Kaitano Dube
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COVID-19, Tourist Destinations and Prospects for Recovery

Volume One: A Global Perspective

Springer

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Editors

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Volume One: A Global Perspective

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Preface

Before the COVID-19 pandemic, the tourism industry was one of the fastest-growing economic sectors growing faster than the average global economic rate. Consequently, the sector contributes significantly to most global economies and is often seen as a panacea to attaining Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Given the centrality of the sector, there has been a general interest in understanding how the COVID-19 pandemic impacted the sector at the destination level. With the adoption of healthy and safety protocols and the rolling out of the COVID-19 pandemic and the resumption of the global economy, there has been a huge appetite to understand how this vital sector is fairing and recovering from the shock that it was exposed to. Tourism practitioners want to understand the state of the sector and its resilience to various shocks that have epitomised the COVID-19 recovery phase. This book provides a fresh perspective on tourism destinations, recovery and resilience. Drawing from lessons from 35 authors across the world, the book brings into sharp focus topical issues that have paved the sector's recovery, such as tourism degrowth, revenge tourism, tourism sustainability, tourism healthy and safety, tourism innovation and the capacity for the sector to adapt to the new normal.

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Part I
Introduction and Background

Chapter 1
COVID-19 and Beyond: Prospects for Reshaping Tourism

Magdalena Petronella (Nellie) Swart, Godwell Nhamo, and Kaitano Dube

Abstract This chapter sets the scene for the entire book. It presents summaries of the implications and impacts of COVID-19 on tourism destinations, the recovery of tourism's significant sectors, prospects for the future of tourism post-COVID-19 and methodologies applied in this book and the chapter outlines. It emerges that governments' restrictions and regulations caused significant disruptions across the tourism industry from consumer and business perspectives. The recovery discussions revolve around the implications of the pandemic on destinations, as the realities on tourism livelihoods become evident. Yet destination managers and industry stakeholders designed some of the most innovative and resilient strategies to revive tourism and prepare for a transformed industry across the sectors. Tourism was reshaped by technological innovations, where virtual engagements became the norm. Tourists assessed their travel behaviour, which demands tailored and unique experiences to meet their social consciousness. Going forward, the chapter highlights that tourism talent needs to adapt to these new norms as demand surges, which requires recruiting and upskilling the right staff. Besides the recovery optimism, the tourism industry was facing another critical juncture: the Ukraine-Russian war that spiralled an increase in fuel prices and compromised airline capacity due to cost.

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1.1 Introduction

In 2019, tourism was the fastest-growing and third largest export category accounting for 7% of global trade (UNWTO, 2020). In 2019 the World Economic Forum (WEF) warned that travel and tourism were at a tipping point and cautioned countries to collaborate on global health security to combat infectious disease outbreaks as they posed a threat to the sector's sustainability (WEF, 2019). Consequently, the WEF commissioned business leaders and health experts to develop an Epidemics Readiness Accelerator (ERA) to mitigate the effects of disease outbreaks and safeguard the gross domestic product (GDP) in 2019. Although nothing prepared the sector for the troubles, the COVID-19 pandemic unleashed on the sector in early 2020 brought costs across all economic sectors, with tourism amongst the hardest hit.

The COVID-19 pandemic reversed significant gains made by tourism toward attaining the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (Dube, 2020). The immediate effect of the pandemic placed nearly 90% of the world economy under some form of lockdown (UN, 2020), resulting in the closing of destination borders and restrictions on most tourism-related products and services across the value chain. Consequently, the global GDP plunged by 6.7% in 2020, with most emerging markets bearing the most significant brunt as their GDP declined by 7% (Statista Research Department, 2022). From these figures, tourism contributed an estimated 2.8% of this global decline (UNWTO, 2020). Although many governments tried to support businesses with stimulus packages (Nhamo et al., 2020b), their efforts were limited by their severe fiscal constraints, especially in developing countries and emerging economies. These stimulus packages were mainly in the form of debt relief, grants and aid to airlines and small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMMEs) (IMF, 2020).

An estimated 34 million people were pushed into extreme poverty, as the low-skilled and low-wage jobs were affected by subsequent job losses (UN, 2020), and the tourism industry was not spared from this job carnage. In 2020 the UNWTO pointed out that the pandemic placed 100 million jobs in the tourism industry at risk. This was particularly so for informal workers, women and the youth (UNWTO, 2020). There was an anticipation that tourism-dependent countries were expected to be the worst affected. It is anticipated that tourism-dependent countries (such as Seychelles and other African countries with national parks) will take longer to recover until tourists feel safe to travel in numbers again (IMF, 2020).

1.2 Implications and Impacts of COVID-19 on Tourism Destinations

The COVID-19 crisis slowed the world economy significantly and caused severe socioeconomic and environmental challenges (Kitamura et al., 2020; Josephson et al., 2021). Besides the intention of the sector to combat inequality, poverty and climate change, COVID-19 created additional challenges for the tourism industry (Jones & Comfort, 2020). Worldwide, the effect of COVID-19 was apparent in cities, islands, mountain areas, beaches and coastal and rural destinations (Bui et al., 2021). Most of the suffering experienced in the tourism industry resulted from lockdowns and travel hesitance from travellers fearing contracting the COVID-19 disease (Dube, 2022). Such travel bans and lockdown restrictions had significant implications for the cruise industry, adventure travel, wellness, conservation and second homes (Seraphin & Dosquet, 2020; Spenceley et al., 2021).

Island destinations primarily depend on tourism, and the travel restrictions exposed their fragility to the impact of COVID-19 (Bulchand-Gidumal, 2022). The limited number of tourist arrivals severely impacted the livelihoods of residents' dependence on tourism at island destinations. Concerns about the over-dependence of island destinations on tourism triggered the development of action lists to regain competitiveness as the infection rates eased (Gu et al., 2021). Consequently, in the first quarter of 2022, destinations like Mauritius reported strong tourism growth, especially from new markets such as the Middle East and Eastern Europe. This growth was also attributed to high vaccination rates, with over 90% of the population having received double vaccines (Mackenzie, 2022).

The COVID-19 pandemic also severely impacted long-haul destinations from Africa and Asia due to prolonged lockdown restrictions and travel bans (Mostafanezhad et al., 2020; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2021). Although revenge travellers capitalised on the low airfares and special accommodation packages to experience luxury tourism products, the inconsistent application and announcements of lockdown restrictions brought uncertainty to those tourists who were eager to travel (Filep et al., 2022). Shorter travel reservation lead time at premium prices became the norm, while travel insurance company policies did not cover travel cancellations due to COVID-19 restrictions. This led to new negotiations by, specifically, the hospitality industry with insurance businesses to include pandemics under the "force majeure" clause to make provision for business interruptions (Giousmpasoglou et al., 2021). In mid-2022, an appetite for travelling to long-haul destinations seems to gain recovery momentum, as international tourists made travel reservations more than 3 months in advance compared to their pre-pandemic departure dates (Anon, 2022).

1.3 Tracking the Recovery of Tourism's Major Sectors

As of 2022, major tourism sectors were counting the cost of the impact of COVID-19 and battling the challenges of recovery (González-Torres et al., 2021). One central cog that remains the main feature of tourism recovery has been a significant rollout of technology to ensure service efficiency and customer satisfaction (Parvez et al., 2022). As seen in previous disasters, this has to be seen in the sector's ability to innovate and bounce back from shocks. After the Second World War, tourism capitalised on technological advancements, especially in aviation, which boosted travel. In as much as there were concerns over how long it would take for various sectors of the economy to recover, the aviation and hospitality sectors making use of health and safety protocols have rebounded quite strongly, creating challenges for these sectors.

Figure 1.1 shows that the aviation sector experiencing some robust growth in 2022. This could have been driven by low infection figures, the rollout of COVID-19 vaccines and its success in some regions. Most importantly, the growth could have been due to the successful adoption of health and safety protocols. The aviation industry is a leader in the tourism industry in terms of adopting health and safety protocols through the rollout of contactless travel. It would seem that the aviation industry was one of the best prepared or placed to respond to the pandemic as measures adopted assured travellers of safe travel, which inspired confidence.

Evidence shows that the robust growth or pent-up demand for travel occurred at a rate not anticipated by the sector. This also caused a lot of chaos at several airports worldwide, mainly in America, where the recovery rate was at some point as high as about 95% (Fig. 1.2) in August and September. The shortage of staff and

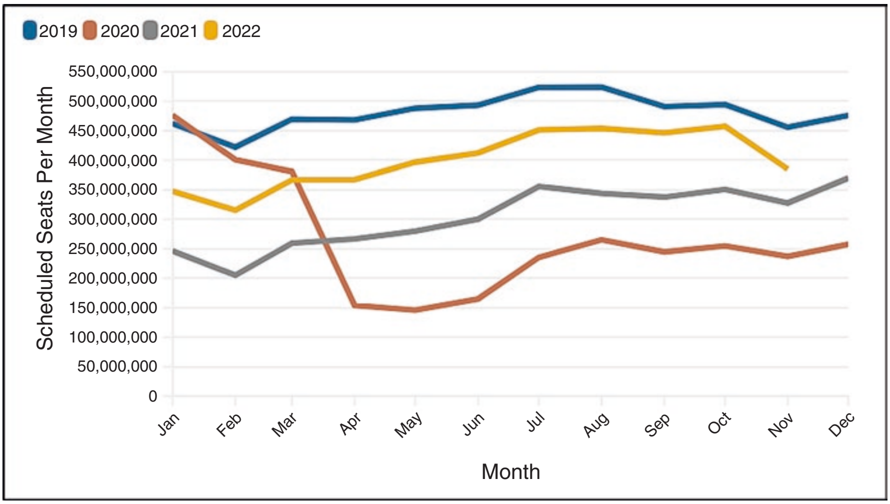

Fig. 1.1 Scheduled airline capacity – 3 months forward-looking January 2019 to November 2022. (Source: OAG, 2022)

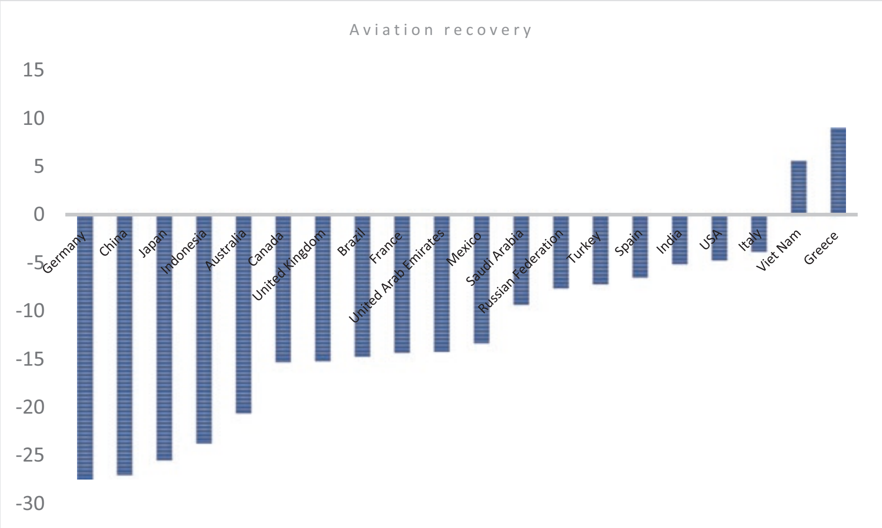

Fig. 1.2 Aviation in key aviation markets as of August 2022 compared to 2019 same period. (Source: Authors' data from OAG)

industrial action by workers are some of the challenges the sector had to tackle, which resulted in airports such as Heathrow Airport in London placing caps on the number of tourists they can process per day (Heathrow Our Company, 2022).

The recovery was varied across airlines (Fig. 1.3), some of which were not prepared for such a recovery, given that some airlines laid off staff. Several airlines battled to secure staff with the experience and technical skills needed to deal with the pent-up demand. Consequently, long queues witnessed at various airports as ground handling staff and airlines battled to deal with the upsurge in demand. This book has chapters that specifically deal with some of the challenges faced by the tourism and travel sector.

It is not only the aviation industry that had to deal with the challenges of recovery (Dube, 2023), but also the restaurants and the ride-and-share facilities had many challenges to deal with. Many restaurant chains closed some of their doors due to staff shortages, although there was a demand, which inconvenienced tourists. If it had not been the issue of high interest rates, it was inflation that the sector had to tackle that complicated the recovery process. Many ride-and-share companies, such as Lyft and Uber, had a rough start to the year. They battled to recover due to a shortage of drivers as most drivers left the industry amidst uncertainties and meagre returns from drivers that worked for these ride-and-share companies.

Consequently, several ride-and-share companies had to grapple with high fuel prices fuelled by the Russia-Ukraine war. This caused a lot of share volatility for the ride-and-share companies worsening their challenges. The war added to the uncertainties that were caused by COVID-19. In as much as tourism markets were picking up and recovering from the shock that was caused by the discovery of the

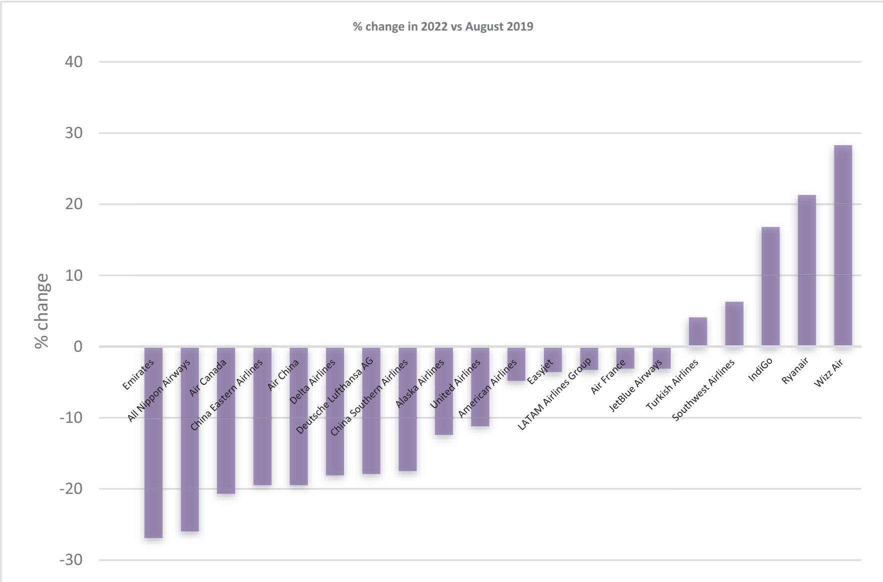

Fig. 1.3 Recovery at 20 selected airlines: a comparison of August 2019 and 2022. (Source: Authors' data from OAG (2022))

Fig. 1.4 A comparison of ride-and-share companies and other tourism companies' stock performance 2020–2022

Omicron, it is the COVID-19 pandemic and the interest hikes that threw the tourism markets into a tailspin, with some companies sinking lower than before the first global lockdown that took root in March 2020 (Fig. 1.4). As of September 2022, the market was struggling to recover from the compounded impact of inflation, global instability, high interest rates and global uncertainty.

Apart from Uber, Lyft and ABNB, cruise companies such as the Royal Caribbean (RCL) were battling to ensure stocks' recovery. The Royal Caribbean, for example, reported a net loss of \$(1.2) billion and a loss per share of \$(4.58) (Cruise Industry

News, 2022). While the demand for cruises reached 2019 levels, the sector continued to experience increased costs of health and safety, fuel costs, the Ukraine-Russia war and inflation pressure, and the closure of China due to its 0 COVID-19 cases presented challenges which could have affected the share price. In 2022, US interest rate hikes aimed at taming inflation were often associated with stock sell-off on tourism counters, adversely affecting counters such as Expedia (EXPE) and other tourism counters. Van Tuan et al. (2021) pointed out the adverse impact of inflation and interest rates on tourism enterprises. Perhaps one of the biggest challenges of the tourism industry in 2022 has been anxiety and uncertainty.

The hotel industry and restaurants' stocks performed relatively well in the main due to solid demand (Fig. 1.5). The pent-up demand worked favourably for the hospitality industry. As such, Marriot Hotel and McDonald's stocks outperformed other tourism stocks on the backdrop of a positive outlook and bookings globally serve Asia, where occupancy remained subdued as a consequence of China's persistent lockdowns every time COVID-19 infection was detected. As noted earlier, these sectors had their fair share of challenges and expectations that they had to deal with, including supply challenges and inflation pressures which caused increased costs of business operations.

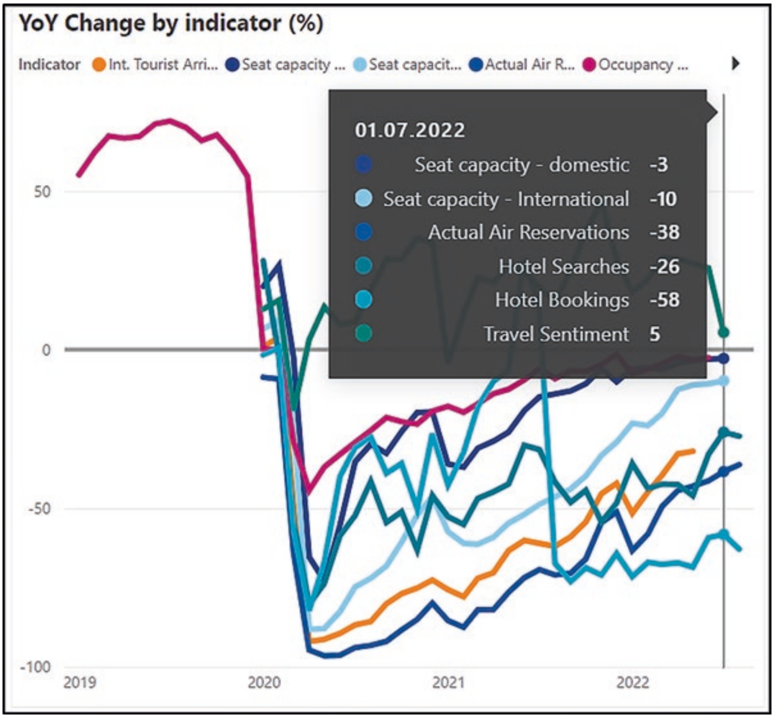

Fig. 1.5 Year-on-year tourism indicators and tourism recovery. (Source: UNWTO, 2022)

1.4 Prospects for the Future of Tourism Post-COVID-19

The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic forced the tourism industry players to introspect about several aspects of the sector. Hard questions were asked about the industry's sustainability from an environmental, social and economic perspective. Above all, the tourists want to see a more accountable sector that cares for all the role players, including the staff and host communities. Admittedly, the pandemic resulted in some of the tourism industry's successes in advancing the SDGs (Hall & Seyfi, 2020). Still, the sector fostered an advancement of some SDGs and targets advancement in a manner that no one had ever envisaged. The shift to contactless tourism is something of a marvel which saw most destinations utilising technologies to facilitate business and enhance tourists' experience. The heavy rollout and deployment of chatbots, robots, QR barcodes and other contactless transactions could not have advanced at such a rapid pace had the COVID-19 pandemic forced a new way of doing business. This revolution directly talks to advances toward SDG 9 target 5, which calls for technological innovation.

This revolution was brought about by the COVID-19 pandemic and produced new tourists who want to see and use technology. In many ways, the pandemic induced tech-savvy tourists. Future tourists expect much more interaction with technology than traditional tourists before the pandemic. This understanding is critical in tourism planning and development across the tourism sector and its subsectors. Part of the recovery thinking has to involve greater ways of ensuring destinations are equipped with relevant technology, be it at the airport, on board a flight, in a restaurant, a stadium or a hotel.

Apart from achieving efficient destinations, managers had to ensure that they also roll out technology that addresses environmental challenges, such as climate change, land pollution and water and ocean pollution. The tourist that emerges from the pandemic wants to see tourism degrowth. Adopting technology that ensures that hotels and restaurants are water-efficient is a must in a world battling the challenges of a water shortage caused by population growth and climate change. Greening of hotels and destinations is a critical marketing tool and part of a resilient building in a sector that is under siege from the impacts of climate change. The transport sector, which has been one of the biggest culprits of carbon emissions, must consider greening the industry as part of the recovery and resilience process. This might mean a more significant investment in Sustainable Aviation Fuels (SAFs) and electrification of vehicles and rollout of hybrid cars to meet the expectations of the tourist and other role players.

Destination managers and tourism business owners need to explore different avenues to bounce back from the economic, social and environmental devastation caused by COVID-19. The resurgence of domestic tourism was highlighted as a priority as destinations negotiate the revival of their tourism potential (Adinolfi et al., 2021), especially as many international travellers are still reluctant to travel. Domestic destination recovery can primarily be supported once stability is restored for consumers against idiosyncratic shocks and COVID-19 alerts are withdrawn.

Collaboration between the public and private sectors must be coordinated to design risk mitigation strategies and stimulate destination financial investment (Skare et al., 2021).

The need to transform the tourism industry across business models and social consciousness became evident during the pandemic. Destination managers have a moral responsibility to align their recovery strategies with the SDGs (Jones & Comfort, 2020). This will require re-evaluating the allocation of tourism resources to more vulnerable communities, women and the youth. New tourism opportunities can emerge in sustainable business development, innovations and digitalisation. Furthermore, new rural tourism models must be conceptualised to ignite creative innovation at rural tourist sites, especially as the accommodation recovery results show favouritism for countryside destinations. Tourism development initiatives in cities, island destinations, mountain areas, beaches and coastal and rural regions can create economic spin-offs where adventure travellers, wellness tourists, conservationists and second homeowners can ignite the recovery.

