

Azizul Hassan
Anukrati Sharma
James Kennell
Priyakrushna Mohanty *Editors*

Tourism and Hospitality in Asia: Crisis, Resilience and Recovery

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Editors

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 Springer

Editors

Azizul Hassan
Tourism Consultants Network
The Tourism Society
London, UK

Anukrati Sharma
Department of Commerce and Management
University of Kota
Kota, Rajasthan, India

James Kennell
School of Hospitality and Tourism
Management
University of Surrey
Guildford, UK

Priyakrushna Mohanty
Department of Business Administration
Christ (Deemed to be University)
Bengaluru, Karnataka, India

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Introduction

Due to its tourist-friendly regulations, favorable exchange rates, and the availability of low-cost carrier routes, tourism and hospitality in Asia have become one of the fastest expanding industries in the region. However, with the arrival of the year 2020, the sector was thrown into turmoil as a result of a never-before-seen global health disaster (the COVID-19 pandemic); and tourism and hospitality in Asia and the ASEAN area, in particular, have been severely impacted. The effects of the extraordinary COVID-19 pandemic on the tourism and hospitality industry are unprecedented and rapidly evolving. Unsurprisingly, Asia's tourism and hospitality have been the hardest hit of all the world's regions. Many academics see this period as an opportunity to give the sector a new direction, by examining the whole tourist system and working toward a more sustainable future. There have also been suggestions to make the tourist system more robust to external shocks such as the pandemic. Thus, this book contemplates these themes (i.e., the crisis context, resilience and recovery in the post-COVID-19 period, and the future ahead) as perspectives on effectively dealing with a crisis like COVID-19, eventually contributing to the tourism and hospitality industry and making it more robust.

The book has three main goals: to understand the effects of the COVID-19 crisis on the tourism and hospitality industry; to explain the various approaches to effectively managing crises in tourism and hospitality; and to examine strategies to make the tourism and hospitality industry more sustainable. As a result, this book is divided into three sections, comprising 21 chapters. Each section has been meticulously crafted with rigorous contributions from a wide range of contributors on the issues that need to be addressed in the endeavor to define ethics and obligations in the post-COVID-19 period. The following are brief explanations of each chapter's purpose:

The first chapter is contributed by Ahmed, Sadaa, Alshamry, Alharbi, Alnoor, and Kareem and synthesizes crisis, resilience, and recovery in tourism and hospitality. This chapter attempts to give a detailed examination of the impact of crises on tourism and hospitality recovery in order to highlight the most critical obstacles and concerns that contribute to low performance.

The second chapter by Varghese and Chennattuserry discusses community resilience and crisis management from tourism stakeholders' perspectives. This chapter looks at a variety of factors that affect the tourist business, including negative effects such as the economic crisis and the loss of brand image in the post-crisis period.

The third chapter is contributed by Ray and analyzes a paradigm shift in corporate social responsibility for tourism in the post-COVID-19 pandemic period. This chapter aims to investigate diachronic developments and highlight potential future paradigm adjustments in tourism CSR in response to the COVID-19 pandemic's impact.

In the fourth chapter, Kumar and Reddy discuss the effects of COVID-19 on consumer behavior in the tourism industry. This chapter looks at the impact of COVID-19 on the tourist sector, as well as the issues of short- and long-term crises, customer behavior, and attitudes, and how to run a quality business in the tourism industry. The study was conducted to investigate the impact of consumer behavior on the pandemic COVID-19 outbreak and the shift in consumer attitudes toward considerable heterogeneity in the Andhra Pradesh tourist industry. As a result, the findings stress marketing decisions, legislative interventions, and instilling appropriate consumer behavior in the tourist industry to sustain economic growth.

In the fifth chapter, Shahriar outlines pandemic crisis and prospects of tourism along the BCIM economic corridor. In general, this chapter strives to answer two questions: What are the major tourist issues in nations along the BCIM-EC? and What are the tourist prospects and tactics for managing the BCIM regional crisis, as well as measures to help the tourism industry recover from COVID-19's effects? This chapter attempts to investigate the BCIM-EC tourism's difficulties, opportunities, and concerns.

In the sixth chapter, Meo, Ali, Saif ul Islam, Qammar, Cheema, and Karim explain the techno and social-economic crisis perspective of impact of COVID-19 pandemic on the tourism and hospitality industry of Pakistan.

The seventh chapter by Dar and Kashyap analyzes the the current scenario, planning and reviving approaches of the Indian medical tourism sector in the COVID-19 period. This research offers some critical planning ideas for the revival and growth of medical tourism in India.

The eighth chapter by Mohanty, Singh, Hussain, and Gavinolla summarizes that due to government-mandated public health precautions, restaurants and dine-in establishments have had to bear the burden of losing customers during the current COVID-19 outbreak. The restaurant industry needed an overhaul right now since the pandemic's interruptions had driven many to the brink of collapse or poor financial condition. Nonetheless, the restaurant business has benefited from an increase in technology improvements as a lender of last resort. The primary disruptions created by the pandemic in the in-person eating sector are discussed in this chapter.

In the ninth chapter, Mufeeth and Kaldeen deliberate the impact of COVID-19 outbreak on smallholder producers of farming products supply to tourism business in Sri Lanka.

In the tenth chapter, Chowdhury, Roy, and Saha consider the performance of the Bangladesh Parjatan Corporation in the area of pandemic, tourism, and economic crisis. Tourism, like other industries throughout the world, has seen drastic changes as a result of the pandemic scenario. In this light, this chapter investigates the economic performance of a Bangladeshi state-owned firm, the Bangladesh Parjatan Corporation (BPC). In Bangladesh's national tourist industry, the BPC serves as a regulatory authority. This chapter is a case-oriented qualitative research chapter that deals with qualitative analysis of quantitative data based on secondary data collected from website data analysis, the BPC's annual report, document review, and other sources.

