



MARCO VALERI

TOURISM RISK

CRISIS AND
RECOVERY
MANAGEMENT

Tourism Risk

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Tourism Risk: Crisis and Recovery Management

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Preface

The tourism industry is made up of a wide and unparalleled cluster of sectors having specific requirements related to the planning and recovery of tourism destination disasters (Bellini et al., 2017; Cheng and Zhang, 2020; Valeri and Baggio, 2020a; 2020b; 2021; Gössling et al., 2021).

Crises and adversities of tourism destinations have been examined by various authors from different angles, including recovery strategies and models for analyzing and developing tourism disaster management strategies (Gurtner, 2007; Prayag, 2018; Glyptou, 2021).

There are some other authors, instead, who have analyzed disasters in relation to human errors from the perspective of the organization response, or others who have studied the economic model related to the effect of government approach following a natural catastrophe (Chikudate, 2009; Rosselló et al., 2020).

However, none of them have shaped a model to collect, stock, disseminate and manage expertise and data either to plan and estimate crises management (as well as situation awareness) or to reduce possible future catastrophes (Albattat et al., 2020; Chemli et al., 2020; Dryhurst et al., 2020; Toanoglou et al., 2021).

Classifying crises and disasters in different categories is key in a knowledge management system because each category may require a different type of information, communication and response. We can find, for instance, a number of crises and disaster categories connected with political events (unrest, coups, ethnic turmoil, terrorist threats and attacks), natural disasters (earthquakes, volcanic eruptions, fires, floods, avalanches, tsunamis, hurricanes, tornados, oil spills, extreme weather conditions), epidemics (SARS, COVID-19, bird flu, foot and mouth), terrorism and war (Mistillis and Sheldon, 2006; Ma et al., 2020).

Tourism can also be influenced by monetary incidents such as stock market downfalls or extreme exchange rate variations. Each event has a different degree of weight or dimension that influences the size and quantity of information needed to manage it, e.g. the urgency and persistence of the disaster, the level of control, the extent of harm and loss, and finally the effects on the people and stakeholders involved (Baggio and Valeri, 2020; Santos et al., 2021a; 2021b).

Although it is fundamental to recognize that tourism is strictly connected with other sectors, it is undoubtedly crucial to admit that, from a disaster planning point of view, tourism industry is particularly exposed to danger, if compared to other industries.

Genesis of this Book

The book *Tourism risk: Crisis and recovery management* is the result of reflections involving research studies of different nationalities. This book aims to provide a comprehensive collection of papers including new insights for traditional paradigms, approaches and methods, as well as more recent developments in research methodology in the crisis management in tourism.

The book adopts a multidisciplinary approach from management to local development, from entrepreneurship to sociology, from innovation to sustainability, providing illustration examples about disaster and recovery management strategies. Its ultimate goal is to elaborate a historically informed, future-focused research agenda that accounts for the needs and concerns of policy makers and practitioners in the tourism field.

Structure of this Book

The book is structured in *two* parts. The first part focuses on *disaster management strategies*. This part collects chapters that analyze the potential and obstacles on preventing destruction from (natural) disasters through advocacy, prevention, knowledge management, better coordination, capacity building strategies and better preparedness through advanced emergency response in tourism. The second part focuses on *recovery management strategies*. This part consists of chapters focusing on one phase of the tasks which managers face after the immediate consequences of a crisis having been dealt with.

Chapters falling into this specific part of this book are as follows:

In Chapter 1 ‘Planning for Disaster and Emergency Preparedness in Hotels’ Albattat Ahmad analyzed the current level of planning, preparedness and readiness for disaster and emergency of the hotel industry in Jordan. He identified several critical factors and barriers in developing and operating effective disaster and emergency planning in this country. Results from this study showed that in the last few decades, the Jordanian hotel industry was severely affected by many devastating emergencies and disasters.

In Chapter 2 ‘Crisis Leadership: What Do We Know by Now?’, the authors Susanne Durst, Ezgi Dinler and Pia Ulvenblad review extant research on crisis leadership to establish the current body of knowledge and, on this basis, suggest some promising avenues for future research on crisis leadership in general and crisis leadership in tourism in particular. Results show that the tourism sector may take advantage of the established body of knowledge when dealing with the current COVID-19 pandemic and forthcoming crises.

