANIES AND THE NETWORK OF AUTHORITIES

Source: Lapland's tourism safety and security system, network interviews

Differences in safety experiences between nationalities
 Cultural differences in mechanisms for receiving and understanding safety information
 Reactions of tourists with a foreign background in a crisis
 Change of cultures in companies and the tourist flow
 Differences in motoric skills among people from different cultures and countries
 Impact of immigration on how tourists from different cultures are treated
 Foreigners as tourism builders
 Elderly and other special groups as tourists
 Alternative scenarios of possible safety gaps
 Change in regional structure and population development
 Land use planning and location of activities
 Risk management in individual tourism
 Changes in legislation, contract security and legal protection
 Development of safety and security management in tourism companies
 Changes in crime, property crime and development of payment instrument fraud
 Impact of social media on access to customers
 Impact of climate change on risk management
 Need for foresight caused by mine projects and their impact on traffic
 Pandemics and threats of terrorism

In speaking of risks we use the term risk management, but a crisis is a much more complex concept and includes the same need for foresight as does risk management. Increasingly it is thought that, in addition to crisis management, management theories that prevent crises should be taken into use. In the future, business management theories will increasingly stress sustainable, foresighted business management. Of course, such an approach to management requires new tools. For example, meters and indicators also serve safety and security management within the preventive management approach. Numerous meters have been developed for diagnosing the capacity of an organisation (company) to endure a crisis. Most of them are connected to analysis of the organisation's financial situation (Zaharov et al. 2007, 56–59). Speaking of meters and indicators naturally leads to a discussion about recognising weak signals.

2.2 Weak signals in crisis management

Nowadays it is thought that the best result would be achieved in crisis management if crises could be foreseen. We generally understand that crises appear as if out of nowhere and nothing could have been done about it. The risk management process and safety and security management each contribute to foresight. However, within these processes it is necessary to be able to recognise weak and nearly invisible signals that warn of a coming crisis. This is facilitated by the fact that old crises have been studied carefully, the weak signals preceding them have been found and we have learned from the information they have provided.

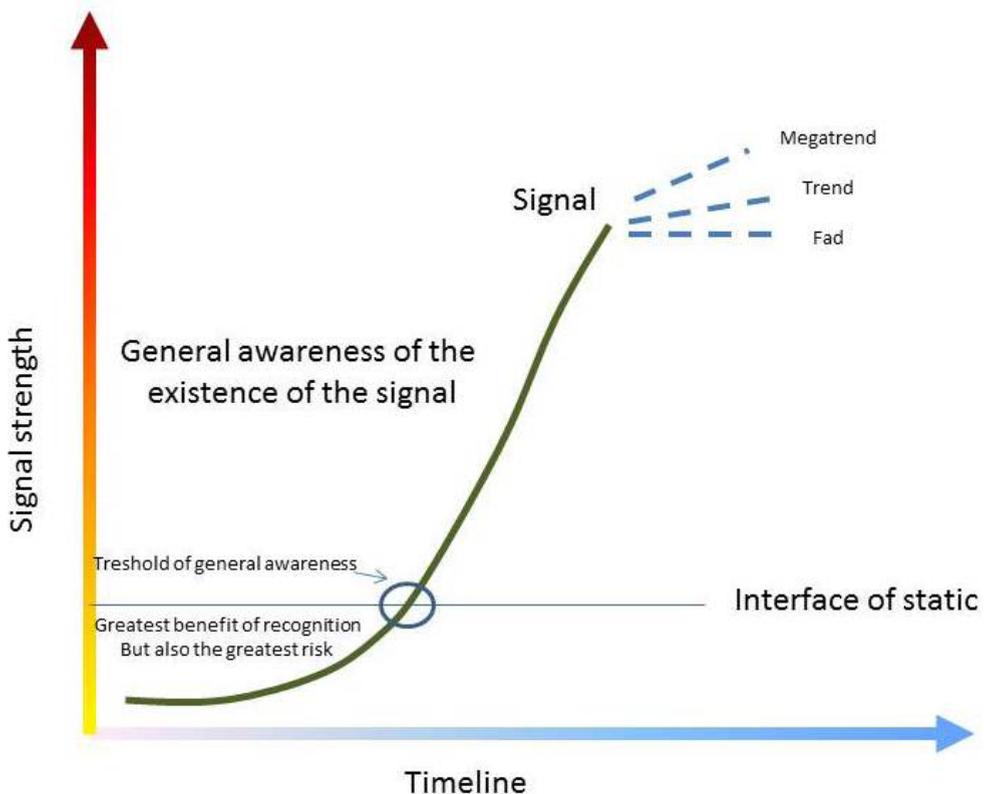


Figure 3. Emergence of a weak signal from static to a recognisable factor. Initially only few people will recognise the signal and its significance. Later the signal may modify the mainstream or dry up as insignificant (source: Hiltunen 2010, 3).

An organisation's/company's earlier experiences with crises also help in future situations. The company's earlier crisis experiences are not at all a bad or condemnable matter. It is possible to learn from what has happened. It can even be thought that an experienced company is usually at an advantage compared with newcomers if it has

analysed its earlier crises and developed its management, meters and feedback systems on that basis. For example, tourism companies that closely monitored economic signals were able to foresee that Ukraine's financial crisis in early 2009 or Britain's devaluation of the pound would have a substantial impact on the flow of tourists from those countries to Finland.

Recognising weak signals that affect safety and a company's continuity is an important and possibly the most challenging part of foresight. Professional observation connected to safety work in a company or a tourism centre also facilitates recognition of weak signals. An example is near miss situations, which are significant signals from the standpoint of foresight. Indeed, not in all cases are they weak signals as defined above, but rather clear warnings. Near miss situations that are weak signals are troublesome but valuable information, especially for small companies, which can modify their operation before a rare but serious accident occurs and a crisis develops.

To some degree it can be said that small companies are quicker to act and more flexible in modifying their operation than large companies when a dangerous situation occurs. Small companies are also sensitive to dangerous situations. The information and decision-making chains in SMEs are short, which speeds up correction of a situation. Sensitivity to near miss situations is increased in a small company by the fact that even a minor incident can trigger a fateful chain of events from which a small company cannot recover with its own resources. Indeed, near miss situations are more suitable than accidents for monitoring the level of safety, as accidents are a consequence of deficient operating methods. To promote reporting of dangerous situations, attention must be paid to the safety culture, as searching for someone to blame does not motivate anyone to talk about dangerous situations.

Traditionally, business crisis management has meant preventing an economic collapse. Therefore, early recognition of a change in the financial situation has been developed by means of diverse indicators of symptoms. In this connection we speak of bankruptcy diagnostics (see e.g. Orehov et al. 2006, 307–309). The ability to recognise has also been applied to the increasing variety of crises other than financial crises. In all cases it is important to recognise the symptoms of a crisis in an early phase. The will, skill and tools to sift through and recognise weak signals must be found in the company's area of responsibility of safety and security management.

Circumstances and situations that involve risks of more than average seriousness must be recognised in order to manage them. Repeated similar near miss situations are dangerous situations that indicate deficiencies in the safety and security system. These deficiencies may exist in different segments of service activity, (safety and security) management, the staff's operating methods and information and attitudes. It must be repeated again in this connection that the ability to interpret weak signals is

the key to good crisis management. However, it is never possible to act on the basis of perfect information. It is necessary to adapt to continuous change and unsureness. Uncertainty and unsureness must be managed, or at least negotiated. Naturally, this requires mechanisms for early recognition and intervention in the organisation.

RECOGNITION OF ABNORMAL SITUATIONS AS A TOOL FOR FORESEEING (basic survey)

1. Near miss situations

- Information collected regularly
- Information collected regularly and processed with the staff
- Information not collected

2. Accident records

- Yes
- No
- Not needed

3. Mapping the risks of a new product idea before launching the product

- Yes
- No
- Not needed

4. Recognition of customer groups and needs that differ from the ordinary

- Yes
- No

5. Mapping the well-being and occupational safety of the staff (staff barometer)

- In use
- Not in use

Recognition alone is not enough; the organisation also needs to react. A changing economic environment requires flexibility, sensitivity to change and continuous readiness to learn in the organisation. The causes of crises must be understood and chains of events analysed. At the same time, risk and crisis management tools must be used to analyse both out-of-date elements and those that offer hope for the future in the organisation. This need for analysis is met, for example, with a SWOT tool. Various crisis simulations can be used to determine the best exit strategies from various possible crises. Information available for risk management and crisis management is always deficient and contradictory. It is necessary to be able to pick what is essential for decision-making from multidimensional information, and quickly. Analyses are not successful without robust experience in interpreting signals and sifting through and arranging information.

2.3 Many levels of recognition

It is possible to misread signals. An organisation may misinterpret the degree of difficulty of a crisis or may not even recognise that a crisis exists. According to Booth (1993, 95), in the worst case an organisation may overlook the significance of a crisis or even deny it. Then an attempt is made to explain it away and hope it will disappear. In the third phase actions may be taken, but they are weak and have no effect. After this there is a danger that the organisation will collapse.

Foreseeing crises and recognising weak signals can be phased into several levels. The first level is comprised of company-specific sparring in which foresight is the simplest micro-level measure. It directly benefits the safety and security management of one company. In first-level foresight the company's own confidential information resources (e.g. recording near miss situations) are efficiently analysed. This requires the support of a specialist. This measure can be most flexibly implemented if it is organised by the area's person in charge of safety. This measure is efficient from the company's standpoint, but it ties up labour and external specialist resources, at least in the beginning. The goal here is that in the future the company's internal information can be analysed and maximally utilised by the company itself in a process-like manner.

A tourism-area-specific (fell centre) foresight workshop forms a second-level foresight measure that uses the local network's know-how and information resources for the benefit of the companies and the area. This measure is efficient from the standpoint of the external sparring specialist. The effectiveness of second-level foresight grows if the first level has been carried out as widely as possible, possibly as a preliminary exercise. This is so especially in cases where the sparring specialist has not had a chance to visit all the companies.

An entity comprised of several tourism areas or a province forms the third level, where it is possible to cost-effectively also use national and regional special experts. The third-level foresight measure (seminars, specialist workshops) is implemented less often than the first two, but it offers a broader view and input to work done at levels 1 and 2. The third level also ties together information produced by the first two levels, refining it into the most general phenomena and trends.

A SIGNIFICANT NUMBER OF PARAMETERS THAT DEPICT CRISIS SENSITIVITY CAN BE UNCOVERED.**Here are a few examples:**

Incurring debts

Substantial expenses

Drop in sales

Deficient funding policy

Lack of leadership

Deficient, out-of-date crisis programme

Delayed structural renewal

Undefined common goal

Production disturbances

Export-oriented vs. domestic markets

Quality problems and safety deviations in services and products

Poorly organised sales

Introduction of new products and new technology

Deficiencies in the staff feedback system

Deficiencies in the customer feedback system

Insufficient development of training and staff

The company's management must develop the company's sensitivity in recognising budding crises. The company's internal and external monitoring systems must be adapted to the threat and risk scenarios in the company's business area and tuned to recognise crises in as early a phase as possible. The company's management can obtain help in planning crisis management from persons in charge of education in the field, interest groups and other companies in the same sector. Often it is not realised that the management should rely particularly on the staff in all phases of safety and security management and its planning. The staff can also provide valuable assistance in developing indicators. The commitment of the staff should be understood as one of the strongest resources with which a crisis can almost be felled before it has even started. Crisis foresight focuses on tourism-centre-specific risk management and development of foresight.

A tourism centre (tourism area) is seen as a functional entity whose significance to a company's safety planning, foresight and crisis management is crucial. A tourism centre also functions as a link between the company and the municipality's safety planning. A tourism centre is the company's closest foresight resource and frame of reference. The underlying principle is that a company operating in a tourism centre could primarily use the centre's quality work and security resources in its own fore-

sight. A tourism centre is considered an appropriate entity of foresight at the local level because the tourism organisation's and SME's local networks and purchasing chains, and thereby the value chains in safety, are primarily formed within the framework of the tourism area.

2.4 Recognising risks contained in contracts

Contract issues, together with insurance, are part of a company's financial security. Much is currently spoken about foreign tour operators' contract templates and the risk they pose for Finnish companies. Of course the risk is real, but foreign tour operators do not necessarily have intentional trickery in mind when they present their contract template. It may be due to a requirement of the tour operator's insurer. To make financial security as extensive as possible, the safety requirements and norms set by a foreign tour operator or principal supplier must be met. A safety audit conducted by the principal supplier determines whether an agreement can be reached. Safety requirements can be recorded in the sector's common set of norms.

Contract risks comprise one of the tourism company's most serious sources of a financial crisis. Lengthening of the subcontractor chain and internationalisation of tourism operation have increased the need for expertise focused on the content of contracts. Companies need to become familiar with contracts written in English, in which many types of "mines" are hidden. Triggering of these mines may bankrupt a company. The world of contracts has changed immensely in the past 20 years. Initially, contracts were primarily verbal agreements made with familiar functionaries. This type of agreement practice was effective as late as the 1980s and 1990s.

During this millennium, as Finnish companies have increasingly begun to have foreign tour operators as partners, there has been a shift to written, very detailed contracts in accordance with the Anglo-Saxon contract culture. At the same time, foreign tour operators have grown substantially in size, and a domestic company often has only one or two large foreign tour operators. Dependence on them has increased decisively. At the same time, contract issues have become faceless and it has become toilsome and costly to make contracts. Contracts are also short-term. They are usually made for one season at a time. Contracts that span several seasons have become rarer. It is in no way surprising that the language in contracts is almost always English.

Contracts have become very detailed because the service provided by the company is broken down into parts and the content of the service is described in detail, with specific quality requirements. The price is comprised of these components of the service entity. If the terms of payment are designed to be back-loaded, they affect the risks of the Finnish party to the contract, i.e. the service provider. The funding risk grows as the degree of back-loading increases. The cost of funding is left to the service

provider. A large party to a contract will naturally seek to dominate the terms of the contract, for example by requiring the service provider to produce both quality and quantity. The price received for producing a service should be proportional to the legal contract risks, but in practice Finnish SMEs do not have very much negotiating power. They may have to wait long for receivables, especially when the foreign tour operator has left Finland at the end of the season.

The trend today is that tour operators make direct contracts with the service provider. Earlier, Finnish Incoming was usually a buffer in between, which shared the risk. Nowadays it is also common for the subcontractor (e.g. the last service provider in the chain) to make direct contracts with the foreign tour operator. Here the subcontractor takes a significant risk. From the standpoint of contract risks, it is still worth keeping the Finnish service provider in between.

Attention should always be paid to the location of legal proceedings when drawing up a contract. This is one of the most important details of a contract between a tour operator and a service provider. Most essential is the country whose legislation is applied and the location of the court of law. The other party may attempt to bind the contract under the jurisdiction of the English courts (where English law applies) or the Cypriot courts (where Cypriot law applies). Without saying it is clear that, as a rule, the contract should be governed for all purposes by the laws of Finland. The contract should specify that disputes are to be settled by a court of arbitration, the location of the court of law is Helsinki and if the interest is less than €50,000, the court of law is a local court, such as the local court in Rovaniemi. An alternative is to specify that the court of law is located in a neutral Western court of arbitration, such as Stockholm.

