



CRISIS MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC
IN THE TURKISH HOSPITALITY SECTOR: AN EVALUATION OF HOTEL
MANAGERS' APPROACHES

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES OF
UNIVERSITY OF TURKISH AERONAUTICAL ASSOCIATION

BY

AHMET ÇANGA

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN MANAGEMENT

DECEMBER 2023



CRISIS MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC
IN THE TURKISH HOSPITALITY SECTOR: AN EVALUATION OF HOTEL
MANAGERS' APPROACHES

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES OF
UNIVERSITY OF TURKISH AERONAUTICAL ASSOCIATION

BY

AHMET ÇANGA

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN MANAGEMENT

DECEMBER 2023

Approval of the thesis:

**CRISIS MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES DURING THE COVID-19
PANDEMIC IN THE TURKISH HOSPITALITY SECTOR: AN
EVALUATION OF HOTEL MANAGERS' APPROACHES.**

submitted by **AHMET ÇANGA** in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the
degree of **Doctor of Philosophy in Management, University of Turkish
Aeronautical Association** by,

Asst. Prof. Dr. Adnan GÜZEL

Dean, Graduate School of Social Sciences, UTAA

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Yaşar KÖSE

Head of the Department, Business Administration, UTAA

Asst. Prof. Dr. Adnan GÜZEL

Supervisor: Business Administration, UTAA

Examining Committee Members:

Prof. Dr. Nurettin PARILTI

Business Administration,
Ankara Hacı Bayram Veli University

Prof. Dr. Emin AKÇAOĞLU

Capital Markets Department
Manisa Celal Bayar University

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Yaşar KÖSE

Business Administration,
University of Turkish Aeronautical Association

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ceyda AKTAN

Business Administration,
University of Turkish Aeronautical Association

Asst. Prof. Dr. Adnan GÜZEL

Business Administration,
University of Turkish Aeronautical Association

Date: 15 December 2023

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Ahmet ÇANGA

ABSTRACT

Ahmet ÇANGA

Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Adnan GÜZEL

15 December 2023, 208 Pages

The main objective of this study is to examine a range of factors that constitute an effective crisis management base, the complex relationship between crisis preparedness and crisis forecasting, as well as the impact of crisis forecasting and crisis management on outcomes of crisis.

This study has focused on hotels that have tourism investment or operating certificates and are categorised as 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 stars by the Turkish Ministry of Culture and Tourism in Türkiye. The data were obtained from hotel managers located in different cities such as, Ankara, Antalya, Istanbul, Izmir, and Nevşehir. The survey involved the participation of 415 hotel managers. The findings of the study indicate a correlation between pre-crisis preparedness and the final outcome of the crisis. Moreover, the crisis forecasting process greatly affects the evaluation of crisis management. The purpose of this study is to evaluate how pre-crisis activities affect crisis forecasting and crisis management procedures. The consequences of the crisis management and forecasting process for the Turkish hospitality sector are also examined. The evaluation focused on the perspectives of hotel managers regarding the influence of the COVID-19 epidemic on the Turkish hospitality sector, as well as the measures and tactics employed to mitigate its impacts. Many hotels have exhibited an impressive level of effectiveness and readiness in managing and alleviating emergencies, as seen by their comprehensive preparation and planning. Teams have been established with the purpose of formulating and executing action plans to mitigate possible crises. Furthermore, efforts have been dedicated in the areas of sales, marketing, and cost reduction.

Keywords: Hospitality Sector, Crisis Management, Tourism, Management, COVID-19 Pandemics

ÖZ

Ahmet ÇANGA
Tez Danışmanı: Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Adnan GÜZEL
15 Aralık 2023, 208 Sayfa

Bu çalışmanın temel amacı etkili kriz yönetiminin temelini oluşturan çok sayıda faktörü, krize hazırlık ve kriz tahmini arasındaki karmaşık etkileşimi ve krizin tahmini ile kriz yönetiminin sonuçlar üzerindeki etkisini incelemektedir.

Bu araştırma Türkiye’de faaliyet gösteren ve T.C. Kültür ve Turizm Bakanlığı tarafından 1, 2, 3, 4 ve 5 yıldızlı olarak sınıflanmış turizm yatırım ya da işletme belgesine sahip otellere odaklanmış, veriler Ankara, Antalya, İstanbul, İzmir ve Nevşehir gibi çeşitli şehirlerde bulunan otel yöneticilerinden alınmıştır. Araştırmaya toplam 415 otel yöneticisi katılmıştır. Bu çalışma, kriz öncesi hazırlıklar ile krizin nihai sonuçları arasında bir ilişki olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Ayrıca, kriz tahmin süreci kriz yönetiminin değerlendirilmesini önemli ölçüde etkilemektedir. Bu çalışmada kriz öncesi tedbirler, krizlerin tahmini ve kriz yönetimi süreçlerinin konaklama sektörü üzerindeki etkisi değerlendirilmekte, bu süreçlere bağlı olarak Türk konaklama sektöründe krizlerin etkisini azaltmak amacıyla yapılan çalışmalardan elde edilen sonuçlar incelenmektedir. Otel yöneticilerinin COVID-19 salgınının Türk otel sektörü üzerindeki etkisine ilişkin bakış açıları ve pandeminin etkilerine karşı uygulanan stratejileri değerlendirilmiştir. Olası krizlere karşı yapılan hazırlık ve planlama çalışmalarına bakıldığında, otellerin önemli bir kısmının krizi kontrol altına alma ve etkisini azaltma konusunda ileri düzeyde etkinlik ve hazırlık sergilediği görülmüştür. Potansiyel krizlere karşı eylem planları geliştirmek ve uygulamak amacıyla ekipler oluşturulmuş ve satış, pazarlama ve tasarruflar konusunda çalışmalar yapılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Konaklama Sektörü, Kriz Yönetimi, Turizm, Yönetim, COVID-19 Pandemisi.

DEDICATION

I dedicate my thesis to my family, with a deep sense of gratitude for their unwavering support and encouragement throughout my academic journey. I am forever grateful to my wife, Belgin AKSU ÇANGA, for her invaluable assistance in proofreading, dedicating many hours to refine this work. I would like to extend my heartfelt appreciation to my son, Eren ÇANGA, for his steadfast support throughout the entirety of my studies.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Thanks are due to several people who assisted me in the preparation of this thesis. I would like to express my deepest gratitude to Prof Dr. Emin AKÇAOĞLU for his invaluable comments, advice, meaningful criticism, and guidance during my PhD study. I extend my sincere gratitude to my supervisor, Associate Prof. Dr. Adnan GÜZEL, for his invaluable guidance and assistance despite his busy schedule throughout my study. Additionally, I am deeply thankful to Associate Prof. Dr. Ceyda AKTAN for her encouragement and guidance, as well as to Prof. Dr. Dursun BİNGÖL for his insightful comments and encouragement during my research.

I also wish to express my deepest gratitude to Faruk KAYA for his invaluable assistance during the survey's execution. Completing the fieldwork would have been significantly more challenging without his support.

Lastly, I am deeply indebted to my family for their unwavering support and encouragement throughout my academic journey.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	v
ÖZ	vi
DEDICATION	vii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	viii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	ix
LIST OF TABLES	xiv
LIST OF FIGURES	xix
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xix
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Overview of Tourism	1
1.1.1 Tourism sector	3
1.1.2 Tourism Overview of Türkiye	5
1.1.3 Effect of COVID-19 on Türkiye’s Tourism Sector	7
1.1.4 Effects of War between Russia and Ukraine on Turkish Tourism.....	16
2. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	19
2.1 The Relationship between World Crises and Their Disastrous Effect on the Hospitality Sector Worldwide	20
2.2 Impact of World Crises on the Turkish Hospitality Sector.....	28
2.3 Crisis Management Techniques by Hospitality Sector Practised Globally.....	30
2.3.1 Precaution Activities and Forecasting Ability by Hospitality Sector	30
2.4 Crisis Management Processes in Hospitality Sector.....	36
2.4.1 Role of Government in Crisis Management	39
2.4.2 Technological Innovation Approach for Disaster Management	41
2.4.3 Human Resource Strategies for Crisis Management	42
2.4.4 Marketing Related Strategies for Crisis Management	42
2.4.5 Maintenance Related Strategies for Crisis Management	44
2.4.6 Recovery Strategies of Hospitality Sector during the Post-Crisis Era.....	44
2.5 Evidence of Crisis Management by Hospitality Sector in Türkiye.....	47
2.6 Theories Related to Crisis Management	49
2.7 Research Gap	51

2.8 Theoretical Framework.....	52
3. METHODOLOGY	61
3.1 Research Philosophy	61
3.2 Research Approach.....	62
3.3 Research Purpose.....	63
3.4 Research Design	64
3.5 Research Strategy	64
3.6 Research Instrument	65
3.6.1 Instrument Design: Questionnaire	65
3.6.2 Research Variables of the Study.....	68
3.7 The Time Frame of the Study.....	68
3.8 Study Settings.....	68
3.9 Data Collection and Sampling Design.....	68
3.9.1 Sampling Procedure.....	69
3.9.2 Sample Size	70
3.10 Data Analysis.....	71
3.11. Pilot Test.....	72
3.11.1 Reliability and Validity Analysis	72
3.11.2 Exploratory factor analysis for crisis preparedness.....	73
3.11.3 Exploratory factor analysis for the impact of crisis.....	77
3.12 Research Ethics	78
3.13 Research Questions	78
3.14 Objectives of the Study	79
3.15 Significance of the Study.....	79
3.16 Scope of the Study.....	80
3.17 Thesis Structure	80
4. RESULTS.....	83
4.1 Sample Population.....	83
4.1 Profile of the Hotel	85
4.1.1 Location of the Hotels	85
4.1.2 Age of Hotels.....	87
4.1.3 Affiliation of the Hotels to other Sectors/ Industries.....	88
4.1.4 The Legal Status of the Hotel.....	89

4.1.5 Number of Staff Working in Hotels.....	90
4.1.6 Number of Rooms in Hotels	91
4.1.7 Size of the Hotel.....	92
4.2 Pre-crisis Measurements of Hotels	93
4.2.1 Pre-crisis Activities	93
4.2.2 Preparation and Planning in Hotels.....	94
4.2.3 Sales and Marketing in Hotels	95
4.2.4 Savings Measures Taken by Hotels	96
4.2.5 Financial Measures Taken by the Hotels	97
4.3 Forecasting the Crisis.....	97
4.4 Crisis Management Process	98
4.5 Outcomes of the Crisis on Hotels	99
4.5.1 Internal Outcomes of Crisis in Hotels.....	99
4.5.2 External Outcomes of the Crisis on Hotels.....	100
4.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)	101
4.6.1 Pre-crisis Measurements	102
4.6.2 Outcomes of Crisis.....	107
4.7 Differences in Study Variables Based on the Profile of the Hotel Professionals	110
4.8 Differences in Study Variables based on the Profile of the Hotels.....	111
4.8.1 Differences in Forecasting the Crisis, Evaluation of Crisis Management Process, the External and Internal Impact of the Crisis Based on the City of the Hotels.....	111
4.8.2 Differences in Forecasting the Crisis, Evaluation of the Crisis Management Process, the External and Internal Impact of the Crisis Based on the Age of the Hotels	114
4.8.3 Differences in Forecasting the Crisis, Evaluation of Crisis Management Process, External and Internal Outcomes of a Crisis based on Sector Affiliation of the Hotels.....	116
4.8.4 The difference in Forecasting the Crisis, Evaluation of the Crisis Management Process, the External and Internal Impact of the Crisis Based on the Legal Status.....	118
4.8.5 Differences in Forecasting the Crisis, Evaluation of Crisis Management Process, External and Internal Outcomes of the Crisis based on the Number of Staff Working in the Hotel	120

4.8.6 Differences in Forecasting the Crisis, Evaluation of Crisis Management Process, External and Internal Outcomes of Crisis based on Number of Rooms	124
4.8.7 Differences in Forecasting the Crisis, Evaluation of Crisis Management Process, External and Internal Outcomes of the Crisis Based on Hotel Size.....	126
4.9. Correlation Between the Study Variables	130
4.10 Hypotheses Testing	131
4.10.1 Influence of Pre-crisis Measurements of Hotels on Their Outcomes of the Crisis	132
4.10.2 Impact of Pre-crisis Measurements on Crisis Forecasting in Turkish Hotels.....	135
4.10.3 Impact of Pre-crisis Measurements on the Crisis Management Process	137
4.10.4 Impact of Crisis Forecasting on the Outcomes of Crisis.....	140
4.10.5 Influence of Evaluation of Crisis Management Process on Outcomes of Crisis in Turkish Hotels.....	141
4.10.6 Mediating Effects of Crisis Forecasting and Crisis Management Process Independently as well as the Interaction between the Two Mediating Variables on Outcomes of the Crisis.....	143
4.10.7 Impact of Crisis Forecasting on Evaluation of Crisis Management Process	149
5. DISCUSSIONS	151
5.1 Discussion on the Pre-crisis Measurements of Turkish Hotels.....	151
5.2 Forecasting the Crisis	154
5.3 Discussion on the Crisis Management Process in Turkish Hotels	155
5.4 Outcomes of the Crisis in Turkish Hotels	158
5.5 Impact of Pre-crisis Measurements on Crisis Forecasting in Turkish Hotels.....	159
5.6 Impact of Pre-Crisis Measurements on Crisis Forecasting in Turkish Hotels.....	159
5.7 Impact of Pre-Crisis Measurements on the Crisis Management Process	160
5.8 Impact of Crisis Forecasting on the Outcomes of Crisis during the COVID-19 Pandemic	161
5.9 Influence of Evaluation of Crisis Management Process on Outcomes of Crisis in Turkish Hotels.....	161

5.10 The Mediating Effect of Crisis Forecasting and Evaluation of Crisis Management Process on the Relationship between Pre-Crisis Measurements and the Outcomes of the Crisis	162
5.11 Impact of Crisis Forecasting on Evaluation of Crisis Management Process	163
6. CONCLUSIONS	165
6.1 Summary of the Significant Findings of the Study Conducted during the COVID-19 Period	166
6.1.1 Profile of the Respondents	166
6.1.2 Profile of the Hotels	166
6.1.3 Pre-crisis Measurements of Hotels	167
6.1.4 Forecasting of Crisis	169
6.1.5 Crisis Management Process	169
6.1.6 Outcomes of Crisis	169
6.1.7 Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	170
6.1.8 Differences in Perceptions of Study Variables Associated with Crisis Management	170
6.1.9 Correlation among the Study Variables	172
6.1.10 Hypothesis Testing.....	172
6.2 Addressing the Research Questions and Meeting the Objectives.....	173
6.3 Recommendations from the Study	174
6.4 Limitations of the Study	175
6.5 Suggestions for Further Research	176
REFERENCES.....	177
APPENDIX	197
The Scale Used in the Study	201

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1:	Description of Different Industries of Tourism by UNWTO	3
Table 1.2:	The Number of International Tourists Visiting Türkiye and Tourism Revenue Generated	5
Table 1.3:	Comparison of Overseas Tourists by Destinations	12
Table 2.1:	Summary of Studies' findings on the virus outbreaks and their significant impact on the global tourism sector.....	25
Table 2.3:	Recovery initiatives to support the Turkish tourism sector against the COVID-19 pandemic.....	48
Table 3.1:	Questionnaire design	67
Table 3.2:	Reliability analysis	73
Table 3.3:	KMO and Bartlett's Test for crisis preparedness	74
Table. 3.4:	Factor analysis for crisis preparedness	75
Table.3.5:	KMO and Bartlett's Test for the impact of crisis.....	77
Table 3.6:	Factor analysis for the impact of crisis.....	77
Table 4.1:	Job responsibility of the respondents associated with Turkish hotels.....	84
Table 4.2:	Location of hotels	86
Table 4.3:	Age of hotels.....	87
Table 4.4:	Sector classification.....	88
Table 4.5:	Legal status of hotels	89
Table 4.6:	Number of staff working in hotels.....	90
Table 4.7:	Number of rooms in the hotel.....	91
Table 4.8:	Size of the hotels	92
Table 4.9:	Pre-crisis activities.....	94
Table 4.10:	Preparation and planning in hotels	95
Table 4.11:	Sales and marketing in hotels	96
Table 4.12:	Savings measures taken by hotels	96
Table 4.13:	Financial measures taken by the hotels	97

Table 4.14: Forecasting the crisis.....	98
Table 4.15: Crisis management process	99
Table 4.16: Internal outcomes of the crisis on hotels.....	100
Table 4.17: External outcomes of the crisis on hotels.....	101
Table 4.18: Model fit indices for pre-crisis measurements	103
Table 4.19: Standardized regression weights for pre-crisis measurements	104
Table 4.20: Covariances for pre-crisis measurements	105
Table 4.21: Correlations for pre-crisis measurements	106
Table 4.22: Squared multiple correlations for pre-crisis measurements	106
Table 4.23: Model fit indices for outcomes of the crisis.....	108
Table 4.24: Standardized regression weights for outcomes of the crisis	108
Table 4.25: Covariances for outcomes of the crisis	109
Table 4.26: Correlations for outcomes of the crisis	109
Table 4.27: Squared multiple correlations for outcomes of the crisis.....	109
Table 4.28: Study variables based on the job personality of the hotel professionals.....	110
Table 4.29: Differences in forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of the crisis based on the job responsibility of respondents	111
Table 4.30: Forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal impact of the crisis based on the city of the hotel.....	112
Table 4.31: Differences in forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of the crisis based on the city of the hotel.....	114
Table 4.32: Forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, the external and internal impact of the crisis based on business years	115
Table 4.33: Differences in forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal impact of a crisis based on the number of business years.....	116

Table 4.34: Forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, the external and internal impact of the crisis based on sector classification of the hotels.....	117
Table 4.35: Differences in forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of the crisis based on sector classification of the hotels	117
Table 4.36: Multiple comparisons for differences in internal outcomes of the crisis based on sector classification of the hotels	118
Table 4.37: Forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, the external and internal impact of the crisis based on the legal status of the hotels.....	119
Table 4.38: Differences in forecasting the crisis, evaluation of crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of the crisis based on the legal status of the hotels	120
Table 4.39: Forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of crisis based on number of staff working in the hotel	122
Table 4.40: Differences in forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of crisis based on number of staff in the hotel	122
Table 4.41: Multiple comparisons for differences in forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of the crisis based on number of staff working in the hotel.....	123
Table 4.42: Forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of the crisis based on number of rooms in the hotels.....	124
Table 4.43: Differences in forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of crisis based on number of rooms in the hotels.....	125

Table 4.44: Multiple comparisons for the difference in external outcomes of the crisis based on the number of rooms.....	126
Table 4.45: Forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of the crisis based on hotel size	127
Table 4.46: Differences in forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of crisis based on hotel size	128
Table 4.47: Multiple comparisons for the difference in forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, and external outcomes of the crisis based on hotel size	129
Table 4.48: Correlation between the study variables	131
Table 4.49: Pre-crisis measurements and outcomes of crisis in hotels	134
Table 4.50: Multivariate test for the influence of pre-crisis measurements on outcomes of the crisis.....	134
Table 4.51: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for the Influence of pre-crisis measurements on Outcomes of Crisis.....	135
Table 4.52: Pre-crisis measurements and crisis forecasting in Turkish hotels.....	136
Table 4.53: Model summary for the impact of pre-crisis measurements on crisis forecasting	137
Table 4.54: Coefficients for the impact of pre-crisis measurements on crisis forecasting.....	137
Table 4.55: Pre-crisis measurements and evaluation crisis management process.....	139
Table 4.56: Model summary for the impact of pre-crisis measurements on the crisis management process.....	139
Table 4.57: Coefficients for the impact of pre-crisis measurements on the evaluation crisis management process	139
Table 4.58: Crisis Forecasting and Outcomes of Crisis	140
Table 4.59: Multivariate test for the impact of crisis forecasting on outcomes of the crisis	141

Table 4.60: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for the Impact of crisis forecasting on outcomes of Crisis	141
Table 4.61: Evaluation of crisis management process on outcomes of the crisis.....	142
Table 4.62: Multivariate test for the influence of crisis management process on outcomes of the crisis	142
Table 4.63: Tests of Between-Subjects on Effects for the Influence of crisis management process on outcomes of the crisis.....	143
Table 4.64: Standardized regression weights for the measurement model	145
Table 4.65: Model Fit Indices.....	146
Table 4.66: Standardized regression weights for direct effects	146
Table 4.67: Indirect effects	147
Table 4.68: Squared Multiple Correlations	148
Table 4.69: Impact of crisis forecasting and evaluation of crisis management process	150
Table 4.70: Model summary for the impact of crisis forecasting on the crisis management process.....	150
Table 4.71: Coefficients for the impact of crisis forecasting on the crisis management process.....	150

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework for developing disaster resilience based on a capital-based approach.....	34
Figure 2.2: The proposed research agenda for tourism resilience due to pandemics.	35
Figure 2.3: Onion model for crisis management.....	37
Figure 2.4: Conceptual framework for crisis management practices in small and medium businesses in the hospitality sector in Pakistan	38
Figure 2.5: Conceptual framework	57
Figure 3.1: Main aspects of research.....	62
Figure 3.2: Sampling procedure of the study	70
Figure 4.1: Job responsibility of the respondents from the Turkish hotel sector.....	84
Figure 4.2: Locations of hotels.....	86
Figure 4.3: Age of hotels.....	87
Figure 4.4: Activities of hotels or the groups it is affiliated with	88
Figure 4.5: Legal status of the hotel.....	89
Figure 4.6: Number of staff working in the hotel	90
Figure 4.7: Number of rooms in the hotel	91
Figure 4.8: Size of the hotels.....	92
Figure 4.9: Measurement model representing CFA for pre-crisis measurements	102
Figure 4.10: Outcomes of crisis	107
Figure 4.11: Structural model for the study	144

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CR	Critical Ratio
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
DSGE	Dynamic Stochastic General Equilibrium
EVDE	Ebola Virus Disease Epidemic
H5N1	Avian Flu
H1N1	Swine Flu
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
MERS-Cov	Middle East Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SARS	Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TGA	Türkiye Tourism Promotion and Development Agency
TUIK	Turkish Statistical Institute
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
WHO	World Health Organisation
WTTC	World Travel & Tourism Council

CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

Prior to the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, Türkiye had the position of the sixth-largest global tourism destination. The Turkish hospitality sector has encountered various challenges that have led to a decline in revenue generated from tourism. This research aims to investigate the effects of COVID-19 and various challenges on the tourism sector in Türkiye, as well as the measures taken by hospitality sector in response to these issues, both prior to, during, and following the pandemic. This study aims to analyse the perspectives of hotel managers regarding the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on the Turkish hospitality sector, as well as the subsequent measures adopted to mitigate its consequences. The importance of official policies and assistance cannot be overlooked, and these factors will also be examined. The representatives of the Turkish hospitality sector would expect advantageous governmental measures and regulations aimed at revitalising the declining morale within the sector. This study will expose the countermeasures implemented to address the COVID-19 pandemic and assess the viewpoints of hospitality sector managers or owners.

1.1 Overview of Tourism

Tourism, as well acknowledged, is a complicated phenomenon. It is a comprehensive concept including many different aspects, behaviours, activities, segments, or subjects that related to the movement of individuals across diverse countries and locations (Baggio, 2019). Tourists are individuals who temporarily move away from their usual environment and visit another place. Tourists typically engage in a wide range of activities, regardless of the proximity to their intended destination

(Camilleri, 2018). Tourists are sometimes referred to as visitors, and their activities undertaken at their chosen destination are generally known as tourism. In 1963, the 'United Nations Conference on International Travel and Tourism' took the decision to designate individuals moving from one country to another as visitors rather than residents. There were two distinct categories of visitors, specifically temporary visitors and leisure visitors. According to the "Recommendations on International Travel and Tourism" report from 1963, individuals who stay at their travel destination for a duration of twenty-four hours are referred to as temporary visitors. Furthermore, tourists who engage in travel for purposes such as health, recreational activities, holidays, religious pursuits, and educational endeavours are classified as leisure visitors. A temporary visitor is defined as an individual who is engaged in travel or a journey for the purpose of an excursion or voyage, and who stays at a particular location for a duration of less than one day. However, it is important to note that existing definitions of tourists fail to take into account the presence of domestic or local tourists. In 1976, the Tourism Institute, which was later renamed the 'Tourism Society,' put out the proposition that the act of individuals visiting places for a short period of time, where they do not typically reside or work, should be referred to as a tourist (Nadaf, 2020). According to Camilleri (2018), the act of travelling humans to different locations for a range of reasons, such as recreational outings or brief journeys, is categorised as tourism.

According to Camilleri (2018), domestic tourism refers to the act of individuals travelling within the geographical boundaries of their own country, while international tourism involves individuals travelling outside the borders of their home nation. Presently, tourism is regarded as an inseparable component of the cultural mass; it serves as an avenue for individuals to seek relief from the monotony of their daily lives and environments. According to Wendt (2020), tourism facilitates the acquisition of many cultures, proximity to natural environments, and the acquisition of knowledge regarding the principles and ethics of one's social context.

1.1.1 Tourism sector

The viability of the tourism sector relies upon the establishment of comprehensive cooperation among all interconnected sectors. A positive interaction among providers of tourism facilities enables the delivery of a progressive experience to tourists. According to Camilleri (2018), the concept of tourism may be broken down into four fundamental components: transportation facilities, lodging facilities, ancillary facilities, and distribution and sales. The Tourism Satellite Account (TSA) was developed to categorise tourism sector consisting of many sectors according to international norms. Table 1.1 presents description of different industries of tourism by United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO)

Table 1.1: Description of Different Industries of Tourism by UNWTO

Accommodation and Housing • Hotels and equivalent to hotel accommodation • Hostels for the youth • Grounds for camping, leisure and caravan parks • Centres for holidaying and villages • Other accommodations for holidaying • Other accommodation • Other allowing and functioning of real estate owned personally or on lease • Managing a real estate on an agreement basis or by a fee
Restaurants and alike • Restaurants having a license • Cafes and restaurants without a license • Food outlets for takeaway facility and moving food van • Other services catering to food • Catering undertakings at events • Clubs have a license • Public bars and houses
Railway transportation • Passenger movement by train, intercity movement
Roadway transportation • Movement by taxi • Movement by other means of roadways
Airway transportation • Air movement of scheduled travellers • Air movement of non-scheduled travellers

Table 1.1: (Continued) Description of Different Industries of Tourism by UNWTO

Waterway transportation • Coastal and sea traveller movement by water • Inland traveller movement by water
Equipment of transportation on rent • Light vehicles and car on lease and rent • Equipment for water transportation on lease and rent • Equipment for air transportation on lease and rent
Tour, travel, and guide facilities • Activities of travel agencies • Activities of tour operatives • Tour guides activities • Activities of other bodies of reservation
Cultural happenings • Arts performances • Activities supporting the art performances • Creation of arts • Actions facilities of arts • Activities of museums • Zoological and botanical gardens and activities of reserves of nature • Functioning of sites and buildings of historical interest and equivalent tourist attractions
Sports and activities of recreation • Activities of betting and gambling • Functioning of facilities of sports • Other activities of sports • Activities of theme-based parks and amusement parks • Other activities of recreation and amusement • Goods of sports and recreation taking on lease or rent
Characteristic events of tourism specific to countries • Actions of fair and exhibition organisers • Actions of organizers of conferences • Permitting and functioning of exhibition and conference centres

Source: Fletcher et al., 2018

1.1.2 Tourism Overview of Türkiye

According to the data presented in Table 1.2, it is evident that Türkiye has had a consistent upward trend in foreign visitor arrivals during the course of the previous 15-year period. Over the past fourteen years, a significant number of individuals, over 30 million annually, have opted to allocate their vacation time to visit Türkiye, with the exception of the period affected by the global pandemic.

Table 1.2: The Number of International Tourists Visiting Türkiye and Tourism Revenue Generated

Year	Number of Incoming Tourists	Revenue from Tourism (x1000\$)	Spending Per Person in Average (\$)
2003	16,463,623	13,854,866	850
2004	20,753,734	17,076,607	843
2005	25,045,142	20,322,111	842
2006	23,924,023	18,593,951	803
2007	27,239,630	20,942,500	770
2008	31,137,774	25,415,067	820
2009	31,759,816	25,064,482	783
2010	32,997,308	24,930,997	755
2011	36,769,039	28,115,692	778
2012	37,715,225	29,007,003	795
2013	39,860,771	32,308,991	824
2014	41,627,246	34,305,903	828
2015	41,114,069	31,464,777	756
2016	30,906,680	22,107,440	705
2017	37,969,824	26,283,656	681
2018	46,112,592	29,512,926	647
2019	51,747,199	34,520,332	666
2020	15,971,201	12,059,320	762
2021	30,038,961	24,482,332	834
2022	51,387,513	46,284,907	901

Source: Ministry of Culture and Tourism of Türkiye (2022); TUIK (2022).

Prior to the onset of the epidemic, Türkiye held the position of being the sixth most visited nation globally in terms of tourist arrivals. There exist numerous motivations

for undertaking trip to Türkiye, since the country offers diverse avenues for tourism beyond the conventional sun, sand, and sea experiences. Türkiye offers various forms of tourism, including rural tourism, farm tourism, agro-tourism, gastronomy tourism, cultural tourism, sports tourism, health tourism, religious tourism, cave tourism, and winter tourism (Öztürk & Yazıcıoğlu, 2002). Additionally, visitors may participate in activities such as visiting friends and relatives, pursuing religious and spiritual purposes, and engaging in shopping (Egresi, Bayram, Kara, & Kesik, 2012). The complete utilisation and implementation of tourist diversification in the Turkish tourism sector, which possesses an extensive variety of cultural, historical, and natural resources, remains unrealized (Karadağ, 2021). Movements in the public and private sectors must be linked in this framework. It is important to foster motivation among tourism stakeholders in order to promote collaboration and synergy. The safeguarding of diverse tourism commodities necessitates a comprehensive examination and endorsement of the needs of both current and prospective tourists, as well as the implementation of pertinent marketing strategies (İkiz, 2021).

The implications of these findings hold importance for various stakeholders involved in the tourism sector, including economic analysts, sales and marketing professionals, lodging establishments, tour operators, entertainment and recreational organisations, medical and health enterprises, healthcare clinics, retail establishments, and others. The aforementioned classifications could be used broadly to construct future tourism strategies and plans (İkiz, 2021). Türkiye is commonly visited by tourists for many purposes such as mass tourism, shopping, cultural tourism, and medical reasons (Buse & Unluonen, 2020). The inclusion of regional products within a country's tourism resources is of paramount importance, as it plays a vital role in the overall development and sustainability of the tourism sector. Currently, countries aspiring to engage in the tourist sector strive to differentiate themselves by incorporating distinctive features that distinguish them from other geographical areas (Ursache, 2015). It is imperative for nations to actively endorse their regional products, as these items possess a unique level of difficulty to replicate owing to the

profound cultural impacts they have acquired over centuries. According to Sims (2009), regional products play a crucial role in providing travellers with memorable experiences in the context of tourism operations.

Türkiye possesses a modest culinary tradition. The culinary traditions of the Ottoman and Seljuk periods in Türkiye were characterised by an array of captivating tastes. Turkish cuisine has become more and more popular worldwide in recent years, combining a variety of flavours (Sahin, 2017). The importance of local goods is clear in tourism, since one-third of visitor expenditures go towards food and drink (Mak, Lumbers, & Eves, 2012). A total of 386 units of regional indicator goods have been officially registered in Türkiye. The category of food is highly favoured among registered products. Handicrafts are positioned in the second place, with agricultural products subsequently following suit. Food makes up 59.84% (231) of the registered commodities, followed by handicrafts at 17.62% (68), agriculture at 16.58% (64), industries at 2.33% (9), mines at 2.07% (8), animals at 1.29% (5), and others at 0.02% (1) (Köşker & Kurtulay, 2021).

1.1.3 Effect of COVID-19 on Türkiye's Tourism Sector

Over the course of the last twenty years, a number of diseases originating from Central America, Central Africa, and Central Asia have had detrimental effects on the international reputation of several countries that are popular tourist destinations (Günay, Bayraktaroğlu, & Özkul, 2020). One example of such a disease is Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS), which emerged in 2003 after claiming lives among patients in the southern Chinese province of Guangdong in 2002. Another infectious disease that has emerged was the H5N1 avian influenza outbreak, commonly referred to as bird flu. The initial impact of the outbreak was observed among individuals residing in the special administrative region of Hong Kong and China in 1997, and it subsequently gained global recognition in 2004 (McAleer, Huang, Kuo, Chen, & Chang, 2010). The Ebola virus disease (Ebola) outbreak, which was first identified in the Democratic Republic of the Congo in 1976 but only came

to the attention of the world in 2014 (Sifolo & Sifolo, 2015), and the H1N1 swine flu outbreak, which became recognised internationally in 2009 (Haque & Haque, 2018), are two examples of widespread outbreaks with Mexican origins. On December 31, 2019, cases of pneumonia with an unidentified source were reported at the World Health Organisation (WHO) office in China (Tufan & Kayaaslan, 2020). Instances of individuals being infected with a novel coronavirus (Covid-19) have been observed in such cases.

Since the onset of the 21st century, there has been a notable impact on global tourism due to the occurrence of epidemic outbreaks, including but not limited to Avian Flu, SARS, influenza, Ebola, and MERS. However, previous epidemic outbreaks have not resulted in a significant and prolonged decline in worldwide tourism activities in comparison to the current COVID-19 pandemic (Gössling et al., 2020). The outbreak of COVID-19 became a global public health concern, with the number of verified cases steadily increasing (Lau et al., 2020). The global dissemination of the COVID-19 infection occurred swiftly within a condensed timeframe (Şencan & Kuzi, 2020). Individual infections and the consequent mortality caused by COVID-19 increased dramatically (Soofi, Najafi, & Karami-Matin, 2020). As a result, the WHO declared the COVID-19 disease a pandemic on March 11 (Adedoyin, O. B., & Soykan, E., 2020). Pandemic infections could result in severe fiscal shocks over a short period and damage economic growth over a long period (Cetin & Kara, 2020). The rapid spread of COVID-19 is the most significant distinction when compared to other disorders. COVID-19 usually spreads through proximity, sneezes, and coughs (Nussbaumer-Streit B & Gartlehner, 2020). Numerous precautions have been adopted by countries due to the high incidence of viral spread among individuals. Flight bans to specific countries were significantly increased to cancel all flights and prohibit the arrival of foreign citizens. In addition, a 14-day quarantine period and observation of those arriving from high-risk countries were the other procedures that were adopted.

These are a few of the preventive steps taken by countries (Demirbilek, Pehlivanürk, Özgüler, & Meşe, 2020). In conjunction with these precautions, quarantining the location was one of the substantial acts (Altuntaş & Gök, 2021).

The tourism sector is highly vulnerable to adverse circumstances, including armed conflicts, acts of terrorism, natural disasters, and similar occurrences. Normally, one might use objective methodologies to estimate tourism demand; but, the impact of the coronavirus outbreak on all aspects of the economic cycle changed the game (Günay et al., 2020). Another significant factor that negatively impacted the tourism sector was its reliance on individuals' mobility. There was a sense of expectation that once the pandemic was eradicated, there would be worldwide changes in people's attitudes and behaviours.

According to Ilgaz, Dünder, Silik, and Atalay Oral (2021), the preventive measures were implemented with the intention of minimising human mobility and mitigating the transmission of the pandemic. The restriction of tourists' movement had a substantial impact on the tourism sector, as well as various other sectors. The likelihood of prolonged stagnation and capital depletion in the commercial aviation and tourism industries has led to undesirable economic and social consequences, including unemployment and business closures (Polat, Erdoğan, & Sesliokuyucu, 2021).

In 2019, the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) reported that the worldwide tourism sector witnessed the arrival of over 1.4 billion people, resulting in a substantial income of \$1.7 trillion. According to UNWTO (2020a), the global tourism sector had a significant fall of 74% in 2020, resulting in an expected loss of US\$1.3 trillion in international tourism earnings. The adverse impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the worldwide financial system has been significant, resulting in widespread fear, concern, and the implementation of lockdown measures (Koçak, Doğru, Shehzad, & Bulut, 2022). The tourism and travel industries have been significantly impacted by adverse effects, making them among

the most affected sectors in the global economy (Foo, Chin, Tan, & Phuah, 2021; Gössling, Scott, & Hall, 2020; Zenker & Kock, 2020; Zheng, Luo, & Ritchie, 2021). Various sectors within the travel and tourism sector, including international and domestic travel, day trips, air travel, cruise ships, restaurants, public transportation, and accommodation, saw significant impacts as a result of restrictions imposed at the national, international, and local levels. As a result, the COVID-19 pandemic has affected both the demand and supply for travel, causing a 60–70% reduction in sector output for the travel and tourism sector worldwide (Liew, 2020; Uğur & Akbıyık, 2020). Based on the latest data, it is evident that a significant number of professionals, around 75 million, encountered potential risks within the tourism and travel sectors. Furthermore, it has been observed that on a daily basis, approximately 1 million individuals within these industries are experiencing job layoffs (WTTC 2020). Amidst the prevailing uncertainty, it was unfeasible to disentangle the adverse impacts of the pandemic from the realms of tourism and travel.

According to the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO, 2021), there was a significant decline in foreign tourist arrivals in 2020, with a reduction of 73 percent. This downward trend persisted into the beginning of 2021, with a further decrease of 85 percent. The aviation sector has constantly played a crucial role in bolstering tourism and the economy, especially in the periods preceding, during, and subsequent to the pandemic.

Airline passenger travel and airport traffic were greatly impacted by the COVID-19 epidemic in 2020. In addition to financial and operational consequences, border closures, travel restrictions, isolation orders, and a decline in air travel because of concerns about getting an infection at airports and on flights had an impact on employee and passenger safety and health (Deveci, Çiftçi, Akyurt, & Gonzalez, 2022). Tourism market conditions were significantly impacted by COVID-19, which prohibited visitors from visiting foreign countries, including domestic destinations.

The event sector holds an important place within the sectors of hospitality and tourism, as it contributes to the augmentation of visitors' expenditures, thereby generating financial resources and employment prospects within this sector. The COVID-19 pandemic has been an unforeseen calamity that led to the downfall of the event sector (Zakirai et al., 2022). In the year 2019, Türkiye generated a total revenue of \$34.5 billion from its tourism sector, which was facilitated by the arrival of around 51.7 million visitors. In the year 2020, Türkiye experienced a significant influx of visitors, amounting to around 15.9 million individuals, amidst the ongoing pandemic. This surge in tourism resulted in a substantial revenue of \$12.1 billion for the country. According to Uğurlu, Akay, and Demirel (2022), there was a significant decline in the number of travellers, with a reduction of 70%, as well as a substantial loss in tourism income, which experienced a decline of 65%, during the pandemic era. In March 2020, there was a 53% decrease in the volume of travellers in Türkiye compared to the corresponding period in the previous year. According to Ilgaz et al. (2021), it is expected that a reduction in the mobility of travellers will have a substantial adverse effect on individuals and result in a shift in tourism demand.

The tourism sector in Türkiye experienced a promising start in 2020, as evidenced by a 9.6% increase in visitor numbers during the initial two months, resulting in a total of 3.5 million tourists. In 2019, Türkiye received a total of 51.7 million tourists, encompassing both international visitors and Turkish people residing abroad. In 2020, there was a significant decline of 74% in the volume of tourists visiting Türkiye in comparison to the preceding year of 2019.

According to the Ministry of Culture and Tourism of Türkiye (2022), the most prominent group of tourists who visited Türkiye consisted of Russians, followed by Germans, Bulgarians, United Kingdom, and individuals from Ukraine. Table 1.3 presents the numerical data pertaining to the influx of international tourists and the dynamic shifts observed in the four prominent tourism destinations within the country of Türkiye.

Table 1.3: Comparison of Overseas Tourists by Destinations

Provinces	Years			Changes in rates (%)
	2018	2019	2020	2020/2019
Antalya	12 438 822	14 650 481	3 256 568	-77,7
Istanbul	13 432 990	14 906 663	5 001 981	-66,4
Izmir	946 447	1 223 118	297 232	-75,7
Muğla	2 723 815	3 221 738	670 013	-79,2

Source: Ministry of Culture and Tourism of Türkiye 2022

Istanbul serves as the cultural centre of Türkiye, including an extensive mosaic of economic, historical, artistic, culinary, and touristic heritage. Antalya's tourism sector is known for its offerings of sun, sea, and sand, while Muğla serves as an attractive destination for tourists. Additionally, Izmir is recognised as a historical and cultural hub for tourism (Karaman & Sayın, 2021). The locations mentioned are presented in Table 1.3, wherein a decline in tourist numbers may be noted in the year 2020 in comparison to preceding years.

In line with other countries, Türkiye has undertaken stringent quarantine measures nationwide in order to mitigate the rapid transmission of the pandemic (Özdemir & Yıldız, 2020). The onset of the outbreak in Türkiye was observed on March 11, 2020, with the identification of the first fatality occurring seven days later. Within a span of 31 days following the onset of the outbreak, a total of over 1,000 fatalities and about 53,000 cases have been reported. According to Özdemir and Yıldız (2020), Türkiye exhibited an incidence and mortality rate of 2.11%, indicating that 2.11% of the diagnosed cases led to fatalities. Due to the escalation in the prevalence of illnesses, the Turkish government has enacted a range of travel restrictions. Türkiye implemented the closure of its border crossings and imposed restrictions on air travel originating from a total of sixty-eight nations, encompassing European countries as well. Additionally, in order to prevent the spread of illnesses among

people, many recreational and entertainment activities such as attending theatres, cinema halls, show houses, music halls, adventure parks, Turkish baths, swimming pools, saunas, hot sauna baths, spas, massage halls, and sporting facilities were temporarily halted (Özdemir & Yıldız, 2020). According to Özdemir and Yıldız (2020), the entry of individuals into Türkiye was temporarily halted for a period of fifteen days. Due to its alarming statistics, Türkiye necessitated the implementation of additional preventive measures. As of April 9, 2021, the country had the second highest number of fatalities globally, with 55,791 newly reported infections. Furthermore, during the third wave of the pandemic, only 9 percent of the total population had received the recommended vaccination (Şenvar & Çağın, 2022). When analysing the population sizes of different countries, it was observed that Türkiye had the largest number of newly reported COVID-19 infections when considering the occurrence rate per million individuals. The onset of the fifth phase occurred in select European nations during the autumn of 2021, coinciding with the persistence of the fourth phase. During this wave, there was a significant increase in newly reported cases, prompting European nations to enhance their measures for pandemic containment.

As of November 13, 2021, the vaccination coverage among the Turkish population stood at 59.1 percent. While this represents a significant increase, it falls considerably short of the targeted threshold of 80 percent and remains notably lower than the rates observed in European countries (67.3 percent) and the United Kingdom (68.6 percent). Consequently, Türkiye was possibly susceptible to the occurrence of the fifth and sixth waves. From April 2021 to November 2021, there was a notable reduction in the incidence of new COVID-19 infections. However, it was necessary to uphold measures of social isolation and stringent precautions throughout the colder months to avert the possibility of a comeback in fresh cases (Şenvar & Çağın, 2022).

In response to the anticipated threat of the pandemic in the spring of 2021, a number of countries implemented measures to restrict travel to Türkiye, aiming to protect their citizens from the transmission of the Covid-19 virus. As a result, Turkish Airlines experienced a decrease in passenger volume, while Turkish airports operated with reduced aircraft and travellers. Consequently, this led to financial losses due to a reduction in revenues and the persistence of fixed expenses. The virus's impact on tourism activities was substantial; nevertheless, the commencement of vaccination research and subsequent mass vaccinations have instilled hope in various nations, including Türkiye, regarding the potential resumption of tourism operations. During the COVID-19 epidemic, various sectors of the tourism sector, such as restaurants, hotels, souvenir stores, tour operators, and travel brokers, incurred significant financial burdens (Uğurlu et al., 2022). The hospitality sector, which falls under the broader tourism sector, has seen significant challenges as a result of the pandemic-induced lockdowns and limitations. The suspension of the hospitality sector was a consequence of tourists being unable to reach their intended locations as a result of flight and hotel room cancellations (Karaman & Sayın, 2021). The decrease in hotel occupancy rates during the pandemic resulted in a decline in revenue generated from many sources like as restaurant bookings, meetings and events, and wedding events (Demir, Demir, Dalgıç, & Ergen, 2021). Following this, the relevant authorities took action to enhance the safety measures for tourists and alleviate their anxieties, with the aim of attracting a larger number of visitors to their hotels (Karaman & Sayın, 2021).