In Chapter 3 ‘Tracing the Human Capital Educational Needs as a Tool to Address Crisis Management in Tourism: A Case Study of All-Inclusive Hotels in the Prefecture of Chania, Greece’, the authors Chariton G. Bompoulakis, Dimitrios A. Parpairis and Dimitrios G. Lagos enquire and trace the human capital educational and training needs, correlated to the tourism sector, as an approach to addressing crisis management in tourism. The results generated

provide valuable data related to the exploitation and development of tourism-based educational programs for employees as well as programs that contribute to the level of satisfaction of tourists in all-inclusive hotels. Thus, this research provides a realistic database for implementing human capital strategies, through educational and training tools, targeting to foster the tourist product during times of crisis and within the radical transformation that the pandemic has instigated.

In Chapter 4 'Natural and Man-Made Crisis Management in a Small Island Tourism Destination: The Case of Bali', the authors Putu Diah Sastri Pitanatri, I Gde Pitana and Marco Valeri examine Bali as an example of a successful case study for understanding tourism destination resilience in Indonesia. Therefore the authors developed the chapter into three main parts: (1) the crisis and recovery in the island of paradise session are to gain a better understanding of what happened on the island and how the Balinese are reacting to help the island's tourism sector recover, (2) the tree analogy and hexahelix in the tourism crisis management section are to show how the Balinese and related stakeholders are attempting to use local concepts to promote recovery on the island and (3) the lesson learnt is how tourism recovers and what sustainable redevelopment means to the Balinese. From the research, it can be concluded that Bali provides an excellent case study to understand the diverse roles of key actors in successful crisis recovery. Both positive and negative lessons should be reported and checked consistently as part of an iterative approach to strengthening catastrophe risk assessment and crisis management capabilities for any tourism destination, aside from the latest discourse of greater engagement and partnership.

Chapter 5 'An Overview of Crisis Management in Hospitality Enterprises: The Case of Operating at an International Level Hotel in Adiyaman' by Eda Rukiye Donbak, Gulsen Kirpik and Marco Valeri examine the administrative actions implemented or to be implemented by an international accommodation business operating in Adiyaman province regarding crisis management. In addition, the secondary aim of this study is to determine whether there is any administrative action plan developed by the manager regarding the risks arising from environmental, organizational and human resources. As a result of the research, it was determined that the hotel management has different plans and units according to the source of the crisis. It has been observed that there are ready units in terms of the standard crises that are encountered regularly. However, it has been determined that there are no predetermined units or teams for large-scale and rare crises such as the COVID-19 pandemic.

Chapter 6 'Crisis Management in Tourism: COVID-19 Pandemic in Greece', the authors Panoraia Poulaki, Ilias Stavrakakis, Dimitrios Tarazonas, Nikolaos Vasilakis and Marco Valeri present a crisis management plan in tourism and specifically of the COVID-19 pandemic in Greece, commonly accepted, which can contribute decisively to dealing with adverse effects. This strategic plan for crisis management in tourism during the COVID-19 pandemic is reflected in the present study. Specialists involved in crisis management have presented comprehensive national strategies to ensure timely, valid and clear advice and information.

In Chapter 7 'The Impact of River Tourism on the Development of the Demarcated Regions in Specific (Post-pandemic Crisis) Contexts: The Case of

Cruise Ships’, the authors Bruno Sousa, Laurentina Vareiro, Ana Rita Marques, Vasco Ribeiro Santos and Marco Valeri explore the impact of river tourism, particularly cruise ships, on the (post-pandemic crisis) development of the Alto Douro Wine Region. For this theme’s development, the authors chose to use a qualitative methodology, conducting four semi-structured interviews with participants directly or indirectly linked to the Douro River’s cruise ship industry.

In Chapter 8 ‘Data Breaches in the Hotel Sector According to General Data Protection Regulation (EU 2016/679)’ the author Anastasios Thomaidis examines the impacts of GDPR in the hotel sector. Specifically the author examines the crisis of data breach due to accidents, mistakes and deliberate actions during data collection of hotel’s customers. Furthermore the case of security breach by cyber hackers is analyzed. In this chapter Anastasios Thomaidis proposes actions to bolster data security and avoid the risk of breaches.