In the eleventh chapter, Uddin, Jilani, and Johara critically explain whether tourism and hospitality workplace fun can influence employee deep acting in a moderated situation. With the aid of psychological capital as both a direct and a moderating effect, this study investigates the impact of workplace fun on workers' deep acting. The research is quantitative in nature, and the hypothesized links were investigated using a deductive reasoning technique. The study used snowball sampling to acquire data from personnel in the tourist and hospitality industries who had access to the internet and social media.

In the twelfth chapter, Khoshkam and Rahimi elaborate the COVID-19 effects, challenges, and recovery of rural tourism in Iran. A comprehensive analysis of existing literature was conducted using the perspectives of rural tourists to estimate the consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic on rural regions and its repercussions on nomadic tribes in Iran.

In the thirteenth chapter, Bayram, Sak and Eren discuss the role of tourist guides in the destination recovery process through cultural tourism product development in post-COVID-19 period. The goal of this study was to investigate the function of tourist guides in the destination recovery process through cultural tourism product creation during the COVID-19 pandemic. The research is critical in highlighting the importance of tourist guides in cultural tourism.

In the fourteenth chapter, Roy and Jain question if place branding content can be viral in pre- and post-pandemic situations through Instagram. A user's experience is influenced by place branding through viral content. Similarly, in the post-pandemic age, Instagram has gained a wider acceptability among target consumers from various geolocations. However, there is a gap in understanding how place-branding material may become popular on Instagram in both pre- and post-pandemic settings. As a result, this book chapter explores how Instagram might be used to aid with pre- and post-pandemic branding.

In the fifteenth chapter, Anasori and Küçükergin describe the effects of COVID-19 and the recovery process on the Turkish tourism industry. This study examines the emergence and spread of the coronavirus pandemic in Turkey, as well as its economic and societal consequences. This chapter, which is based on face-to-face interviews, examines the steps taken by the Turkish government throughout the crisis.

In the sixteenth chapter, Kunjuraman and Matthew identify recovery measures for transformation to mitigate the impacts of COVID-19 on Malaysia's hospitality and tourism industry. This chapter discusses the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on the Malaysian tourist sector, as well as possible strategies to assist it to recover. This study looked at how the pandemic affected Malaysia's aviation industry, hotel industry, hotel workers, and small and medium companies. Furthermore, considering the passing of the pandemic crisis, this chapter offers authorities and tourist experts advice for limiting the cascading impacts of the pandemic on the tourism sector.

In the seventeenth chapter, Türksoy analyzes the short- and long-term recovery of tourism as a way out of COVID-19 crisis in Turkey, using desk research, literature, and secondary data analysis.

The eighteenth chapter by Saputra and Pitnatri discusses digital acceptance and resilience in rural tourism destinations in Bali. The worldwide view of tourist resilience has shifted as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. Everything is evolving, including Bali's rural tourism destinations. The formerly conventional management style has changed into something more modern and digital; before the pandemic, it was much different. Through a detailed assessment of 20 communities in Bali, this chapter emphasizes the digital acceptability and resilience of post-pandemic locations.

In the nineteenth chapter, Oğuz estimates what type of change the COVID-19 pandemic, which we are currently experiencing, will bring about in the future. Changes that may occur in the tourist and hospitality business as a result of COVID-19 are examined in detail in the report, with examples from both the overall industry and individual sub-sectors.

The twentieth and final chapter by Hossain, Bhatia, and Akhter presents a systematic literature review and future research directions of tourism and hospitality in crisis. This chapter discusses the systematic review of the literature on crisis management in the tourism and hospitality industry. Following that, the research looked into how the tourism and hospitality industries dealt with the COVID-19 pandemic crisis.

The contents of this book extensively explore tourism and hospitality in the context of the Asian post-COVID-19 environment. The book investigates the backdrop to the crisis in Asian tourism and hospitality, presents selected cross-country instances in Asia, and envisions ways to strengthen the Asian tourist system by discussing new trends and concerns that have emerged as a result of the pandemic. In addition, the book's topics cover tourist economics, marketing management, hospitality management, food and beverage, tourism technology, and other aspects of the Asian tourism and hospitality industries. This book thus gives readers an

understanding of the economic, social, technical, and environmental effects of crises on Asian tourism and hospitality.

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Priyakrushna Mohanty

Contents

Part I The Crisis Context

| | |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Crisis, Resilience and Recovery in Tourism and Hospitality: A Synopsis | 3 |
| Mohammed Ghanim Ahmed, Abdullah Mohammed Sadaa, Hamad Mathel Alshamry, Mualla Ali Alharbi, Alhamzah Alnoor, and Alyaa Abdulhussein Kareem | |
| Community Resilience and Crisis Management: Stakeholders Perspective of the Tourism Industry | 21 |
| Bindi Varghese and Joseph Chacko Chennattuserry | |
| Corporate Social Responsibility in Tourism in COVID-19 Pandemic: A Paradigm Shift | 35 |
| Samik Ray | |
| Effects of COVID-19 on Consumer Behavior in the Tourism Industry | 49 |
| K. N. Lokesh Kumar and G. K. Jaya Bharath Reddy | |
| Pandemic Crisis and Prospects of Tourism Along the BCIM Economic Corridor | 63 |
| Saleh Shahriar | |
| Impact of COVID-19 Pandemic on the Tourism and Hospitality Industry of Pakistan: An Insight from Techno and Social-Economics Crisis Perspective | 75 |
| Muhammad Saeed Meo, Shahzad Ali, Muhammad Saif Ul Islam, Rabia Qammar, Shahan Mehmood Cheema, and Mohd Zaini Abd Karim | |
| Indian Medical Tourism: COVID-19 Situation, Planning and Reviving Approaches | 97 |
| Hafizullah Dar and Kirti Kashyap | |