In the hotel sector, the interaction between a customer and an employee is crucial. In order to mitigate the risks and mitigate the transmission of illnesses amidst the ongoing pandemic, hotels have implemented stringent measures to enforce social distancing protocols among visitors as well as between personnel and guests. Notably, several hotels have even adopted the use of robotic technology to facilitate human interactions (Zeng, Chen, & Lew, 2020).

The implementation of the "Safe Tourism Certification Programme" was a collaborative effort between the Turkish Ministry of Culture and Tourism, the Transport Ministry, the Health Ministry, the Foreign Ministry, the Internal Affairs Ministry, and the Associations of Tourism Agencies (Karaman & Sayın, 2021). The programme encompasses a total of 166 criteria that have been established by 18 globally recognised assessment agencies. Hotels possessing an accommodation capacity over 50 rooms were mandated to obtain a safe tourism certificate. However, starting of January 1, 2021, this need was extended to hotels featuring more than 30 rooms. According to a report released by the Tourism Promotion Development Agency of Türkiye on November 24, 2020, a total of 373 hotels in Antalya and 374 hotels in Istanbul, comprising a combined number of 1975 accommodation facilities, have been deemed eligible to obtain a safe tourism certificate (Karaman and Sayın 2021). According to the Turkish Tourism Authority (TGA 2022), as of October 27, 2022, the total count of hotels that have obtained a safe tourism accreditation in Türkiye stands at 4,460. During the pandemic, several multinational hotels, including Marriott International, Hilton, Intercontinental, Kempinski, and Wyndham, adopted a range of initiatives and innovative measures in Türkiye (Karaman & Sayın, 2021).

During the challenging period of the COVID-19 pandemic in Türkiye, hotel managers experienced significant levels of anxiety and panic, resulting in inadequate impacts on both their commercial operations and personal social interactions. Hotel managers faced economic challenges that had a detrimental impact on their well-being. The COVID-19 pandemic had a significant impact on many multinational hotel chains, leading to the suspension of operations for numerous Turkish hotels, which relied on their equity as a means of sustaining their existence (Demir et al., 2021).

Hotel managers faced various problems, including the need to establish connections with tour organisers, engage in effective communication with the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, and engage in negotiations with banks. These challenges ultimately led to an increased tax burden for hotel managers (Demir et al., 2021).

The tourism sector, which encompasses many establishments including restaurants, came to a halt during the pandemic. Restaurants encountered significant challenges within the epidemic, as customers expressed concerns regarding food safety protocols and adherence to social distancing measures within communal dining establishments. Pekerşen, Kanca, and Sezen (2022) have identified that a number of modifications were implemented within the restaurant sector throughout the pandemic with the aim of enhancing the level of service provided. According to Sigala (2020), the COVID-19 pandemic has led prospective travellers to shift their interests towards alternative forms of tourism, including online leisure activities, digital tourism, virtual events, virtual parties, and virtual visits to food festivals.

1.1.4 Effects of War between Russia and Ukraine on Turkish Tourism

The provision of security is widely recognised as a fundamental requirement for individuals across the globe. Based on established human criteria, security is considered a fundamental human requirement subsequent to the establishment of an appropriate environment for survival (Maslow, 1943). Currently, the tourism sector is under a growing influence and regulation from security considerations. Tourists consider various factors while making travel decisions, including the security measures in place at the chosen destination, the geopolitical stability of the destination country or region, the accessibility and safety of the route leading to the destination, as well as the reliability and safety of the chosen mode of transportation. The presence of security concerns is to be expected in light of the recent criminal activity history. The absence of uniqueness in tourism safety might be attributed to the inherent danger associated with travel, as highlighted by Sass (2020). In light of the increasing prevalence of armed conflicts, political disputes, civil unrest, and territorial disputes, the imperative to consistently seek resolutions has become particularly pronounced in both developed and developing nations. The rapid dissemination of news across diverse communication channels often elicits feelings of panic, tension, and anxiety among both the wider community and the local

population (Sass, 2020). Gaydukevich (2017) posits that these tragedies have a profound impact on the economics of the affected nations as well as the worldwide tourism sector.

Despite the adverse impact of the COVID-19 epidemic on tourism profits, there has been a notable resurgence in the influx of tourists from Russia, with the overall number reaching 4.7 million in the year 2021. Russian tourists visiting Türkiye constituted approximately 15% of the total number of international visitors (T. Güney et al. 2022).

In contrast, when other nations refused to let the arrival of Aeroflot planes, Türkiye maintained the openness of its airspace for carriers originating from the Russian states. The government of Türkiye engaged in a collaborative effort with a consortium of private business entities to develop a novel and unique airline called 'South Wind' in the city of Antalya. The primary objective of this initiative was to facilitate the transportation of Russian visitors to various beach resorts located in Türkiye (Anviacionline 2022). The ongoing conflict between Russia and Ukraine has had a significant impact on the tourism sector in Türkiye, given that Russian and Ukrainian tourists constitute the primary demographic of visitors to the country. The influx of tourists in Türkiye is expected to be impacted by various factors in 2022, including the recent incident, the state of the war economy, and the awaiting approvals. The Turkish economy's stability is expected to be negatively impacted by the escalation of import expenditures and the decline in revenue generated from tourism and exports.

The Turkish tourism sector has been significantly impacted by many crises, with the COVID-19 pandemic being particularly noteworthy. Other significant challenges that have had an impact on the tourism sector in Türkiye include the Middle East Respiratory Syndrome (MERS), Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS), and the conflict between Russia and Ukraine. During the pandemic, there was a significant decline in the number of tourists visiting Türkiye, which therefore led to a substantial decrease in revenue collection. Tourists who travelled to Türkiye

originated from nations that experienced the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic, and the quarantine measures implemented by these nations led to a decline in tourist arrivals. The conflict between Russia and Ukraine exacerbated the challenges faced by the tourism sector, which was already experiencing adverse effects as a result of the ongoing pandemic. Fears of fresh waves of the pandemic and the resulting panic among people contribute to stagnation in decision-making at both micro and macro levels. Despite the proposition of governmental assistance for the revitalization of the tourism sector in Türkiye, it is imperative to implement effective strategies that will facilitate the recovery from the prevailing instability and restore the sector to its former state of prominence.



CHAPTER 2

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Scientific evidence of the distribution and determinants of the COVID-19 outbreak points to an association with a seafood market in Wuhan, China (Lock, 2020), where the first case was reported on December 12, 2019. However, by the end of January 2020, the virus had spread from animals to humans across countries globally due to the virus's higher propensity to spread among the human population (Gautam & Hens, 2020; Gautam & Trivedi, 2020). With the rapidly increasing number of COVID-19 infections and deaths, governments have imposed travel restrictions and border closures, both internally and externally, to contain the further spread of the virus across the countries. Owing to the global spread of the COVID-19 pandemic, the tourism business has been declared one of the hardest-hit sectors, with impacts on both aviation and hotel demands, by the World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) (Açıkgöz & Günay, 2020). The present study was carried out to understand the different management techniques to cope with the devastating effect of COVID-19 on the Turkish hospitality sector. The main argument of the present review of extant literature has been developed in the various sections, where the first section focuses on the effects of disease outbreaks and the global tourism sector, followed by the second section, which discusses the outbreak of epidemics and pandemics, including COVID-19 and Turkish tourism businesses. The sections also cover different crisis management processes followed by the hospitality sector to sustain past world crises. The subsequent sections focus on the precautionary activities of the hospitality sector, contingency planning for their survival during hard times, actions taken during emergencies, and strategies taken for the post-crisis era to attain normalcy. At the end of this review, the research gaps in the present literature have been identified, and a conceptual framework for the present study has been constructed for further analysis.

2.1 The Relationship between World Crises and Their Disastrous Effect on the Hospitality Sector Worldwide

Several virus outbreaks with their origins in Asia, America and Africa have significantly affected non-recoverable sectors like tourism and hotels globally for the past 20 years. Virus outbreaks like severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS; 2002), avian flu (H5N1; 2003), swine flu (H1N1; 2009), and the Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus (MERS-Cov; 2012) have a massive and significant impact on global tourism trends and economic alternative costs.

The analysis of the tourism sector is significant in the COVID-19 pandemic crisis. The tourism sector is a critical sector that needs prolonged restoration. The earlier outbreaks of SARS in March 2003 and H5N1 in December 2003 created panic throughout the world due to their human-to-human transmission through close contact (McAleer et al., 2010). The earlier SARS outbreak was transmitted across 27 countries, with the majority of cases in China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Canada, Singapore and Vietnam (World Health Organisation, 2019). H5N1, which originated in East and Southeast Asia, spread across diverse countries, with the majority (87.46%) of the human cases reported in Asian countries like Indonesia (102), Vietnam (95), Thailand (25), China (25), and Türkiye (12) (McAleer et al., 2010a). Similarly, the pandemic outbreak of H1N1 in 2009 and the epidemic outbreak of MERS-CoV in June 2012 significantly damaged the tourism sector and economy. H1N1 was transmitted across 74 countries, with the majority of the cases reported in the USA, Mexico, and Canada (Monterrubio, 2010), while the epidemic outbreak of MERS-Cov in June 2012 was transmitted across 27 countries, with the majority of the cases reported in the Middle East countries (Saudi Arabia, the Republic of Korea, the United Arab Emirates, and Jordan), followed by Europe, Asia, and the United States (World Health Organisation, 2019). Page et al. (2012) also highlighted that the H1N1 pandemic significantly affected the inbound tourism demand in the United Kingdom, especially from countries like Russia, Spain, Mainland China, and South Korea. Studies regarding the effect of severe virus outbreaks on the global tourism

and hospitality industries have not been reported much; however, a list of select studies has been outlined in Table 2.1, which may be used as a base for future reference. The table is based on the relevant papers concerning tourism and hospitality in light of the health crises that impacted the tourism and hospitality sectors immensely.

Dombey (2004) highlighted the changes brought about by the SARS outbreak in Chinese hotels, which included increased hygiene practices, screening of temperature examinations, physical distancing, and minimising spitting habits in the surroundings. Pine & McKercher (2004) reported that the effects of the earlier SARS outbreak on the hospitality sector in Hong Kong were so adverse that hotel personnel were given annual leaves while staff employed on a contractor basis were terminated, and banks were approached for postponement of loan repayments to pay for the salaries of the staff. Au et al. (2004) stressed that the effect of SARS on tourism in Hong Kong was more damaging than the Asian Financial Crisis in 1997. Similarly, Zeng et al. (2008) highlighted SARS as a short-term crisis with a significant impact on the Chinese tourism trend. Besides, Page et al. (2012) pointed out that the avian flu would cause severe shocks to tourism and a much deeper crisis of confidence regarding travel than infectious illnesses such as SARS. By using a research framework based on the econometric method, this study evaluated the impacts of another simultaneous crisis stimulated by a global economic emergency along with the swine flu. The empirical study showed the largest recorded decline in tourists' arrivals in the UK from the United States, Ireland, Germany, and Spain. Chen et al. (2007) reported that hotel stocks in Taiwan were severely impacted due to the SARS outbreak, which led to a serious crisis in Taiwanese hotel businesses and also raised concerns about future outbreaks. The study indicated the uptake of possible solutions, like the alleviation of panic and confidence-building measures, among the stakeholders. However, La Rosa and Bernini (2018) showed that the financial crisis did not affect the financial performance of small and medium-sized gambling firms significantly.

Kuo et al. (2008) found that epidemic outbreaks affect the tourism sector differently. The findings of their study on SARS and the widespread H5N1 infection indicated that SARS had a relatively higher effect on tourist demand in the most infected Asian countries (China, Hong Kong, Singapore, and Taiwan). On the contrary, the damage levels caused by H5N1 were relatively higher and more prevalent in Hong Kong and Singapore compared to Taiwan and China, which indicates that the crisis management measures adopted by the respective governments may result in different levels of damage.

Previous studies on the impacts of epidemic and pandemic outbreaks must be extended, however, to account for new trends and features of the COVID-19 pandemic. Malhotra and Venkatesh (2009) compared the alertness for the SARS outbreak between Hong Kong and Thailand, where the investigators noted a better readiness of the former country to contain the virus. Rosselló et al. (2017) examined the impact of various disease outbreaks like Ebola, Dengue, Yellow fever and Malaria on the tourism sector in affected countries. They used the gravity model to estimate the impact of each infectious disease on international tourist flow. The study postulated that the potential eradication of these diseases would increase the tourist population worldwide (10 million tourists) in the affected countries and therefore would witness a rise in tourism expenditure. Such studies showed how tourism is affected by infectious diseases. On a similar note, Haque and Haque (2018) reported a 15% decline in the arrival of tourists in Brunei between June 2009 and May 2010, post-H1N1 outbreak, as well as the post-global economic crisis period, by using forecasting-based analysis such as ARIMA and ITSA methods. Therefore, the study revealed that uncertainties caused by the H1N1 outbreak and global financial crisis create doubts in the minds of tourists, and misunderstandings related to the situation in the event of an outbreak may hinder the tourist's ability to make travel decisions (Alonso-Sardón et al., 2019). Küçükaltan et al. (2015) indicated that there was a small fluctuation in the number of tourists coming to the USA when the H1N1 crisis occurred in 2010–2011, but the crisis was overcome quickly with minimal damage

as measures were taken promptly. Since the hotels in the USA had suffered a lot from the crises in the past, the H1N1 crisis was taken very seriously, and the American Hotel and Lodging Association (AHMA) issued the H1N1 Crisis Management Guide and distributed it to all hotels in the USA to give information on how to diminish the effects of the crisis.

In another recent study by Nian et al. (2019), a dynamic stochastic general equilibrium (DSGE) framework was developed to analyse the effect of the COVID-19 pandemic on the tourism business, and a declining trend in tourism was observed with an increased health risk. Sigala (2020) also discussed the various impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic situation on tourist demand, tourism operators, and policies. Tourists have experienced significant disruptions and risks associated with health while travelling during the COVID-19 pandemic. This modified the travel attitude, intention, and future behaviours. Alternatively, this can be called travel trauma induced by the experience of one's own or a loved one's travel during emergencies. Moreover, lockdowns make people more accustomed to the use of virtual platforms for buying regular items, ordering food, and availing of entertainment. Additionally, studies have shown the significant impact of COVID-19 on tourism employment. Tourism students and graduates experienced a sudden halt in internship opportunities and recruitment of employees and encountered a questionable career path. Simultaneously, the institutes and universities offering courses in tourism and hospitality receive less government funding and experience a reduction in student intake. Studies have also been carried out to understand the perceptions of hosts in peer-to-peer hospitality sectors such as Airbnb, Booking.com, etc. Farmaki et al. (2020) conducted empirical research on the perceived short-term and long-term effects of COVID-19 in the peer-to-peer (P2P) hospitality sector. In this sector, hosts have also been observed to experience losses similar to those of mainstream hospitality providers. The hosts experienced losses in revenue as well as cancellations of future booking requests. Besides, some hosts decided to leave the business in the hospitality sector and recover their earnings through long-term renting.

Therefore, it is clear that the impact of COVID-19 is not similar to that experienced during previous outbreaks (SARS, H1N1), and thus new empirical frameworks for the assessment of pandemic effects must be considered. SARS affected the integration of the stock market in Asian countries (Chen et al., 2018), and a similar effect has been observed during the COVID-19 pandemic (Gil-Alana & Claudio-Quiroga, 2020). It also demanded increased hygiene measures in a restricted manner, but COVID-19 seems to demand stricter actions (Kostoff, 2011; Škare et al., 2021).

Also, a crisis can boost the need for new ideas in businesses for their survival in post-pandemic times. In their model for business innovation, Breier et al. (2021) showed that crisis is the triggering factor. The enhancing factors are (1) the pressure of the crisis period for change, (2) the resources that were not being used during the lockdown, and (3) loyal customers who have emotional ties to the specific firms. This showed that, due to the impact of the crisis, the hospitality sector is reorganising itself with a new business model. A similar phenomenon is observed in the study of Sigala (2020), where the crisis has been identified as a trigger point to create a new business model for its survival.

The relevant studies reviewed are summarised in the table 2.1. They were searched through databases like Science Direct and Scopus. Only relevant studies published after the outbreak periods were included in the table.

Table 2.1: Summary of Studies' findings on the virus outbreaks and their significant impact on the global tourism sector

	Studies	Health crisis	Focus	Place	Methods	Findings
1	Dombey (2004)	SARS	Impact of SARS on the tourism sector		Not specified	The impact of SARS on Chinese tourism and hotel had more social and political aftermath than economic outcomes.
2	Pine and McKercher (2004)	SARS	Impact of SARS on the tourism sector	Hong Kong	Theoretical	Highlighted the fragile nature of the tourism sector. Observed a severe reduction in airline and hotel occupancies, which in turn, had implications on staff employment. Suggested the need for the adoption of coping behaviour by practitioners for unpredictable events.
3	Au et al. (2005)	SARS	Impact of SARS on the arrival of tourists	Hong Kong	Empirical	Documented the existence of unit roots in data series, indicating a permanent impact on the arrival of tourists and suggested the use of source country-specific responses to offset the effects.
4	Zeng et al. (2005)	SARS	Impact of SARS on tourism trend	China	Theoretical	The Chinese tourism sector faces tourism and planning challenges at the regional level due to a lack of resistance but high resilience to short-term SARS crises.
5	Kim et al. (2005)	SARS	Impact of SARS on the hospitality sector	South Korea	Secondary data and in-depth interviews with hotel managers	The severe impacts of SARS on the Korean hospitality sector led to the adoption of contingency measures like minimizing operating costs and providing health-related education programs to employees for crisis management.

Table 2.1: (Continued) Summary of Studies' findings on the virus outbreaks and their significant impact on the global tourism sector

	Studies	Health crisis	Focus	Place	Methods	Findings
6	Chen et al. (2007)	SARS	Impact of SARS on hotel stock price and returns	Taiwan	Event-study approach	Documented the highest decline in the hotel stock price and earnings compared to other sectors and suggested measures to recover from the effects.
7	Kuo et al. (2008)	SARS and H5NI	Impact of SARS and avian flu on the arrival of international tourists	Asian countries	Panel data analysis	Documented a relatively higher effect of SARS on tourists' arrival, but greater damage caused by avian flu than SARS. Precautions in the event of health-related crisis management are necessitated.
8	Malhotra and Venkatesh (2009)	Various health crisis	Preparedness for crisis management in the tourism and hospitality sector		Secondary data	Identified the lack of a pre-crisis program for health-related crisis management and developed a generic contingency model highlighting reduction and readiness as crucial stages for crisis management.
9	Mao et al. (2010)	SARS	Recovery patterns of inbound tourism after the SARS crisis	Taiwan	Cusp model and empirical verification	Factors important for recovery to a normal state include a prerequisite condition to restore and the hysteresis effect.
10	McAleer et al. (2010)	SARS and H5N1	Impact of SARS and avian flu on the arrival of international tourists	SARS: China, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Korea, Malaysia, Singapore, Taiwan, Thailand, Vietnam, Indonesia and Korea H5N1: China, Cambodia, Indonesia, Thailand, Turkey and Vietnam	Empirical	Relatively higher impact of SARS than H5N1 on the arrival of international tourists in both, the short and long run.

Table 2.1: (Continued) Summary of Studies' findings on the virus outbreaks and their significant impact on the global tourism sector

	Studies	Health crisis	Focus	Place	Methods	Findings
11	Page et al. (2012)	H1N1	Impact of swine flu on inbound tourism	United Kingdom	Econometric approach	Reduction in the arrival of visitors due to the swine flu outbreak, thus negatively impacting the UK tourism demand.
12	Shi and Li (2016)	MERS	Impact of MERS on inbound tourists' arrival	South Korea	Econometric approach	Documented a significant impact of MERS on inbound tourists' arrival and tour arrivals in the long-run and short-run dynamics.
13	Rossello et al. (2017)	Ebola, Dengue, Yellow fever and Malaria	Impact of these disease outbreaks on the tourism sector of the affected countries	Developed (114) and developing (94) countries	Econometric approach	The significant impact of these crises on the destination choice of tourists. The eradication of these diseases was associated with an increase of nearly 10 million tourist arrivals, globally and an increase in tourism expenditure by \$12 billion.
14	Haque and Haque (2018)	H1N1	Effect of H1N1 on tourism demand	Brunei	Econometric approach	Estimated a significant reduction (15%) in the arrival of tourists' post-H1N1 period.
15	Alonso et al. (2020)	Covid-19	Effect of the ongoing pandemic on hotel and tourism businesses	Argentina, Australia, Bolivia, Greece, Italy, Malaysia, Spain and the United Kingdom	Qualitative approach	A significant impact on the hotel and tourism business in terms of financial loss and climate of uncertainty. The study identified nine dimensions concerning crisis management strategies in response to the pandemic.
16	Nian et al. (2019)	Covid-19	Effect of the ongoing pandemic on tourism demand	Not specified	Dynamic stochastic general equilibrium (DSGE) model-based approach	The effect of the ongoing pandemic significantly decreases tourism demand with an increase in health risks.

2.2 Impact of World Crises on the Turkish Hospitality Sector

The COVID-19 pandemic may have a similar origin, but unlike former SARS and MERS outbreaks, the effects have been intense that are continuing in countries like the United States and Türkiye (Aydın & Ari, 2020). By using scenario analysis techniques, Günay et al. (2020) forecasted the short-term effect of COVID-19 on the tourism demand of foreign visitors in Türkiye. They estimated that foreign visitors' arrival may decline by a range of 5%-53% which will cause a revenue loss of \$15.2 billion approximately. In addition, studies have shown that the effects of the pandemic are expected to lengthen for months with a 39% decline in the global tourism sector which is expected to not recover from the COVID-19 pandemic crisis until 2023. According to World Bank data, Türkiye withstands the 19th position as the largest economy globally with a GDP of \$906 billion and a GDP per capita of \$10,661.2 (World Bank 2023). Among the service-based activities, the Turkish tourism sector is one of the driving sectors of the country's economy and contributes 8.3% of the GDP (WTTC, 2023). The Turkish tourism sector also contributes 8,4% of total employment (WTTC 2022). Effects of the pandemic on the tourism sector in Türkiye are unfolding to become adverse with the sector facing a higher employment crisis. Türkiye witnessed more than 51 million international tourists in 2019, thereby contributing to \$34.5 billion of tourism income and \$4.4 billion of tourism expenditure. Altogether, 51.7 million tourists visited Türkiye in 2019, out of which 22 million tourists were from the European Union including 5 million tourists from Germany (Çakmaklı et al., 2021).

In 2019, more than 50 million tourists visited Türkiye but with the COVID-19 pandemic, the number gradually declined to 15.9 million tourists in 2020 (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2022). Besides, the average proportion of tourists was 28% of the previous three-year average, even in the peak time of August 2020, as shown in Figure 2.2 (Çakmaklı et al., 2021). The income from international tourism in Türkiye decreased from \$34.5 billion in 2019 to \$12.06 billion in 2020, for a loss of

\$21.9 billion (TUIK 2021). With a significant improvement of \$6.494 million in the Turkish account deficit in 2019, there is expected to be a financial decline in 2020 because of the crisis in the tourism sector due to the pandemic (Açıkgöz & Günay (2020)). Koçak et al. (2022) investigated the situation in the tourism sector in Türkiye by exploring the publicly traded tourism companies on Borsa Istanbul, the largest stock exchange in Türkiye. The study showed the adverse effects of the pandemic on the tourism sector, and it is positively related to the COVID cases and deaths due to COVID-19. The global fear index, representing panic and fear in the economy, also influences the tourism sector adversely, which makes the sector more vulnerable.

The pandemic led to a loss in the number of visitors and tourism incomes in Türkiye. Compared to other countries, Turkish tourism is more prone to the effects of crises, as post-1980, the country's tourism sector underwent a series of crises due to disease outbreaks, economic and political crises, natural disasters, and terror crises among others. Another major challenge is that Europe, being the leading market for Turkish tourism, is significantly impacted by the present pandemic (Günay et al., 2020).

The first response to the pandemic crisis was to restrict transnational mobility. One of the most important preventive measures taken by Türkiye in the context of the pandemic is the cancellation of international flights. The majority of the inbound visitors to Türkiye came from Russia, Germany, England, Iran, and Bulgaria. Türkiye insisted on a travel ban to China unless indispensable (Aydın & Ari, 2020). On January 30, 2020, Turkish Airlines announced a reduction in the number of flights to Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, and Xian from February 5 to 29, 2020 (Günay et al., 2020). Following this, the cancellation of the flights was extended until February 9, 2020. Türkiye appeared to be the first country to impose restrictions on travel as a preventive strategy against the COVID-19 pandemic (Sahin, 2020). Additionally, Türkiye announced temporary restrictions on border crossings from Iran and Nakhichevan on February 23 due to the increasing number of cases in Iran (Alhas, 2020). On February 29, 2020, Turkish Airlines cancelled the flights (both inbound and outbound) to Italy due to the rapid spread of the infection in Italy.

Türkiye experienced the third (4.4 million) largest decline in the arrival of international travellers after Spain (10.8 million) and Thailand (7.3 million) from January to April 2020 (UNWTO, 2020c).

Zorlu et al. (2022) studied tourists' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards camping tourism in Türkiye during the time of the COVID-19 pandemic using the theory of planned behaviour. The study revealed that risk perception and risk aversion attitudes significantly enhance negative emotions among the visitors and therefore reduce camping intentions. Similarly, another survey from Antalya showed that the outbreak resulted in changing the behaviour and hygiene perception of domestic tourists in Türkiye (Ilgaz et al., 2021). However, tourists also chose places based on safety and cleanliness. Therefore, tourist places with reliable health systems and disinfection systems were mostly visited in Türkiye (Jafari et al., 2020). Also, the COVID-19 pandemic impacted the working professionals associated with the tourism sector in a significant manner. Persons in the position of kitchen managers in hotels and restaurants in different provinces of Türkiye mostly showed a pessimistic view of the reopening and revival of the tourism sector. Also, the working professionals showed insecurities on different issues, such as increasing unemployment, reducing job opportunities, and deteriorating the work environment (Bucak and Yiğit, 2021).

2.3 Crisis Management Techniques by Hospitality Sector Practised Globally

2.3.1 Precaution Activities and Forecasting Ability by Hospitality Sector

Crisis inevitably impacts the tourism and hospitality sectors, but basic preparedness and lessons learned from the earlier emergency period may help to overcome the crisis period. In counteraction to stressors from the environment, resilience can be protected by implementing pre-planning and forecasting of the crisis environment (Alonso et al., 2020). Although resilience formalisation may not guarantee a

complete recovery from disaster, it may help to cope with crises (Herbane, 2018). He et al. (2022) conducted a foresight approach to estimate the impact on hotel demand when public health emergencies take place. In the study, the impact of COVID-19 was analysed on hotel demand in Macao's hospitality sector. With the help of a training set, a validation set, and a test set, the gathered data were used to estimate the impact on hotel demand by using the proposed adaptive hybrid forecaster. The study showed that this forecasting approach accurately estimates the impact of COVID-19 on hotel demand. Moreover, the study suggested that the impact was heterogeneous for hotels with various star ratings. Five-star hotels are heavily impacted by such crises. However, five-star hotels recover faster. This shows the effect of forecasting the future demand for the hotels in case of emergencies.

On the other hand, organisational resilience is business preparedness, which helps provide predictive and adaptive algorithms to gain quick recovery from crises. Resilience in an organisation needs three key assets, which are the firm's resourcefulness, dynamic competitiveness, and finally, learning and culture. The resources of an organisation encompass tangible and intangible materials or capabilities, while dynamic competitiveness focuses on robustness, networking capabilities, and flexibility. The learning and culture of an organisation highlight the role of leadership, sense-making, collectiveness, and workers' well-being (Pal et al., 2014). Also, several studies have shown the importance of precautionary actions to resist upcoming disasters. Inkinen et al. (2021) interviewed the employees of hotels in California, USA, to understand whether any precaution helps them combat public health emergencies such as the COVID-19 pandemic. The study showed that contingency planning and the survival of the hotel after the disaster are positively and significantly related. Contingency plans incorporate the identification of disasters, a statement for contingency planning, and an understanding of the preventive controls for the planning. The study explained that a contingency plan should consider allocating adequate resources for times of hardship in unforeseen emergencies. It should be in written format and communicated before emergencies.

Also, the study recommended having one disaster recovery team that will be ready for the recovery of the organisation. Further, studies revealed a moderate level of preparedness is needed to create a certain level of resilience against a disaster.

Empirical research was carried out on the persons associated with the tourism sector in Jammu and Kashmir and Assam in India and who have experience in disaster management processes during flood conditions in 2014 in Kashmir and Assam in 2019. Interviews with these experienced persons revealed that programmes related to preparedness, awareness campaigns by social media, tourist destination-specific disaster management plans, and adequate communication strategies help to combat the sudden emergency in a better way (Gani et al., 2021). In Taiwan, similar interview-based research was carried out on hotel managers to understand their disaster prevention literacy. The study showed that the Taiwanese government provides disaster prevention training for hotel staff. Four key dimensions were addressed in the training: (1) disaster prevention attitude; (2) disaster prevention knowledge; (3) skills for disaster prevention; and (4) services provided for disaster prevention. The study showed that hotel employees with training performed better in disaster management. The study further identified a few important aspects of disaster prevention knowledge, such as broadcasting emergencies in multiple languages and putting warning signs all over the place in hotels. Moreover, the disaster prevention training teaches the hotel staff to be more active and get voluntarily engaged in disaster management. The hotel authorities should make preparations beforehand, such as organising sandbags and having knowledge of evacuation sites for the disaster. The staff should be aware of the arrangements. Additionally, hotel staff should keep in mind customer retention and satisfaction factors. Hospitality professionals should pay attention to the post-disaster refund procedure for customers and the customer compensation mechanism (Tsai et al., 2020). Besides, experience is very essential for basic preparedness for disasters. Earlier emergency experiences are valuable for developing strong adaptive qualities in new situations (Alonso et al., 2022). However, Alonso et al. (2022) also revealed that previous experience does not

always help the hotel authorities understand the unprecedented effect of COVID-19 on the hospitality sector. Still, earlier experiences helped them develop new skills and understanding to handle the crisis better.

For the successful management of a crisis, the perceived job security of hotel employees is also a major concern. The employees are the pillars based on which the hospitality sector runs through several hindrances during the crisis period. Filimonau et al. (2020) studied the perceived job security and organisational commitment of 244 senior hotel managers in Spain during the first wave of COVID-19 in 2020. The study quantitatively revealed that levels of organisational resilience and the practice of corporate social responsibility by hotel employees can strengthen the perceived job security of managers and therefore enhance organisational commitment. The practice of corporate social responsibility (CSR) teaches those associated with the hospitality sector the requirements of the workplace and how to take care of customers, employees, local people, and the environment. Additionally, CSR practice among employees helps in cost-saving and branding-related outcomes for the hospitality sector (Levy & Park, 2011). Therefore, by applying past practices to CSR, the organisational commitment of the hotel employees can be increased. On a similar note, Mao et al. (2020) studied tourism employees (n = 430) in China and showed that CSR learning has a positive impact on the psychological capital of the employees in terms of increasing their resilience, hope, self-efficacy, and optimism. This leads to employee satisfaction, which subsequently helps employees retain with the organisation and work confidently in a crisis period like the COVID-19 pandemic.

Different conceptual frameworks have been proposed for developing disaster resilience within the hospitality sector to combat unforeseen emergencies. Brown et al. (2018) provided a framework for resilience development based on a capital-based approach, as shown in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework for developing disaster resilience based on a capital-based approach



Source: Brown et al. (2018)

The capitals mentioned here are a set of potential resources encompassing economic, social, cultural, physical, natural, and human aspects. This framework provides a flexible and pragmatic way to deal with emergencies by developing organisational resilience.

Furthermore, new concepts for developing tourism resilience at different levels, such as macro-level, meso-level, and micro-level, have been suggested (Prayag, 2020). Earlier works separately focused on the different levels of their studies. Previous studies attempted to understand the determinants of tourism resilience at the macro-level, where the processes of attaining resilience were discussed in the tourism system, tourism destinations, and tourist-dependent communities (Bui et al., 2020; Cochrane, 2010; C. M. Hall et al., 2020). There are studies of disaster resilience at the meso-level, such as in tourism organisations, non-governmental organisations for tourism, and tourism networks (Fang et al., 2020; Jiang et al., 2019). However, adequate studies on micro-level disaster resilience are not present. Few studies focus on the development of resilience among tourists or persons involved in the tourism sector (Fountain & Craddock-Henry, 2020; Hall et al., 2018; Prayag et al., 2019).

Encompassing these three levels of the hospitality sector, Prayag (2020) proposed a new scheme of strategies for the tourism sector. Moreover, the study revealed that more future research is required to understand the interaction between these three levels, as shown in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2: The proposed research agenda for tourism resilience due to pandemics.

Macrolevel resilience	• Tourism system (components, structures, relationships, stability) • Tourism destinations (where and why) • Tourism dependent communities (vulnerability, diversification, sustainability)
Mesolevel resilience	• Tourism organizations (size and ownership) • Tourism non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and public institutions • Tourism networks and value chains (supply chain)
Microlevel resilience	• Tourism employees (where and why) • Tourists (impacts and opportunities, segments) • Residents (support and animosity) • Other tourism related temporary population (second-home owners, seasonal workers)

Source: Prayag (2020)

Technological advancements are also important in the crisis period. Klein and Todesco (2021) indicated that companies have started to adopt technological advances very fast as customers' behaviour changes.

Although various conceptual models and policies have been introduced, the actual practices followed by employees in the tourism and hospitality sectors need to be understood. AlBattat and MatSom (2014) interviewed the key persons involved in the Malaysian tourism and hospitality industries and studied their emergency planning. The purposeful snowball method was used for the data collection, where personal links were used to identify the knowledgeable people in the field. The study illustrated that most of the participants do not have emergency plans for the upcoming disaster. Some participants agreed to have emergency plans, but these

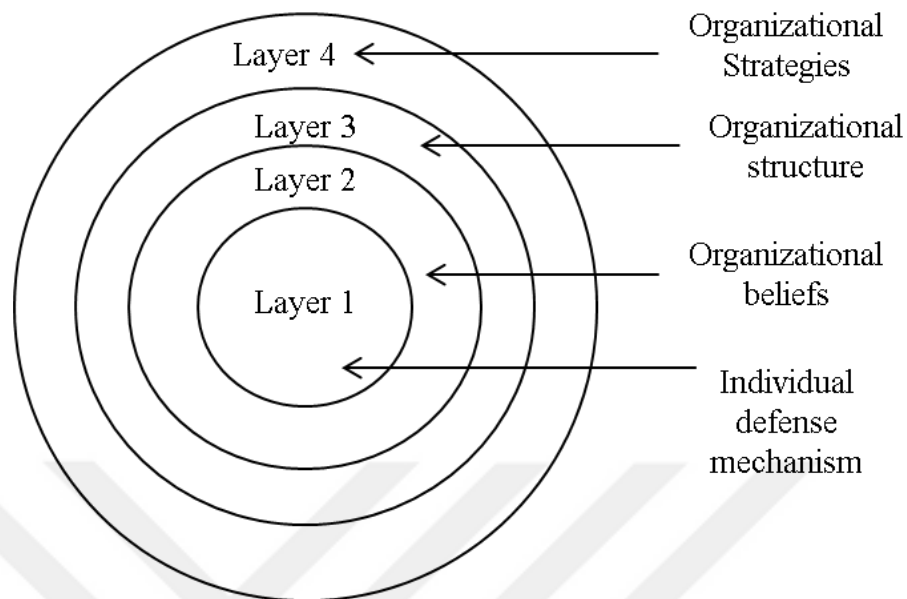
plans were merely general guidelines or fire and evacuation plans. Very few respondents had formal written plans for the organisation as pre-cautionary activities in disaster management. In the same way, small-scale resort tourism businesses in coastal Sabah also demonstrated low preparedness and resilience for the crisis. Interviews with the owners and managers of these firms disclosed that micro-sized resorts lack disaster prevention planning, especially compared to medium-sized resorts. The lack of proper crisis management practices and the lack of human resources are the major factors behind such situations. Moreover, the participants also mentioned the financial constraints behind their non-adoption of crisis preparedness (Fabeil et al., 2018). Therefore, the studies showed that emergency proactive planning is not effective enough to control such emergencies. Also, small and medium hospitality sectors cannot afford financially to have emergency plans to fight back against disasters.

2.4 Crisis Management Processes in Hospitality Sector

In the pre-crisis phase, the pre-requisite actions needed to be taken by the organisations, as mentioned previously, In the prodromal phase, the warning signs of an upcoming disaster are noticed, and subsequently, this phase is followed by the emergency phase. The emergency phase required significant strategic moves to safeguard people and properties. There are several strategies being used in the crisis period to control the situation. Several theoretical models have been introduced in research on crisis management.

Pergel et al. (2013) discussed the onion model of crisis management techniques, which Pauchant & Mitroff (1990) first presented. The onion model of crisis management has four key factors that determine the position of a company during a time of crisis (Fig. 2.3).

Figure 2.3: Onion model for crisis management

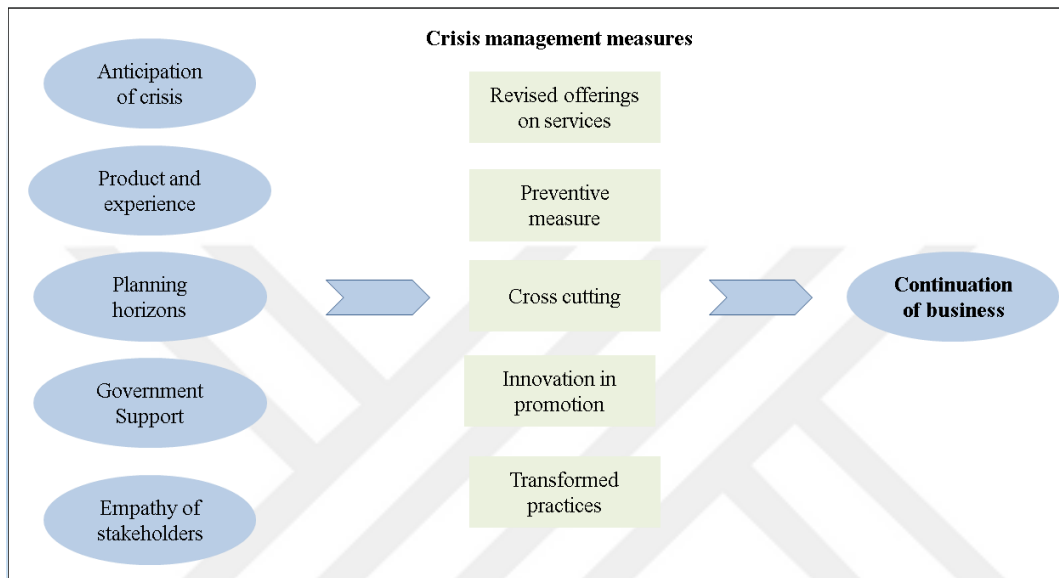


Source: Pergel et al, (2013)

It has four layers, and each layer is uncovered one after another. The outermost layer represents the crisis management strategies of organizations. The plans and strategies of the company to fight against crises belong to this layer. Underneath this layer, there is layer 3, which represents the infrastructural orientation of the organisation for managing during the crisis in terms of the rules and regulations inside the organisation. Both layers 3 and 4 are predetermined and clear for outsiders. However, layers 1 and 2 represent the core beliefs of the organisation or the individual who controls the organisation. These layers are hard to understand and are majorly overlooked by organisations in crisis management. Layer 2 represents the belief of the organisation, and Layer 1 represents the individual defence mechanism. Therefore, the study argues that the outermost three layers eventually must change the core beliefs of individuals (layer 1) of the organisation through an intense cognitive process, and this can lead to successful management of crisis time. Another theoretical model was proposed by Wang and Wu (2018), where the beliefs and psychological factors of the stakeholders were incorporated with the guidance of the theory of planned behaviour. This study showed the motivation of hotel managers

based on their cultures. Burhan et al. (2021) proposed a framework for crisis management for small businesses in the hospitality sector with the help of responses from the owner-managers of the organisations, as shown in Figure 2.4.

Figure 2.4: Conceptual framework for crisis management practices in small and medium businesses in the hospitality sector in Pakistan



Source: Burhan et al. (2021)

The influential antecedents for crisis management have been created based on the perceptions of the hotel managers, such as the anticipation of a crisis, product experience, empathy of stakeholders, government support, etc. Thus, the framework highlighted the influential factors that help sustain small and medium businesses in the hospitality sector.

Li et al. (2021) proposed a holistic and dynamic model of the relationship among the critical factors of crisis management strategies. The model comprised six elements, which were the economic environment, international relationships, social environment, political environment, technology, health, and science. The model also considered the procedural actions, which were prevention, response, recovery, and adaptation. This is a theoretical model prepared based on the health-related crisis, and it shows the collaborating processes among the stakeholders.

The theoretical model cannot be applied in different situations. Every crisis management scenario has its inhibitions and therefore cannot follow the earlier described or introduced models. Different strategies are followed by the organisations or the respective governments to respond positively to crises. In the next part, strategies for crisis management from empirical research have been discussed.

2.4.1 Role of Government in Crisis Management

The government plays a major role in proper action to a large extent and in formulating strategic measures. Burhan et al. (2021) conducted in-depth interviews with owner-managers of small and medium businesses in the hospitality sector in Pakistan to understand their crisis management practices. The semi-structured interviews were based on the experiences of the participants after the COVID-19 lockdown started and how they regained the flow of their businesses. Government support has been identified to play a vital role in supporting small businesses to continue during and after crises. During the Ebola Virus Disease Epidemic (EVDE) in The Gambia in Africa, government decisions have been observed to play a major role. Gambia's Ministry of Health restricted the inter-country movement through surveillance in the border areas, banning airlines' travel to the country. Further, a National Taskforce consisting of members from the United Nations (UN), Ministry of Health, Ministry of Tourism, Ministry of Defence, and non-governmental organisations was formed to support the crisis (Novelli et al., 2018). Lai and Wong (2020) interviewed senior hotel staff in Macau to understand government assistance in fighting against the COVID-19 pandemic. The perceived performance of the government in epidemic crisis management was investigated. The study showed that the Macau government took immediate action against the COVID-19 crisis. The government released policies to help residents, but no particular policies were for the benefit of the hotels. The senior managers in this study did not rely on government support. Contrastingly, managers in the Greek hospitality sector believed that government aid using liquidity and cash flow to cover their hotel running costs was the most important aspect of managing a crisis. Even hotel

managers perceived that low-interest and long-term loans from the government and the removal or reduction of tax liabilities could help them immensely fight the crisis period (Pavlatos et al., 2020).

The Turkish government provided several support measures for the tourism sector, which was severely impacted by the COVID-19 pandemic, to help the sector recover from the pandemic and maintain its position as a key driver of the Turkish economy. The Turkish government supported the tourism employees to a major extent by providing them with two-thirds of their salaries for nearly three months during the COVID-19 crisis. During that period, all the major tourism firms were closed, and employees got unpaid leaves (Ertaş et al., 2021). The government provided financial support to tourism businesses, including hotels, restaurants, and travel agencies, to help them cover their operating costs and maintain their workforce. The government also provided tax relief to tourism businesses, including a VAT exemption on accommodation services and a reduction in VAT rates for restaurant and transportation services. It also supported tourism businesses, including low-interest loans and loan guarantees, to help them maintain their liquidity and invest in their operations. The government provided a moratorium on tourism loans for up to one year to help businesses manage their cash flows and avoid defaulting on their loans (Turizm Günlüğü, 2020).

The tourism sector was supported by several promotion campaigns to encourage domestic and international tourism, including the "Safe Tourism Certification Program." The Turkish government launched the Safe Tourism Certification Programme in 2020 to ensure that tourism businesses in the country followed health and safety protocols during the COVID-19 pandemic. This programme covers various sectors in the tourism sector, including accommodations, food and beverage, transportation, and tour operators. This programme is implemented by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism and is regularly updated according to the latest guidelines and recommendations from international organisations such as the World Health Organisation (WHO) and the European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control (ECDC) (TGA 2020).