In Chapter 9 ‘The Influence of Tourists’ Visit Intention Attributes of Recovery Aspect on Destination Image in the Post-crisis’, the authors Albattat Ahmad, Nini Shaliza, Mohd Zuraimi and Azizul Jamaludin examined the mediated role of media influence between the aspects of relationship that affected the recovery of the economy following post-crises, supported by three aspects: restoration of confidence, performance of stakeholders and the response with media influenced as a mediator.

In Chapter 10 ‘Efficient Healthcare Policy and Engineering Management Facilities for Planning Sustainable Tourism Development in Post-COVID-19 Crisis Recovery’, the authors Tilemachos Koliopoulos and Marco Valeri present useful results that are focused on an efficient healthcare tourism policy and engineering management solutions so as to promote a sustainable tourism. These are outlined in terms of efficient sustainable construction design practices in terms of health – safety for tourists, proper qualitative facilities, protecting public health, supporting healthcare services and infrastructures within regional ecological, cultural, heritage, spiritual, gastronomic, river, sea and sports tourism. Useful results of this study highlight the importance of environmental public health–related perceived risks and impact of COVID-19 at tourism crisis.

In Chapter 11 ‘Tourism in Crisis: The Impact of Climate Change on the Tourism Industry’, the authors Dimitrios Belias, Ioannis Rossidis and Marco Valeri analyze the effects of climate change on the tourism industry and in particular the effects of climate change on tourist demand and how destinations can deal with the possible effects of climate change.

Chapter 12 ‘New Challenges in Tourism Management in the Face of the Global Climate Change Crisis’ by Małgorzata Kurleto focuses on the most serious problems facing tourism in times of global crisis caused by climate change. The analysis attempts to present the relationship between tourism management and the impact of climate change on tourism regions. The study focuses on risk management in tourism. The subject of this analysis is also the importance of an integrated plan for a crisis in a tourist destination and its recovery after a natural disaster. The conducted research showed a synergistic relationship between tourism and climate change which is based on the fact that tourism (especially mass tourism) contributes to climate change, causing an increase in natural

disasters (e.g. fires) negatively affecting the natural environment and its participants, including tourists.

Chapter 13 ‘Overtourism Effect Management in Destinations’ by Viktoriia Y. Redko, Nataliya O. Krasnikova, and Oleksandr P. Krupskiy analyzes the causes of the overtourism effect in urban, infrastructural and natural destinations, which at the same time degrades the quality of the tourist experience and the life quality of the local population. This study proposes tools to manage the economic, social and environmental risks associated with the oversaturation of tourist destinations.

Chapter 14 ‘The Missing Link between Dark Tourism and Tourism Management’ by María de-Miguel-Molina, Daniel Catalá-Pérez, Blanca de-Miguel-Molina and Virginia Santamarina-Campos focuses on whether the relationship between dark tourism and tourism management exists, especially when a disaster occurs, going beyond traditional short-term crisis-recovery approaches (repairing, reconstructing, assessing the damages and so on) and advocating for long-term and forward-looking solutions. The chapter addresses overlooked and neglected key factors that are deemed of the utmost relevance on understanding how sustainable dark tourism attractions are originated in the aftermath of a disaster.

Chapter 15 ‘Territorial Dynamics and Environmental Risks in the Costa Branca Coast, Northeastern Brazil’ by Wendson Dantas de Araújo Medeiros and Rosa Maria Rodrigues Lopes explores the recent territorial dynamics in the municipalities of Areia Branca, Grossos and Tibau, as a way to contribute to territorial planning actions at the Costa Branca Pole and to provide a model of tourism development resilient to crises arising from the performance of environmental risks.

In Chapter 16 ‘Tourism Behaviours as a Proactive Contribution to Social Balances of Destinations’, the authors António Sérgio Araújo de Almeida, João Paulo Jorge and Sarah Springwald explore some practices associated with the experience, perceptions and environmental awareness of tourists in situations of pressure and risk, at various levels, as promoters of sustainability and local identity values.