Certain Finnish tourism companies have sought to prevent contract risks by compiling their own contract template according to which they seek to initiate partnerships. These contract templates may also refer to EU legislation instead of e.g. Britain's own practices.

Legislation culture varies considerably in Europe. This variation is particularly apparent in damage compensation practices, for example. Rarely is it realised that damage compensation amounts and practices vary by country within the EU area. In Finland, compensation for intangible suffering is in the range of a few hundred euros, while in Britain compensation for intangible pain and suffering can be as much as €100,000. Finnish compensation practice, as far as the amount of compensation awarded, has surprised, for example, the Italian tourists and family members who were involved in the dog sleigh accident that happened in Vojakkala, Tornio, in 2005. Italians are used to larger sums than are paid in Finland. Many issues have been harmonised within the EU area, but damage compensation practices are national. To avoid surprises, this has to be made known to tourists. Each tourist can then increase his/her own damage protection via his/her own insurance system.

This also brings us to network responsibility, which is still under development at the theoretical level of legislation. Models for implementing network responsibility may be borrowed from insurance companies' reinsurance system. This means that operators within a network are mutually responsible for different things, like risks, at the legal level. Chain risk management means service providers must verify their subcontractors' capacity to assume responsibility. Subcontractors must have liability insurance, a quality assurance system and legal expenses insurance, which must cover at least €100,000. A dispute with a foreign tour operator means legal expenses will come to at least €100,000. If the disputed interest equals €80,000, it is worth paying directly. Liability insurance is always proportional to contract risk. The level of legal expenses insurance is proportional to contractual risk.

Foreign tour operators' English contracts typically specify that the service provider may not offer services at lower rates or more favourable conditions to other agents or operators. If the service provider does so, this can easily be considered a breach of contract. A bank guarantee is required of the service provider without exception. The contract should include a phrase stating that only the direct damages of a default are compensated, however in maximum up to the price of the offered service of which the substandard service and delivery concerns. In practice, direct damage means covering the price of the trip, which is thus set as the maximum compensation. The other party should not be offered the possibility of receiving compensation for minor breaches. One such breach could be neglecting to answer a customer's email within two days, which may be a breach of contract. The contract should include the phrase "essential material breach", which does not mean minor insignificant breaches of contract, but rather issues associated with the trip's implementation. However, if the contract states "liquidated damages", this means any breach will trigger demands by the tour operator.

Nowadays tour operators require detailed descriptions of, for example, the location of the nearest healthcare centre, the amount of delay before treatment is received and the mode of transport to the healthcare centre. Contracts also make references to the notorious fine print, which is rarely read, regardless of the phrase "document which the Owner has read and unconditionally accepts." The fine print lists the heaviest terms. The fine print is scrutinised with a magnifying glass if something goes wrong. One's own activeness is most important in compiling a contract. Treatment of an accident or damage must take place immediately and in Finland. It is important to train the company's own staff and compile documentation about everything that happens, including customer feedback.

It is difficult to draw up a contract template that can solve all problems. If such a template could be made, it would be out of date already in three months. Essential for the company is to become familiar with previous examples of contract disputes in the tourism sector. For example, a list could be compiled of the most important pitfalls that should be avoided in the content of a contract.

3 INDIVIDUAL'S REACTION TO A CRISIS

3.1 A crisis is always experienced at the individual level

In the preceding chapter crises are primarily referred to as organisational or business phenomena. To develop crisis management in a company, it is necessary to also have a basic understanding of how an individual person reacts to an incident that affects him or herself or people in his or her circle of acquaintances. The individual's or employee's viewpoint is crucially important expressly in the labour-intensive SME sector, which tourism represents. Understanding the individual's behaviour facilitates crisis management after an accident that caused personal injury. There is plenty of material available on the manifestation and various phases of individual-level post-traumatic stress reaction, so there is no reason to go into psychophysiological details here. However, it is worth going over certain basic issues.

Today we live in quite a safe society in which citizens are jointly and severally protected. As individuals we are quite unprepared for social crises and even personal crises. It is customary for us to think things will go smoothly by themselves. In a way, we have outsourced facing and managing risks and crises from our minds. We are ready to shift responsibility elsewhere, to society, the business, the insurance company. If we encounter a crisis or undesired incident it always comes as a surprise. If something troublesome occurs we want to know who is responsible. At least we want a satisfactory explanation for what has happened.

Stressful situations that cause a traumatic stress reaction happen to about 100,000 persons a year in Finland. The lifelong risk of being the victim of an accident or traumatic incident is very high, varying between 40 and 90 percent, depending on the study. Over two-thirds of all people experience a significant traumatic incident in some phase of their life. An estimated 20 to 30 percent of those who experience a difficult stressful incident develop traumatic stress disorder. An average of 30 to 40 percent suffer from traumatic stress disorder about one year after a major accident caused by man; correspondingly, 10 to 30 percent suffer after a natural catastrophe (Hynninen & Upanne 2006, 8–9).

Even on the basis of the above-mentioned statistics, we can conclude that every person's life cycle includes crises. Some of the crises encountered and experienced by individuals are development crises, which are a part of life. These crises usually occur gradually and it is possible to foresee and prepare for them in advance. Development crises are normal significant phases of change which are part of a person's development and growth, such as retirement or childbirth. Life's crises are linked to human relations, work or the place where a person lives. Divorce, moving and unemployment are changes which may cause a crisis in life. People are usually able to cope with life's normal crises by means of their own resources and the support of those close to them. Unexpected and mentally upsetting situations may also occur in life for which it has not been possible to prepare and a person's normal ways of coping are not always sufficient to manage the situation. Such incidents or situations are called traumatic or acute crises (Saari et al. 2009, 9–11).

In shifting to the individual level it is necessary to first decipher the definition of a trauma, which is closely linked to processing a personal crisis. In medicine, a trauma originally meant a physical injury, damage or wound. Later, trauma was introduced to psychology through Sigmund Freud's studies. Freud defined a mental trauma as "an experience where in a short span of time the mind has to receive a flood of stimuli which are too strong to be processed in a normal way" (Saari 2008, 15–16). According to the Trauma Therapy Centre, a trauma is a mental or physical injury or wound caused by a traumatising incident, resulting in traumatic stress (Trauma Therapy Centre 2010). Thus, a trauma is a powerful, stressful incident that exceeds a person's tolerance limit and which does not belong within the sphere of a person's normal, daily, human experiences (Levine 2008, 33).

Israeli crisis psychologist Ofra Ayalon (2004, 183) has depicted a traumatic incident as a phenomenon around which circles can be drawn. People on the inner circle are mentally closer to the incident, and those on the outer circle are not influenced by the incident (Nurmi 2006, 162). When is a person in a crisis? If a person him or herself seeks the help of a professional helper or a healthcare professional, the person is in an abnormal situation – a crisis. The customer usually defines his or her own situation as a crisis, even without using the term crisis. The person's own view of the matter is at least as important as a clinical definition of the crisis (Hammarlund 2010, 153).

Simplifying, reactions to a crisis are divided into different phases. However, one should remember that progression and processing of a crisis do not progress according to a specific pattern. The phases depicted in the following may also overlap. The duration of a crisis depends on the quality and intensity of the stress factor, the mental sensitivity of the person in the crisis and previous traumas. The reaction of a person who has encountered a crisis is eased by his or her mental strength, education and situations experienced and processed earlier. In addition, friends, family and other close network significantly affect the person's recovery.

3.2 Phases of an individual's crisis

According to psychiatrist Johan Cullberg's (1991) model, the phases of a traumatic crisis at the individual level are shock, reaction phase, processing phase and reorientation phase (Psykologia 2010). In the first phase, a traumatic crisis is experienced in such a way that the person's world is momentarily shattered and he or she ends up in shock. In the shock phase (1–3 days) people may do just about anything abnormal and they are unable to receive information (Nurmi 2006, 166–167). Information about future measures and things that need to be remembered must be presented to a shock patient in writing.

Around 20–30 percent of people in shock react with paralysis or hysteria (panic). The purpose of this phase is to preserve the capacity to act in an uncontrolled situation and exclude other stimuli from the sensual observations needed for immediate coping. The first symptom of a crisis is an unrealistic feeling. The purpose of the shock phase is to protect a person's mind from information that it is not capable of receiving. Usually, only a few details of the incident can be remembered later. Often this phase passes by unnoticed. Cultural differences may also be apparent in situations of shock. The duration of the shock phase varies in different types of crises. In a crisis involving a threat (such as the situation after a theft), the shock phase lasts from a few minutes to a few days. In a crisis of loss (loss of an immediate family member), withdrawal usually lasts about a week. On the other hand, shock is rare in a crisis of responsibility (distant management of an event) (Hammarlund 2010, 100).

The shock phase often also includes accusation, which is part of the coping process. It is necessary to see to the basic safety of a person in shock and, if possible, inform him or her of future measures. Mental first aid or defusing provides support in the shock phase, while debriefing helps in the reaction phase. These methods are explained briefly further on. If emotional stress continues after these support methods, further help (psychotherapy) is needed.

Mental first aid (defusing) is psychological support given during the initial phase of a crisis – the shock phase. It should be given in both small and large accidents (Palosaari 2008, 198). Mental first aid refers to assistance and care of the whole person, emotions and human relations given by immediate family and professionals. Mental first aid is active listening, closeness, returning a feeling of controlling life, practical help and calming. In mental first aid it is essential to provide room for the victim's reactions, thoughts and emotions. Comforting does not help the victim, unless comforting here refers to merely being close. Mental first aid is support, not active help in processing a mental trauma. It has been determined that providing mental first aid in the initial phase of a crisis lessens stress disorder and thereby later need for help.

INDIVIDUALS, AND TO SOME DEGREE ORGANISATIONS, GO THROUGH THE PHASES OF A CRISIS IN THEIR OWN WAY:	
1. Shock phase:	a brief moment, a few days
2. Reaction phase:	4–6 weeks
3. Processing phase:	½–1 year
4. Reorientation phase:	the event has become a part of the person's history, self-respect gradually returns
Source: Juha Mustonen, Municipality of Salla, 2010	

In the reaction phase (after 1–3 days) the mind opens to consider what the incident means to the person him or herself. However, mental equilibrium has not yet been achieved and the mind is susceptible to influences. Emotional reactions are also strong. The reaction phase may also last several weeks and is the most difficult phase of the crisis process, as the person attempts to understand what has happened. The person asks why and how everything happened. The reaction phase is characterised by strong thoughts and emotions. Accusation, feelings of guilt, aggression and anger are common emotional phenomena. Their purpose is to shield a person who has experienced a trauma from his or her own emotions (Nurmi 2006, 167).



Figure 4. Off-road traffic accident rescue drill at Levi in September 2010. The scenario is an ATV colliding with reindeer safari participants on the slope of a fell. (Photo: Pekka Iivari)

Typical of the reaction phase is second-guessing and accusation as well as primitive defence mechanisms such as regression, denial, projection, rationalisation, and isolation and rejection of emotions. Regression is apparent as a disability to decide things. Projection means transferring one's own feelings of guilt onto the shoulders of others. Rationalisation is rational analysis of one's feelings of guilt. It is possible that the incident or the emotions caused by it are denied or the incident is discussed calmly and sensibly. In addition to emotions, also physical reactions are typical of this phase. Rehabilitation is disturbed if mental and physical reactions are prevented or denied. The shock and reaction phases form the acute phase of the actual crisis (Trauma Therapy Centre 2011).

The reaction phase is followed by the processing phase a few days after the incident. In the reaction phase the person who experienced the incident begins to accept the incident and the new situation in life. He or she may concentrate more on daily routines. The processing phase may last several months and even years (Nurmi 2006, 167). During this time things begin to fall into place and the crisis process slows down. The person seeks to distance him or herself from the incident and longs for solitude in order to process the experience alone. During the processing phase the person usually does not want to speak of what has happened with others. He or she withdraws from human relations and the workday may seem overpowering. However, during the processing phase the incident is not continuously in mind. Mental and physical symptoms and emotions lessen. Typical emotions are difficulty in remembering and concentrating, as part of the person's attention is focused on processing the traumatic experience.

The last phase of the crisis is reorientation, when the person has adapted to the changes and life goes on. The traumatic thoughts that dominated the mind have receded. This phase is easier for younger people than for older people. The reorientation phase begins gradually and self-confidence returns little by little. Special measures end and contacts and support activity become normal. In the adaptation phase, which follows all the other phases, the experiences have been added to the person's attitude towards life and emotions. The difficult matter has been left behind among other memories.

3.3 Supporting an individual

The unpredictability, abruptness and unexpectedness of a traumatic incident are the most important factors affecting the emergence of an individual's and an organisation's crisis. A traumatic situation may occur wherever, whenever or to whomever. Such situations are sudden death, major accidents, mishaps, violent and threatening situations as well as near miss situations and treatment errors whose consequences could have been serious. At the individual level, a traumatic incident causes fear,

terror, helplessness or inability to control the situation. A person cannot stand the feeling of losing control of life, so he or she transfers his or her fears to feelings of guilt and second-guessing. A person's awareness of his or her own vulnerability increases fear of future shocking incidents. A traumatic crisis changes a person's life values and prior conception of the world (Saari et al. 2009, 13–15, 17–18).

In service professions, violent situations directed towards customer service staff, in particular, have increased and cause traumatisation. People working in healthcare professions have experienced the most work-related violence. Healthcare nurses' and hospital nurses' experiences of violence are most common among those who also experience hurry and pressure in their work. Threatening is the most common form of violence. Threatening and violence directed at commercial and lodging sector staff have also increased. Especially working alone increases this risk. It may be most surprising that children and under-age persons may become aggressive and violent in an abnormal situation. Cases are known where a tourism company's staff has had to calm children or adolescents who have become aggressive due to an accident or abnormal situation. Calming and protecting a child is an especially demanding task if they are in the terrain and their parents are unable to act for some reason.

To-the-point guidelines on the principles of psychological first aid provided in connection with a catastrophe were gathered from various sources and are listed below. These guidelines are intended primarily for mental first aid professionals, but they are also quite usable in planning a work community's and company's crisis management.

GUIDELINES FOR APPROACHING A PERSON IN A CRISIS (CF. HAMMARLUND 2010).

Your goal is to promote safety, calmness, solidarity, a feeling of togetherness, hope and initiative.

1. Introduce yourself and make sure the person in the crisis understands that he/she can decide on his/her need for help.
2. Listening is most important. Do not talk yourself, at least not too much. If the person is not able to talk about his/her experience, try to help him/her express his/her thoughts and feelings about the incident. Sometimes it is relieving to write about an experience. Children often draw or act out their experience.
3. Believe that, through your presence, you are capable of helping also a person from a different culture and language group.
4. Steer discussion towards the current problem of the person in the crisis and the associated symptoms.
5. Be honest, but delicately. Avoid the cliché, "everything will be okay."
6. Help the person in the crisis look at the situation realistically. Let him/her relate about what has happened, correcting only apparent misunderstandings and unrealistic expectations.
7. Help the person in the crisis accept assistance.
8. Accept his/her emotions as is and encourage him/her to freely express sorrow, pain, guilt and anger without interrupting or commenting on them.