Smart destinations are likely to appeal more to current and future tourists emerging from the pandemic. But the biggest marketing material has shifted from that which is company generated to the one that the consumers themselves generate. The pandemic saw several destinations adopting and using social media influencers in marketing resorts and destinations.

One of the critical learnings from the pandemic has also been around building destinations and a tourism sector that is disaster-ready. The focus of building a future destination has to be sensitive to global risk and have ways of managing these from a planning and fiscal perspective. The tourism planner has to be cognisant now more than ever of the biological threats and other environmental threats and plan on how to respond to them as part of the planning purposes. The sector will never return to tourism as usual, given the alterations forced by the COVID-19 pandemic. These and other issues are issues that this book deals with within various chapters of this book and provide critical learnings for the tourism sector and its subsectors.

1.5 Methodological Underpinning

An array of research methods was employed across the different chapters. This provided rich insights into the lengths and depths in how COVID-19 was investigated. Both qualitative and quantitative methodologies were used to offer well-rounded insights into the impact of COVID-19 on destinations.

Qualitative methodologies were used, ranging from document analyses, descriptive analyses, in-depth interviews, focus groups and systematic literature reviews. Critical document analysis is a primarily qualitative data collection process in which the researcher collects and interprets documented information to produce meaning around the research objectives (Nhamo et al., 2020a). It requires repeated review, examination and interpretation of data (Gross, 2018), which can incorporate simple content analysis (Botterill & Platenkamp, 2012). Inclusionary criteria are designed before the analysis is done to ensure related content is selected from the most recent documents in the research field. Secondary data on mountain destinations collected from magazines, tourism journals, blogs, newspaper articles, governmental websites and reports provided insights into the social, economic and environmental impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic.

In a study on South Africa, relevant sources from South Africa's National Department of Tourism and StatsSA revealed the tourism sector's resilience, adaptivity, flexibility, collaboration and co-creation as the premise for survival. At the same time, another secondary and extensive desktop literature review on South Africa sketches the state of COVID-19 and the (un)equal distribution of benefits in a tourism development context. Furthermore, a document analysis provides insights into the loss in matchday revenue and declining shares of listed football clubs. At the same time, the chapters also focused on the transformation of travel experiences in Lithuania and revenge tourism in India. A systematic review and critical examination of strategies related to the resilience and recovery of the tourism and hospitality industry provide evidence of the need to design essential control measures to recoup business operations. The descriptive analysis offers insights into the impact of COVID-19 on urban tourism destinations, the strategies employed to rebuild the tourism industry and a policy framework to adjust to the changes in the Indian urban tourism industry. Focus groups supplemented in-depth interviews to investigate the role of local government in tourism recovery in northern Ghana. These in-depth interviews provide an understanding of the impacts of COVID-19 on the feelings and behaviour of participants (Cooper & Schindler, 2022). An exploratory research study on Italy and Kazakhstan draws on two case studies (Stake, 1995; Creswell & Poth, 2016) based on qualitative data from multiple sources, as proposed by Mik-Meyer (2020).

Quantitative methods included a bibliometric analysis, sentiment analysis and the use of the PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses) approach. PRISMA is a popular method to review content, which requires reviewers to categorise studies according to the methodology of the investigations following journal index search using specific keywords based on predetermined inclusion and exclusion criteria (Moher et al., 2015). The selected papers were reviewed, coded, thematically organised and interpreted subject to keyword analysis (Rethlefsen et al., 2021) in studies related to the tourist's psychological and behavioural responses, the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the tourism sector and the COVID-19 response strategies to evoke positive outcomes for the tourism and travel industry.

A bibliometric analysis introduces new methodologies for COVID-19 research in the tourism sector. This method entails a quantitative analysis of publications to compile a citation analysis to show the impact of researchers on a specific research field. Literature related to the effects of COVID-19 on tourism destinations is analysed using a scientific computer-assisted statistical method to review the literature for identifying tourism impact patterns and uncovering emerging destination trends related to COVID-19. In this book, the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the tourism sector was conducted (Jiménez-García et al., 2020), where Scopus indexed publications from the areas of business administration and social sciences were identified as having the most significant participation impact in the subject. Sentiment analysis (also known as opinion mining) is one of the most active fields of natural language processing (NLP) research (Liu, 2015). Automated sentiment analysis is used to extract public opinion from various sources (Kiritchenko et al., 2014), known as user-generated content (UGC). Tweets were analysed to capture the short and informal messages to understand the emotion behind the news related to sustainable tourism after COVID-19. Open Table is a quantitative platform to source data on global restaurant business response and recovery. This is an online restaurant booking platform and a subsidiary of Booking.com that market charts and other reliable archival databases to track the recovery process of the restaurant sector from the COVID-19 impacts, which was segregated according to country, state/province/region and city.

1.6 Book and Chapter Outline

This book has five parts, including the introduction and background. Part I comprises one chapter focusing on COVID-19 and beyond, where the prospects for reshaping tourism are discussed through an overview of the themes addressed in this book. The implications of COVID-19 on tourism destinations are outlined in Part II, which consists of five chapters where the impact of COVID-19 on tourism destinations provides perspectives on future research directions, especially from a resilience and recovery perspective. A comprehensive discussion on innovations and resilience building amongst tourism operations during the pandemic is captured in Part III. Reference was made to creative COVID-19 innovations at destinations, the inadequate response by local governments to support tourism recovery, the psychological and economic effects triggered by restrictions and the resilience in response to the COVID-19 impacts surfaced as a tonic for the revival of the industry. Innovations in tourism operations are celebrated across seven chapters. Resilience and recovery of the tourism industry have become synonymous with safeguarding the sector in a post-COVID-19 era, evident in the five chapters discussed in Part IV. Recommendations are made on how we can reshape travel, tourism and hospitality in a post-COVID-19 industry under the new world order. Besides the optimism of recovery, the gains were again crippled in 2022 by the Ukraine-Russian war and tensions within the South China Sea. The book concludes with policy recommendations in Part V. The chapter on reshaping the travel, tourism and hospitality industry post-COVID-19 under the new world order proves a crystal ball view of how tourism will regain its place as a significant GDP contributor. The last chapter in this part focuses on the recovery challenges for the restaurant and hospitality industry amidst the Ukraine-Russia war and other global challenges. Economic recessions, conflict amongst nations and the monkeypox virus continue to hamper tourism recovery.

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Part II
COVID-19 and Its Implications on Tourism Destinations

Chapter 2
Impact of COVID-19 on Tourism Destination Resilience and Recovery: A Review of Future Research Directions

Rajat Gera and Alok Kumar

Abstract This chapter aims to categorise the results of empirical research in the published literature on the tourist's psychological and behavioural responses. This study also explores resilience and recovery actions undertaken by governments and businesses in response to COVID-19. This study analysed 39 articles selected for review using the systematic PRISMA approach. Two academic experts categorised the findings of the 39 empirical studies selected for this review article according to key stakeholders, including tourists, government and business owners. The selected papers were reviewed, coded, thematically organised and interpreted subject to keyword analysis. This study found that tourists' psychological responses, businesses' and government's collaboration, communication and innovation during the COVID-19 pandemic are essential for the survival, recovery and resilience of tourist destinations post-pandemic.

Keywords COVID-19 · Destination · Tourism · Recovery · Strategy · Resilience

2.1 Introduction

COVID-19's impact on the global tourism industry has been uniform worldwide, resulting in severe disruptions (Dube, 2022). COVID-19 had a tremendous economic impact on global tourism, with an estimated loss of US$ 1.2 trillion in

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revenues from the export of tourism and 120 million direct tourism job losses (UNWTO, 2020). Many researchers noted that COVID-19 had a transformative impact on tourism and hospitality (Mair, 2020; Sigala, 2020; Novelli et al., 2018). Tourist destinations are often sensitive to crises, and scholars have investigated crisis management within the sector as a significant study theme (Cruz-Milan, 2016; Ghaderi et al., 2014). However, the impacts of the crisis on tourist destinations are complex, and various researchers have called for systematic studies to understand better the structural issues from a theoretic and practical viewpoint (Pappas & Papatheodorou, 2017; Samitas et al., 2018). Novelli et al. (2018) argued that a framework for crisis management in destination tourism validated by empirical research would be beneficial. The intersection of economic, political, sociocultural and psychological impacts of COVID-19 offers opportunities for the design and implementation of recovery and response strategies by practitioners and researchers (McKercher & Chon, 2004) so that resilience can be built for future crises (Hall et al., 2017). The fear of travelling induces coping strategies, safe travel behaviours and individuals' resilience (Zheng et al., 2021). To respond to the pandemic, tourists tended to choose destinations with few tourists and high sanitary conditions to respond to the pandemic (Dube, 2022). They prefer destinations with outdoor activities or nature-related activities and domestic destinations within their country of residence (Dube, 2021). According to Santos et al. (2020), tourists are now inclined to travel to destinations with few COVID-19 cases.

Evidence shows that the nature and degree of response and recovery to crisis-driven transformation by various stakeholders (e.g. tourists, tourism operators, governments and local communities) are not uniform. A review of their attitudinal, behavioural, emotional and cognitive responses to counter the adverse impact of COVID-19 could provide direction for the reshaping of destination tourism (Sigala 2020). However, empirical validation is required to scientifically establish the direction and magnitude of the impact of COVID-19 and the effective response and recovery measures adopted to support or refute general sentiments or purported beliefs about shocks such as the one imposed by diseases such as COVID-19 (Gursoy & Chi, 2020; Zhang et al., 2021).

Various scholars have called for interdisciplinary (Wen et al., 2019), multidisciplinary (Gössling et al., 2020; Hall et al., 2020) and anti-disciplinary (Sigala, 2019) research to foster critical thinking that forces re-evaluation of prevalent pre-assumptions and behaviours. An analysis of the knowledge on disasters in tourism destinations (Mair, 2015) suggests knowledge gaps in areas such as calamity and disaster management (Ritchie, 2008) and post-disaster rebound marketing (Walters & Mair, 2012). Recording and consolidating previous practices and learnings of crisis management in tourism can facilitate better insight and readiness for the future (Yeh, 2020).

This chapter aims to categorise tourists' psychological and behavioural responses to the pandemic and the tactics and strategies adopted by destination management businesses and governments to manage the COVID-19 crises and prepare for the so-called new normal. This study aims to contribute to tourism theory and practice by integrating the learning emerging from empirical research on major stakeholders' response and recovery actions in response to COVID-19 and bridge the knowledge gap through the thematic synthesis of empirical findings published in the literature for survival, recovery and transformation, towards the new normal expected in the emerging post-COVID-19 era. Based on a thematic analysis of the selected empirical papers, conclusions are drawn, and future research directions are specified.

This study sought to answer the following critical research questions: (i) What has been tourism stakeholders' response to the COVID-19 pandemic? (ii) Which resilience and recovery strategies have tourism businesses adopted to deal with the impacts of COVID-19?

2.2 Literature Review

2.2.1 Crisis, Disaster Management and Resilience Management

A crisis is defined as an event with significant consequences and low probability which evolves very fast and is associated with ambiguity and undetermined causes and effects (Robert et al., 2015), while a disaster is an unpredictable catastrophic transformation that can be after the event, through emergency plans existing or through reaction (Prideaux et al., 2020). Crisis and disaster management (CDM) are critical to minimise its adverse effects and enhance the recovery time at the organisational and destination levels. A natural disaster or pandemic causes a significant drop in tourist volume, lower consumption of services and activities at destinations (Senbeto & Hon, 2020; Nhamo et al., 2021) and uncertainty in demand and supply and tourist travel plans (Faulkner & Vikulov, 2001). Safety and health perceptions influence traveller's behaviour and decision during a crisis (Floyd et al., 2004). Crisis and disaster also impact tourist behaviour and expense patterns (Senbeto & Hon, 2020), including tourism services and activities.

This study recognises Ritchie's three steps for effective crisis and disaster management: (1) planning and being prepared for the crisis or disaster, (2) effectively responding to or managing the crisis or disaster during its occurrence, and (3) adaptation to the new or developed state post the crisis or disaster (Ritchie, 2009). This chapter's focus is primarily on the second and third stages of management of crisis or disaster through communication, marketing and business remodelling efforts to restore tourists' confidence and facilitate long-term sustainability and recovery of destination and tourism businesses.

Resilience is the system's ability to embrace disruptions and learn to adapt in situations of turmoil with the objective of growth and dynamism (Holling, 1973, 1996) and competence to overcome adversity and rebound from challenging life events (Orchiston et al., 2015). Business resilience embodies the business' ability to speedily adapt and respond to various risks and shocks (Masten, 2001). Resilience is required at all levels, the micro (human resilience), meso (organisation) and macro (societal or policy-making). Social capital and its dimensions of relational, cognitive and structural capital determine how tolerant, vulnerable, enabled and resilient a community is (Erdmenger, 2019).

Resilience aims to build tourism's capacity to absorb shocks that lead to losses and the ability to recover from adverse conditions. Innovation networks contribute to destination resilience in coastal tourist destinations (Brandão et al., 2019). Markets and product innovation and diversification have a significant role in destination resilience. Destination resilience needs the implementation of expert knowledge and experience (Chang et al., 2020; Prideaux et al., 2020). The tourism industry's stakeholders need to promote and develop new demands by innovating their unsustainable product offers (Stankov et al., 2020; Sharma et al., 2021). Thus, the study of the resilience of destinations, enterprises and tourists provides an opportunity for resetting tourism post-COVID-19 (Prayag, 2020). A resilience framework for destination tourism can promote more sustainable tourism (Sharma et al., 2021). Research on COVID-19 and innovation in tourism with a focus on sustainability could rejuvenate tourism (Sigala, 2020).

2.2.2 Crisis and Disaster Management in Distressed Destinations

Distressed destinations are countries or cities in continuous political and economic decline due to political challenges and poor economic performance (Woyo, 2018). Crisis management entails the process of preparation, response and learning from the effects of various failures that affect groups of people at various levels (organisations, local, national and international communities). Health-related crises have an adverse impact on a destination's image, tourism demand and competitiveness (Kuo et al., 2008), which may further be amplified by the effect of media reporting on tourists' risk perception (Novelli et al., 2018) and trigger changes in tourists' behaviours and travel patterns (Li et al., 2020; Moreno-Luna et al., 2021) such as a shift to domestic travel, short-distance travel and less populated destinations (Roman et al., 2020; Sung et al., 2021).

Tourism conceptually entails enjoyment, relaxation and safety, while disasters cause distress, fear and panic. Tourism communities are susceptible to disasters which impact their economic independence due to the fall of visitors and the need to have a positive image of attractiveness and safety. How effectively and speedily a tourist destination responds to a disaster and recovers from the disaster has long-term effects on tourists' perceptions of the destination (Sönmez & Backman, 1992).

Some of the existing theories related to crises and disasters can explain the current tourism phenomena, and learning from tourism crisis management of preparedness, proactive planning, contingency plans and response strategies can be implemented to prevent or mitigate the negative impacts on the destinations (Novelli et al., 2018; Kuo et al., 2008; Škare et al., 2021). Collaboration of various stakeholders in decision-making and public–private collaboration is required for effective pandemic response strategies and resilience-building (Castanho et al., 2021). Destination marketing organisation's (DMO) role is vital in crisis communications to tackle negative media coverage and misinformation through online social media (Jamal & Budke, 2020). Delivering accurate and updated information to visitors followed by marketing campaigns to activate positive media coverage for restoring the destination's image and updated information regarding the implementation of health and safety travel measures can mitigate risk perceptions and generate confidence in travelling (Jamal & Budke, 2020).

2.3 Methodology

Articles published in indexed and peer-reviewed publications relevant to the study were selected. Thirty-eight articles which met various inclusion and exclusion criteria were included for this review by following the systematic "PRISMA" approach (Pollock & Berge, 2018). A total of 746 articles were initially extracted through a keyword search in Scopus and WoS indexed journals related to tourism. Out of that, 39 articles were selected for this review study based on inclusion criteria (empirical, high-quality articles published in indexed and peer-reviewed journals related to the theme of crisis, disaster and resilience of tourist destinations), and exclusion criteria (books, conference papers, book chapters, thesis, magazine articles, opinion articles) were applied to shortlist the articles for review. The abstracts, findings and conclusions of selected articles were reviewed for their relevance to the study. Thirty-eight articles were selected after a rigorous review by experts from academics. The summary of articles selected for the study is given in Table 2.1.

A textual narrative approach is adopted to thematically synthesise the evidence of research findings from the selected papers to reveal the commonality between the studies and heterogeneity between the stakeholder groups based on the context and content of the papers (Lucas et al., 2007). Morrison's (2013) framework was adopted for categorisation and thematic discussion of the findings from tourism stakeholders' perspectives (tourists, tourism organisations and government). The sub-themes are inductively derived based on the patterns emerging from the findings from selected papers for review and are as follows: tourists (destination imagery, tourists' response, tourists' risk perceptions), government (effective communication, safety measures, fiscal support, intact tourism, collaboration, promoting tourist destinations in print, broadcast and social media) and businesses (coping, market diversification, destination branding, marketing communication, use of technology, building community resilience). Conclusions are presented, and future research directions are suggested.

Table 2.1 Summary of articles selected for the study

Authors	Journal	Year	Destination
Yeh	Tourism Recreation Research	2020	Taiwan
Sigala	Journal of Business Research	2020	Australia
Zhang et al.	Annals of Tourism Research	2021	Hong Kong
Pan et al.	Tourism Management	2021	North America
Zhang et al.	Tourism Management	2022	China
Rather	Journal of Destination Marketing & Management	2021	India
Zheng et al.	Tourism Management	2021	China
Lim and To	Current Issues in Tourism	2021	Macao (China)
Wang et al.	Tourism Review	2021	China
Jeon and Yang	Current Issues in Tourism	2021	Gangwon Province (South Korea)
Sinha and Nair	Anatolia	2021	Social media platforms Facebook and Whatsapp
Seraphin and Dosquet	Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes	2020	France, Turkey, Spain, Italy, Germany, Greece and Norway
Usui et al.	Mammal Review	2021	Global
Vaishar and Šťastná	Current Issues in Tourism	2020	Czech countryside
Volgger et al.	Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management	2021	Australia
Arbulú et al.	Journal of Destination Marketing & Management	2021	Balearic Islands
Ntounis et al.	Current Issues in Tourism	2021	England
Kala	Current Issues in Tourism	2021	India
Fuchs	Current Issues in Tourism	2021	Thailand
Luo and Lam	International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health	2020	Hong Kong
Zielinski and Botero	International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health	2020	South Korea
Sohn et al.	Sustainability	2021	South Korea
Rahman et al.	PLoS One	2021	Google platform link
McCartney et al.	Cities	2021	Macao
Zhang and Blasco	Anatolia	2021	Spain
Carvache-Franco et al.	Tourism and Hospitality Research	2021	Twitters Tourism hashtags
Thirumaran et al.	Tourism Management Perspectives	2021	Singapore and New Zealand
Ketter and Avraham	Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing	2021	YouTube

(continued)

Table 2.1 (continued)

Authors	Journal	Year	Destination
Kamata	Current Issues in Tourism	2021	Japan
Avraham	Current Issues in Tourism	2021	USA
Im et al.	Journal of Destination Marketing & Management	2021	South Korea
Dayour et al.	Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights	2021	Ghana
Singh et al.	Research in Globalisation	2021	India
Kristiana et al.	Journal of Asian Finance, Economics and Business	2021	Indonesia
Gu et al.	Current Issues in Tourism	2021	Maldives

2.4 Findings and Discussion

There are few empirical studies of the impact of COVID-19 on destination tourism sites and tourists and the recovery initiatives by states, governments and businesses. The largest proportions of destinations researched are in Asia and Europe. Tourist destinations for gambling (Macao), shopping (Singapore, Hong Kong), coastal tourism (South Korea, Balearic Islands, Indonesia, Maldives, Australia, New Zealand), countryside tourism (rural, mountain, adventure tourism) and religious tourism (India) are predominant (Table 2.2).

A positivist etymology dominates the philosophical approach of scholars, and quantitative and mixed methods methodologies are preferred due to scholars' comfort with existing theoretical models in tourism research. Forms of destination tourism most researched are destination cities; islands; adventures; religious sites; beaches; wellness and health; second home, rural and mountain tourism; gambling and cruise tourism; marine and coastal tourism; and virtual tourism. Most of the research articles were published in 2021 (22), 2020 (6) and 2022 (1) in response to the severity of the pandemic stages.

Theoretical models adopted are predominantly grounded in consumer behaviour, crisis and disaster management, economics and resilience and recovery literature. Multi-theoretic or extended theoretic approaches used indicate the multidisciplinary nature of destination tourism. Consumer behaviour theories adopted are the "theory of planned behaviour" (Wang et al., 2021; Gu et al., 2021); "protection motivation theory" (Rather, 2021); "leisure constraints theory and prospect theory"; "news media narrative approach"; "risk acceptance framework, behavioural theory and perceived crisis management literature" (Pan et al., 2021); arousal theory (Volgger et al., 2021); push–pull theory (Zhang et al., 2022); protection motivation theory; coping and resilience theories (Zheng et al., 2021); "network analyses" (Jeon & Yang, 2021); and "risk acceptance framework"(Volgger et al., 2021).