In Chapter 17 ‘Spiritual Tourism Transition: An Ethos of Hope during COVID-19 Crisis from Indian Perspectives’, the authors Suneel Kumar Shekhar, Marco Valeri and Geetanjali Sageena analyze the impact of COVID-19 in triggering the travel motives of spiritual tourists and its consequences for the transition in Indian tourism industry. As the pandemic embraced India, it generated several mental issues such as anxiety, depression and stress among the population. Surfacing through the restrictive COVID-19 regime invoked increased spirituality levels, further deepening their psychology to undertake spiritual tourism.

Chapter 18 ‘The Remote Effects of Terrorism on Tourists’ Notions of Risk and Safety’ by Christer Eldh and Malin Zillinger describes and analyzes tourists’ argumentations about risk and safety while travelling. Empirical results stem from international travelers who live in Sweden. Results show that terrorism is not understood as a major threat during travel. Another result shows that risk and safety are strongly interrelated. The travellers in this study are actually striving for some kinds of challenges. Travelling should not be boring. Actually, one can say that if people were not longing for otherness, the adventure and the search for the

unknown, tourism as such would historically not exist. The tricky question is how to balance within this equation of risk and safety, a place in the equilibrium that fits into minds of the individual travelers. Speaking of challenges, this is a challenge first and foremost for destination managers.

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Disaster Management Strategies

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Chapter 1

Planning for Disaster and Emergency Preparedness in Hotels

Albattat Ahmad

1. Introduction

The hospitality industry in Jordan has experienced a steady increase of disasters these past few decades (Rindrasih, Witte, Spit, & Zoomers, 2019) thus increasing the importance of disaster management (Kankanamge, Yigitcanlar, & Goonetilleke, 2020; Kumar, Valeri, & Shekhar, 2021; Santos, Ramos, Sousa, Almeida, & Valeri, 2021a; Santos, Sousa, Ramos, & Valeri, 2021b; Toanoglou, Chemli, & Valeri, 2021). Key players in the hospitality organizations have increased their efforts to look for viable solutions to address unexpected events (Rosselló, Becken, & Santana-Gallego, 2020) with the potential to threaten the operational survival of many organizations in the hospitality industry (Chemli, Toanoglou, & Valeri, 2020; Mitroff, 2004; Motta & Sharma, 2020). These unwelcomed events are potential threats for both the private and public sectors (Beirman, 2020; Prideaux, 2004; Ritchie, 2009). The most effective way to resolve disasters, according to Kash and Darling (1998), lies in evaluating the present level of disaster planning and preparedness in the hospitality industry and examining the relationship between disaster planning activities, disaster preparedness and organizational characteristics such as type, size and age (Ahmad, Jamaludin, Zuraimi, & Valeri, 2020; Hosie & Pforr, 2009; Severin, Lyons, & Weber, 2019; Valeri & Katsoni, 2021).

In the past few years, many devastating events have severely hurt the hospitality industry in Jordan (Yozcu & Cetin, 2019). The outcome to these events has triggered an increased awareness among both scholars and emergency managers on how to be better prepared for future emergencies in the hospitality industry (Cohen, 2008; Cheer & Lew, 2017). Gheyntanchi, Joseph, Gierlach, Kimpara, and Housley (2007) have identified major factors for the failure of dealing with disasters and emergencies. Many scholars suggested that emergency management could benefit the hospitality industry by preventing losses and reducing negative media publicity of key tourist destinations (Hystad & Keller, 2008; Rindrasih et al., 2019). Perry and Quarantelly (2004) defines a disaster as

...an extreme event with a natural, technological or social cause that has consequences in term of casualties, and disruptive events which threaten people, properties, and environment and which requires a coordinated and rapid response.

Emergency events come from both man-made and from natural disasters. Natural disasters are frequent in Jordan. These kinds of disasters, sometimes referred to as 'Acts of God' is caused by extreme weather conditions (Beirman, 2020; Rautela, 2020). Examples of natural disasters are typhoons, earthquakes, tsunamis and floods. Man-made disasters, sometimes called socio-technical disasters, can be categorized into four types: production failure, transport failure, technical disasters and stadia failure (Richardson, 1994; Yozcu & Cetin, 2019). From the year 2000 to the present, Jordan has been unfortunate to be plagued by both natural and man-made disasters. The recent political unrest experienced by countries in the Middle East has negatively affected Jordanian hotels and the tourism industry (Ali & Ali, 2011). Ever since the 2001 September 11 terrorist attack on American soil, not less than 18 high-profile terrorist attacks are connected to Jordanian hospitality organizations throughout the world, including two occurring in Jordan (Paraskevas & Arendell, 2007).