9. Convey a positive basic atmosphere (primarily by being present) and give hope that the reaction will pass by.
11. Recognise and accept your own limitations as a helper.
11. Be prepared for the incident also affecting you.
12. Try to follow the person's recovery process closely.
13. Help people with basic needs (food, shelter, emergency medical treatment).
14. Listen to people who want to share their experience. Remind yourself that there is no "right" and "wrong" way to experience incidents.
15. Try to be friendly, empathetic and realistically hopeful even when people display difficult or demanding behaviour.
16. Convey as detailed information as possible about the accident or catastrophe as well as rescue operations.
17. Help people contact their friends and immediate family.
18. Keep family members together whenever possible.
10. Give practical instructions that help people help themselves.
20. Encourage and steer people to take care of their own needs if possible.
21. Guide people to contact local authorities and organisations.
22. Remind people that help and support are coming (if you know this is so).
23. Pay attention to your own clothing, which should be proper and neat.
24. Also follow your own capacity to cope.

What should you not do?

1. Don't give good advice, but try to prevent self-destructive acts and decisions.
2. Don't try to solve the problems of the person in the crisis.
3. Don't try to change his/her emotions.
4. Don't tell people what you think they should feel or do.
5. Don't encourage him/her to accuse others.
6. Don't distance the person in the crisis from his/her problems.
7. Don't believe the person in the crisis needs to be protected by all means and that he/she should not exert him/herself.
8. Don't believe that a person who appears outwardly calm or does not have clear stress reactions doesn't need help.
9. Don't force or pressure people to share or talk about their experiences if they do not want to or are not ready to do so.
10. Don't offer simple consolation or consolation that underestimates people's fears, such as "Everything will definitely be ok."
11. Don't tell people you think their distress or hopelessness is based on their own beliefs or behaviour.
12. Don't promise something you can't keep or may not materialise.
13. Don't criticise existing support systems to people who may need the services.

A person, not only a child but also an adult, who has experienced an accident or some other unexpected situation may behave in the most unexpected manner. After an accident, a person at the scene may fix attention on fully irrelevant things in the eyes of

a bystander (stating, for example, that here's food waiting at home). The victim may even light a cigarette on the hood of his/her vehicle drenched in oil and gas. After even a long time, the victim of an accident may attempt to interpret what the expressions, words and body language of a helper or someone else at the scene really meant. Such details are often left in mind very accurately and they tend to get an exaggerated meaning in the victim's mind (Leinonen 2011).

A company's employee is supported by the thought that the company has fixed attention on managing different kinds of crises. A crisis stress management model includes foresighted training, defusing, psychological debriefing, individual support (peer support), family support, management support and follow-up. Group-specific support measures that are arranged later include post-trauma boarding schools or rehabilitation seminars. Approaching a person in crisis work gives the feeling that the crisis is under control and the person is being helped (Seeck et al. 2008, 111–113).

Immediate mental support in a crisis includes defusing, which refers to a small-group meeting held immediately after a traumatic incident. As a distinction from mental first aid, defusing is meant for groups. The purpose of defusing is to quickly give vent to the topmost experiences and thoughts of a traumatic incident and normalise them and to calm down and return to daily routines and work. The defusing meeting releases upset and shock and makes plans for the next few hours. Mental support should be provided automatically and immediately after a traumatic incident or situation. Listening, calming and cooling an over-reactive state are the most important characteristics of support. A defusing discussion held immediately after an incident should also prepare for the next day's news headlines. Another purpose of the meeting is to help those who experienced a trauma realise the similarity of their reactions and thereby alleviate mental post-reactions.

Defusing is a suitable form of mental support for customers, staff and helpers, especially after minor traumatic crises and near miss situations. Defusing does not penetrate deeply into emotional reactions; this is the purpose of debriefing. Defusing should be initiated as soon as possible after a crisis, ideally within three hours. It is at the discretion of the leader of the crisis team to decide whether to invite everyone involved in the incident to the defusing meeting or to form separate groups comprised of staff members and customers or to divide customers into groups depending on whether they are relatives, bystanders or foreigners who should be approached in their native language. The family is an essential unit also from the viewpoint of crisis therapy. Well-known Norwegian crisis psychologist Atle Dyregrov has emphasised that an individual's crisis is also the family's crisis. Consequently, if a serious incident has befallen a family member, the entire family needs crisis therapy (Dyregrov 2001).

If staff members are the object of defusing, the group leaders can be from outside the work community or in-house support persons. Members of the work community's crisis or occupational health team are recommendable leaders. The work community's in-house leader must not be a close workmate, superior or someone involved in the crisis. The presence of two leaders is recommended. Their task is to ensure as confidential and open an atmosphere as possible.

To initiate a police investigation and possibly a preliminary investigation related to the incident, it is important to hear the persons involved as soon as possible after the incident. A person in shock can be heard, but naturally not questioned. Hearing means the observations of the persons involved are documented with notes and recordings as soon as possible. Photographic material possessed by the involved persons (e.g. in cell phones and cameras) should be requested for use by the police. The police should hear the persons in the presence of healthcare staff. Healthcare staffs are primarily comprised of healthcare centre crisis teams supplemented by parish emergency teams.

The task of the crisis team is to maintain and develop readiness to constructively encounter crises and carry out necessary mental crisis work in sudden crises. A multi-professional, cross-administrative crisis team could also include members of Victim support Finland, for example. Hearing victims as early as possible is essential from the standpoint of investigation, since a defusing meeting will contaminate people's images and observations. In such a meeting it is very easy to absorb other people's observations, interpretations, stories and images and then relate them as one's own experiences. By immediately hearing the persons involved, the police also receive valuable information for arranging and managing rescue operations.

CRISIS TEAM'S COMPOSITION (EXAMPLE: MUNICIPALITY OF INARI):

- healthcare centre employees (mental health and family clinic workers, doctor, healthcare nurse, hospital nurse)
- social workers
- parish employees (diaconia workers, pastors)
- fire chief
- police
- ambulance owner
- teacher
- interested private individuals with appropriate education

Source: Kimmo Kovanen 2010

Immediate hearing must be carried out sensitively; nowadays the police are well instructed in this. To begin with, the police should make known that telling the police about the incident facilitates initiation of mental rehabilitation. The role and significance of the police in the meeting must also be crystal clear to the healthcare staff, which sometimes attempts to shield the patient from the police. Often after an accident (also in off-road traffic) the police will join the mental first aid team to hear the victims' conceptions of the accident. Sometimes this may be troublesome for the victims and their relatives, but the measure is necessary for quick initiation of investigation.

A debriefing group is assembled in the reaction phase. Claes-Otto Hammarlund (2010), among others, has compiled practical guidelines for leading and analysing crisis and debriefing discussions, so it is not necessary to go into the details of the debriefing process in this book. First of all it is necessary to note that debriefing is not arranged immediately after a heavy incident. For example, physically injured people should not be submitted to debriefing. People should not be required to give detailed accounts of their sensual impressions too soon. In the initial phase they should just be offered rest, warmth, hot beverages and gentle treatment. This is not debriefing yet.

Debriefing is a support method expressly in the reaction phase. It is a part of psychosocial support whose purpose is to get the recovery process off to a good start and help the person form a realistic overall picture of the incident. Processing a traumatic experience through debriefing is most effective within three days of the incident; thereafter the mind begins to close (Palosaari 2008, 101–102). However, debriefing should not be arranged before possible initial hearing by the police and other professionals when questions of responsibility have been verified, as depicted earlier in this book.

Debriefing groups meet, discuss, listen and above all care. The human mind processes the significance of an incident and its connections to other things. Building the future also begins during debriefing. In the reaction phase it is important to maintain contact with the involved person and help him or her in his or her daily life, and thus form a reference point in his or her still wavering reality. To determine whether further care is needed, it is also important to ask how he or she is feeling and coping during the first few days and even after a few weeks. The recovery process can be depicted with the above-mentioned phases and steps, but nevertheless it should be remembered that ordinary relatives and friends provide the most valuable help in a crisis (Hammarlund 2010, 26). One's own work community and staff form the next protective shell around the one in need of help. Crisis help can and may be given by any mentally balanced person if that person him or herself is not in need of support and reinforcement. Presence is most important, not so much activeness or familiarity with psychology.

3.4 Applying debriefing in a company

The use of debriefing has increased in Finland over the years and the method is offered to victims and their relatives, family members and witnesses. In Finland and Norway, only professionals can use the method, while elsewhere in the world its users may be voluntary helpers. Debriefing is developing and continuously changing. Debriefing is a suitable method when a situation is sudden and unexpected, traumatic and shocking and the stressful situation is past. Situations in which debriefing is not suitable or needs to be supplemented with other support are long-lasting stressful situations, continuously repeated situations, earlier mental disorders and very traumatising situations. For example, if a workmate dies, debriefing is more suitable than defusing (Saari 2008, 173–174, 189). It is important to talk about a crisis with someone. If a crisis is not processed, the experiences and states of fear will pop up in subsequent crises (Kantola 2010). A new crisis is always based on prior crises.

Debriefing is most often implemented by a municipal crisis emergency team. Leaders should primarily be people from outside the work community who do not know the involved persons from before. They should be specially trained professionals. Usually there are two who have had debriefing training and two leaders (Kiiltomäki & Muma 2007, 26; Palosaari 2008, 101–102). First the team discusses, and some are quiet while others talk. Hospitals have their own crisis teams which make sure support is provided to patients and their relatives as well as staff members after a sudden crisis. A mental first aid team is comprised of specially trained people from different units. The hospital's telephone exchange calls the crisis team to the site, where a general assessment of the patients is made. The hospital organises a crisis work group which arranges peaceful facilities for the victims and involved persons, communicates information about the situation and contacts family members. Service may be available within a half hour of an alert. In the beginning of this book there was mention of major accident scenarios in the tourism sector and the definition of a major accident. Here it should be mentioned that in Lapland, the doctor (L2) in charge of a major accident alert places the Central Hospital in a state of emergency if over 10 persons are seriously injured during normal working hours and if over 5 persons are seriously injured during off hours.

Mental first aid teams are on call in addition to doing their own work. If necessary, they implement the hospital staff's defusing meeting and subsequent guidance. The task of a mental first aid specialist is to be available, provide practical help and act as a contact between relatives, patients and medical staff (Montonen 2010).

DEBRIEFING PROCESS:

- 1) Assembly
- 2) Ensuring a peaceful situation
- 3) Processing of facts
- 4) Processing of thoughts, images and emotions
- 5) Normalisation of reactions
- 6) Looking ahead
- 7) Agreement on possible follow-up

Source: Kimmo Kovanen, Municipality of Inari 2010

To ensure that all participants will be heard, the maximum number of persons in a crisis team is about ten. According to Salli Saari (2008), the disadvantages of a large debriefing group are greater than the advantages. She feels a debriefing group of over 15 people is too large. The main problem associated with a large team is that not everyone is able to or willing to speak of their own personal experiences and emotions, as there is not enough time. The group is often heterogenic, so it is not possible to process emotions deeply. For groups larger than the aforementioned, lectures and education are suitable methods (Saari 2008, 195–197). It is not always beneficial for superiors to participate in debriefing. However, this depends on the situation, and must be assessed case by case. Near miss situations and serious work errors, in particular, require the presence of superiors during debriefing.

Research in this sector does not simply support the use and advantages of debriefing for all individuals. Long-term follow-up studies have determined that some people benefit from debriefing, while others do not. Some may even find it detrimental. If debriefing is attended by many people who have been affected by the cause of a trauma in different ways and at different levels, deep processing of emotions and the situation may be detrimental to those who were not at the centre of the accident or incident in the same manner as some others in the group. For this very reason, the process itself may activate in these persons a deeper traumatic dimension of the experience than would have happened without such group processing of the situation. They also need support, but of a different nature. Of course, if possible, also this viewpoint can be kept in mind when assembling the group (Salmi 2011).

It must always be remembered that participation in debriefing is voluntary. Refusing debriefing may be caused by a fear of being labelled or suffering a mental breakdown. A person who has experienced an incident may not always feel he or she needs specially arranged debriefing. Sometimes a person may experience that talking with friends and family is an adequate way to deal with a crisis. Or there may be no need

to talk about what has happened since it has not resulted in any difficult reactions related to the incident (Saari 2008, 182). If debriefing is decided on, the meeting must be organised well. The two- to four-hour meeting requires a peaceful, neutral environment.

When an abnormal situation – mainly an accident – occurs, fire, rescue and police authorities inform the accident victims about the service provided by the crisis group. The first authorities to arrive at the scene contact the crisis group. The person in charge of the crisis group then contacts the victims to agree on subsequent measures. In a major accident the management organisation of the rescue operation takes over the crisis group. Each person (victim and involved person) must always be asked whether information concerning him or her can be given to the mental first aid crisis group. Customarily, the police ask the customer permission for a representative of the crisis group to contact the person. The police may give the customer the crisis group's contact information. The tourism entrepreneur should also be aware of this procedure. In place of the police, the entrepreneur or the company's employee can ask the customer if he or she wants to talk to mental first aid professionals. Companies should always have the contact information of crisis groups available as well as brochures in different languages. If necessary, the parish can also function as the leader of a crisis group if there are many groups of people in need of help.

A person in a crisis should be protected from unnecessary stress and strong impressions. The media and the public should not be allowed to disturb the victims. However, a person in a crisis has the right to talk to the media if he or she wants to. In such a situation he or she should be reminded about how talking to the media may affect his or her well-being and relatives over the long term. Studies have indicated that people who have contacted the media during the shock phase have later had more symptoms than those who have been protected from the media. It is also possible that a person who was in an accident doesn't contact the crisis centre or mental first aid staff and instead stays home and waits for help. Finally, the person may directly contact the media, which may be left with the picture that the care system hasn't helped him or her. A person in a crisis must be cared for immediately in the vicinity of the scene of the incident and near the group to which he or she belongs. The person must not be permanently separated from the group that experienced the same incident. Debriefing together with the group which had the same experience is crucially important.

It is possible that the victim wants to remain in a kind of state of helplessness in order to retain the right to present demands, feel anger, receive financial support and unburden him or herself through the media. Worldwide, a "victim business" has sprung up around crisis intervention, which exploits the above-mentioned efforts of

the victim, further medicalises the crisis and creates new, possibly long-term needs in the victim. This may cause new problems for both the victim and his or her support community, especially if it is a question of significant financial benefits, fees, reimbursement, compensation for damage and reputation control. The interests of insurance companies, psychiatrists, lawyers, therapists, psychologists and doctors are intertwined in the victim business. Crisis management has become a commercial phenomenon – a service product that can be sold, marketed and developed.

At the same time it should be remembered that possible legal proceedings, public discourse and changes in job descriptions launched as a consequence of an accident, mishap or near miss situation may prolong both the employee's and the customer's personal crisis phase and recovery from it. The victim's relative or superior may begin looking for someone to blame, whereupon the company's work community faces a new crisis. The work community may be strained by several persons' staying out of work or considering it, and sick leaves due to traumatic stress. A traumatic incident affects job satisfaction by lowering job motivation at least in the short term. On the other hand, paradoxically, it may also result in strengthening of professional skill and positive changes in the routines of the workplace. For example, if something abnormal has been experienced earlier at the workplace, attentiveness and vigilance may increase especially during night shifts and when working alone (Aziza 2010, 57).