| | |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| Disrupted Diners: Impacts of COVID-19 on Restaurant Service Systems and Technological Adaptations | 113 |
| Priyakrushna Mohanty, Anubha Mahender Singh, Sarah Hussain, and Mahender Reddy Gavinolla | |
| Impact of COVID-19 Outbreak on Smallholder Producers of Farming Products Supply to Tourism Business in Sri Lanka | 125 |
| Musthapha Mufeeth and Mubarak Kaldeen | |
| Part II Resilience and Recovery in the Post COVID-19 Period | |
| Pandemic, Tourism and Economic Crisis: An Analysis of Performance of the Bangladesh Parjatan Corporation | 143 |
| Shuvra Chowdhury, Sajib Kumar Roy, and Dabjani Saha | |
| Does Tourism and Hospitality Workplace Fun Influence Employee Deep Acting in a Moderated Situation? | 165 |
| Md Aftab Uddin, Munshi Muhammad Abdul Kader Jilani, and Fatema Johara | |
| COVID-19 Effects, Challenges and Recovery of Rural Tourism in Iran. | 179 |
| Mana Khoshkam and Roya Rahimi | |
| Role of Tourist Guides in Destination Recovery Process through Cultural Tourism Product Development in Post COVID-19 Period | 201 |
| Gül Erkol Bayram, Melike Sak, and Aslı Sultan Eren | |
| How to Make Place Branding Content Viral in Pre and Post-Pandemic Situations Through Instagram? | 217 |
| Gourav Roy and Varsha Jain | |
| Effects of COVID-19 and Recovery Process in the Turkish Tourism Industry | 235 |
| Elham Anasori and Kemal Gürkan Küçükergin | |
| The Impact of COVID-19 on Malaysia’s Hospitality and Tourism Industry: Any Recovery Measures for Transformation? ... | 247 |
| Velan Kunjuraman and Nitanan Koshy Matthew | |
| Short and Long Term Recovery of Tourism as a Way Out of COVID-19 Crisis: The Case of Turkey | 259 |
| Selcen Seda Türksoy | |
| Digital Acceptance and Resilience in Rural Tourism Destination: A Case of Bali | 275 |
| I Gede Gian Saputra and Putu Diah Sastri Pitanatri | |

Part III The Future Ahead

**The Future of Post-Pandemic Tourism and Hospitality Industry:
A Comprehensive Assessment** 299
Hande Uyar Oğuz

**Rerouting Tourism and Hospitality in Crisis: A Systematic
Literature Review and Future Research Directions** 309
Mohammad Rokibul Hossain, Arun Bhatia, and Fahmida Akhter

Conclusion 337
Azizul Hassan, Anukrati Sharma, James Kennell,
and Priyakrushna Mohanty

Index 345

Part I
The Crisis Context

Crisis, Resilience and Recovery in Tourism and Hospitality: A Synopsis



Mohammed Ghanim Ahmed, Abdullah Mohammed Sadaa, Hamad Mathel Alshamry, Mualla Ali Alharbi, Alhamzah Alnoor, and Alyaa Abdulhussein Kareem

Abstract The crises have greatly affected the tourism and hospitality industry. Hence, COVID-19 pandemic has significantly affected the tourism and hospitality. To provide insight and highlights the effect of crisis and resilience on recovery in tourism and hospitality this chapter aims to provide deep analysis of the impact of crises on tourism and hospitality to highlight the most important challenges and issues that lead to low performance. Moreover, practitioners and academics can benefit from the comprehensive analysis of this chapter to recover from crises that disrupt the work of tourism and hospitality services.

Keywords Crisis · Resilience · Tourism · Hospitality

Introduction

Tourism and hospitality are critical economic drivers in many towns, regions, and nations. Tourism and leisure have an important role in economic activity and customer satisfaction. It has an important and undeniably beneficial influence in the socioeconomic and political growth of destination nations, for example, by creating new employment opportunities. In some cases, it can also contribute to broader culture and understanding by creating awareness of and respect for the diversity of cultures and lifestyles (Ma et al., 2020). In recent years, tourism has emerged as one of the most important economic sectors to job creation and socio-economic and

M. G. Ahmed · A. M. Sadaa · H. M. Alshamry · M. A. Alharbi
Graduate School of Business, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia

A. Alnoor (✉)
School of Management, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia

Management Technical College, Southern Technical University, Basrah, Iraq
e-mail: alhamzah.malik@stu.edu.iq; alhamzah.alnoor@student.usm.my

A. A. Kareem
School of Industrial Technology, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia

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cultural development worldwide. Moreover, when it comes to socio-economic growth in Western civilization, tourism is often seen as a critical factor. It is a viable alternative approach for long-term economic sustainability and diversification in key areas, sound government policies (McCabe & Qiao, 2020; Alnoor et al., 2020).

On the other hand, tourism development as an important economic sector has gradually focused in most countries. In recent decades, there has been a significant rise in worldwide attention paid to tourism as an important financial industry. Due to the fact that it has the potential to boost income development quickly, produce foreign currency, and contribute to the government's domestic revenue via fees and taxes (Kapiki, 2011). In addition, unlike other businesses, hospitality and tourism have a symbiotic relationship with the community and are an essential component of the local and regional economies. Referring to World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC), it is estimated that in 2019, travel and tourism accounted for 10.3% of global GDP and 1 in 10 jobs (330 million) globally (WTTC, 2020; Alnoor, 2020).

The tourism sector is increasingly facing challenges arising from incidents involving risks to tourists and hospitality businesses. In addition to this, there are a wide range of issues ranging from political unrest to terrorist attacks to natural catastrophe to health-related events such as illnesses, epidemic and worldwide pandemics. As a result of these problems, the hospitality and tourist sector as a whole suffer, as do whole areas, states, and nations. This is because disruptions jeopardize the ability of the tourism sector to operate normally, because transportation and other infrastructure and facilities have been damaged or because the destination is perceived to be dangerous (COMCEC, 2017; Al-Abrow et al., 2021a, b).