As an industry that operates all year round, the hospitality industry is one of the most vulnerable to disasters and emergencies. In the last few decades, a wide range of disasters and emergencies have hurt the hospitality industry globally. The Amman bombing of 2005, Arab Spring revolutions, the Iraqi War and severe snowfall are but a few disasters and emergencies that have besieged and negatively impacted hotels and related hospitality industry in the Middle East. The impact of disasters and emergencies can be mitigated and to some extent, be avoided and prevented through the practice of effective disaster and emergency planning and preparedness for disasters (Hall, Malinen, Vosslamber, & Wordsworth, 2016). The purpose of this study is to report on the current level of planning, preparedness and readiness for disaster and emergency of the hotel industry in Jordan and to identify factors and barriers of developing and operating effective disaster and emergency planning in this country. In-depth interviews were carried out involving 36 respondents employed in various hotels in Jordan. Qualitative research methodology based on snowball sampling was used to select the respondents. Results from this study show that in the last few decades the Jordanian hotel industry was hurt by many devastating emergencies and disasters. This study also revealed, quite surprisingly, that major players in the industry had partially or totally disregarded efforts for emergency and disaster management, planning and preparedness. This study further highlights that emergency planning for disasters has an instrumental role to play in effective disaster preparedness and management, and those hotels that were well prepared were successful in managing disasters and emergencies. However, the majority of the lower star rated hotels were never prepared for disasters and emergencies as they could not financially organize programmes to prepare and train their personnel and put in place disaster and emergency preparedness plans and programmes (Ritchie & Campiranon, 2014). It was also discovered that the majority

of the three- and four-star rated hotels were unprepared for future disasters and emergencies. The findings of this study also conclude that although emergencies brought about trauma and hardship to hotel guests and employees, at the same time these events displayed a re-engineered life cycle. Hotels in Jordan have developed high levels of flexibility to the new changes brought about by emergency incidents. Barriers to disasters and emergency planning and preparedness such as financial constraints, lack of management and government support and assistance, scarcity of qualified personnel, lack of information and awareness were identified. For hotels to be well-managed and adequately prepared for emergency, this study recommends that all stakeholders make efforts to remove all setbacks and barriers to the implementation of effective disaster and emergency management and planning. It also suggests that Jordanian hotel managers and stakeholders establish a comprehensive emergency planning and preparedness schedule and institute detailed collaborative management plans for emergency cases.

The purpose of this research is to identify the significant emergency events involving the hospitality industry in Jordan and to measure the level of preparedness of hotels for emergencies in the past. This chapter also explores how the hotels implement disaster management and how they overcome such emergencies given the limitations of these hotels. This field of study is largely unexplored in the context of Middle East in general and specifically involving Jordan hotels.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Emergency and Hospitality Industry

Jordan is located in the centre of the Middle East, Southwest Asia. Jordan is a modern country with a semi-arid climate and limited natural resources; many of its citizens are classified as low to middle income, and most of the population live in urban areas (Clemens et al., 2020). The United Nations Development Programme (2010) reported that Jordan is directly exposed to many potential threats that could threaten its social, economic and political stability including its hospitality industry. These threats can easily lead to different varieties of natural disasters such as extreme temperature, drought, flash floods, earthquakes, epidemics, windstorm and damages to crops due to locusts (Halkos & Zisiadou, 2019). Besides natural disasters, Jordan also face man-made disasters such as terrorist attacks, armed conflict, contamination from chemical, biological and radioactive leakages and mass population migrations (Al-dalahmeh, Aloudat, Al-Hujran, & Migdadi, 2014).