Theories applied for the study of tourist organisations and society are the "Janusian thinking approach or ambidexterity" (Zadeh & Pirnajmuddin, 2013), "Parsons structural–functional theory" (Kristiana et al., 2021), "distributed

Table 2.2 Geographical locations of tourist destinations studied

Tourist destination	No. of manuscripts
Hong Kong	2
China	2
South Korea	3
Ghana	1
India	3
Indonesia	1
Maldives	1
Balearic Islands	1
USA	1
North America	1
Macao (China)	2
Czech countryside	1
Australia	1
Singapore and New Zealand	1
Taiwan	1
Social networks	4

economies theory" (Sohn et al., 2021), "pathogen-stress theory" (Rahman et al., 2021), "place identity theory" (Kamata, 2021) and "resource-scarce destination perspective and crisis management framework" (Dayour et al., 2021). Zhang et al. (2021) applied econometric models (ARDL-ECM, autoregressive distributed lag-error correction model) and qualitative techniques (Delphi technique + scenario analysis) to forecast tourism demand recovery in Hong Kong in response to unanticipated responses to crisis. The fragmented multiple theoretical approaches have precluded the development of an integrated model/approach towards crisis recovery/resilience.

The research methodologies include quantitative, qualitative, mixed, inductive, deductive and abductive approaches. Data analytic techniques range from multivariate quantitative structural equation modelling techniques to qualitative methods of enquiry. Predictive modelling techniques of machine learning, simulations and econometric analysis have been used to predict the likely demand and tourist arrival scenarios post-COVID-19.

Qualitative research methods for the experimental grounded theory method (Zhang et al., 2022), "embedded design approach and sentiment analysis" (Thirumaran et al., 2021), qualitative content analysis (Ketter & Avraham, 2021) and phenomenology (Dayour et al., 2021; Singh et al., 2021) were employed for the analysis of unstructured data and development of new frameworks. Ketter and Avraham (2021) identified six digital marketing advertising strategies used by National Tourism Boards (NTBs). Use of econometric and statistical analysis (ARIMA, correlation and regression) (Lim & To, 2021), Monte Carlo simulation (Arbulú et al., 2021), fixed-effects analysis (Im et al., 2021) and system dynamics approach (Gu et al., 2021), value-at-risk methodology and scenario-based Delphi adjustment forecasting approach is also evidenced.

However, a universal tourism destination resilience and recovery model has been elusive due to scholars' wide disparity in measures and methods. The following sections categorically categorised tourists' psychological and behavioural responses and crisis management strategies adopted by government and businesses for recovery and resilience.

Tourists' psychological state is crucial to their travel intentions and behaviour during a crisis. Destination image determines a tourist's intention to travel, which is shaped by tourists' opinions of safety, prevailing health protection infrastructure, mass-tourism happenings and other COVID-19 connotations (Zhang et al., 2021). Tourists can be attracted to coastal and marine tourism by emphasising the motivational factors of "escape", "sun and beach" in social media promotional plans and by developing products like leisure in the sun and seaside, inciting family or friends' breakouts (Carvache-Franco et al., 2021).

Tourist behaviour and response could vary according to the ecosystem and culture of the destination and their motivation, socio-economic status, financial resources and personality (Sinha & Nair, 2021). Tourists with experience will likely show emotional solidarity in framing a favourable destination image and supporting a destination and positive travel intentions (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2021). Pan et al. (2021), in their study on cruise tourism, found that financial constrained potential consumers have lesser trust, have higher negativity bias and require more calamity management support from vacation companies in the epidemic. Sinha and Nair's (2021) study showed that high earners' (travel enthusiasts/vacationers) main concerns were "health and hygiene" and "history of low COVID-19 incidences" (HLCI) in destination selection factors, whereas low-income travellers were influenced by "accessibility and discounting" aspects. Animosity and ethnocentrism of Chinese university students towards western destinations negatively influenced their DOI (overall destination image) and DVI (destination visit intentions) of US destinations. Students' ethnocentrism, PBC and DOI showed statistically significant differences based on gender (Wang et al., 2021).

Fear of COVID-19 (FoC), "travel anxiety" (TA) and "risk attitude" (RA) adversely affect travel intentions (TI) (Luo & Lam, 2020). RA and TA moderate the impact of FoC on TI. TA positively affects risk attitude, while TA and RA negatively affect TI (Luo & Lam, 2020). Perceived travel risks are significantly influenced by health safety management levels, nature of service delivery operations, logistics patterns, delivery channels, avoidance of crowded destinations and sanitation and security. Tourists' risk perception and information search on health issues related to the pandemic and its various socio-economic aspects are influenced by news stories in the media and impact tourists' risk avoidance behaviour (Im et al., 2021). The impact of social media on visitors' revisit and co-creation intentions is higher for heightened CBE (consumer–brand engagement) tourists (Rather, 2021).

Tourists' "travel fear" is activated by the perceived severity and probability of being infected by COVID-19 in transit (Zheng et al., 2021). Increasing the perceived control of tourists is a partially effective risk mitigation strategy for local tourism, as real risks drive perceived risks (Volgger et al., 2021). Technology use minimises travellers' risk perceptions (Rahman et al., 2021). Beachgoers tend to have lower personal risk perceptions due to their intentional risk-taking, positivity bias, reduced social amplification, paucity of reliable information and lack of virus contact experience (Zielinski & Botero, 2020).

Government role is significant at all levels, and open communication, relationship and a positive working association between different ranks of government and relevant stakeholders are important. Industries depend on "government stimulus packages and interventions" to enhance productivity (Sharma et al., 2021). TUI, the world's most prominent multinational tourism organisation, is dependent on the UK and German governments' aid (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020). The government has become a significant role-player in the economy of tourism. Tsionas (2021) proposes that tourist organisations need government subsidies to operate at lower capacities. Government intervention in tourism industry operations during the COVID-19 crisis has been significant (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020).

Governments must assure visitors about spatial security precautions and provide improved transport infrastructure to enable self-driving to minimise the contagion risk (Sohn et al., 2021). Mass media has a significant role in influencing public perceptions of tourist destinations (Pan, 2020). Social distancing and the number of COVID-19 cases framed by stories of the pandemic in media significantly influence individuals' search for information on tourist attractions in online channels, and the altered search behaviour subsequently impacts the number of online hotel reviews (Im et al., 2021). The destination's crisis management strategy should address tourists' travel concerns and the destination site's portrayal (Thirumaran et al., 2021) in print media of tourist destination countries. Messages that empower residents during a crisis, and give a sense that they are not alone in dealing with the crisis, are effective (Ketter & Avraham, 2021).

Government and business can alleviate the risk perceptions of travellers. Controlling international visitor arrivals can positively impact domestic booking intentions. Activities of sanitation measures in tourist facilities, including fever checks and compulsory masks for employees, have a favourable impact on booking intentions (Volgger et al., 2021; Singh et al., 2021; Gu et al., 2021). Implementing social distancing, using sanitisers and masks, restricting the number of tourists visiting a site and ensuring tourists' comfort and leisure can reduce tourists' risk perceptions (Singh et al., 2021). The travel bubble strategy was most effective in positively influencing travellers' behavioural intentions compared to reduced tax, social distancing or joint strategies (Gu et al., 2021).

A multidisciplinary and collaborative approach is required to design and implement a holistic approach to recovery and adaptation (Wen et al., 2019). The government can initially support the tourism industry through fiscal surpluses, public and private sector collaboration, tax cuts, subsidies and policy measures (travel corridors, visas). Tourism businesses can benefit from government-sponsored zero-interest credit facilities for survival (Yeh, 2020). The revival and resilience of city destinations are dependent on the destinations' fiscal reserves. Li et al. (2020) found that while gambling revenues led Macao to become a leading casino destination globally, the key to sustainability and recovery was in attracting and retaining a high-net-worth Chinese consumer market and assuring their safety in their gaming locale.

Governments and businesses can develop and promote local dispersal of tourists through untact tourism to coastal attractions, short distances and seaside travel ecosystems for a post-COVID-19 scenario (Sohn et al., 2021). They can promote outdoor activities including camping, biking, hiking and outside dining, "second homes" becoming "first homes", proximity tourism and long-haul vacation stays to allay consumers' concerns. Local and domestic tourism can compensate for the loss of foreign tourists. Countryside and mountain destinations were more popular than seaside destinations in France and Spain during the crisis, while seaside destinations were becoming more popular in China (Jeon & Yang, 2021). Rural tourism destinations were replacing urban tourism destinations (Vaishar & Šťastná, 2020), while some wildlife parks and rescue centres faced shutting down as a result of COVID-19 (Usui et al., 2021).

Collaboration is effective in meeting COVID-19-related challenges. Destination management organisations (DMOs) should facilitate the establishment of industrial associations and collaboration with tourism practitioners and other DMOs. DMOs should closely monitor the tourism trends and ensure a smooth communication flow to share and promote useful information among all tourism stakeholders (Zhang et al., 2021). Kamata (2021) emphasised the importance of collaboration and local adaptation of recovery strategies.

The government can build resilience in the tourism industry by promoting and developing tourism destinations (Kristiana et al., 2021). Diversification of tourism happenings and broader travel markets are the key to tourism destination recovery and resilience. Destination managers and government can attract tourists by promoting tourism destinations (religious tourism) as "all-inclusive" locations that balance "regular, ethnic, spiritual, ecological, and safe experiences". Nature-based tourism destination is a unified social system which requires the collaboration of all tourism stakeholders for resilience building (Kala, 2021). Tourism stakeholders should build a similar destination image to reinforce travellers' visit intentions (Kala, 2021; Zhang et al., 2021). Some recovery initiatives consist of strengthening ties with neighbouring regions by easing tourists' travel routes and travel between locations (Jeon & Yang, 2021). Recovery can be accelerated by a dense network of towns and enhanced connectivity. Thus, infrastructure improvement, institutional model of tourism and cooperation and consistent marketing efforts by stakeholders can fuel faster recovery (Vaishar & Šťastná, 2020).

Marketing innovations, reduction in expenses, consumer diversification, reliance on government support initially and personal beliefs were adopted by businesses across the sectors in Ghana to cope with the pandemic (Dayour, 2019). Small and medium enterprises (SMEs) are the most vulnerable because of their financial status (Fuchs, 2021). The use of social media marketing is a common coping strategy across almost all sectors. The use of "cost reduction" as a coping strategy involved retaining some staff or reducing the remunerations of employees as an internal corporate social initiative (CSI) (Dayour et al., 2021).

The majority of tourism-related occupations are modestly skilled and relatively lower paid and hence face higher risks and loss of well-being, especially by women, who comprise most of the tourism labour force (Arbulú et al., 2021). The main concerns were higher uncertainty and lack of information about the lockdown's duration. Tourism and hospitality businesses perceive themselves as less resilient to COVID-19 due to the perceived "slow process of recovery", indicating the long time it may require to return to normal (Ntounis et al., 2021) and ambiguity associated with lockdown and restriction actions, the likelihood of the next wave of viral attack, rate of progress in treatments and inoculations (Arbulú et al., 2021).

Businesses can target domestic and short-distance markets to compensate for the losses due to a drop in international tourist visits. Businesses based in the west (USA) can attract potential Chinese tourists by advertising their unique destinations through multiple information dissemination channels. Tourism during the pandemic has increased in the coastline regions along the East Sea and low-density population regions (Jeon & Yang, 2021).

Destination managers can position their destinations as "all-inclusive" locations that balance normal, ethnic, spiritual, ecological and safe experiences. Destination image is a key determinant of tourists' visit intentions; hence, destination planners must monitor the perceived destination image, and tourism stakeholders should promote a unified destination image to reinforce travellers' visit intention (Kala, 2021).

Attracting new and existing customers through advertising, social media and PR would accelerate the revival process. The role of social media and CBE is strategic and significant in triggering tourists' intentions of brand co-creation and site revisits and the development of customer–brand relationships during the pandemic. Managers can leverage social networks and communication strategies to target brand communities to promote tourism–brand co-creation and tourists' intentions to revisit and/or recommend to others in pandemic situations (Rather, 2021). Comments on social media during the pandemic were associated with the excellence of the site and its resources, setting and infrastructure (Carvache-Franco et al., 2021).

Destination-dependent gambling hubs can leverage virtual reality since tourism may not easily recover to pre-COVID-19 levels. Virtual tourism can substitute on-site tourism to some extent during the pandemic. Travellers' "visit stimulus" and "travel convenience and cost" were core factors of virtual tourists' feelings during COVID-19 (Zhang et al., 2022).

Policymakers need to plan and ensure resilience to prepare for threats related to external factors, such as weather, social crisis or security (Pocinho et al., 2022). Resilience is the capability of institutions to absorb disturbances through stability and reduce uncertainty and flexibility to adapt and respond to the uncertainty due to external conditions (Davidson et al., 2013). Tourism resilience comprises four factors: social, institutional (governance), economic and ecological (Davidson et al., 2013; Holladay & Powell, 2013). Institutional resilience is related to flexibility, self-organisation, local control and power sharing (Holladay & Powell, 2016).

Tourists' risk attitudes and travel anxiety are influenced by their psychological state. Tourists' perceived behavioural control, attitude and susceptibility to subjective norms determine their level of travel anxiety and risk attitude. Tourists' responses vary according to their financial status, level of consumer–brand engagement, socio-economic status, financial resources, usage status (current and potential customers), prior experience and personality traits (levels of sensation seeking and need for uniqueness).

Tourist organisations and governments can minimise the travel anxiety and enhance the risk attitude of tourists by promoting untact tourism, using technology and creating a positive destination image. Marketing innovations such as online delivery channels, untact tourism and safety measures such as social distancing, use of sanitisers and masks, restricting the number of tourists visiting a site, travel constraints, health safety management levels, safe service delivery operations, logistics patterns, alternative delivery channels, sanitation and security measures at travel destinations and ensuring tourists comfort and leisure can minimise risk perceptions of tourists and have a positive effect on their risk attitude.

Positive news on social media and mass media by framing the destination's crisis management as effective and the severity of the pandemic under control can positively affect tourists' travel intentions. Offering lower costs and convenience can attract tourists during the pandemic. Destination branding by the stakeholders can reinforce travellers' visit intentions. Unifying messages can create an emotional link between the destination and the potential tourists and empower the local community. Refundable cancellation policies and retentive advertising aimed at prospective tourists' image of the site and enhanced visitors' affinity with the site can promote revisit intentions.

A conceptual model of tourists' visit/revisit intentions to tourist destinations is developed (Fig. 2.1) based on the empirical findings from the study.

A conceptual model of survival–recovery–resilience for tourist organisations (TO) and government (Fig. 2.2) is proposed. TO can adopt temporary cost reduction strategies and business adaptations of the product and delivery channels to sustain some level of sales. Government can offer financial support through tax cuts, subsidies and policy measures (exp., travel corridors, visas). Public and private sector collaboration is essential for the survival of the TO in the short term. Collaboration between government, destination management organisations (DMO) and TO is required to plan and implement recovery strategies. Empowering residents so that they welcome and support tourists during the pandemic is essential for the recovery of TO.

TO can promote untact tourism (coastal attractions, short, seaside travel ecosystems) and outdoor activities like mountaineering and hike for recovery. Marketing innovations, reduction in expenses, consumer diversification, government support and personal beliefs are some of the initial recovery measures suggested for TO. Government can promote outdoor activities and outside dining, "second homes" becoming "first homes", proximity tourism and domestic and local tourism to support the recovery of tourist destinations (TD). Collaboration between government, DMO and TO, empowering residents, infrastructure improvement, developing an institutional model of tourism and cooperation and consistent marketing efforts by

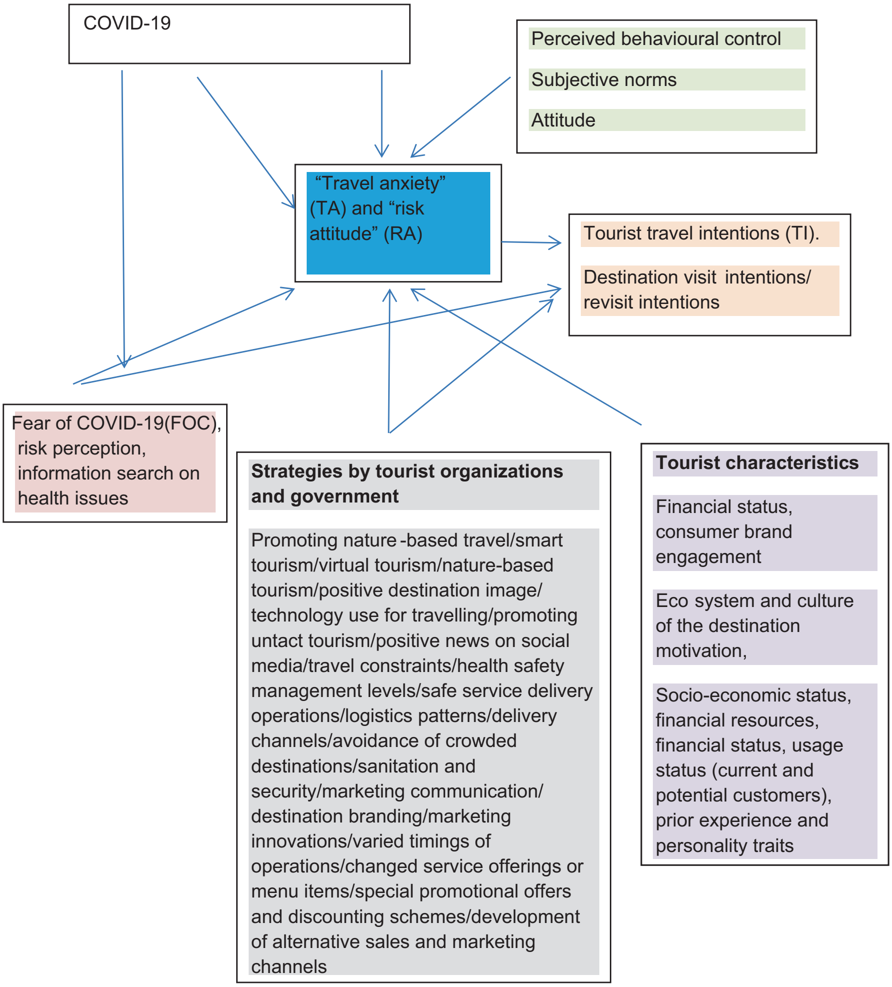


Fig. 2.1 A conceptual model of tourists' visit/revisit intentions to tourist destinations

stakeholders will contribute to faster recovery. Strengthening ties by easing tourists' travel routes and travel between locations would contribute to the recovery of TD.

TO resilience can be strengthened by attracting and retaining a high-net-worth consumer market, diversification of tourism happenings and broader travel markets and promoting tourist destinations as all-inclusive locations that balance "regular, ethnic, spiritual, ecological, and safe experiences". TOs can enhance the local public's resilience towards post-COVID-19 tourism by building their coping abilities. Communication interventions can be problem- or emotion-oriented, such as disseminating information to tourists on how to cope with COVID-19 during travel.