Crisis

There is no one agreed-upon definition of a crisis, therefore various writers have come up with their own. Nonetheless, three factors appear to be required: a triggering event that produces or has the capacity to bring about substantial change; the belief that the organization will be unable to handle such changes; and the threat to the organization's survival (Keown-McMullan, 1997; Al-Abrow et al., 2019). He defined a crisis as a situation in which the controlling party discovers that it can no longer manage and threatens the crisis-affected organization. However, Cambridge Online Dictionary (2014) described it as a tumultuous epoch, uncertainty, or suffering. Bagans and Tapola (2015) describe it as "an unstable era, especially a time of severe difficulty or risk in politics, economics, or other fields", or "a critical stage or turning point in the development of something, particularly a sequence of events or illness". The term "crisis" comes from the Greek word "crisis", which translates as "turning point" or "decision". The crisis, according to Santana (2004), is something that disrupts the regular cycle.

A crisis, according to Laws and Prideaux (2006), is an occurrence or phenomenon that, regardless of its scale, disrupts the normal process of the crisis's inception. The keyword in all of these definitions appears to be "changing". According to

Coombs (2019), a crisis is an unforeseen occurrence that jeopardizes important stakeholder expectations in the areas of health, safety, the environment, and the economy. It can have a significant impact on an organization's performance and create negative feedback. On the other hand, the element of negativity is conspicuously absent from virtually all of these formulations. As a result, we'd want to define a crisis as an unfortunate occurrence or phenomenon that produces changes in political, social, economic, or military situations, particularly one that is about to occur. A disaster, described as "an occurrence that causes considerable and generally abrupt destruction or suffering", is not much different (Oxford Dictionaries, 2015). Although an emergency and a crisis are sometimes used interchangeably, there is a distinction between the two phrases. In most cases, an emergency is less difficult and simpler to manage, and it affects fewer individuals (Henderson, 2007).

Most crises are unanticipated, and many cannot be prevented, according to Faulkner and Vikulov (2001), which means that no location is immune to them. As a result, concerned parties and scholars must grasp an emergency's probable nature, expected evolution, and scale. Furthermore, the length of a crisis might vary considerably. Some, like an earthquake, might happen suddenly and unexpectedly, while others take a long time to develop. In both situations, the consequences can be long-term. It might take several years to restore infrastructure after a natural disaster. On the other hand, physical infrastructure may survive political and social upheaval relatively unscathed, while companies and business networks' "soft" infrastructure might take a long time to recover operation that is essential.

Resilience and Recovery

According to Holling (1973), resilience is a term that refers to a system's capacity to withstand change and disruption. Later, Pimm (1984) stated that the term "resilience" refers to the rate at which an ecosystem returns to equilibrium after a severe shock. Numerous academics, however, argued that such an interpretation would fail to properly account for the ecological complexity of such shocks' unanticipated consequences (Davidson, 2010). Ecological resilience interpretations have developed throughout time to include additional elements of ecosystem dynamics, such as adaptive cycles (Davidson, 2010). The four vital ecological functions of exploitation, conservation, release, and reorganization were finally defined and connected to these adaptive cycles. According to the prevailing viewpoint, overall resilience improves or diminishes as ecosystems progress through each of these roles (see Sheppard & Williams, 2016; Jabbar et al., 2020; Al-Abrow et al., 2021a, b). Broader interpretations of resilience have evolved in several situations based on these environmentally oriented approaches. System resilience is described as a system's ability to change, rebuild, and maintain its identity in a broader sense when a disruption occurs (Resilience Alliance, 2012).

Furthermore, Kantsler and Steinberg (2005) defined resilience as people's, organization's, and communities' capacity to absorb disturbance and reorganize while

keeping essentially the same function, structure, identity, and feedbacks while altering in ways that preserve effectively the same function, structure, identity, and feedbacks. On the other hand, resilience theory refers to the ability to recover or adapt rapidly in the face of adversity or change (Herrman et al., 2011). Furthermore, resilience refers to a system's capacity to endure shocks and alter its state in order to address a problem; it also refers to how a system anticipates future shocks (Gong et al., 2020).

Different disciplines, on the other hand, employ the notion of resilience to explore various diseases; Because of this, resilience is a fluid notion with "fuzzy" boundaries (Wardekker et al., 2020; Krishnan et al., 2021; Alnoor et al., 2021). Meerow et al. (2016) recognize the ability of a system and all of its socio-ecological and socio-technical networks to ability to sustain or quickly restore intended functionality in the face of interruption, adaptation to change, and transformation of existing systems operations across temporal and spatial scales is defined as resilience. This flexible definition, they claim, permits "various views and emphases to be preserved and developed". They recognize that the notion tackles six key "conceptual conflicts", the first of which is the question of what defines a city. The second distinction is between equilibrium in one state (the ability to return to a previous equilibrium after a disturbance), equilibrium in many forms (after an annoyance, shifting from one stable region to another), and dynamic non-equilibrium. Grinberger and Felsenstein (2014) discuss similar tensions in aftershocks terms "bouncing back" (to a previous stable equilibrium) or "bouncing ahead" (i.e., distinct potential new paths).

A third point of contention is whether resilience is a beneficial term when it comes to returning to a pre-disturbance condition. The fourth conceptual conflict concerns the various paths to a resilient state: persistence (i.e., resisting disruption to retain the status quo), transition (i.e., progressively adjusting while maintaining system function), and transformation (i.e., radical change while maintaining system function) (where resilience efforts aim to change an undesirable system purposefully). The sixth conceptual tension contrasts particular adaptation to recognized dangers with broader adaptive capability. A last The abstract pressure is temporality, and there seems to be agreement on the need of quick recovery following a disruption. However, depending on whether the focus is on fast occurring disasters or more gradual causes, this may be context dependent (Meerow et al., 2016). Leitner et al. (2018) differentiate between "chronic stressors", which gradually damage a system (e.g., climate change) and "acute shocks", which strike abruptly (e.g., COVID-19).