Tourism businesses that meet the programme's criteria were granted a "Safe Tourism Certificate," which indicates they have implemented and adhered to specific health and hygiene measures such as providing personal protective equipment to employees, cleaning and disinfecting frequently touched surfaces and areas regularly, ensuring social distancing measures, monitoring the health of employees and guests, providing information to guests about COVID-19 and related protocols, and having a plan in place to respond to suspected or confirmed cases of COVID-19. Tourism businesses that received Safe Tourism Certificates were allowed to operate during the pandemic and were authorised to host international visitors (TGA 2020).

The government also increases its share of private enterprises, helps financially in marketing or advertising, or helps to smooth the procedures of visa applications when the country is facing political instabilities (Avraham, 2016). Therefore, in most crises, governmental support has played an important part in managing the situation.

2.4.2 Technological Innovation Approach for Disaster Management

To ensure the safety of customers and employees, several technological upgrades have been adopted in the past, especially during the time of the COVID-19 pandemic. In China, communication among the disaster management team shifted completely into virtual mode during the COVID-19 outbreak. Mobile applications such as DingTalk, Enterprise WeChat, Zoom, Tencent Conference, WeLink, and Feishu were extensively used for exchanging critical information, decision-making, office automation, and online training (Hao et al., 2020). Also, studies from China showed that the minimization of human contact, which helped to avoid the further spread of COVID-19, was achieved by extensive digitalization and the use of technology. Digital contactless services, auto-face-scanning devices, automated room services, and self-check-in and check-out devices were installed in the hospitality sector in China (Hao et al., 2020). Hidalgo et al. (2022) studied the initial actions and strategies of hotel managers in times of crisis. In the innovation strategies for crisis management, the study showed hotels launched new products or services or improved some of the existing services in a significant way, adopting new

technologies for providing a quality experience to their customers. Some hotels introduced new technologies for maintaining social distance between customers and hotel employees, which enhanced the demand for the hotel.

2.4.3 Human Resource Strategies for Crisis Management

Human resource strategies are a very important part of crisis management practices, as the critical period could not be overcome without the help of human resource personnel. A positive attitude of owners in terms of fairness, clarity, inclusion, and information sharing plays a major role in the continuation of the business. Apart from that, good bonding and mutual respect between owners and employees was also another successful strategy for crisis management (Burhan et al., 2021). Reducing non-labour current costs is another smart move for hotels, where the hotel authorities attempted to reduce all types of current costs by reducing services, closing certain facilities, postponing renovation investments, and other not-so-essential works. Some of the hotels chose to remain closed in times of crisis to cut their basic running costs (Hidalgo et al., 2022). Pavlatos et al. (2020) also emphasised the regular communication and information of their guests for better operation of the hospitality sector during the crisis period. Investing in new technologies such as electronic check-ins and check-outs and infrared technology is also preferred by the participants. An empirical study on Turkish tourism enterprises showed that laying off employees as a cost-cutting strategy is not preferred. One of the major reasons for retaining employees is that companies need qualified and experienced employees after a crisis. Therefore, most companies choose to provide their employees with unpaid leave, increase working hours, and reduce labour wages (Ertaş et al., 2021).

2.4.4 Marketing Related Strategies for Crisis Management

Crisis management literature in the hospitality sector demonstrates the immense effect of marketing-related strategies to encounter the disruption that occurred due to the crisis. Hidalgo et al. (2022) studied the initial actions and strategies of hotel

managers in times of crisis. The study pointed out some of the initial strategies that helped sustain the crisis. Considering labour force strategies, the study showed measures can be taken by reducing the labour force, reducing labour wages, outsourcing, and using excess work time for training. Marketing and promotional activities such as price reduction offers and special promotional offers are also beneficial for the management of the crisis. Small and medium businesses in Pakistan altered and revised their offerings, such as some restaurants stopping dine-in service and starting to deliver food to homes for a sustainable future. Furthermore, some restaurants stopped their business altogether to preserve the resources for the future (Burhan et al., 2021).

On the other hand, studies on the marketing strategies of Spanish hotels after the 2008 financial crisis revealed that cost-cutting is not a suitable strategy for hotels to sustain in this difficult period. Rather, services with high quality and a strong brand image show better performance financially during the crisis period. (Alonso-Almeida & Bremser, 2013). Pavlatos et al. (2020) interviewed the managers of leading Greek hotels about their crisis management practices during the time of COVID-19. They identified marketing-related strategies as the second most effective way to sustain during a crisis, followed by government-related strategies. Marketing strategies, both in the domestic and international domains, have been proven to be important. Hygiene-related strategies such as providing maximum safety to the customers or adhering to the health protocols announced by international health agencies have been considered as a potential strategy for operating in a time of health-related crisis. However, for five-star hotels, price reductions in services as marketing strategies are not significantly effective. On the other hand, Ivanov et al. (2016) demonstrated that decreasing price strategies help travel agencies survive in the critical condition that emerged due to the political instability in Ukraine. Hotels cope with the conditions by promoting new products and services and attracting foreign tourists with the location's distinctive features and relatively safe environment. Similarly, Israeli et al. (2018) pointed out that the

marketing approaches of Turkish hotel managers consisted of providing special offers to domestic visitors while emphasising specific features or the location's relative safety to foreign visitors. Ertaş et al. (2021) conducted a quantitative study on tourism professionals, where structured questionnaires regarding different management practices were distributed at the Travel Türkiye Izmir Tourism Fair and Congress. The study revealed that social media marketing is preferred over traditional marketing strategies as it is cheaper and safer. Moreover, they showed a significant inclination towards pricing strategies such as developing new products suited for new market conditions, reducing earlier product prices, etc.

2.4.5 Maintenance Related Strategies for Crisis Management

In terms of maintenance strategies, hotel authorities may postpone their office maintenance, purchase lower-cost materials for office use, or close the facility that is no longer in use for a crisis period. Alonso-Almeida and Bremser (2013) did not agree with the cost-reduction strategy of reducing customer-added value. However, the study also showed that senior managers in the Spanish hospitality sector followed the strategy of limiting facility maintenance. Lai and Wong (2020) collected data on managers' perceptions and strategies for maintaining their organisation in Macau during the time of COVID-19. The study suggested that reducing maintenance costs is crucial at any stage of the crisis period. In the initial phase, the less-used facilities should remain closed. On the other hand, if the crisis continues for a long period, the hotel should postpone all maintenance tasks. However, compromising on quality was not approved by the hotel managers. They disagreed about purchasing lower-cost facilities to cut costs during the crisis period.

2.4.6 Recovery Strategies of Hospitality Sector during the Post-Crisis Era

Regaining business and reputation in the post-crisis period is vital for any sector. The government plays a major role in the recovery of the hospitality and tourism sectors

after a disaster. For the recovery from the health crisis caused by COVID-19, support from the international body and the European Council was also initiated. Majorly two general types of initiatives have been launched to help the tourism sector revive. The first set of measures was declared after the meeting of G20 ministers held

on April 24, 2020. In this initiative, countries under the G20 body received financial and economic support from the body. Moreover, the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) developed various protocols for hygienic measures to reactivate safety in tourism. Apart from international initiatives, national governments have also taken various initiatives (WTTC 2020). European countries implied temporary employment regulation as a labour measure, supported self-employed workers with financial aid, financially helped tourism organisations through a bank loan with a public guarantee, deferral of debts, self-employed taxes, etc. (Christie & Co., 2020).

A study from Malaysian hotels showed that recovery marketing campaigns such as promoting the country as “Cuti Cuti Malayasia” to convince domestic travellers help to recover the hospitality sector, which eventually benefits from regaining the trust and confidence of international travellers. Moreover, the government provides citizens with extra paid leaves for travelling within the country. Different tourism products, such as homestays, agro-tourism, and rural tourism, help to engage people more in different hospitality sectors. From the hotel's side, several discounts during low seasons or weekdays support the economy of the hotel. The participants in the interview regarding the recovery strategies of the hospitality sector suggested that media and marketing campaign strategies play the dominant role in recovering from disasters. The media helps in recovering the sector by clearing up different ambiguities regarding the affected areas. Such positive campaigns by the media change the attitude of the tourists and attract them towards the destination (AlBattat & MatSom, 2014).

The companies themselves adopt recovery strategies to get out of the situation. The five largest Spanish hotels, such as Meliá Hotels International, Iberostar Hotels &

Resorts (Iberostar), Barceló Hotel Group (Barceló), Riu Hotels & Resorts (Riu), and the NH Hotel Group (NH), took different steps to revive their tourism businesses. As a recovery strategy, the Madrid Hotel Business Association offered their rooms for medical purposes, where almost 2500 COVID-19-infected people stayed and got treatment. Apart from that, the hotels implemented redirection of hotel marketing strategies and sales programmes with attractive promotional packages. Taglines such as "We care about you", "Feel safe at NH", and "How we care" helped the tourists build their trust and confidence in the hotels (Rodríguez-Antón & Alonso-Almeida, 2020). Similarly, Alonso et al. (2022) surveyed the owners and managers of the hospitality and tourism sector globally to examine the different approaches adopted for coming back full-fledged in business operations after the COVID-19 pandemic. Stakeholders in the study recognised the necessity of behavioural changes for employees by re-learning the safety rules for customers. Other studies also emphasised the benefit of learning from past experiences. Organisational learning from past disasters and crises and utilising the knowledge to improve future practices is very necessary for further resilience (Ghaderi et al., 2014). Mao et al. (2010) investigated recovery patterns post-SARS outbreak in Taiwan using a cusp model and found that two important factors for recovery from damage to a normal state include organisational efficiency to face disruptive events and the degree of hysteresis.

Other recovery strategies are postulated by studies to remobilize their business by developing new food offerings, adding new features, introducing delivery services with a moderate price hike, increasing the business on internet-based platforms, and introducing different cost-cutting activities like utilising small areas for events and involving family members in the business (Alonso et al., 2022). Apart from marketing recovery strategies, human resources also play a vital role. The human resources of the organisation are a key strength area that provides resilience against any crisis as well as helps to recover from the crisis. Breier et al. (2021) surveyed six hospitality firms in Austria that were significantly impacted by the COVID-19 pandemic. These

companies showed significant recovery after the primary crisis and developed innovative business models. The participants for the study were the managing directors of these firms and regular customers in these hospitality sectors who are emotionally attached to the service. The study identified that small incremental changes are more effective for innovation in the business model. It showed that the resources that were unutilized during the time of the closure of the COVID-19 lockdown by state order were invested in the strategic developments of the business. Recovery strategies followed by Darden Restaurants were primarily based on financial recovery. Also, the Darden executives informed in an open-ended interview that revenue generation and proper investment in human resources were major strategies for their financial recovery. They preserved cash by delaying principal expenditures and reducing spending related to marketing (Yost et al., 2021).

2.5 Evidence of Crisis Management by Hospitality Sector in Türkiye

The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) conceived different strategies to recover from the crisis by supporting the jobs and economies of the countries. The main strategies were crisis management and mitigation; providing economic aid; helping in a faster recovery from the situation; and preparing for tomorrow. Promoting job retention, protecting vulnerable businesses, supporting self-employment, maintaining companies' liquidity, providing temporary suspension or reductions on tourism taxes or charges, flexible implementation of rules and regulations associated with the operations of tourism companies, ensuring consumer protection and confidence, and developing new skills for a digitally advanced society post-crisis were the major strategies during the crisis period (UNWTO, 2020b).

Although UNWTO promoted such a sustainable development goal, Türkiye did not show much progress in adopting the response and recovery strategies. Türkiye showed partial success in maintaining companies' liquidity, forming crisis management strategies, and strengthening tourism management at all levels (Shvets, 2021).

On the other hand, Türkiye showed well-implemented strategies such as advanced travel facilitation, understanding the market, and restoring the confidence of the customers (Shvets, 2021). Studies from past disasters caused by political instability encountered by the Turkish hospitality sector showed that Turkish managers adopted the importance-performance analysis framework for crisis management practices. In the study of Israeli et al. (2018), they showed that marketing strategies were the most preferred techniques for managers to cope with the crisis period. Secondly, the managers preferred to cut their expenses, which motivated the competitiveness of the organisation. Due to the reduction in price, the organisation could potentially increase its demand and profit.

Table 2.3: Recovery initiatives to support the Turkish tourism sector against the COVID-19 pandemic

Orientation	First UNWTO strategy: "Crisis management and mitigation"	Second UNWTO strategy: "Providing incentives and accelerating recovery"	Third UNWTO strategy: "Preparing for tomorrow"
Financial aid	Partially maintaining firm-level liquidity	-	-
Regulatory measures	Partially regulating taxes and fees affecting tourism and transport	Partially regulating taxes and fees affecting travel and tourism	-
Emergency attention packages	-	Including tourism in development assistance and recovery programs at regional and national levels	-
Government bodies	Partially formulating crisis management strategies	-	Partially supporting tourism management at all levels
Upholding demand	-	Full implementation of Advance travel acceleration	-
Marketing strategy	-	Quick actions to restore confidence and increase demand	-

Adapted from Shvets et al. (2021)

2.6 Theories Related to Crisis Management

Attribution Theory and Situational Crisis Communication Theory

The major two traits of a crisis are that it is unexpected and negative in nature. It is human nature to seek the reason for crises, and attribution theory lies in this nature (Weiner, 1985, 1986). Stakeholders like to make attributions about the causes of the crisis. Questions are raised after a crisis hits, whether the crisis was caused by a situational factor or the organisational factor behind it. If the organisation is responsible for the crisis, its reputation will suffer. The reduced reputation of the company leads to reduced business and an increased tendency to say negative things to other people (Coombs, 2007; Coombs & Holladay, 2004).

Situational crisis communication theory, on the other hand, applies ideas based on attribution theory. Based on this theory, the crisis manager needs to assess the upcoming crisis and the reputational loss it can create. There are three factors that cause the reputation threat: crisis history, initial crisis responsibility, and prior reputation or relationship history (Coombs, 2007).

Theory of Apology

Apologies have a powerful role in crisis management. When the public or stakeholder of an organisation finds the organisation responsible for any crisis, an apology serves to protect the reputation of the organisation (Benoit & Drew, 1997; Coombs & Holladay, 1996). Also, studies have shown that an apology can lead to increased customer satisfaction and perceived fairness responses (Goodwin & Ross, 1992). On the other hand, an apology leads to accepting the responsibilities, which eventually leads to a bad reputation.

Chaos Theory and the Butterfly Effect in Crisis Management

Chaos theory is a set of “loosely related theoretical and meta-theoretical orientations to the behaviour of complex non-linear systems” (Seeger, 2002, p. 329). In contrast to the Newtonian view of understanding every system as having predictable, linear relationships, chaos theory displays the random, unpredictable, complex, and dynamic nature of systems that self-organise and self-renew after sudden transformation (Murphy, 1996; Speakman & Sharpley, 2012). Long-term forecasting is not possible in any chaotic system. However, to some extent, planning is necessary.

In context, the butterfly effect is used to establish the pattern of chaos. In this concept, it is considered that a flap in the wings of a butterfly in Brazil can be the cause of a tornado in Texas. According to this theory, some form of trigger point is necessary for the emergence of a crisis. Therefore, planning is very necessary (Speakman & Sharpley, 2012).

Image Restoration or Repair Theory

In this theory, image restoration discourse demonstrates how a faulty individual or organization that caused any crisis can restore its reputation (Benoit, 1995). The major assumptions in this theory are the importance of image for the stakeholders and to project a favourable image to the public. The strategies for image restorations are denial or shifting the blame, evasion of responsibility, minimizing offensiveness of the event, action leads to correction and motivation (Muralidharan et al., 2011).

Resilience Theory and Business Continuity Planning

Human resilience is the ability to bounce back after difficult life experiences. Several communicative processes are gathered with resilience which are 1) crafting normalcy, 2) maintaining communication networks, 3) affirming identity anchors, 4) putting alternative logics, and 5) downplaying negative feelings and cultivating positive emotions (Buzzanell, 2010)

2.7 Research Gap

A review of studies on the management of crises caused by disease outbreaks, including Covid-19, has yielded several valuable insights. Research gaps observed during the review of literature for the present study, which are not without limitations, are listed below:

- Global tourism is very sensitive to negative disastrous events which cause a breakdown of the economy of countries, hinder tourists from stress-free travel and cause fear of travelling. In the past global tourism in the modern era, the world has witnessed several such crisis events such as the virus outbreak of SARS-2002, avian flu, swine flu, MERS-Cov 2012, terrorist attacks, the financial crisis which stopped some countries or regions to operate their tourism sector completely (McAleer et al., 2010; Page et al., 2012). Also, there are several studies which documented the effect of those crises on tourism (Hao et al., 2020; Zhu et al., 2022). Nevertheless, the nature, spread and impact of the COVID-19 pandemic are different from other earlier outbreaks (Ali et al., 2020; Aydin and Ari, 2020; Günay et al., 2020). Although recent studies are focussing extensively to understand the impact of this pandemic on the tourism and hospitality sector, more research is needed to get a clear picture of the extent of COVID-19's impact on the tourism and hospitality sectors.
- Theoretical models in tourism and hospitality crisis management studies demonstrated that pre-planning and arrangement of adequate resources are necessary to sustain the unprecedented hard times (Bremser et al., 2018; Brown et al., 2018; Duarte Alonso et al., 2020). Even some government bodies considered preparedness and awareness training for unprecedented disasters essential (Tsai et al., 2020). Nevertheless, the empirical studies on pre-planning strategies of the firms from the tourism sectors show to have almost no proper contingency plan or preparation for any unseen crisis (AlBattat & MatSom, 2014; Fabeil et al., 2018). Despite rigorous research in the field, studies are scarce for

understanding the non-adoption behaviour of managers and employees. Further research is needed to understand the difficulties encountered by the authorities in being prepared for the upcoming crisis period.

- The major body of research on tourism and hospitality disaster management is focused on the macro-level factors such as tourism system, tourism destinations and tourist-dependent communities (Bui et al., 2020; Cochrane, 2010; C. M. Hall et al., 2020). On the other hand studies on crisis management in meso-level also exist (Fang et al., 2020; Jiang et al., 2019). However, crisis management research specially building resilience against a crisis at the micro-level is rare. Further, more future research is required to understand the interaction between these three levels.
- Although Türkiye attracts tourists from various places around the world, she has witnessed several crises period and economic falls in her past. Therefore, Türkiye is a unique country with various tourism demands and economic conditions. The management of crises in the Turkish hospitality sector should be studied to understand the prevailing management practices of an economically struggling country with high tourist demand. Empirical investigations on the impact of COVID-19 outbreaks on Turkish tourism are limited (Açikgoz and Günay, 2020; Ali et al., 2020). Furthermore, the impact of the crisis on Turkish tourism policymakers and practitioners is not adequately comprehended, which might affect the Turkish tourism sector adversely (Ali et al., 2020; Gunay et al., 2020).

2.8 Theoretical Framework

- Pre-crisis measurements in an organisation help to forecast the crisis. Organisational resilience is the business preparedness which helps providing the predictive and adaptive algorithms to gain quick recovery from the crisis. Earlier researchers worked on the development of disaster resilience based on different capitals. Different conceptual frameworks have been postulated for developing disaster resilience within the hospitality sector to combat unforeseen emergencies.

A capital-based approach mentioned potential resources encompassing economic, social, cultural, physical, natural and human aspects to forecast the resilience of the organisation (Brown et al., 2018). In support of that, studies from the small to medium-scale hospitality sector showed that financial constraints inhibit them to adopt any type of pre-crisis measurements (Fabeil et al., 2018). However, most empirical studies interviewing senior managers or executives in hospitality industries revealed that pre-disaster measurements are not taken care of seriously (AlBattat & MatSom, 2014; Fabeil et al., 2018). Furthermore, other studies also supported that resilience formalisation may not guarantee a complete recovery from disaster (Herbane, 2018). Alexander (2021) conveyed that expensive and widely used structural preparedness for disaster may not provide complete protection against disaster. Other studies also showed that stakeholder collaboration is a major issue which causes limited withstanding in disaster despite disaster preparedness. Therefore, pre-crisis measurements may play a significant role on the impact of the crisis in the hospitality sector. Based on the previous researches, the present study forms the following hypothesis to understand the relationship.

H1: Pre-crisis measurements significantly influence the crisis effects (internally and externally) in the hospitality sector.

Several studies have confirmed the role of contingency planning in the allocation of resources for enduring hardships during emergencies (Inkinen et al., 2021). Knowledge and training in disaster prevention are useful for the forecasting abilities of firms in resisting and overcoming a crisis (Tsai et al., 2020). However, empirical studies on hospitality industries revealed through interviews with senior managers and executives that pre-disaster assessments were not considered seriously (AlBattat & MatSom, 2014; Fabeil et al., 2018). The effect of pre-disaster planning on forecasting in the hospitality sector should be understood. Based on the previous researches, the present study forms the following hypothesis to understand the correlation among various factors.

H2: Pre-crisis measurements significantly helps in forecasting crisis in the hospitality sector.

The importance of pre-planning in disaster management has been discussed in the literature (Alonso et al., 2022; Inkinen et al., 2021). Preparedness for a situation helps to estimate the companies' existing resources. Various models of crisis management techniques have been discussed by earlier authors (Burhan et al., 2021; Hidalgo et al., 2022). Organisations undertake various measures for sustaining during a crisis. Government policies and stakeholders' strategies of marketing and maintenance are key factors that facilitate adequate response and recovery during a crisis. However, few studies have investigated the impact of pre-planning on crisis management techniques. Strategic planning focuses on future opportunities while crisis management deals with encountering the threats. Ghazi (2017) analysed the relationship between strategic planning and crisis management practices in Egyptian 5-star hotels. The quantitative study showed that strategic planning was inversely related to crisis management. Alternatively, planning had a significant and positive impact on other styles of crisis management, namely, cooperation, confrontation and containment. Therefore, it is necessary to analyse more data from different places to understand the real influence of preparedness on crisis management practices. The following hypothesis investigates the relationship between forecasting and crisis management techniques.

H3: Pre-crisis measurements have a significant role in the crisis management process.

Several studies showed that forecasting a crisis positively influenced its effect. Empirical research on disaster management processes during floods in Jammu and Kashmir (2014) and in Assam (2019) revealed that preparedness, awareness campaigns through social media, tourist destination-specific disaster management and adequate communication strategies helped in combating the emergency (Gani et al., 2021). In addition to the hospitality sector, other sectors have acknowledged

contingency planning as a crucial and effective strategy during unforeseen disruptive events. In the case of retail supermarkets' survival in the United Kingdom, studies have shown the necessity of pre-planning in terms of allocating and utilising adequate resources during emergencies (Seaktheng, 2015). Similarly, while determining the factors for long-term sustainability and for making investment decisions in high-risk oil industries, researchers pointed out the necessity of several risk assessments, namely, technical, environmental, organisational, health, economic and social responsibility (H. Li et al., 2017). On the other hand, Alonso et al. (2022) revealed that forecasting and previous experience do not always help to understand the unprecedented effect of COVID-19 on the hotel sector. Therefore, it is necessary to understand the impact of forecasting on the effect of a crisis. The present research framework investigates the true relationship between these two variables by utilising the following hypothesis.

H4: Crisis forecasting significantly influences the crisis effects (internally and externally).

Crisis management practices are crucial for recovery in emergencies. Several models have proposed crisis management practices to recover from critical situations. Small and medium businesses in the hospitality sector showed the paramount effect of governmental strategies in regaining business after the COVID-19 pandemic (Burhan et al., 2021). Governmental decisions played a vital role during the spread of an epidemic (Novelli et al., 2018). Marketing and promotional activities, such as price reduction offers, special promotion offers, reducing labour wages, outsourcing and using excess work time for training were found to be beneficial for crisis management (Hidalgo et al., 2022). However, cost-cutting in services was not considered as a suitable strategy for crisis management (Alonso-Almeida & Bremser, 2013). Further, various maintenance-related strategies, such as postponing maintenance, purchasing cost-effective office materials, or closing facilities that are not used during a crisis, are adopted for managing the crisis and for sustaining the business (Lai & Wong, 2020). Other technological innovations and human resource-

related strategies help to develop strong resilience and fast recovery from a crisis (Hidalgo et al., 2022; Pavlatos et al., 2020). Therefore, previous studies have evidenced the positive impact of crisis management strategies on organisational sustainability. In the present study, the following hypothesis will be examined for the Turkish hospitality sector.

H5: Crisis management process influences the crisis effects (internally and externally)

Earlier studies have shown that pre-crisis measurements have an impact on crisis forecasting. The knowledge and training in disaster prevention are useful for the forecasting abilities of firms in resisting and overcoming a crisis (Tsai et al., 2020). Along with that, crisis management processes such as governmental decisions, and strategies during crisis, marketing and promotional activities induce better outcomes for disaster (Hidalgo et al., 2022; Novelli et al., 2018). Therefore, the present study formulates the hypothesis which addresses the mediating role of Crisis forecasting and evaluation of the crisis management process on the relationship between pre-crisis measurements and the outcomes of the crisis to understand the Turkish hospitality sector in detail.

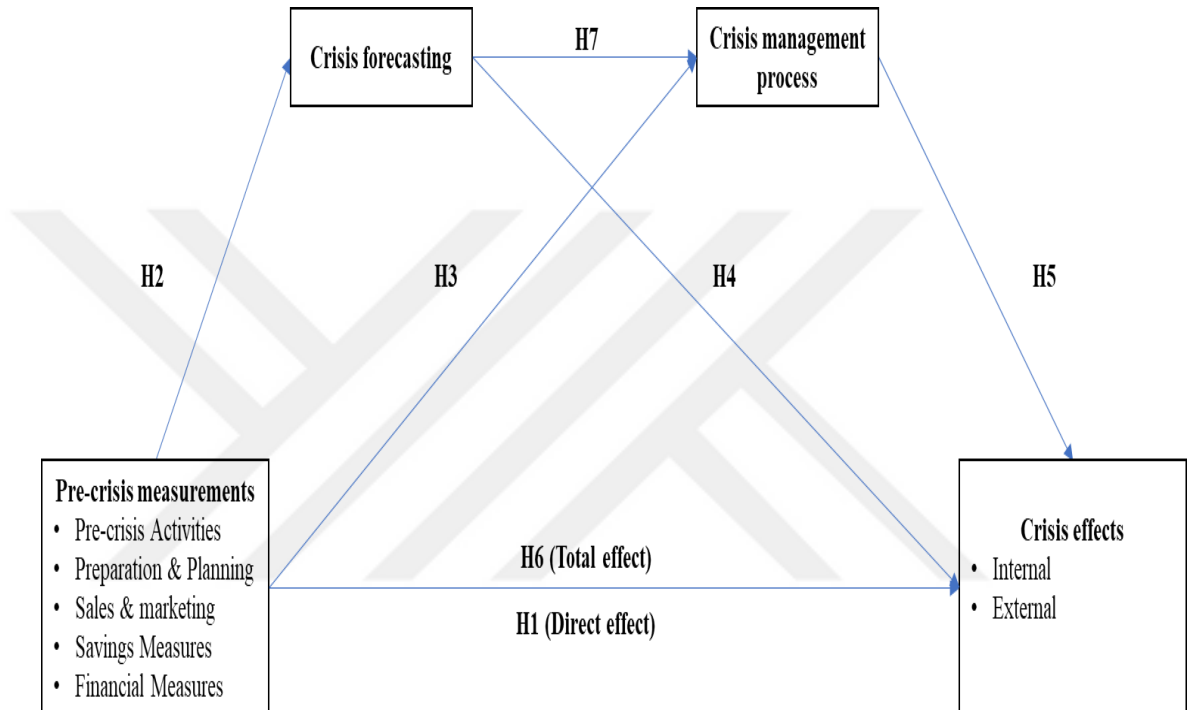
H6: Crisis forecasting and crisis management process significantly mediates the relationship between Pre-crisis measurements and the crisis effects (internally and externally).

Crisis forecasting in the assessment of tourist flow in Indonesia during the time of political and financial crises in 1997 showed that existing quantitative methods were not sufficient for the crisis management procedure. On the other hand, alternative methods, such as scenario planning and chaos theory-derived models could help in handling the unprecedented crisis (Prideaux et al., 2003). Besides, Song and Lin (2010) validated that reliable forecasting can be generated by estimating the interval for inbound and outbound tourism demand in Asia. However, the crisis management process is crucial in many aspects consisting of

several uncertainties. Therefore, it is needed to understand how forecasting methods can impact crisis management processes. To understand the relationship, the present study formulates the following hypothesis.

H7: Forecasting crisis causes a crucial effect on the crisis management process.

Figure 2.5: Conceptual framework



The COVID-19 outbreak started in December 2019 in China and spread out all over the world within a couple of months. With the rapidly increasing numbers of infected cases, deaths, travel restrictions, and border closures world has witnessed another pandemic and crisis. Owing to the global spread of the COVID-19 pandemic, the tourism business has been declared as one of the hardest-hit sectors, with impacts on both aviation and hotel demands, by the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO). The present study was carried out to understand the different management techniques to cope with the devastating effect of COVID-19 on the Turkish hospitality sector. However, before the spread of the COVID-19 outbreaks, several other health-related emergencies occur such as severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS; 2002), avian

flu (H5N1; 2003), swine flu (H1N1; 2009) and the Middle East respiratory syndrome-coronavirus (MERS-Cov; 2012). These have a massive and significant impact on global tourism trends and economic alternative costs. Studies have shown significant damage to the tourism sector and economy caused by the epidemic outbreak of MERS-Cov, increased hygiene practices, screening of temperature examination, physical distancing and minimizing spitting habits in the surroundings during the SARS outbreak, damaging hotel stocks in Taiwan due to SARS outbreak. Also, the arrival of tourists declined massively during the time of crisis and further tourists' travel decisions was impeded by it for a long period. Travel traumas are noticed among travellers due to the experience of health-related crises. Tourism students and graduates experienced a sudden halt in internship opportunities, and recruitment of employees and encountered a questionable career path. Simultaneously, the institutes and universities having courses in tourism and hospitality receive less government funding and experienced a reduction in student intake. Moreover, the hotels and other tourism businesses experienced losses of revenue as well as cancellation of future booking requests. Besides, some hosts decided to leave the business in the hospitality sector and recover their earnings by long-term renting.

Earlier studies have extensively discussed crisis management techniques through pre-planning, handling the mid-crisis situation and recovering from the crisis. Several studies have mentioned the necessity of the preparedness and resilience of the organisation. Resilience in the organization needs three key assets which are the firm's resourcefulness, dynamic competitiveness, and finally learning and culture. Identification of the disasters, contingency planning and understanding the preventive controls are crucial to building up the resilient nature of the organisation. However, most empirical studies on the managers and employees of hospitality sectors show non-adoption of preventive measures for the unprecedented crisis. On the other hand, different crisis management strategies are taken by organisations for sustaining. Such strategies are related to government, marketing of the organisation,

maintenance during the crisis, technological innovation etc. Researches showed that government-related strategies are the most important measure followed by marketing and maintenance strategies. However, for health-related crises especially during the COVID-19 pandemic technological innovations took a major part in crisis management. For the recovery from the crisis period, government funding and promotional initiatives were significant for all countries. Marketing strategies assuring safety and hygiene convinced tourists to commence of travel and hospitality sector. The present study gathered the gaps in the previous researches and tried to address the issues with the help of a proposed conceptual framework.





CHAPTER 3

3. METHODOLOGY

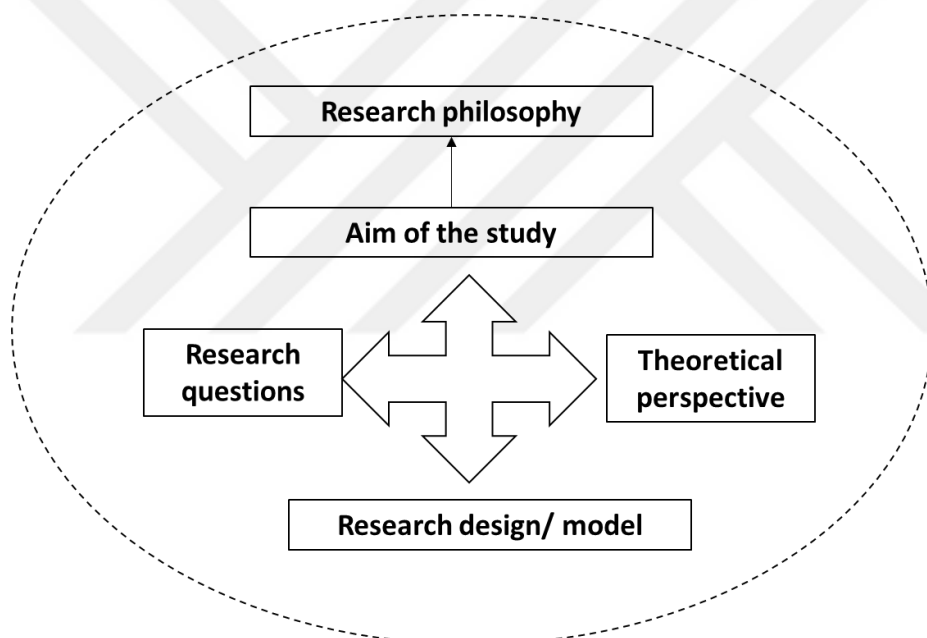
Research methodology implies the systematic processes employed for solving problems in research, thereby forming the heart of any research (Cohen, 1988). The inspiration for the choice of the research methodology is dependent upon the research problem that is intended to be addressed (Morgan & Smircich, 1980). The combination of appropriate methodology, knowledge of the subject, the experience of the researcher, the state of the problem, and the research audience for which the study is being intended dictate the success of any research (Creswell, 2014). This chapter elaborates on the steps taken by the researcher to understand the preparedness towards the recent crisis occurring due to the COVID-19 pandemic and ways of management in the hotel and tourism sector of Türkiye. It commences with a detailed explanation of the research philosophy selected for this study to meet the research objectives of the study. Based on this, the research approach, purpose, design, and strategy have been elucidated. Along with this, the research instrument, data collection techniques, criteria for sampling design, tools used for data analysis and the ethical considerations for the study have also been collated.

3.1 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy has been described as the “development of research assumptions, its knowledge, and nature” applying ontology, epistemology and axiology (Sexton, 2003) based on which ideas are generated to attain research knowledge (Žukauskas et al., 2018). Figure 3.1 presents the primary aspects of research and its association with research philosophy. Among the four philosophies such as positivism, interpretivism, pragmatism, and realism, this study adopted the positivistic research philosophy as this adheres to factual information gathered

through methods of measurement and observation in a quantifiable format (Collins, 2017). In this philosophy, the social world is comprehended in an objective manner, wherein the researcher is considered as the analyst, who can dissociate themselves from personal attributes through independent work. This is the reverse of the interpretivist philosophy where the social world is mostly interpreted subjectively. In pragmatist form, facts are dealt with in the choice of a system that the researcher wants to take up, whereas in the realistic format, a combination of principles involved in positivistic as well as interpretive research philosophies, therefore, is highly subjective.

Figure 3.1: Main aspects of research



Source: Based on Žukauskas et al., 2018

3.2 Research Approach

The research approach provides a schematic representation of the strategies for conducting the intended empirical research to be followed by the researcher according to the selected research philosophy (Creswell, 2014). These approaches

can be deductive, inductive or abductive (Saunders et al., 2019). The deductive approach starts with a pre-established theory obtained from reviewing the literature in this subject area. A logical outcome within the given settings is validated using hypotheses that have been formulated, which are tested against reality with the help of observations made through statistical analyses (Bhattacharjee, 2012). In the inductive approach, information is gathered and thematically categorized to understand the phenomenon through the construction of a new theory (Woiceshyn & Daellenbach, 2018). Finally, the abductive research approach amalgamates the contrasting principles of inductive and deductive approaches to develop and modify new or old theories (Philipsen et al., 2017). Since the main objective of the study is to identify the processes that are beneficial in crisis management, this study employs the deductive research approach.

3.3 Research Purpose

The primary goal of the research is to provide light on the causes and motives behind the events being studied through the study's concept or aims. (Cohen et al., 2018). According to Gray (2013), research purpose either gathers information through exploration or description or tests any theory through the process of prediction and explanation. In cases of explanatory or interpretive studies, a highly structured approach is applied to the research hypotheses, which are conducted in the later stages of decision-making, to answer the 'why' and 'how' type questions (Saunders et al., 2019). Not necessarily, it needs to be demarcated through only one type but can be an overlap of two or more types. This study is both explanatory and descriptive in nature as it seeks to explain the relationship between variables of crisis and its impact along with decision-making and was also focused on describing the current state of crisis management by the hotels in various cities of Türkiye. These were used to find the answers to research questions starting with 'how' and 'what' respectively using a questionnaire.

By using these types of research purposes, the study attempts to provide an in-depth understanding of the two research questions, "*How did the Turkish hospitality sector prepare for the recent crisis?*", created due to the COVID-19 pandemic and "*What were the crisis management processes done by the Turkish and hospitality sector?*".

3.4 Research Design

The research design forms the support structure of research that includes determining the most appropriate research process for achieving accurate as well as valid findings (Dikko, 2016) in a comprehensible and logical way (De Vaus, 2001). This involves choosing between quantitative, qualitative, or mixed methods of data collection. As the name suggests, the quantitative research design measures the data in a numerical method and then extrapolates the results to predict a theory that would be fit for the larger population. This is a highly repeatable and accurate process that produces analysable data using statistics in comparison to qualitative design, where the subjective observations provide a holistic perception towards the tested theory. In the case of mixed methodology, both the qualitative and quantitative processes are combined to understand the perspective of all the major stakeholders. Based on the objectives, the present study employs quantitative data as this can be considered the method of choice to test the hypotheses for understanding the ways through which the Turkish tourism and hospitality sector prepare for any crisis, evaluating the role of forecasting crisis and decision making in the management of the crisis, and identifying strategies or processes of managing ongoing crisis successfully through facts that were gathered from primary data sources.

3.5 Research Strategy

The research strategy acts as the general guideline towards researching to meet the objectives (Johannesson & Perjons, 2014). There are several strategies through which research is commonly carried out: experiments, surveys, archival research,

case study, ethnography, action research, grounded theory, narrative inquiry, etc. (Saunders et al., 2019). Within these, experiments and surveys contribute to deductive research, while the rest fall under inductive research. The present study involves the survey as the research strategy as these are typically the most preferred instrument for any empirical study involving socio-psychological attributes (Roberts, 1999). Through this, variables can be easily measured through the perception of a large-scale study population and correlated for any association between them (Cohen et al., 2018). This is a much faster approach than other approaches with a focus on opinions, consequences, conditions, and comparative grading. The theory that is being predicted can be extrapolated for making generalizations for a wider population.

3.6 Research Instrument

Among the various methodical instruments that are employed for collecting primary data such as tests, questionnaires, observational data, field notes, accounts, case studies, simulations, role plays, personal constructs, etc., questionnaires were found to be best suited for this study.

3.6.1 Instrument Design: Questionnaire

Questionnaires have been described to be a "group of questions" that have been articulated and standardized for presentation to samples that are similar in nature (Burns & Dobson, 1981). These questions are also referred to as items in the questionnaire, which act as the medium for communication between the researcher and the participants (Cohen, 1988). This instrument has several advantages such as remote access by the contributors, mass reach, no expertise required, non-disclosure manner, easy to contribute, etc., thereby reducing the cost of data collection.

The questionnaire used in the current study comprised 42 questions spread across six main sections. The first section of the questionnaire accumulates the relevant general

information about the hotels, including the name and city of the hotel, the number of years the hotel is in business, the sector of hospitality management, the legal status of the hotel, the number of staff working in each hotel, and the number of rooms in the hotel. Thereafter, the hotels were segregated depending on their size; size evaluation was based on the number of staff and rooms present in the hotels. These categorical variables were assigned the nominal scale.

The second part of the questionnaire details the use of standardized Crisis Management Process Scales as developed by Aslan et al. (2020) for the five study variables of this study. Pre-crisis measurements and their measures were evaluated through the understanding of pre-crisis activities using eight sub-questions, preparation and planning using three questions, sales and marketing through five questions, savings measures using three questions and financial measures through two questions. This is followed by the third, fourth and fifth sections where, forecasting the crisis through six statements, evaluation of the crisis management process through seven items, and decision-making through one question, respectively, were enquired. The item on decision-making was separated from the original construct, the perceived success measure of crisis management as given in Aslan et al. (2020) to meet the requirements of this study. The final part of the questionnaire was used to evaluate the impact of the crisis at an external and internal level through three questions and adaptation of experience gained from crisis through five statements. The statements/ questions were framed using positive wordings and provided with multiple choice format answers, from which only one closest answer was selected, which represented the outlook of the representative sample population. The seven-point Likert scale technique was used in formulating the responses to the questions. Named after Rensis Likert, it is one of the most widely employed types of attitude measurement in social science survey research. It consists of multiple items and the type of responses varies according to the questions asked. Reliability and Validity tests have been conducted by Aslan et al. (2020) for the scale. The questionnaires were sent electronically to the participants by researchers, and using statistical package software, validity, reliability, and exploratory factor analysis were performed. Results of the test were analysed and presented, together with the acquired Cronbach Alfa, percentage of extracted variance, and R² values.

This study's scales were used to develop a crisis management model, which was then tested using the Structural Equation Model (SEM), with R2 values for each variable provided.

Table 3.1 presents the questionnaire design with respect to the constructs and sub-constructs relevant to the study along with the Cronbach value for reliability as reported in the standardized scale given by Aslan et al. (2020). The questionnaire that was distributed to the respondents contained all the items in Turkish, which was further translated into English.

Table 3.1: Questionnaire design

Sl.	Variable	Sub-variables	No. of items	Likert scale	Cronbach Alpha*
1.	Pre-crisis measurements (Environmental screening)	Pre-crisis activities	8	1: No, 2: Very Little, 3: Little, 4: Partially, 5: Average, 6: Highly, 7: Great Extent	0.941
		Preparation and planning	3		0.924
		Sales and marketing	5		0.904
		Saving measures	3		0.655
		Financial measures	2		0.738
2.	Forecasting the crisis (Perceived success measure of crisis management)	-	5	The success of forecasting the crisis- 1: Extremely Unsuccessful, 2: Very Unsuccessful, 3: Unsuccessful, 4: Partially Successful, 5: Successful, 6: Very Successful, 7: Perfect	0.963
3.	Decision-making (Perceived success measure of crisis management)	-	1	The extent of decision-making- 1: No, 2: Very Little, 3: Little, 4: Partially, 5: Average, 6: Highly, 7: Great Extent	
4.	Evaluation of Crisis management process (Applications that influence the success of crisis management)	-	7	1: No effect, 2: Very little effect, 3: Little effect, 4: Partially effective, 5: Effective, 6: Quite an impact, 7: Very high impact	0.947
5.	Impact of crisis	External (Reflecting on the crisis)	3	The extent of impact- 1: Not at all, 2: Little, 3: Slightly, 4: Neutral, 5: Moderately, 6: Very, 7: To a great extent	0.859
		Internal (Adaptation of what is learned from crisis)	5	1: Changed so bad, 2: Changed quite badly, 3: Changed in a bad way, 4: Not changed, 5: Changed for the better, 6: Changed in a very good way, 7: Changed so well	0.947

Source: Adapted from Aslan et al., 2020

3.6.2 Research Variables of the Study

The various variables employed in this study include independent, dependent, and moderating variables. The independent variables focused on Pre-crisis measurements, Crisis forecasting, and Crisis management processes, with decision-making as the moderating variable evaluated. The final dependent variable for the study was the impact of the crisis.

3.7 The Time Frame of the Study

This study involved conducting a cross-sectional survey of managers associated with the hospitality sector to evaluate the impact of COVID-19 on the Turkish tourism sector and the strategies implemented by tourism businesses in response to COVID-19 during the period of June 10, 2022 to September 30, 2022.

3.8 Study Settings

This study was conducted among hotels that have Tourism Operation or Tourism Investment Certificate and are classified as 1-, 2-, 3-, 4- and 5-star hotels by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism. Most of the hotels in the survey population have Safe Tourism Certificate, as it was compulsory for hotels to work during survey period. There were 3.755 hotels in this category as of 31 December 2021 (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2021).