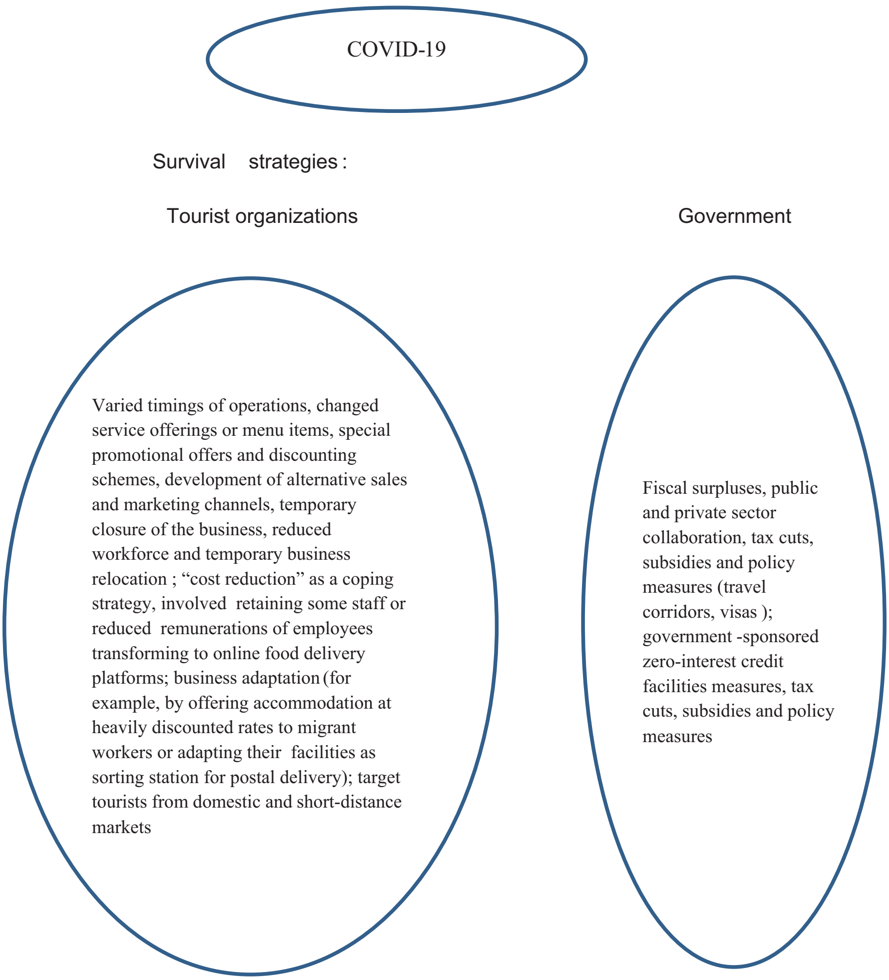
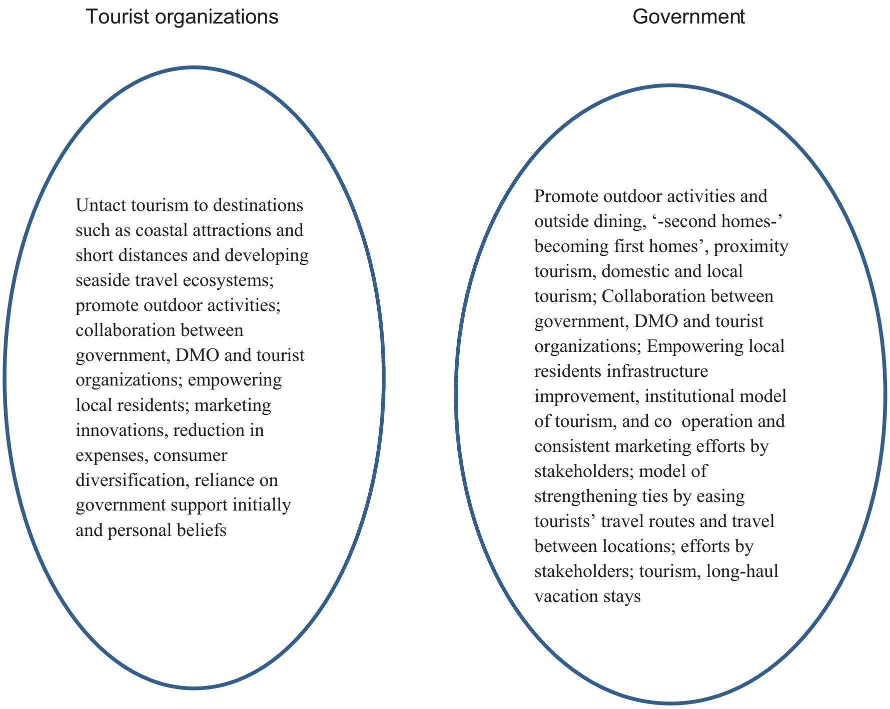


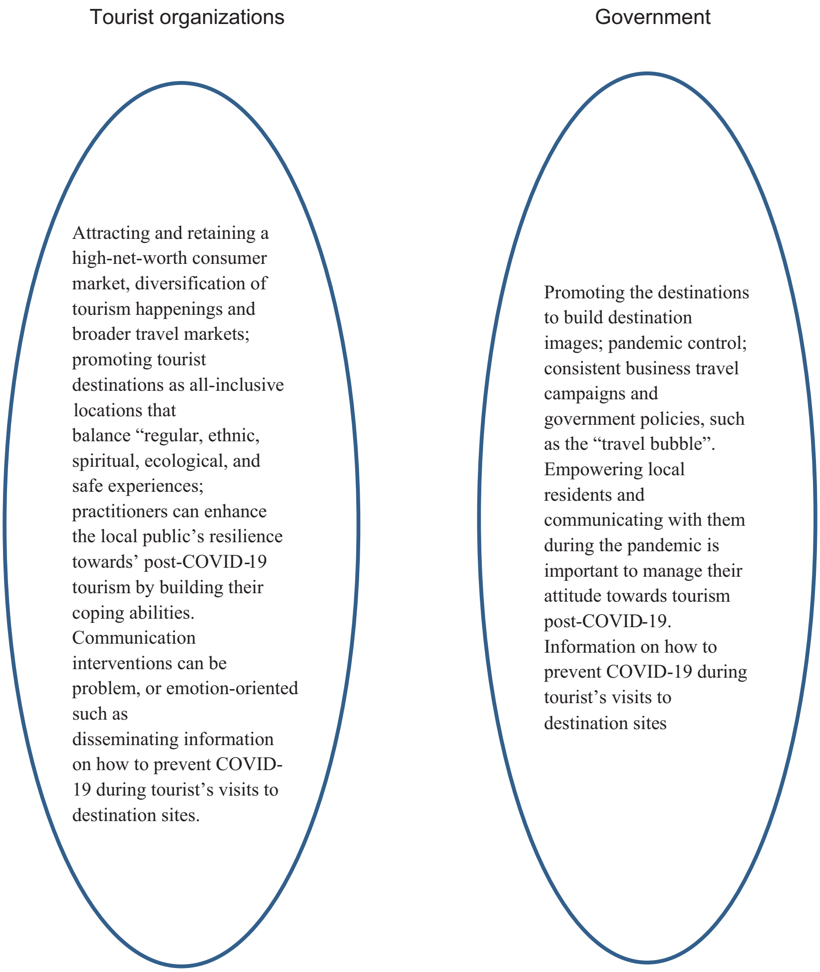
Fig. 2.2 Conceptual model of the resilience of TD

Promoting the destinations to build destination images; pandemic control; consistent business travel campaigns; government policies, such as the "travel bubble" empowering residents and communicating with them during the pandemic to manage their attitude towards tourism post-COVID-19; and information on how to prevent COVID-19 during tourist's visits to destination sites are some of the measures which governments can adopt to build the resilience of TD.

Recovery


Tourist organizations
Untact tourism to destinations such as coastal attractions and short distances and developing seaside travel ecosystems; promote outdoor activities; collaboration between government, DMO and tourist organizations; empowering local residents; marketing innovations, reduction in expenses, consumer diversification, reliance on government support initially and personal beliefs
Government
Promote outdoor activities and outside dining, '-second homes-' becoming first homes', proximity tourism, domestic and local tourism; Collaboration between government, DMO and tourist organizations; Empowering local residents infrastructure improvement, institutional model of tourism, and co operation and consistent marketing efforts by stakeholders; model of strengthening ties by easing tourists' travel routes and travel between locations; efforts by stakeholders; tourism, long-haul vacation stays

Resilience



2.5 Conclusions, Implications and Limitations

This chapter thematically synthesises the findings from empirical research on the effects of COVID-19 on destination tourism and its recovery and resilience. Tourists' risk perceptions have a significant role in influencing their attitudes and behaviours towards travel. The perceptions and attitudes are significantly influenced by the portrayal of the pandemic in media, safety measures implemented for travel and activities at destination sites and prevalent tourism infrastructure. Tourist intentions and behaviours vary according to financial status, age, gender, experience, personality traits and risk perceptions. Risk perceptions are shaped by the ways news is framed in social media and newspapers, risk management of travel and tourist delivery and the effectiveness of safety measures being implemented.

Governments' support is critical for tourism providers in terms of financial support, promoting tourist destinations' image, creating infrastructure for untact tourism, implementing safety measures and facilitating collaboration between the key stakeholders. Businesses need to cope with the crisis through survival initiatives initially followed by marketing diversification, destination branding, marketing communication, use of technology and building community resilience.

The themes emerging from this study partially resemble the themes prevalent in prior review studies on the impact of COVID-19 on tourism and its recovery and resilience by Shih-Shuo Yeh (2020) (interrelatedness of various sectors, interdisciplinary nature of the topic, the role of government in recovery), Sigala (2021), Mair et al. (2014) (changes in tourist behaviour, importance of communication, the role of the media, marketing strategies and messages), Yang et al. (2021) (risk perceptions, psychological effects and behaviour, response strategies and resilience). However, the unique contribution of this study is the novel themes emerging from the empirical research towards organisational responses (market diversification, destination branding, building community resilience, use of technology), government actions (untact tourism, facilitating collaboration between stakeholders) and tourist psychology and behaviour (antecedents of risk perceptions and their management, diversity of tourists behaviour and attitude towards travel during the pandemic and impact of social media). This chapter's theoretical contribution is towards integrating the findings from empirical studies grounded in fragmented theoretical models and disciplinary traditions, diverse research methodologies and data analytic techniques to provide a conceptual framework for practitioners and scholars.

2.6 Future Research Directions

Future research directions identified are as follows:

- Long-term sociocultural, psychological and behavioural impact of the pandemic on tourist intentions needs to be investigated to understand their motivations and behavioural outcomes in varied contexts, which would also contribute to the achievement of Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 3 (good health and well-being).
- Through longitudinal and experimental research designs, multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary perspectives would generate better insight for business adaptation and industry-shaping strategy planning (SDG goals 8 and 9).

- The social constructionist and interpretive approach could uncover new perspectives on tourist and employee perceptions and behaviour during the crisis and develop newer crisis management frameworks (SDG goal 11 – sustainable cities and communities).
- Research on coping strategies adopted by corporates (business models and marketing approaches), government and people (attitudes and behaviours) in varied cross-cultural contexts would provide insight into the differential impact of COVID-19 on recovery and resilience behaviours (SDG 11).
- Recovery strategies may have to be adapted according to specific destination and activity, requiring empirical research to determine the best course of action.
- Further studies can examine people's actual travel behaviours and the relationships between "travel fear" and changes in actual travel behaviour to advance the development of a conceptual model (SDG 3).

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Chapter 3
Impact of the COVID-19 Pandemic on the Tourism Sector: A Bibliometric Analysis

Jefferson Quiroz-Fabra, Wilmer Londoño-Celis, Alejandro Valencia-Arias, and Lina Cifuentes-Correa

Abstract The tourism industry has been characterized as one of the fastest-growing economic sectors in the world, being of great importance for countries and their economies. The emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic affected tourism and the hotel industry due to the restrictions imposed in different countries and regions because of the health emergency. This led to the cancellation of many scheduled trips and meagre sales of products and services derived from this sector of the economy. Given this situation, this study analyses the research output on the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the tourism sector between 2020 and 2021. The methodological approach is based on a bibliometric analysis of 153 scientific publications on the topic of study developed in this period. These documents were retrieved from a search equation used in the Scopus database. Among the findings are aspects related to the impact that the sector had from the economic and social point of view, with the areas of business administration and social sciences having the most significant participation in the subject. The dynamics between entrepreneurs and employees of the different tourism-related companies, the implications for tourism-dependent economies and the emergence of new markets are identified. It also identifies a wide distribution in its study in different regions of the world, given the nature of the pandemic and its worldwide effect.

Keywords Bibliometrics · COVID-19 · Pandemic · Tourism

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3.1 Background and Introduction

COVID-19, which was declared a pandemic by the WHO on March 11, 2020, has been a factor that has affected political, sociocultural and, therefore, economic systems worldwide (Renzaho, 2020). This pandemic has caused travel, tourism and leisure to stop globally due to the different strategies implemented to control this virus in society (Uğur & Akbıyık, 2020). Those strategies promoted the cancellation of various events, festivals and celebrations of all kinds, which, in addition to changing the traditions of different countries, greatly impacted the entire tourism and hospitality sector (Sigala, 2020). Tourism is one of the economy's segments of great importance for many people (Ranasinghe & Herath, 2021). It is one of the most important employers globally, with one out of every ten related jobs (Robinson et al., 2019). So, it directly affects the stability of entire communities. Besides being the largest contributor to several countries' gross domestic product (GDP) (OMT, 2020), tourism has become a key sector of several debates in international economics.

The tourism sector has become resilient to various factors that affect it and has become accustomed to recovering from multiple crises and outbreaks (Novelli et al., 2018), making it highly vulnerable to natural, political and socio-economic risks. However, the nature of COVID-19 shows signs of a crisis that is not only different but also involves a series of profound changes in terms of the structure of tourism as a socio-economic activity, which integrates long-term transformations (Sigala, 2020). In general terms, the growth of the tourism sector has been transformed due to the lack of movement of this economic activity, leading to an unprecedented collapse. The impact that COVID-19 has had represents an undeniable catastrophe for tourism worldwide (Porras Olalla, 2020).

Tourism found its crisis worldwide due to the temporary blockade on all the routes used to travel to different destinations (Bai & Ran, 2022), consequently affecting other sectors related to accommodating millions of tourists transported continuously. Between March and May 2020, most countries impose a series of restrictions on national and international mobilization, thus causing a state of great uncertainty for this sector (Mantecón, 2020). Air passenger traffic is one of the greatest exponents of the economic impact caused by this pandemic. This impact is such that in 2020 the financial losses could have reduced the world GDP by 0.02%, causing a loss of 20–30 million direct jobs (Iacus et al., 2020). The main problem then is the activation of this economic sector without endangering the population's health, considering that the virus continues in society. Thus, the challenge is to transform the sector to overcome this contingency, recover jobs and commercial dynamics and the activation actions and trends that allow tourism to continue to play a role in the global economy (Vega et al., 2020).

Although a series of studies have been developed in this area, the objective of this study is to show the impact of COVID-19 on global tourism, for which the implications in various subdivisions of this sector have been considered, from socio-economic aspects to new forms for the development of tourism, all this through the analysis of the literary production that has been developed and the thematic trends that are alluded to within the academic and research space, of which this study is a part.

Aspects such as reducing environmental impacts related to fuel consumption and the conservation of tourist areas are highlighted (Nagaj & Žuromskaitė, 2021). Rural tourism and ecotourism present considerable growth as new destination and experience options (García et al., 2020). On the other hand, the trend of using technologies to generate added value to traditional tourism (Mantecón, 2020), as well as developing new dynamics with the integration of digital tools, allow the development of experiences to meet the needs of users (Kidi et al., 2017; Pascoal et al., 2021). Another related aspect is studying the perception of risk associated with travel. Understanding the impact in the new pandemic context becomes a component of interest, as well as the role of social networks in dissemination and promotion processes (Rather, 2021). Thus, a spectrum of areas of interest within tourism will be explored in greater detail in the development of this study.

3.2 Methodology

For the analysis of the current proposal, a quantitative type of research was carried out. A structured orientation is adopted where the researcher maintains a distanced position to study the phenomenon (Pita Fernández & Pértegas Díaz, 2002). In this case, bibliometric tools were used as a basis to identify trends around the object of study, which is related to the impact of the tourism sector and its behaviour during the years 2020 and 2021, corresponding to the period of the pandemic generated by COVID-19. This type of tool is based on the analysis of scientific production and consumption through the application of statistical procedures in an established time (Ardanuy, 2012). The methodology follows all the parameters established under the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) (Rethlefsen et al., 2021).

3.2.1 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

For the inclusion of bibliographic records potentially analysable according to the established themes, all that mention the different impacts that the COVID-19 pandemic had on the tourism industry are considered. The exclusion criteria are detailed from two different phases: screening and eligibility. The screening phase consists of excluding duplicate records, as well as erroneously indexed records. The eligibility phase consists of eliminating articles that, after being analysed in their basic information (title, abstract and keywords), are considered not to be directly related to the subject matter since they do not explicitly mention the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic in the tourism sector.

3.2.2 Sources of Information and Search Strategy

As Rethlefsen et al. (2021) identified, literature reviews based on the PRISMA statement should specifically mention the sources of information used for the search of bibliographic records. In this sense, the SCOPUS database is selected since, according to Singh et al. (2021), it is one of the main international databases at present concerning the number of documents indexed in it. Another fundamental aspect that should be detailed in literature reviews supported by PRISMA is the search strategy so the review can be reproducible (Rethlefsen et al., 2021). Therefore, for the extraction of bibliographic records in the selected source of information, a specialized search equation is designed that will use the established inclusion criteria. The equation is as follows:

$$\begin{gathered}\left(\text{TITLE}\left(\text{COVID}\quad 19\,\text{OR pandemic OR coronavirus}\right)\right.\\ \text{AND TITLE}\left(\text{tourism OR hospitality}\right)\text{AND}\\ \left.\text{TITLE}\left(\text{impact}\right)\right)\end{gathered}$$

3.2.3 Data Management

The execution of the search equation yielded an initial figure of 192 records, which were analysed using the Microsoft Excel office automation tool and the VOSviewer open access software, carrying out a detailed study of the records obtained, as well as the generation of graphs to support the quantitative analysis.

3.2.4 Selection Process

Finally, from the 192 records initially obtained by the execution of the search strategy in the detailed information source, the exclusion criteria determined at the beginning of the methodology were applied, leaving a total of 153 articles. Figure 3.1 shows the flow chart suggested by the PRISMA statement to account for the entire process of inclusion and data extraction.

Once the search results were obtained, they were processed using the Excel office tool and the software VOSviewer. The latter is a computer program used to construct bibliometric maps (Van Eck & Waltman, 2010). Accordingly, the results were evaluated through three indicators: quantity, quality and structure, as listed below.

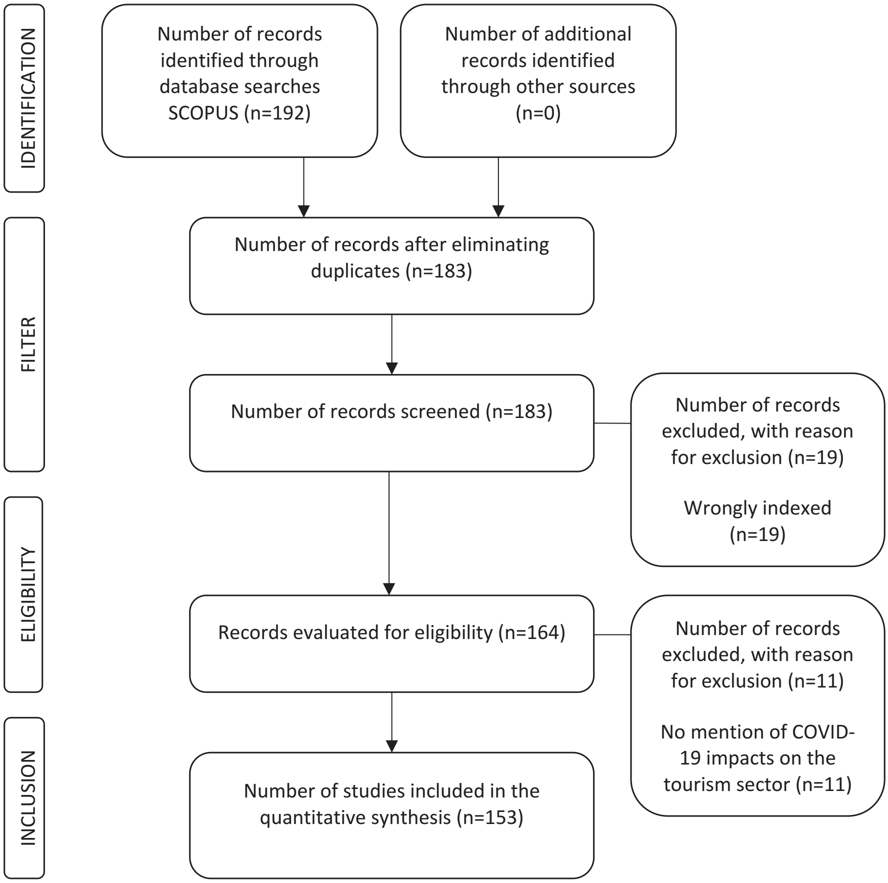

Fig. 3.1 PRISMA flow diagram. (Source: Own elaboration)

3.3 Results

3.3.1 Annual Productivity

Initially, information on annual productivity was analysed, as shown in Fig. 3.2. For the first year, 34 publications were corresponding to the impact of the pandemic on the tourism sector, representing 22% of the total production found up to December 2021. For the second year, the increase was 250% with respect to the publications made in 2020, i.e. the studies corresponding to 2021 represent 78% (119 publications) obtained through the database during this time.

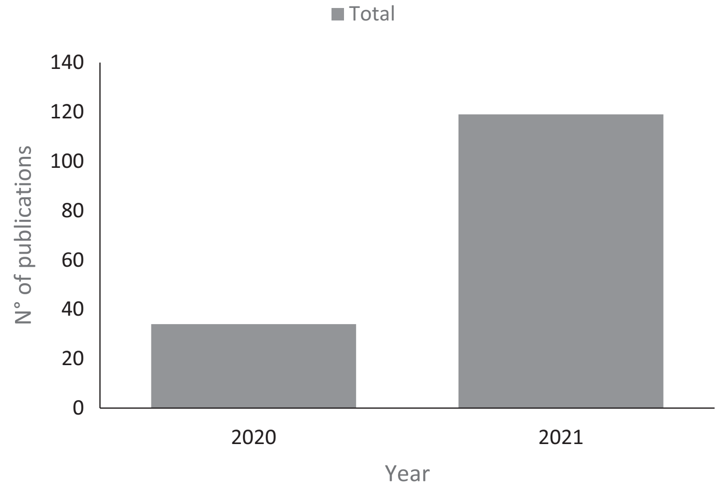

Fig. 3.2 Annual productivity. (Source: Own elaboration)

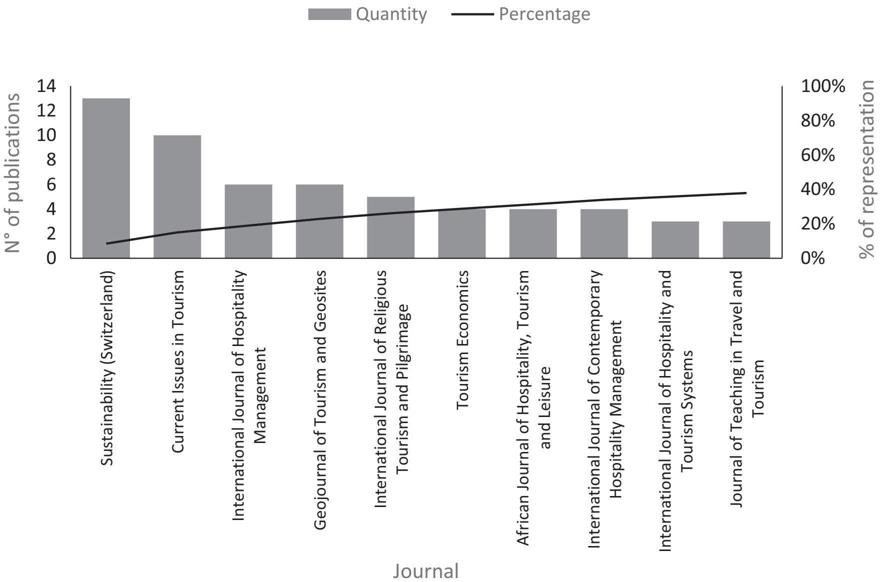

Fig. 3.3 Journals with the highest productivity. (Source: Own elaboration)

3.3.2 Indicators Associated with Journals

Regarding the analysis of journal productivity, Fig. 3.3 shows the journals with the highest number of publications and the percentage representation line corresponding to the accumulated quantity in each of the items. The *Swiss Journal of*

Sustainability is the one with the highest number of publications in this regard (13 publications), which corresponds to 8.5% of the total. This is an international and interdisciplinary open access academic journal on environmental, cultural, economic and social sustainability (Scimago Journal & Country Rank, n.d.-a, n.d.-b, n.d.-c, n.d.-d). Consecutively, the journal *Current Issues in Tourism* appears in second place with ten publications equivalent to 6.5% of the total. This journal belongs to the United Kingdom and aims to promote tourism by bringing together researchers for interdisciplinary debate and the substantiation of the theoretical basis for developing critical approaches and promoting new research related to tourism (Scimago Journal & Country Rank, n.d.-a, n.d.-b, n.d.-c, n.d.-d).