While there are several definitions of resilience, the three most common types are:

1. ecological resilience, which looks at how ecological systems respond to shocks.
2. Social-ecological system resilience, which looks at how social-ecological systems respond to shocks and is founded on the notion that social and ecological systems are inextricably linked.
3. resistance to disassembly (Aldunce et al., 2014).

After early academics such as Cahyanto and Pennington-Gray (2017) and Methmann and Oels (2015) discussed resilience in their separate works, the word has grown to embrace a wide range of methods from many disciplines, spanning social to bio-physical sciences. Aldunce et al. (2014) examined the evolution of the notion of resilience in disaster risk management in their study.

One of the most prevalent allusions to resilience in disaster risk management literature relates to a community's ability to "recover" from, cope with, resist, tolerate, and recover rapidly from the consequences of hazards (Klein, 2013; Mileti, 1999). The evolution of the term may be used to deduce two key concepts. The pace at which a system recovers and then recovers is the first notion. The second is change adaptation, which emphasizes a system's ability to recover from a shock and use it as a stimulus for growth, progress, or innovation (O'Brien et al., 2010). Preparing to reduce, avoid, and limit loss, suffering, and social disturbance is another essential aspect of the resilience idea (Mileti, 1999). Another aspect of resilience that has been explored is self-reliance as a method of preserving resilience. It is defined as the ability to withstand crises without the assistance of others.

Most crises cannot be foreseen, and many cannot be prevented, according to Faulkner and Vikulov (2001), which means that no one is safe from them. As a result, concerned parties and scholars must grasp the probable nature, expected evolution, and scale of an emergency. Furthermore, the length of a crisis might vary greatly. Some, like an earthquake, might happen suddenly and unexpectedly, while others take a long time to develop. In both situations, the consequences can be long-term. It might take several years to restore infrastructure after a natural disaster. Physical infrastructure, on the other hand, may be largely unaffected by political and social upheaval, while institutions and business networks' "soft" infrastructure may take a long time to regain their fundamental functions.

In addition, crisis recovery refers to the process through which tourism businesses attempt to resume regular operations and achieve great economic performance after a catastrophe (Coombs, 2019). According to Shaikh (1978), people's recovery from a crisis is referred to as crisis recovery. efforts to solve problems in a planned and effective manner that allows companies to get back on their feet as fast as feasible in such situations. Crisis rehabilitation, according to Shaikh (1978), relates to sociology study since crises reveal deficiencies in social development, such as supply and demand imbalances or employee-employer conflict. People have historically linked crisis and recovery because fear pushes society to recover, enabling the market to recover and the next boom-and-bust cycle to begin (Shaikh, 1978; Eneizan et al., 2019; Abdullah et al., 2021).

Crisis in Tourism and Hospitality

Although the travel and tourism sector is usually resilient to shocks, this is not the case in the near term (Avraham, 2016; Hadi et al., 2018; Fadhil et al., 2021). The industry has suffered setbacks over the years due to wars, terrorist attacks, natural

disasters, epidemics, pandemics and other emergencies that threaten the safety of destinations (Dayour et al., 2021). According to Yau et al. (2004), crises regularly cause disruptions in the tourism and hospitality industry. Due to crises, the decline in tourist arrivals and spending affects the industry and its stakeholders, making them vulnerable. Depending on the nature of the crisis or shock, various service providers (accommodation, transport, inbound and outbound tourism) have to suffer for a short or more extended era.

Any crisis affects the ability of the sector of tourism to Because of the danger to transportation and other foundations and infrastructure, or the impression that the destination is dangerous, the destination cannot function properly. In this regard, Laws and Prideaux (2006) indicated that a tourism crisis will speedily lead to a decline during the number of visitors and consequently a loss of jobs, a decline in sales and profits for businesses, and a decline in tax revenues for the government. The World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2011; Albahri et al., 2021) at the local, regional, and national levels, there are five kinds of crises that affect the tourist sector. These are: First, there are environmental catastrophes, such as geological, extreme weather, and man-made disasters. Second, social and political shifts, third, health crises, fourth, technical occurrences or failures, and fifth, economic events are all types of crises.

Environmental Crisis

Although the path of certain severe weather phenomena, such as tropical hurricanes, is not always predictable, while certain geological events may be anticipated and preparations made to remove people to safe places, many others are unexpected and unpredictably unpredictable. This category includes hurricanes, cyclones, earthquakes, volcanic eruptions, and tsunamis. Normal tourism activities are likely to be impacted by major geological occurrences which may lead Infrastructure, communications, and facilities may be destroyed or rendered unusable, and electricity and water supplies may be disrupted. This makes evacuation of tourists from the affected regions more difficult, as well as life for those who remain. Significant geological events that have had an influence on in recent years, tourism has included:

1. The Indian Ocean is number one. The December 2004 tsunami killed about 230,000 people in 11 countries, including Indonesia, Sri Lanka, India, and Thailand.
2. The earthquake that struck Nepal in April 2015, killing almost 9000 people.
3. The March 2011 earthquake and tsunami on Japan's east coast, which killed 22,000 people and damaged the Fukushima Daiichi nuclear power facility.

Hurricanes, floods, and extended droughts are examples of extreme weather occurrences. Here are several examples:

1. Hurricane Katrina and severe flooding in New Orleans in 2010 claimed more than 1800 lives.
2. Natural-area wildfires caused by lightning strikes or human activity, such as the fires in Gatlinburg, Tennessee, in December 2016, which killed 14 people and destroyed tourist attractions, or the flames in Portugal in June 2017, which killed more than 60 people.
3. Eyjafjallajökull volcano in Iceland in 2010, which caused US\$ 1.7 billion in losses due to one-week flight restrictions over Europe (Hall, 2010; Hamid et al., 2021).