3.9 Data Collection and Sampling Design

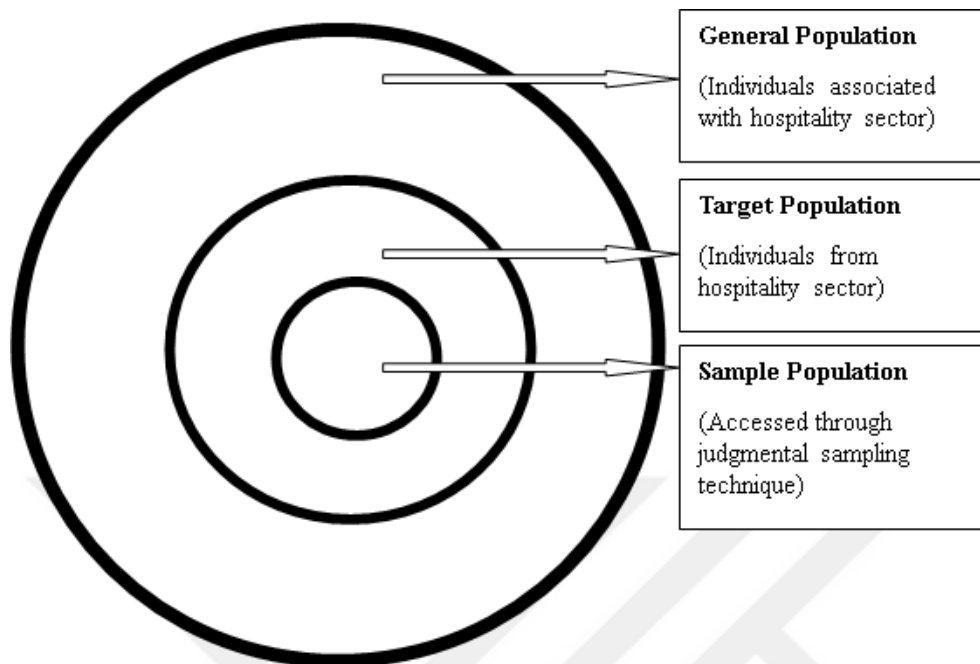
Data collection has been explained as the process of gathering valuable information from the study population. There are two types of data depending upon the process of data collection. The primary data involves the collection of information directly from the primary source (actual population) through surveys, experiments and

interviews, while the secondary data use the compilation of the information obtained from the literature review through books, journals or other study materials. In the present study, the survey method was used as the tool for collecting primary data from the respondents with the help of the questionnaire. The sampling design has been elaborated below.

3.9.1 Sampling Procedure

The process of selection of the research participants is called sampling. Theoretically, all the individuals associated with the hospitality sector form the general population for this study. However, it is practically impossible to include the entire general population and therefore beyond the scope of this study. Thereafter, the researcher considered only those working in Türkiye's hospitality sector as the target population. Amongst those, individuals who were willing to participate in the study within the accessible reach of the researcher formed the final sample population for this study, which has been derived through a non-probability sampling technique (judgmental sampling) to select the eligible participants. The judgmental sampling technique would allow the investigator to select elements relevant to the study and draw conclusions based on the depiction provided by the sample (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). The sampling procedure is depicted in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2: Sampling procedure of the study



3.9.2 Sample Size

This study was conducted by collecting data from individuals associated with the hospitality sector from various cities in Türkiye such as Ankara, Antalya, Istanbul, Izmir, Nevşehir, etc. As the survey population, there were 3,755 hotels that have Tourism Operation Certificates or Tourism Investment Certificates and are classified as 1-, 2-, 3-, 4- and 5-star hotels by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, as of 31 December 2021 (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2021). The current study adopts the Cochran's formula (Chaokromthong, K., & Sintao, N. 2021) to determine the sample size.

$$n = \frac{\left(\frac{Z^2 p(1-p)}{e^2} \right)}{1 + \frac{Z^2 p(1-p)}{e^2 N}}$$

n = Sample size,

p = the population proportions (0.5 for sample size calculation),

e = Margin of Error)0.05(,

N = Size of the population (3,755).

Confidence level = 95%,

Z = Z score (1.96 for 95% confidence interval),

$$n = \frac{\left(\frac{(1.96)^2 0.5(1-0.5)}{(0.05)^2} \right)}{1 + \frac{(1.96)^2 (0.5)(1-(0.5))}{(0.05)^2 (3,755)}}$$

$$n = \frac{384.16}{1.102}$$

$$n = 348.60$$

$$n = \frac{\left(\frac{3.8416 \times (0.25)}{0.0025} \right)}{1 + \frac{3.8416 \times (0.25)}{(0.0025) \times (3,755)}}$$

$$n \approx 349$$

Substituting the above values in Cochran's formula, the recommended sample size at a confidence level of 95.0% and a margin of error (degree of accuracy) of 0.05% was calculated to be 349.

3.10 Data Analysis

Data in the form of responses provided by the participants were gathered and finally subjected to statistical analysis to derive meaningful inferences. Demographic analysis of the various aspects of the hotel profile was evaluated by calculating the frequency and percentage, while the descriptive variables were computed using mean

and standard deviation. Further, the obtained quantitative data was empirically evaluated employing the following tests Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA), Correlation, and Linear Regression Analysis for testing the hypothesis. All statistical calculations were done with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) v.24.0. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) analyses were conducted between relationships of variables to validate the developed framework employing the Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) software. The results were accepted as significant at the level of $p < 0.05$.

3.11. Pilot Test

This questionnaire was discussed with six different students studying in the business administration departments of two universities and was sent to five managers working in the hospitality sector. Advice was taken on what they understood from each statement and how the statements should be. According to feedback from this group, the questionnaire was sent to hotel managers and 30 valid responses were received in the pilot test. Reliability and Validity tests were made using these data.

3.11.1 Reliability and Validity Analysis

In order to ensure the internal consistency of the tests, the reliability test is important for any study which was conducted using Cronbach's alpha. It is a statistical measure for validating the internal consistency among a set of survey items. The Cronbach's alpha values always lie between 0 (none of the items in the scale are related to one another) and 1 (the items in the scale are all the same); however, values greater than 0.6 are considered as acceptable, while values between 0.7 to 0.8 are considered satisfactory and more than 0.8 to less than 0.95 is considered to be good (Kılıc 2016). The results of the reliability analysis of the scales used for measuring the constructs used in the study are presented in Table 3.2. It can be implied from the table that the items on the scale that measure Pre-crisis activities within individual outcomes

(8 items; $\alpha = 0.859$), preparation and planning (3 items; $\alpha = 0.857$), sales and marketing (5 items $\alpha = 0.842$), savings measures (3 items; $\alpha = 0.831$), financial measures (2 items; $\alpha = 0.674$) had a satisfactory level of reliability. Forecasting the crisis (5 items $\alpha = 0.809$) and crisis management process evaluation (7 items $\alpha = 0.759$) are also reliable. Sub factors called external (3 items, $\alpha = 0.747$) and internal (5 items, $\alpha = 0.792$) are also reliable. Thus, it can be implied that all the scales used in the study for measuring various constructs are reliable, which indicates that the results of the study are also reliable.

Table 3.2: Reliability analysis

Factors	Sub factors	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Crisis preparedness	Pre-crisis activities	0.859	8
	Preparation and Planning	0.857	3
	Sales and Marketing	0.842	5
	Savings Measures	0.831	3
	Financial Measures	0.674	2
Forecasting the crisis		0.809	5
Crisis management process evaluation		0.759	7
Outcomes of crisis	External	0.747	3
	Internal	0.792	5

3.11.2 Exploratory factor analysis for crisis preparedness

Table. 3.3 explains sampling adequacy and Sphericity of facilitating conditions factors. From the results it was found that Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling

Adequacy (KMO) is 0.628 which is greater than 0.6 and that indicates good sampling adequacy. Meanwhile significant value of Bartlett's test of Sphericity is less than 0.05 with chi square value 465.189 and 120 degrees of freedom. Finally, from the results of KMO and Bartlett's test of Sphericity it was analysed that the data were considered to be appropriate and adequate for conducting factor analysis.

Table 3.3: KMO and Bartlett's Test for crisis preparedness

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.628
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	465.189
	df	120
	Sig.	0.000

Table 3.4 evaluates different aspects of crisis preparedness, and the values associated with each factor provide insights into the specific contributions of these aspects. Pre-crisis Activities contribute 41.017% to the overall preparedness. Preparation and planning including forming explains 14.360% of variation. Sales and marketing strategies during the crisis make up 9.179% of variation. Savings Measures contribute 7.125% of variation. Finally, financial measures like budget cuts and debt restructuring account for 6.008%. However, the cumulative variation by all sub factors contributes 77.689%, which shows that the management was prepared for and navigated through the crisis.

Table. 3.4: Factor analysis for crisis preparedness

Factors	Loadings	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Crisis preparedness			
Pre-crisis activities		41.017	41.017
To what extent would competitor and potential competitors' activities be tracked and analysed?	0.876		
To what extent were necessary measures taken and implemented in the light of experience gained from previous crises?	0.630		
To what extent would sectoral, political and economic developments be followed in the market in which you operate, and their possible effects on the market would be analysed?	0.834		
Production, sales, maintenance/repair, resource utilization, human resources etc. To what extent were such reports prepared, examined and necessary actions taken?	0.742		
To what extent would developments regarding all activities including production / service be followed and adapted to your business?	0.660		
To what extent was emphasis on internal communication, sharing information with employees and stakeholders?	0.672		
Preparation and Planning		14.360	55.377
To what extent have studies been carried out to determine the dimensions of the crisis and its possible effects?	0.887		
Have teams been formed about what needs to be done to get out of the crisis? and to what extent have they been ensured to do the necessary work?	0.901		
To what extent were the dimensions and effects of the crisis and the action plan to be implemented to overcome the crisis accurately shared with employees and stakeholders?	0.730		

Table. 3.4: (Continued) Factor analysis for crisis preparedness

Factors	Loadings	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Sales and Marketing		9.179	64.555
To what extent was a very active sales and marketing strategy followed to mitigate the effects of the crisis?	0.784		
To what extent were more stable new markets sought?	0.725		
To what extent have investments been made in equipment-technology to reduce production/service and operation costs and increase efficiency?	0.669		
To what extent was the emphasis placed on R&D and P&D activities in order to maintain the competitive position?	0.810		
To what extent was the marketing activities focused on the supply of new goods / services?	0.714		
Savings Measures		7.125	71.681
To what extent have employees been given unpaid leave or reduced in number?	0.731		
To what extent were cuts made to each item of the operating budget?	0.735		
To what extent has attention been paid to reducing critical stock levels and keeping stock only as required by daily service production?	0.878		
Financial Measures		6.008	77.689
To what extent has the debt restructured been negotiated with financial institutions and all creditors?	0.764		
To what extent was the emphasis given to early collection of receivables, with some discounts if necessary?	0.806		

3.11.3 Exploratory factor analysis for the impact of crisis

The KMO value was observed to be 0.690, indicating a good sampling adequacy. Additionally, the Bartlett's test of Sphericity yielded a significant result ($p < 0.05$) with a Chi-Square value of 54.341 and 10 degrees of freedom, implying the suitability of items for factor analysis. Thus, both the KMO measure and the Bartlett's test indicated that the data were appropriate and adequate for conducting factor analysis as shown in Table 3.5.

Table.3.5: KMO and Bartlett's Test for the impact of crisis

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.690
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	54.341
	df	10
	Sig.	0.000

The impact of the crisis has two sub factors namely external factors and internal factors as shown in Table 3.6. The results suggests that external factors have a big impact, explaining almost half, 50.760 of variation. Internal factors also matter, contributing an additional part 22.624% to the overall impact. External and internal factors together, they explain about 73.384% of cumulative variance due to the crisis.

Table 3.6: Factor analysis for the impact of crisis

Factors	Loadings	% of Variance	Cumulative %
External crisis		50.760	50.760
All administrative/managerial processes, including human resources, applied in your business	0.672		
Goods or services produced by your business	0.806		
Sales and marketing processes and/or after-sales service processes implemented by your business	0.853		
Internal crisis		22.624	73.384
How did the crisis affect your market share?	0.884		
How has the crisis affected your business's reputation with customers and suppliers?	0.834		
How has the crisis affected the size of our business?	0.852		

3.12 Research Ethics

This study adhered to all ethical standards and informed consent was obtained. The respondents were provided with adequate information about the research and were found to be capable of comprehending the information. They were given the power to freely participate in the study; thereby, enabling them to consent to decline their participation voluntarily. Furthermore, the respondents were assured about their confidentiality and anonymity of responses. Every effort was made to ensure that the principle of confidentiality during the data collection and analysis process was upheld. The data collected were stored in a secure location and were coded to protect individuals' identities even during the process of analysis and publication of results.

This chapter elucidates the detailed systematic research process adopted for the present study to understand the measures taken towards the management of the crisis in the Turkish hospitality sector. For this study, a positivistic research philosophy, deductive research approach, descriptive-explanatory research purpose, quantitative research design and survey research strategy using a standardized questionnaire research tool were selected. The reasons behind the selection of the research methodology were explained. Along with this, the research instrument was described, explaining the variables crucial for the study. The sampling design, as well as data analysis tools, were defined that was employed to derive a meaningful inference to understand the phenomenon being studied. The next chapter of the thesis presents the findings of the study.

3.13 Research Questions

The suggested study will respond to the research questions below.

4. How did the hospitality sector of Türkiye prepare for the recent crises?
5. What were the Turkish hospitality sector's crisis management procedures that the recent crises had an impact on?

3.14 Objectives of the Study

Based on the research questions mentioned above, the following research objectives were outlined for the proposed study.

1. To investigate the factors that help the Turkish hospitality sector to prepare for a crisis.
2. To assess the influence of pre-crisis measurements on the forecasting of the crisis and the crisis management process.
3. To examine how forecasting and crisis management process supports the management of outcomes of crisis in the hospitality sector in Türkiye.
4. To explore the mediating effects of crisis forecasting and crisis management process independently as well as the interaction between the two mediating variables on outcomes of the crisis.

3.15 Significance of the Study

To plan and create policies for efficient management, practitioners and policymakers will need to understand the impact of crises such as COVID-19 and other crises on the tourism sector in Türkiye. The survey will be pertinent from the point of view of the hospitality sector and its stakeholders because hotels must survive and change.

Additionally, the planned study can serve as a baseline for later investigations into the aftermath of the pandemic and the war. Moreover, research on the COVID-19 outbreak and other crises would likely provide empirical support for managing crises and their impact on the demand for tourism.

3.16 Scope of the Study

The scope of the current study indicates the parameters under which the study will be carried out. This study focuses on the primary data acquired from the managers of hotels that have a Tourism Operation or Tourism Investment Certificate and are classified as 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5-star hotels by the Ministry of Tourism. Almost all of the hotels in the survey population have a Safe Tourism Certificate, as it was compulsory for hotels to work during the survey period.

3.17 Thesis Structure

The current study has been divided into six parts.

Chapter I introduces an overview of tourism, the tourism sector, and tourism in Türkiye. The effect of the COVID-19 pandemic on the tourism sector of Türkiye and the effect of the Russian and Ukrainian wars on the tourism sector of Türkiye have been introduced in depth. Along with this, the statement of the problem, research questions, and objectives of the study, followed by the significance and scope of the study to be carried out, have been highlighted.

Chapter II analyses the significant literature existing on the current study topic, based on which a theoretical frame of study and the hypotheses framed to be applied in the study are based.

Chapter III expands the methodology to be used in the present study, comprising of the gathering of data and the method of research to be applied in the current study. Relevant data was gathered from the different managers of the selected Turkish hotels. Using descriptive analysis, the frequency and percentage of participants' subjective responses were evaluated. The data obtained for the study was quantitative and analysed using multiple linear regression analysis.

Chapter IV signifies the probable results from the gathered data from the managers of hotels in Türkiye. The collected data were analysed further, inferred using statistical methods, and graphically portrayed. Hypothesis testing was conducted to validate the hypotheses formulated for the study.

Chapter V discusses the outcomes generated from the current study about the available literature.

Lastly, **Chapter VI** summarises the significant findings of the study and presents the recommendations from the study, along with limitations and future scope for the studies.





CHAPTER 4

4. RESULTS

According to the Report Linker (2023), Türkiye draws a massive number of tourists due to its rich cultural heritage and historical background with a projected revenue of more than US\$5,3 billion in the Hotels sector and there was 1% annual growth rate in this sector in 2023 (Statista, 2023a). To accommodate the tourists, Türkiye is home to more than 900 hotel chains (Mordor Intelligence, 2023). This study focuses on the aspects of crisis management during the COVID-19 pandemic in the tourism and hospitality sector in Türkiye. To map the factors affecting the Turkish hospitality sector, a quantitative approach was adopted by the researcher in accordance with the objectives of the study using a well-structured questionnaire. Since the data was collected during the COVID-19 pandemic period, this data reflects the results of the COVID-19 pandemic. The primary data was collected from 415 respondents associated with the various hotels.

4.1 Sample Population

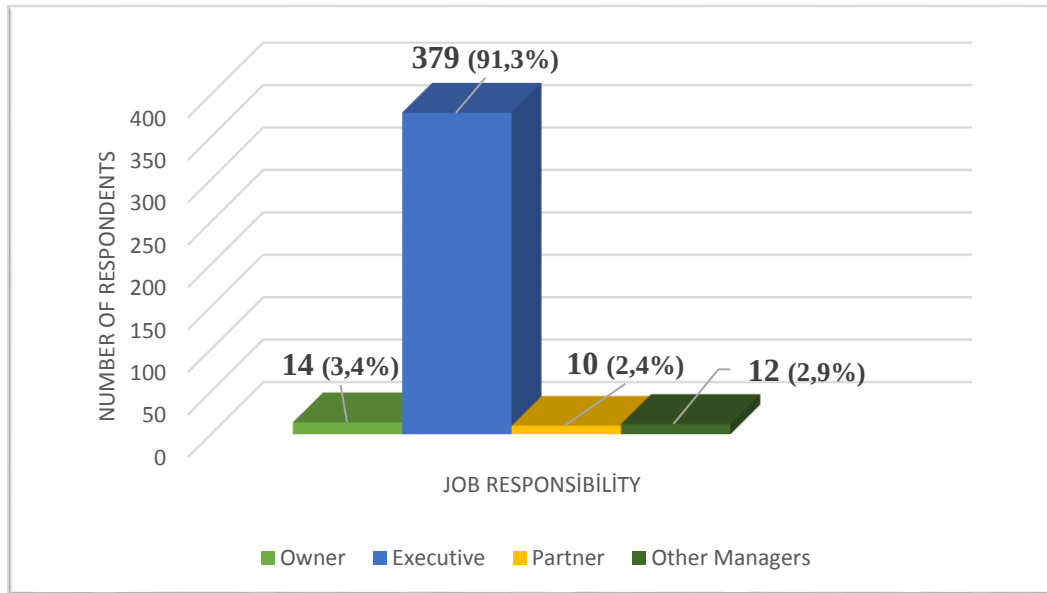
Therefore, a sample size of 415 was considered for our study well above the estimated count.

Among the 415 eligible respondents, almost all of them (91.3%) were hotel managers working as executive officers in various hotels, while only 3.4% of them were owners of the hotels, 2.4% were partners and the rest, 2.9% respondents were employed in other managerial positions in the hotels as shown in the Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1. It can be implied that almost all of the sample population was from the individuals who are responsible for strategizing and implementing during adverse situations.

Table 4.1: Job responsibility of the respondents associated with Turkish hotels

Job responsibility	Frequency	Per cent
Owner	14	3.4
Executive	379	91.3
Partner	10	2.4
Other Managers	12	2.9
Total	415	100.0

Figure 4.1: Job responsibility of the respondents from the Turkish hotel sector



The collected data were subjected to statistical analyses using the software SPSS and meaningful inference were drawn. The descriptive analyses have been presented in the form of frequency and percentage in the case of categorical variables, while the continuous variables were measured by calculating their mean and standard deviation. The inferential study includes testing of significant differences within various study constructs using appropriate statistical tests such as one-way (ANOVA) and multivariate (MANOVA) analysis of variance, structured equation modelling (SEM) and moderation analysis.

The rest of the chapter is structured as follows. Section 4.1 elaborates on the profile details of the hotels associated with the respondents. The next five sections deal with the descriptive analyses of the study variables, starting with Section 4.2 for the evaluation of Pre-crisis measurements, while Section 4.3, Section 4.4 and Section 4.5 describe the level of forecasting the crisis, and evaluation of the crisis management process, respectively, within the respondents. Section 4.6 reveals the outcomes of the crisis as the final dependent variable of the study. Section 4.7 elaborates on the variation in the abilities of respondents towards forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, and outcomes of the crisis based on the profile of the hotels under study. Section 4.8 focuses on the validity testing of the questionnaire employed in the study. Section 4.10 elaborates on the testing of the formulated hypotheses.

4.1 Profile of the Hotel

The profile of the hotel was studied according to their location, business experience, sector to which these belong within the hospitality sector, the legal status of the hotel, staff number, number of rooms in the hotel, based on which the size of the hotel was suggested.

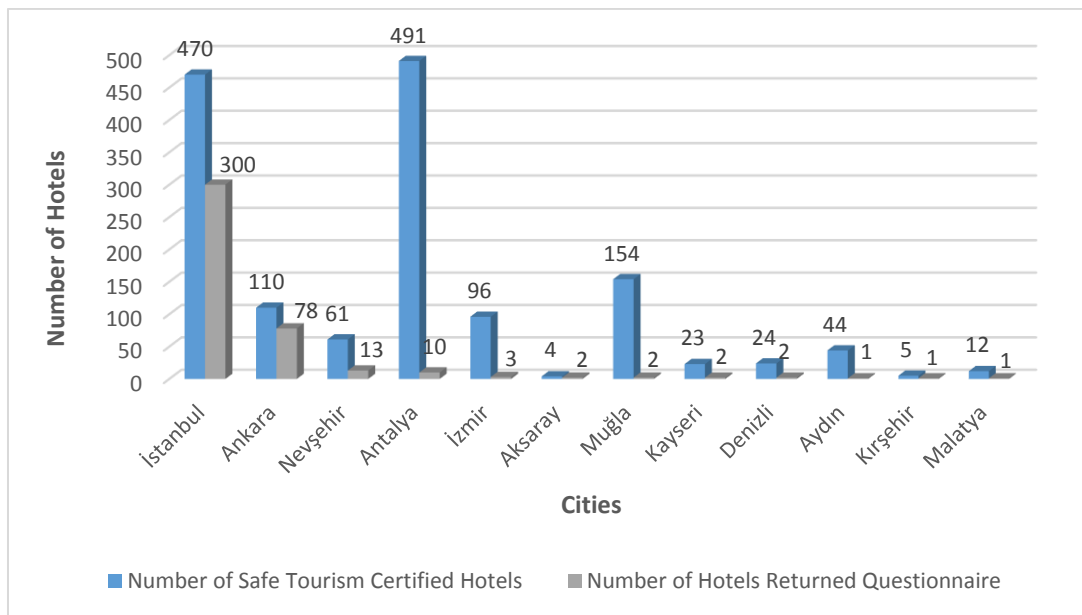
4.1.1 Location of the Hotels

Hotels that have Tourism Operation or Tourism Investment Certificate and are classified as 1-, 2-, 3-, 4- and 5-star hotels by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism were selected for the study. Table 4.2 and Figure 4.2 presents the distribution of the location of the hotels which the responding participants were engaged with. Almost three-fourths of the hotels chosen for this study were in Istanbul, which is the largest city in Türkiye, followed by 18.8% in the Turkish capital, Ankara.

Table 4.2: Location of hotels

Name of the City	Number of Safe Tourism Certified Hotels (*)	Number of Hotels Returned Questionnaire	Response Rate in Total
İstanbul	470	300	72.3
Ankara	110	78	18.9
Nevşehir	61	13	3.1
Antalya	491	10	2.4
İzmir	96	3	0.7
Aksaray	4	2	0.5
Muğla	154	2	0.5
Kayseri	23	2	0.5
Denizli	24	2	0.5
Aydın	44	1	0.2
Kırşehir	5	1	0.2
Malatya	12	1	0.2
Total	1,494	415	100.0

(*) Obtained 2022 from TGA 2022

Figure 4.2: Locations of hotels

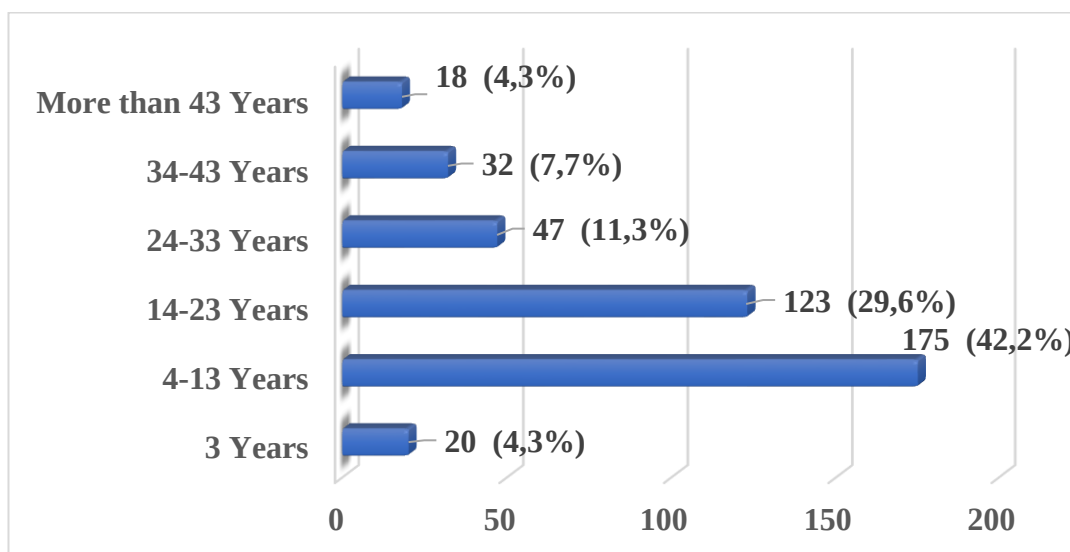
4.1.2 Age of Hotels

The distribution of hotels according to their number of years in the hotel business has been compiled in Table 4.3 and shown in Figure 4.3. The year of establishment of the sample hotels varied for over more than 100 years, from starting a business in 1910 in one case to as recent as 2022 in four cases. From the table, it can be construed that most (42.2%) of the hotels were about 4 to 13 years old, followed by 29.6% of them were about 14 to 23 years old and 11.3% of them were even older. It was interesting to see that about 5% of hotels had started during the COVID-19 pandemic period.

Table 4.3: Age of hotels

Year of establishment	Age of the hotel (years)	Frequency	Per cent
2020 – 2022*	3	20	4.8
2010 - 2020	4-13	175	42.2
2000-2010	14-23	123	29.6
1990-2000	24-33	47	11.3
1980-1990	34-43	32	7.7
Before 1980	More than 43	18	4.3
*COVID-19 pandemic period	Total	415	100.0

Figure 4.3: Age of hotels



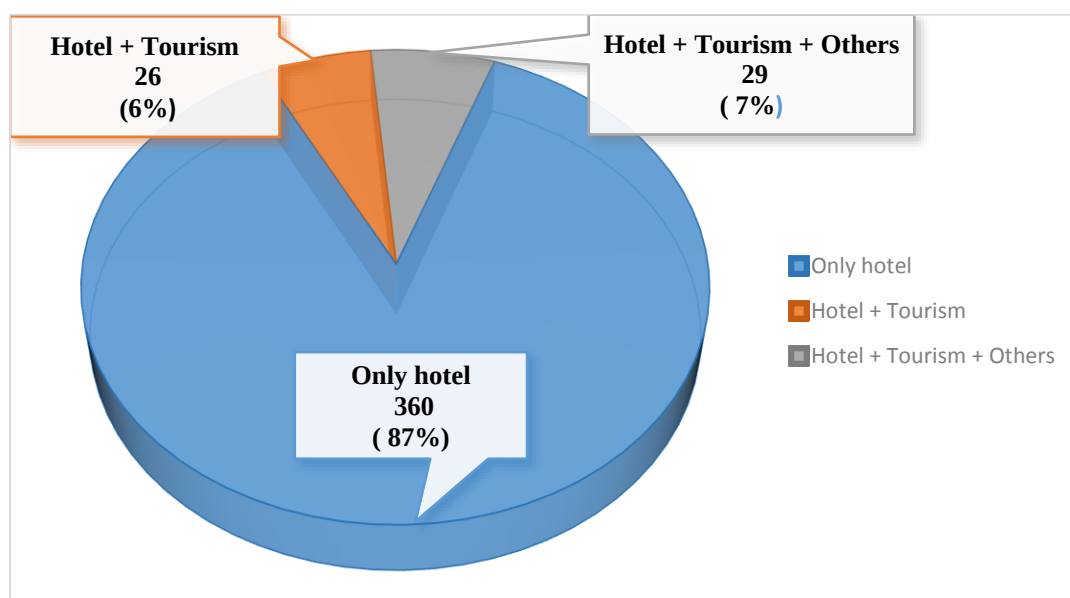
4.1.3 Affiliation of the Hotels to other Sectors/ Industries

Table 4.4 outlines the distribution of the sectors or industries to which the hotels are affiliated to. The hotel business is considered an "independent branch of the hotel sector" (City of hotels.com, 2023). Out of the 415 hotels or groups of hotels, 86.7% of them were involved in managing only the hotel, while 6.3% of them were dealing with tourism-related sectors (including the service sector, travel agency, tourism business, etc.) along with managing the hotels as shown in Figure 4.4. The rest of them (7%) of them were operating in other industries such as industrial products, the construction sector, IT technologies, etc., as well as hotel and tourism.

Table 4.4: Sector classification

Type of sector/ Sector	Frequency	Per cent
Only hotel	360	86.7
Hotel + Tourism	26	6.3
Hotel + Tourism + Others	29	7.0
Total	415	100.0

Figure 4.4: Activities of hotels or the groups it is affiliated with



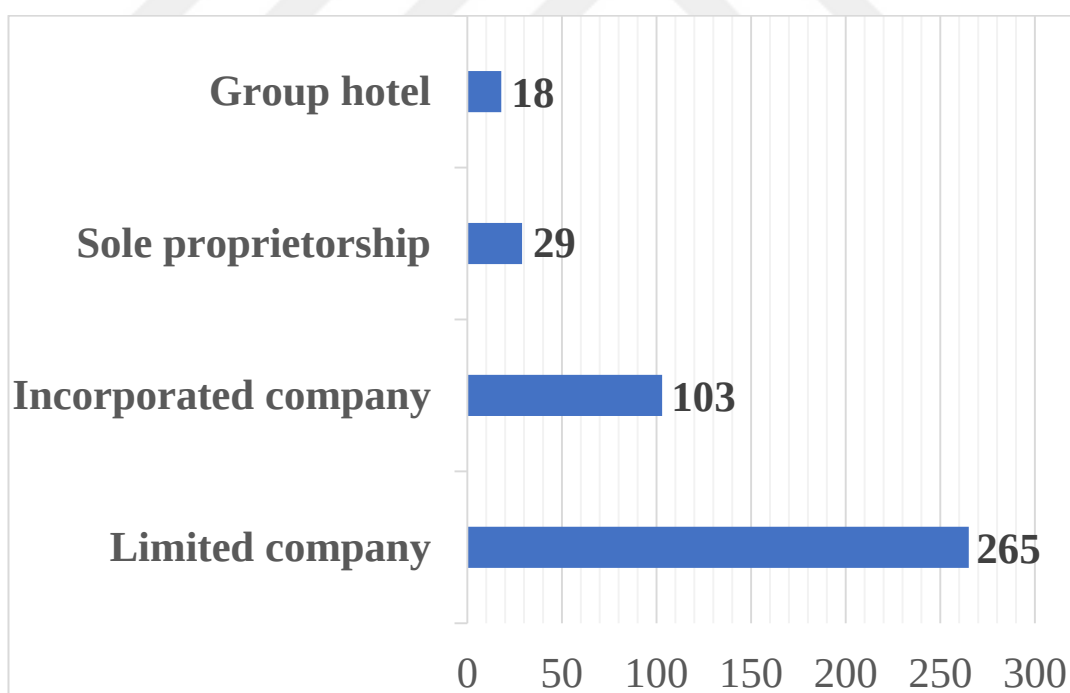
4.1.4 The Legal Status of the Hotel

Table 4.5 elaborates on the information on the legal status of the hotels. 63.9% of the hotels were registered as a limited company, while almost one-fourth (24.8%) of them were incorporated companies, another 7% had sole proprietorship and the rest, 4.3% of the hotels were part of a larger group chain as shown in Figure 4.5.

Table 4.5: Legal status of hotels

Legal status	Frequency	Per cent
Limited company	265	63.9
Incorporated company	103	24.8
Sole proprietorship	29	7.0
Group hotel	18	4.3
Total	415	100.0

Figure 4.5: Legal status of the hotel



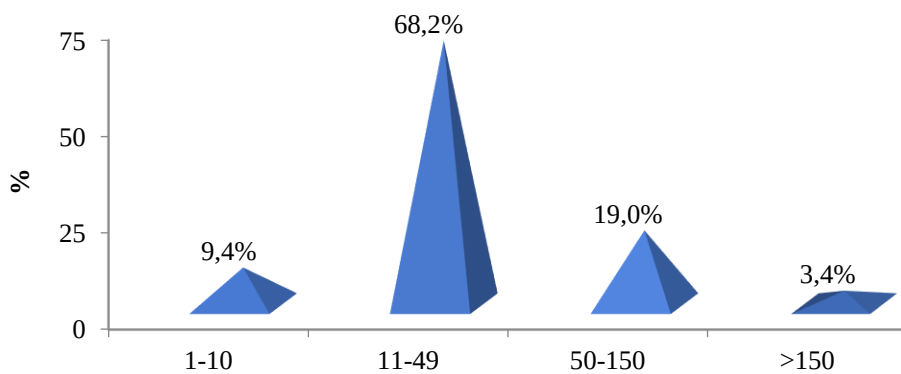
4.1.5 Number of Staff Working in Hotels

Table 4.6 highlights the number of staff of the hotels selected for the study. Considering the number of staff working in hotels, it can be implied that the majority of hotels (68.2%) had a number of staff of 11 to 49 people, while another 19% of the hotel had 51 to 150 people working there (Figure 4.6). Less than 10% of the hotels had a staff of less than 10. According to the World Tourist Organization, the status of the hotel has been associated with the number of employees of the hotel, apart from other criteria (City of Hotels.com, 2023). The optimal number for a three-star hotel is 8 employees per 10 rooms, while for a four-star hotel, the optimum strength is 12 per 10 rooms, which increases to 20 staff per 10 rooms in the case of a five-star hotel. The information given here is not enough to categorize these hotels, however, it implies that the number of staff is crucial for hotel status.

Table 4.6: Number of staff working in hotels

Number of Staff	Frequency	Per cent
1-10	39	9.4
11-50	283	68.2
51-150	79	19.0
More than 150	14	3.4
Total	415	100.0

Figure 4.6: Number of staff working in the hotel



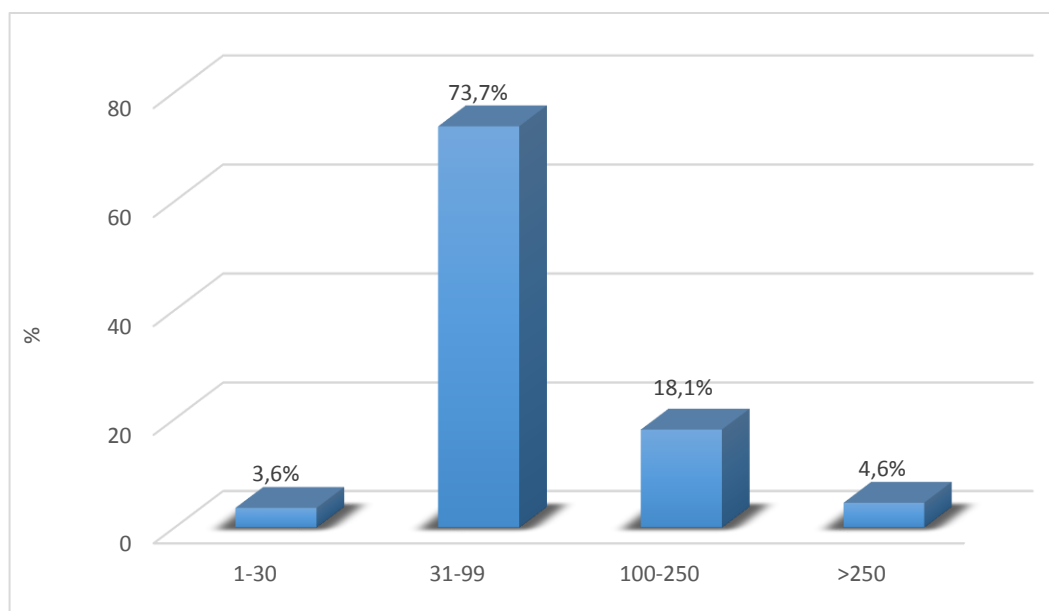
4.1.6 Number of Rooms in Hotels

The number of rooms in each hotel is also a critical parameter for the ratings of any hotel (Martin-Fuentis, 2016); however, the criteria for rating vary from country to country (Minnazzi, 2010). Table 4.7 elaborates on the distribution of hotels according to their room number. Out of the total 415 hotels present in this study, almost three fourth of them (73.7%) had 31-99 rooms available for service, while another 18.1% of them had rooms of more than 100 to 250 as in Figure 4.7.

Table 4.7: Number of rooms in the hotel

Number of Rooms	Frequency	Per cent
1-30	15	3.6
31-99	306	73.7
100-250	75	18.1
More than 250	19	4.6
Total	415	100.0

Figure 4.7: Number of rooms in the hotel



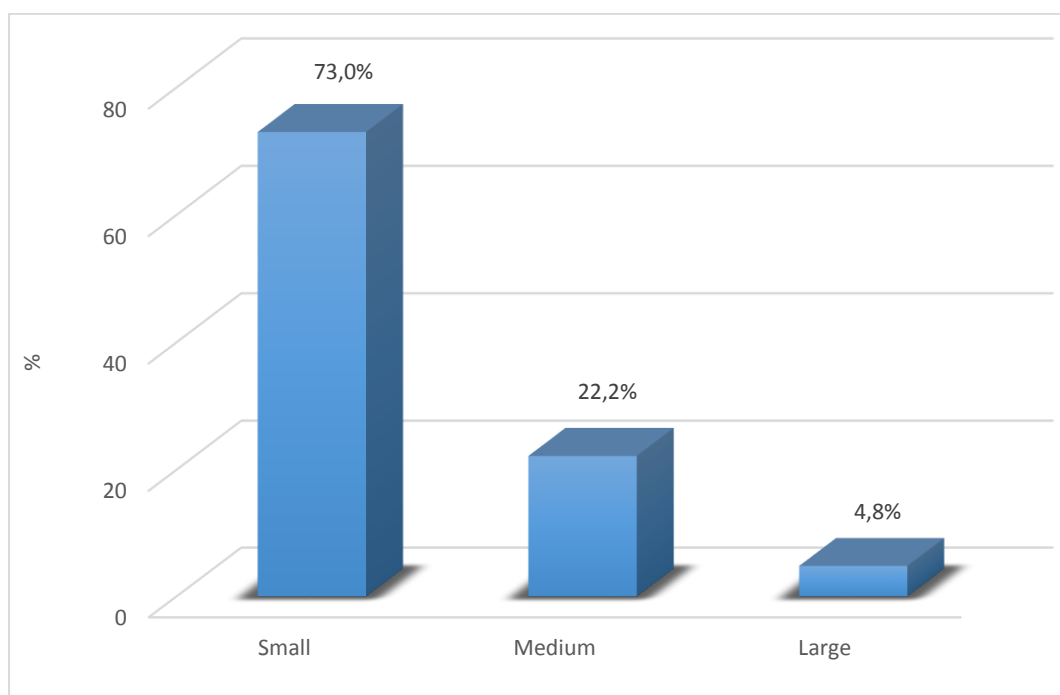
4.1.7 Size of the Hotel

Based on the number of staff and number of rooms, the size of the hotel was calculated by adding the number of staff and room size and then classifying them into percentiles. The value of ≤ 4 was considered as small, 5 was considered as medium and ≥ 6 was considered as large size. Table 4.8 represents the distribution of the hotels according to their calculated size. Almost three-fourths (73%) of the hotels in the study fell in the category of small size, while 22.2% of hotels were medium-sized and the rest, 4.8% hotels were considered to be large hotels as in Figure 4.8.

Table 4.8: Size of the hotels

Size of the hotels	Frequency	Per cent
Small	303	73.0
Medium	92	22.2
Large	20	4.8
Total	415	100.0

Figure 4.8: Size of the hotels



4.2 Pre-crisis Measurements of Hotels

The perception of respondents working in hotels towards the extent of pre-crisis measurements has been described below. The extent of crisis (COVID-19 pandemic) preparedness was evaluated through five sub-variables such as pre-crisis activities, preparation and planning, sales and marketing, saving measures, and financial measures during the period of the pandemic.

4.2.1 Pre-crisis Activities

Table 4.9 presents the extent of any pre-crisis activities (before the COVID-19 pandemic) that are conducted by the hotels, according to the respondents of this study. For interpretation, the interval between every response was calculated as 0.86, implying that the response average corresponding to 1.00 to 1.86 was interpreted as not at all, 1.87 to 2.71 as little effect, 2.72 to 3.57 as a slight effect, 3.58 to 4.43 as neutral, 4.44 to 5.29 as moderate, 5.30 to 6.14 as very, and 6.15 to 7 as to a great extent. These intervals will be used to interpret results in the coming sections.

Within the pre-crisis activities, the majority of the respondents felt that a high level of precautions was taken against potential dangers and risks towards accidents, fires, conflicts, strikes, or faulty designs (5.812 ± 1.709). The hotels were strongly keeping track of their competitors along with any possible potential competitors (5.954 ± 1.709). All necessary measures were being taken and implemented in light of experience gained from previous crises to a good extent (5.956 ± 1.712). Moreover, the sectoral, political and economic developments in the markets in which they operate were highly followed and analysed (5.747 ± 1.818). The changes in demand and preferences in the operating market were investigated and necessary actions were considered to a big extent (5.708 ± 1.841). Reports keeping track of production, sales, maintenance, repair, resource utilization, human resources, etc. were properly prepared, examined and necessary actions were taken at a high level (5.928 ± 1.697).

Actions related to development in production and services were greatly followed and adapted in the business (6.489 ± 0.705) as a measure of preparing for the crisis. Along with this, great emphasis was laid on sharing internal communication and information with the employees and stakeholders most of the time (6.590 ± 0.611). Thus, the findings indicate that the hotels were quite active in pre-crisis activities and treated it seriously.

Table 4.9: Pre-crisis activities

Pre-crisis activities	Mean	Std. Deviation
To what extent were precautions taken against potential dangers and risks (accident, fire, conflict, strike, costly wrong or faulty production/design, etc.) that could cause a crisis within your business?	5.812	1.709
To what extent would competitor and potential competitors' activities be tracked and analysed?	5.954	1.626
To what extent were necessary measures taken and implemented in light of experience gained from previous crises?	5.956	1.712
To what extent would sectoral, political and economic developments be followed in the market in which you operate, and their possible effects on the market would be analysed?	5.747	1.818
To what extent were the changes in demand and preferences in the operating market investigated and necessary actions were taken?	5.708	1.841
Production, sales, maintenance/repair, resource utilization, human resources etc. To what extent were such reports prepared, examined and necessary actions taken?	5.928	1.697
To what extent would the developments in all activities, including production/service, be followed and adapted to your business?	6.489	0.705
To what extent was the emphasis placed on internal communication and information sharing with employees and stakeholders?	6.590	0.611

4.2.2 Preparation and Planning in Hotels

Regarding the extent of preparation and planning towards crisis management as shown in Table 4.10, the majority of them agreed that many studies were conducted for determining the dimensions of the crisis and its possible effects in their hotels

(5.651 $\pm$ 1.851). Moreover, hotels have already formed teams who are capable of providing solutions for any upcoming crisis (5.639 $\pm$ 1.818). Along with this, all aspects of the crisis have been taken into consideration and an action plan has been devised and shared with the employees and stakeholders, which should be able to overcome the crisis at a more accurate level (5.824 $\pm$ 1.739). The findings indicate that a high level of preparation and planning is being done by the hotels to regulate any crisis.