Operating hotels in Jordan naturally a high-risk business, employing staff and receiving guests from a wide variety of nations with multi- and cross-cultures, elevates the propensity for the occurrence of disasters and emergencies with the potential of causing unwanted damages (Cull, 2019; Low, Liu, & Sio, 2010). Many scholars highlight how terrorism directly influence the reputation and the perceived and actual instability of a country; in turn this will greatly influence the inflow of tourists and hamper the profitability of the national tourism industry (Paraskevas & Arendell, 2007). Ichinosawa (2006) and Johnston et al. (2007)

examined the impacts of natural disasters on tourism industry and argued that the occurrences of these natural disasters will deter local and foreign tourists to visit the country. This in turn will have a negative impact on local communities, hospitality stakeholders and the national economy as a whole (Farmaki, 2019). Many studies report on the impact of climate change, global warming and air and water pollution on the tourism industry (Seetanaah & Fauzel, 2019). Andrade and Costa (2020) pointed out that the negative repercussions of poor and over-development of cities, and globalization on communities and societies have greatly impacted the hospitality and tourism business.

One of the sectors most vulnerable to emergencies and disasters is the hospitality industry (Chandrasekera & Hebert, 2019). In recent years, the occurrence of emergencies are more frequent and multi-faceted than in the past (Coppola, 2010; Yadav et al., 2019), making the profitability of the hospitality and related industries increasingly unstable and vulnerable (Baggio & Valeri, 2020; Dimitropoulos, Vrontou, & Koronios, 2019; Pforr, 2006; Valeri, 2016; Valeri & Baggio, 2020a, 2020b, 2020c, 2021). It is imperative for hotels to be proactive and well prepared to defuse the impact of both natural and man-made emergencies so as to minimize physical, human and financial losses (Jones, 2019). Hotel guests are most concerned about their safety and security (Mare, Roesner, & Kohno, 2020). Rittichainuwat (2005) asserted that tourists tend to avoid holiday destinations that are hazardous and unsafe even if they are low-cost destinations. Hospitality organizations should work closely with mass media and government authorities to avoid misinformation and ambiguous information that can tarnish the image and reputation of the tourism and hospitality industry in the eyes of both the local and foreign tourists (Mansfeld, 2006; Mason et al., 2019); the mismanagement of information presented to the public can be regarded as an example of a man-made disaster.

2.2 Disasters and Emergency Management

The world has witnessed a significant increase in the frequency, scope, complexity and volatility of disasters and emergencies in the past few decades (Berger, Molyneux, & Wilson, 2019). Parker (1992) defines disasters as unusual events resulting in damage, loss and injury. Devastating events have taxed the resources and resilience of many organizations to invest in necessary recovery efforts to return back to normal situation (Barraqué & Moatty, 2020; Coppola, 2010). Helsloot and Ruitenbergh (2004) explained that the difference between emergency planning and preparedness lies in how these are put in practice and implemented. Planning should provide the framework for setting the standard for preparedness (Aruru, Truong, & Clark, 2020). David Alexander (2002) defines emergency planning as a co-ordinated set of protocols for dealing with disastrous event. While each emergency is unique, identifying similar characteristics and patterns between them will help improve forecasting and planning for them. Therefore, it is better to increase proactive efforts to designing and implementing a hospitality emergency management than to be caught

unprepared, to fire fight and recover from emergencies (Alexander, 2005; Canton, 2019; Imperiale & Vanclay, 2019).

Emergency management can be challenging to any business, more so for the hospitality industry where tourists have to cope with traumatic experiences while in a foreign country (Copeland, 2020; Stahura, Henthorne, George, & Soraghan, 2012). Researchers have proposed that those responsible for managing emergency situations should identify and adopt the most suitable comprehensive model to manage emergency events from systems for detecting early warning signals to recovery protocols (Merz et al., 2020). Quarantelli (1970) reported in his continued research of emergency management that planning is not managing disasters, and past disasters should not be a reference for planning for future disasters. Drabek (1995) proposed that disaster preparedness levels and evacuation planning of tourist businesses be measured by criteria such as established action plans, official appointments of individuals responsible and establishment of communication protocols.