3.5 Communal organisation

Crisis work refers to all crisis activity from mental first aid to long-term crisis therapies. It has been noticed during rescue drills and staff training that tourism companies and the staffs of hospitality companies should be offered training and drills to prepare them for encountering customers and relatives in a crisis. Today it is already well understood in the business world that workplaces, especially in high-risk fields (police, rescue service, healthcare centres), must have, in addition to a rescue plan and a broader safety document, also a clear crisis plan. Naturally, companies and other organisations must have a written rescue plan for cases specified by the Rescue Act and Statute. Today, however, a safety document is recommended for all companies and organisations. These plans, which include a crisis (communication) plan, provide guidelines for the staff's and management's actions in accident, mishap and other special situations. The plans must include guidelines for supporting the staff and customers in case of crises and dangerous or violent situations.



Figure 5. Major accident drill at Saariselkä's XXI Rescue Service Seminar. The scenario is a collision between a charter bus and a passenger car. (Photo: Vesa Koivumaa)

Companies usually understand the significance of crisis management and communication, but planning the process and drills are not implemented. Often companies that have encountered a crisis earlier have not learned much from what happened. A common problem companies have with crisis communication is that they do not have plans or practiced operating models for various types of crises. It's possible to learn from a crisis, but companies should not expect that the next time everything will happen exactly the same way as in a previous crisis (see e.g. Jääskeläinen 2010).

Companies can take decisive steps towards foreseeing a crisis. Superiors and supervisors should have enough information to understand the importance of crisis support and to arrange support. The crisis plan in the safety document should also provide information on how defusing and debriefing are to be handled. Language skills and cultural issues are a special challenge in the tourism sector. Defusing should be initiated as soon as possible also for any foreigners who were involved in the crisis. In planning mental first aid measures, attention should be placed on the sufficiency of interpreting services in an accident situation and how well the know-how of local people with language skills is utilised. A tourism company's

crisis management becomes more complicated if the victims and persons involved are foreigners. Tourism companies are not obligated to know where interpreters can be obtained in a crisis, but the primary rule is that all language-related help also within the company is necessary and should be taken into use as quickly as possible. The mental first aid team in the municipality and/or the Finnish Red Cross arranges interpreting service. The mental first aid crisis team may arrange to have an interpreter come, but it may take even several days to get one. Crisis help in a foreign language can be ordered from the Finnish Red Cross. With good co-operation between companies, it is possible to create a pool of special experts with which the companies can support each other. For example, someone with skill in a rare language may be found in a neighbouring company. Crisis help can be found on the Internet, for example at www.tukinet.fi.

Drills dealing with the most probable special situation scenarios should be carried out regularly as companies' own drills, together with their immediate networks and in co-operation with the local mental first aid team. The authorities are companies' primary partners, who provide instructions and guidelines regarding medical care and arrangement of psychosocial support at the workplace. International literature often separates compiling and practicing a crisis plan for a tourism area from a readiness planning process (rescue plan) as separate practices. In the Anglo-Saxon world, a crisis management plan may also refer to a rescue plan which is activated immediately if an abnormal situation occurs. In our circumstances, a crisis management plan is part of a company's safety document or rescue plan. A tourism area's crisis plan and its compilation and updating schedule should be linked to a fell-centre-specific rescue plan, either as an appendix or directly within the content of the rescue plan.

The framework of a company's crisis management plan is comprised of an introduction, recognising problem situations, scenario analyses (depicts possible chains of events), operating models (contacting the company's crisis management organisation and other places to call and a chain of alerts), identifying people possibly involved in the crisis (customers and their family members, employees and their family members, service providers), a communication plan and related measures and drills. Tourism companies' crisis management plans are compact documents well under ten pages long with clearly written content. A crisis communication plan/chart is generally considered to be the most important part of a crisis management plan.

Some large (listed) companies which are sensitive about their image have entered collaboration contracts with private companies and psychologists that offer mental first aid and crisis care. Various scenarios and incidents are planned and practiced in advance with such companies. There are cases where the management or staff of a publicly visible company is instructed to turn to private service providers rather

than public healthcare. This so-called private model is probably rare and not very expedient among SMEs in the tourism sector, but it is good to know that such an alternative also exists.

In this connection it is also worth bringing up the crisis-related psychological needs of an entrepreneur-owner. The entrepreneur often gets less attention in today's crisis management discussion, which is dominated by taking care of customers', employees' and even bystanders' well-being. The entrepreneur must not be left alone if he or she loses a business due to a fire, for example. A strong support network is also needed to guarantee his or her mental wellness.

A company's planning is supported by the municipality, which must maintain the crisis team's alert chart and update its operating guidelines, which should include a list of interpreters. Municipalities decide on the extent to which they invest in psychosocial support. Arranging psychosocial support and services is mandated by law in Finland. According to the Fire and Rescue Statute (2003), municipalities are obligated to arrange psychosocial support for accident victims, relatives and rescue workers (Leppävuori et al. 2009, 15–16). In 2005, 89 percent of municipalities had their own crisis team, whose members were trained social workers and healthcare professionals. Half of all municipalities considered the functionality of their crisis work to be good. According to the Finnish Association for Mental Health, a few years ago Finland still had areas where psychosocial support was not taken care of at all (MSAH 2006, 36). The situation has improved during the past two or three years, but for example crime victims are still quite often left without psychosocial crisis support.

Currently, the quality and availability of crisis support services for immigrants and other foreigners in accident and crime situations is of particular concern. For example, Victim support Finland has recently developed its readiness to help foreign crime victims; it offers help to foreign tourists who are victims of a crime or accident (Alanne-Kunnari 2010).

Municipal crisis teams and municipal management are obligated to ensure the availability of mental first aid. Municipal crisis teams have representatives from healthcare centres, parishes and the Finnish Red Cross. The municipal fire chief, the healthcare centre's specialists in psychosocial help and the FRC's local representatives are tourism companies' most important external partners in planning crisis management and crisis communication. It is also good to use the expertise of Victim support Finland in planning crisis management and practicing crisis communication.

Nevertheless, planning should be done primarily as tourism-area-specific planning or in co-operation with the fell centre within the municipality. The advantage of tourism-area-specific crisis management planning is that resource cards and drills

that also increase individual companies' capacity to sustain a crisis can be compiled as a broad collaborative effort. Resource mapping and resource cards list equipment and know-how available in the area in case of an accident or mishap. Integrated use of staff and equipment in crises and rescue situations is an important theme in tourism-area-specific (crisis) drills.

3.6 Empathetic work community

An individual's crisis is always also the work community's crisis. One's own work community is naturally the closest and most important community with which the rules of the game in crisis processing and communication are agreed on. Neither should the significance of business partners such as subcontractors and principal suppliers and other companies in the immediate network (tourism centre) be forgotten in compiling and practicing common strategies and crisis plans. According to the Occupational Safety Act, the employer is obligated to take care of the employees' physical and mental occupational safety. If an employee is overloaded at work so that his or her health is endangered, the employer must undertake measures to determine the factors causing the overloading and eliminate or alleviate the danger (Occupational Safety Act 2002). In connection with workplace training, staff members can be allowed to assess and list possible incidents that could be encountered at work, which are considered to be particularly traumatising and shocking. At the same time this type of advance listing functions as a description for superiors and occupational health and occupational safety staff in planning crisis defusing and debriefing. Likewise, the company also acquires valuable material for compiling a crisis (communication) plan.

According to the Occupational Health Act (2001), the employer must arrange occupational healthcare services for employees. Occupational healthcare includes preventive healthcare, organisation of psychosocial defusing and debriefing as well as crisis support after a crisis happens at the workplace. Occupational healthcare also functions as a specialist body in determining and evaluating workload. Superiors have an important role in promoting employees' mental wellness and capacity to work and also in referring an employee to occupational healthcare if his or her resources begin to weaken (Saari et al. 2009, 76). In addition to superiors, the workplace's persons of trust and occupational safety delegate are key in promoting the staff's well-being.

If it is at all possible and easily arranged, after a catastrophe the company's staff should assemble and give vent to their emotions, thoughts and experiences together with those who were involved in the situation. No one should be allowed to go home or start a new shift before he or she has been offered mental first aid and support.

If the staff is large and located in many units and not everyone is able to attend, it is important after such situations to distribute a leaflet explaining ways to cope with a traumatic crisis and listing available support measures.

Debriefing in a work community is usually a very effective psychosocial measure that improves the work environment. Through debriefing the company (organisation) and its members receive guidance and information about the group's and the individual's psychological abilities and ways of reacting to what has happened. An atmosphere is created in the work community which encourages people to process strong experiences. The immediate outcome is prevention of mental stress and exhaustion. Proper, clear information about what has happened, expected problems and available support services promotes psychosocial recovery. Over the long term, correctly timed and handled crisis support in the work community has an enhancing impact on the company's competitiveness and unity.

Compiling a crisis plan begins with an assessment of available resources and response capacity. This way the most important deficiencies in response and an existing plan are uncovered. At the same time a co-ordinating team (quality team, safety team) can focus on correcting the deficiencies uncovered by the assessment. In the second phase of crisis planning (readiness planning) the area's quality/safety team appoints a person/persons to prepare a crisis plan in practice, together with the area's authorities, organisations and other networks. The crisis plan of a tourism centre area, together with the local municipal safety plan, is a public, open document, thus differing greatly from a traditional readiness plan. In compiling a crisis plan the focus is on arranging mental first aid and communication. The plan should be as compact as possible so the work effort expended is not overwhelming. The main thing is to inform the area's companies about the mutual plan and secure their commitment to it and open the available mental first aid system and its contact information to the companies and the immediate network.

A company can independently prepare for various abnormal situations. The goal of catastrophe and rescue drills carried out in Finland has primarily been to develop collaboration between authorities. In the future, more and more drills that are planned and executed under the direction of business networks will be needed. Alongside large authority-directed rescue drills, there is a need for small drills – so-called daily drills – arranged by companies together with a specialist. In these drills the company goes over the most common forms of mishaps, accidents and crimes that the company could encounter in its practical operation.

EXAMPLES OF A COMPANY'S DAILY DRILLS		
Theme	Focus	Theme of crisis communication
Search	Use of equipment and staff	Company / authority communication
Traffic accident	Prevention of additional accidents	Communication between those involved
Fire at a lean-to	Initial extinguishing skill	Evacuation communication
Attack of illness	First aid skills	Communication with relatives, dear ones
Food poisoning	Customer treatment	Communication with customer groups
Handling an abnormal person	Staff's peer assistance	Company's internal communication
Threat	Internal alert	Personal crisis help
Property theft	Professional observations	Preventive measures
Storm damage / natural catastrophe	Evacuation of the company	Functionality of communication systems

Individual companies often feel they are too small or their operation is too modest to compile a separate crisis and recovery plan. A company may readily feel that the responsibility of compiling such a plan primarily belongs to municipalities, tourism areas and tourism marketing organisations. Indeed, tourism organisations should have their own role in compiling crisis plans. For example, organisations could provide specialist assistance and networks for compiling companies' own plans and drills and for managing their publicity.

Increasing companies' own responsibility in tourism centres also means that collaboration between companies must be honed during abnormal situation drills. Both large rescue drills and daily drills should include crisis management and crisis communication in the company. Crisis work and defusing after an accident in a tourism company require advance practicing. In company-directed drills the viewpoint should emphasise the customer, the staff and safety and security management. A tourism centre area or a fell centre forms a suitable scale for daily drills, but also for large accident and catastrophe drills. Daily drills always provide information that has to be updated in the company's rescue plan and other safety documents.

4 SUCCESSFUL COMMUNICATION

4.1 Crisis communication as a permanent drill theme

Crisis communication has emerged as a significant part of business crisis management during the 2000s. A common problem in companies is that they do not have plans or practiced operating models for various crises. Crisis communication, in particular, is still given relatively little attention in rescue drills. Measures undertaken in a crisis require good crisis management ability, mastery of communication and leadership skills from the company's management. Crisis communication is a very important component of crisis management. Crisis communication creates an encountering situation where the various functionaries and persons involved in the crisis interact using various communication channels. When a crisis occurs, the need for information grows substantially. To prevent escalation of the situation and panic, information has to be provided and accessible. Here companies can play a major role, although it is clear that in a (civilian) crisis in public administration, the authorities are responsible for information and crisis management. On the other hand, an authority may have a key position in business crisis management and information regardless of the cause. Crisis communication must be practiced and foreseen in the same way as crisis management in general.

The types of disturbances and crises can be divided into three levels in terms of crisis communication. A disturbance is an incident requiring special attention. It may be an abnormal situation, such as very bad weather. A crisis is a significant incident like the volcano eruption in Iceland and the resulting chaos in air traffic. An extreme crisis is a critical incident such as an airplane accident or a fire. In case of an extreme crisis, an information briefing should be arranged within two or no more than three hours of the incident (Huhtamaa 2010).

Many types of incidents are possible. Preparing for crisis communication means compiling instructions, clarifying task distribution and practicing for various types of incidents. It is particularly important to agree on tourism-centre-specific responsibilities

and operating principles in crisis communication and information. It is important to be mentally prepared for crisis communication by forming images of situations that may require communication. The more abnormal situations that are planned, documented and practiced, the better. It is necessary to know what various people inside and outside the company must do in crisis communication. The people who are in charge must be named and the action process specified for every conceivable situation.

The phone numbers and other necessary information about the people in charge should be listed on a crisis communication card (Appendix I). Key persons should carry the card with them whenever they are doing their work. They could also carry the card during their leisure time, as management people often need to be prepared for a crisis communication situation regardless of the time of day. The person on call who is in charge of communication must always carry the card. In a tourism company, for example, tour guides should always have the card in their backpack. Companies may also have an in-house agreement that all employees must carry the crisis communication card with them. In addition, important numbers should be stored in their cell phones. Work schedules and responsibilities agreed on within the company should specify who is required to come to the workplace during their leisure time in case of a crisis. When the persons in charge and the order of communication between them are recorded on the crisis communication card, it is important to test communication in practice. Only then is it sure that the selected operating model is suitable in each situation. Errors and things that need development are most easily found out during practical drills.

Ensuring the continuity of operation is the most important objective of business crisis management. The main goal of crisis communication is to protect and restore the company's image and promote the safety of the staff, customers and environment (Huhtala & Hakala 2007, 19). Reliable communication creates trust in crisis management ability and resources. The person who manages a crisis is remembered long. Nevertheless, someone has to agree to appear in public even with incomplete information.

When a crisis occurs, the company's management must immediately be aware of the situation and what has happened. It is a basic error to hope that everything will go well and no measures will be needed. The company's management and staff must find out the nature of the crisis, what information is available, how the outside world is reacting to the incident and how the company's interest groups and employees are reacting. Seeck et al. (2008, 166) used Nokia's water epidemic as the subject of a crisis management case study. Nokia is a town and a municipality in Southern Finland. According to Seeck et al, the themes of Nokia's water crisis in the newspapers and online news primarily focused on the management's actions and information, the incident itself and the way it was taken care of and its impact on the residents' lives. Only a small portion of the media's interest (in municipal and local crises) focuses on the government's par-

icipation in crisis management or the lessons learned from a crisis. However, online chats more commonly discuss the authorities' operation and evaluate the functionality of information. Quite often the themes of online chats also include possible investigations and searching for who is responsible as well as the impact of the incident on daily life and limitations caused by the incident (Seeck et al. 2008, 195).