Table 4.10: Preparation and planning in hotels

Preparation and planning	Mean	Std deviation
To what extent have studies been carried out to determine the dimensions of the crisis and its possible effects?	5.651	1.851
Have teams been formed about what needs to be done to get out of the crisis? To what extent have they been ensured to do the necessary work?	5.639	1.818
To what extent were the dimensions and effects of the crisis and the action plan to be implemented to overcome the crisis accurately shared with employees and stakeholders?	5.824	1.739

4.2.3 Sales and Marketing in Hotels

Table 4.11 elaborates on the extent of sales and marketing activities done by the hotel. It was observed that the active sales and marketing strategies of the hotels can be useful in mitigating the effects of the crisis to a high extent (5.786 $\pm$ 1.794). New service offerings were prioritized as marketing strategies (5.773 $\pm$ 1.797) and more stable new markets were highly sought after (5.817 $\pm$ 1.749). Moreover, a lot of investments have been made in equipment technology to decrease the costs of operation, production, services, and others so that there is an eventual increase in efficiency (5.908 $\pm$ 1.694). Along with this, a lot of emphases was placed on research, planning and development, especially giving special weightage to the maintenance of the competitive position (5.916 $\pm$ 1.458).

Table 4.11: Sales and marketing in hotels

Sales and marketing	Mean	Std deviation
To what extent was a very active sales and marketing strategy followed to mitigate the effects of the crisis?	5.786	1.794
To what extent was the focus on marketing activities for the new service offering?	5.773	1.797
To what extent were more stable new markets sought?	5.817	1.749
To what extent have investments been made in equipment technology to reduce production/service and operation costs and increase efficiency?	5.908	1.694
To what extent was the emphasis placed on R&D and P&D activities to maintain the competitive position?	5.916	1.458

4.2.4 Savings Measures Taken by Hotels

Enquiring the extent of savings measured that were taken by the hotels as shown in Table 4.12, it was observed that the employees had been given a lot of unpaid leaves to limit the employee expenses (5.754 ± 1.841). Huge cuts were made to each item of the operating budgets (5.853 ± 1.799) and great lengths were taken to be attentive towards decreasing the critical stock levels while maintaining the stocks only needed for daily services (5.790 ± 1.820). Thus, the findings indicate that saving measures were adopted by the hotels to survive the pandemic.

Table 4.12: Savings measures taken by hotels

Savings measures	Mean	Std deviation
To what extent have employees been given unpaid leave or reduced in number?	5.754	1.841
To what extent were cuts made to each item of the operating budget?	5.853	1.799
To what extent has attention been paid to reducing critical stock levels and keeping stock only as required by daily service production?	5.790	1.820

4.2.5 Financial Measures Taken by the Hotels

Coming to the financial measures taken by the hotels as a part of crisis preparation as shown in Table 4.13, it was found that the debt restructure was highly negotiated with the financial institutions and all creditors (5.875 ± 1.621). To improve the financial conditions, the emphasis was heavily laid on the early collection of receivables to get discounts (5.530 ± 1.835). This indicates that the hotels also believed in taking financial measures as a part of the preventive exercise.

Table 4.13: Financial measures taken by the hotels

Financial measures	Mean	Std deviation
To what extent has the debt restructured been negotiated with financial institutions and all creditors?	5.875	1.621
To what extent was the emphasis given to an early collection of receivables, with some discounts if necessary?	5.530	1.835

4.3 Forecasting the Crisis

Table 4.14 elaborates on the extent of success that the managers of the hotels able to predict the crisis during the management practices during and after the crisis. Similar to the pre-crisis measurements variable, the interval between every response was calculated as 0.86, implying that the response average corresponding to 1.00 to 1.86 was interpreted as extremely unsuccessful, 1.87 to 2.71 as Very unsuccessful, 2.72 to 3.57 as Unsuccessful, 3.58 to 4.43 as partially successful, 4.44 to 5.29 as Successful, 5.30 to 6.14 as Very successful, and 6.15 to 7 as perfect.

It was observed that the management was quite successful in predicting the crisis (5.998 ± 1.560). On top of it all, the management was positive that they were able to respond to the crisis promptly (5.783 ± 1.742). The management was able to handle the events during the crisis (5.831 ± 1.643). A lot of different solutions were successfully produced during the crisis (5.745 ± 1.773). Apart from this, the management heavily recommended undergoing the process of normalization process

as a measure of bouncing back from the crisis (6.031 ± 1.584). Along with this, the extent of the ability of decision-making by the management was measured as a part of crisis forecasting. It was found that the decisions taken by the management at the beginning and during the crisis in terms of crisis appropriateness and solution orientation were of average quality (5.067 ± 1.155). This indicates that there is a need as well as scope for improvement in this aspect, especially during managing the crisis. All this indicates that the managers of the respective hotels were highly successful in forecasting the crisis in the future.

Table 4.14: Forecasting the crisis

Forecasting the crisis	Mean	Std. Deviation
Management's success in predicting the crisis.	5.998	1.560
Management's success in responding to the crisis promptly.	5.783	1.742
Management's approach and handling of events during the crisis.	5.831	1.643
Management's success in producing different solutions to problems during the crisis.	5.745	1.773
After the crisis, the approach of the management to the events in the normalization process and the way it was handled.	6.031	1.584
Decisions taken by the management at the beginning and during the crisis are appropriate and solution-oriented.	5.067	1.155

4.4 Crisis Management Process

Table 4.15 explains the various impactful processes that are considered as the part of evaluation of the COVID-19 pandemic crisis management process employed by various hotels to mitigate the crisis. It was observed that the preparatory meetings and action plans that were held when the crisis first emerged left quite an impact (5.935 ± 1.480). Apart from this, any measures as a part of the processes and activities conducted towards sales and marketing (6.034 ± 1.476), production activities including goods/services (5.961 ± 1.538), human resources (5.896 ± 1.732), and

finances (5.911 ± 1.603) were also highly impactful, thereby making the processes of crisis management highly effective. In addition, communication between the employees and stakeholders was found to be quite impactful. Finally, almost all of them believed that developments at the sectoral, political and economic levels led to highly positive effects. Amongst all the measures, examining these developments created the maximum impact on the process of crisis management.

Table 4.15: Crisis management process

Crisis management process	Mean	Std. Deviation
The impact of the preparatory meetings and action plans that were held when the crisis first emerged.	5.935	1.480
The effect of the measures and actions taken in sales and marketing.	6.034	1.476
The effect of measures and actions taken in goods/services, and production activities.	5.961	1.538
The effect of the measures and actions taken on human resources.	5.896	1.732
The effect of the measures and actions taken on finance.	5.911	1.603
The impact of communication with employees and stakeholders.	6.007	1.506
Analysing sectoral, political and economic developments.	6.214	1.339

4.5 Outcomes of the Crisis on Hotels

The outcomes of the COVID-19 pandemic crisis on the hotels were measured in two ways, namely, internal and external.

4.5.1 Internal Outcomes of Crisis in Hotels

Table 4.16 presents the perception of the extent of changes that the hotel business underwent internally due to the crisis. It was observed that the recent crisis hit hard on the hotels due to the COVID-19 pandemic and the continuing Ukraine-Russia war. Human resources were heavily impacted due to the crisis, which led to changing

of business in a very good way (6.048 ± 1.616). The visible impact was also found in all the administrative or managerial processes that caused changes in a quite good manner in goods or service production (5.867 ± 1.658) and sales and marketing processes (5.904 ± 1.697) that were implemented into the business, and any things or services formed as a part of the business (5.964 ± 1.603). Even the model of their businesses got changed for good during the crisis time (6.010 ± 1.554). This shows that even though the hotel sector was severely impacted due to the crisis, the crisis changed the business internally.

Table 4.16: Internal outcomes of the crisis on hotels

Internal outcomes of the crisis on hotels	Mean	Standard deviation
All administrative/managerial processes, including human resources, applied in your business	6.048	1.616
Good/service production processes implemented by your business	5.867	1.658
Goods or services produced by your business	5.964	1.603
The business model of your business	6.010	1.554
Sales and marketing processes and/or after-sales service processes implemented by your business	5.904	1.697

4.5.2 External Outcomes of the Crisis on Hotels

Coming to the external impacts that the crisis caused on the hotels, Table 4.17 examines this quantitatively. It was observed that the crisis heavily affected the market share of the hotels (5.677 ± 1.839). Along with this, these recent crises also severely impacted the reputation of the hotels with the customers and suppliers (6.048 ± 1.584). Moreover, it also drastically impacted the size and growth of the hotels (6.082 ± 1.557). This indicates that even though the preparation for the crisis was done by the hotels, however, the hotel sector got badly affected due to the crisis caused by the pandemic.

Table 4.17: External outcomes of the crisis on hotels

Outcomes of Crisis (External)	Mean	Std. Deviation
The crisis has affected the market share of the hotels.	5.677	1.839
The crisis affected our business's reputation with customers and suppliers.	6.048	1.584
The crisis affected the size of our business.	6.082	1.557

4.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), one of the recommended ways of validity testing (Medsker, Williams, & Holahan, 1994), was employed to test the construct validity of the scales of measurement used in the questionnaire. It has been adopted to classify many interrelated factors depending upon their common factors that are measured using a set of items and the items have a linear relationship with the average of the scales (Levine, 2005). First, a measurement model needs to be specified at first for each of the study constructs and later the goodness-of-fit of the model was assessed to determine how well the empirical data fitted the hypothetical structure (model). The goodness-of-fit indices considered by the researcher included the chi-square statistics and other measures of close fit, including Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). The factor loadings were found to be greater than 0.5 for all the items used for the measurement, which confirmed the uni-dimensionality of the scale. The validated measurement model was then adopted for building the structural model using SEM, which tested the hypothesized relationships in the study. In the present study, Analysis of moment structures (AMOS) software v.21 was used for conducting CFA for the scales that measure Pre-crisis measurements and Outcomes of crisis.

4.6.1 Pre-crisis Measurements

Figure 4.9 presents the constructs of the five factors of pre-crisis measurements. Table 4.18 represents the model fit indices for the factors that were considered for pre-crisis measurements. The Chi-Square (CMI/DF) value was found to be 3.023, which was found to be in the acceptable range as suggested by Bollen and Long (1993) and Kelloway (1995). Further, the values of CFI (0.956), NFI (0.936), RFI (0.918), IFI (0.956), and TLI (0.944) were also found to be within the recommended acceptable limits. The values of the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) were found to be 0.070, which was also within the acceptable levels. Hence, it can be stated that the scales used in the instrument successfully measured their latent constructs, as indicated by the goodness-of-fit indices.

Figure 4.9: Measurement model representing CFA for pre-crisis measurements

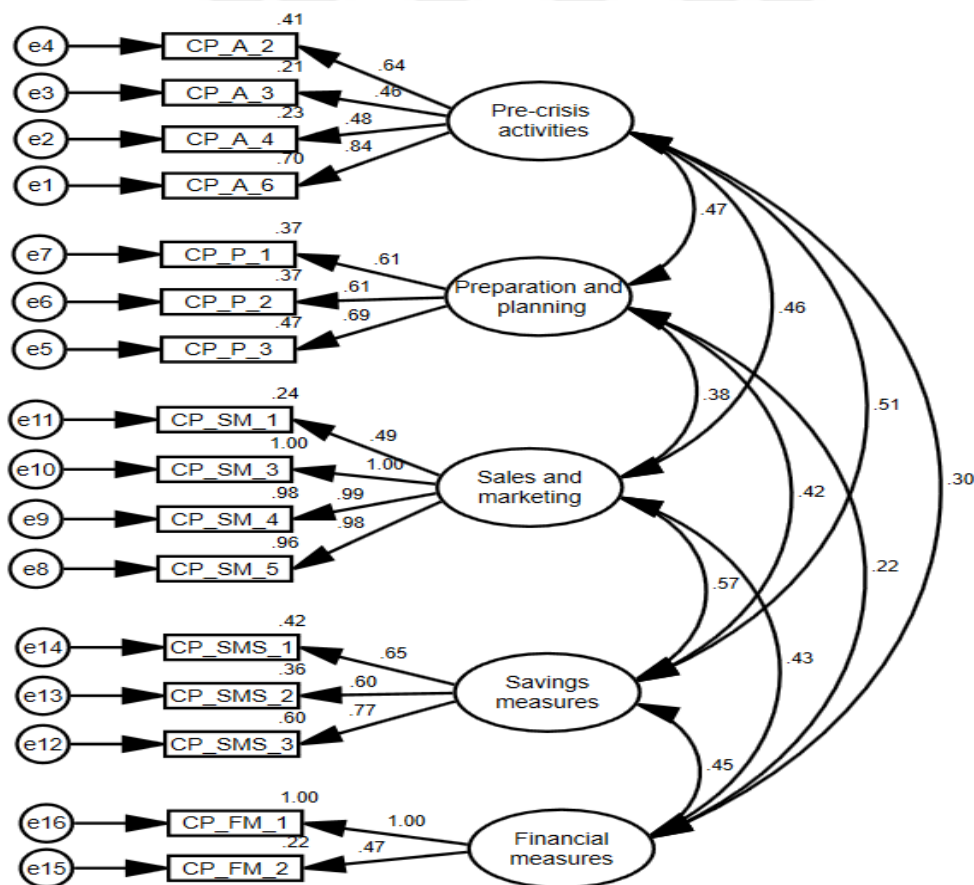


Table 4.18: Model fit indices for pre-crisis measurements

Model Fit Indices	Observed Value	Recommended values	Source for recommended values
Chi-square (CMIN/DF)	3.023	1-5	Bollen and Long, 1993, Kelloway, 1995
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.936	> 0.90	Byrne, 1994
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	0.918	> 0.90	Bollen, 1990
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	0.956	> 0.90	Bollen, 1990
Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)	0.944	> 0.90	Hu and Bentler, 1998
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.956	> 0.90	Byrne, 1994
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.070	< 0.08	MacCallum et al., 1996

Standardized Estimates were used for examining the relationship between the observed and the underlying latent constructs of the study as shown in Table 4.19. From the table, the items that measured the various sub-factors measured pre-crisis measurements since its standard estimates ranged from 0.463 to 0.998. The values of the critical ratio (CR) were above 1.96 and significant at $p < 0.05$. Thus, the estimated path parameters are significant. Bagozzi and Yi (1988) suggested a criterion for verifying the validity of the reflective constructs where their factor load must be greater than 0.6. It was observed that the items of pre-crisis activities, preparation and planning, sales and marketing, savings measures and financial measures evaluated pre-crisis measurements, hence were retained in the scale. The standard estimate values were found to be within the range of 0.010 to 0.226, which exhibits high values of factor loadings for pre-crisis measurements parameters and these factors were indeed related.

Table 4.19: Standardized regression weights for pre-crisis measurements

Construct	Path	Pre-crisis measurements	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
CP_A_6	<---	Pre-crisis activities	0.839			
CP_A_4	<---	Pre-crisis activities	0.482	0.072	8.598	***
CP_A_3	<---	Pre-crisis activities	0.463	0.067	8.285	***
CP_A_2	<---	Pre-crisis activities	0.638	0.067	10.917	***
CP_P_3	<---	Preparation and planning	0.687			
CP_P_2	<---	Preparation and planning	0.608	0.110	8.397	***
CP_P_1	<---	Preparation and planning	0.609	0.112	8.399	***
CP_SM_5	<---	Sales and marketing	0.982			
CP_SM_4	<---	Sales and marketing	0.988	0.012	81.563	***
CP_SM_3	<---	Sales and marketing	0.998	0.010	99.717	***
CP_SM_1	<---	Sales and marketing	0.494	0.046	11.468	***
CP_SMS_3	<---	Savings measures	0.774			
CP_SMS_2	<---	Savings measures	0.601	0.075	10.222	***
CP_SMS_1	<---	Savings measures	0.647	0.078	10.808	***
CP_FM_2	<---	Financial measures	0.473			
CP_FM_1	<---	Financial measures	0.998	0.226	5.220	***

S.E. - Standard error, C.R. – Estimate/S. E

The internal consistency of the scale measuring pre-crisis measurements was assessed using the composite reliability (CR) coefficient (Table 4.20). Composite reliability refers to the internal consistency and reliability of a set of items that represent a reflective factor. Since, the composite reliability of all the items was above the threshold value of 0.6 (Chin, 1998), the items in the scale were considered to be reliable.

Table 4.20: Covariances for pre-crisis measurements

Construct	Path	Construct	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Pre-crisis activities	<-->	Sales and marketing	1.103	.147	7.506	***
Pre-crisis activities	<-->	Savings measures	1.024	.146	6.994	***
Pre-crisis activities	<-->	Financial measures	0.584	.159	3.678	***
Pre-crisis activities	<-->	Preparation and planning	0.795	.131	6.053	***
Preparation and planning	<-->	Financial measures	.366	.124	2.963	.003
Preparation and planning	<-->	Savings measures	.703	.131	5.354	***
Preparation and planning	<-->	Sales and marketing	.764	.134	5.705	***
Sales and marketing	<-->	Financial measures	.991	.226	4.375	***
Sales and marketing	<-->	Savings measures	1.338	.159	8.402	***
Savings measures	<-->	Financial measures	.865	.206	4.201	***

The correlation between constructs of Pre-crisis measurements was studied as shown in Table 4.21. It was found that the highest correlation existed between sales and marketing with saving measures ($r = 0.565$), followed by Preparation and planning and Financial measures ($r = 0.224$) with the lowest between Preparation and planning Financial measures

Table 4.21: Correlations for pre-crisis measurements

Construct	Path	Construct	Estimate
Pre-crisis activities	<-->	Sales and marketing	.461
Pre-crisis activities	<-->	Savings measures	.512
Pre-crisis activities	<-->	Financial measures	.301
Pre-crisis activities	<-->	Preparation and planning	.469
Preparation and planning	<-->	Financial measures	.224
Preparation and planning	<-->	Savings measures	.419
Preparation and planning	<-->	Sales and marketing	.380
Sales and marketing	<-->	Financial measures	.431
Sales and marketing	<-->	Savings measures	.565
Savings measures	<-->	Financial measures	.450

Squared multiple correlations provided in Table 4.22 shows the degree of variance in the indicator explained by the underlying sub-factor. The values ranged between 0.214 and 0.997 which shows that at least 20% variance in these indicators is explained by the corresponding sub-construct that they measure. Based on the testing of the measurement model, it was found to be reliable and valid and hence the same has been adopted for studying the structural relationship among the main variables in the study model.

Table 4.22: Squared multiple correlations for pre-crisis measurements

Items	Estimate
CP_FM_1	.997
CP_FM_2	.223
CP_SMS_1	.419
CP_SMS_2	.361
CP_SMS_3	.599
CP_SM_1	.244
CP_SM_3	.997
CP_SM_4	.976
CP_SM_5	.964
CP_P_1	.370
CP_P_2	.370
CP_P_3	.473
CP_A_2	.408
CP_A_3	.214
CP_A_4	.232
CP_A_6	.704

4.6.2 Outcomes of Crisis

Similar to pre-crisis measurements, a measurement model was also specified for the two factors of outcomes of crisis in Figure 4.10. The goodness-of-fit indices for the model are provided in Table 4.23. The Chi-Square (CMI/DF) value was found to be 1.163, which is acceptable (Bollen & Long, 1993, Kelloway, 1995). Further, the values of CFI (0.999), NFI (0.996), RFI (0.990), IFI (0.999) and TLI (0.999) were also found to be within the acceptable limits. The values of RMSEA were found to be 0.020, which is below the threshold level. Nevertheless, most of the indices were within the acceptable limits, therefore the measurement model for outcomes of crisis has been considered to be a good fit for the observations made.

Figure 4.10: Outcomes of crisis

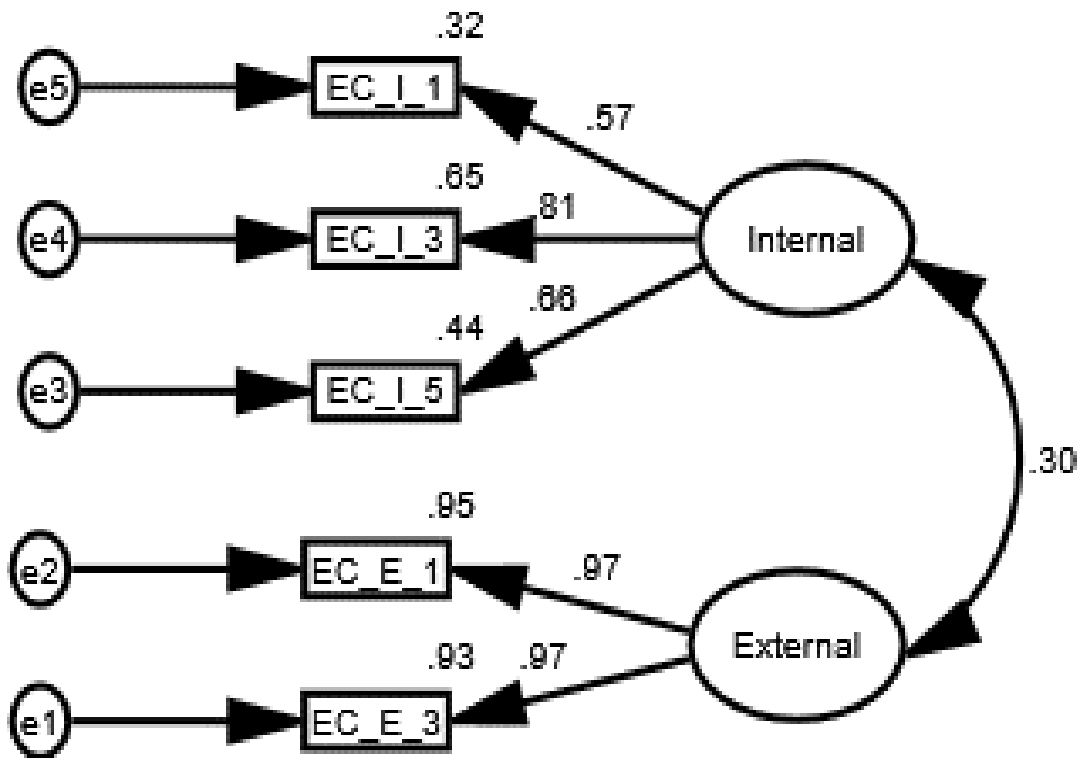


Table 4.23: Model fit indices for outcomes of the crisis

Model Fit Indices	Observed Value	Recommended values	Source for recommended values
Chi-square (CMIN/DF)	1.163	1-5	Bollen and Long, 1993, Kelloway, 1995
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.996	> 0.90	Byrne, 1994
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	0.990	> 0.90	Bollen, 1990
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	0.999	> 0.90	Bollen, 1990
Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)	0.999	> 0.90	Hu and Bentler, 1998
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.999	> 0.90	Byrne, 1994
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.020	< 0.08	MacCallum et al., 1996

The relationship between the observed variables and the underlying constructs for outcomes of crisis can be studied with the help of standardized estimates, as shown in Table 4.24. The criteria for the validity of the items are that the factor load must be greater than 0.6, as suggested by Bagozzi and Yi (1988). The factor loadings of all the items measuring the reflective constructs, Internal and External, were found to be greater than or close to 0.6, except for I_1. Hence, except for this item, all the other items for internal and external outcomes of the crisis were retained in the scale. The standardized factor loadings of items measuring the construct were found to be ≥ 0.5 , which indicates the convergent validity of the items in the scale, i.e., the items in the constructs which are to be related are indeed related.

Table 4.24: Standardized regression weights for outcomes of the crisis

Item	Path	Construct	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
EC_E_3	<---	External	.965			
EC_E_1	<---	External	.975	.067	14.799	***
EC_I_5	<---	Internal	.664			
EC_I_3	<---	Internal	.806	.125	9.194	***
EC_I_1	<---	Internal	.569	.090	9.047	***

S.E. - Standard error, C.R. – Estimate/S.E

The internal consistency of the scale measuring outcomes of the crisis was assessed using the composite reliability (CR) coefficient shown in Table 4.25. As the composite reliability of all the items was above the threshold value of 0.6 (Chin, 1998), the items in the scale were considered to be reliable. Thus, it can be inferred that External outcomes of crisis and Internal outcomes of crisis have a positive correlation, and thus can be used for drawing implications for this study.

Table 4.25: Covariances for outcomes of the crisis

Construct	Path	Construct	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
External	<-->	Internal	.508	.110	4.623	***

The correlations among the sub-factors measuring outcomes of crisis have been presented in Table 4.26. There was a low level of correlation between the internal and external outcomes of the crisis ($r = 0.297$).

Table 4.26: Correlations for outcomes of the crisis

Construct	Path	Correlations	Estimate
External	<-->	Internal	.297

The squared multiple correlations for the indicators ranged between 0.324 and 0.950, which indicates that a minimum of 32% of the variance in the indicators was explained by the underlying sub-factors for the construct of outcomes of the crisis, as seen in Table 4.27. The measurement model was thus found to be reliable and valid hence was retained for developing the final structural model.

Table 4.27: Squared multiple correlations for outcomes of the crisis

Items	Estimate
EC_I_1	.324
EC_I_3	.650
EC_I_5	.441
EC_E_1	.950
EC_E_3	.932

4.7 Differences in Study Variables Based on the Profile of the Hotel Professionals

The differences in study variables based on the job responsibility of the participants have been presented in Table 4.28. The level of crisis forecasting was highest among the owners (6.000 ± 0.777) and least in others (5.667 ± 0.745), while the crisis management process was maximum among partners (6.014 ± 0.739) and minimum in others (5.702 ± 0.972). The effect of job responsibility on the study variables was evaluated using one-way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) as presented in Table 4.29. The findings from ANOVA show there are statistically no significant differences in forecasting crisis, evaluation of crisis management process and outcomes of crisis (internal and external) between the hotel professionals based on their job responsibilities ($p > 0.05$).

Table 4.28: Study variables based on the job personality of the hotel professionals

Variable	Job Responsibility	Mean	Std. Deviation
Forecasting the crisis	Owner	6.000	0.777
	Executive	5.884	1.110
	Partner	5.700	1.132
	Other	5.667	0.745
Crisis management process	Owner	5.908	0.851
	Executive	6.006	0.884
	Partner	6.014	0.739
	Other	5.702	0.972
External outcomes of the crisis	Owner	6.333	0.877
	Executive	5.933	1.260
	Partner	5.567	1.648
	Other	5.861	1.453
Internal outcomes of the crisis	Owner	5.971	0.904
	Executive	5.974	1.012
	Partner	5.860	1.054
	Other	5.550	1.224

Table 4.29: Differences in forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of the crisis based on the job responsibility of respondents

Variable	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Forecasting the crisis	Between Groups	1.077	3	0.359	0.300	0.825
	Within Groups	491.265	411	1.195		
	Total	492.342	414			
Crisis management process	Between Groups	1.183	3	0.394	0.506	0.678
	Within Groups	320.089	411	0.779		
	Total	321.272	414			
External outcomes of the crisis	Between Groups	3.645	3	1.215	0.759	0.517
	Within Groups	657.531	411	1.600		
	Total	661.175	414			
Internal outcomes of the crisis	Between Groups	2.188	3	0.729	0.707	0.548
	Within Groups	423.899	411	1.031		
	Total	426.087	414			

4.8 Differences in Study Variables based on the Profile of the Hotels

4.8.1 Differences in Forecasting the Crisis, Evaluation of Crisis Management Process, the External and Internal Impact of the Crisis Based on the City of the Hotels

Table 4.30 elaborates on the mean and standard deviation for the understanding forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, and the external and internal outcomes of the crisis characterized according to the city of the hotels. The external outcomes of crisis as well as the crisis management process was minimal in the hotels

located at Aydın. Forecasting the crisis is minimal in the hotels located at Denizli and highest in hotels at Malatya.

Table 4.30: Forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal impact of the crisis based on the city of the hotel

Variables	City of the hotel	Mean	Std. Deviation
Forecasting the crisis	Aksaray	5.400	0.000
	Ankara	5.746	1.011
	Antalya	5.540	1.614
	Aydın	4.600	0.000
	Denizli	4.500	2.121
	Istanbul	5.977	1.076
	Izmir	5.267	0.611
	Kayseri	5.000	0.566
	Kirsehir	5.400	0.000
	Malatya	6.000	0.000
	Mugla	5.400	1.131
	Nevsehir	5.400	1.281
Evaluation of crisis management process	Aksaray	5.286	0.000
	Ankara	5.947	0.832
	Antalya	5.600	1.254
	Aydın	3.571	0.000
	Denizli	5.000	2.020
	Istanbul	6.075	0.849
	Izmir	5.143	1.407
	Kayseri	5.500	1.111
	Kirsehir	5.286	0.000
	Malatya	6.000	0.000
	Mugla	5.857	1.616
	Nevsehir	5.505	0.805

Table 4.30: (Continued) Forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal impact of the crisis based on the city of the hotel

Variables	City of the hotel	Mean	Std. Deviation
External	Aksaray	5.667	0.000
	Ankara	6.201	0.979
	Antalya	5.000	1.515
	Aydın	3.000	0.000
	Denizli	5.000	0.943
	Istanbul	5.953	1.257
	Izmir	5.111	2.009
	Kayseri	5.000	2.828
	Kirsehir	5.667	0.000
	Malatya	7.000	0.000
	Mugla	5.500	2.121
	Nevsehir	5.410	1.796
Internal	Aksaray	4.600	0.000
	Ankara	5.895	1.026
	Antalya	5.520	1.473
	Aydın	4.600	0.000
	Denizli	5.400	2.263
	Istanbul	6.063	0.947
	Izmir	5.600	0.872
	Kayseri	5.400	1.131
	Kirsehir	4.600	0.000
	Malatya	6.000	0.000
	Mugla	5.400	1.131
	Nevsehir	5.031	1.346

Table 4.31 shows that statistically significant differences were observed in the perceptions of the hotel professionals on evaluation of crisis management process ($F(11, 403) = 2.284, p < 0.05$), and the external ($F(11, 403) = 1.975, p < 0.05$) as well internal outcomes of crisis ($F(11, 403) = 2.412, p < 0.05$) employing one-way ANOVAs. The Tukey's test for multiple comparison was found to be invalid as some of the cities had only one hotel.

Table 4.31: Differences in forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of the crisis based on the city of the hotel

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Forecasting the crisis	Between Groups	17.640	11	1.604	1.361	0.189
	Within Groups	474.701	403	1.178		
	Total	492.342	414			
Evaluation of crisis management process	Between Groups	18.856	11	1.714	2.284	0.010
	Within Groups	302.415	403	0.750		
	Total	321.272	414			
External	Between Groups	33.812	11	3.074	1.975	0.030
	Within Groups	627.364	403	1.557		
	Total	661.175	414			
Internal	Between Groups	26.324	11	2.393	2.412	0.007
	Within Groups	399.764	403	0.992		
	Total	426.087	414			

4.8.2 Differences in Forecasting the Crisis, Evaluation of the Crisis Management Process, the External and Internal Impact of the Crisis Based on the Age of the Hotels

Table 4.32 presents the mean and standard deviation for the understanding of forecasting the crisis, the crisis management process, and the external and internal outcomes of the crisis categorized according to the age of the hotel. The forecasting crisis abilities, as well as evaluation of the crisis management process, were highest in the hotels that are older than 40 years and lowest in hotels that are 11 to 20 years old.

Table 4.32: Forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, the external and internal impact of the crisis based on business years

Variables	Business years	Mean	Std. Deviation
Forecasting the crisis	Since COVID-19	6.030	0.757
	<10 years	5.903	0.990
	11 - 20 years	5.701	1.305
	21 - 30 years	5.902	1.152
	31 - 40 years	6.081	0.670
	>40 years	6.244	1.084
Evaluation of crisis management process	Since COVID-19	6.150	0.717
	<10 years	5.940	0.888
	11 - 20 years	5.921	1.027
	21 - 30 years	6.061	0.662
	31 - 40 years	6.098	0.678
	>40 years	6.492	0.514
External outcomes of the crisis	Since COVID-19	6.033	0.942
	<10 years	5.794	1.374
	11 - 20 years	5.989	1.216
	21 - 30 years	6.106	1.172
	31 - 40 years	5.938	1.219
	>40 years	6.389	0.998
Internal outcomes of the crisis	Since COVID-19	5.800	1.113
	<10 years	5.840	1.072
	11 - 20 years	5.998	0.987
	21 - 30 years	6.085	0.920
	31 - 40 years	6.119	0.999
	>40 years	6.400	0.578

There were no statistically significant differences in the opinion of the hotel professionals on any of the study variables based on the age of the hotels ($p > 0.05$) as revealed by the one-way ANOVAs, as shown in Table 4.33. This indicates that the hotel professionals belonging to hotels with many years of business experience thought alike about the study variables.

Table 4.33: Differences in forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal impact of a crisis based on the number of business years

Variables	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Forecasting the crisis	Between Groups	8.198	5	1.640	1.385	0.229
	Within Groups	484.143	409	1.184		
	Total	492.342	414			
Evaluation of crisis management process	Between Groups	6.682	5	1.336	1.738	0.125
	Within Groups	314.589	409	0.769		
	Total	321.272	414			
External outcomes of the crisis	Between Groups	9.108	5	1.822	1.143	0.337
	Within Groups	652.067	409	1.594		
	Total	661.175	414			
Internal outcomes of the crisis	Between Groups	8.239	5	1.648	1.613	0.155
	Within Groups	417.848	409	1.022		
	Total	426.087	414			

4.8.3 Differences in Forecasting the Crisis, Evaluation of Crisis Management Process, External and Internal Outcomes of a Crisis based on Sector Affiliation of the Hotels

Table 4.34 elucidates the mean and standard deviation for the understanding of forecasting the crisis, the crisis management process, and the external and internal outcomes of the crisis characterized based on the industrial affiliation of the hotels. The crisis forecasting and evaluation of the crisis management process was highest in hotels that were only into hotel management and lowest in hotels dealing with tourism along with hotel management. It was observed that there were significant differences between the perception of internal outcomes of crisis in hotels which were only affiliated to their management (6.011 ± 0.960) and hotels that also dealt with tourism along with self-management (5.523 ± 1.155). This indicates that hotel affiliation also creates differences in perception towards the extent of internal crisis outcomes.

Table 4.34: Forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, the external and internal impact of the crisis based on sector classification of the hotels

Variables	Sector classification	Mean	Std. Deviation
Forecasting the crisis	Hotel management	5.934	1.061
	Hotel + tourism	5.469	0.981
	Hotel + tourism + others	5.545	1.407
Crisis Management process	Hotel management	6.027	0.857
	Hotel + tourism	5.610	0.937
	Hotel + tourism + others	5.936	1.053
External outcomes of the crisis	Hotel management.	5.962	1.249
	Hotel + tourism	5.962	1.273
	Hotel + tourism + others	5.586	1.424
Internal outcomes of the crisis	Hotel management	6.011	0.960
	Hotel + tourism	5.523	1.155
	Hotel + tourism+ others	5.697	1.387

One-way ANOVA conducted showed that there were statistically significant differences were observed in the perceptions of the hotel professionals only on forecasting the crisis ($F(2,412) = 3.700, p < 0.05$) and the internal outcomes of crisis ($F(2,412) = 3.899, p < 0.05$) employing one-way ANOVA's as shown in Table 4.35.

Table 4.35: Differences in forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of the crisis based on sector classification of the hotels

Variable	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Forecasting the crisis	Between Groups	8.688	2	4.344	3.700	0.026
	Within Groups	483.654	412	1.174		
	Total	492.342	414			
Evaluation of Crisis Management Process	Between Groups	4.316	2	2.158	2.805	0.062
	Within Groups	316.955	412	0.769		
	Total	321.272	414			
External outcomes of the crisis	Between Groups	3.809	2	1.905	1.194	0.304
	Within Groups	657.366	412	1.596		
	Total	661.175	414			
Internal outcomes of the crisis	Between Groups	7.916	2	3.958	3.899	0.021
	Within Groups	418.171	412	1.015		
	Total	426.087	414			

According to Tukey's test comparing the groups for the perception of forecasting the crisis did not reveal any statistically significant differences between these groups as shown in Table 4.36.

Table 4.36: Multiple comparisons for differences in internal outcomes of the crisis based on sector classification of the hotels

Variables	Sector classification (I)	Sector classification (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Internal outcomes of the crisis	Hotel management	Hotel + tourism	0.488*	0.205	0.046
		Hotel+ tourism + others	0.315	0.194	0.239
	Hotel + Tourism	Hotel management	-0.488*	0.205	0.046
		Hotel + tourism + others	-0.173	0.272	0.799
	Hotel + tourism + Others	Hotel management	-0.315	0.194	0.239
		Hotel + tourism	0.173	0.272	0.799
*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.					

4.8.4 The difference in Forecasting the Crisis, Evaluation of the Crisis Management Process, the External and Internal Impact of the Crisis Based on the Legal Status

Table 4.37 provides the mean and standard deviation for the understanding of forecasting the crisis, the crisis management process, and the external and internal impact on the crisis classified according to the legal status of the hotels. Forecasting crisis was highest in hotels that were with sole proprietorship, while the crisis management process was maximum in hotels that were incorporated companies.

Table 4.37: Forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, the external and internal impact of the crisis based on the legal status of the hotels

Variables	Legal status	Mean	Std. Deviation
Forecasting the crisis	Limited company	5.913	1.092
	Group hotel	6.133	0.450
	Incorporated company	5.666	1.202
	Sole proprietorship	6.145	0.816
Evaluation of Crisis Management Process	Limited company	5.995	0.925
	Group hotel	6.278	0.542
	Incorporated company	5.870	0.876
	Sole proprietorship	6.251	0.505
External outcomes of the crisis	Limited company	5.977	1.293
	Group hotel	6.111	0.990
	Incorporated company	5.777	1.271
	Sole proprietorship	6.011	1.114
Internal outcomes of the crisis	Limited company	6.014	0.967
	Group hotel	6.011	1.094
	Incorporated company	5.784	1.173
	Sole Proprietorship	6.041	0.712

There were no statistically significant differences in the opinion of the hotel professionals on any of the study variables based on the legal status of hotels ($p > 0.05$) as revealed by the one-way ANOVAs as observed in Table 4.38. This indicates that no component varied between the hotels of different legal statuses.

Table 4.38: Differences in forecasting the crisis, evaluation of crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of the crisis based on the legal status of the hotels

Variables	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Forecasting the crisis	Between Groups	8.195	3	2.732	2.319	0.075
	Within Groups	484.147	411	1.178		
	Total	492.342	414			
Crisis Management process	Between Groups	4.962	3	1.654	2.149	0.093
	Within Groups	316.309	411	0.770		
	Total	321.272	414			
External outcomes of the crisis	Between Groups	3.784	3	1.261	0.789	0.501
	Within Groups	657.391	411	1.599		
	Total	661.175	414			
Internal outcomes of the crisis	Between Groups	4.173	3	1.391	1.355	0.256
	Within Groups	421.914	411	1.027		
	Total	426.087	414			

4.8.5 Differences in Forecasting the Crisis, Evaluation of Crisis Management Process, External and Internal Outcomes of the Crisis based on the Number of Staff Working in the Hotel

Differences in the study variables based on the number of staff were investigated as shown in Table 4.39. Crisis forecasting as well as the crisis management evaluation process was highest in hotels with a number of staff 11 to 50 employees. From Table 4.40, it was observed that there were statistically significant differences in the all

the variables such as forecasting the crisis ($F(3,411) = 3.161, p < 0.05$), crisis management process ($F(3,411) = 3.189, p < 0.05$), external outcomes of crisis ($F(3,411) = 3.694, p < 0.05$) and internal outcomes of crisis ($F(3,411) = 3.373, p < 0.05$) based on the number of staff as determined by one-way ANOVA.

However, the Tukey test results as shown in Table 4.41, comparing the groups on their perception of forecasting the crisis showed no statistically significant differences between them. Coming to the evaluation of the crisis management process, the Tukey post hoc multiple comparisons showed that there are significant differences in this process in hotels with 11 to 50 employees (6.059 ± 0.809) and hotels with more than 150 staff (5.398 ± 1.336).

Similarly, it was revealed through the Tukey's test that there are statistically significant differences in the extent of external outcomes of crisis within hotels based on the number of staff, where there were differences between the perceptions of hotel professionals working in hotels with more than 150 employees (4.857 ± 1.425) and hotels with number of staff of 1 to 10 (5.872 ± 1.131), which also varied with hotel professionals whose hotels had a number of staff 11 to 50 (5.978 ± 1.260) and whose number of staff was between 51 to 150 (6.008 ± 1.246).

Tukey's test comparing the extent of internal outcomes of the crisis showed that there were statistically significant differences between the hotels with number of staff of 11 to 50 (6.049 ± 0.949) and hotels with a number of staff of more than 150 (5.271 ± 1.422). This indicates that variation in the number of staff of the hotels changes the perception of the study variables related to crisis management.

Table 4.39: Forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of crisis based on number of staff working in the hotel

Variables	Number of staff	Mean	Std. Deviation
Forecasting the crisis	1-10	5.605	1.034
	11-50	5.951	1.072
	51-150	5.873	1.027
	>150	5.186	1.620
Crisis management process	1-10	5.835	0.977
	11-50	6.059	0.809
	51-150	5.948	0.946
	>150	5.398	1.336
External outcomes of the crisis	1-10	5.872	1.131
	11-50	5.978	1.260
	51-150	6.008	1.246
	>150	4.857	1.425
Internal outcomes of the crisis	1-10	5.754	0.954
	11-50	6.049	0.949
	51-150	5.856	1.133
	>150	5.271	1.422

Table 4.40: Differences in forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of crisis based on number of staff in the hotel

Variables	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Forecasting the crisis	Between Groups	11.104	3	3.701	3.161	0.025
	Within Groups	481.238	411	1.171		
	Total	492.342	414			
Evaluation of Crisis Management Process	Between Groups	7.307	3	2.436	3.189	0.024
	Within Groups	313.964	411	0.764		
	Total	321.272	414			
External outcomes of the crisis	Between Groups	17.361	3	5.787	3.694	0.012
	Within Groups	643.815	411	1.566		
	Total	661.175	414			
Internal outcomes of the crisis	Between Groups	11.419	3	3.806	3.773	0.011
	Within Groups	414.668	411	1.009		
	Total	426.087	414			

Table 4.41: Multiple comparisons for differences in forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of the crisis based on number of staff working in the hotel

Variable	Number of staff (I)	Number of staff (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Evaluation of Crisis Management Process	1-10	11-50	-0.223	0.149	0.441
		51-150	-0.112	0.171	0.913
		>150	0.437	0.272	0.377
	11-50	1-10	0.223	0.149	0.441
		51-150	0.111	0.111	0.751
		>150	0.661*	0.239	0.031
	51-150	1-10	0.112	0.171	0.913
		11-49	-0.111	0.111	0.751
		>150	0.550	0.253	0.134
	>150	1-10	-0.437	0.272	0.377
		11-50	-0.661*	0.239	0.031
		51-150	-0.550	0.253	0.134
External outcomes of the crisis	1-10	11-50	-0.106	0.214	0.960
		51-150	-0.137	0.245	0.944
		>150	1.015*	0.390	0.047
	11-50	1-10	0.106	0.214	0.960
		51-150	-0.031	0.159	0.997
		>150	1.120*	0.343	0.006
	51-150	1-10	0.137	0.245	0.944
		11-49	0.031	0.159	0.997
		>150	1.151*	0.363	0.009
	>150	1-10	-1.015*	0.390	0.047
		11-50	-1.120*	0.343	0.006
		51-150	-1.151*	0.363	0.009
Internal outcomes of the crisis	1-10	11-50	-0.296	0.172	0.313
		51-150	-0.102	0.197	0.955
		>150	0.482	0.313	0.414
	11-50	1-10	0.296	0.172	0.313
		51-150	0.194	0.128	0.429
		>150	0.778*	0.275	0.025
	51-150	1-10	0.102	0.197	0.955
		51-150	-0.194	0.128	0.429
		>150	0.584	0.291	0.187
	>150	1-10	-0.482	0.313	0.414
		11-50	-0.778*	0.275	0.025
		51-150	-0.584	0.291	0.187
*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.					