Although the journals mentioned herein lead the table in quantity indexes (measured by the number of publications), the same does not occur with quality indicators (measured by the number of citations) since, according to Fig. 3.4, the journal *Sustainability*, which is the first in productivity, appears in the seventh position in the ranking of citations. The journal *Current Issues in Tourism*, second in productivity, appears in the fourth position in these impact measures.

On the other hand, the *Journal of Business Research*, which is not part of the first ten journals in productivity, appears in the first place corresponding to the list of a number of citations, with a total of 392, which represents 23% of the total results provided by the Scopus database related to the object of study and compared to the other journals that have published on the subject. This journal, unlike those

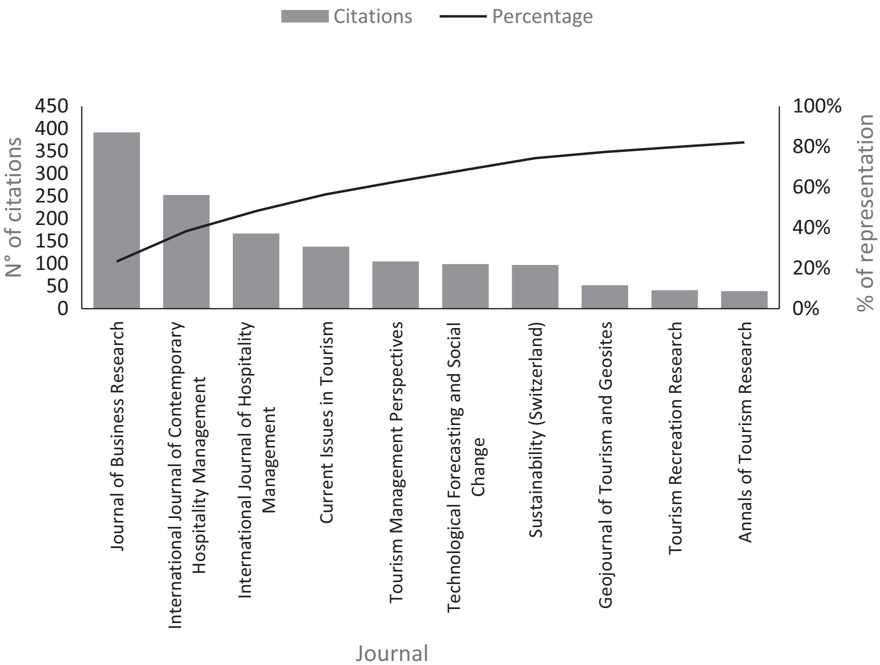

Fig. 3.4 Citations by the journal. (Source: Own elaboration)

mentioned above, does not have a focus directly associated with tourism and/or sustainability but examines a wide variety of business decisions, processes and activities related to theoretical and empirical advances applied to practical situations in the business world (Scimago Journal & Country Rank, n.d.-a).

It should also be noted that the *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management* also has an administrative focus and appears in the same way in the quantity indexes, occupying third place with six publications and second place in quality indexes with 253 citations, representing 15% of the total. This journal establishes a relationship between researchers and managers by promoting identifying theoretical and practical elements specifically for hotel management (Scimago Journal & Country Rank, n.d.-b, n.d.-c, n.d.-d).

3.3.3 Indicators Associated with Countries

Concerning the quantity indicators relating to productivity by country, it was found that the United States and the United Kingdom lead the list of publications with 16 documents each, representing 21% of the global percentage of research on the impact of COVID-19 on tourism. These countries have addressed the issue from the multiple generalities of the problems caused by the pandemic, from the financial point of view (Clark et al., 2021), in supply chains (Aigbedo, 2021), or mammals (Usui et al., 2021), as characteristics of the hotel industry and the tourism sector. India follows this with 12 papers (7%) and Spain with 9 publications (5%). China, Portugal, Indonesia, South Africa, Macao and Taiwan complete the list of the top 10 producers, as shown in Fig. 3.5.

For the quality indicators, referring to the number of citations per country, it was identified that Australia leads the list with 423 citations, representing 25% of the overall number of citations referring to the object of study, as explained by publications that focus on understanding the overall impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic to restart economic and industrial activity (Sigala, 2020), and the United Kingdom appears again in the second position with 329 citations (20%). Spain follows with 153 citations (9%), the United States with 150 citations (9%) and Turkey with 106 citations (6%), completing the top 5 positions in the ranking. The other countries participating in this indicator can be seen in Fig. 3.6.

3.3.4 Indicators Associated with the Authors

Regarding the concentration of authors (Fig. 3.7), those with the highest academic output are of different nationalities. The author with the highest production is C.C. Lee from China's School of Economics and Management, Nanchang University. This author has publications associated with the profitability of hospitality and tourism stocks in China after the economic impact generated by COVID-19

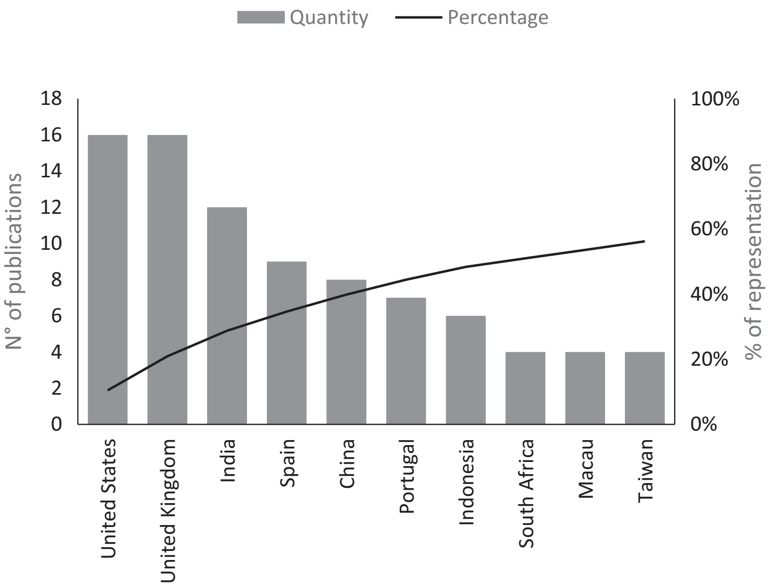

Fig. 3.5 The number of publications by country. (Source: Prepared by the authors)

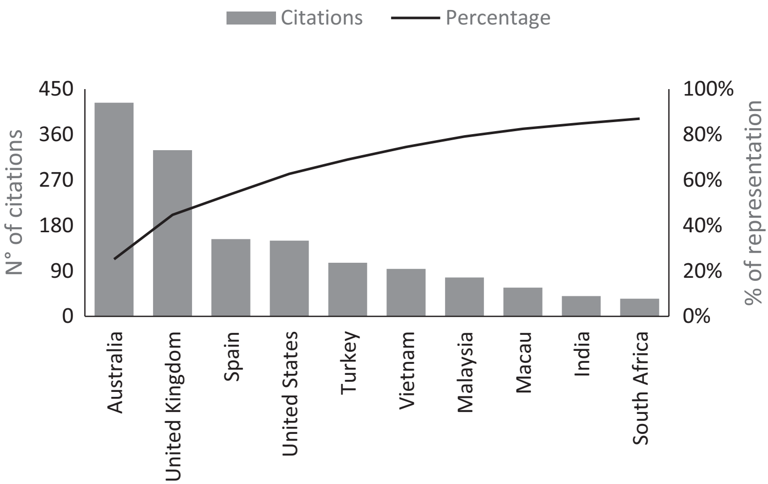

Fig. 3.6 Citations by country. (Source: Own elaboration)

(Wu et al., 2021). Another of the most productive authors is V. Vega, who is associated with the Universidad Regional Autónoma de Los Andes (UNIANDES) in Ecuador and has conducted studies related to the impact of COVID-19 on world tourism (Vega et al., 2020), particularly the impact it had on the Latin American and Caribbean region (Vega et al., 2021). The third author who stands out for his academic production on the subject is Lim, W. M., associated with the Swinburne

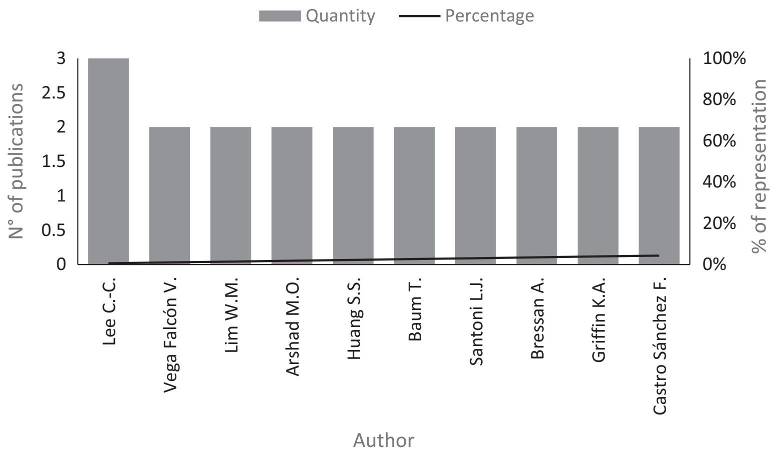

Fig. 3.7 Authors with the highest number of publications. (Source: Own elaboration)

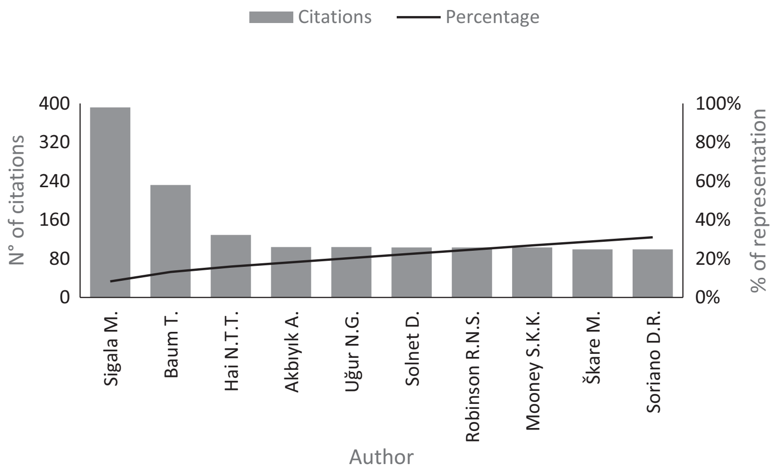

Fig. 3.8 Authors with the highest number of citations. (Source: Own elaboration)

University of Technology Sarawak Campus in Malaysia. This author has published on the economic impact of the pandemic on the tourism industry, showing as a case study the tourism sector of Macao in southern China (Lim & To, 2021).

The other authors who stand out for their production on the subject belong to countries such as India, the United Kingdom, Argentina, Australia and Ireland, showing that the subject has been widely studied in different regions of the world and that it has attracted the attention of universities and researchers as a current issue throughout the time that the pandemic has been developing.

As for citations by author, as shown in Fig. 3.8, a slight change is observed since only one of the most productive authors is found, showing that the amount of production on the subject is not a determining factor for greater impact. The most cited author with 392 mentions is M. Sigala, associated with the University of Piraeus in Greece. This author writes about the impacts and implications for the tourism industry and research associated with tourism from COVID-19, relating the type and scale of impacts (Sigala, 2020).

The second most cited author is also one of the most productive, T. Baum, with 232 citations, is associated with the University of Strathclyde in the United Kingdom; this author makes publications associated with the impact of COVID-19 on the hospitality workforce showing tentative conclusions that question the attitude of consumers, governments and the industry in general towards hospitality and its workers (Baum et al., 2020). Additionally, he writes in conjunction with another of the most cited authors, N. T. T. Hai, with 129 citations, an associate professor at the Ho Chi Minh National Academy of Politics in Vietnam. Together they analyse the impacts of COVID-19 associated with tourism and human rights, showing that, particularly in parts of Asia, Europe and North America, they were affected on a scale unprecedented in peacetime (Baum & Hai, 2020).

The other authors who stand out have between 104 and 99 citations. The number of citations presented by the authors in the different articles shows the impact that this topic has at present, since analysing the time that has elapsed since the pandemic, a large amount of associated research and a great interest in learning about and replicating this topic can be identified.

3.3.5 Structure Indicators

Structure indicators are based on the degree of participation of different authors and institutions and the collaborations made with other research units (Ávila-Toscano et al., 2014). Thus, a research unit's collaboration and citation frequency can be studied in more detail by analysing citation patterns. This indicator aims to track informal knowledge influences and networks, determine the extent of the impact of the research community and establish collaboration among them (Gutiérrez & Velasco, 2017). For this research work, the analysis of the structure indicators is carried out from the information provided by a series of figures developed with the VOSviewer software. This procedure is implemented to build and display maps that show the structure of the variables and verify their reference networks.

3.3.6 Relationship of Keywords

Figure 3.9 identifies four predominant clusters associated with the relationship of keywords found in the articles whose most important point of connection is through the central themes of the article: COVID-19 and tourism. The following analysis shows the different clusters and the topics addressed in each of them.

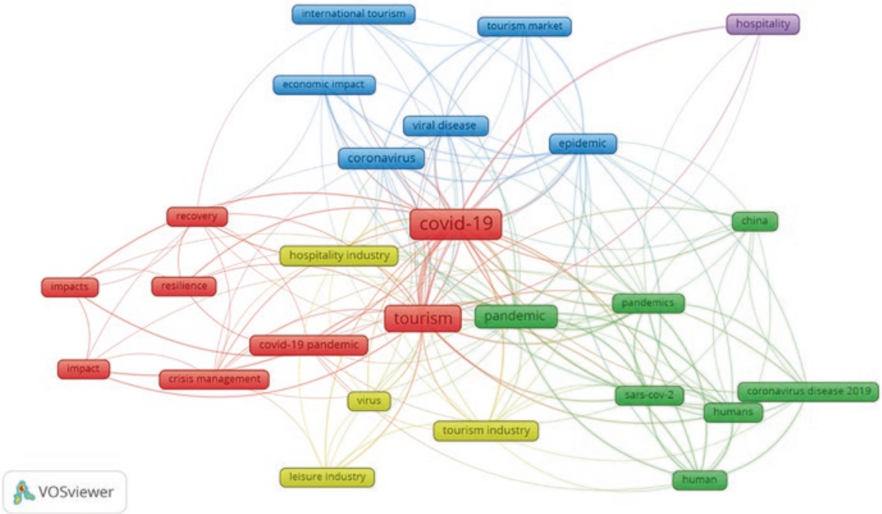

Fig. 3.9 List of keywords. (Source: Own elaboration based on VOSviewer software)

The red cluster brings together the article's main themes, pointing out different impacts suffered by the tourism industry as a result of the pandemic. Among the impacts, it can be associated with the sociocultural, economic, psychological and political effects (Sigala, 2020), most of which are incalculable due to the lack of knowledge of the course and duration of COVID-19 (Uğur & Akbıyık, 2020). Additionally, the issue of resilience adopted by tourism businesses and agencies to adapt to the pandemic is addressed because a series of measures, changes and adjustments derived from the new order and associated with the different community, economic and systemic fronts had to be included, which represent important implications for the tourism industry (Duarte Alonso et al., 2020).

The yellow cluster groups the tourism, leisure and hospitality industries, showing that different regions have seen poor performance during COVID-19, identifying that the outbreak had catastrophic repercussions in each phase associated with the tourism industry (Khan et al., 2021). This significant change that took place in the wake of the pandemic is related to the decline in supply and demand in leisure and hospitality services due to the restrictions imposed, closures and other mobility limitations and due to the impacts suffered in the industry's supply chains and suppliers (Lu et al., 2021). In this regard, studies show the importance of taking measures to help this industry by providing credit expansion, giving a direct capital injection and granting tax breaks to boost entrepreneurial activities in the leisure and hospitality sector (Khan et al., 2021).

The green cluster relates human activity associated with the pandemic, directly showing China as an important country in this cluster. Overall, immediate economic loss associated with COVID-19 is identified in China and concern and uncertainty about recovery. There are plans to transform business structures in this country and seek directions and policies to restore market confidence (Knight et al., 2020).

Finally, the blue cluster focuses on the economic impact of the pandemic on international tourism and the tourism market in general. It is estimated that the impacts generated by the pandemic on the tourism industry will be uneven across time and space. In particular, it shows a major economic impact at the international level, with international tourist arrivals estimated to be reduced by 78%, generating losses of up to US$1.2 trillion in tourism export revenues worldwide and 120 million jobs lost in the industry. This information is very important since tourism represents one of the most significant contributors to the GDP of several countries, focusing on tourism and COVID-19 as epicentres of several international debates and economies (Sigala, 2020).

In this way, the keyword relation allows giving a general context of the topic that this article deals with, showing the main debates held around the pandemic and the tourism industry and highlighting the most important connections.

3.3.7 Co-Authorship Relationships

Figure 3.10 identifies co-authorship among countries, showing that the topic has been addressed in different regions from different realities and points of view. It can be seen that, in general, the boxes have the same proportions, which indicates that, in terms of co-authorship, there are no countries that stand out in this area.

The closeness between the boxes speaks to the strength of co-authorship exercised by each country, like Poland and Spain, showing a close relationship indicating that they have extensively studied this phenomenon together. The opposite case occurs between China and Australia, which show a significant distance despite being in the same cluster. This fact may be because they deal with related topics but have not worked strongly together, and their co-authorship is more linked to other countries (Eck & Waltman, 2009).

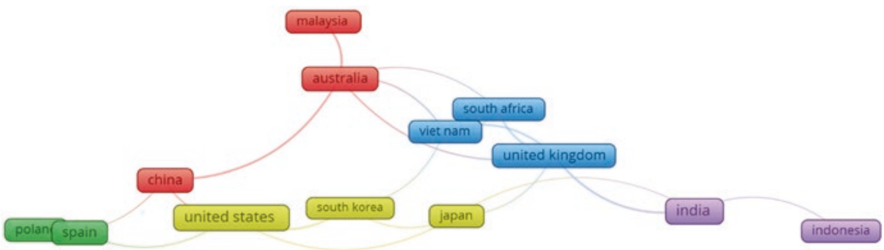

Fig. 3.10 Co-authorship between countries. (Source: Own elaboration based on VOSviewer software)

3.4 Implications

It is important to recognize the role of tourism within regional economies, so studies to understand the dynamics of the environment close to the communities are of vital importance. This study aims to encourage the development of further advances in the different areas of knowledge in which tourism has both theoretical and practical scopes. Developing models for understanding users, their needs and intentions under post-pandemic conditions is vital for future markets. Similarly, advances in the labour dynamics arising from traditional tourism and the consequences of COVID-19 in current and future scenarios need to be studied.

New forms of tourism focused on digital aspects will be expected to be investigated, allowing the consumer different tourism experiences with virtual interactions without physical manifestations in the place. This type of tourism promises to be a trend in which technological advances enable new ventures in different destinations. This fact promotes technological development and integrates the study of the impacts it can have on physical destinations, the economy, user perceptions and related pedagogical aspects.

Further research on the impact of COVID-19 on tourism is expected in the coming years, particularly on topics that are gaining momentum, such as tourism social enterprises (Sigala, 2020). Those were born to boost communities' economic development and solve the pandemic's social problems, providing support and livelihood to different sectors throughout the tourism network. On the other hand, studies associated with the importance of leisure and dispersion in tourist spaces as fundamental rights and needs of workers are expected (Baum & Hai, 2020).

3.5 Conclusions

Tourism, as one of the sectors of great relevance for the world economy, has a very important role within the socio-economic dynamics of the regions, which is why it can be seen how COVID-19 impacts it directly, as evidenced by the growing number of publications where it is the main topic of discussion.