A crisis communication guide is key in preparing for crisis communication. The guide, including descriptions of various incidents, should be contained in the company's safety folder, where in a crisis it is possible to check rapidly changing information such as contact information. Indeed, it is very important to always keep the guide up to date. The guide should be found in the company's electronic crisis operation folder, where it is easy to keep up to date. Without saying, it is clear that the guide should be written in several languages to make it usable for the company's foreign staff members. The guide should be stored in a manual folder and kept up to date and available for reading, if necessary. The company should not rely on only an electronic version of the guide, as the system may crash during the worst phase of the situation. The crisis communication guide must never contain out-of-date information. To be of any benefit in a crisis, the guide must be clear and easy to read. The guide is of no benefit if it has not been practiced beforehand. Drills are an essential part of crisis communication.

In addition to the tourism industry's national recovery plans, local communication and recovery plans have a decisive impact on the industry's capacity to prepare for crises and return to its normal state. These plans should also be flexible enough to allow encountering very different kinds of crises. It is not possible to compile detailed plans for all possible situations. The goal is to hone crisis management structures into shape and specify basic measures and responsibilities in crisis communication within the company and its immediate network. In the end, the national tourism authority is responsible for the industry's recovery plan and for supporting crisis management and crisis communication in tourism areas.

4.2 Communication means approaching

Publicity always exploits a crisis, but publicity can also be utilised in many ways. A company can present its own views and facts about an incident. The development of technical tools has also increased people's possibilities to communicate spontaneously. When an accident happens, multimedia messages are sent out within seconds. Messages sent by those involved in an accident and bystanders also reach family members quicker than official contacts by authorities taking care of the matter. Various blogs and chats are quickly filled with proper and improper comments. The speed of information highways challenges tourism companies' ability to communicate with those involved in a crisis or accident before officials assume communication

responsibility related to the incident. Journalists' job is to acquire information and interpret it. If the media have not received enough information from the people in charge of a situation, they begin to search for information, explanations and rumours themselves. This may make possible victims and people involved in the incident even more exposed to the media.

The person who provides statements to the media in a crisis must be known beforehand. Some companies may agree to completely abstain from providing statements and allow rescue authorities to comment on the incident. In a crisis, the media present numerous questions, some of which it is not even possible to be prepared for. At the moment of a crisis it is important not to guess anything, but rather to relate known facts. Things should not be downplayed, nor is it initially necessary to look for people responsible for or causes of the incident. It is probably needless to say that lying or denying facts will at least tarnish the company's image and at worst cause loss of human life if incorrect statements have affected the rescue situation. At least this much must be learned from today's information: lies will always be uncovered. In crisis communication it should also always be remembered that human life and safety always precede all else.

According to Seeck et al. (2008, 123), crisis information must always take the following into consideration:

- use clear concepts understood by all (not "technical water" like in Nokia's water crisis)
- the picture of the incident and situation must be up to date
- the amount of information and number of channels must be sufficient
- the content of bulletins must meet the need for information
- information must be active, proactive, but not reactive
- online pages must be up to date; information becomes out of date very quickly
- sympathise with victims, approach people and give the crisis a (familiar) face
- information must also be provided in national and international media
- information must also be provided in foreign languages; initial bulletins and information given to homes must also be in English and Swedish
- sufficient and correct additional information and phone numbers
- phone service must be adequate; call overflow systems must function
- the locality's elected officials and interest groups (FRC, VAPEPA) must be included in the information ring
- IRC and Facebook must be remembered at least in monitoring communication
- chats and blogs must be constantly monitored and misunderstandings and errors found there must be corrected whenever possible

The media build a story around a catastrophe and a crisis. The media and others are interested in what has happened, what has been done about it, what the consequences are, who was involved in the incident, what will be done next and what may have caused the incident. The media may give a crisis its own appearance. News reporting may be goal-oriented or intentional, especially if there is a lack of information. The crisis organisation can direct information and give a catastrophe a face. In that case information will be more in line with what the crisis organisation wants. The media hunt for victims, dramatize and create hero stories. In a crisis communication situation it is not always even important what is said, but how it is said (Huhtala & Hakala 2007, 55). The tsunami catastrophe in Southeast Asia taught that crisis communication can also become a communication crisis. The slow spread of information, unclear management relations and technical problems like overloaded lines hindered handling of the tsunami crisis.

Nokia's water crisis also indicated that the bureaucratic operating model slowed down communication (Seeck et al. 2008, 71–72). On the other hand, Nokia's crisis is not a unique example of a bureaucratic operating model that paralysed the initial phase of crisis management and even escalated the chain of events. Ritchie et al. (2003) have studied crisis communication related to hoof-and-mouth disease in Britain, especially from the viewpoint of the tourism industry. Hoof-and-mouth disease hit tourism badly in 2000–2002. Britain's national tourism authority had neglected crisis leadership planning. Corrective measures came too late; the disease had already clearly caused losses in the tourism business, as customers' images of the destination were formed on the basis of news reporting by the media. Communication strategies and drills as well as crisis management plans were commonly missing also at the local level (Ritchie et al. 2003, 208–209). Crisis communication is also very definitely image management.

A busload of Central European senior tourists arrived at a lodging company. During their stay a couple of the lodging company's staff members felt ill and stayed home from work. A couple of days later the guests continued their bus trip, but right at the beginning of their journey several people felt ill. They were left at healthcare centres along the way in Finland. The aforementioned lodging company also came to know of this. The manager of the company contacted the local health inspector. The health inspector commissioned an investigation of the lodging company in which possible diseases were eliminated. The investigation determined that the staff members had become infected with norovirus. Typically a person may carry the disease unnoticed up to three days while at the same time spreading it. The company soon came to know that the entire busload of tourists had contracted acute gastroenteritis and were being treated in various healthcare centres in Finland. A representative of the tour operator in the senior tourists' home country called the health inspector to ask why the whole group was in hospitals around Finland. When the cause of the disease was determined, the tour operator was informed. Finally, the tourists were able to return home.

It was determined that the lodging company had acted properly. The health inspector was notified quickly and the investigation was requested without any explanations. At the same time the tour operator was kept up to date. Fortunately, none of the senior tourists has any serious basic illnesses. Otherwise the disease could have been fatal. Another stroke of luck was that the bus trip was along a route in Finland where there were healthcare centres available. Even for this group, the consequences could have been fatal if healthcare services had been located hundreds of kilometres away.

GUIDELINES FOR PREVENTING TRAUMATIC STRESS (SOURCE: AZIZ 2010).

Self-care

- get sufficient rest, relaxation and refreshment
- observe healthy life habits
- maintain your physical and mental health
- maintain your social relationships
- develop your professional knowledge and skills
- accept the support of the work community
- keep a balance between your work tasks and know-how
- do not hide your emotions; talk about them and what happened
- find out the facts
- let time heal
- continue your work at a reasonable pace
- to prevent overactive nerves, limit the use of stimulants
- drink water

Workmates' support

- be a sympathetic listener
- give support and be present
- don't leave him/her alone
- avoid accusation
- ask what's up
- recommend additional support, if needed

Superior's support

- prevent overloading
- show appreciation and provide necessary support, guidance and feedback
- hold regular discussions
- deal with problems and disputes immediately
- take individuality, humaneness and life's situations into consideration
- respect the employee's boundaries between work and private life
- ask how he/she feels also outside of the workday

The police and rescue service have many practiced operating models involving traffic accidents, even the catastrophic scenario of a tourist bus accident. Rescue service,

the police and hospitals take part in crisis information as well as rescue operations. Tourism companies and tour operators also have their own role in communication in an accident, as we have seen, for example, in connection with Malaga's bus accident and the tsunami crisis. The distribution of tasks is clear. Doctors are responsible for informing family members about patients and the police and rescue service inform about rescue and police activity. The same applies to an explosion accident, for example. The company does not try to guess at the cause in public. Pondering the cause of an incident in public is the task of the investigating authorities. Problems related to lists of names of those killed in or rescued from an accident appear to repeat themselves in one way or another in most crises (Huhtala & Hakala 2007, 69). Informing about psychosocial support and publishing crisis phone numbers should also happen early.

In 2009 it was seen that an international epidemic can also cause symptoms of a crisis, if not an actual crisis, in society. The need for information and the mechanisms of information in the swine flu case resembled crisis information. Symptoms of a crisis were budding as the intensity of information need changed. The unknown threat – a pandemic – did not, however, become a societal crisis. Why? The epidemic was not an unexpected incident and interpretations of signals received from it were contradictory. Not even the experts could agree on the degree of seriousness of the pandemic.

Crises that shake society have gradually caused state and municipal governments to develop their crisis communication. After every major incident (the WTC strike, the Asian tsunami and the Myyrmanni and Sello shopping mall incidents in Finland) new instructions on handling crises have appeared. If a crisis is not societal it will not become political, but rather individual people's stories of sorrow. This is often the case in a business crisis. A business crisis usually does not rise to the societal level, so it does not easily become political. However, a crisis at the company level directly affects individuals, families and the immediate society.

CRISIS COMMUNICATION PLAN MEMO			
Task	When was it done?	Who is in charge?	Other related things to remember
Compile a crisis communication plan and instructions			
Update the crisis communication plan and instructions			
Check visibility, browsing rights and currentness in the intranet			
Place the plan and instructions in a manual safety folder			
Place the plan and instructions in the company's orientation folder			
Duplicate a crisis communication card for all employees			
Fill in the crisis communication card and compile instructions for its use			
Compile different language versions of the plan, instructions and card			
Determine the location and equipment of a possible information briefing			
Agree on interpretation services for a possible information briefing			
Plan a crisis communication drill			
Go over the plan with the health inspector/ fire authority			
Go over the plan with the most important subcontractors and principal suppliers			

A societal crisis is public, while a business crisis can be public, semi-public or completely non-public. A business crisis is public when an accident or crime happens which has a broad societal impact and involves functionaries from outside the company. Common to both types of crises – private and public – now and in the future, is the birth of online communities. Information is conveyed via the Internet's information channels in many forms and quickly, often more quickly than through the information reports of official bodies. Information is the most important thing sought in and about a crisis. Everything that is known must be told. Facts must be told, empathy must be expressed and information needs must be foreseen.

Organisations must arrange media monitoring, at least during a crisis. Media monitoring facilitates creation of a picture of the situation. Media monitoring also provides material for post-crisis analysis. Even when the situation is most frenetic, someone should find time to keep a journal of events in which the most important measures undertaken during the crisis are recorded. A journal of events is a good aid if matters need clarification afterwards. At the same time the information collected in the journal can be used later in the company's in-house training. An example is the situation log compiled by the duty officer of the Lapland county administrative board's rescue department in connection with the dog sleigh accident in Tornio.

After a crisis, organisations must also conduct a self-evaluation of their operation. As detailed a record as possible of media information during the various phases of the crisis facilitates such an analysis. Huhtala & Hakala (2007, 155) have created a framework for arranging media monitoring. Here also, material written by people, for example in chats, should be taken into account. After Huhtala's and Hakala's study, the social media such as Facebook and IRC have dominated the field in personal dissemination of information globally. Nowadays online communication is the most important resource and platform for information.

NOKIA'S WATER CRISIS TAUGHT THE FOLLOWING:

Warning signals must be noticed on time, their causes investigated and they must be reacted to (quiet warning signals, near miss situations).

Spreading of a crisis beyond the organisation or site of an incident must be prevented (for example, economic effects should be limited).

Continuation of normal functions must be ensured (other services continue).

The organisation must learn from a crisis (feedback and its evaluation must be arranged).

Image management must be organised.

The availability of resources must be guaranteed (remember support provided by interest groups, for example).

Decision-making must be based on sufficient information and a realistic picture of the situation.

The content of online bulletins and online reading skills must be analysed continuously during and after a crisis. Today the media do not spare anyone from contacts. If something happens, information must be provided via online pages and the media. Management relationships must be in shape and information must pass from one step to the next quickly. It is necessary to prepare for the media. The significance of online communication cannot be downplayed, as today it is probably the most important form of communication.

It cannot be expected that crisis communication in businesses and the municipal level is honed to a T when communication practices even on the state scale are relatively new (see e.g. Huhtala & Hakala 2007, 185; Seeck et al. 2008, 28). In each case a crisis elevates a leader. A crisis also needs a leader, which in a small company is personified in the manager-owner. However, the true leader of a crisis is not necessarily the person whose formal mandate would include leadership. Charismatic leadership may emerge from among the work community in connection with a serious situation.

Communication should take into account the information needs of different groups, which are direct victims, their family members and dear ones, residents of the municipality, the greater public, members and interest groups of the organisation. Crisis communication, pictures of the situation and crisis leadership form a central triangle in a crisis. The relationships and flow of information between these three must be ensured and practiced in normal circumstances. Crisis leadership is strategic leadership and also political leadership, as it involves emphasising issues and forming objectives.

4.3 Good information salvages much

It is especially important to arrange an information briefing immediately after an accident or other abnormal incident. Family service phone lines should be opened immediately (e.g. by the police or the Ministry for Foreign Affairs in case of a major accident). The persons who answer the phone should be experienced professionals in psychiatry. Their task is to provide instructions and advice and if possible, arrange contacts between the victims and their family members. The family service phone can be called to find out whether a family member is in hospital and which unit he or she is in. Inquiries about the victims' and involved persons' condition should be referred to the treating unit. If necessary, information should be confirmed from the management centre, after which it is conveyed to family members. In this connection it should be remembered that information about deceased persons cannot be given. This information is always conveyed by the police.

A peaceful room, e.g. a meeting room, should be quickly reserved for use by family members immediately upon receiving knowledge of an accident. The staff should also begin listing names of family members. A peaceful, secure room calms family members and allows the staff to act more systematically. Family members must not be left alone without care. The meeting room must be easily accessible. The company should have a list of meeting rooms suitable for this purpose. Staff members should be available to answer a variety of questions. Representatives of mental first aid should be present to discuss with family members. A person in charge should be present in the meeting room to ensure care is given. There should be beverages

and snacks in the room. The victims' information should be recorded and family members can contact each other.

Tourism companies should be prepared to function as family support, a source of information and a place to contact at least during the initial phase of a crisis. The staff should calmly tell as much as they are able to and know about the incident (accident, mishap). The company itself decides what it will tell about the incident in public. Responsibility for providing information to the media usually lies with the rescue service or other authorities. New information should be given to all family members at the same time as soon as the staff receives it.



Figure 6. Luckily, this is only a drill. Time seems to stop when a person is waiting. Initial response times in off-road rescues often stretch in wilderness conditions. The cold affects both patients and helpers. Lighting conditions are also poor in an actual situation. This photo is from a rescue drill at Ylläs, "Kaamos 2009." (Photo: Niko Niemisalo)

The room that is suitable as a crisis centre in the company should be off limits also for the media; its purpose is to arrange contacts and convey information between the victims' family members and authorities. The basic needs of the victims and their family members should be attended to (food, rest). The practice in a central hospital

is to close the hospital to the media if a major accident occurs. All information pertaining to the accident and the hospital's own internal and external information take place via an information centre set up in the hospital's auditorium. Responsibility for information is clearly specified. Hospital management is in charge of information.