Societal and Political Crisis

Crime, politically driven unrest, terrorism, conflicts, and human rights violations are all social and political events that have an impact on tourism. When dangers come from outside forces, especially when combined with domestic instability, it is an increasing source of concern.

1. Crime: People will understandably be hesitant to visit a nation with high levels of corruption and physical attacks on visitors. South Africa's Minister of Tourism said in 2008 that growing crime rates had discouraged more than 22 million visitors from visiting the nation in the previous 5 years (COMCEC, 2017).
2. Political upheaval: The Middle East and North Africa unrest in 2010 prompted worries about tourist safety, prompting tourism operators in the affected countries to either relocate clients or reassure planned visitors to avoid cancellations. According to Avraham (2016), Egypt's tourist sector and government underlined that the interruptions were limited since the demonstrations were centered in Cairo, while other regions (particularly Red Sea resorts) were unaffected, and tourism continued to operate regularly.

Furthermore, extreme cases of politically driven instability, such as coups, civil wars, and terrorist attacks, generally put inbound tourism to a halt. The governments of the countries of origin generally issue travel advisories. Additionally, routine tourist activities will be halted until the situation has calmed and travel advisories have been lifted. Terrorist attacks carried out by disgruntled sections of society generally target the capital and other large cities and transportation networks to cause the most havoc. The 2005 London transport bombs, the October 2015 Ankara train station attacks, the April 2017 St Petersburg metro system bombings, and the May 2017 Manchester Arena bombing are examples.

1. Human rights abuses: Significant political persecution of the local people, as well as human rights violations, can damage foreign tourism if extensively published in the media and lobbied against tourism by interest groups.
2. External threats: Terrorism is a developing threat with weak roots, particularly in internal turmoil. The global crisis of 2001 is often regarded as one of the worst

confidence crises in history. The terrorist events of September 11, 2001 jolted the entire tourist sector throughout the world. International air passenger traffic was severely impacted, and the hotel industry and distribution networks were severely impacted. The events of September 11, which entailed the results of international tourism in 2001 and their impact on individual locations and industries, were only one reason for the decrease in tourist statistics, albeit the most crucial. Economic circumstances in Western nations such as Germany and the United States began to worsen in late 2000. Still, the decline began much earlier in Asia, resulting in a fall in outbound travel from Japan.

In the first 8 months of 2001, the economic decline in inbound tourism was felt in regions such as the Americas, South Asia, and the Middle East. According to UNWTO (2002), the overabundance of images of the tragic events in the media, the repetition of the messages associated with them, and the exaggeration of diplomatic and military responses – initially due to a lack of accurate information and later due to a flood of reports – resulted in a drop in international tourist flows. People changed their travel habits in the months after September 11, 2001, preferring destinations closer to home, more familiar, and more accessible, and using modes of transportation that seemed safer, i.e., individual rather than mass transportation, worsening the situation of the air transport industry.

Health Crisis

2006 Avian Flu, SARS 2003, Mouth Disease and Foot 2001 are major health-related crisis occurrences that have had an effect on the hospitality and tourism industries sector in recent years (Baxter & Bowen, 2004; Page et al., 2006; Tew et al., 2008). In addition, swine flu claimed the lives of 284,000 people in 2009. The tourist industry suffered a US\$ 2.8 billion loss (Rassy & Richard, 2013). The Ebola outbreak in 2014 and 2015. The attack impacted Africa's tourist industry, resulting in a 5% drop in revenue in 2015 (Novelli et al., 2018). Furthermore, the Zika virus epidemic that occurred in 2016 in Latin America and the Caribbean cost the tourist sector US\$ 3.5 billion, and there is no vaccine available (Wut et al., 2021). The global epidemic of dengue fever in the same year had an even more severe economic impact, costing US\$ 8.9 billion (Shepard et al., 2016).

Disasters and crises are frequently limited to certain areas, sub-regions, nations, and counties, necessitating tailored reaction and recovery activities, but the 2019 coronavirus epidemic (COVID -19) looks to be an exception. The pandemic has touched many global livelihoods and public health sectors from the first documented case of 2019 coronavirus illness (COVID -19) in Hubei, China, in December 2019. The Covid 19 pandemic has had tremendous social, psychological, and economic repercussions for people and places all over the world. The ramifications have been described as “catastrophic”, and no industry has been hit worse than travel and hospitality (Dube et al., 2020; Nicola et al., 2020; Ntounis et al., 2021).

Even though certain tourist and hospitality firms were already in trouble before the pandemic (Baum et al., 2020; Gretzel et al., 2020), the pandemic substantially impacted these industries. In this sense, according to UNWTO (2021), tourism faced its worst crisis ever in 2020 as a result of the tremendous health, social, and economic hardships connected with the pandemic's onset. Compared to the previous year, international tourist arrivals (overnight visitors) dropped by 74% in 2020 as a result of increased travel restrictions and a significant drop in demand. International travel has collapsed, resulting in an anticipated loss of US\$ 1.3 trillion in export profits, more than 11 times the losses seen during the global economic crisis of 2009. In 2020, international immigration in Asia and the Pacific fell by 84%, or roughly 300 million, compared to the previous year. Arrivals fell by 75% in the Middle East and Africa, respectively. Europe witnessed a 70% reduction in visitors, equating to a loss of nearly 500 million foreign visitors, while the Americas saw a 69% dip. Depending on the pace of containment, the duration of travel restrictions, and the reopening of national borders, current year forecasts predict a 58–78% drop in foreign visitor arrivals in 2020; however, the prognosis remains very unclear. This would result in a drop in foreign arrivals of 850 million to 1.1 billion people and a loss of US\$ 860 billion to US\$ 1.2 trillion in tourist export profits, the steepest drop in the series' history. The decline of foreign travel threatens 100 million to 120 million direct tourism employment, as well as 197 million indirect jobs (WTTC, 2020).