Since it is a pandemic, the effects it has on the sector are evident throughout the world, but it should be noted that the countries with the greatest participation in the progress and development of studies on the subject are those that are most dependent on tourism or in which tourism represents an important part of their GDP.

Regarding the authors who publish the most on the subject, it can be observed that they belong to different regions of the world, which shows the great research interest that different institutions and organizations have in knowing the effects of the pandemic on the tourism industry. Additionally, it is identified that the most productive authors are not those with the most significant impact on the subject; it is common for an author to stand out as a reference with only one associated publication.

The list of keywords allows for identifying the most important topics that are currently being dealt with in the tourism industry and COVID-19. The clusters studied deal with different fields associated mainly with the impacts generated in hospitality, leisure and tourism in general, emphasizing the great economic losses suffered at the international level in all stages associated with the industry and the effects generated in many countries largely dependent on tourism.

In addition, particular cases are studied, such as China, a country directly related to the beginning and evolution of the pandemic, where the great difficulties suffered are shown. Finally, some measures and actions necessary to overcome the pandemic are provided, focused mainly on providing economic support to tourism companies to strengthen the sector and highlighting resilience and reinvention as important factors to cope with the difficulties that arose.

However, it should be clarified that the present study is carried out considering the effects during the first years of the pandemic. Therefore, it is limited to investigating the initial impact on the tourism sector caused by the contingency. Therefore, following up on the phenomenon is recommended since the virus is still under investigation. New findings may emerge in the scientific field to prove or disprove the current hypotheses, which would eventually be reflected in the different sectors of the economy.

At the moment, taking into account the results of the structure analysis and the concern of the tourism industry in the different socio-economic factors in which they have been affected, it is expected that, due to the resilience adopted by tourism companies and agencies to adapt to the pandemic, future research in this field will be conducted according to the recovery after the economic opening and the repercussions according to the strategies implemented with the contingency. In addition to this, it will be important to study the psychological aspects due to the uncertainty and the effects they may cause in this new stage of recovery.

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Chapter 4
Impacts of the COVID-19 Pandemic on Tourism Livelihoods in Island Destinations: The Case of Cagbalete Island, Quezon, Philippines

Rielle Christian D. Alcantara

Abstract Rural communities in island destinations that engage in tourism livelihoods are among those who were adversely affected by the travel restrictions and safety protocols imposed due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Using the sustainable livelihoods approach (SLA), this chapter examines the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on an island tourism destination in the Philippines. This chapter describes the case of Cagbalete, an island destination off the coast of the municipality of Mauban, Quezon province, Philippines. Using a qualitative approach, this case study highlights the experiences of the island's residents before and during the pandemic. To examine the sustainability of their livelihoods, the livelihood portfolio, capital assets, vulnerability context, response to shocks and stresses, and livelihood outcomes in Cagbalete were evaluated. Research findings showed that the prolonged isolation caused by the pandemic significantly affected the capital assets, livelihood strategies, and livelihood outcomes. The vulnerability of Cagbalete as an island destination and its residents' lack of land tenure highly influenced the sustainability of livelihoods on the island. While tourism remains a preferred source of livelihood for the residents, it should be developed alongside other non-tourism activities such as agriculture and fisheries to become sustainable.

Keywords COVID-19 · Island tourism · Sustainable livelihood approach · Destination · Sustainability of livelihoods · Cagbalete island

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4.1 Introduction and Background

In March 2020, the World Health Organization (WHO) declared the COVID-19 a pandemic. In a joint statement from the International Labour Organization (ILO), Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) and World Health Organization (WHO) (ILO, FAO, IFAD, & WHO, 2020), the pandemic was recognized as a converging crisis on food security, public health and employment and labour issues. It has caused massive economic and social disruptions, putting millions of people at risk of losing their livelihoods and exposing them to extreme poverty (Dube, 2022).

Travel restrictions were experienced with the other pandemics of the twenty-first century (SARS, bird flu, MERS, Ebola), but none of them was as devastating to national economies and public health as COVID-19 (Gössling et al., 2020). Due to the restrictions imposed on non-essential travel, the travel and tourism industry is one of the most affected sectors in terms of economic and livelihood losses. According to the World Tourism Organization (2020), nearly one and a half additional indirect or induced jobs are created for every direct tourism job. An estimated 100 million direct jobs are at risk because of COVID-19. In the Philippines, the tourism industry lost 2.6 million workers and 54% of its revenue due to losses in tourist arrivals due to the temporary closure of tourism businesses in the country at the beginning of 2020 (Manila Bulletin, 2020). Small island developing states (SIDs), and least developed countries (LDCs), are also heavily affected because tourism comprises a large majority of their economic activity (World Tourism Organization, 2020).

Islands have long been popular venues for tourism activities and are recognized as top destinations that tourists visit yearly. The remarkable geography of islands provides them with unique natural and cultural resources (World Tourism Organization, n.d.) that serve as favourable assets for tourism development. According to Cheer (2020), tourism helps diversify typical island livelihoods (e.g. fisheries, agriculture, remittances) and provides locals with cash income opportunities. Small islands and small island states consider tourism as an instrument for economic growth and a platform for raising awareness of environmental protection issues (Kurniawan et al., 2016).

Unfortunately, the unique characteristics of island destinations are also the source of their many vulnerabilities and challenges. Kurniawan et al. (2016) argue that small islands have "remote location, limited resources, high dependency on imported goods, high incurring transportation costs, and susceptibility to natural disasters" (p. 310). Cheer (2020) includes "narrow economic bases, proportionately small resident populations, limited range of services, dependence on modest transport networks, and resource scarcity" (p. 135) among their unique conditions. Despite these vulnerabilities, many small island states engage in tourism to enhance livelihoods. Likewise, some islands only have tourism to turn to because their local conditions cannot support other economic activities (McLeod et al., 2021).

However, tourism in island destinations is not without its problems. Over the years, it has been responsible for environmental degradation, social unrest and economic leakages, among many other issues (Cheer, 2020; Kurniawan et al., 2016). However, given the vulnerabilities of small islands and the role tourism fulfils, the current direction of island tourism research is geared toward resiliency rather than suitability for sustainability (Cheer, 2020; McLeod et al., 2021).

Livelihood combines "capabilities, assets, and activities required for a means of living" (Chambers & Conway, 1991, p. 6). Livelihood development is essential in rural communities because its residents have limited assets and limited access to resources such as education, skills, finances and land (Independent Evaluation Group, 2017; Ramos et al., 2012). Most of them depend on agricultural or farm activities. However, their access to market and public services is restricted because of their remote location (Green & Zinda, 2013). The sustainable livelihoods approach (SLA) was developed to address these, with programs to help improve their quality of life (Scoones, 2009; UNDP, 2017).

The SLA is a people-centred development approach that believes in people's participation, especially the poor, in defining the cause of poverty and finding solutions to overcome them (Ashley & Carney, 1999). The SLA is premised on the idea that sustainable livelihood strategies and outcomes are attained when they are built on capital assets available in the community. These assets should be assessed in light of their vulnerabilities and the structures and processes that influence their quantity, quality and access (Carney, 1998; UNDP, 2017). Livelihoods are sustainable when they can cope with and recover from shocks and stresses, maintain or enhance their capabilities and assets and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation (Chambers & Conway, 1991).

However, the SLA also has its weaknesses. Scoones (2009) and Andriesse (2017) pointed out that the SLA's emphasis on the local context of communities has made it ineffective in dealing with significant shifts in global markets and economies, including the impacts of climate change. To better adapt to these changes, the SLA must reflect the dynamic nature of livelihoods across scales of development, including the ever-increasing non-traditional and non-farm activities in rural areas, like those in the tourism industry.

Using the SLA, this chapter examines the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on an island tourism destination in the Philippines. It describes the case of Cagbalete, an island destination off the coast of the municipality of Mauban, Quezon province, Philippines. Using a qualitative approach, it highlights the experiences of the island's residents before and during the pandemic. Specifically, using the case of Cagbalete island, this chapter aims to:

1. Describe the context and livelihood portfolio of the community, including the shocks and stresses they have experienced and how they responded to them
2. Identify the pandemic's impacts on the community's livelihoods
3. Examine the local government's role in responding to the impacts of the pandemic on the community's livelihoods

This chapter is presented in four sections: introduction and background, materials and methods, presentation and discussion of findings, and conclusion.

4.2 Materials and Methods

4.2.1 Research Site

The tourism potential of the municipality of Mauban was recognized as early as 1998. Its development as a significant sector, however, only began sometime in 2015, at a time when the production of the local fisheries sector was experiencing an annual decline caused by years of overfishing beyond the replenishable levels. Tourism was regarded as "an important economic interest because of its quick and high monetary returns in exchange for a relatively easier physical activity than farming and fishing" (Municipal Tourism Office of Mauban, 2017, p. 23). Cagbalete island, the main tourist attraction of Mauban, was the centre of the town's tourism.

Cagbalete island is situated in Lamon Bay, along the eastern coastline of Mauban, Quezon province (see Fig. 4.1). It has a total land area of 1950.32 hectares and is divided into barangay Cagbalete I (1132.15 hectares) and barangay Cagbalete II (818.17 hectares). Barangay is the local Filipino term for the village and is the smallest administrative division in the Philippines. Based on the 2015 census, Cagbalete I has a population of 3304 individuals, while Cagbalete II has 528 individuals. Both are classified as rural barangays (Municipality of Mauban, 2021). Cagbalete is approximately 13.31 km from Mauban Port, and it takes 30 minutes to an hour to reach the island by boat.

The residents of Cagbalete participate in tourism as tourist porters, tour guides, hired help in resorts and owners of cottage businesses. Tourism was perceived as beneficial in diversifying the livelihoods of the locals on the island. Unfortunately, tourism development in the town has also negatively impacted the local community, such as overpriced fish and overcrowding during peak seasons. Other difficulties identified were "poor waste disposal and segregation, meagre coastal resource management, children diving for coins, and preference of local fishermen to sell caught fish to tourists for higher prices" (Municipal Tourism Office of Mauban, 2017, p. 32).

4.2.2 Research Design

This study used a case study approach to examine the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on rural communities engaged in tourism livelihoods. Key informant interviews (KIIs), household questionnaires, observation, and a validation workshop were done for data gathering. Secondary data from government documents and other available publications were also gathered.

Due to the risk of COVID-19 infection, the researcher underwent necessary tests and procedures before visiting the research site. Appropriate physical distancing protocols were also observed during face-to-face interviews. Field visit for data gathering and validation was conducted during the first and third quarters of 2021.

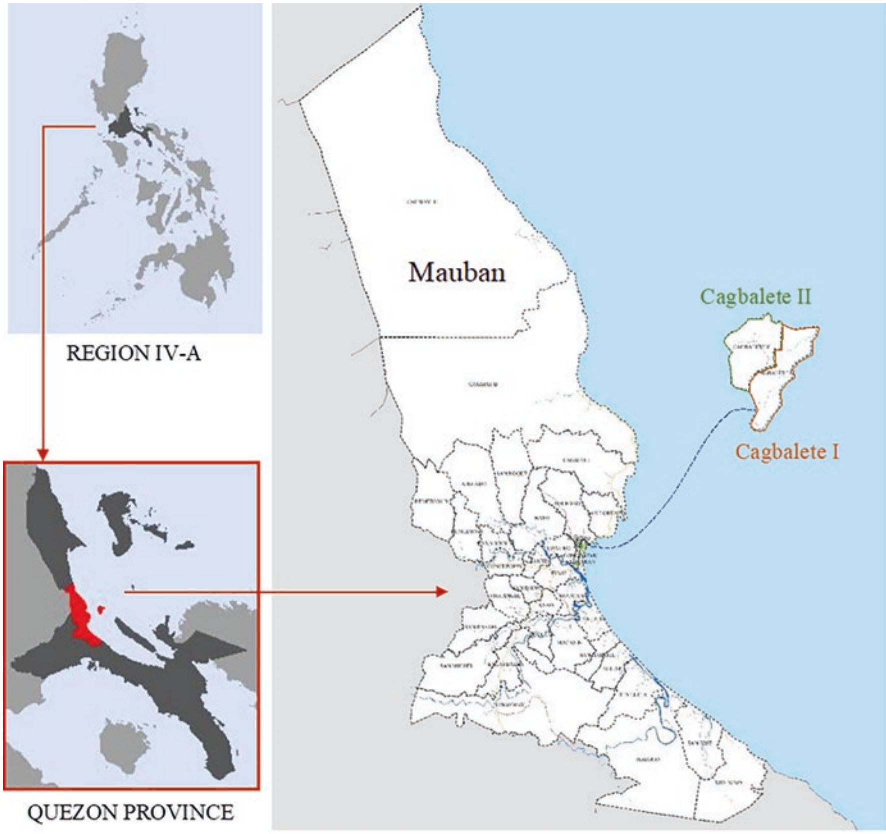

Fig. 4.1 Location of Cagbalete island. (Note: Adapted from the municipal boundary map of Mauban, Quezon. In *Integrated Disaster Risk Management and Climate Change Action Plan* (Municipality of Mauban, 2020, p. 4))

4.2.3 Research Respondents

Four groups of respondents were interviewed for this research. These included residents of Cagbalete I (13), residents of Cagbalete II (13), local government officials (7) and community organization representatives (9). There was a total of 45 respondents. For the residents of Cagbalete I and Cagbalete II, purposive and convenience sampling were used to identify households whose livelihood portfolio includes tourism activities. A total of 26 residents from different homes were interviewed, ranging from 20 to 69 years. Male and female respondents were equally distributed. Seven local government officials were interviewed. This included the barangay captains of Cagbalete I and II, a barangay councillor from Cagbalete I and officials from the Municipal Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Office (DRRMO), Municipal Environment and Natural Resources Office (MENRO), Municipal

Planning and Development Office (MPDO) and Mauban Arts, Culture, and Tourism (M-ACT) office.

Nine community organization groups were endorsed by the M-ACT office based on their involvement in tourism activities on the island. They included the following:

- Cagbalete I Motorbike Association
- Cagbalete Hilot Wellness Workers Association
- Cagbalete Resort Association Incorporated
- Lamon Bay Aqua Farmers Association
- Sitio Dapi Farmers Association
- Small Boat Association
- Souvenir Makers Association
- Tour Guides Association (*Samahan ng mga Tour Guid*e)
- Vendors Association (*Maglalako ng Isda*)

4.3 Presentation and Discussion of Findings

On 11 February 1859, brothers Benedicto, Jose, and Manuel Pansacola purchased the island of Cagbalete from the Spanish government as their joint property. It was distributed among the brothers and their heirs on 11 April 1868 (Del Banco et al. v Intermediate Appellate Court et al., 1987). To this day, it remains largely privately owned, despite selling and donating some parcels of land. Local tenants and migrants from Bohol, Cebu and some from the provinces of Bicol and Central Luzon currently live on the island. Barangay Cagbalete I is locally referred to as Uno, while barangay Cagbalete II is called Dos.

Cagbalete I (Uno) lies in the south-eastern part of Cagbalete island and has 13 sitios. It is the immediate barangay facing the main town of Mauban and serves as the main entry point to the island through the Sabang Port. Because of its accessibility, Uno serves as the primary commercial and tourism hub of Cagbalete, with most of the retail stores and beach resorts. Around 86% of Cagbalete's total population are residents of Uno. It has no farm to market roads or means of public transportation, so residents rely on walking and riding private motorcycles to get around the barangay. With only 40,000 square meters of public land, the majority of the residents in Uno are considered tenants (Cagbalete I Barangay Socioeconomic Profile & Development Plan, 2020).

Cagbalete II (Dos) is in the north-western part of Cagbalete island and has seven sitios. It faces the Pacific side of Lamon Bay and is known to have strong sea currents. From the port in Uno, it usually takes an hour by foot, or a 30-minute boat ride, to reach Dos. There is no farm to market road in this barangay either, and residents get around by walking or riding private motorcycles. Small sundry or *sari-sari* stores are available in the barangay, but residents of Dos often go to Uno or the main town to buy supplies. Residents of Dos are tenants whose livelihoods are primarily agriculture based. Compared to Uno, tourism activities in the barangay are not common due to its lower accessibility and lack of proper services and establishments.

4.3.1 Livelihood Strategies

Small-scale fishing is the primary source of livelihood in Uno. Men go out to the sea to fish through cast-net fishing or spearfishing, which they sell either in the main town or within the island. Because there is no marketplace in Cagbalete, women usually go around on foot to sell their catch. Small retail stores that sell groceries and dry goods are common in Uno. Other livelihood activities in the barangay include being a passenger boat operator, passenger boat crew, moneylender, labourer, and farmer. However, farming is only available to a few residents, mostly members of the local farming association. A few also engage in raising livestock. Chicken and pigs are raised on open fields for personal consumption and to sell on the island.

On the other hand, agriculture is the primary livelihood source in Dos. Due to the abundance of coconuts in the area, copra processing is the most common livelihood activity, followed by planting rice and bananas. Planting vegetables and root crops, raising livestock and fishing are common but are primarily for personal consumption. Other livelihoods in Dos include managing *sari-sari* stores, selling ready-to-eat meals or snacks, and manual work either through carpentry or as hired help during the rice harvest.

Tourism activities in Cagbalete are mostly concentrated in Uno. Resorts are the only recognized tourism establishments on the island. Out of the 20 registered resorts, 19 are in Uno, and only one is in Dos (see Fig. 4.2). Most of these resorts are owned and managed by descendants of the Pansacola family. On weekends, especially during the peak tourism months of March until early June, small eateries or canteens are opened to serve meals to visitors. When the resorts are at full capacity, some residents also convert their houses for homestays to meet the excess demand for accommodations. However, these houses are not formally recognized as tourism establishments.

Many residents in Uno are involved in tourism-related livelihoods such as souvenir making, boat rental services, selling food to visitors or hired cooks or offering already cooked meals. In resorts, residents are often hired as room attendants or maintenance staff, while those who underwent special training or practice work as massage therapists or fire dancers for entertainment. Motorcycle rides, also known as *habal-habal*, are a standard transportation service for visitors. Visitors who ride private boats are dropped off in front of the resorts, but those who ride the public passenger boat walk from the Sabang Port. Usually, the local tour guides assist these visitors in reaching their respective resorts.

Male residents are involved in boat rental, *habal-habal,* and tour guiding services. These tourism activities become ideal sources of supplementary income, especially with minimal fish catch. Compared to the long hours they spend in the sea, tourism is also considered an easier activity to earn a higher income. On the other hand, female residents are more involved in souvenir making, cooking, room services and being massage therapists. Aside from selling the fish their husbands had caught, most women in the barangay had no other source of income before

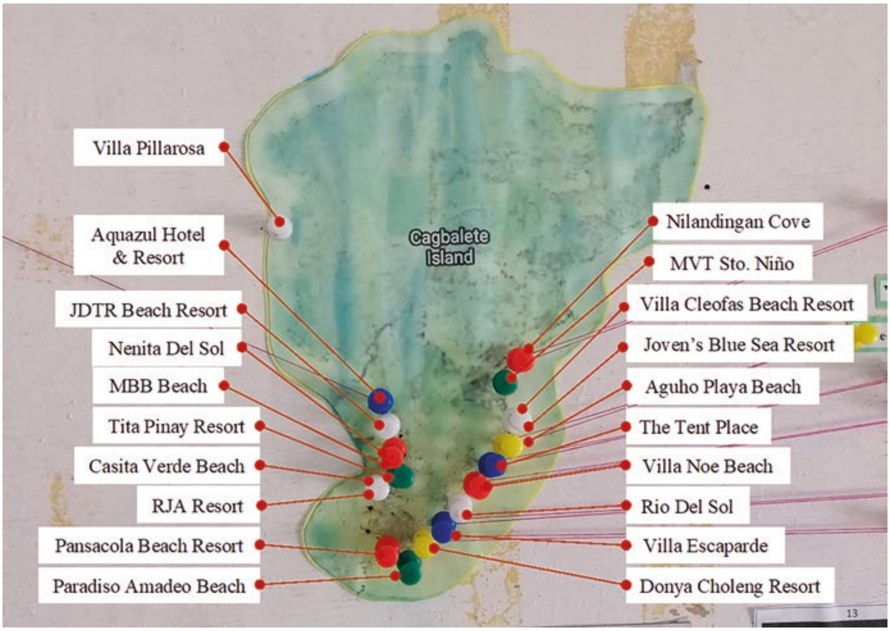

Fig. 4.2 Location of beach resorts on Cagbalete island

tourism flourished in Cagbalete. However, when tourism developed, several livelihood opportunities opened up for them. Women's tourism participation enabled them to financially contribute to their families' welfare.

Except for the tenants of the only resort in Dos, the residents of this barangay have minimal to zero interaction with visitors on the island. Boat owners would occasionally engage in boat rentals or island-hopping activities, and some men in the community would join as boat crew for extra income. However, as recognized and expressed by the respondents from Dos, their involvement with the overall tourism activity on the island is not as significant when compared to the residents of Uno. Aside from having limited tourism services and establishments in the barangay, the distance and limited accessibility hinder them from getting a share of the employment opportunities provided by tourism.

4.3.2 Capital Assets (Dependence on External Resources)

Respondents from Uno and Dos have shared that the fishing and farming activities on the island are just enough to help them get by and feed their families. Unfortunately, due to challenges in irrigation, the local produce on the island is mostly for subsistence consumption. No rice mills are on the island, and large-scale poultry is prohibited due to sanitation concerns. Especially in Uno, the supply of drinking water, rice, vegetables, meat, and other groceries is shipped from the main town. Other materials that must be imported to the island are fertilizers, animal feed, construction materials and medicines. Dry goods such as clothing and school supplies are bought from Lucena City.