Figure 7. Daily drill at the XXI Rescue Service Seminar arranged at Saariselkä. The scenario is an accident at a lean-to. (Photo: Vesa Koivumaa)

A crisis team with police reinforcement should be set up alongside the management centre that directs actual rescue activity. The police obtain basic personal information and record the progression of the incident as seen and experienced by people. A staff member of the tourism company and a representative of the tour operator should be available for crisis defusing and the various phases of psychosocial care. The persons involved will have questions about family members, interruption of the trip, contact information of their home country's crisis teams and insurance issues. The presence of children makes defusing even more challenging. The area's crisis team should have information forms to hand out to the victims and eyewitnesses. The forms should instruct them to identify their own abnormal reactions and provide more detailed contact information in their own language.

Guides working in the field are the first to encounter the reality of crisis management in an adventure service company. In case of an accident or special incident, a guide should undertake initial measures to take even an unclear situation under control. For

this the guide needs a memo, which he or she has in his or her backpack. The list may be a laminated card containing the order in which measures should be undertaken and a contact chart with phone numbers. Most likely the guide is the first person in the company to initiate the first crisis communication measures. He or she should immediately secure the support of the person on call at the company's permanent point of operation. This person should continue crisis communication, send support to the site of the incident and verify from his or her own list that all the planned crisis management measures have been realised.

As stated earlier, mental first aid and debriefing needs can also be met by turning to private companies that offer such specialist services. Development of technical methods for crisis communication also opens possibilities for business operation.

A good example of development of technical solutions is Eubicom Oy, a company in Oulu that belongs to Lapland's tourism safety and security system. The company has developed a remote-controlled, portable emergency message sign.

The emergency message sign benefits rescue and safety functionalities and others who need to communicate to the public in certain situations. The emergency message sign can be used to provide information in an emergency, such as the scene of an accident.



The emergency message sign can also be used as a tool to protect people and direct traffic and in other situations associated with information. The electric or battery-powered message platform can serve different language groups and several different target groups simultaneously, which also reduces the load on the emergency centre.

The person on call or assisting person at the permanent point of operation should initiate crisis management measures and crisis communication in the order of responsibility according to his or her own list. This is the first alternative for providing support to an employee acting in the field and at the scene of the incident. Alternatively, some other member of the staff can be arranged to help the person acting at the scene of the incident. Crisis management is much more than carrying out immediate rescue measures in the terrain. Nevertheless, a framework for a memory card for a guide working in the field is listed below. This framework can also be applied in other abnormal situations encountered by the staff.

1. Rescue; administer first aid.
2. Send an alert.
3. Immediately report the incident to the company's person on call/management.
4. Prevent additional damage; mark the location of the accident on the route and/or road approaching the site.
5. Place a snowmobile or vehicle as a visible block in both directions of approach.
6. Protect the patients and customers against the cold.
7. Give responsibility for any children to persons who are uninjured.
8. Give the person on call/management a situation report.
9. Take a spare cell phone into use; by now phones will start ringing.
10. Take photographs at the scene of the incident.
11. Monitor the condition of the injured, customers and other staff members.
12. Also monitor your own condition all the while.

When the acute situation is over, arrange a defusing discussion, if necessary, which is attended by helpers who have participated in administering mental first aid. Defusing should follow the principles presented earlier in this book. If necessary, occupational health workers should be invited to the defusing meeting. Helpers also need help during and especially after the situation.

4.4 Communication problem and resistance to change

A crucial mistake can be made if management and communication are separated from each other organisationally and in concept. In Nokia's water crisis in 2007, the first error was made already in compiling the municipality's readiness plan – the plan was not submitted for ratification by the municipal government nor was the preparedness plan up to date. When the actual hot phase began, an error was made in that no collecting, processing and forwarding of public feedback was arranged, which would have made it possible to perceive the scope and seriousness of the crisis. Any distortions in the feedback system should be identified as soon as possible. A messenger with bad news is not necessarily praised. Superiors are pleased to hear that the organisation's operation flows smoothly. If the atmosphere does not encourage feedback, the staff may become frustrated and forwarding of unpleasant messages will be stifled. A well-functioning organisation values honest information, sincere feedback and self-criticism.

Rearrangements implemented during a crisis traditionally cause resistance to change among the staff. Possible reorganisation must be communicated to the work com-

munity already before a crisis. It has been determined that resistance in a situation of change is caused by economic, personal and social reasons related to the work community. Employees may be professionally ready for change, but not willing to change. A change in management may also cause a crisis in the work community.

The method applied at Outokumpu Oy, where employees are rewarded for reporting a near miss situation, can be used as an example of encouraging reporting of near miss situations. As a result, the number of reports increased by a factor of ten and the amount of sick leaves decreased to a tenth of the former amount. The system did not cause a flood of so-called false near miss reports – all the reports could be verified as being justified. Outokumpu Oy's good practice is used as an example in occupational safety card training.

A work community with a strong organisational culture will withstand crises better and respond to them with tighter group cohesion than an organisation with a loose/unclear identity. Resistance to change is reduced with education and consultation (to increase knowledge), by having everyone participate (including those who resist), by providing support (guidance), with negotiations and agreements (compromises and changes in plans), through co-operation and encouragement (appealing to emotions) and with open and covert pressure (ineffective in terms of the future). In addition, according to Zaharov et al. (2007, 219–221), the following methods of managing change can be used:

- 1) Forced management model, which is used when there is little time to implement change;
- 2) Crisis management, which can be applied when the possibility of a crisis is recognised and there is reasonable time to react. The crisis must be seen earlier than others see it and the possibility of a crisis must be believably communicated to the work community;
- 3) Adaptation to change, which involves adjusting to the demands of new circumstances by degrees over a long period of time. Conflicts are resolved as compromises and major resistance does not have a chance to develop;
- 4) Controlled resistance method, which is a temporary and most often extreme method. Somewhere between the forced management model and adaptation. Resistance itself is placed under control and advanced in a strong hold.

Communication of crisis management to the staff is never completely successful. As it is known, the staff's perception of sufficient information flow is just as much a product of images as it is of real indicators. Nevertheless, good communication increases the company's efficiency. The results of poor communication do not even have to be explained here. In addition to the amount of information, more important are its reliability and availability, and in the initial phase of a crisis, its promptness.

According to a study conducted in Britain, 92% of companies feel information should be improved among the staff (Zaharov et al. 2007, 224). Deficient information is considered the worst stumbling block in modern business operation. A bad information culture brings with it tension between the management and employees, weakens motivation among the staff, slows the company's development and innovation activity, tarnishes the company's external image, increases staff turnover, decreases commitment to the company's objectives and decreases overall efficiency. Much also depends on what types of information channels are used. It is recommendable to use personal, direct channels instead of indirect, impersonal information channels.

In a restaurant's daily drill the staff practiced encountering a distractive customer and a riotous, disturbing group. The drill scenario depicted a situation in which the behaviour of the disturbing group caused a conflict between the restaurant's customers and the group. Despite the staff's intervention, the situation escalated and the customers also brandished knives and pepper spray. Even heavier weapons were seen. As the situation heated up, the staff called the emergency centre and began evacuating customers while making sure no bystanders were left in the WCs, for example. A customer hit with pepper spray and hurt in the scuffle was placed in an ambulance. The police removed the disturbing group from the restaurant.

The staff's professional skill was evidenced by their ability to see the situation developing; protect bystanders by intervening between the disturbers and bystanders; keep the emergency centre up to date, e.g. by informing about the knives and other weapons (affected the readiness of the police); give clear instructions via a karaoke microphone; identify the disturbers' (disturber) already in an early phase (he had given his name earlier in the karaoke evening, bystanders recognised him); call their superior (who considered sending more staff to help, prepared for an information briefing); and request crisis help to support bystanders who had witnessed personal injury (most often the ambulance staff or the police call the healthcare centre's crisis team).

Studies show that the information channel of choice is direct contact by the management, for example by personal letter or a meeting. In reality, however, it is felt that the most important and functional conveying of information happens in the form of rumours and work community discussions (Zaharov et al. 2007, 226). However, information obtained through rumours is of poor quality and distorted. Studies show that the deeper a crisis in a company, the greater the communication gap. Specialisation, formation of hierarchies and centralisation are poison for modern crisis communication.

Communication should not, however, be considered a magic solution to a company's motivation problems. Staff members have material, emotional, intellectual and social needs that the organisation must satisfy. The staff has to feel these needs are being taken care of, otherwise a conflict will materialise. From the standpoint of the company's success, staff, production and marketing are intertwined factors whose order of importance is difficult to indicate. They all have to be taken care of.

5 CRISIS LEADERSHIP

5.1 Management of change

Crisis management in a company includes crisis prevention or crisis leadership. Crisis leadership refers to the methods and forms with which crisis prevention processes are concretely applied in the company. Crisis management also is the ability to manage change. Crisis prevention requires strategic leadership and a foresighted, systematic approach to analysing and solving emerging problems. The basic skills of crisis management should be included in the tools of both quality management and safety and security management.

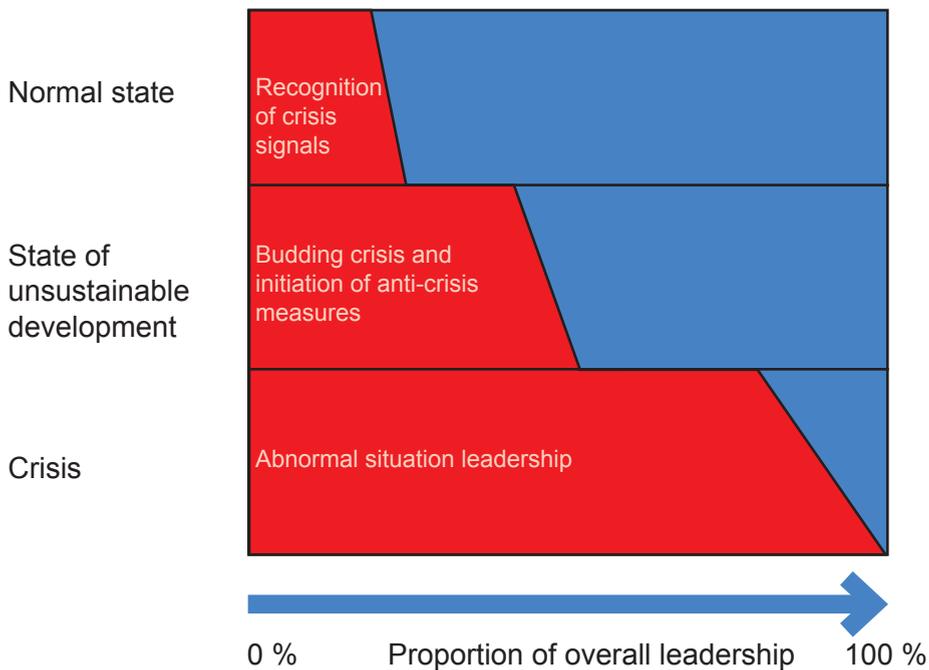


Figure 8. Proportion of crisis leadership in organisational management during normal and abnormal situations.

Crisis management involves many leadership methods. In the broad sense, crisis management means reinforcing the company's competitive position. According to the narrowest yet very traditional understanding, crisis management is the company's way to avoid bankruptcy. However, the basic prerequisite of crisis leadership always is good familiarity with the operating environment and an up-to-date picture of the content of a crisis.

Crisis leadership and organising, communication issues and the fixed course of publicity function similarly in companies, organisations and public administration. According to Huhtala and Hakala (2007), Southeast Asia's tsunami in 2004 caused a communication crisis, resulting in a major change in the public administration's communication. Information was replaced with strategic communication. A crisis requires leadership, which must also be apparent in communication. Someone always assumes leadership in a crisis. It would be desirable for the company's owner/manager to assume leadership in his or her own organisation in a crisis affecting it. Alternatively, management of the situation is placed in outside hands, in the worst case outside the company and organisation, to become a playing field of the media, for example. Organisations use crisis management to handle an abnormal situation in a controlled, systematic manner. Crisis management is leadership and gives a crisis a face.

A leader's abilities are tested in a crisis. Decision-making is the single most important measure in both foresight and management. A decision made in a crisis may have a powerful impact in one direction or another. Decisions must be made rapidly. However, the decision-maker cannot always be sure of the direction in which the decision will finally affect. Nevertheless, it is absolutely necessary to make a decision. The importance of the decision-maker to the organisation rises steeply in a crisis. The consequences of the crisis may be serious, but the consequences of the decision are also irreversible. Without decisions made by the management, the crisis may last long or it may quickly destroy the organisation. The crisis may be followed by a catastrophe or alternatively a gradually calming situation. In their work Huhtala & Hakala (2007) emphasised societal crises, but the effects of a business crisis may also be far-reaching, especially within the municipality.

Crisis leadership means giving the conflict process a form and systematics in order to minimise political, social, economic and moral losses. Although leadership takes place vertically from top to bottom, integration of social relationships is possible only if sensitive mechanisms for recognising crisis signals coming upwards from the bottom are in place. It is characteristic of crises that measures are always implemented too late. A decision is made too late or a measure turns out to be too weak. For this reason, even weak signals of a budding crisis should be recognised well in advance.

Crisis leadership is part of a company's foresighted approach to management. One part of this is safety planning. Companies and their management are required to

have better and better quality safety planning. The dog sleigh accident that happened in Vojakkala in Tornio, Finland, the day after Christmas 2005 was in many ways a turning point in taking safety into consideration in a tourism company's practices. In the Tornio accident, two Italian tourists were killed when their dog sleigh was hit by a train. The dog sleigh route passed over the railway track between the municipalities of Ylitornio and Tornio. An accident involving foreigners immediately triggers collaboration between authorities at the national level, but additionally, also wide international collaboration, as is well depicted by the following figure.



Figure 9. National and international collaboration in connection with the dog sleigh accident in Tornio. Source: Lapland regional administration office.

Crisis management and crisis leadership in a company, as in any organisation, requires sensitive observation, readiness to quickly direct and focus available resources and prompt decision-making. It has also been noticed that distributed administration, not central management, and the staff's high motivation to meet any challenge enhance crisis management. Safety and security management in general, but crisis leadership in particular, are forms of management in which the characteristics of so-called good leadership – discussion, listening to various subcommittees and presentation of alternative decisions – are not always realised. In a crisis it is necessary to make quick and even rough decisions without any time for discussion. However, advance planning and agreement on responsibilities fix gaps in good leadership. If the manners and methods of managing a crisis come as a surprise to the staff, crisis leadership usually gets a poor grade within the organisation.

Memo for company management:

1. Compile a crisis management plan and crisis communication guide as an appendix to the rescue plan or as a separate safety document.
 2. Make sure the plan contains an unambiguous list of measures and alerts with contact information.
 3. Make sure the crisis communication guide is a brief and unambiguous memo/chart of measures.
 4. Map the company's and immediate network's psychosocial specialists and support persons.
 5. Participate boldly in rescue drills which also include crisis communication.
 6. Arrange a small-scale in-house rescue drill with communication practice.
- Make a compilation of experiences from the drills and go over them during the company's training day.
- Periodically check the possible crisis centre status within the company.
- Get to know the most important mental first aid contact persons and invite them to the area's joint theme days.