Technological Crisis

Technology-related catastrophes, such as transportation accidents and IT system failures, fall under this category. These can be caused by technological failures or human shortcomings in the functioning of technological systems (COMCEC, 2017). The increasing technological dependability of aircraft, ships, and trains has resulted in insufficient incidents in these means of transport. For example, 46,901 people died in road Between 2000 and 2009, there were 1474 fatalities in aviation and marine accidents in the United States, compared to 1474 deaths overall (Savage, 2013; Abdulaali et al., 2019). There were 65 fatal aircraft accidents worldwide between 2006 and 2015, at 0.29 per million departures (Boeing, 2016). Despite this disparity, aircraft accidents receive considerably more publicity in the media than car accidents. When a terrorist assault occurs aboard an aircraft, such as the 2015 Metrojet accident that killed 224 tourists of Russian returning from the Red Sea resorts in Egyptian, the same protocols must be followed to manage the crisis as if it were a terrorist strike.

Only one significant cruise ship disaster with deaths has occurred since 2000: the sinking of the Costa Concordia, which killed 32 passengers and crew members in 2012. Rail accidents are more common, particularly in countries with low track and equipment maintenance standards. Tourists on the road are at risk of being engaged in accidents and being harmed. As Henderson (2007) points out, the risks are magnified in nations with lax regulatory standards, particularly in public transportation networks.

Economic Crisis

Global recessions, sluggish economies, and sudden currency rate fluctuations are all common occurrences. Economic crises that influence tourism. All of these factors might lead to a loss of customer trust and have an impact on travel. The 2008/09 financial crisis and accompanying worldwide economic depression were the most important economic events influencing international travel since the turn of the millennium. As a result, foreign visitor arrivals and revenues decreased in 2009, compared to 2008, by 4% and 6%, respectively. Although some regions did better than others, particularly Asia-Pacific and Sub-Saharan Africa, all regions were affected (Brown, 2006; Jones et al., 2011).

The relative value of national currencies is another type of economic crisis. Tourist flows increase when these currencies are weak versus the currencies of the primary source markets because visitors obtain more for their money. At the same time, multinational tour operators and their clients regard nations with stable currencies as uncompetitive. When a host nation experiences a domestic crisis, the depreciation of its currency generally draws more tourists from other countries (Khalid et al., 2020). For example, the dollar-euro exchange rate has a substantial influence on tourist flows from the United States to Europe (WTTC, 2020). The British pound's depreciation against source market currencies is said to have been the primary reason for an increase in long-haul reservations to the UK in July/August 2017, from China (up 209%), and the United States (up 19%); on average, the UK was 9% cheaper for tourists than the previous year (COMCEC, 2017).

Any of the aforementioned occurrences will have a negative impact on the tourist industry's capacity to operate regularly, either because of transportation and other facilities and services being damaged, or because the location is seen to be hazardous. In this regard, Laws and Prideaux (2006), a tourist crisis will result in employment losses, reduced company turnover and earnings, lower government tax revenues, and (in the event of a longer-term crisis) a failure by foreign and local businesses to invest in facilities. Therefore, without proper management, a risk can develop into a crisis that can negatively impact tourism businesses, tourism organizations, and destinations (Abbas et al., 2021; Paraskevas & Quek, 2019).

Resilience and Recovery of Tourism and Hospitality Crisis

This section issues a challenge to tourism scholars to think about what has caused the crisis and what factors have contributed to it. In this regard, the focus should be on researching, teaching, and interacting with contemporary tourism-related ideas and theories to create a complete pedagogy for rebuilding and reforming rather than maintaining the present tourism and hospitality trajectory in the aftermath of disasters. This chapter's management implication is designed to help tourism and hospitality managers by giving a viewpoint on present and future problems in the sector.

In addition, important recovery methods must be provided in the post-crisis era in order to establish positive corporate plans and policies, for the resilience and recovery of the tourism and hospitality crisis. Whereas SMEs may have a harder difficulty recovering from a crisis due to a lack of well-documented and well-planned crisis management and recovery plans, bigger enterprises may recover more quickly as a consequence of well-planned and documented crisis management and recovery plans (Dayour et al., 2021). By sharing their experience, emergency organizations and policymakers can assist small businesses in developing preparation plans, managing expectations, and understanding their needs throughout the response and recovery stages (Carty, 2021).

The tourist and hospitality industry, on the other hand, is highly sensitive to natural catastrophes and crises (Carty, 2021). As a result, coordinated measures are required to enhance tourist arrivals, expand renewable energy use, and assure economic and environmental sustainability (Abbas et al., 2021). To put it another way, a more rapid and comprehensive post-crisis recovery may be aided not just by a focus on infrastructure reconstruction, but also by a focus on individual luxury within the tourism community (Sheppard & Williams, 2016). In this regard, Noorashid and Chin (2021) noted that the creation of a proper recovery and resilience plan is still crucial not only for the sector's survival in tourism-intensive small nations but also for the preservation of the sector's vital socio-economic connections. As a result, in the post-crisis era, the tourism sector should focus on establishing a well-planned and sustainable business strategy based on collective global awareness in order to maintain businesses, the industry, and, eventually, job availability (Khan & Hashim, 2020).

A literature survey reveals a wide range of possibilities, including methods for assessing and developing general tourist itineraries. This framework provides corporations, tourist organizations, and communities step-by-step guidance for developing a disaster preparedness strategy. By working together and leveraging shared knowledge and abilities, stakeholders will evaluate the business impact, assess the risk, analyze the opportunities, stimulate awareness and learning, and identify roles and responsibilities to incorporate into a preparation plan (Carty, 2021). The crisis response appears to be instinctive and reactive, based on prior experience, with the objective of dealing with the repercussions as quickly and effectively as possible (Paraskevas & Quek, 2019). As a result, Wybo (2004) proposed a three-stage model that begins with the commencement of a crisis, progresses through reaction and impact management, and culminates in learning, planning, and preparedness for future crises.