As far as tourism-based livelihood activities are concerned, the only activity that imports materials is souvenir making. A supplier from Manila supplies raw materials for keychains, magnets and shirts.

4.3.3 Vulnerability Context

Typhoons are the most common disasters experienced in Cagbalete. Respondents from Uno expressed that those typhoons prevent them from fishing; in Dos, strong typhoons can destroy crops. The bad weather also prevents boats from plying, limiting tourist arrivals on the island. On average, typhoons occur twice a year in Mauban; destructive ones have an average return period of 9 years. The MDRRMO, however, observed that typhoons passing through the municipality have become more frequent since 2006 (Municipality of Mauban, 2021, p. 16).

After typhoons, the biggest cause for concern is the northeast monsoon, also known as *amihan*. This is experienced as early as September and lasts until February, affecting residents' mobility to fish and travel. It is during this season that waves are often high and unpredictable. According to respondents, the gale warnings issued by the Philippine Coast Guard would sometimes go on for days and would affect the supply of food and other available goods on the island. This also affects residents who must go to the main town for work or sell their produce. Tourism activities are also affected because strong winds generate high waves even if the weather is sunny. This often results in visitors stranded on the island or at the main town port.

Flooding is another vulnerability on the island. It often occurs in low-lying and natural catchment areas, where rainwater is not easily absorbed or dispersed. Flooding also occurs in areas close to the shore during typhoons. In Uno, flooding makes it difficult for residents and visitors to walk around, especially when visiting the resorts. The barangay has limited paved and lighted pathways, which risks people's safety and security. Meanwhile, flooding destroys the crops in Dos. Water can reach waist high but eventually subsides in a day or two.

4.3.4 Response to Shocks and Stresses

When the northeast monsoon brings typhoons or strong waves, residents usually just wait for them to pass. Unfortunately, it often means no livelihood and, therefore, no income for them as well. While some farmers can get insurance for their crops and ask for support from the Department of Agriculture (DA), the loss of their hard work is still felt. It is common practice to stock up on the supply of food, drinking water, and medicine due to the difficulty of travelling to the main town. Boat owners dock their boats in safe places from the big waves.

Residents receive a warning from their barangay whenever a typhoon is expected. According to the respondents, their barangay officials are alert and quick in disseminating information. These officials go from house to house, encouraging families at risk of evacuating. The local elementary and high school facilities are designated evacuation centres in Uno, while the day-care centre, health centre and barangay hall are designated evacuation centres in Dos. Evacuees are given cooked food and relief goods. The barangays also assess the impacts of the typhoon and identify who is affected. Officials try to find ways to assist residents, especially those whose houses have been damaged.

4.3.5 Livelihood Outcomes Before the Pandemic

Before the pandemic, the livelihoods in Cagbalete enabled its residents to have more income, better access to food, better response to shocks and stresses, and higher well-being. When asked, a majority of the respondents from Uno answered that their livelihoods helped them attain these outcomes due to the diverse activities they participated in. Aside from agriculture and fishing activities, tourism development in the island opened livelihood opportunities such as tour guiding, souvenir making, massage therapy, boat rental services, habal-habal services and employment as resort staff. These livelihood activities enabled them to earn cash and were especially helpful when they had fewer fish to catch. The additional demand visitors create for food, services and other goods has also provided retailers with additional earnings. These benefits are felt most during the peak tourism months, from March to June. When there are fewer visitors during the lean months of July to February, they simply return to their agriculture and fishing activities.

Similarly, some respondents from Dos who actively engaged in tourism expressed that their livelihoods before the pandemic helped them achieve desirable livelihood outcomes. Respondents who answered otherwise were those whose activities were largely focused on agriculture. A few of them felt that the outcomes from their livelihoods were adequate – that while agriculture activities sufficiently provide for their needs, it does not provide them with the extra financial capital to give them access to other capital (e.g. boats for fishing, house improvement).

Respondents believed their livelihoods helped improve the quality of and access to natural resources in their community. They justified their answers by citing that they did not engage in illegal farming or fishing activities. Some also participated in activities to proactively protect the environment, such as planting mangroves.

Overall, the existing livelihoods in Cagbalete provided its residents with enough necessities for their living and survival. While they might not have high financial and physical capital, the natural resources found on the island are enough to feed the residents. In Dos, respondents did not feel the need to have lots of cash or access to loans because the crops they harvest are sufficient for sustenance. On the other hand, respondents from Uno can catch fish in the sea for their consumption even if they are more dependent on food from the mainland. Non-farm activities like tourism helped augment their resources, particularly when their livelihoods were affected by shocks (typhoons) and stresses (northeast monsoon, flooding) inherent to their location as an island community.

However, having enough is not necessarily good. Accessibility and better returns from agriculture and fishing activities are just some of the challenges communities in Cagbalete have faced, even before the pandemic. While respondents have indicated no concerns over their lack of land ownership on the island, their tenant status limits the productive opportunities they can access. Furthermore, infrastructure development on the island (e.g. roads) entails a lengthy process of approval and coordination with private landowners.

4.3.6 Impacts of the COVID-19 Pandemic

From March to May 2020, Cagbalete was placed under lockdown. Residents were restricted from leaving their houses, and all tourism activities on the island were halted. For almost 6 months, passenger boats were not allowed to operate; transit through private boats was limited. These restrictions hindered people's participation in their various livelihood activities. Some of the immediate impacts were as follows:

- At the onset of the pandemic, residents from Uno and Dos had difficulty securing supplies of food and other goods when the entire municipality of Mauban was in lockdown. They could not cross to the main town to replenish their stocks or buy necessities unavailable on the island. Farmers and fishers were prohibited from attending to their usual farming and fishing activities. Changes in their practices (e.g. fewer men aboard the boats) had to be made to comply with the physical distancing protocols that were in place.
- Due to the restrictions on mobility, many residents were unable to work. Everyone in the community experienced great loss, and even when the normal supply of goods resumed, people had less spending capacity due to reduced income opportunities. Lower purchasing power led to more people borrowing or delaying payment for the goods they buy. Trading their harvest and other farm produce also became difficult because transactions in the main town and other cities had stopped. Respondents specifically experienced decreases in the prices of fish and copra. The profits of small business owners decreased because they also needed to provide salaries to their workers, who had families to feed and support.
- While it is common to have multiple sources of livelihood in Cagbalete, there are plenty of residents whose main or most significant source of income is from tourism activities. This is primarily true for respondents from Uno, the centre of tourism on the island. For those working in tourism establishments, no guests meant no work; for those who sell fish, no visitors meant less income. In Dos, where the most common tourism activity is boating, no visitors meant no additional income from boat rentals.

Aside from these impacts, many respondents felt that the pandemic added more pressure to the burdens they were already experiencing in the community. The effects of the northeast monsoon made livelihood opportunities difficult for households relying on fishing. Some residents returned to the island after losing their jobs elsewhere. This, too, affected the finances of households. However, respondents from Uno and Dos recognize that despite the difficulties they had experienced, life on the island is straightforward and more bearable compared to urban areas. Their community's abundance of natural resources and close-knit relationships enable them to survive.

4.3.6.1 Responses to the COVID-19 Pandemic

Adapting the protocols of the national and local Inter-Agency Task Force (IATF) for COVID-19, residents of Cagbalete were required by their barangays to wear face masks and face shields and practice physical distancing. Activities such as gambling and drinking were prohibited, and residents were discouraged from loitering outside their houses. The following policies were implemented during the 3-month lockdown:

- A local curfew from 8 PM to 5 AM was implemented in Uno. However, it was not deemed necessary in Dos because, according to the respondents, their houses are far apart, and they sleep early anyway.
- Only one representative per household was allowed to leave the house and must strictly comply with their assigned schedules. Residents had to bring their quarantine passes when leaving for the main town and were fined otherwise.
- Boats were only allowed to travel to the main town on Tuesdays and Thursdays. Only one passenger boat at half capacity was allowed to travel.
- Outsiders were prohibited from going to the island.

Several relief aids were given to the residents of Cagbalete during the pandemic. They included bags of rice and groceries from the barangay, municipality, province, congress representative and some national agencies. Residents received cash aid, too, through the Social Amelioration Program (SAP) of the Department of Social Work and Development (DSWD).

Residents feared the virus during the first few months of the pandemic and strictly complied with the quarantine protocols. Whenever a resident reported a fever, the barangay health worker (BHW) would visit the patient to check and monitor their condition. However, when news of getting isolated and quarantined for 14 days reached the community, some refused to get checked. Some respondents of Uno even shared stories of how residents in their barangay used to hide whenever healthcare personnel would visit.

Unfortunately, as restrictions eased and residents slowly began to resume their usual activities, there have been mixed views on whether COVID-19 is true or not. Some respondents believe that it is true and still comply with the health protocols in place, while others believe that it is not true and was just made up. Some even alluded that the initial cases in Uno were planted just to scare the people.

4.3.6.2 Tourism During the Pandemic

The municipality of Mauban was strict in ensuring that no tourism activity on the island would resume until the quarantine restrictions were lowered. To prepare for the town's tourism reopening, some activities that the M-ACT office conducted were as follows:

- One-day training programs on soap and coco-bonsai making were conducted in barangays with established tourism attractions in Mauban. The goal of the training was to teach skills needed in creating potential souvenir items that they can still use and sell during the pandemic.
- To facilitate contactless payment with visitors who will enter Cagbalete, the municipal government of Mauban entered into a memorandum of agreement with Smart Pay Asia Philippines Inc. in December 2020. The system created by Smart Pay will help the M-ACT office monitor its visitors and centralize coordination with tourism service providers through established community organizations on the island. Services included in the booking are the point-to-point private boat transfers to the island, the parking lot in the main town (for visitors who brought cars) and the environment, tourism and administrative fee (a percentage of which is for the assigned porter).

On 5 February 2021, almost a year since its closure, Mauban started accepting visitors to Cagbalete. Based on the "New Normal Health and Safety Guidelines for Island and Beach Destinations" (Department of Tourism, 2020), the following policies and practices were implemented on the island:

- Pre-entry policy: Visitors who visit Cagbalete must stay at least overnight and register online through the website (maubantourism.smartpay.ph). In the tourist port, visitors are asked to present their valid ID and the online registration confirmation email. Registrations are confirmed only after all fees have been fully paid online. After going through the mandatory screening of checking body temperature and health declaration forms, visitors are given a Smart Pay bracelet meant for contactless payment to signify that they are guests on the island. Unfortunately, the contactless payment feature for other tourism services on the island is not yet operational. When travelling to the island, visitors may only ride private boats that will take them directly to the beach in front of the resort they booked.
- Guest handling policy: As of November 2021, 11 out of 20 resorts in Cagbalete were accredited. Visible signs reminded its guests that the safety protocols were in place, but while physical distancing was observed, visitors and staff did not consistently wear face masks.

- Public areas: Public areas are not open to visitors; they must only stay within the premises of their resorts. Ambulant vendors who sell food and souvenirs are also not allowed to go to resorts to minimize contact of locals with guests. In the event that there are symptomatic guests, they will be brought to the local isolation facility in the main town.

4.3.7 Livelihood Outcomes During the COVID-19 Pandemic

Residents' income in Cagbalete was significantly reduced since the beginning of the pandemic. During the lockdown, some respondents had no income at all. Respondents from Uno felt the loss of earnings from tourism. Having experienced how it was to earn a lot, especially during the peak season, they shared that there was a significant change in the flow of their finances. The respondents from Dos experienced financial difficulty too. However, it was not caused by the lack of tourism activities in the island, but by the difficulty of transporting their agricultural produce to the main town.

When asked what new or other livelihood activities they engaged in, to replace the lost opportunities from tourism, respondents said that men in their community reverted back to fishing. "Easy money" from boat rentals, *habal-habal* driving and guiding tours was lost, and they needed to go back to fishing to feed their family. With two trips per day, a boat rental could earn as much as PHP 3000 daily, and after dividing it among the boat crew, they earned more or less PHP 7000 per month. Meanwhile, *habal-habal* drivers earned as much as PHP 600 daily and up to PHP 9000 per month. Unfortunately, not all men in the community knew how to fish or had their own boats. They looked for labour work instead.

Women engaged in tourism were the most affected by the closure of the island. Souvenir makers and resort workers lost their source of income, while massage therapists no longer earned as much from providing service to their neighbours. Souvenir makers could earn as much as PHP 10,000 per month, but since the pandemic, earning even PHP 200 daily was considered good. Resort staff only got hired on days there are guests and receive a daily salary of PHP 250. Many women went back to selling fish (if there was an extra catch to sell) or "doing nothing" at home. They felt they lost their ability to earn and contribute to the financial needs of their families. Aside from the fees for their products and services, the respondents looked forward the most to the gratuity they received from guests.

Access to food was difficult during the early months of the pandemic. Due to the lockdown, local stores ran out of stock because no one could travel and buy from the main town. When the restrictions eased, the food supply went back to normal, but the purchasing power of residents decreased. Hence, relief goods from the government proved to be very helpful to the community. Big households felt that their access to food was reduced due to their reduced income. They had to decrease their expenses so that they could save.

Due to the restricted participation and decreased opportunities for livelihood, respondents from Uno and Dos felt that the impacts they experienced from typhoons and the northeast monsoon have worsened because of the pandemic. It added to their stress and worries because their livelihood activities were already limited. Respondents engaged in tourism felt they lost their opportunities twice due to a lack of earnings from tourism. Some respondents shared that there are also families in their community who really have nothing and rely heavily on the relief goods provided by the barangay.

Aside from the impacts on their livelihood, local DRRM responses to typhoons were also affected. In November 2020, when typhoon Ulysses struck, the capacity of their designated evacuation centres was reduced because they needed to maintain physical distancing protocols. Affected families found it challenging, especially those who had children. Some residents also feared getting infected by the virus and opted not to evacuate. Only a few respondents from both barangays thought that their experience of shocks and stresses remained the same during the pandemic. According to them, as long as you are hardworking, you will not go hungry.

At the start of the pandemic, the respondents were stressed and afraid of getting infected by COVID-19. They were worried about how their lives would continue and were worrying about their livelihood. While residents have started going out of their houses more since then, they are extra cautious when going to the main town. Some respondents are also wary of fully opening the island to visitors, even if it meant more livelihood opportunities. They understand that the community will be in a bad situation if its members get sick because they live on an island. Still, they cannot deny the sentiment that people in their community will not die from the virus but more likely from hunger. They wish to be careful about their health but also want more livelihood opportunities.

Respondents engaged in fishing believed that the quality and access to natural resources improved due to the limited boats and fishing activities allowed during the lockdown. It enabled the environment to rest, and some felt that there was more fish in the sea afterwards. They continuously planted mangroves, improving the coastal ecosystem's overall health.

While most respondents felt that there were no changes in their natural resources, one respondent from Dos noted that residents on the island took more notice of agricultural activities because they were not busy with visitors anymore. More farmlands were cleared and utilized because of the pandemic.

4.4 Conclusion

Livelihood strategies are shaped by existing community vulnerabilities, structures, and processes (Carney, 1998; UNDP, 2017). To be sustainable, it should be able to:

1. Cope with and recover from stress and shocks
2. Maintain or enhance capabilities and assets
3. Provide livelihood opportunities for the next generation
4. Contribute net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels in the short and long terms

Livelihood sustainability is important in rural communities with limited assets and highly reliant on agriculture and fishing activities (Green & Zinda, 2013; Independent Evaluation Group, 2017; Ramos et al., 2012). To diversify their livelihoods and help boost their economic growth, many rural communities have pursued tourism development to create jobs, generate investments (Marcouiller, 2013) and supplement their existing rural livelihood activities (Gabito, 2013). Unfortunately, tourism was one of the most affected industries during the COVID-19 pandemic because of travel restrictions and physical distancing protocols. To understand how this phenomenon affected livelihoods in rural communities, where tourism is a significant livelihood activity, this research conducted a case study of Cagbalete island – an island tourism destination off the coast of the municipality of Mauban in Quezon province.

Limited access and control over resources, remote and isolated locations, and susceptibility to natural disasters are key characteristics that describe the vulnerability of Cagbalete as an island destination. Its residents engage in agriculture, fishing, and tourism. However, livelihood enterprise opportunities on the island are limited because its residents are primarily tenants. Much of the land in Cagbalete is privately owned. Before the pandemic, natural disasters that restricted movement and destroyed crops and physical capital were the biggest challenges on the island. However, residents considered their impact and duration to be minimal. It has been a practice among locals to store food and other resources whenever they anticipate a typhoon. For those who participate in tourism activities, the earnings from tourism helped them recover their losses. Tourism provided additional livelihood in Cagbalete and helped locals enhance their assets and cope with shocks and stresses.

Unfortunately, the lockdowns and restrictions put in place because of the pandemic has brought unprecedented adverse impacts to the community. The absence of visitors to Cagbalete for more than a year, coupled with the difficulty of movement and fear of infection, limited the livelihood activities that residents could participate in. This led to a decline in livelihood outcomes, which also caused a decrease in the quality and access to resources.

Because of the nature of the pandemic, the local government of Mauban started with a multilateral approach in imposing lockdowns and controlling the movement of people to mitigate the community transmission of COVID-19. They played a crucial role in distributing relief aid to residents whose livelihoods and income were affected by travel restrictions and the absence of tourism activities. However, in reopening the island for tourism, they are transitioning into a multi-stakeholder approach by partnering with private companies and engaging with community organizations. Local governments continue to play a crucial role in monitoring the changes brought by the pandemic, and the degree of multilateral interventions they make varies depending on the severity of COVID-19 cases in their locality.

Tourism remains a preferred source of livelihood on the island, but it should be balanced with other non-tourism activities. Loss of opportunities to earn cash was the biggest impact of the pandemic, and according to the respondents, having other sources of income will help the survival of their families should they experience another prolonged period of isolation.

4.4.1 Sustainable Livelihoods in Rural Island Communities

The tourism experience of Cagbalete, particularly in barangay Uno, has helped diversify their livelihood portfolio before the pandemic. It can be inferred that tourism livelihoods in rural island communities like Cagbalete can be sustainable. However, if tourism was a sustainable source of livelihood in Cagbalete, why did it cause a drastic decline in the livelihood outcomes of locals during the pandemic? If tourism was a sustainable livelihood activity, then why has it not been able to recover from the effects of the pandemic?

Given the vulnerable context of small islands, reliance on external stakeholders in our current global economy has become a necessity, regardless of whether they engage in tourism livelihoods. With their limited resources, they need to source goods such as food, medicine and construction materials from other places and engage in trade to earn cash. The experience of Cagbalete showed that many of their resources are from outside the island. Their exposure to natural hazards affects their harvest and limits their trade opportunities. Furthermore, their earnings from tourism are seasonal, and they make the most out of it because the alternatives provide them with less cash. Self-sufficiency, as a requirement for sustainability, is almost impossible to attain for small island destinations like Cagbalete, and it echoes the results of island tourism research that rather than justifying the suitability of tourism, building resilience for the sustainable development of island communities should be the focus (Cheer, 2020; McLeod et al., 2021). The decline in the livelihood outcomes of locals engaged in tourism during the pandemic was because tourism was absent for an extended period. The diversification of livelihoods in Cagbalete was unsustainable because the development of agriculture and fishing activities was neglected. Locals allowed tourism to dominate their livelihood portfolio because it was easier to earn money from this.

The effects of the pandemic are unprecedented and are continuously unfolding. It is a crisis that has affected all industries in the world, and unfortunately, tourism destinations like Cagbalete were affected more because travelling was restricted during the pandemic. Still, rural communities have other livelihood activities they can engage in, and it can be inferred that the locals should continually develop fishing, farming and livestock raising.

However, tourism activity or not, sustaining livelihoods that provide locals with a better quality of life must involve addressing the source of their vulnerabilities. In Cagbalete, its natural vulnerabilities as an island destination are made more complex by its residents' lack of land ownership. The private land ownership of the island since 1859 has limited the development interventions by the local government and, ultimately, the community's freedom in using the resources.

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Chapter 5
Impact of COVID-19 on Tourism in South Africa: Building Resilience and Prospects for Recovery

Emmanuel Ndhlovu and Kaitano Dube

Abstract The literature on the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on businesses is all over the place, thereby making it of limited value to policymakers, business operators and practitioners. This has posed a directional challenge in building resilience and recovery strategies, especially for service industries such as tourism. Therefore, sector-specific studies are needed to generate a more mature scholarly debate recommending thought-out resilience and recovery strategies. Focusing on three sectors of the tourism industry in South Africa and drawing on critical document analysis, this chapter explores the impact of COVID-19 on the food and beverage, transportation and accommodation sectors. The sources utilised were selected in grey and academic literature using COVID-19, tourism, hospitality and South Africa as keywords. This chapter shows that COVID-19 ignited huge socio-economic challenges for the tourism industry, with businesses plunging into debts and liquidity crises. Some businesses closed either temporarily or permanently due to lack of demand. While this chapter recommends that in addition to government stimulus packages and the adoption of technological innovations, context-specific innovations and recovery models are, therefore, needed. These may include joint ventures and business partnerships.