Memo for staff members:

- Follow given instructions.
- Follow in-house and, if possible, also external communication channels.
- End rumours and do not spread groundless, unverified information.
- Monitor your workmates' condition; if necessary, get help for yourself and your workmates.
- Keep your superior up to date about your actions.
- Continue your normal work if you do not receive new instructions.

Speed and resolve are the most important crisis management criteria in the rapidly changing operating environment and increasingly intense competition. Here a carefully prepared crisis management strategy, which includes measures considered in advance, helps. The strategy should contain the company's business continuity plan and communication plan with instructions. It is also necessary to ensure that the staff know how to act appropriately in as many different crisis scenarios as possible. At least the most common crises of the sector should be practiced.

As a rule, it suffices that the company's basic matters are in shape and the rescue plan is practiced regularly. Nevertheless, training should start from the management on down. If the company is not prepared for the fast pace of incidents, their progression will become an unexpected process that cannot be fathomed on the basis of earlier experiences. A strategy does not always help. Sometimes it may also be that, despite a weak strategy, crisis management turns out right. This is because despite upper management's deficiencies, the company's/organisation's middle management has been able to create mechanisms of foresight that function well in a special situation. In such a case also the rest of the staff have discussed crisis management with each other and have agreed on practices through successful transfers of silent knowledge.

Crisis management literature often emphasises the important of asset management in crisis management work. This is justifiable in that the company's financial situation is probably the most common cause of a crisis in the company. If a company is not profitable, neither does it have a future. The capacity to be flexible often depends on the company's size. Adapting to a financial crisis is easier in small tourism companies, particularly family-owned companies, and the cold theories of economics cannot be applied mechanically as is. On the other hand, most often it is true that responsibility for safety and security management and crisis management in large tourism companies has been given to appointed persons and management processes have been internalised as a natural part of the company's operation. Safety and security management in micro-companies and small local companies is mainly limited to a statutory rescue plan. These companies' resources are insufficient for crisis management or communication planning.

Most important in a company's crisis management is that the company displays leadership both externally and internally in a difficult situation. In a crisis, the company's management and staff must be able to approach the customer and other staff members. A company and an organisation are evaluated also in public on the basis of how well the company was able to handle a crisis. Evaluation does not necessarily focus on how well the company was able to take all possible risks in its operation and operating environment into consideration beforehand. Crisis management is also reputation management, in spite of how despicable it sounds. A poorly handled crisis will strain the company's and the area's public image a lot longer than the actual crisis lasts.

5.2 The battle against time

The most serious type of crisis is in question when a company is tried by a strategic crisis. Failed strategic choices and strategic management cause a chain reaction in which a strategic crisis evolves into a serious disturbance at the operative and tactical level, a default in payment, reorganisation and finally, in the worst case, bankruptcy. However, not all crises can be avoided. Crises belong to all living and even non-living organisations. Some crises just have to be gone through in the organisation. Indeed, in crisis leadership the organisation's ability to cope and vitality are tested. The minimum requirement for crisis leadership is that leadership (or a lack of it) at least does not aggravate the impact of a crisis in the organisation.

Leading crisis management is also framed by a lack of time. Leadership is often a race against time. Decisions need to be made quickly, yet in the right direction, under the pressure of time. Leadership ability is measured by how well diagnosis of weak signals, advance warning systems, minimisation of the impact of a crisis, restructuring strategy and human resource administration are combined. The state's measures for avoiding crises are legal, economic and social. They also form the framework of tools for business crisis management. Unhealthy competition, communal needs, external events, insufficient information (for analyses), unemployment, inflation and inequality are examples of parameters and indicators that affect crisis readiness on both the societal and business levels. Organisations can increase their resilience with their own measures and by reinforcing the resilience of the operating environment.

The basic ideas of crisis leadership and management are:

- a crisis can be recognised beforehand, it can be expected and it can even be created intentionally
- a crisis can be accelerated or postponed and its effects can be softened
- it is possible to prepare for crises
- crisis management requires special measures, know-how, skills, experience and approaches
- crises can be managed to a certain extent
- crisis coping processes can be accelerated and the effects of a crisis can be minimised

Crisis management requires the following characteristics:

- flexibility and adaptation to a matrix organisation
- acceptance of unstructured leadership
- increased staff motivation and patience
- reinforcement of internal integration processes and a sense of solidarity

Leading crisis management involves the following special characteristics:

- mobility and dynamics in using resources and implementing innovations
- increased awareness of time, i.e. understanding the significance of time in decision-making
- leadership is centred, giving crisis management a face

INCIDENTS THAT HAVE CAUSED CRISES IN TOURISM	
Terrorism	
Jolo hostage crisis	2000
9/11 strikes in the USA	2001
Bali's bomb attacks in Indonesia	2002, 2005
Madrid's train bombs	2004
London's bomb attacks	2005
Sharm el-Sheikh bomb attacks in Egypt	2005
Natural catastrophes	
Earthquake in Turkey (7.4 on the Richter scale)	1999
Floods in Central Europe	2002
Heat wave in Europe (hottest summer in 500 years)	2003
Tsunami in South and Southeast Asia	2004
Hurricane Katrina, New Orleans	2005
USA's wildfires	2007
Greece's wildfires	2007-2009
Hurricane in Myanmar	2008
Earthquake in China (7.9 on the Richter scale)	2008
Accidents	
Chernobyl	1986
Sinking of the Estonia	1994
Helicopter accident, Tallinn-Helsinki	2005
Malaga's bus accident	2008
Madrid's airplane accident	2008
Airplane accident in the Atlantic	2009
Epidemics	
Mad cow disease, Great Britain	1996
Hoof-and-mouth disease, Great Britain	2001
SARS, China	2003
Bird flu	2003
Swine flu	2009

In crisis management, priority must be placed on motivating the organisation's staff and others who are dependent on the organisation, analysing the situation, creating optimism and promoting socio-psychological stability. From the standpoint of the company's continuity it is important to keep the immediate network up to date. Initiative in decision-making and searching for new alternative exits should be prioritised in leadership. Leadership should combine integration and decentralisation. Formal (official) and informal leadership also form a pair of concepts that is reality in crisis management. Professional skill, experience and the leader's credibility together with situation analysis and a coping strategy are crucial.

According to Seeck et al. (2008, 29), the phases of crisis management are readiness planning, readiness drills, training and risk analyses. On the other hand, Seeck's classification also depicts the tools of crisis management. In addition, the classification applies to crises in the public sector. The phases and tools of business crises differ from crises that mainly shake the public sector. Nevertheless, be it a question of a company or a public functionary, the phases of crisis (management) contain the following elements:

- 1) noticing warning signals
- 2) interpreting signals
- 3) deciding on measures to be undertaken
- 4) arranging communication
- 5) monitoring the effectiveness of measures and recognising new signals.

Decisions made in a critical situation are abrupt and may conflict with the company's prior strategy. At the same time the company's staff is under heavy strain, which may have staff-related consequences. Advance preparation offers the possibility to carry out even robust decisions according to the company's strategy. In that case decisions are made within existing structures and there is no need for differing processes. Sometimes it is necessary to employ outside specialists to support robust, untested decisions. In that case the specialists and consultants act like a facade and a protective cover for the company's management. In such a situation the credibility of the specialists is based on the fact that they cannot be linked to the company's own strategies, which may be given from the top. Neither do outsiders have external or internal connections that erode their credibility.

5.3 The organisation's structure and flexibility are crucial

A company's crisis management organisation is built on the basis of know-how. Formal positions can be left in the background. People's areas of competence and experience in handling crises are the deciding factors. The managing director's commitment to crisis management is important. After all, the managing director/owner-manager is the person with the broadest authority in the initial measures of crisis

communication and a statutory obligation to maintain the employees' health and wellness. He or she needs someone from the staff who keeps him or her abreast of events if the size of the staff permits this. It must be remembered that the managing director simultaneously also takes care of the company's other functions. Leadership responsibility must always be clear in crisis management. This is usually clear in SMEs. A hierarchical organisation and a superior that isn't seen or heard may increase the organisation's load and proneness to crises.

As a rule, the crisis management organisation should include competence from various sectors. Small tourism companies do not have many possibilities to choose a range of competencies; they must rely on their staff's know-how and experience. If necessary, they may invite persons with special expertise in their own field whose skills are needed in the crisis management group. The company should have people who are capable of interacting with the media. It is general practice in large companies for the communications staff, for example the public relations manager, to act as the company's spokesperson. Nevertheless, the entire staff should be prepared to be contacted by the media sooner or later.

The organisation's structure affects how well it is prepared to encounter crises. The structure may quite well reveal the company's ability to respond to external challenges and internal demands. The people within the organisation may indeed be well prepared for abnormal situations, but the rigidity of the structure may prevent quick decision-making, optimisation of communication and adaptation to new realities in general. The structure may also limit the birth and use of innovations. Too often managers avoid touching structures, as doing so usually causes dissatisfaction among the staff. This may, however, be a crucial mistake. There is a maximum period during which an organisation's structure may remain static, after which it necessary to make very radical and often unpleasant changes. Organisational changes facilitate adaptation to the operating environment, which is continuously changing. From the organisation's structure we can very well jump to organisational culture, which is an inseparable part of the organisation's life and coping. Culture is comprised of the values and principles that unite the staff and ensure uniform operation. In a crisis it is necessary to appeal to the company's basic values and common experiences which reinforce the organisational culture.

Organisational reform (restructuring) is a radical way to shape an organisation. The need for reform is triggered by technological and economic problems, financial and production-related challenges and leadership problems. The level of crisis sensitivity in an organisation's operation is also measured through productivity, efficiency, quality, flexibility and the staff's occupational satisfaction. To these should also be added the owners' satisfaction. Management and leadership reform is the most important sub-factor in lifting an organisation onto a path of growth and development.

Today organisational renewal is a natural and permanent state everywhere. When a company is threatened by a crisis, its situation is otherwise unsatisfactory or its competitiveness drops, the situation is corrected through reorganisations. Reforms are also needed when the company's growth is brisk, its market position changes or its competitors change considerably. Then it is necessary to concentrate especially on modifying business processes. In English crisis literature, organisational changes are also called reorganisation, re-engineering, reforming and transformation. Their use varies according to how different authors emphasise causes and the depth and speed of change. Micro-companies and SMEs in the tourism sector are seldom faced with very complex questions of reorganisation.

Crisis management is comprised of measures similar to those used in preventing corporate takeovers, for example. Share emissions and property arrangements serve as examples which are both crisis prevention and reinforcement of the company's position and independence against possible external cornering. To reinforce its position also at the strategic level, a company may integrate upward or downward. Horizontal integration happens by expanding in the direction of competitors. These integration strategies help the company command broader markets. Market position can also be reinforced by concentrating on current products (services), coming out with new products that fit the company's old profile or entirely new products and a new profile. A company can join forces with a larger entity, remain independent or sell a part of its operation. Ownership arrangements inside the company are also strategic choices.

Efficient crisis management also requires an advanced innovation base, which includes an organisational, material, financial and information management base. Innovations function as a company's source of renewal. Companies need innovations in normal competitive situations as well as in crises. Innovation sensitivity is an indication of the company's orientation to the future and dynamism. This is a question of new technological and production-related strengths with which competitive products are brought to the market. Innovation includes renewal of technology and know-how and ideation of new production methods and products. Companies practice scientific and technical thinking without even realising it. Innovation is based on the company's immaterial capital, which is comprised of employees, specialists and the company's management. Innovations with a significant impact on the company's continuity may also arise from customer relationships and subcontracting networks. The company may acquire innovations through marketing studies, for example. The time span from innovation to production may be 5–7 years. Now is the time to prepare for the next crisis. Surprisingly, uncontrolled growth or unplanned expansion may also cause a crisis.

These measures are implemented to reach sustainability in a changing operating environment. Management, or rather the way of operating, that focuses on crisis man-

agement can be built as a collaborative effort of the company's own units and those of external units. Accounting and auditing are examples of external crisis management support units whose task is to recognise risks related to the financial situation and the first signals of a budding crisis. Investments power the company's development. With an investment strategy the company can alleviate a drop in investments caused by a crisis. An investment strategy and its realisation provide a sustainable way to prepare for the future. An investment strategy can be compiled at all economic levels: local, municipal, company network and the company itself (Zaharov et al. 2007, 182–183). Physical, financial and immaterial assets affect implementation of investment strategies. Naturally, a company in a crisis cannot consider long-term investments. Most important is to take care of acute liquidity problems. During a crisis it is difficult to obtain external funding, at least not at low cost, whereupon in investment activity the significance of the company's own assets grows. The deep recession in the 1990s taught, for example, that the staff should develop their own competence and readiness to be able to respond to the post-crisis demand for competence.

Those who independently began to study or develop their language skills were in a good position when the economic recovery picked up speed at the end of the 1990s. Likewise, during a crisis a company can (or is forced to) develop its own readiness. At the same time the company can consider alternative products which can be realised when the market situation and operating environment change. Sometimes help may come from a strategic investor, a so-called business angel, who buys a significant share of the company and thereby saves at least a part of its production and labour force. An extra share emission is a suitable method in an economic crisis. In a rapidly progressing situation the company's assets with no immediate significance to its core operations may be of help. Realisation of property (lots, unfinished buildings, etc.) may get the company past the worst phase. Sometimes it is necessary to discontinue unprofitable operation, at least for some time.

A company's crisis management programme requires profound analysis of its financial operation. This analysis should cover the company's goals and the criteria for achieving them, SWOT analysis, financial situation, framework of problems, innovation potential, operational priorities, development programme, resources and management. Innovation potential also means the company's competitive potential. The birth of innovations requires scientific and technical capacity. Innovation structures are of strategic significance to economic development. Innovations can be:

- 1) process innovations
- 2) product innovations and
- 3) allocation innovations.

With process innovations the company arranges its contacts with external organisations in a purposeful manner. Collaboration arrangements, contract activity and sub-

contractor relations belong in this category. Optimisation of material flows, general management (leadership) and technological production processes is also included in this class of process innovations. More profit is realised if delays and incompatibilities are eliminated. Process innovations are the most quickly affecting innovations. With product innovations the company can find new operating methods. The company can increase the information intensity of a product, invest in R&D and come up with better production methods. Product innovations can be new products and services or long-term-cycle products.

Allocation innovations mean reorganising the company, rearranging the management's responsibilities and changing the distribution of material and immaterial values. Allocation innovations are supporting innovations for the two above-mentioned main types of innovations. Allocations are strategic by nature and they usually include long-term measures. The best result is obtained by a company whose innovation activity is a continuing process. In such a company, process, product and allocation innovations are included in its basic strategies with which innovations are encouraged.