Since industry shocks appear to be on the horizon, tourism locations must take measures to minimize their susceptibility and hazards. The probability of future shocks alters the medium- and long-term strategic environment (Wut et al., 2021). As a consequence, organizations in both the public and commercial sectors should evaluate their previous activities and make changes depending on their available resources. This will strengthen individual and system resilience by raising awareness of how to react to crises and shifting market trends, as well as ensuring that future planning incorporates prior successful (and unsuccessful) strategies.

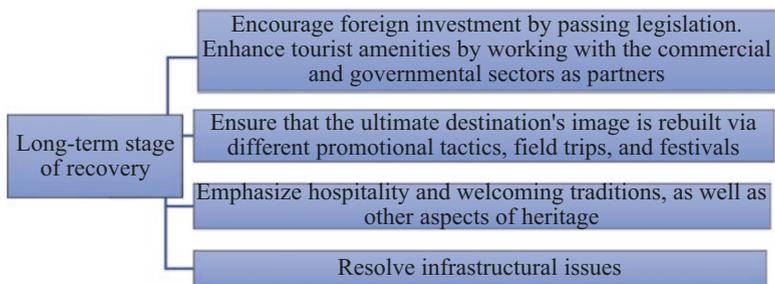


Fig. 1 Long-term healing stage. (Source: UNWTO, 2011; COMCEC, 2017)

However, data suggests that the sector's recovery will be challenging, in part due to the tourists' risk perceptions being based on faulty logic (Santana, 2004). In this sense, there are various stages to the tourist sector's recovery and resilience. By addressing essential roles and duties, the business continuity plan outlines business continuity strategies and priorities for mitigation, preparedness, reaction, and recovery operations (Carty, 2021).

According to Fig. 1, the tourist sector requires a long-term stage of recovery. Furthermore, many strategies for crisis recovery have been proposed. Restoration of trust, media engagement, support from other stakeholders, and the speed with which a crisis is addressed are all critical success factors in crisis recovery (COMCEC, 2017). Community-based tourism (CBT) operations implemented four main recovery strategic actions for Brunei Darussalam, according to Noorashid and Chin (2021), such as diversifying products/services in the local market; government involvement promotes confidence and accessibility; and integrating technology progress in operations. Most discussions of tourism crises and disasters end with the recovery and lessons learned through the crisis management process (Cahyanto & Pennington-Gray, 2017).

Furthermore, the sensitivity of tourist demand to changes in different influencing variables is referred to as tourism resilience demand. The price elasticity, income resilience, cross-elasticity of tourist demand, and substitute product resilience are all part of this demand. The resilience cycle is used to build tourist resilience by looking at how crises enhance resilience in a particular tourism location (Xue, 2020). Cochrane (2008), for example, uses Sri Lanka's tourism resilience following the Asian tsunami to show how the catastrophe drove individuals to make adjustments in order to enhance their tourist sector. In Sri Lanka, the Asian tsunami shattered a rigid system that had become stagnant due to stakeholder fragmentation and inept leadership. The government was forced to develop new tactics to attract tourists as a result of the crisis, which included bringing together stakeholders and other interested parties (Cochrane, 2008). Thus, Cochrane (2008) highlights that crisis in the tourist sector may fracture existing structures and push individuals to change, resulting in a new, adaptive system and enhancing tourism attraction resilience. Creating tourism resilience involves connecting sustainability to tourist resilience capability, developing appropriate sustainability indicators to evaluate resilience, and analyzing data to see whether and how crises improve tourism resilience.

Conclusion

This chapter reviews the development of tourism and hospitality during crises and how such industries can recover from crises. In general, academics in the field of tourism and hospitality can understand the latest findings regarding crises and recovery. Several published articles were analyzed and the impact of the COVID-19 crisis on tourism and hospitality was discussed. However, it was found many companies in this sector failed due to the significant impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on these sectors. As a result, the focus should be on research and interaction with contemporary ideas and theories related to tourism to create a complete educational curriculum for reconstruction and repair rather than maintaining the current tourism and hospitality trajectory in the wake of disasters. Large companies have long-term internal financing and may recover more quickly because of ability of manage crisis. However, small, and medium-sized enterprises in tourism and hospitality are at risk during crises. Therefore, policy makers and government should contribute to helping small businesses by developing plans to manage expectations and understand their needs during the stages of response and recovery from crises.

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Mohammed Ghanim Ahmed he is a PhD student at the Graduate School of Business, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia. Earlier, Ahmed received MBA degree. Ahmed’s research interests lie in accounting studies. Ahmed is a reviewer and published papers in many journals.

Abdullah Mohammed Sadaa is a PhD student at the Graduate School of Business, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia. Earlier, Sadaa received Master’s degree. Sadaa’s research interests lie in accounting studies. Sadaa is a reviewer and also, published papers in many journals.

Hamad Mathel Alshamry is a PhD student at the Graduate School of Business, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia. Alshamry is also a Lecturer at the College of Business, Jouf University, Jouf, Saudi Arabia. Alshamry’s research interests lie in accounting and finance.

Mualla Ali Alharbi is a PhD student at the Graduate School of Business, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia. Alharbi is also a Lecturer at the College of Business, Jouf University, Jouf, Saudi Arabia. Alharbi’s research interests lie in accounting and finance.

Alhamzah Alnoor is PhD student at the School of Management, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia. Alnoor is also a Senior Lecturer at the Management Technical College, Southern Technical University, Basrah, Iraq. Alnoor received his MBA from the University of Basrah. Alnoor’s research interests lie in organizational studies. Alnoor is a reviewer and published papers in many journals.

Alyaa Abdulhussein Kareem is a PhD student at the School of Industrial Technology, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia. Earlier, Kareem received a Master’s degree. Kareem’s research interests lie in biology studies. Kareem is a reviewer and also, published papers in many journals.