4.8.6 Differences in Forecasting the Crisis, Evaluation of Crisis Management Process, External and Internal Outcomes of Crisis based on Number of Rooms

Table 4.42 presents the differences in the perception of forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of the crisis based on the room numbers of the hotels by the hotel professionals. Crisis forecasting was maximum in hotels with room number of 100 to 250, while the crisis management process was maximum in hotels with room numbers of 31 to 99. One-way ANOVAs were carried out to determine whether there are any statistically significant differences in the perception towards the study variables as shown in Table 4.43. The results revealed that statistically different perceptions only on external outcomes of crisis ($F(3,411) = 3.363, p < 0.05$) among the participants. The Tukey test results shown in Table 4.44 showed that significant differences were also observed in hotels with 100 to 250 rooms (5.947 ± 1.293) and hotels with more than 250 rooms (5.053 ± 1.335) with regards to crisis outcomes (external). Similarly, the perception varied significantly among the hotel professionals who were associated with hotels that had more than 250 rooms and hotels with 31 to 99 rooms.

Table 4.42: Forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of the crisis based on number of rooms in the hotels

Variables	Number of rooms	Mean	Std. Deviation
Forecasting the crisis	1-30	5.787	0.699
	31-99	5.895	1.100
	100-250	5.976	1.002
	>250	5.284	1.389
Crisis management process	1-30	5.629	1.065
	31-99	6.035	0.828
	100-250	5.992	0.941
	>250	5.632	1.200

Table 4.42: (Continued) Forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of the crisis based on number of rooms in the hotels

Variables	Number of rooms	Mean	Std. Deviation
External outcomes of the crisis	1-30	5.867	1.187
	31-99	5.991	1.241
	100-250	5.947	1.293
	>250	5.053	1.335
Internal outcomes of the crisis	1-30	5.893	1.002
	31-99	5.986	0.973
	100-250	5.979	1.047
	>250	5.495	1.446

Table 4.43: Differences in forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of crisis based on number of rooms in the hotels

Variables	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Forecasting the crisis	Between Groups	7.631	3	2.544	2.157	0.093
	Within Groups	484.711	411	1.179		
	Total	492.342	414			
Crisis Management process	Between Groups	5.014	3	1.671	2.172	0.091
	Within Groups	316.258	411	0.769		
	Total	321.272	414			
External outcomes of the crisis	Between Groups	15.842	3	5.281	3.363	0.019
	Within Groups	645.333	411	1.570		
	Total	661.175	414			
Internal outcomes of the crisis	Between Groups	4.406	3	1.469	1.431	0.233
	Within Groups	421.681	411	1.026		
	Total	426.087	414			

Table 4.44: Multiple comparisons for the difference in external outcomes of the crisis based on the number of rooms

Variables	Number of rooms (I)	Number of rooms (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
External outcomes of the crisis	1-30	31-99	-0.125	0.331	0.982
		100-250	-0.080	0.354	0.996
		>250	0.814	0.433	0.238
	31-99	1-30	0.125	0.331	0.982
		100-250	0.045	0.161	0.993
		>250	0.939*	0.296	0.009
	100-250	1-30	0.080	0.354	0.996
		31-99	-0.045	0.161	0.993
		>250	0.894*	0.322	0.029
	>250	1-30	-0.814	0.433	0.238
		31-99	-0.939*	0.296	0.009
		100-250	-0.894*	0.322	0.029
*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.					

4.8.7 Differences in Forecasting the Crisis, Evaluation of Crisis Management Process, External and Internal Outcomes of the Crisis Based on Hotel Size

The mean and standard deviation for the understanding of forecasting the crisis, crisis management process along with the external and internal outcomes of the crisis categorized according to the size of the hotel has been described in Table 4.45. The highest level of crisis forecasting was maximum in medium-sized hotels, while the crisis management process was highest in small-sized hotels. Statistically significant differences were observed in the perceptions of the hotel professionals on forecasting the crisis ($F(2, 412) = 4.782, p < 0.05$), evaluation of crisis management process ($F(2, 412) = 3.106, p < 0.05$), and the external internal outcomes of crisis ($F(2, 412) = 5.831, p < 0.05$) employing one-way ANOVAs as shown Table 4.46.

The Tukey's test comparing the groups of hotels in Table 4.47 showed there were significant differences in the forecasting of the crisis were also observed between the large-sized hotels (5.170 ± 1.446) with the medium (5.987 ± 0.963) and small-sized hotels (5.89 ± 1.087). Similarly, the perception of the evaluation of the crisis management process also varied between the small (6.031 ± 0.843) and large-sized hotels (5.529 ± 1.256). Finally, the extent of external outcomes of the crisis also varied within large-sized hotels (5.017 ± 1.309) and small-sized hotels (5.964 ± 1.253) along with medium-sized hotels (6.043 ± 1.225). This indicates that other than the extent of internal crisis outcomes, there were significant differences in opinion on the crisis management variables depending upon the size of the hotel.

Table 4.45: Forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of the crisis based on hotel size

Variables	Size of hotel	Mean	Std. Deviation
Forecasting the crisis	Small	5.891	1.087
	Medium	5.987	0.963
	Large	5.170	1.446
Evaluation of crisis management process	Small	6.031	0.843
	Medium	5.975	0.888
	Large	5.529	1.256
External outcomes of the crisis	Small	5.964	1.253
	Medium	6.043	1.225
	Large	5.017	1.309
Internal outcomes of the crisis	Small	6.003	0.970
	Medium	5.924	1.037
	Large	5.450	1.421

Table 4.46: Differences in forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, external and internal outcomes of crisis based on hotel size

Variables	Groups	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Forecasting the crisis	Between Groups	11.169	2	5.585	4.782	0.009
	Within Groups	481.172	412	1.168		
	Total	492.342	414			
Evaluation of Crisis Management Process	Between Groups	4.772	2	2.386	3.106	0.046
	Within Groups	316.499	412	0.768		
	Total	321.272	414			
External outcomes of the crisis	Between Groups	18.199	2	9.099	5.831	0.003
	Within Groups	642.977	412	1.561		
	Total	661.175	414			
Internal outcomes of the crisis	Between Groups	5.872	2	2.936	2.879	0.057
	Within Groups	420.215	412	1.020		
	Total	426.087	414			

Table 4.47: Multiple comparisons for the difference in forecasting the crisis, crisis management process, and external outcomes of the crisis based on hotel size

Variables	Hotel size (I)	Hotel size (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Forecasting the crisis	Small	Medium	-0.096	0.129	0.737
		Large	0.721*	0.249	0.011
	Medium	Small	0.096	0.129	0.737
		Large	0.817*	0.267	0.007
	Large	Small	-0.721*	0.249	0.011
		Medium	-0.817	0.267	0.007
Evaluation of Crisis Management Process	Small	Medium	0.055	0.104	0.856
		Large	0.502*	0.202	0.036
	Medium	Small	-0.055	0.104	0.856
		Large	0.447	0.216	0.098
	Large	Small	-0.502*	0.202	0.036
		Medium	-0.447	0.216	0.098
External outcomes of the crisis	Small	Medium	-0.080	0.149	0.853
		Large	0.947*	0.288	0.003
	Medium	Small	0.080	0.149	0.853
		Large	1.027	0.308	0.003
	Large	Small	-0.947	0.288	0.003
		Medium	-1.027	0.308	0.003
		Large	0.553	0.233	0.048
	Medium	Small	-0.079	0.120	0.790
		Large	0.474	0.249	0.139
	Large	Small	-0.553	0.233	0.048
Medium		-0.474	0.249	0.139	
*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.					

4.9. Correlation Between the Study Variables

Correlation was analysed to understand the relationship between the various factors that measure the constructs used in the study such as forecasting of crisis, evaluation of crisis management process, and internal as well as external outcomes of crisis using Pearson's bivariate correlation as shown in Table 4.48. It measures the strength of the linear association between any two variables and the coefficient, ranges from +1 to -1. According to Cohen (1988), Pearson's coefficient value between 0.1 and 0.3 indicates a small level of correlation, 0.3 to 0.5 indicates a moderate level of correlation, and more than 0.5 indicates a strong relationship between the variables.

In this study, the correlation ranged from 0.195 (between financial measures and Preparation and planning in hotels) to 0.582 (between the Evaluation of the crisis management process and internal outcomes of the crisis). Apart from this, a strong correlation was also observed between Financial measures and saving measures ($r = 0.514$), Sales and marketing with saving measures ($r = 0.547$). Moderate level of correlation was observed between Preparation and planning with Pre-crisis activities ($r = 0.481$), Sales and marketing with Pre-crisis activities ($r = 0.480$), Sales and marketing with Preparation and planning ($r = 0.347$), Savings measures with Pre-crisis activities ($r = 0.498$), Financial measures with Pre-crisis activities ($r = 0.369$), Financial measures with Sales and Marketing ($r = 0.444$), Forecasting the crisis with Pre-crisis activities ($r = 0.335$), Forecasting the crisis with Sales and Marketing ($r = 0.465$), Forecasting the crisis with Savings measures ($r = 0.434$), Forecasting the crisis with Financial measures ($r = 0.491$), Evaluation of crisis management process with Preparation and planning ($r = 0.336$), Evaluation of crisis management process with saving measures ($r = 0.317$), Evaluation of crisis management process with Financial measures ($r = 0.317$), Evaluation of crisis management process with forecasting of crisis ($r = 0.437$), External outcomes of crisis with Preparation and planning ($r = 0.361$), External outcomes of crisis with Savings measures ($r = 0.344$),

External outcomes of crisis with Financial measures ($r = 0.306$), External outcomes of crisis with Evaluation of crisis management process ($r = 0.449$). Along with this, Internal outcomes of crisis moderately correlated with Pre-crisis activities ($r = 0.389$), Preparation and planning ($r = 0.322$), Sales and marketing ($r = 0.326$), saving measures ($r = 0.360$), Financial measures ($r = 0.457$), Forecasting of crisis ($r = 0.457$) and External outcomes of crisis ($r = 0.494$). A low level of correlation was observed between Savings measures and Preparation and planning ($r = 0.284$), Forecasting the crisis with Preparation and planning ($r = 0.296$); Evaluation of crisis management process with Pre-crisis activities ($r = 0.241$) and Sales and marketing ($r = 0.227$); External outcomes of crisis with Pre-crisis activities ($r = 0.282$), with Sales and marketing ($r = 0.298$), and with Forecasting the crisis ($r = 0.297$). All the correlations were found to be statistically significant at $p < 0.01$ in all the cases.

Table 4.48: Correlation between the study variables

Variables and sub-variables	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Pre-crisis Activities (1)	1								
Preparation and planning (2)	0.481**	1							
Sales and marketing (3)	0.480**	0.347**	1						
Savings measures (4)	0.498**	0.284**	0.547**	1					
Financial measures (5)	0.369**	0.195**	0.444**	0.514**	1				
Forecasting the crisis (6)	0.335**	0.296**	0.465**	0.434**	0.491**	1			
Evaluation of crisis management process (7)	0.241**	0.336**	0.227**	0.317**	0.379**	0.437**	1		
External outcomes of crisis (8)	0.282**	0.361**	0.298**	0.344**	0.306**	0.297**	0.449**	1	
Internal outcomes of crisis (9)	0.389**	0.322**	0.326**	0.360**	0.391**	0.457**	0.582**	0.494**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

4.10 Hypotheses Testing

Testing of the hypothesis provides evidence towards the certainty of the apparent effect in the sample population. In this study, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), linear regression analysis and Structured Equation Modelling (SEM)

were conducted to validate the mathematical measure of the relationship between two or more variables that specified the reason and outcome association among the variables. The developed model analyses the standardized path coefficients of the model by comparing alternate models based on fit indices. It is typically a combination of CFA, measurement model and a structural model, regression analysis, which allows the researchers to investigate any multifaceted model (Malhotra & Dash, 2011). The variables conforming to the cause are labelled as an independent variable, while the variable demonstrating the outcome is designated as the dependent variable. Therefore, regression measures the association between dependent and independent variables.

The regression equation is signified as

$$DV = a_0 + b_1 IV$$

where DV implies the dependent variable, a_0 is the constant, b_1 is the slope of the regression line, and IV denotes the independent variable. The hypotheses get accepted when the standardized co-efficient (B) is observed to be significant, (p -value is less than 0.05 at 95% confidence level). In this study, the exact nature of the relationship between the study constructs (forecasting of crisis, evaluation of crisis management process, and internal as well as external outcomes of crisis) was determined; based on the results of which, the hypotheses were either accepted or rejected.

4.10.1 Influence of Pre-crisis Measurements of Hotels on Their Outcomes of the Crisis

H1: Pre-crisis measurements significantly influence the crisis effects, internally and externally, in the hospitality sector.

To examine the impact of individual dimensions of pre-crisis measurements (Pre-crisis activities, Preparation and planning, Sales and marketing, Savings measures, and Financial measures) on the outcomes of the crisis, MANOVA was conducted.

It is a statistical procedure that compares multivariate sample means and is adopted when there are two or more dependent variables that need to be considered in an analysis. Followed by analysing the differences in the means, significance tests involving individual dependent variables were also carried out separately. Table 4.49 presents the level of pre-crisis measurements and outcomes of crisis in hotels. According to multivariate test for the influence of pre-crisis measurements on outcomes of crisis is shown in Table 4.50. It was observed that out of all the dimensions of pre-crisis measurements except Sales and marketing, Pre-crisis activities ($F(2, 408) = 5.906$, Wilk's Lambda = 0.976, $p < 0.05$), Preparation and planning ($F(2, 408) = 15.362$, Wilk's Lambda = 0.930, $p < 0.05$), Savings measures ($F(2, 408) = 4.313$, Wilk's Lambda = 0.979, $p < 0.05$) and Financial measures ($F(2, 408) = 11.337$, Wilk's Lambda = 0.947, $p < 0.05$) exerted a statistically significant influence on the overall outcomes of the crisis. Wilk's Lambda value refers to the proportion of variation in the dependent variable which the independent variable could not explain. Therefore, a lesser Wilk's Lambda implies that the independent variable can explain most of the variation (Sarma & Vardhan, 2018). In the present case, the lambda values were found to be greater than 0.9 which indicates that more than 90% of the variation observed in the outcomes of crisis is not accounted for by the intergroup variations.

Table 4.51 presents test between-subject effects for outcomes of pre-crisis activities on both the external and internal outcomes of the crisis. The effect size was interpreted according to Cohen (1988), wherein effect size is considered small when the partial eta squared was equal to 0.2, medium when it was 0.5 and large when the value was over 0.8. Within pre-crisis measurements, a significant outcome was observed in the case of interaction between pre-crisis activities and internal outcomes of crisis ($F = 9.25$, $\eta^2 = 0.020$, $p < 0.05$), implying a small effect; preparation and planning with external ($F = 28.855$, $\eta^2 = 0.066$, $p < 0.05$) and internal outcomes of crisis ($F = 28.855$, $\eta^2 = 0.025$, $p < 0.05$) again implying minor effects for both, while saving measures had a significant outcome on the external extent of crisis

outcomes ($F = 10.495$, $\eta^2 = 0.020$, $p < 0.05$), implying a diminished effect size. Along with this, financial measures also influenced the external ($F = 10.052$, $\eta^2 = 0.019$, $p < 0.05$) as well as internal outcomes of crisis ($F = 16.519$, $\eta^2 = 0.049$, $p < 0.05$), implying diminished effects.

Based on the obtained results, it can be concluded that Hypothesis H1: *Pre-crisis measurements significantly influence the crisis effects (internally and externally) in the hospitality sector is partially accepted.*

In addition, the R-squared values indicate the percentage of variation in the response that is explained by the independent variables (Miles, 2014). It can be observed from these results that 21.3% ($R^2 = 0.213$) variance in external outcomes of crisis and 25.2% ($R^2 = 0.252$) variance in internal outcomes of crisis can be explained alone by pre-crisis measurements.

Table 4.49: Pre-crisis measurements and outcomes of crisis in hotels

Variables	Sub-Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation
Outcomes of crisis	External	5.936	1.264
	Internal	5.959	1.014
Pre-crisis measurements	Pre-crisis activities	6.024	0.876
	Preparation and planning	5.704	1.399
	Sales and marketing	5.840	1.108
	Savings measures	5.799	1.450
	Financial measures	5.702	1.402

Table 4.50: Multivariate test for the influence of pre-crisis measurements on outcomes of the crisis

Pre-crisis measurements	Wilks' Lambda Value	F	df	Sig.	Partial Eta squared
Pre-crisis activities	0.976	5.096	2, 408	0.007	0.024
Preparation and planning	0.930	15.362	2, 408	0.000	0.070
Sales and marketing	0.998	0.488	2, 408	0.614	0.002
Savings measures	0.979	4.313	2, 408	0.014	0.021
Financial measures	0.947	11.337	2, 408	0.000	0.053

Table 4.51: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for the Influence of pre-crisis measurements on Outcomes of Crisis

Pre-crisis measurements	Outcomes of crisis	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta squared
Pre-crisis activities	External	0.056	1	0.056	0.044	0.834	0.000
	Internal	6.554	1	6.554	8.412	0.004	0.020
Preparation and planning	External	36.701	1	36.701	28.855	0.000	0.066
	Internal	8.151	1	8.151	10.462	0.001	0.025
Sales and marketing	External	1.071	1	1.071	0.842	0.359	0.002
	Internal	0.356	1	0.356	0.457	0.499	0.001
Savings measures	External	10.495	1	10.495	8.252	0.004	0.020
	Internal	2.047	1	2.047	2.628	0.106	0.006
Financial measures	External	10.052	1	10.052	7.903	0.005	0.019
	Internal	16.519	1	16.519	21.201	0.000	0.049
a. R Squared = 0.213 (Adjusted R Squared = 0.204)							
b. R Squared = 0.252 (Adjusted R Squared = 0.243)							

4.10.2 Impact of Pre-crisis Measurements on Crisis Forecasting in Turkish Hotels

H2: Pre-crisis measurements significantly helps in forecasting crisis in the hospitality sector.

The level of forecasting the crisis and pre-crisis measurements has been presented in Table 4.52. From the model summary of the linear regression analysis elaborated in Table 4.53, it was observed that pre-crisis measurements have a statistically significant influence on forecasting crises in Turkish hotels ($F(5, 409) = 42.637$, $p < 0.01$). A high level of correlation ($r = 0.585$) was observed between pre-crisis measurements and crisis forecasting. Moreover, it could explain more than 34% of the variance in crisis forecasting ($R^2 = 0.343$). The adjusted R square value intends to amend R squared more meticulously to express the goodness of fit of the model in the population. The adjusted R squared in this case was observed to be 0.335. This shows that ideally 33.5% of the variance was elucidated by the model. The regression model forecasts the crisis forecasting significantly well as $p < 0.05$. Since the overall level

of significance was lesser than 0.05, Hypothesis 2: *Pre-crisis measurements significantly help in forecasting crises in the hospitality sector* is accepted.

The outcomes of individual variables of pre-crisis measurements on crisis forecasting were studied from the coefficients as shown in Table 4.54. Variables of pre-crisis measurements such as Preparation and planning ($B = 0.100$, $p = 0.006$), Sales and marketing ($B = 0.217$, $p = 0.000$), saving measures ($B = 0.091$, $p = 0.023$) and Financial measures ($B = 0.240$, $p = 0.000$) had statistically significant outcomes on crisis forecasting ($p < 0.05$). However, pre-crisis activities had no noteworthy effect on forecasting crises ($p > 0.05$). Hence, the regression equation can be stated as given below:

Crisis forecasting = $2.193 + 0.100$ (Preparation and planning) + 0.217 (Sales and marketing) + 0.091 (Saving measures) + 0.240 (Financial measures)

Thus, from our results, it can be implied that pre-crisis measurements form the antecedents of forecasting crises except for pre-crisis activities. Moreover, with every unit increase in preparation and planning, there will be an increase in crisis forecasting by 0.100 units. Similarly, with every unit increase in sales and marketing, saving measures and financial measures, there will be an enhancement in crisis forecasting by 0.217, 0.091, and 0.240 units, respectively.

Table 4.52: Pre-crisis measurements and crisis forecasting in Turkish hotels

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation
Forecasting the crisis	5.878	1.091
pre-crisis measurements		
Pre-crisis activities	6.024	0.876
Preparation and planning	5.704	1.399
Sales and marketing	5.840	1.108
Savings measures	5.799	1.450
Financial measures	5.702	1.402

Table 4.53: Model summary for the impact of pre-crisis measurements on crisis forecasting

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Change Statistics			Sig. F Change
					F Change	df1	df2	
0.585	0.343	0.335	0.890	0.343	42.637	5	409	0.000

Table 4.54: Coefficients for the impact of pre-crisis measurements on crisis forecasting

pre-crisis measurements	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.193	0.324		6.767	0.000
Pre-crisis activities	-0.009	0.065	-0.007	-0.135	0.893
Preparation and planning	0.100	0.036	0.128	2.771	0.006
Sales and marketing	0.217	0.051	0.221	4.287	0.000
Savings measures	0.091	0.040	0.122	2.277	0.023
Financial measures	0.240	0.038	0.308	6.396	0.000

4.10.3 Impact of Pre-crisis Measurements on the Crisis Management Process

H3: Pre-crisis measurements have a significant role in the crisis management process.

The level of relationship between pre-crisis measurements and crisis management process has been presented in Table 4.55. From the model summary of the linear regression analysis elaborated in Table 4.56, it was observed that pre-crisis measurements have a statistically significant impact on the crisis management process in Turkish hotels ($F(5, 409) = 23.905$, $p < 0.01$). A moderate level of correlation ($r = 0.476$) was observed between pre-crisis measurements and the crisis management process. Moreover, pre-crisis measurements could explain more than 22.6% of the variance in the crisis management process ($R^2 = 0.3226$). The adjusted

R square value intends to amend R squared more meticulously to express the goodness of fit of the model in the population. The adjusted R squared in this case was observed to be 0.217. This shows that ideally 21.7% of the variance was elucidated by the model. The regression model forecasts the crisis management process significantly well as $p < 0.05$. Since the overall level of significance was lesser than 0.05, Hypothesis 3 *Pre-crisis measurements have a significant role in the crisis management process* is accepted.

The outcomes of individual variables of pre-crisis measurements on the crisis management process were studied from the coefficients as seen in Table 4.57. Variables of pre-crisis measurements such as Preparation and planning ($B = 0.176$, $p = 0.000$), saving measures ($B = 0.084$, $p = 0.017$) and Financial measures ($B = 0.185$, $p = 0.000$) had statistically significant outcomes on crisis management process ($p < 0.05$). However, pre-crisis activities and sales and marketing had no impactful effect on this evaluation process ($p > 0.05$). Hence, the regression equation can be stated as given below:

$$\text{Crisis management process} = 3.975 + 0.176 (\text{Preparation and planning}) + 0.084 (\text{Saving measures}) + 0.185 (\text{Financial measures})$$

Thus, from our results, it can be implied that pre-crisis measurements form the antecedents of the crisis management process except for pre-crisis activities and sales and marketing. Moreover, with every unit increase in preparation and planning, there will be an increase in the crisis management process by 0.176 units. Similarly, with every unit increase in saving measures and financial measures, there will be an increase in the crisis management process by 0.084 and 0.185 units, respectively.

Table 4.55: Pre-crisis measurements and evaluation crisis management process

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation
Crisis management process	5.994	0.881
Pre-crisis measurements		
Pre-crisis Activities	6.024	0.876
Preparation and planning	5.704	1.399
Sales and marketing	5.840	1.108
Savings measures	5.799	1.450
Financial measures	5.702	1.402

Table 4.56: Model summary for the impact of pre-crisis measurements on the crisis management process

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Change Statistics			Sig. F Change
					F Change	df 1	df2	
0.476	0.226	0.217	0.780	0.226	23.905	5	409	0.000

Table 4.57: Coefficients for the impact of pre-crisis measurements on the evaluation crisis management process

Pre-crisis measurements	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.975	0.284		13.995	0.000
Pre-crisis Activities	-0.045	0.057	-0.045	-0.797	0.426
Preparation and planning	0.176	0.032	0.280	5.579	0.000
Sales and marketing	-0.044	0.044	-0.055	-0.992	0.322
Savings measures	0.084	0.035	0.139	2.399	0.017
Financial measures	0.185	0.033	0.294	5.620	0.000

4.10.4 Impact of Crisis Forecasting on the Outcomes of Crisis

H4: Crisis forecasting significantly influences the crisis effects (internally and externally).

Table 4.58 presents the levels of crisis forecasting and outcomes of the crisis. The impact of crisis forecasting on the outcomes of the crisis was evaluated using MANOVA is shown Table 4.59. It was observed that crisis forecasting has a significant influence on the outcomes of crisis ($F(2, 412) = 56.538$, Wilk's Lambda = 0.785, $p < 0.05$) with a 78.5% variation observed in the outcomes of crisis to be unaccounted for by the intergroup variations. The tests of between-subjects effects for the influence of evaluation of crisis management process on outcomes of the crisis showed a significant influence of crisis forecasting on the external effect of crisis ($F = 40.067$, $\eta^2 = 0.088$, $p < 0.05$) and on internal outcomes of crisis with $F = 108.841$, $\eta^2 = 0.209$, $p < 0.05$), both implying small effect size as shown in Table 4.60.

Based on the obtained results, it can be concluded that Hypothesis H4: *Crisis forecasting significantly influences the crisis effects (internally and externally)*, is accepted.

Furthermore, the R-squared values express the percentage of variation in the response that is explained by the independent variables. It was noted from these results that 8.8% ($R^2 = 0.088$) variance in the external outcome of crisis can be explained by forecasting the crisis alone while 20.7% ($R^2 = 0.207$) variance in internal outcomes of crisis due to crisis forecasting.

Table 4.58: Crisis Forecasting and Outcomes of Crisis

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation
Forecasting the crisis	5.878	1.091
Outcomes of crisis		
Internal outcomes	5.959	1.014
External outcomes	5.936	1.264

Table 4.59: Multivariate test for the impact of crisis forecasting on outcomes of the crisis

Effect	Wilks' Lambda Value	F	df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Forecasting the crisis	0.785	56.538	2, 412	0.000	0.215

Table 4.60: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for the Impact of crisis forecasting on outcomes of Crisis

Source	Outcomes of crisis	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Forecasting the crisis	External	58.471	1	58.471	40.067	0.000	0.088
	Internal	88.869	1	88.869	108.841	0.000	0.209
a. R Squared = 0.088 (Adjusted R Squared = 0.086)							
b. R Squared = 0.209 (Adjusted R Squared = 0.207)							

4.10.5 Influence of Evaluation of Crisis Management Process on Outcomes of Crisis in Turkish Hotels

H5: Crisis management process influences the crisis effects (internally and externally)

MANOVA was employed to evaluate the influence of the evaluation of the crisis management process on the outcomes of the crisis in Turkish hotels. Table 4.61 represents the level of external and internal outcomes of the crisis and the evaluation of the crisis management process. From Table 4.62, it can be observed that the evaluation of the crisis management process has a significant influence on the outcomes of crisis ($F(2, 412) = 122.53$, Wilk's Lambda = 0.627, $p < 0.05$) with a 62.7% of the variation observed in the outcomes of crisis to be unaccounted for by the intergroup variations. The tests of between-subjects effects for the influence of evaluation of crisis management process on outcomes of the crisis showed a significant influence of evaluation of crisis management process on the external

effect of crisis ($F = 104.166$, $\eta^2 = 0.201$, $p < 0.05$) and on the internal effect of crisis with $F = 211.454$, $\eta^2 = 0.339$, $p < 0.05$); both implying medium effect size as shown in Table 4.63.

Based on the obtained results, it can be concluded that Hypothesis H5: *Crisis management process influences the crisis effects (internally and externally)* is accepted.

Furthermore, the R-squared values express the percentage of variation in the response that is explained by the independent variables. It can be observed from these results that 20.1% ($R^2 = 0.201$) variance in external outcomes of crisis and 39.9% ($R^2 = 0.399$) variance in internal outcomes of crisis can be explained by crisis management process of crisis alone.

Table 4.61: Evaluation of crisis management process on outcomes of the crisis

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation
Evaluation of crisis management process	5.994	0.881
Outcomes of crisis		
External outcomes of the crisis	5.936	1.264
Internal outcomes of the crisis	5.959	1.014

Table 4.62: Multivariate test for the influence of crisis management process on outcomes of the crisis

Effect	Wilks' Lambda Value	F	df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Evaluation of crisis management process	0.627	122.53	2, 412	0.000	0.373

Table 4.63: Tests of Between-Subjects on Effects for the Influence of crisis management process on outcomes of the crisis

Source	Outcomes of crisis	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Evaluation of crisis management process	External	133.172	1	133.172	104.166	0.000	0.201
	Internal	144.282	1	144.282	211.454	0.000	0.339
a. R Squared = 0.201 (Adjusted R Squared = 0.199)							
b. R Squared = 0.339 (Adjusted R Squared = 0.337)							

4.10.6 Mediating Effects of Crisis Forecasting and Crisis Management Process Independently as well as the Interaction between the Two Mediating Variables on Outcomes of the Crisis

H6: Crisis forecasting and crisis management process significantly mediate the relationship between Pre-crisis measurements and the crisis effects (internally and externally).

Figure 4.11 shows the structural model of the study. The factors confirmed through CFA were used for constructing the second-order structural model (Section 4.8). The standardized regression weights for the measurement model have been presented in Table 4.64. The mediating effects of crisis forecasting and crisis management process on the relationship of pre-crisis measurements on crisis outcomes were assessed using Analysis of moment structures software (AMOS v. 21) user-defined estimates followed by bootstrapping to test the significance of paths. The bootstrapping method was performed using AMOS with 1000 bootstraps and 95% confidence intervals.

The measurement model was evaluated based on multiple goodness-of-fit measures, which were tested using a set of indices as provided in Table 4.65. The indices Chi square test (2.169), CFI (0.966), NFI (0.0.938), RFI (0.925), IFI (0.966), RMSEA (0.053), and TLI (0.0.958)] were found to be within the acceptable limits and above the threshold value specified by researchers in the past; thereby, ascertaining the robustness of the model. The model was therefore found to be accurate and has an acceptable level of explanatory power to predict the relationships among the constructs.

Figure 4.11: Structural model for the study

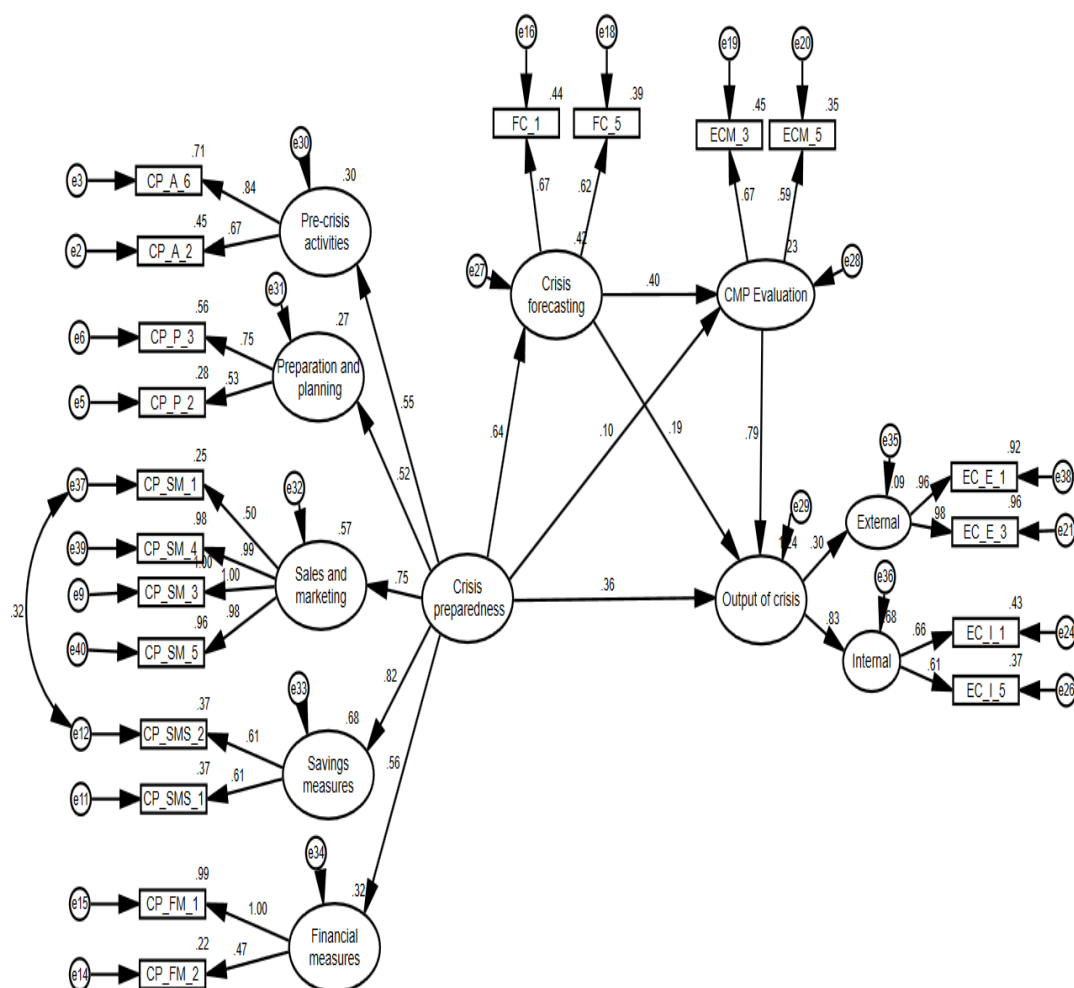


Table 4.64: Standardized regression weights for the measurement model

Outcome variable	Path	Causal variable	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Pre-crisis activities	<---	Pre-crisis measurements	0.550	.238	4.275	***
Preparation and planning	<---	Pre-crisis measurements	0.521	.216	4.061	***
Sales and marketing	<---	Pre-crisis measurements	0.752	.367	4.642	***
Savings measures	<---	Pre-crisis measurements	0.823	.275	4.351	***
Financial measures	<---	Pre-crisis measurements	0.563			
The external outcome of the crisis	<---	Output of crisis	0.297	.099	5.324	***
Internal of crisis	<---	Output of crisis	0.825			
CP_A_2	<---	Pre-crisis activities	0.671	.100	7.623	***
CP_A_6	<---	Pre-crisis activities	0.841			
CP_P_2	<---	Preparation and planning	0.531	.146	5.067	***
CP_P_3	<---	Preparation and planning	0.748			
CP_SM_3	<---	Sales and marketing	0.998			
CP_SM_4	<---	Sales and marketing	0.988	.008	119.127	***
CP_SM_5	<---	Sales and marketing	0.982	.010	99.732	***
CP_SM_1	<---	Sales and marketing	.497	.044	11.742	***
CP_SMS_1	<---	Savings measures	0.610			
CP_SMS_2	<---	Savings measures	0.606	.123	7.837	***
CP_FM_2	<---	Financial measures	0.473			
CP_FM_1	<---	Financial measures	0.997	.222	5.310	***
FC_1	<---	Crisis forecasting	0.665			
FC_5	<---	Crisis forecasting	0.625	.122	7.798	***
ECM_3	<---	CMP Evaluation	0.670			
ECM_5	<---	CMP Evaluation	0.593	.119	7.772	***
EC_I_1	<---	Internal	0.657			
EC_I_5	<---	Internal	0.606	.106	9.146	***
EC_E_3	<---	External	0.980			
EC_E_1	<---	External	0.960	.059	16.219	***

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level

Table 4.65: Model Fit Indices

Model Fit Indices	Observed Value
Chi-square (CMIN/DF)	2.169
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.938
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	0.925
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	0.966
Tucker Lewis Index (TLI)	0.958
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.966
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.053

As summarized in Table 4.50, the direct effect of pre-crisis measurements on outcomes of the crisis was found to be significant through MANOVA, which was also validated through the SEM as shown in Table 4.66. The beta coefficient was 0.359 and significant at $p < 0.01$. Along with this, it was also observed that pre-crisis measurements significantly influenced crisis forecasting ($B = 0.644$), crisis forecasting significantly influenced crisis management process ($B = 0.405$), crisis management process significantly impacted output of crisis ($B = 0.793$).

Table 4.66: Standardized regression weights for direct effects

Outcome variable	Path	Causal variable	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Crisis forecasting	<---	Pre-crisis measurements	0.644	0.206	4.210	***
CMP Evaluation	<---	Crisis forecasting	0.405	0.138	2.912	.004
CMP Evaluation	<---	Pre-crisis measurements	0.103	0.165	0.836	.403
Output of crisis	<---	CMP Evaluation	0.793	0.120	5.603	***
Output of crisis	<---	Pre-crisis measurements	0.359	0.161	2.532	.011
Output of crisis	<---	Crisis forecasting	0.195	0.124	1.320	.187

The indirect paths were evaluated for the presence of the mediating variables. From Table 4.67, it is evident that neither crisis forecasting nor crisis management process alone mediated the impact of pre-crisis measurements on the outcomes of the crisis ($p > 0.05$). However, the interaction between the two mediating variables, crisis forecasting and crisis management process together mediated this relationship ($B = 0.235$). Moreover, since the direct paths were statistically significant, therefore it can be stated that both these variables partially mediate this relationship.

Thus, Hypothesis 6, *Crisis forecasting and crisis management process significantly mediate the relationship between Pre-crisis measurements and the crisis effects (internally and externally)* is accepted.

Table 4.67: Indirect effects

Paths	Estimate	Lower bound	Upper bound	P
Pre-crisis measurements --- > Crisis forecasting --- > Output of crisis	0.142	-0.177	0.813	0.285
Pre-crisis measurements --- > CMP Evaluation --- > Output of crisis	0.093	-0.258	0.422	0.356
Pre-crisis measurements --- > Crisis forecasting --- > CMP Evaluation --- > Output of crisis	0.235	0.068	0.838	0.012

Table 4.68 presents the squared multiple correlations for the observed variables. It was observed that respective factors explained a respectable portion of the variance ranging from 0.088 (external outcome of crisis) to 1.239 (output of crisis).

Table 4.68: Squared Multiple Correlations

Variables	Estimate
Crisis forecasting	0.415
CMP Evaluation	0.228
Output of crisis	1.239
Internal	0.681
External	0.088
Financial measures	0.317
Savings measures	0.678
Sales and marketing	0.565
Preparation and planning	0.272
Pre-crisis activities	0.303
CP_SM_5	0.964
CP_SM_4	0.976
EC_E_1	0.921
CP_SM_1	0.247
EC_I_5	0.367
EC_I_1	0.432
EC_E_3	0.961
ECM_5	0.352
ECM_3	0.449
FC_5	0.390
FC_1	0.443
CP_FM_1	0.995
CP_FM_2	0.224
CP_SMS_2	0.367
CP_SMS_1	0.372
CP_SM_3	0.997
CP_P_3	0.560
CP_P_2	0.282
CP_A_6	0.707
CP_A_2	0.451

4.10.7 Impact of Crisis Forecasting on Evaluation of Crisis Management Process

In addition to the SEM, the impact of crisis forecasting on the evaluation of the crisis management process was conducted out of curiosity, since both of these variables had a significant impact on the outcomes of the crisis and their interaction mediated the relationship on pre-crisis measurements on outcomes of the crisis.

H7: Forecasting crisis causes a crucial effect on the crisis management process in the tourism and hospitality sector.

Multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to study the outcomes of crisis forecasting (independent variable) on the evaluation of the crisis management process (dependent variable) of the hotel professionals. The level of evaluation of the crisis management process and their forecasting ability in the respondents are shown in Table 4.69.

The model summary for the outcomes of crisis forecasting on the evaluation of the crisis management process is presented in Table 4.70 and their coefficients in Table 4.71. The results of multiple linear regression analysis show that forecasting a crisis could explain 19.1% variability of the in-evaluation of the crisis management process ($R^2 = 0.191$). There was a moderate level of correlation between the variables ($r = 0.437$). Overall, as shown in Table 4.72, the regression model shows that forecasting crisis significantly impacts the evaluation of the crisis management process with $F(1, 413) = 97.590$, $p < 0.05$. The regression model predicts the dependent variable significantly well as $p < 0.05$.

Therefore, the alternative Hypothesis H7, *forecasting crisis causes a crucial effect on the crisis management process in the tourism and hospitality sector* is accepted.

The effect of crisis forecasting can be studied from the coefficients in Table 4.71. It can be observed that forecasting crisis ($B = 0.353$, $p = 0.000$) has a significant positive impact on the evaluation of the crisis management process. This means, for every one-unit

increase in crisis forecasting, there will be an increase of 0.353 units in the evaluation of the crisis management process. The regression equation can be stated as follows:

Evaluation of crisis management process = 3.918 + 0.353 (Crisis forecasting)

Table 4.69: Impact of crisis forecasting and evaluation of crisis management process

Variables	Mean	Std. Deviation
Crisis management process	5.994	0.881
Forecasting the crisis	5.878	1.091

Table 4.70: Model summary for the impact of crisis forecasting on the crisis management process

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Change Statistics			Sig. F Change
					F Change	df1	df2	
0.437	0.191	0.189	0.793	0.191	97.590	1	413	0.000

Table 4.71: Coefficients for the impact of crisis forecasting on the crisis management process

Variable	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.918	0.214		18.336	0.000
Forecasting the crisis	0.353	0.036	0.437	9.879	0.000

Seven hypotheses were formulated for this study, from which the following observations were derived using appropriate statistical tools and structural equation modelling. It was found that there was a significant influence of pre-crisis measurements on the outcomes of the crisis, forecasting the crisis and crisis management process. However, the relationship between pre-crisis measurements and outcomes of the crisis was partially mediated only by the interaction of crisis forecasting and the crisis management process. Further, forecasting crisis was influential on the evaluation of the crisis management process, which further influenced the extent of the crisis impact. The next chapter discusses the findings of the study in the context of the existing literature.

CHAPTER 5

5. DISCUSSIONS

The results of the present study have been discussed in this chapter in light of earlier studies. Pre-crisis measurements, crisis forecasting skills, and crisis management assessment at Turkish hotels during the COVID-19 epidemic are covered in this chapter. A number of outcomes connected to these aspects was also discussed. Moreover, the findings of the hypothesis testing were analysed in terms of previous studies.

5.1 Discussion on the Pre-crisis Measurements of Turkish Hotels

The current study discovered that comprehending pre-crisis measurements requires an understanding of pre-crisis activities, planning and preparation, sales and marketing, savings measures, and financial measures. Pre-crisis activities were of great importance in the current study. These included taking steps to advance production and service development, maintaining internal communication and sharing information with stakeholders, and monitoring sales, production, maintenance, repair, resource utilisation, and human resources. Similarly, Gani et al. (2021) demonstrated the critical need of effective communication techniques for disaster management procedures. Furthermore, a Taiwanese study revealed that hotel staff who have received the training are more proficient in crisis management. A few key components of disaster preventive knowledge were also recognised by the study, including the need to post warning signs throughout hotels and broadcast alerts in multiple languages. Additionally, the hotel personnel learn to be more proactive and willingly participate in disaster management through the disaster prevention training (Tsai et al., 2020).

The current study also highlighted planning and preparation in hotels as a crucial pre-crisis measurement technique. Hotels conduct a range of studies to comprehend potential crises and the effects they may have, train different teams to deal with such crises, and create action plans that are tailored to the specific needs of the crisis. In line with the aforementioned study, previous studies have thoroughly addressed the topic of contingency planning. In a study conducted by Inkinen et al. (2021), it was demonstrated that the survival of hotels necessitates the implementation of contingency planning, which encompasses the identification of crises, formulation of contingency statements, and establishment of preventive controls. Moreover, empirical investigations have demonstrated that a moderate degree of preparedness is required in order to establish a specific level of resilience in the event of a disaster. Mitigation is a crucial approach that is taken into account when implementing pre-crisis measures.

The current study revealed that sales and marketing activities are also a significant component of pre-crisis assessments during the COVID-19 pandemic period. The present study indicates that marketing strategies prioritise the inclusion of new service offerings, while also seeking out new markets as a proactive approach before a crisis occurs. In a similar vein, previous studies have identified marketing-related initiatives as the second most effective way of maintaining viability throughout a crisis. Ivanov et al. (2016) provided empirical evidence supporting the effectiveness of price reduction techniques in enabling agencies to navigate the challenging circumstances arising from political instability in Ukraine. Hotels address the aforementioned situation by implementing strategies such as the introduction of new products and services, as well as leveraging the unique attributes of their location and the perceived safety of the surroundings to attract international guests.