STAFF MEMBERS CAN BE CATEGORISED INTO THE FOLLOWING GROUPS WITH DIFFERENT TYPES OF POTENTIAL IN A CRISIS:

- 1) first-class specialists
- 2) employees with strong professional skills
- 3) strategically thinking staff members and ideators
- 4) administrative staff
- 5) persons with significant media and administrative relations outside the company
- 6) conflicting persons with a negative impact on the atmosphere
- 7) questioners
- 8) rank and file employees

Human resource management is part of a company's crisis prevention strategy. The interests of different segments of the staff are accommodated in the strategy and staff policy. Audits of the staff assess the structures and functionality of human resource management and the work of the staff itself. Staff development needs are assessed in these audits. Likewise, the quantitative and qualitative needs of the staff are evaluated from the viewpoint of the company's operation. The supplementary education needs of the staff are taken into account in the crisis management strategy's human resource policy. Development discussions with the staff prepare individuals for meeting possible crises. During a crisis, measures that affect the staff, such as temporary dismissals, notices of termination and transfers, are inevitable.

During a crisis it is the task of the company's management and superiors to make sure the company's core specialists are retained. The organisation also must be shaped according to new demands. Possible causes of friction and disputes in the work community need to be recognised. Otherwise an external crisis may also cause an internal crisis. The socio-psychological atmosphere and the company's we-spirit have a surprisingly large impact in the staff's motivation to work for the good of the company. Crisis leadership requires readiness on the part of the company's management that rarely can be tested in normal circumstances.

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APPENDICES

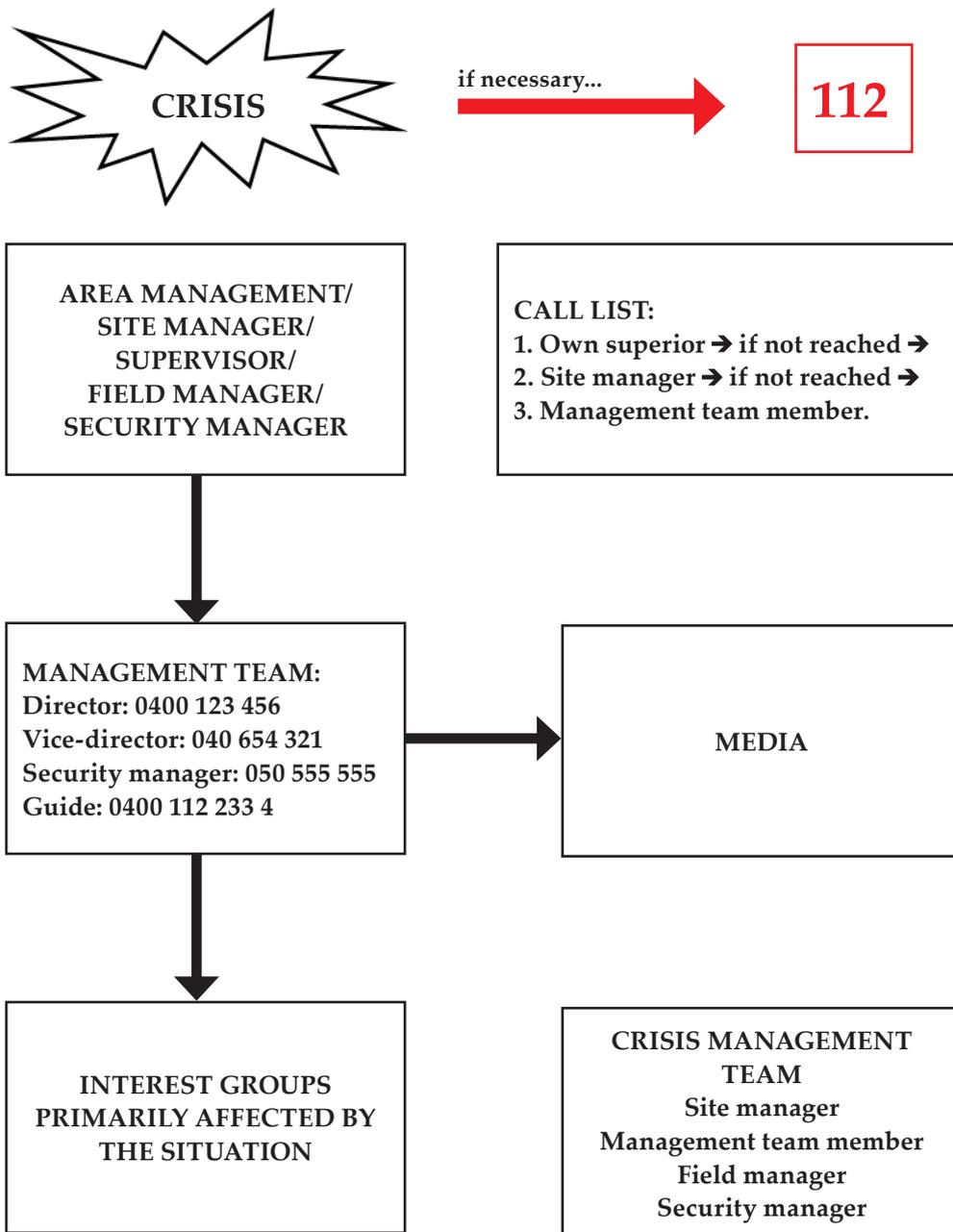
APPENDIX I: COMPANY'S CRISIS COMMUNICATION CARD

COMMUNICATION RESPONSIBILITY		
Observer informs his/her superior Name: GSM: Alternate: GSM:	Management responsibility Name: GSM: Alternate: GSM:	Communication responsibility Name: GSM: Alternate: GSM:
REMEMBER		
Write down what happened accurately	The authority managing operation is also in charge of communication	Prevent additional accidents
WHAT HAS HAPPENED?	WHO INFORMS OUTSIDE THE COMPANY?	WHO OUTSIDE THE COMPANY IS TO BE INFORMED? NAME AND CONTACT INFORMATION
Fire		
Accident indoors/outdoors		
Electrical blackout		
Attack of illness		
Water damage		
Evacuation situation		
Property crime		
Crime that threatens life/health		
Epidemic/water epidemic		
Customer lost		
Break in phone connection		
TASK	NAME AND CONTACT INFORMATION	ALTERNATE
Writes external bulletins		
Writes internal bulletins		
Informs company staff		
Informs neighbouring companies		
Informs principal supplier / subcontractors		
Responds to interview requests		
Informs tourism area's collaboration team		
Maintains web pages		
Responsible for availability of persons with language skills		

ORGANISATIONS THAT PROVIDE CRISIS HELP		
Victim support Finland	<p>LAPLAND REGIONAL OFFICE Regional manager Päivi Alanne-Kunnari, GSM 0400 979 175</p> <p>Rovaniemi Service Point Director Soile Saukkonen GSM 0400 979 026</p> <p>Ulrik Project Leader Leena Piippola GSM 0400 970 081, Maakuntakatu 29-31 B 3rd floor, 96200 Rovaniemi</p> <p>Kemi Service Point Contact person Satu Peurasaari tel. 040 572 3793 Kriisikeskus Turvapoiju, Etelärantakatu 6, 94100 Kemi</p> <p>Kemijärvi Service Point Contact person Päivi Säynäjäkangas GSM 040 748 3225</p> <p>Tunturilan Settlementti, Särkeläntie 4, 98120 Kemijärvi</p> <p>Ylä-Lappi Service Point Contact person Ristenrauna Magga GSM 0400 314 154</p> <p>Sámi Soster ry, Saarikoskentie 4, 99800 Inari</p>	<p>Victim support Finland (RIKU) offers support and advice for crime and accident victims and their families and witnesses of crimes. Customers are served by phone and face to face. The service is free of charge and confidential.</p> <p>A personal support person can be requested from the service points with whom it is possible to discuss about experiences and who can help in practical matters related to the crime process. If needed, the service point can also refer victims to other additional help. Victim support Finland has partners in 21 countries, ensuring that foreign victims can continue to receive mental first aid in their home country.</p>
Finnish Red Cross	<p>http://www.redcross.fi/apua-jatukea/</p>	<p>FRC's mental support can be one-time or continuous and is intended for people of all ages. Personal inquiries can be submitted to find family members lost in a war or natural accident.</p> <p>The family member's number and other information can be entered on FRC's web page in case of a serious incident such as a major fire.</p>

Crisis Centre	Lähteentie 5, 96400 Rovaniemi tel. 040 505 4802 24-hour emergency phone 040 553 7508 email: kriisikeskus@lapinensijaturvakoti.fi	The Crisis Centre is on call 24 hours, offering help for individuals, families and communities which have encountered an acute crisis in life, violence or death of a close person.
SOS Crisis Centre	Phone number 01019 5202 Phone answering hours Mon–Fri 9:00–06:00 Sat 15:00–06:00 Sun 15:00–22:00	The SOS Crisis Centre offer prompt crisis help. The main forms of crisis work are advice and instruction, information about crises, psychosocial support, group activity and suicide prevention. The basis of crisis help is the crisis or difficult situation in life experienced by the customer. The Centre can be contacted anonymously and without a referral.
SOS Crisis Centre crisis reception	Finnish customer service phone (09) 4135 0510 Open on weekdays 9:00–15:00 Crisis service for foreigners (09) 4135 0501 Open on weekdays 9:00–15:00	Crisis workers offer discussion help to support coping for individuals, couples and families. Support and help are also offered to immigrants in Finnish, Swedish, English and if necessary, in other languages through an interpreter. No referral is needed, contact by phone suffices. A customer can contact either the Finnish customer service phone or the English crisis service for foreigners.
Finnish Association for Mental Health	National crisis phone 0203 445 566	
Tukinet	www.tukinet.fi	
Church's national service phone	tel. 01019 0071 Sun–Thu 18:00–01:00 and Fri–Sat 18:00–03:00	

APPENDIX II: COMPANY CRISIS MANAGEMENT'S CHAIN OF COMMUNICATION (SOURCE: LAPLAND SAFARIS)



APPENDIX III: LAPLAND COUNTY ADMINISTRATIVE BOARD'S RESCUE DEPARTMENT'S DUTY OFFICER'S ACTIONS IN CONNECTION WITH A DOG SLEIGH ACCIDENT, 26.12.2005

Duty officer: Senior Rescue Inspector Seppo Lehto

Accident: Collision between a dog sleigh and a passenger train in Korpikylä, Tornio, 26.12.2005.

Emergency alert: An emergency alert concerning the incident arrived at the Lapland Emergency Response Centre 26.12.2005 at 18:38

Time	Event
about 19:00	Informed about the accident by the Lapland Emergency Response Centre upon request by Tornio P – 3.
19:03	Called Tornio P – 3, which requested help from the county administrative board.
19:04	Called rescue director Martti Soudunsaari and a decision was made to assemble at the Lapland Emergency Response Centre. Agreed on the distribution of work; Soudunsaari will contact Tornio's fire chief and the undersigned will contact the county duty officer of the police.
about 19:10	Called the Helsinki Emergency Response Centre; left the Ministry of the Interior's rescue department's duty officer a request to call.
about 19:13	Reported the incident to the county governor.
about 19:17	The Ministry of the Interior's rescue department's duty officer Tarmo Kopare called and was informed about the incident. Kopare said he would forward the information.
19:21	Called the Lapland Emergency Response Centre and asked them to convey a request to call to the county duty officer of the police.
about 19:40	Discussed with the county police administration's duty officer Markku Kynsilehto. Informed that the county administrative board's rescue department's duty officer and Lapland Rescue Service's rescue director are coming to the meeting at the Lapland Emergency Response Centre.
about 19:42	Reported the incident to the county's standby director.
about 19:45	Arrived at the Lapland Emergency Response Centre.
about 19:50	Called Luleå Alarm SOS. Asked them to convey a request to call to the Norrbotten administrative board's duty officer.
about 19:57	Situation meeting at the Lapland Emergency Response Centre: Seppo Lehto, Martti Soudunsaari, Jukka Alenius, shift manager.
20:05	Called the Helsinki Emergency Response Centre; left the Ministry of the Interior's rescue department's duty officer a request to call.
about 20:15	Arto Koivumaa called and it was agreed that he would inform the Norrbotten administrative board's duty officer and arrange crisis help from Sweden to the Haparanda city hotel.
about 20:39	Called the Ministry of Internal Affairs' duty officer Tarmo Kopare; asked him to contact the Italian embassy / Ministry for Foreign Affairs' duty officer.

about 20:45	Informed from Tornio that all the accident victims have arrived at the Haparanda city hotel.
about 20:55	Called Arto Koivumaa to report the need for translators.
21:01	The Norrbotten administrative board's duty officer called and offered help. I reported the situation and we agreed to keep in contact.
21:32	Called the Ministry of the Interior's duty officer Tarmo Kopare; verified that the Ministry for Foreign Affairs was notified. Kopare verified this.
20:30	Situation report to the county's standby director.
about 21:33	Agreed on a morning meeting at the Lapland administrative board's rescue department 27.12. at 07:30. To be attended by the police, the emergency response centre, rescue service, rescue department.
about 21:34	Meeting at the Lapland Emergency Response Centre ended.
about 21:35	Left the Lapland Emergency Response Centre.
21:43	Situation report to the county governor.
21:48	Situation report to the county's standby director.
21:54	
22:45	Arto Koivumaa called and informed about a press conference in Tornio and the Swedes' further measures.
23:03	Harri Paldanius called and informed about the press conference in Tornio and we agreed on further measures.
27.12.2005	
01:14	The Ministry for Foreign Affairs' duty officer Johansson called and inquired about what had happened, having been contacted by the Italian ambassador. I gave Harri Paldanius's phone number.
about 07:30	Meeting of authorities, Lapland administrative board / rescue department. Present: county's standby director Jari Aalto, rescue director Martti Soudunsaari, communication manager Jukka Alenius, county police senior inspector Markku Kynsilehto.
08:52	Called regional fire chief Arto Koivumaa in Kalix. The Swedes were at the Haparanda city hotel until 05:00 (Swedish time). The Italians left for home at 10:00 (Swedish time). The victim's parents and the interpreter stayed to take care of matters.
09:03	Called the Norrbotten administrative board's duty officer. We agreed that I would contact Charlotte Rouguet at the Norrbotten administrative board's rescue department.
09:09	Called the Norrbotten administrative board's rescue department. Charlotte Rouguet said they hadn't been able to contact the Italian embassy in Sweden. We agreed that we would try through the Italian embassy in Finland.
09:12-09:42	Meeting with the county governor and the county's standby director.
09:50	Called the Ministry for Foreign Affairs' duty officer. Conveyed the Swedes' request to contact them.
about 10:00	Situation report to the Ministry of the Interior's rescue department's duty officer.
10:17	Contacted Charlotte Rouguet. The Italian ambassador to Finland had called the Norrbotten administrative board. We agreed to keep in contact in the afternoon on 27.12.

"We have become a society of risks and partly also a society of crises in which various crisis reoccur regularly".

In tourism industry customers, partners and employees expect a company to have a high level of know-how in safety due the present situation related to new risks. At the business and organizational level, security is also an important matter of quality. The main emphasis in organizational safety and security management is on preventing undesired incidents. Safety and security management should also include prevention and management of possible crisis following the incident.

Crises are unavoidable in the tourism sector, which is susceptible to various abnormal situations. This book deals with the basic characteristics of crises, the various phases of an individual's experience of a crisis development of a company's readiness to deal with a crisis and planning of communication. This book is intended to support tourism safety and security management at the practical level in companies and in organisations belonging to a tourism safety and security network.

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