Quality emergency planning can be achieved if it is periodically audited, monitored, evaluated and continuously improved to adapt to changing physical and social conditions (Taarup-Esbensen, 2020). Firstly, emergency management is not yet a widely recognized and accepted profession (Crews, 2001), and not surprisingly it lacks established, standardized well-grounded training and specialized knowledge to educate emergency planners. Secondly, the lack of emergency planning is reflected in the mismatch between procedures and availability of resources to handle extreme level emergency events. Thirdly, the development of emergency planning should be a continuous, organic, dynamic and adaptive process; if planning is rigid, it will become quickly outdated and obsolete to meet new and mutations of existing emergencies (Perry & Lindell, 2003). Paton (2003) however argued that emergency planning should not be a continuous process, but regarded as an ended one itself. Alexander (2005) defends this statement by arguing that emergency planning should be dynamically processed to assure functionality. Hotels should develop emergency plans by collaborating with local authorities to synchronize and compliment the hotels' internal plans with those implemented by organizations within the social, political and economic ecosystem (Stahura et al., 2012). Fourthly, hotels should avoid informal planning which often are characterized by unclear procedures and unclear appointment of individuals to shoulder important responsibilities (Davronov, Khalimova, & Uzbekistan, 2019; Dynes, 1998). Finally, emergency plans should complement and be in line with existing laws and regulations. Academicians have suggested that emergency planning should extend beyond organizational boundaries (Perry & Lindell, 2003; Tafoya, 2020). It is essential that well-designed emergency plans be a collaborative inter-organizational initiative since disasters usually affect entire cities and even countries (Jayasinghe, Kenney, Prasanna, & Velasquez, 2020). Complex decisions, teamwork, extraordinary human sacrifices and many resources should be invested into emergency recovery initiatives starting from the post-emergency period to the restoration of the trend line emergency recovery.

2.3 Strategies and Organizational Actions

When facing a disaster, having a flat organizational structure is advantageous as security teams can quickly discharge of their responsibilities to protect the interest of the hotels, be it prior, during and post emergency stage (Burritt, 2002; Dunning, 2020). Scholars have proposed an assortment of models and preventive measures that hotels can adopt to reduce the negative impact of disasters and emergencies (Cosgrove, 2020). Evans and Elphick (2005) proposed the 'Copra' and 'Python' typologies when dealing with emergencies. The Copra typology is suitable when faced with unexpected emergency events such as the September 11th terrorist attacks that required a defensive response (Farrell, 2019). The Python typology, on the other hand, with its multi-level emergency preparedness plan, is more suited for repeated disasters better suited to reduce negative repercussions of complex disasters (Lech et al., 2020).

Addressing disaster management models, Fink (1986) suggested that emergency management should be initiated before the disasters happen and as a preventive measure to avert potential loss to the hotel industry. Management of emergencies can be viewed in four phases: prodromal, acute, chronic and resolution. Fink is of the opinion that it is hard to detect early warning signals of repeated disasters. By the time the prodromal stage progresses to the acute stage, hotels have already incurred physical damage and financial losses. Depending on their propensity to be prepared and their competency of handling disasters, hotels could experience a varied degree of losses. By comparison, the chronic stage offers the opportunity to learn from the experience, and take steps to improve the existing emergency response plan, and salvage whatever is possible from the damage caused by the disaster. Roberts (1994) proposed a four-stage disaster management plan: pre-event stage, emergency stage, intermediate stage and long-term stage. During the pre-event stage, steps for preparedness are put in place designed to soften the negative impact of potential disasters. The emergency stage begins when a disaster occurs, and disaster management is initiated to protect physical properties and ensure staff and guests are safe. The intermediate stage is when hotels implement short to medium-term plans by restoring critical services without any delay. Lastly, the long-term stage involves long-term strategies of repairing infrastructure, and as a result of postmortem review of the disaster, planning efforts are made to better prepare for the next emergency.

When dealing with emergencies, the study by (Pforr & Hosie, 2008) regards the Faulkner Disaster Management Framework among the most successful frameworks when dealing with disaster management. Similar to Faulkner (2001), Roberts (1994) has six phases to his disaster management model: pre-event, prodromal, emergency, intermediate, long-term and resolution. In the pre-event phase, hotels have sufficient time to react to emergencies. When the prodromal phase is reached, it is no longer possible to avoid the disaster. The only option is to initiate emergency plans. When in the emergency phase, the focus is on saving lives and properties. In the intermediate phase, resources are concentrated on providing medical treatment, freeing those who are trapped and evacuating the injured to safety. In the long-term phase, based on the emergency experience,