Additionally, the current study has provided evidence that investing in equipment technology to reduce operational, production, and service costs can contribute to the development of a more efficient system during times of crisis. Likewise, several studies conducted across different regions have indicated that adopting a technology

innovation method for pre-crisis management is a highly favourable strategy for organisations to continue their operations. The study conducted by Hidalgo et al. (2022) examined the first response and strategic approaches employed by hotel managers during periods of crisis. The investigation revealed that hotels implemented creative methods in their crisis management innovation strategies. Specifically, they introduced new products or services and made notable enhancements to current services. These improvements were achieved through the adoption of cutting-edge technologies, with the aim of delivering a superior customer experience. Certain hotels have implemented new technologies to facilitate the practise of social distancing between customers and hotel staff, hence increasing the demand for these establishments.

The present study showed an increased use of cost-saving measures, such as implementing unpaid leaves for employees and reducing operating budgets, as pre-crisis strategies. Similar types of activities have been observed in other studies as well, aimed at mitigating the effects of a crisis period. According to the findings of Ertaş et al. (2021), tourism organisations contemplate the implementation of unpaid leaves as a potential cost-saving strategy for their staff.

This study indicates that hotels have opted to implement unpaid leave as a strategy for mitigating employee-related expenses, as opposed to resorting to employee terminations. The decision was driven by the recognition that the post-crisis period posed significant challenges in terms of securing qualified staff. Substantial reductions were achieved in operational budgets, together with the minimization of stock levels to solely fulfil the demands of daily services. In a similar vein, Israeli et al. (2018) conducted a survey among hotel managers in Türkiye and obtained comparable findings. One of the principal techniques implemented by hotel management in Türkiye entails staff reduction through measures such as employee terminations or unpaid leave. Furthermore, endeavours were undertaken to prolong the duration of credit availability and place a heightened emphasis on marketing endeavours. Another study demonstrated that hotels were able to decrease non-

labour current expenses by using strategies such as lowering services, closing specific facilities, delaying renovation investments, and prioritising critical tasks. During times of crisis, certain hotels opt to remain closed as a strategic measure to reduce their operational expenses (Hidalgo et al., 2022).

In addition to the savings measure, the present study identifies the financial measure as another significant action. The participants in the current study expressed consensus regarding the significance of incorporating debt restructuring with financial institutions, as well as all creditors, and the collection of receivables as integral components of financial measures. In a similar vein, Inkinen et al. (2021) also proposed that a contingency plan should encompass the allocation of sufficient resources to address the challenges that may arise during unforeseen emergencies.

5.2 Forecasting the Crisis

The process of forecasting a crisis involves the capacity to comprehend and anticipate a specific situation well in advance of its actual occurrence. The tourism and hospitality business necessitates a strong forecasting capability due to its susceptibility to a multitude of factors. The current study showed that the management of hotels in Türkiye had a notable level of proficiency in anticipating the crisis through their management strategies, both during and following the COVID-19 epidemic.

The participants in the current study shown sufficient self-assurance in managing the crisis situation. In a similar vein, it has been noted by previous studies that business forecasting holds significant relevance within the context of crisis management (Shukla et al., 2022; Ghaharian et al., 2021). In a study conducted by Ritchie et al. (2011) in Australia, findings were consistent with the current study, indicating that hotel managers exhibit a high level of confidence in their disaster management knowledge and skills. The current study provides more evidence that hotel managers actively pursue normalisation strategies as a means of recovering from setbacks.

Moreover, the participants in the study displayed a preference for decision-making approaches that emphasise practical solutions. Previous studies have also indicated that managers in the field of hospitality management should exhibit the attributes of crisis foresight and preparedness. According to Chen et al. (2019), it is imperative for individuals to possess the capability to adequately equip their teams in order to effectively address and mitigate possible crises.

5.3 Discussion on the Crisis Management Process in Turkish Hotels

Pre-crisis measurements and crisis forecasting are necessary in combating crises, particularly in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic. However, the implementation of crisis management procedures is crucial for resilience in the face of such crises. This study provides evidence that preparatory meetings and action plans conducted at the onset of the crisis have had a substantial influence. Furthermore, the study identifies several crisis management initiatives in sales and marketing, production, human resources, and finance as highly influential factors.

Similar with present study, earlier studies have also underscored the significance of human resource methods within the context of crisis management practises. Establishing mutually beneficial relationships and establishing mutual respect between owners and workers, as well as facilitating regular contact and information exchange between guests and hotels, are crucial strategies for effectively managing crises (Burhan et al., 2021; Pavlatos et al., 2020). According to Hidalgo et al. (2022), implementing additional marketing methods, such as price reduction offers, special promotion offers, and temporary firm closures during a crisis period, can also prove advantageous for crisis management. Lai and Wong (2020) identified additional maintenance-related methods that were found to be relevant during the crisis. These tactics included cross-cutting the overall maintenance price and temporarily sealing off less utilised facilities for the period of the crisis. In addition to this, the implementation of diverse technical innovations in disaster management,

including the deployment of digital contactless services, the utilisation of auto face-scanning equipment, the integration of automated room services, the adoption of self-check-in and check-out devices, has been identified as crucial during times of crisis (Hao et al., 2020).

Furthermore, the participants in the current study expressed consensus regarding the significant positive impacts resulting from advancements in the sectorial, political, and economic domains. Likewise, the aforementioned study likewise advocated for the detrimental effects of governmental intervention in crisis management. The study conducted by Burhan et al. (2021) indicated the significant impact of government support in facilitating the continuity of small companies during and following periods of crises. In a similar vein, it has been noted that government actions played a significant part in addressing the Ebola Virus Disease Epidemic (EVDE) in The Gambia, Africa. These actions included the implementation of measures to restrict cross-border mobility through surveillance in border regions and the imposition of a ban on air travel to the country (Novelli et al., 2018).

The current study also revealed that there are significant differences in the evaluation of the crisis management procedure among managers depending on the location of the hotel. Robina-Ramírez et al. (2022) demonstrated in a previous study that discernible variations exist in crisis management strategies between urban and rural regions. The hotels located in urban regions followed to COVID-19 testing methods, but hotel management in rural areas did not prioritise this measure. Previous studies have highlighted experience as a significant component that influences the implementation of crisis management practises. According to the findings of Senbeto and Hon (2020), the acquisition of experience in addressing diverse crises has the potential to enhance the adaptability of management and their capacity to effectively resolve disruptions. Filimonau et al. (2020) found that worldwide hotel chains, possessing greater business expertise, tend to exhibit enhanced proficiency in managing crises.

In addition to the temporal dimension of hotels, the proficiency of the general manager in navigating crises has been identified as a crucial determinant of their efficiency in crisis management (Giousmpasoglou et al., 2021).

Nevertheless, the age of the hotels did not emerge as a statistically significant factor in affecting the crisis management practises in the present study. Moreover, it is important to do additional research in order to gain a comprehensive understanding of this specific phenomenon. Furthermore, the current study demonstrates that there is no significant variation in crisis management practises among companies associated with tourism. Tourism-related industries exhibit similar behaviour in the face of crisis. The presence of significant uncertainty within the tourism-related sectors may contribute to this phenomenon (Lai & Wong, 2020). In a separate study, Açıkgöz and Günay (2020) also found that the tourism-related sector was recognised as the sector that saw the most severe negative impact.

The present study demonstrates the presence of significant differences in crisis management strategies within the framework of the COVID-19 pandemic, as influenced by fluctuations in hotel size. Previous studies have yielded comparable findings. The findings from interview-based studies conducted with owner-managers of small-scale resort tourism firms in coastal Sabah indicate a significant disparity in disaster avoidance strategy between micro-sized resorts and medium-sized resorts. The absence of effective crisis management practises and inadequate allocation of human resources are significant contributing causes to such circumstances. Additionally, the participants in the study by Fabeil et al. (2018) highlighted the financial limitations that prevented them from implementing pre-crisis measures. According to Burhan et al. (2021), government help has been recognised as crucial in small-sized hotels, both during and after crises. In contrast, huge hotel chains are able to accumulate sufficient resources in advance. However, it is important to note that past researches have primarily focused on different types of crises and has not

specifically addressed the COVID-19 pandemic. As a result, there is a lack of comparable studies in this particular setting.

5.4 Outcomes of the Crisis in Turkish Hotels

The analysis of the outcomes of the COVID-19 crisis was conducted from two perspectives, namely internal and external. The present study established that the crisis had a positive impact on the internal administrative and management procedures within the hotels of the respondents. The current study has demonstrated that the effects of the crisis varied based on the specific city in Türkiye where the hotel was located. Previous studies have also demonstrated comparable occurrences in the context of the 1997 Asian currency crisis, wherein both urban and rural households exhibited significant vulnerability to the crisis. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that the urban poor population encountered the most adverse circumstances (Friedman & Levinsohn, 2002).

The age of a hotel is an important factor in assessing its efficiency of operation in periods of crisis. Previous studies have demonstrated a negative correlation between the age of a hotel and its performance. Contemporary hotels adopt new business models and exhibit innovation within the sector (Baum & Mezias, 1992). However, Assaf and Cvelbar (2011) have provided evidence to support the notion that increased years of operation positively impact the performance of hotels. The authors suggested that factors like as age, reputation, and experience contribute to the enhancement of strategic decision-making by management. Some studies also recommended that there is an optimal age for the hotel after which hotel profitability decreases.

In contrast to previous studies, there were not significant differences in the effects of the crisis among hotels in Türkiye based on their age. The present study demonstrated that the dimensions of hotels play a significant role in influencing the outcome of crises. Similarly, it has been shown that small-scale resort tourism enterprises in coastal Sabah exhibit limited levels of preparedness and resilience in the face of crises, as highlighted by Fabeil et al. (2018).

5.5 Impact of Pre-crisis Measurements on Crisis Forecasting in Turkish Hotels

The findings of this study indicate that all dimensions of disaster preparedness, with the exception of the sales and marketing factor, have a statistically significant influence on the overall outcomes of a crisis. Nevertheless, previous studies have indicated that the formalisation of resilience does not necessarily ensure a comprehensive restoration from a disaster (Herbane, 2018). According to Alexander (2021), the effectiveness of costly and extensively employed structural preparedness measures in mitigating the impact of disasters may be limited. Several further studies have also indicated that stakeholder collaboration is a significant concern that contributes to low resilience in the face of disasters, despite adequate disaster preparedness measures.

In contrast to these studies, the current study demonstrates that pre-crisis measurements had a positive impact on the outcome of the crisis. Consistent with previous studies, it has been demonstrated that organisational resilience in business is associated with readiness, enabling the use of predictive and adaptive algorithms that facilitate rapid recovery from crises (He et al., 2022). The current study provides additional evidence for the conceptual framework proposed by Brown et al. (2018), which posited the existence of disaster resilience systems that incorporate a range of resources.

5.6 Impact of Pre-Crisis Measurements on Crisis Forecasting in Turkish Hotels

Pre-crisis measurements facilitate the development of appropriate infrastructure, hence enhancing management's confidence in forecasting future circumstances. According to He et al. (2022), empirical research has demonstrated the efficiency of hotels' forecasting methodologies in assessing the impact of COVID-19 on hotel demand. These approaches have been effective in evaluating public health situations such as the COVID-19 pandemic. Various empirical investigations have

demonstrated the significance of pre-planning during emergency situations. In a survey conducted among hotel employees in California, United States, it was found that there exists a positive and significant relationship between contingency planning and the ability of hotels to survive in the aftermath of a disaster. The process of developing contingency plans involves several key components, including the identification of potential disasters, the formulation of a contingency planning statement, and a comprehensive understanding of the preventative controls associated with the planning process (Inkinen et al., 2021). Furthermore, the use of pre-crisis measures allows management to exhibit resilience and confidence during periods of unprecedented circumstances (Giousmpasoglou et al., 2021). In line with previous researches findings, other studies have supported the notion that competent and well-prepared leadership is capable of effectively overseeing and retaining human resources within company operations, hence enhancing the overall resilience of the organisation (Brown et al., 2018). Consistent with previous studies, the current study posited that including pre-crisis measures, specifically for the COVID-19 pandemic, improves the predictive capabilities of Turkish hospitality management.

5.7 Impact of Pre-Crisis Measurements on the Crisis Management Process

Pre-crisis assessments not only enhance the capacity of management to withstand and recover from adverse events, but also contribute to a deeper comprehension of the managerial function in the context of an ongoing crisis. Strategic planning is centred on the identification and pursuit of future prospects, whereas crisis management is concerned with effectively addressing and mitigating encountered dangers. Previous studies have indicated that the act of planning has a notable and favourable influence on many approaches to crisis management, specifically, cooperation, confrontation, and containment. Furthermore, the utilisation of pre-crisis measurements contributes to the development of resilience within organisations, ultimately leading to enhanced levels of organisational performance, commitment, and work satisfaction (Brown et al., 2018; Filimonau et al., 2020).

In the present study also, a similar phenomenon was observed where pre-crisis measurements among Turkish hotel management helped them significantly in dealing with the crisis management process.

5.8 Impact of Crisis Forecasting on the Outcomes of Crisis during the COVID-19 Pandemic

The present study revealed that even during the COVID-19 pandemic, crisis forecasting had a major impact on the outcome of crises. Consistent with the findings of previous studies, Gani et al. (2021) determined that effective emergency response was facilitated by various factors, including preparedness measures, awareness campaigns conducted via social media platforms, destination-specific disaster management plans, and robust communication methods. In addition to the hospitality sector, various other sectors have recognised the importance of contingency planning as a vital and efficient technique in response to unforeseen disruptive events. Nevertheless, certain research has indicated that the utilisation of forecasting techniques and reliance on past experiences may not always facilitate a comprehensive comprehension of the unparalleled impact that COVID-19 has had on the hotel sector (Alonso et al., 2022). The present study has shown that the utilisation of crisis forecasting facilitated comprehension of the effects of the pandemic on the Turkish tourism sector.

5.9 Influence of Evaluation of Crisis Management Process on Outcomes of Crisis in Turkish Hotels

The present study provides evidence that the assessment of the crisis management process exerts a noteworthy influence on the crisis outcome within the Turkish hotels. In accordance with the current findings, previous studies have demonstrated the advantageous effects of crisis management strategies, such as marketing and promotional initiatives, on crisis management outcomes (Hidalgo et al., 2022).

Moreover, in order to effectively manage and sustain business operations during a crisis, organisations employ a range of maintenance-related tactics. These strategies encompass actions such as deferring maintenance activities, procuring office supplies that offer optimal cost-efficiency, and temporarily shutting down underutilised facilities (Lai & Wong, 2020). All of these techniques had a significant impact on the crises and facilitated the sectors in sustaining their operations.

5.10 The Mediating Effect of Crisis Forecasting and Evaluation of Crisis Management Process on the Relationship between Pre-Crisis Measurements and the Outcomes of the Crisis

The present study has shown that there is a mediating influence of crisis forecasting and evaluation of the crisis management process on the relation between pre-crisis measurements and the outcomes of the crisis. Previous studies have demonstrated that pre-crisis measurements significantly influence both the forecasting of crises and the subsequent management of crises within the Turkish sector. In contrast, it has been demonstrated that both crisis management and crisis forecasting exert an influence on the outcome of a crisis. Consistent with this statement, a number of studies have demonstrated that possessing information and receiving training in disaster prevention can enhance the forecasting abilities of organisations in withstanding and surmounting a crisis (Tsai et al., 2020). In contrast, the implementation of crisis management procedures, including governmental decision-making and crisis tactics, as well as marketing and promotional initiatives, have been found to yield more favourable results in the context of disasters (Hidalgo et al., 2022; Novelli et al., 2018). The current study, in conjunction with previous researches, provides substantial evidence supporting the notion that Crisis forecasting and appraisal of the crisis management process have a significant role in mediating the relationship between pre-crisis measurements and the outcomes of a crisis.

5.11 Impact of Crisis Forecasting on Evaluation of Crisis Management Process

The present study demonstrated that the practise of crisis forecasting exerts a substantial influence on the crisis management procedures within the Turkish hospitality sector. Consistent with this assertion, previous researches were demonstrated that the act of forecasting crises has proven beneficial in facilitating crisis management efforts. The study conducted by Song and Lin (2010) demonstrated that accurate predictions of tourism demand may be achieved by the estimation of interval forecasts. Additional research has demonstrated that general managers who possess higher degrees of confidence and effective forecasting skills contribute to the development of enhanced organisational resilience, hence facilitating the strengthening of crisis management procedures (Giousmpasoglou et al., 2021).



CHAPTER 6

6. CONCLUSIONS

The primary aim of this research was gaining a comprehensive understanding of the crisis preparedness strategies employed by the hospitality and tourism sector in Türkiye, with specific emphasis on the recent COVID-19 epidemic, which has exerted a significant influence on a global scale. The main objective of the study was to investigate the crisis management procedures implemented by establishments, with a particular focus on hotels, and their impact on the outcomes of crises. Moreover, the study investigated the correlation between various elements of crisis management and their influence on the outcomes of crises.

In order to accomplish the given aims, a quantitative research methodology was implemented, employing a survey questionnaire as the primary tool for data collecting. A total of 415 participants, all of whom were professionals working in the hotel business, were included in the data collection process. It is imperative to acknowledge that the data collection occurred throughout the COVID-19 pandemic. Therefore, while referring to "the crisis" within this study, it predominantly pertains to the COVID-19 pandemic. The data that was gathered was subjected to statistical analysis, and the findings were subsequently presented in the form of tables and figures, as previously stated in earlier sections. The present chapter functions as the concluding section of the study, providing a concise overview of the primary findings and addressing the constraints discovered throughout the course of the research. Furthermore, the chapter concludes with a thorough examination of potential avenues for future research.

6.1 Summary of the Significant Findings of the Study Conducted during the COVID-19 Period

6.1.1 Profile of the Respondents

The respondents represented a diverse group within the hospitality sector in Türkiye, including owners, executives, partners, and other professionals associated with hotels. Of the 415 total respondents, a significant majority, over 90%, were hotel managers with executive-level responsibilities. Additionally, 3.4% were owners of hotels, and 2.4% were partners in hotels. These positions placed the respondents in positions where they were actively involved in strategizing and implementing crucial management processes to address and navigate emerging crises effectively.

6.1.2 Profile of the Hotels

The survey primarily focused on hotels, with Istanbul accounting for the largest proportion (72.3%) and Ankara representing 18.8% of the selected hotels. The observed distribution can be attributed to the fact that Istanbul is the most frequently visited location in Türkiye. This ensures a more precise depiction of crisis management procedures within the hospitality and tourist sectors of the country.

This survey included a diverse range of hotels, encompassing establishments of varying ages. Over 42% of the aforementioned hotels were established after the year 2010, while over 30% have been in operation since the year 2000. Furthermore, approximately 4.8% of these establishments can be classified as recent, having been established within the timeframe of the COVID-19 pandemic (2019 to present). Conversely, a further 4.3% of the hotels can be traced back to a period prior to 1980.

The vast majority of these establishments (86.7%) were found to be exclusively operating within the hotel sector. On the other hand, the remaining hotels were affiliated with a group that had diverse operations in multiple sectors of the tourism sector as well as other industries such as construction and IT technologies.

Regarding their legal classification, a significant proportion (63.9%) of these hotels were formally recognised as limited companies, with an additional 25% being categorised as incorporated corporations. A small proportion of establishments, specifically 7.0%, functioned as sole proprietors, while a negligible percentage of 4.3% were affiliated with hotel chains.

In relation to the staffing number, a majority (68.2%) of the aforementioned hotels had a workforce size ranging from 11 to 50 personnel, while a smaller proportion (19.0%) had staff numbers ranging from 51 to 150. In terms of the quantity of rooms, a significant majority of the hotels, specifically 73%, possessed a range of 30 to 99 rooms, so suggesting that they can be classified as establishments of modest scale.

The hotels were classified according to their size, taking into consideration the number of staff members and the capacity of their rooms. A significant proportion of the hotels, specifically 73.0%, were categorised as small establishments, while 22.0% were categorised as medium-sized enterprises.

6.1.3 Pre-crisis Measurements of Hotels

The evaluations of hotels prior to a crisis were conducted using a framework consisting of five sub-variables. These sub-variables included pre-crisis activities, preparation and planning sales and marketing strategies, cost-saving measures, and financial initiatives implemented by the hotels. The aforementioned aspects were subject to the following observations.

The hotels implemented preventative measures to effectively mitigate potential crises and hazards, including accidents, fires, conflicts, strikes, or poor designs.

The adopted strategies took into account sector-specific, political, and economic aspects in a manner that proved to be beneficial. In addition, hotels implemented measures to establish and maintain effective channels of communication, facilitating the timely dissemination of pertinent information to its staff.

Hotels exhibited proactive involvement in a range of endeavours intended at anticipating and mitigating future crises and risks, encompassing incidents such as accidents, fires, conflicts, strikes, and design flaws. They employed efficacious methodologies, considering sector-specific, political, and economic variables. Furthermore, hotels implemented effective communication channels to facilitate timely dissemination of pertinent information among their staff members.

Regarding the aspects of preparation and planning for potential crises, a significant proportion of hotels demonstrated a commendable level of effectiveness and preparedness in managing and mitigating such situations. The crisis dimensions were determined by the hotel sector, and the potential impacts of the crisis on hotel business were duly foreseen. Teams were established with the purpose of formulating and executing action plans by both employees and other stakeholders in order to effectively address and mitigate any emergencies.

Regarding the scope of sales and marketing activities inside hotels, it is noteworthy that these establishments have demonstrated proactive engagement in implementing effective sales and marketing strategies. Such endeavours have the potential to contribute to the alleviation of adverse consequences arising from crises. The primary objective was to enhance the operational efficiency of hotels by implementing cutting-edge technology and conducting strategic research and development activities to sustain their competitive edge. Numerous cost-saving strategies were implemented in order to navigate the challenges posed by the pandemic crisis. These methods encompassed the implementation of unpaid leave policies to curtail expenses, the strategic management of essential inventory to fulfil daily needs, and the implementation of reductions in operational budgets.

In summary, the financial actions involved the execution of debt restructuring agreements with financial institutions and all creditors, with the prioritisation of expeditious receivables collection through suitable discounts.

6.1.4 Forecasting of Crisis

The findings of the study indicate that a substantial majority of hotel management shown the capacity to effectively predict and promptly respond to crises. Moreover, the management successfully controlled the situations that emerged throughout the crisis and devised resolutions to the challenges they confronted. The restoration of normalcy was perceived by the hotel administration as a crucial component of crisis prediction. The decision-making of the managers was deemed appropriate and centred on problem-solving; yet, there seems to be potential for improvement in this aspect.

6.1.5 Crisis Management Process

The assessment procedure was found to comprise multiple elements, encompassing the degree of readiness demonstrated during meetings and the formulation of action plans in reaction to the crisis. Furthermore, the study encompassed an evaluation of the strategies implemented in regards to sales and marketing, as well as the administration of goods or services and industrial operations. In addition, the evaluation process took into account the actions implemented in relation to human resources, financial aspects, and the level of contact established with employees and stakeholders.

6.1.6 Outcomes of Crisis

The study involved an analysis of two distinct classifications of crisis consequences, specifically internal and external outcomes. The crisis resulted in internal transformations inside hotels, impacting different aspects like administrative and

managerial protocols, human resource management, manufacturing of goods and services, procurement of resources, business model, and post-sales service operations undertaken by the hotels. The crisis was found to have influenced various external outcomes, such as the market share of hotels, their business reputation among customers and suppliers, and the extent of their operations.

6.1.7 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) programme was utilised to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on the pre-crisis measures and outcomes of the crisis. Measurement models were effectively developed for both factors, exhibiting chi-square values within an acceptable range. Additionally, the models demonstrated satisfactory levels of fit according to established criteria, including CFI, NFI, RFI, IFI, TLI, and RMSEA, as advised by previous studies.

The standardised regression weights for each variable were provided, together with the paths, standard estimates, errors, and critical ratios at their observed significant levels. The composite reliability coefficient was employed to calculate the internal consistency of the measurements used to assess these variables. The observation revealed that all of the items possessed values surpassing the threshold values, therefore indicating a high level of reliability for these scales.

6.1.8 Differences in Perceptions of Study Variables Associated with Crisis Management

There were no notable disparities observed in all aspects of crisis management, encompassing crisis prediction, the process of crisis management, and the aftermath of the crisis, with respect to the work duties of the participants. The study found notable disparities in the perception of the crisis management process, external outcomes of the crisis, and internal outcomes of the crisis, based on the geographical

location of hotels. No statistically significant variations were seen among respondents in relation to the variables of crisis management, as determined by the number of years the hotels have been in operation. The study revealed notable variations in the internal outcomes of the crisis among respondents, based on the sector classification of the hotels. Hotels with a primary concentration on hotel management had the most significant changes, surpassing those establishments that held operations in businesses besides tourism.

There were no significant differences detected in several dimensions of crisis management, including the ability to predict a crisis, the process of managing a crisis, and the outcomes of a crisis, with respect to the legal status of the hotels. Significant statistical variations were detected in the forecasting of crises, the evaluation of crisis management methods, and the internal and external outcomes of the crisis, as they relate to the number of staff working in hotels. The hotels with staffs of over 150 people exhibited the least accurate predictive ability and experienced the least favourable outcomes during the crisis. Conversely, hotels with staff numbers ranging from 11 to 50 demonstrated the most successful crisis management approach. The responses to the external results of the crisis shown notable variance depending on the room number of the hotels. The crisis had the greatest external impact on hotels with a room number ranging from 31 to 99, while hotels with over 250 rooms experienced the least impact. The study revealed notable variations in the prediction of crises, the process of crisis management, and the external outcomes of crises among the participants, depending on the size of the hotel. The accuracy of crisis forecasting was shown to be higher in medium-sized hotels compared to other establishments. Conversely, small-sized hotels exhibited the most comprehensive crisis management processes and saw the greatest internal changes as a result of the crisis.

6.1.9 Correlation among the Study Variables

All the aspects of crisis management were found to be positively correlated with each other. In this study, the correlation ranged from 0.195 (between financial measures and preparation and planning in hotels) to 0.582 (between evaluation of the crisis management process and internal outcomes of the crisis). The maximum correlation was observed between the internal outcomes of crises and the crisis management process.

6.1.10 Hypothesis Testing

The seven hypotheses were tested through the application of multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), linear regression analysis, and Structured Equation Modelling (SEM), as considered acceptable for obtaining relevant inferences. The utilisation of MANOVA revealed that the pre-crisis measurements, namely pre-crisis activities, preparation and planning, saving measures, and financial measures, had a substantial influence on the outcomes of crises. However, it was found that preparation and planning did not have a significant impact on the external outcomes of crises. The study employed linear regression analysis to examine the impact of preparation and planning, sales and marketing, and savings and financial measures on crisis forecasting in the pre-crisis measurement domain. The results revealed that these factors exhibited a significant influence on the ability to predict and anticipate crises. Likewise, the inclusion of pre-crisis measures such as preparation and planning, saving measures, and financial measures had a significant impact on the process of crisis management. The study revealed that crisis forecasting has a substantial influence on the outcomes of crises. The outcomes of the crisis were notably influenced by the crisis management process.

Through SEM, it was observed that there was a significant mediating effect of crisis forecasting and crisis management processes on the outcomes of the crisis. Finally, forecasting crises was found to have a significantly crucial effect on the crisis management process.

6.2 Addressing the Research Questions and Meeting the Objectives

The first research question enquired about the ways in which the hospitality and tourism sectors of Türkiye prepare for the recent COVID-19 pandemic. Based on this, the first objective, to investigate the factors that help the Turkish tourism and hospitality sector prepare for a crisis, was construed. This objective was addressed by studying the five aspects of pre-crisis measurements through understanding pre-crisis activities, preparation and planning in the hotels, sales and marketing in the hotels, and saving and financial measures taken by the hotel management. The relationship between these constructs was tested using confirmatory factor analysis. Moreover, it was found through hypothesis testing that the level of pre-crisis measurements during the COVID-19 pandemic significantly influenced internal and external outcomes of the crisis in the Turkish tourism and hospitality sector.

Objective 2 addressed the following research question regarding how the Turkish tourism and hospitality sector handled the crisis and how that affected the outcomes of the crisis for the hotels. The second objective was to assess the influence of pre-crisis measurements on the forecasting of the crisis and the crisis management process. This was addressed by validating Hypothesis 2 and Hypothesis 3, where it was found that pre-crisis measurements influenced crisis forecasting and the crisis management process significantly.

To meet the third objective, to examine how forecasting and crisis management processes support the management of the outcome of the crisis in the tourism and hospitality sectors in Türkiye, MANOVAs were conducted between the independent variables, crisis forecasting and crisis management processes, and the dependent

variable, outcomes of the crisis. It was revealed that both of these independent variables significantly influenced the outcomes of the crisis.

Finally, in order to address Objective 4, an investigation was done to examine the potential mediating impacts of crisis forecasting and the crisis management process. This analysis aimed to evaluate the independent influence of each mediating variable, as well as the interaction between the two variables, on the outcomes of crises. To accomplish this, structural equation modelling (SEM) was employed using the AMOS software. It was found that the interaction of crisis forecasting and crisis management processes significantly mediated the relationship between pre-crisis measurements and the outcomes of crises in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Thus, it can be concluded that all the objectives of this study were successfully achieved and all the research questions were addressed.

6.3 Recommendations from the Study

The present study considers COVID-19 as the major crisis that occurred during the time of the study; therefore, it can be concluded that the various aspects of crisis management and its impact on the outcomes of the crisis studied here imply this major disaster. Even though this study was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic years, the findings of the current study have a lot of managerial and human resource implications that can be extended to managing other crises and also in the tourism sector at large across other countries.

It was realised that these aspects of crisis management are crucial and should be taken into consideration by the hospitality and tourism industries to easily bounce back to normalcy after the crisis. There is a need to understand the crisis management processes and come up with strategies that will be specific to the hotels, depending upon the location of the hotel, their industrial affiliations, room number, staff number and hotel size.

The findings of this study can be generalised to the entire tourism sector across the globe and beyond Türkiye such as the COVID-19 crisis. These crises are impacting all nations, directly or indirectly. Even though it was found that each hotel develops its own crisis management plan, good practices need to be shared to improve their action plans, particularly to overcome global-level crises.

It has been suggested that hotels should be well prepared to undertake the necessary measures during periods of crisis. It is necessary to implement improvisations in order to navigate the dimensions of the crisis and comprehend the consequences that follow. The sales and marketing team should possess a comprehensive understanding of the services being offered, even in light of the crisis situation, as well as the appropriate techniques for equipping hotels with a competitive advantage. Ensuring adequate funds for financial endeavours is of utmost importance. However, it is equally essential to deal with the needs and demands of human resources simultaneously.

Forecasting a crisis is the key to timely responsiveness and recovery from the crisis. Therefore, this needs to be integrated with the processes of hotel management and training programs. This should improve the situation and help in getting solution-oriented and crisis-appropriate approaches. The evaluation process for crisis management has to be dealt with seriously by overseeing all the aspects involved in hotel management. Moreover, measures have to be taken to ensure that the highest level of efficiency is achieved. This study identified that the mediating effect of the interaction of crisis forecasting and crisis management evaluation processes has to be considered before the development of an action plan towards mitigating the crisis.

6.4 Limitations of the Study

Though the present study could successfully establish the relationship between the various aspects of crisis management, it is not without limitations. Despite the theoretical and practical contributions made by the study, the usual limitations of

survey methods restricted the course of this study. Apart from that, the researcher observed the following limitations during the study.

This study covered crises that included general crises related to accidents, fires, conflicts, strikes, or other common issues, which were also inclusive of the COVID-19 pandemic and the Russia-Ukraine war. The awareness levels towards the mitigation of crises among the respondents remain unevaluated, which may be crucial in understanding the management of the crisis. Since most of the respondents for this study were hotel managers, the perspectives of owners and senior management also need to be taken into consideration for the holistic management of crises. The perspective of newly established hotels, especially during COVID-19 pandemic times, was not given any separate emphasis, which might be useful in managing COVID-19 pandemic-specific issues.

6.5 Suggestions for Further Research

The limitations identified in the present study provided various possibilities for the development of future lines of researches. As the present study was carried out in Türkiye, future studies need to be carried out in other countries to validate our findings, as the COVID-19 pandemic is a global phenomenon. This will also help prepare for any future crises of similar nature. Though the relationships established in the study models are verified with the help of empirical findings, future studies should adopt longitudinal designs to prove the directionality of the causality established in the current study. Since the current study included mostly managers, it would be interesting to extend this analysis to other stakeholders associated with the hospitality and tourism industries.

Studies comparing the pre-pandemic and post-crisis periods need to be conducted to understand the accurate outcomes of the crises. Future researches should focus on understanding other factors that are crucial to crisis management, including the barriers and challenges that the hotels faced during the crisis period. Lastly, the economic, social, and other aspects of the hotel sector that will be beneficial in overcoming the crisis have been analysed, based on which appropriate policies need to be implemented.

REFERENCES

- Açıkgöz, Ö., & Günay, A. (2020). The early impact of the covid-19 pandemic on the global and Turkish economy. *Turkish Journal of Medical Sciences*, 50(SI-1), 520–526. <https://doi.org/10.3906/sag-2004-6>
- Adedoyin, O. B., & Soykan, E. (2023). Covid-19 pandemic and online learning: the challenges and opportunities. *Interactive Learning Environments*, 31(2), 863-875. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10494820.2020.1813180>
- AlBattat, A. R., & MatSom, A. P. (2014). Emergency planning and disaster recovery in Malaysian hospitality industry. *Procedia - Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 144, 45–53. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.SBSPRO.2014.07.272>
- Alexander, D. (2021). Disaster and crisis preparedness. In *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Politics*.
- Alhas, A. M. (2020). (2020, February 21). Turkey: All arrivals from iran checked for coronavirus, Anadolu Ajansı. <https://www.aa.com.tr/en/health/turkey-all-arrivals-from-iran-checked-for-coronavirus/1740920>
- Ali, H., Yılmaz, G., Fareed, Z., Shahzad, F., & Ahmad, M. (2020). Impact of novel coronavirus (covid-19) on daily routines and air environment: Evidence from turkey. *Air Quality, Atmosphere and Health*, 14(3), 381–387. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11869-020-00943-2>
- Alonso-Almeida, M. del M., & Bremser, K. (2013). Strategic responses of the Spanish hospitality sector to the financial crisis. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 32(1), 141–148. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.IJHM.2012.05.004>
- Alonso-Sardón, M., Iglesias-De-Sena, H., Fernández-Martín, L. C., & Mirón-Canelo, J. A. (2019). Do health and social support and personal autonomy have an influence on the health-related quality of life of individuals with intellectual disability? *BMC Health Services Research*, 19(1), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12913-018-3856-5>
- Alonso, A. D., Kok, S. K., Bressan, A., O'Shea, M., Sakellarios, N., Koresis, A., ... & Santoni, L. J. (2020). COVID-19, aftermath, impacts, and hospitality firms: an international perspective. *International journal of hospitality management*, 91, 102654. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102654

- Alonso, A. D., Bressan, A., Kok, S. K., Sakellarios, N., Thi Kim Vu, O., O'Shea, M., Koresis, A., Solis, M. A. B., & Santoni, L. J. (2022). Overcoming the unprecedented: micro, small and medium hospitality enterprises under COVID-19. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 103, 103201. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.IJHM.2022.103201>
- Altuntas, F., & Gok, M. S. (2021). The effect of COVID-19 pandemic on domestic tourism: a dematel method analysis on quarantine decisions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 92(October 2020), 102719. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102719>
- Aslan, M., Küçükaltan, D., & Uzun, D. (2020). Kriz yönetim süreci değerlendirme ölçekleri geliştirilme çalışması. *İşletme Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 12(3), 2382-2406. <https://doi.org/10.20491/isarder.2020.982>
- Assaf, A., & Cvelbar, K. L. (2011). Privatization, market competition, international attractiveness, management tenure and hotel performance: evidence from Slovenia. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(2), 391–397.
- Au, A. K. M., Ramasamy, B., & Yeung, M. C. H. (2004). The effects of SARS on the Hong Kong tourism industry: An empirical evaluation. *10*(1), 85–95. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1094166042000330236>
- Avraham, E. (2016). Destination marketing and image repair during tourism crises: The case of Egypt. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 28, 41–48. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.JHTM.2016.04.004>
- Aviacionline (2022) Southwind is born: Turkey creates airline targeting Russian tourists. Retrieved on August 2022 <https://www.aviacionline.com/2022/04/southwind-is-born-turkey-creates-airline-targeting-russian-tourists/>
- Aydın, L., & Arı, I. (2020). The impact of Covid-19 on Turkey's non-recoverable economic sectors compensating with falling crude oil prices: A computable general equilibrium analysis. *Energy Exploration and Exploitation*, 38(5), 1810–1830. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0144598720934007>
- Aydın, B., & Doğan, M. (2020). Yeni koronavirüs (COVID-19) pandemisinin turistik tüketici davranışları ve Türkiye turizmi üzerindeki etkilerinin değerlendirilmesi. *Pazarlama Teorisi ve Uygulamaları Dergisi*, 6(1), 93-115.

- Baggio, R. (2019). Measuring Tourism: Methods, Indicators, and Needs. In E. Fayos-Solà & C. Cooper (Eds.), *The Future of Tourism: Innovation and Sustainability* (pp. 255–269). Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-89941-1_13
- 24, 1049–1059. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.09.101>
- Baum, J. A. C., & Mezias, S. J. (1992). Localized competition and organizational failure in the Manhattan hotel industry, 37 (1992), pp. 580-604. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 37(580–604). <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-03-2020-0242/FULL/PDF>
- Bagozzi, R. P., & Yi, Y. (1988). On the evaluation of structural equation models. *Journal of the academy of marketing science*, 16(1), 74-94.
- Bhattacharjee, A. (2012). *Social science research: Principles, methods, and practices*. 2nd Edition, Textbooks Collection. 3, University of South Florida, USA. http://scholarcommons.usf.edu/oa_textbooks/3
- Benoit, W. ., & Drew, S. (1997). Appropriateness and effectiveness of image repair strategies. *Communication Reports*, 10, 153–163. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08934219709367671>
- Benoit, W. L. (1995). Apologies, excuses, and accounts: A theory of image restoration strategies. *State University of New York Press, Albany, NY*.
- Bollen, K. A. (1990). Overall Fit in Covariance Structure Models: Two Types of Sample Size Effects. *Psychological Bulletin*, 107:256-259.
- Bollen, K. A., & Long, J. S. (1993). Testing structural equation models (Vol. 154). Sage.
- Breier, M., Kallmuenzer, A., Clauss, T., Gast, J., Kraus, S., & Tiberius, V. (2021). The role of business model innovation in the hospitality industry during the COVID-19 crisis. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 92. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.IJHM.2020.102723>
- Bremser, K., Alonso-Almeida, M. del M., & Llach, J. (2018). Strategic Alternatives for Tourism Companies to Overcome Times of Crisis. *Service Business*, 12(2), 229–251. <https://doi.org/10.1007/S11628-017-0344-7/tables/10>

- Brown, N. A., Orchiston, C., Rovins, J. E., Feldmann-Jensen, S., & Johnston, D. (2018). An integrative framework for investigating disaster resilience within the hotel sector. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 36, 67–75. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2018.07.004>
- Bucak, T., & Yiğit, S. (2021). The future of the chef occupation and the food and beverage sector after the COVID-19 outbreak: Opinions of Turkish chefs. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 92. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.IJHM.2020.102682>
- Bui, H. T., Jones, T. E., Weaver, D. B., & Le, A. (2020). The adaptive resilience of living cultural heritage in a tourism destination. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 28(7), 1022-1040. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2020.1717503>
- Burhan, M., Salam, M. T., Hamdan, O. A., & Tariq, H. (2021). “Crisis management in the hospitality sector SMEs in Pakistan during COVID-19”. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 98, 103037. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.IJHM.2021.103037>
- Burns, R. B., & Dobson, C. B. (1981). *Experimental psychology: Research methods and statistics*. Springer Science & Business Media.
- Buse, C., & Unluonen, K. (2020). Economic evaluation of health tourism in Turkey. *Journal of Tourismology*, 6(1), 99–109.
- Burns, R. B., & Dobson, C. B. (1981). *Experimental psychology: Research methods and statistics*. Springer Byrne,
- Buzzanell, P. M. (2010). Resilience: Talking, Resisting, and Imagining New Normalcies into Being. *Journal of Communication*, 60(1), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1111/J.1460-2466.2009.01469.X>
- Byrne, B. M. (1994). *Structural Equation Modelling With EQS and EQS/Windows: Basic Concepts, Applications, and Programming*. Sage.
- Çakmaklı, C., Demiralp, S., Yeşiltaş, S., & Yıldırım, M. A. (2021). An evaluation of the Turkish economy during Covid-19. Working Paper, *Centre for Applied Turkey Studies (CATS)*.

- Camilleri, M. A. (2018). The Tourism Industry: An Overview. In *Travel Marketing, Tourism Economics and the Airline Product: An Introduction to Theory and Practice* (pp. 3–27). Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-49849-2_1
- Çetin, C., & Kara, A. (2020). Global surveillance, travel, and trade during a pandemic. *Turkish Journal of Medical Sciences*, 50(9), 527–533.
- Chaokromthong, K., & Sintao, N. (2021). Sample size estimation using Yamane and Cochran and Krejcie and Morgan and green formulas and Cohen statistical power analysis by G* Power and comparisons. *Apheit International Journal*, 10(2), 76-86.
- Chen, M. H., Jang, S. C. (Shawn), & Kim, W. G. (2007). The impact of the SARS outbreak on Taiwanese hotel stock performance: An event-study approach. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 26(1), 200–212. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.IJHM.2005.11.004>
- Chen, M. P., Lee, C. C., Lin, Y. H., & Chen, W. Y. (2018). Did the S.A.R.S. epidemic weaken the integration of Asian stock markets? Evidence from smooth time-varying cointegration analysis. *Economic Research - Ekonomska Istraživanja*, 31(1), 908–926. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1331677X.2018.1456354>
- Chin, W. W. (1998). The partial least squares approach to structural equation modeling. *Modern methods for business research*, 295(2), 295-336.
- Christie & Co., (2020). Covid-19: Guidance for Hotels, Retrieved on June 2021, <https://www.christie.com/news-resources/blogs/covid-19-guidance-for-hotels/>
- City of Hotels (2023). Hotel Staff. Retrieved on July 2023, <https://www.city-of-hotels.com/165/hotel-staff-en.html>.
- Cochrane, J. (2010). The Sphere of Tourism Resilience. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 35.2(2010), 173–185. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2010.11081632>
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2018). *Research methods in education*. Routledge.

- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioural Sciences* (2nd ed.). New Jersey, US: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Collins, K. (2017). Sampling decisions in educational research. *The BERA/SAGE handbook of educational research*, 280-292.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Coombs, W. T. (2007). Attribution Theory as a guide for post-crisis communication research. *Public Relations Review*, 33(2), 135–139. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.PUBREV.2006.11.016>
- Coombs, W. T., & Holladay, S. J. (1996). Communication and attributions in a crisis: An experimental study in crisis communication. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 8, 279–295. https://doi.org/10.1207/s1532754xjpr0804_04
- Coombs, W. T., & Holladay, S. J. (2004). Reasoned action in crisis communication: An attribution theory-based approach to crisis management. In *Responding to crisis: A rhetorical approach to crisis communication* (pp. 95–115). *Methods Approaches* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Covid-19: Guidance for hotels* | Christie & Co. (n.d.). Retrieved October 28, 2022, from <https://www.christie.com/news-resources/blogs/covid-19-guidance-for-hotels/>
- De Vaus, D. (2001). Research design in social research. *Research design in social research*, 1-296.
- Demir, M., Demir Ş.Ş., Dalgıç, A., & Ergen, F. D. (2021). Impact of COVID-19 pandemic on the tourism industry: An evaluation from the hotel managers' perspective. *Journal of Tourism Theory and Research*, 7(1), 44–57. <https://doi.org/10.24288/jttr.857610>
- Demirbilek, Y., Pehlivan Türk, G., Özgüler, Z. Ö., & Meşe, E. A. (2020). COVID-19 outbreak control, example of ministry of health of Turkey. *Turkish Journal of Medical Sciences*, 50(9), 489–494.

- Deveci, M., Çiftçi, M. E., Akyurt, İ. Z., & Gonzalez, E. D. R. S. (2022). Impact of COVID-19 pandemic on the Turkish civil aviation industry. *Sustainable Operations and Computers*, 3(October 2021), 93–102. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.susoc.2021.11.002>
- Dikko, M. (2016). Establishing Construct Validity and Reliability: Pilot Testing of a Qualitative Interview for Research in Takaful (Islamic Insurance). *Qualitative Report*, 21(3), 521-528.
- Dombey, O. (2004). The effects of SARS on the Chinese tourism industry, *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 10(1), 4–10, <https://doi.org/10.1177/135676670301000101>
- Duarte Alonso, A., Kok, S. K., Bressan, A., O'Shea, M., Sakellarios, N., Koresis, A., Buitrago Solis, M. A., & Santoni, L. J. (2020). COVID-19, aftermath, impacts, and hospitality firms: An international perspective. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 91. 102654 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.IJHM.2020>
- Egresi, I., Bayram, B., Kara, F., & Kesik, O. A. (2012). Unlocking the potential of religious tourism in Turkey. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 9(1), 63–80.
- Ertaş, M., Sel, Z. G., Kırlar-Can, B., & Tütüncü, Ö. (2021). Effects of crisis on crisis management practices: a case from Turkish tourism enterprises. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 29(9), 1490-1507 <https://doi.org/10.51200/bimpeagajtsd.v7i1.3165>
- Farmaki, A., Miguel, C., Drotarova, M. H., Aleksić, A., Časni, A. Č., & Efthymiadou, F. (2020). Impacts of Covid-19 on peer-to-peer accommodation platforms: Host perceptions and responses. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 102663. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102663>
- Fabeil, N. F., Maizura Mohtar, T., Arif, & Pusiran, K. (2018). Tourism Business Preparedness and Resilience to Crisis: A Study of Small Tourism Resort Destinations in Sabah Coastal, Malaysia. *BIMP-EAGA Journal for Sustainable Tourism Development*, 7(1), 28–37. <https://doi.org/10.51200/BIMPEAGAJTSD.V7I1.3165>

- Fang, S. (Echo), Prayag, G., Ozanne, L. K., & de Vries, H. (2020). Psychological capital, coping mechanisms and organizational resilience: Insights from the 2016 Kaikoura earthquake, New Zealand. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 34, 100637. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.TMP.2020.100637>
- Filimonau, V., Derqui, B., & Matute, J. (2020). The COVID-19 pandemic and organisational commitment of senior hotel managers. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 91, 102659. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.IJHM.2020.102659>
- Fletcher, J., Fyall, A., Gilbert, D., & Wanhill, S. (2018). *Tourism: Principles and practice*. Pearson UK.
- Foo, L.-P., Chin, M.-Y., Tan, K.-L., & Phuah, K.-T. (2021). The impact of COVID-19 on tourism industry in Malaysia. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 24(19), 2735–2739.
- Fountain, J., & Cradock-Henry, N. (2020). Recovery, risk and resilience: Post-disaster tourism experiences in Kaikōura, New Zealand. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 35, 100695. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.TMP.2020.100695>
- Friedman, J., & Levinsohn, J. (2002). The distributional impacts of Indonesia's financial crisis on household welfare: A “rapid response” methodology. *The World Bank Economic Review*, 16(3), 397–423.
- Gani, A., Singh, R., & Najar, A. H. (2021). Rebuilding Tourist destinations from Crisis: a comparative Study of Jammu and Kashmir and Assam, India. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 13(3), 437–454. <https://doi.org/10.1108/WHATT-01-2021-0018/FULL/XML>
- Gautam, S., & Hens, L. (2020). COVID-19: impact by and on the environment, health and economy. *Environment, Development and Sustainability* 2020 22:6, 22(6), 4953–4954. <https://doi.org/10.1007/S10668-020-00818-7>
- Gautam, S., & Trivedi, U. (2020). Global implications of bio-aerosol in pandemic. *Environment, Development and Sustainability*, 22(5), 3861–3865. <https://doi.org/10.1007/S10668-020-00704-2/figures/1>
- Gaydukevich, L. M. (2017). Security problems in international tourism. *Journal of the Belarusian State University. International Relations*, 1, 28–35.

- Ghaderi, Z., Mat Som, A. P., & Wang, J. (2014). Organizational Learning in Tourism Crisis Management: An Experience From Malaysia. *Https://Doi.Org/10.1080/10548408.2014.883951*, 31(5), 627–648. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2014.883951>
- Ghaharian, K., Abarbanel, B., Soligo, M., & Bernhard, B. (2021). Crisis management practices in the hospitality and gambling industry during COVID-19. *International Hospitality Review*, 35(2), 171-194.
- Ghazi, K. M. (2017). The impact of strategic planning on crisis management styles in the 5-star hotels. *Journal of the Faculty of Tourism and Hotels; Alexandria University*, 14(1), 19.
- Gil-Alana, L. A., & Claudio-Quiroga, G. (2020). The COVID-19 impact on the Asian stock markets. *Asian Economics Letters*, 1(2), 17656.
- Giousmpasoglou, C., Marinakou, E., & Zopiatas, A. (2021). Hospitality managers in turbulent times: the COVID-19 crisis. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 33(4).
- Goodwin, C., & Ross, I. (1992). Consumer responses to service failures: Influence of procedural and interactional fairness perceptions. *Journal of Business Research*, 25, 149–163.
- Gössling, S., Scott, D., & Hall, C. M. (2020). Pandemics, tourism and global change: a rapid assessment of COVID-19. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 29(1), 1–20. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2020.1758708>
- Günay, F., Bayraktaroğlu, E., & Özkul, K. (2020). Assessing the short-term impacts of COVID-19 pandemic on foreign visitor's demand for Turkey: A scenario analysis. *Journal of Ekonomi*, 2(2), 80–85.
- Gray, D. E. (2013). *Doing research in the real world*. Sage.
- Hall, C. M., Scott, D., & Gössling, S. (2020). Pandemics, transformations and tourism: be careful what you wish for. 22(3), 577–598. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2020.1759131>

- Hall, L. J., William Best, D., Ogden-Webb, C., Dixon, J., & Heslop, R. (2018). Building Bridges to the Community: the Kirkham Family Connectors (KFC) Prison Programme. *The Howard Journal of Crime and Justice*, 57(4), 518–536. <https://doi.org/10.1111/HOJO.12289>
- Hao, F., Xiao, Q., & Chon, K. (2020). COVID-19 and China's Hotel Industry: Impacts, a Disaster Management Framework, and Post-Pandemic Agenda. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 90, 102636. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.IJHM.2020.102636>
- Haque, T. H., & Haque, M. O. (2018). The swine flu and its impacts on tourism in Brunei. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 36, 92–101. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.JHTM.2016.12.003>
- He, L. Y., Li, H., Bi, J. W., Yang, J. J., & Zhou, Q. (2022). The impact of public health emergencies on hotel demand - Estimation from a new foresight perspective on the COVID-19. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 94, 103402. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.ANNALS.2022.103402>
- Herbane, B. (2018). *Rethinking organizational resilience and strategic renewal in SMEs*. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 1-20. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08985626.2018.1541594>
- Hidalgo, A., Martín-Barroso, D., Nuñez-Serrano, J. A., Turrión, J., & Velázquez, F. J. (2022). Does hotel management matter to overcoming the COVID-19 crisis? The Spanish case. *Tourism Management*, 88. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.TOURMAN.2021.104395>
- Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural equation modeling: a multidisciplinary journal*, 6(1), 1-55.
- İkiz, A. S. (2021). General framework of Turkish tourism: Tourism and Travel competitiveness Index and Turkey. *Tourism in Turkey: A comprehensive overview and analysis for sustainable alternative tourism*, 1-16.
- İlgaz, B., Dündar, Y., Silik, C. E., & Atalay Oral, M. (2021). The impact of the COVID-19 outbreak on local tourist behavior in Antalya, Turkey. *Scientific Papers Series Management, Economic Engineering in Agriculture and Rural Development*, 21(1), 391–404.

- Inkinen, S., Williams, V., & Hoque, W. M. (2021). Effect of Contingency Planning on Survival of the Hotels in California, USA amid COVID 19 pandemic. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 4(2). <https://stratfordjournals.org/journals/index.php/Journal-of-Hospitality/article/view/848/996>
- Israeli, A., Kırlar Can, B., Ertaş, M., Sel, Z. G., & Tütüncü, Ö. (2018). *Hospitality crisis management in Turkey: a comparative approach*. Tourism Today 2018 Issue
- Ivanov, S., Gavrilina, M., Webster, C., & Ralko, V. (2016). Impacts of political instability on the tourism industry in Ukraine. 9(1), 100–127. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19407963.2016.1209677>,
- Jafari, K., Saydam, M. B., Erkanlı, E., & Olorunsola, V. O. (2020). The impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on the consumer behavior of Turkish tourists.-. *Revista Turismo Estudos e Práticas*, 5, 1–17.
- Jiang, Y., Ritchie, B. W., & Verreynne, M. L. (2019). Building tourism organizational resilience to crises and disasters: A dynamic capabilities view. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 21(6), 882–900. <https://doi.org/10.1002/JTR.2312>
- Johannesson, P., & Perjons, E. (2014). Research strategies and methods. In *An Introduction to Design Science* (pp.39–73). Cham, UK: Springer.
- Karadağ, L. (2021). Alternative Types of Tourism that Can Be Applied for Sustainable Tourism in Turkey. In *Tourism in Turkey* (pp. 45–59). Apple Academic Press.
- Karaman, A., & Sayın, K. (2021). Hotel Practices During the Covid-19 Pandemic: the Case of Turkey. *Socio-Economic Analyses*, 13. <https://doi.org/10.54664/NLSH6920>
- Kelloway, E. K. (1995). Structural equation modelling in perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 16(3), 215-224.
- Kılıç, S. (2016). Cronbach'ın alfa güvenirlik katsayısı. *Journal of Mood Disorders*, 6(1), 47-48.

- Kim, S. S., Chun, H., & Lee, H. (2005). The effects of SARS on the Korean hotel industry and measures to overcome the crisis: A case study of six Korean five-star hotels. *Asia Pacific journal of tourism research*, 10(4), 369-377.
- Klein, V. B., & Todesco, J. L. (2021). COVID-19 crisis and SMEs responses: The role of digital transformation. *Knowledge and Process Management*, 28(2), 117-133. <https://doi.org/10.1002/kpm.1660>
- Koçak, E., Dogru, T., Shehzad, K., & Bulut, U. (2023). The economic implications of the COVID-19 outbreak on tourism industry: Empirical evidence from Turkey. *Tourism Economics*, 29(3), 742-758. <https://doi.org/10.1177/13548166211067188/FORMAT/EPUB>
- Köşker, H., & Kurtulay, Z. (2021). The Importance of Local Products Related to Tourism: An Analysis of Turkey's Geographic Indicator Map of Local Attractions. In *Tourism in Turkey* (pp. 79–101). Apple Academic Press.
- Kostoff, R. N. (2011). Literature-related discovery: Potential treatments and preventatives for SARS. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 78(7), 1164–1173. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.TECHFORE.2011.03.022>
- Küçükaltan, D., Aydın Tükeltürk, Ş., & Çiftçi, G. (2015). Otel İşletmelerinde Kriz Yönetimi, Detay Yayıncılık, Ankara
- Kuo, H. I., Chen, C. C., Tseng, W. C., Ju, L. F., & Huang, B. W. (2008). Assessing impacts of SARS and Avian Flu on international tourism demand to Asia. *Tourism Management*, 29(5), 917–928. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.TOURMAN.2007.10.006>
- La Rosa, F., & Bernini, F. (2018). Corporate governance and performance of Italian gambling SMEs during recession. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 30(3), 1939–1958. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-03-2017-0135/FULL/XML>
- Lai, I. K. W., & Wong, J. W. C. (2020). Comparing crisis management practices in the hotel industry between initial and pandemic stages of COVID-19. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 32(10), 3135–3156. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-04-2020-0325/FULL/PDF>

- Lau, H., Khosrawipour, V., Kocbach, P., Mikolajczyk, A., Ichii, H., Schubert, J., Bania, J., & Khosrawipour, T. (2020). Internationally lost COVID-19 cases. *Journal of Microbiology, Immunology and Infection*, 53(3), 454–458.
- Levine, T. R. (2005). Confirmatory factor analysis and scale validation in communication research. *Communication Research Reports*, 22(4), 335-338.
- Li, B., Zhang, T., Hua, N., & Wang, Y. (2021). A dynamic model of crisis management from a stakeholder perspective: the case of COVID-19 in China. *Tourism Review*, 76(4), 764–787. <https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-09-2020-0413/FULL/PDF>
- Li, H., Dong, K., Jiang, H., Sun, R., Guo, X., & Fan, Y. (2017). Risk Assessment of China's Overseas Oil Refining Investment Using a Fuzzy-Grey Comprehensive Evaluation Method. *Sustainability* 2017, Vol. 9, Page 696, 9(5), 696. <https://doi.org/10.3390/SU9050696>
- Liew, V. K.-S. (2020). The effect of novel coronavirus pandemic on tourism share prices. *Journal of Tourism Futures*.
- Lock, S. (2020). *Predicted loss in business travel spending revenue due to COVID-19 pandemic 2020*. www.statista.com/statistics/1103930/coronavirus-business-travel-revenue-loss/
- MacCallum, R. C., Browne, M. W., & Sugawara, H. M. (1996). Power analysis and determination of sample size for covariance structure modeling. *Psychological methods*, 1(2), 130-149.
- McAleer, M., Huang, B.-W., Kuo, H.-I., Chen, C.-C., & Chang, C.-L. (2010). An econometric analysis of SARS and Avian Flu on international tourist arrivals to Asia. *Environmental Modelling & Software*, 25(1), 100–106.
- Mak, A. H. N., Lumbers, M., & Eves, A. (2012). Globalisation and food consumption in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(1), 171–196.
- Malhotra, N., & Birks, D. F. (2007). An applied approach. *Marketing research*. London: Prentice Hall.
- Malhotra, R., & Venkatesh, U. (2009). Pre-crisis period planning: Lessons for hospitality and tourism. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 1(1), 66–74.

- Malhotra, N. K., & Dash, S. (2011). *Marketing research: An applied orientation* (6th ed.). New Delhi: Dorling Kindersley Pvt. Ltd.
<https://doi.org/10.1108/17554210910949896/FULL/XML>
- Mao, C.-K., Ding, C. G., & Lee, H.-Y. (2010). *Post-SARS tourist arrival recovery patterns: An analysis based on a catastrophe theory*. *Tourism Management*, 31(6), 855–861. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2009.09.003>
- Martin-Fuentes, E. (2016). Are guests of the same opinion as the hotel star-rate classification system? *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 29, 126-134.
- Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review*, 50, 370–396. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0054346>
- Medsker, G. J., Williams, L. J., & Holahan, P. J. (1994). A review of current practices for evaluating causal models in organizational behavior and human resources management research. *Journal of management*, 20(2), 439-464.
- Miles, J. (2014). Tolerance and variance inflation factor. Wiley statsref: statistics reference online.
- Minazzi, R. (2010). Hotel classification systems: a comparison of international case studies. *Acta Universitatis Danubius. Œconomica*, 6(4), 64-86.
- Ministry of Culture and Tourism (2021) <https://yigm.ktb.gov.tr/TR-201131/tesis-istatistikleri.html>, Retrieved on 03 June 2022
- Ministry of Culture and Tourism (2022) <https://yigm.ktb.gov.tr/TR-310544/2022.html> Retrieved on 03 March 2022
- Monterrubio, J. C. (2010). Short-term economic impacts of influenza A (H1N1) and government reaction on the Mexican tourism industry: An analysis of the media. *International Journal of Tourism Policy*, 3(1), 1–15.
<https://doi.org/10.1504/IJTP.2010.031599>
- Morgan, G., & Smircich, L. (1980). The case for qualitative research. *Academy of Management Review*, 5(4), 491–500.

- Mordor Intelligence (2023). Hospitality industry in Turkey- Growth, Trends, Covid-19 Impact, and Forecasts (2023-2028). <https://www.mordorintelligence.com/industry-reports/hospitality-industry-in-turkey>
- Muralidharan, S., Dillistone, K., & Shin, J. H. (2011). The Gulf Coast oil spill: Extending the theory of image restoration discourse to the realm of social media and beyond petroleum. *Public Relations Review*, 37(3), 226–232.
- Murphy, P. (1996). Chaos theory as a model for managing issues and crises. *Public Relations Review*, 22, 95–113.
- Nadaf, F. M. (2020). *Coastal Tourism & its Impact on Goan Environment*. IX, 4881–4896.
- Nian, S., Chen, X., Li, D., , Wu, K., Yang, L., Zhang, H., Zhang, J., & Zhang, J. (2019). Two sides of a coin: a crisis response perspective on tourist community participation in a post-disaster environment. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 16(12), 1–19.
- Novelli, M., Gussing Burgess, L., Jones, A., & Ritchie, B. W. (2018). ‘No Ebola...still doomed’ – The Ebola-induced tourism crisis. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 70, 76–87. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.ANNALS.2018.03.006>
- Nussbaumer-Streit, B., Mayr, V., Dobrescu, A. I., Chapman, A., Persad, E., Klerings, I., ... & Gartlehner, G. (2020). Quarantine alone or in combination with other public health measures to control COVID- 19: a rapid review. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*, (9) <https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD013574.pub2>
- Okumus, F., Avci, U., Kilic, I., & Walls, A. R. (2012). Cultural tourism in Turkey: A missed opportunity. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing \& Management*, 21(6),
- Öztürk, Y., & Yazıcıoğlu, İ. (2002). Gelişmekte olan ülkeler için alternatif turizm faaliyetleri üzerine teorik bir çalışma. *Ticaret ve Turizm Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 2(10), 183-195.
- Özdemir, M. A., & Yildiz, L. D. S. (2020). How Covid-19 outbreak affects tourists’ travel intentions? A case study in Turkey. *Social mentality and researcher thinkers journal*, 6(32), 1101-1113.

- Page, S., Song, H., & Wu, D. C. (2012). Assessing the impacts of the global economic crisis and swine flu on inbound tourism demand in the United Kingdom. *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(2), 142–153. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287511400754>
- Pal, R., Torstensson, H., & Mattila, H. (2014). Antecedents of organizational resilience in economic crises—an empirical study of Swedish textile and clothing SMEs. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 147(PART B), 410–428. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.IJPE.2013.02.031>
- Pauchant, T. ., & Mitroff, I. I. (1990). Crisis management: Managing paradox in a chaotic world – the case of Bhopal. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 38, 99–114.
- Pavlatos, O., Kostakis, H., & Digkas, D. (2020). Crisis management in the Greek hotel industry in response to COVID-19 pandemic. 32(1), 80–92. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13032917.2020.1850485>
- Pekerşen, Y., Kanca, B., & Sezen, T. (2022). Consumer expectations about the service qualification of restaurants during the coronavirus (covid-19) pandemic: A research in konya. *Journal of Gastronomy Hospitality and Travel*, 5(2), 607–619.
- Pergel, R., On, E., Romania, E., Alexandros, S. A., & Psychogios, G. (2013). Making Sense of Crisis: Cognitive Barriers of Learning in Critical Situations. *Management Dynamics in the Knowledge Economy*, 1(2), 179–179. <https://www.managementdynamics.ro/index.php/journal/article/view/20>
- Philipsen, N. J., Wang, L., & Wang, X. (2017). Network structure of scientific collaborations between China and the EU member states. *Scientometrics*, 116(2), 139–143. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110410520034/FULL/XML>
- Pine, R., & McKercher, B. (2004). The impact of SARS on Hong Kong's tourism industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 16(2), 139–143. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110410520034/FULL/XML>

- Polat, İ., Erdoğan, D., & Sesliokuyucu, O. S. (2021). The Impact of Attitude and Subjective Norm on Airline Passengers' Travel Intention in the Covid-19 Era: Mediating Role of Perceived Risk. *Anais Brasileiros de Estudos Turísticos*, 11. <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5770983>
- Prayag, G. (2020). Time for Reset? Covid-19 and Tourism Resilience. *Tourism Review International*, 24(2–3), 179–184. <https://doi.org/10.3727/154427220X15926147793595>
- Prayag, G., Spector, S., Orchiston, C., & Chowdhury, M. (2019). Psychological resilience, organizational resilience and life satisfaction in tourism firms: insights from the Canterbury earthquakes. *https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2019.1607832*, 23(10), 1216–1233. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2019.1607832>
- Prideaux, B., Laws, E., & Faulkner, B. (2003). Events in Indonesia: Exploring the limits to formal tourism trends forecasting methods in complex crisis situations. *Tourism Management*, 24, 475–487.
- Recommendations on International Travel and Tourism. (1963). *Recommendations on International Travel and Tourism*, 1–23.
- Report Linker (2023). Hotels and Motels in Turkey - Market Summary, Competitive Analysis and Forecast to 2025. <https://www.reportlinker.com/p06196175/Hotels-and-Motels-in-Turkey-Market-Summary-Competitive-Analysis-and-Forecast-to.html>
- Ritchie, B. W., Bentley, G., Krouth, T., & Wang, J. (2011). Proactive crisis planning: lessons for the accommodation industry. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 11(3), 367–386.
- Roberts, E. S. (1999). In defence of the survey method: An illustration from a study of user information satisfaction. *Accounting & Finance*, 39(1), 53–77.
- Robina-Ramírez, R., Medina-Merodio, J. A., & Estriegana, R. (2022). What do urban and rural hotel managers say about the future of hotels after COVID-19? The new meaning of safety experiences. *Cities*, 120(103492).

- Rodríguez-Antón, J. M., & Alonso-Almeida, M. D. M. (2020). COVID-19 Impacts and Recovery Strategies: The Case of the Hospitality Industry in Spain. *Sustainability* 2020, Vol. 12, Page 8599, 12(20), 8599. <https://doi.org/10.3390/SU12208599>
- Rosselló, J., Santana-Gallego, M., & Awan, W. (2017). Infectious disease risk and international tourism demand. *Health Policy and Planning*, 32(4), 538–548. <https://doi.org/10.1093/HEAPOL/CZW177>
- Sahin, G. G. (2017). Gastronomy Tourism Potential of Turkey: An Assessment on The Turkish Articles with the Subject of “Gastronomy.”, 3. Izmir International Gastronomic Tourism Congress, *Main sponsor*, 156.
- Sahin, T. (2020). *Turkish Airlines extends flight suspension to China*. <https://www.aa.com.tr/en/economy/turkish-airlines-extends-flight-suspension-to-china/1722904>
- Sarma, K. V. S., & Vardhan, R. V. (2018). Multivariate statistics made simple: a practical approach. Chapman and Hall/CRC.
- Sass, E. (2020). The impact of eastern Ukrainian armed conflict on tourism in Ukraine. *Geo Journal of Tourism and Geosites*, 30, 880–888.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2019). *Research methods for business students* (5th ed.). Harlow: Prentice Hall.
- Seaktheng, C. (2015). Role of Innovation on survival of Retail Supermarket in the United Kingdom: A Study of Four Big Retailers., *International Journal of Finance and Management*, 7(2), 69–81.
- Seeger, M. (2002). Chaos and crisis: Propositions for a general theory of crisis communication. *Public Relations Review*, 28(4), 329–337.
- Senbeto, D. L., & Hon, A. H. (2020). Market turbulence and service innovation in hospitality: examining the underlying mechanisms of employee and organizational resilience. *The Service Industries Journal*, 40(15–16), 1119–1139.
- Şencan, I., & Kuzi, S. (2020). Global threat of COVID 19 and evacuation of the citizens of different countries. *Turkish Journal of Medical Sciences*, 50(9), 534–543.

- Şenvar, O., & Çağın, N. G. (2022). Examination of Airlines and Airports in COVID-19 Pandemic: A Comparative Study of Turkey with European and Global Aviation. *Turizm Akademik Dergisi*, 9(2), 323–340.
- Sexton, M. (2003). A supple approach to exposing and challenging assumptions and path dependencies in research. *Keynote speech of the 3rd International Postgraduate Research Conference*, Lisbon, April 2003.
- Shi, W., & Li, K. X. (2017). Impact of unexpected events on inbound tourism demand modeling: evidence of Middle East Respiratory Syndrome outbreak in South Korea. *Asia Pacific journal of tourism research*, 22(3), 344-356.
- Shukla, B., Sufi, T., Joshi, M., & Sujatha, R. (2022). Leadership challenges for Indian hospitality industry during COVID-19 pandemic. . *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights*.
- Sifolo, N., & Sifolo, P. P. S. (2015). The tourism inconvenience of the Ebola epidemic: lessons for the South African tourism sector. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 4(1), 1–11.
- Sigala, M. (2020). Tcovid. *Journal of Business Research*, 117, 312–321. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.JBUSRES.2020.06.015>
- Shvets I.Yu. (2021). *Implementation of strategies to counteract the consequences of the pandemic in the tourism sector*. *Turkish Journal of Computer and Mathematics Education (TURCOMAT)*, 12(4), 1667–1675. <https://doi.org/10.17762/TURCOMAT.V12I4.1421>
- Sims, R. (2009). Food, place and authenticity: local food and the sustainable tourism experience. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(3), 321–336.
- Škare, M., Soriano, D. R., & Porada-Rochoń, M. (2021). Impact of COVID-19 on the travel and tourism industry. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 163, 120469. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.TECHFORE.2020.120469>
- Song, H., & Lin, S. (2010). Impacts of the financial and economic crisis on tourism in Asia. *Journal of Travel Research*, 49(1), 16–30.
- Soofi, M., Najafi, F., & Karami-Matin, B. (2020). Using insights from behavioral economics to mitigate the spread of COVID-19. *Applied Health Economics and Health Policy*, 18(3), 345–350.

- Speakman, M., & Sharpley, R. (2012). A chaos theory perspective on destination crisis management: Evidence from Mexico. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 1(1–2), 67–77.
- TGA (2020), About Safe Tourism Certification Program, <https://www.tga.gov.tr/about-safe-tourism-program/> Retrieved on 25 June 2021.
- TGA (2022) <https://tga.gov.tr/search-hotel-category-en/> Retrieved on 27 October 2022.
- Tsai, C. H., Linliu, S. C., Chang, R. C. Y., & Mak, A. H. N. (2020). Disaster prevention management in the hotel industry: Hotel disaster prevention literacy. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 45, 444–455. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.JHTM.2020.09.008>
- Tufan, Z. K., & Kayaaslan, B. (2020). Crushing the curve, the role of national and international institutions and policy makers in COVID-19 pandemic. *Turkish Journal of Medical Sciences*, 50(9), 495–508.
- TUIK (2021) Turizm İstatistikleri, IV.Çeyrek: Ekim-Aralık ve Yıllık, 2021 Retrieved on 03 February 2022. <https://data.tuik.gov.tr/Bulten/Index?p=Turizm-Istatistikleri-IV.Ceyrek:-Ekim-Aralik-ve-Yillik,-2021-45785#:~:text=Turizm%20geliri%202021%20y%C4%B1l%C4%B1nda%20bir,ise%20paket%20tur%20harcamalar%C4%B1%20olu%C5%9Fturdu.>
- TUIK (2022) Turizm İstatistikleri, IV.Çeyrek: Ekim-Aralık ve Yıllık, 2022. <https://data.tuik.gov.tr/Bulten/Index?p=Turizm-Istatistikleri-IV.Ceyrek:-Ekim-Aralik-ve-Yillik,-2022-49606#:~:text=Turizm%20geliri%202022%20y%C4%B1l%C4%B1nda%20bir,ise%20paket%20tur%20harcamalar%C4%B1%20olu%C5%9Fturdu.> Retrieved on 03 February 2023.
- Turizm Günlüğü (2020) Türkiye’de hükümet Covid-19 sürecinde turizme yeterli desteği verdi mi? <https://www.turizmgunlugu.com/2020/10/16/Türkiye-covid19-turizm-destekleri/>
- Turkstat. (2020). *Turkish Statistical Institute quarterly gross domestic product quarter IV: October-December, 2019.*

- Uğur, N. G., & Akbıyık, A. (2020). Impacts of COVID-19 on global tourism industry: A cross-regional comparison. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 36, 100744.
- Ugurlu, K., Akay, B., & Demirel, S. (2022). The effect of COVID-19 on operating costs: the perspective of hotel managers in Antalya, Turkey. *Tourism & Management Studies*, 18(1), 17–27.
- UNWTO (2019) International Tourism Highlights 2019 Edition, Retrieved from <https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284421152>
- UNWTO. (2020a). *Impact assessment of the COVID-19 outbreak on international tourism*. World Tourism Organization. Retrieved from <https://www.unwto.org/news/2020-worst-year-in-tourism-history-with-1-billion-fewer-international-arrivals>
- UNWTO (2020b), *Supporting jobs and economies through travel & tourism*. Retrieved from <https://www.unwto.org/recommendations-for-recovery-covid-19>
- UNWTO (2020c), World Tourism Barometer, Volume: 18, Issue: 3, June 2020 <https://www.eunwto.org/doi/epdf/10.18111/wtobarometereng.2020.18.1.3?role=tab>
- UNWTO (2021) *Tourist arrivals down 87% in January 2021 as UNWTO calls for stronger coordination to restart tourism*. Retrieved from <https://www.unwto.org/news/tourist-arrivals-down-87-in-january-2021-as-unwto-calls-for-stronger-coordination-to-restart-tourism>
- WTTC (2020) Latest research from WTTC shows a 50% increase in jobs at risk in Travel & Tourism, Retrieved from <https://wttc.org/news-article/latest-research-from-wttc-shows-a-50-percentage-increase-in-jobs-at-risk-in-travel-and-tourism>
- WTTC (2022), 2022 Annual Research: Key Highlights, Retrieved from https://wttc.org/DesktopModules/MVC/FactSheets/pdf/704/224_20220613171453_Turkey2022_.pdf
- WTTC (2023), Turkey's Travel & Tourism sector to grow at twice the rate of the national economy. Retrieved from <https://wttc.org/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=jhzs8iUBXqg%3d&portalid=0>

- Ursache, M. (2015). Tourism--significant driver shaping a destinations heritage. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 188, 130–137.
- Wang, J., & Wu, X. (2018). Top-down or outside-in? Culturally diverse approaches to hotel crisis planning. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 36, 76–84. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.JHTM.2018.08.002>
- Wendt, J. (2020). *New tourism in XXI century – new definition*.
- Weiner, B. (1985). An attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion. *Psychological Review*, 92(4), 548.
- Weiner, B. (1986). In the Atkinson tradition: The motivational function of emotion. In *In Frontiers of motivational psychology* (pp. 26–39). Springer,.
- Woiceshyn, J., & Daellenbach, U. (2018). Evaluating inductive vs. deductive research in management studies: Implications for authors, editors, and reviewers. *Qualitative Research in Organisations and Management: An International Journal*, 13(2), 183–195.
- World Bank (2023), Country Overview, Retrieved from <https://www.worldbank.org/en/country/turkey/overview>
- World Health Organization, W. (2019). *WHO MERS global summary and assessment of risk*. (No. WHO/MERS/RA/19.1). World Health Organization.
- WTTC (2020) *SafeTravels: Global Protocols & Stamp for the New Normal* | World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC). (n.d.). Retrieved October 28, 2022, from <https://wttc.org/initiatives/safetravels-global-protocols-stamp>
- Yang, Y., Zhang, H., & Chen, X. (2020). Coronavirus pandemic and tourism: dynamic stochastic general equilibrium modelling of infectious disease outbreak. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 83, 102913. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.ANNALS.2020.102913>
- Yost, E., Kizildag, M., & Ridderstaat, J. (2021). Financial recovery strategies for restaurants during COVID-19: Evidence from the US restaurant industry. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 47, 408-412. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.JHTM.2021.04.012>

- Zakirai, N., Isa, Z. N. Z. A. M., Emran, E. S., Azmi, N. S., & Azan, N. A. M. (2022). A review of the event industry's impact and crisis management analysis during Covid-19. *International Journal of Accounting*, 7(42).
- Zeng, B., Carter, R. W., & De Lacy, T. (2008). Short-term perturbations and tourism effects: The case of SARS in China. 8(4), 306–322. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500508668220>
- Zenker, S., & Kock, F. (2020). The Coronavirus Pandemic--A critical discussion of a tourism research agenda. *Tourism Management*, 81, 104164.
- Zheng, D., Luo, Q., & Ritchie, B. W. (2021). Afraid to travel after COVID-19? Self-protection, coping and resilience against pandemic 'travel fear.' *Tourism Management*, 83, 104261. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2020.104261>
- Zhu, Z., Gao, X., & Chen, R. (2022). Impact of Covid-19 on Tourism Industry. *Proceedings of the 2021 3rd International Conference on Economic Management and Cultural Industry (ICEMCI 2021)*, 203(April), 12–15. <https://doi.org/10.2991/assehr.k.211209.419>
- Zorlu, K., Tuncer, M., & Taşkın, G. A. (2022). The effect of covid-19 on tourists' attitudes and travel intentions: An empirical study on camping/glamping tourism in Turkey during COVID-19. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights*, 6(2), 947-965. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JHTI-02-2022-0069>
- Žukauskas, P., Vveinhardt, J., & Andriukaitienė, R. (2018). Philosophy and paradigm of scientific research. *Management Culture and Corporate Social Responsibility*, 121, Intech Open. <https://doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.70628>.



APPENDIX

The Scale Used in the Study

Sayın Yetkili,

Bu çalışma kapsamında Ukrayna-Rusya savaşı, COVID-19 salgını ve diğer krizler sebebiyle Turizm sektöründe ve turist talebinde meydana gelen değişimler ile bu süreçte otel sektörünün nasıl yönetildiği, kriz öncesi ve kriz esnasında alınan tedbirler ve kriz sonrası turizm sektöründe ortaya çıkan değişimlere otellerin nasıl uyum sağlayacağı konusu araştırılmaktadır. Ankette yer alan sorular genel olarak yönetim süreci ile ilgili olduğundan, anketin yöneticilerinden biri tarafından doldurulması, çalışmanın amacına ulaşmasında büyük fayda sağlayacaktır.

Cevaplarınız sadece "akademik amaçlı" olarak kullanılacaktır. Araştırmanın amaçları doğrultusunda, oteller tarafından verilen cevaplar anonim olarak değerlendirilecek ve herhangi bir otelle ilgili bilgi yer almayacaktır. Anketin bulguları, araştırmaya katılan tüm otellerin ortak eğilimlerini ve özelliklerini belirlemek için kullanılacaktır.

Yardımlarınız için şimdiden çok teşekkür ederim.

Saygılarımla,

Ahmet ÇANGA

1- GENEL BİLGİLER

1. Otelinizin İsmi ve Bulunduğu İl
2. Anketi cevaplayan kişinin ismi (Bu soruya cevap vermeyebilirsiniz)
3. Anketi dolduran kişinin firma içindeki pozisyonu?
 - ☐ Sahip
 - ☐ Ortak
 - ☐ Yönetici
 - ☐ Diğer
4. Oteliniz ne zaman kuruldu?
5. Otelinizin ya da bağlı bulunduğu grubun faaliyetleri neleri kapsamaktadır?
 - ☐ Otelin ya da grubunun faaliyet alanı sadece otelciliktir.
 - ☐ Otelin içinde bulunduğu grup turizmle ilgili diğer sektörlerde de faaliyet göstermektedir (Hizmet sektörü, Seyahat Acenteliği, diğer turizm işleri vb.)
 - ☐ Otelin içinde bulunduğu grup turizm dışında diğer sektörlerde de faaliyet göstermektedir. (Sanayi ürünleri, inşaat sektörü, bilgi işlem teknolojileri vb.)
6. Otelinizin hukuki statüsü nedir?
 - ☐ Anonim Şirket
 - ☐ Limited Şirket
 - ☐ Grup Oteli
 - ☐ Şahıs Şirketi
7. Otelinizde kaç personel çalışmaktadır?
 - ☐ 1-10
 - ☐ 11-49
 - ☐ 50-150
 - ☐ >150
8. Otelinizde kaç oda vardır?
 - ☐ 1-30
 - ☐ 31-99
 - ☐ 100-250
 - ☐ >250

1. KRİZ YÖNETİMİ ÖLÇEĞİ

Lütfen aşağıdaki soruları, Ukrayna -Rusya savaşı ve Covid-19 salgını da dahil olmak üzere karşılaştığınız krizleri göz önünde bulundurarak aşağıdaki skalaya göre cevaplayınız.		Hiç	Çok Az	Az	Kısmen	Kabul edilebilir ölçüde	Büyük ölçüde	Çok Büyük Ölçüde
ÇEVRESEL TARAMA ÖLÇEĞİ	İşletmeniz dâhilinde krize neden olabilecek potansiyel tehlike ve risklere (kaza, yangın, çatışma, grev, geri dönüşü yüksek maliyetli yanlış veya hatalı üretim/tasarım vb.) karşı ne ölçüde önlemler alınırdı?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Rakip ve olası rakiplerin faaliyetleri ne ölçüde takip ve analiz edilirdi?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Önceden yaşanan krizlerden elde edilen tecrübeler ışığında, gerekli önlemler ne ölçüde alınır ve uygulanırdı?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Faaliyet gösterilen pazarda sektörel, siyasi, ekonomik gelişmeler ne ölçüde takip edilir, pazara olabilecek olası etkileri analiz edilirdi?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Faaliyet gösterilen pazarda talep ve tercihlerdeki değişimler ne ölçüde önceden araştırılıp gerekli aksiyonlar alınırdı?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Üretim, satış, bakım/onarım, kaynak kullanımı, insan kaynakları vb. gibi raporlar ne ölçüde	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	hazırlanır, incelenir ve gerekli aksiyonlar alınır mı?							
	Ne ölçüde üretim/hizmet dahil tüm faaliyetlerle ilgili gelişmeler takip edilir işletmenize uyarlanırdı?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Ne ölçüde iç iletişime, çalışan ve paydaşlarla bilgi paylaşımına önem verilirdi?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
HAZIRLIK VE PLANLAMA ÖLÇEĞİ	Yaşanan krizin boyutları ve olası etkilerinin tespiti için ne ölçüde çalışmalar yapıldı?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Krizden çıkış için yapılması gerekenlerle ilgili takımlar oluşturuldu mu? ve gerekli çalışmaları yapmaları ne ölçüde sağlandı?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Krizin boyutları, etkileri ve krizi aşmak için uygulanacak eylem planı çalışanlar ve paydaşlarla ne derece doğru bir şekilde paylaşıldı?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ÜRETİM SATIŞ VE PAZARLAMA ÖLÇEĞİ	Krizin etkilerini azaltmak için çok aktif bir satış ve pazarlama stratejisi ne ölçüde izlendi?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Yeni mal/hizmet arzına yönelik pazarlama faaliyetlerine ne ölçüde ağırlık verildi?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Ne ölçüde (ihracat dâhil) daha istikrarlı yeni pazarların arayışına gidildi?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Üretim/hizmet ve operasyon maliyetlerini azaltmak ve verimliliği arttırmak için ekipmanlara-teknolojiye ne ölçüde yatırımlar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	yapıldı?							
	Rekabetçi konumun sürdürülebilmesi için AR-GE ve ÜR-GE faaliyetlerine ne ölçüde ağırlık verildi?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
TASARRUF TEDBİRLERİ ÖLÇEĞİ	Çalışanlar ne ölçüde ücretsiz izne çıkartıldı veya sayısı azaltıldı?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	İşletme bütçesinin her kaleminde ne ölçüde kesinti yapıldı?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Kritik stok seviyeleri azaltılarak ve sadece günlük mal/hizmet üretiminin gerektirdiği oranda hammadde/ara mamul bulundurulmasına ne ölçüde özen gösterildi?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
FİNANSAL TEDBİRLER ÖLÇEĞİ	Finans kuruluşları ve tüm alacaklılarla borçların yeniden yapılandırılması konusunda ne derece pazarlık yapıldı?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Alacakların, gerekirse bazı indirimler yapılarak erken tahsilatına ne ölçüde ağırlık verildi?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		Çok Başarısızdılar	Oldukça Başarısızdılar	Başarısızdılar	Kısmen Başarılıydılar	Başarılıydılar	Oldukça Başarılıydılar	Mükemmeldiler
Yöneticilerinizin krizi öngörmeye, kriz süreci ve sonrasındaki yönetim ve uygulamalarındaki başarısını nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?								
KRİZ YÖNETİMİNİN	Bu krizi öngörmeye yönetimin başarısı	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Krize zamanında müdahalede yönetimin başarısı	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ALGILANAN BAŞARISI ÖLÇEĞİ	Kriz süresince yönetimin olaylara yaklaşımı ve ele alış şekli	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Kriz süresince yönetimin sorunlara farklı çözümler üretmedeki başarısı	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Kriz sonrasında yönetimin, normalleşme sürecinde olaylara yaklaşımı ve ele alış şekli	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		Hiç	Çok Az	Az	Kısmen	Ortalama ölçüde	Büyük ölçüde	Çok Büyük ölçüde
	Kriz başında ve süresince yönetimin aldığı kararlar ne derece yerinde ve çözüme yönelikti?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Aşağıda verilmiş ifadelerin, yukarıda belirtilen kriz yönetimi sürecine etkilerini, her bir ifadenin altındaki skalayı kullanarak değerlendiriniz.		Hiç Etkisi Olmadı	Çok az etkisi oldu	Az etkisi oldu	Kısmen etkili oldu	Etkili oldu	Oldukça etkisi oldu	Çok Yüksek Etkisi Oldu
KRİZ YÖNETİMİNİN BAŞARISINA ETKİ EDEN UYGULAMALAR ÖLÇEĞİ	Kriz ilk ortaya çıktığında yapılmış olan hazırlık toplantıları ve eylem planlarının etkisi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Satış ve pazarlama konusunda alınan önlem ve aksiyonların etkisi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Mal/Hizmet, üretim faaliyetlerinde alınan önlem ve aksiyonların etkisi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	İnsan Kaynakları konusunda alınan önlem ve aksiyonların etkisi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Finans konusunda alınan önlem ve aksiyonların etkisi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Çalışanlar ve paydaşlarla iletişimin etkisi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Sektörel, siyasal ve ekonomik gelişmelerin analiz edilmesi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Lütfen yukarıda belirttiğiniz kriz sonrası değerlendirerek aşağıdaki soruları cevaplayınız		Krizin olduğu pazardan çıktık	Çok azaldı	Kısmen azaldı	Etkilenmedi	Biraz arttı	Oldukça arttı	Pazarın üst sıralarına yükseldik
KRİZİN YANSIMALARI ÖLÇEĞİ	Kriz pazar payınızı nasıl etkiledi?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		Çok kötü etkilendi	Kötü etkilendi	Kısmen kötü etkilendi	Değişmedi	Kısmen arttı	Arttı	Çok arttı
	Kriz işletmenizin müşteriler ve tedarikçiler nezdinde itibarını nasıl etkiledi?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		Tasfiye oldu/İş değişti	Çok küçüldü	Nispeten küçüldü	Ne küçüldü ne büyüdü	Biraz büyüdü	Normal büyümesine	Çok büyüdü
	Kriz işletmemizin büyüklüğünü nasıl etkiledi?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Kriz, aşağıda belirtilen hususlarda ne ölçüde değişikliğe neden oldu?		Çok kötü yönde değişti	Oldukça kötü yönde değişti	Kötü yönde değişti	Değişmedi	İyi yönde değişti	Oldukça iyi yönde değişti	Çok iyi yönde değişti
KRİZDEN ÖĞRENİLENLERİN UYARLANMASI ÖLÇEĞİ	İşletmenizde uygulanan insan kaynakları dâhil tüm idari/yönetmel süreçler	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	İşletmenizin uyguladığı mal/hizmet üretim süreçleri	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	İşletmenizin ürettiği mal veya hizmetler	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	İşletmenizin uyguladığı satış ve pazarlama süreçleri ve/veya satış sonrası servis süreçleri	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	İşletmenizin uyguladığı satış ve pazarlama süreçleri ve/veya satış sonrası servis süreçleri	1	2	3	4	5	6	7