Keywords Accommodation · COVID-19 · Food and beverages · Transportation · Tourism

5.1 Background and Introduction

In late December 2019, a highly infectious respiratory disease called the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) was first detected in the Chinese city of Wuhan. Within a few months, the virus spread worldwide, prompting the World Health

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Organization (WHO) to declare it a global pandemic on 11 March 2020 (Nhamo et al., 2020). Given its highly contagious nature and with no therapeutics for the virus available yet, the immediate response mechanisms by countries across the world included national and regional lockdowns; restrictions on the movement of people and goods, both national and international; social distancing and cancellation of gatherings; adoption of self-isolation; and mandatory quarantines, among others (Gössling et al., 2020; Musavengane et al., 2022; Dube, 2022). Through these response mechanisms, the COVID-19 pandemic ignited a health crisis and a socio-economic one, which poses a serious threat to lives and livelihoods (Hambira et al., 2022). The socio-economic impacts are observed globally across all business industries and sectors, although countries are faring differently (Cheer, 2020). Some sectors, such as the education and communication sectors, quickly adopted and adapted Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) technologies to remain functional (Mhlanga et al., 2021; Ndhlovu, 2020). However, by their nature and operation systems, a few industries continued to experience survival and recovery. One such industry is tourism. The tourism industry is highly labour-intensive yet fragile, so any slight disturbance has far-reaching implications (Cheer, 2020; Gössling et al., 2020; Hambira et al., 2022). It is therefore imperative that this industry be studied extensively.

COVID-19 has attracted increasing scholarly interest across the world since its inception. However, most of the studies seem to be all over the place, thus, posing a directional challenge for scholarship in tourism. Such inconsistency in studies fails to ominously enrich the body of knowledge, thereby proving to be of limited value to policymakers, business operators, and practitioners. Therefore, sector-specific studies are needed to generate a more mature scholarly debate on the impacts, building resilience, and recovery strategies of the COVID-19 pandemic. In South Africa, tourism is one of the critical traditional industries. In 2019, it attracted about 10.23 million international tourists, enabling the industry to contribute 10.3% to the gross domestic product (GDP) (Asmal & Rooney, 2021). It also created about 333 million jobs (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2022). However, the industry's growth came to a halt in 2020 due to the adverse impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic. The industry's contribution to the GDP shrank to a mere 5.3%, while jobs plunged to 271 million in 2020 (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2022). A report by Statistics South Africa (Stats SA, 2021) indicates that foreign arrivals plunged by −71%, while Dube (2021) places the figure at −86%. With tourism having experienced a fall of 22% in tourist numbers in the first quarter of 2020 (in comparison to the same quarter of 2019) and an estimated 60–80% fall throughout 2020 (in comparison to 2019) globally (Dube, 2022), it can be concluded that the COVID-19 pandemic has had disastrous impacts on this industry.

Since the COVID-19 pandemic has particularly been fatal for the tourism industry (Gössling et al., 2020), a rapid review of the available literature on the socio-economic impacts of the pandemic on this industry is highly recommended. Such a review will not simply consolidate existing findings by other researchers (Sharma et al., 2021), but it could also provide insights and directions on developing resilience and recovery pathways for the industry. In addition, it could show how the sector can recover and also how it can withstand future pandemics of the same magnitude. In addition, the study could flag where and how existing resilient and recovery development models are lacking with the intention to redesign and develop them to suit the post-COVID-19 context to enable such models to remain relevant and valuable. This chapter builds on existing studies such as Sucheran (2021), who studied the impact of the pandemic on the hotel sector; Bama and Nyikana (2021), who focused on the impact on domestic travel; Dube (2021), who studied tourism services; Olowoyo et al. (2021) and Rogerson et al. (2021a), who focused on the hospitality industry; van der Merwe et al. (2021), who studied the wildlife; and Venter et al. (2020), who studied the transport sector. This chapter contributes to the South African tourism scholarship by focusing on specific sectors within the tourism industry. This is done in the spirit of flagging resilience strategies and proposing COVID-19 recovery pathways for businesses in the industry. This chapter (i) explores the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the tourism industry of South Africa and (ii) proposes resilience and recovery frameworks for the sectors.

The next section presents the research methodology for the study. This is followed by a background discussion on the COVID-19 pandemic with a bias towards South Africa. Thereafter, this chapter makes a narrative analysis and discussion of the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on three selected sectors of the tourism industry in South Africa, namely, the food and beverage, transportation, and accommodation sectors. It then outlines potential resilience and recovery pathways and makes overall conclusions.

5.2 Materials and Methods

This chapter adopts the critical document analysis methodology where germane secondary sources were selected for analysis in both academic (peer-reviewed and published) and grey literature (government reports and reports by research and other policy institutions). The sources were selected using keywords such as COVID-19, tourism, hospitality and South Africa. Since the COVID-19 pandemic arrived in late December 2019, it was only around March 2020 that its impact became more visible and pronounced. Therefore, to ensure standardisation and consistency in the selection criteria, only articles published since March 2020, written in English and available in Google Scholar, were selected for analysis. Based on the level of impact, as detailed in the available literature, purposive sampling was used to select three sectors of the tourism industry, namely, accommodations, food and beverages, and transportation, that were heavily affected by the pandemic. Using this criterion, 27 papers specifically focusing on the South African tourism industry were identified. Based on thematic analysis, 15 papers (5 papers per sector) which provided insights to the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic were selected for analysis. A total of 12 papers were excluded because they did not exclusively focus on South Africa and did not focus on the three sectors identified for analysis. The selected papers are shown in Table 5.1. All the papers were subjected to two key questions: one on the

Table 5.1 Summary of papers selected papers for analysis

Author(s)	Paper type	Paper title	Source
Rogerson et al. (2021a)	Empirical	Tourism and hospitality	National Research Foundation
Dube (2021)	Empirical	Implications of COVID-19 Induced Lockdown on the South African Tourism Industry and Prospects for Recovery	African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure
Department of Tourism (2021a)	Empirical	Final Report: The Impact of COVID-19 on Tourism Sector Demand and Supply in South Africa	Republic of South Africa Department of Tourism
Olowoyo et al. (2021)	Conceptual	Challenges and Growth Trajectory of the Hospitality Industry in South Africa (1994–2020)	African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure
Ntloedibe (2021)	Empirical	Foodservice: Hotel Restaurant Institutional	US Department of Agriculture
Luke (2020)	Editorial	The impact of COVID-19 in South Africa	Journal of Transport and Supply Chain Management
Bama and Nyikana (2021)	Empirical	The Effects of COVID-19 on Future Domestic Travel Intentions in South Africa: A Stakeholder Perspective	African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure
Department of Tourism (2021a)	Empirical	Final report: The impact of covid-19 on the tourism transport interface in South Africa	Republic of South Africa Department of Tourism
Venter et al. (2020)	Conceptual	Covid-19 and the future of public transport in South Africa	Civil Engineering
Asmal and Rooney (2021)	Conceptual	The impact of COVID-19 on industries without smokestacks in South Africa	The Development Policy Research Unit AGI Working Paper #3
Nyashanu et al. (2020)	Empirical	Impact of COVID-19 Pandemic Lockdown on Informal Settlement	*Global Public Health*
Department of Tourism (2021b)	Empirical	Final report: The impact of covid-19 on the tourism transport interface in South Africa	Republic of South Africa Department of Tourism
Rogerson et al. (2021b)	Empirical	Covid-19 and Local Business Responses: Evidence from South Africa's most Tourism-Dependent Locality	African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure
Sucheran (2021)	Empirical	Preliminary Economic Impacts of the COVID-19 Pandemic on the Hotel Sector in South Africa	African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure
Sucheran (2022)	Empirical	The COVID-19 pandemic and guesthouses in South Africa: Economic impacts and recovery measures	Development Southern Africa

impacts of COVID-19 and one on the response mechanisms adopted by businesses. This was meant to increase the trustworthiness of the data extracted from the articles.

5.3 The COVID-19 Pandemic and the Tourism Industry on the Global Stage

Due to COVID-19, almost all countries completely closed their borders, enforced travel bans or introduced quarantine periods to contain its spread (Statistica, 2021). This led to a massive drop in international and domestic tourism (Sucheran, 2021). The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (2020) found that by May 2020, international arrivals had declined by 98% across the world due to travel restrictions. This equates to about 300 million less international tourist arrivals between January and May 2020 compared to the same period in 2019 (UNWTO, 2020). This widespread loss in international arrivals resulted in a US$320 billion loss in international tourism receipts (Sucheran, 2021). For the UNWTO, this loss is more than three times the annual loss induced by the 2009 global economic crisis.

Tourism was targeted in response mechanisms by countries because viruses quickly spread with human movement. Tourism, and its various sectors, can, thus, be a critical constituent in the "evolution of a local outbreak into a global pandemic, and an initial contact point of the import of an impending global pandemic" (Hung et al., 2018:3). Furthermore, the accommodation and transport sectors are one of the most vulnerable to crisis. They can be significantly affected by it (Sucheran, 2021). As a result, the accommodation and transport sectors are among the hardest-hit industries by the COVID-19 pandemic (DoT, 2021a; Dube, 2021; Ntloedibe, 2021). Worldwide, accommodation, food and beverage and transport sectors have recorded extremely low occupancy rates, with some businesses eventually collapsing or scaling down services (Asmal & Rooney, 2021; De Groot & Lemanski, 2020). In the USA, Simon (2020) found that the year 2020 was the worst in terms of hotel occupancy. The National Restaurant Association (2020) also found an 87% decline in hotel occupancy in Ecuador, a 74% decline in Brazil, a 71% decline in Canada, a 78% decline in Poland, a 73% decline in Switzerland and an overall decline of 73% for Europe as in June 2020, as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. Similar trends were also recorded for the guesthouses in South Africa (Sucheran, 2022). It was also found that park hotels and resorts recorded only a 20% occupancy worldwide and an overall loss of US$261 million for 18 consolidated hotels for the second quarter of 2020 (Sucheran, 2021). The Hyatt group also recorded an overall loss of US$236 million for the same period (Businesswire, 2020). The South African hotel and gaming group Tsogo Sun recorded R1.7 billion in losses for the full year which ended March 2020 (Sucheran, 2022). On the African continent, South Africa emerged as the epicentre of the pandemic (Department of Tourism (DoT), 2021a).

5.4 The Advent of the COVID-19 Pandemic in South Africa

The COVID-19 virus reached South Africa on 5 March 2020; the first case involved a patient who had returned from Italy (Republic of South Africa, 2020). Within 10 days, the number of infected people had risen to 51, although no deaths were recorded (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2020). On 15 March 2020, President Cyril Ramaphosa announced a national state of disaster and set school closures, travel bans and restrictions on public gatherings enforced by the military and police (Sucheran, 2022). People were permitted to leave homes only for critical activities (groceries and medical outings) (Ramaphosa, 2020). A week later, the president declared a complete national lockdown for 21 days, beginning on 26 March. By the time the lockdown began, about 927 cases had already been confirmed. The lockdown was later extended by 2 weeks to 30 April. This period could be referred to as a time when South Africa was at a complete standstill.

At the end of the lockdown, South Africa introduced what was known as the "COVID-19 alert system", which is used to manage the gradual easing and move from a rigorous mitigation stance towards suppression (Ramaphosa, 2020). Although some adjustments were being made to the levels, the initial adopted alert system had five basic levels (Table 5.1). It was based on a risk-adjusted approach and was guided by several criteria, including (i) the capacity of health facilities to accommodate severely sick people, (ii) the level of infections and the rate of transmissions, and, as the government explained it, (iii) the "extent of public health interventions and the economic and social impact of continued restrictions" (Republic of South Africa, 2020). Level 5 lockdown lasted 5 weeks and primarily focused on "flattening the curve" as part of the mitigation measures (De Groot & Lemanski, 2020). It was then eased to level 4, focusing on slowly moving towards a combination of mitigation and suppression. Level 4 was implemented between 1 and 31 May, and only activities by some key economic sectors, such as agriculture and public works civil engineering projects, were allowed to operate while tourism and education, among others, remained closed (De Groot & Lemanski, 2020).

The initial national lockdown in March 2020 received widespread public support as an indispensable approach to prevent the spread of COVID-19 and allow the state to prepare for the rollout of other plans. However, the severe impact of the lockdown on the various sectors supporting livelihoods later raised doubt about the appropriateness of the full lockdown (as one of the critical intervention strategies) in South Africa. In addition to the slaughter of human life, the pandemic and its associated restrictions further strained an economy that was already not performing well (Luke, 2020). While debates continue on whether severe restrictions and associated lockdowns were necessary (Savulescu, 2020), what emerges poignantly is that the restrictions, coupled with individual behaviour changes of sectors, have had a devastating impact on the various sectors of the economy. In South Africa, tourism is not regarded as an essential service; therefore, it fell within the classification of services that had to remain closed for the most part (Republic of South Africa Department of Tourism, 2021).

Since the beginning of lockdowns in South Africa, all tourism activities were either prohibited or operated under strict restrictions in several lockdown levels and adjusted levels, as summarised in Table 5.1. Hotels and guesthouses closed, attractions were shut, and airlines ceased operations. It is estimated that for each day that the South African tourism sector was closed, about R748 million was lost through expenditure, with a further loss of jobs (Sperka, 2020; Sucheran, 2021). The Department of Tourism (DoT) (2020:22) estimates that about R54.2 billion in output was lost between mid-March and the end of May 2020 and that the sector experienced a "75% revenue reduction in 2020, putting a further R149.7 billion in output, 438,000 jobs and R80.2 billion in foreign receipts at risk". The DoT also estimated that about 50,000 businesses had to close temporarily while some permanently, resulting in about 600,000 job losses. In terms of the accommodation sector in South Africa, under level 5, occupancy dropped to under 5%, with hotels mostly serving as quarantine and isolation sites and providing essential services to workers (Sucheran, 2022). Overall, Stats SA (2020) concluded that the total income for the accommodation sector declined by 98% in May 2020 compared with May 2019. After detailed consultations with relevant stakeholders, the tourism industry was gradually opened up, albeit very late compared to other sectors. It is, thus, vital to explore how the industry was impacted. The next section reviews the literature related to the study (Table 5.2).

5.5 COVID-19 Implications on Selected Tourism Sectors in South Africa

The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic and associated response mechanisms on three selected sectors of the tourism industry, namely, food and beverages, transportation and accommodation, are discussed in this section.

5.5.1 COVID-19 and Food and Beverage Sector

The food and beverage sector, among other sectors of the tourism industry, was heavily hit by the pandemic and the associated response mechanisms imposed by the government (DoT, 2021a; Ntloedibe, 2021; Olowoyo et al., 2021). This industry is fragile due to its sensitivity to various factors, whether natural or human-made. In 2020, South Africa's food and beverage sector generated only US$3 billion in revenue. This was a 32% decline from 2019 (Stats SA, 2020). Restrictions on movement, curfews, restricted hours for operating and social distancing measures, among others, resulted in less consumption of food in restaurants, hotels and other

Table 5.2 A summary of lockdown alert levels in South Africa

Alert level	Level 5	Level 4	Level 3	Level 2	Level 1
	27 March 2020 – initially for 3 weeks, extended for 2 further weeks.	1 May 2020	1 June 2020	18 August 2020	20 September 2020
Objective	Drastic measures to contain the spread of the virus and save lives.	Extreme precautions to limit community transmission and outbreaks while allowing some activity to resume.	Restrictions on many activities, including at workplaces and socially, to address a high risk of transmission.	Physical distancing and restrictions on leisure and social activities to prevent a resurgence of the virus.	Most normal activity can resume subject to observation of guidelines with precautions.
Sectors permitted	Only essential services as per existing regulations.	All essential services, plus a limited number of sectors with a low transmission rate and high economic or social value.	A wider range of sectors is permitted with a low to moderate risk of transmission that can be effectively mitigated.	Most sectors are permitted, with limitations remaining where the risk of transmission is high.	All sectors permitted.
Retail permitted	Only essential goods, including food, medical products, cleaning and hygiene products, fuel, and winter goods such as blankets and heaters.	All essential goods, as well as books, stationery and office equipment. Alcohol is to be sold within restricted hours, and in limited quantities, for off-site consumption. Restaurants and fast-food outlets to open for delivery.	All level 5 and 4 retail permitted, as well as clothing stores and hardware stores.	All retail permitted. Restaurants and fast-food outlets may open for delivery and takeaway.	All retail permitted. Restaurants may open with stringent social distancing measures.

(continued)

Table 5.2 (continued)

Alert level	Level 5	Level 4	Level 3	Level 2	Level 1
Movement	All but essential workers must stay at home. Others may leave home only to purchase essential goods or seek medical care. No inter-provincial movement of people, except for transportation of goods and exceptional situations (e.g. funerals).	All must stay at home except for work, necessary shopping or seeking medical care. No inter-provincial movement of people, except to return to the usual place of residence, for transportation of goods and in exceptional circumstances (e.g. funerals). Curfew in place between 19:00 and 05:00. Outdoor exercise permitted.	All are encouraged to stay home as far as possible and limit interactions with others. No inter-provincial movement of people, except to return to the usual place of residence, transportation of goods and under exceptional circumstances (e.g. funerals).	All are encouraged to stay at home and limit interactions with others. Movement is permitted between provinces at levels 1 and 2 but may be restricted between provinces at a higher level and those with a lower level.	All may leave home, taking precautions while interacting with others. The inter-provincial movement allowed. Restrictions on international travel. Curfew lifted.
Gatherings	All public gatherings are prohibited.	All public gatherings are prohibited.	All public gatherings are prohibited.	All public gatherings are prohibited.	Public gatherings are allowed but restricted in numbers and subject to strict protocols and social distancing.
Transport	Bus services, taxi services, e-hailing and private motor vehicles may operate at restricted times, with limitations on vehicle capacity and stringent hygiene requirements.	Passenger rail, bus services, taxi services, e-hailing and private motor vehicles may operate subject to directions.	Limited domestic air travel, with a restriction on the number of flights per day and authorisation based on the reason for travel.	Limited domestic air travel, with a restriction on the number of flights per day and authorisation based on the reason for travel.	Domestic air travel restored.

Source: De Groot and Lemanski (2020:60)

businesses within the industry (Dube, 2021). Under levels 5 and 4 of the lockdown, which commenced on 27 March until 11 July 2021, there were heavy restrictions, including a ban on alcohol sales in the sector (Dube, 2021). The result was decreased revenue for the sector (Gössling et al., 2020). The closure of businesses impacted revenues and the welfare and livelihoods of people employed in the sector (Rogerson et al., 2021a, b). With most businesses closed, only e-commerce businesses managed to survive through online purchases and meal delivery operations, with a sales growth of 59% in 2020 compared to 2019 (Ntloedibe, 2021). However, e-commerce businesses do not make up the majority of businesses in the food and beverages industry and, therefore, did not have any significant impact on the industry as a whole. Thus, the argument that businesses need to adopt smart technologies to respond to the pandemic (Mhlanga et al., 2021) is unrealistic because these businesses do not have the smart infrastructure to move online quickly. In addition, not all customers know how to order online (Danielle & Masilela, 2020).

With restrictions on movement, households spent less on restaurants and hotels (Rogerson et al., 2021a, b). Restaurants and coffee shops recorded a 35% decline in revenues due to a lack of demand (Stats SA, 2020). Fast-food and takeaway outlets also experienced a 23% decline in revenues from 2019 to 2020, while catering services recorded a 44% plunge in the same period (Rogerson et al., 2021a, b). Several restaurants, fast food, takeaway outlets and catering services closed in response to the alcohol ban because it was not profitable for them to remain open without access to a significant revenue stream (Rogerson et al., 2021a, b). According to the DoT (2021a), a worrisome 30% of the country's restaurants closed permanently. Combined, restaurants, takeaways, catering and fast-food outlets plunged by 31.4% in March, 95.5% in April and 86.6% in May 2020 (DoT, 2020). The food and beverage incomes from March to August 2020 (at the peak of the pandemic) are summarised in Table 5.3.

To make matters worse for this sector, when the national Department of Tourism announced a R200 million Tourism Relief Fund to be financed from reallocated funds in March 2020, the funding did not benefit all businesses. The funding, comprising a once-off grant of R50,000, was meant to provide cash relief to eligible small or medium enterprises to subsidise "fixed costs, operational costs, supplies and other pressure cost items". The fund was guided by the Tourism Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBEEE) Codes of Good Practices, excluding businesses that did not fit the criteria. The fund was earmarked for businesses in the main tourism industries and, thus, excluded certain passenger transport services

Table 5.3 Incomes from the food and beverage industry

	March	April	May	June	July	August
Food sales	−30.1	−95.7	−86.2	−56.4	−47.4	−41.0
Bar sales	−43.4	−100.0	−100.0	−96.1	−94.2	−86.4
Other income	−42.2	−77.4	−68.0	−63.9	−57.7	−70.8
Total income	−31.4	−95.5	−86.6	−59.3	−50.8	−44.8

Source: Stats SA (2020)

(such as air transport and minibus taxis), fast-food and takeaway outlets, nightclubs, bars, gaming and gambling venues, franchised restaurants and restaurants attached to tourism facilities which were entirely or partially owned by the government. These exclusionary arrangements left many small businesses without the support and therefore having to scale down operations or close down.

5.5.2 COVID-19 and Transportation Sector

In the transport sector, the COVID-19 pandemic and the response mechanisms have had a disastrous impact on all modes of transport, with an abrupt drop in passenger numbers and the ensuing loss of revenue, losses and closures of businesses in all sectors (Asmal & Rooney, 2021; Bama & Nyikana, 2021; Luke, 2020; Venter et al., 2020). Cruise travel was completely halted under levels 5 and 4. Before the pandemic, the cruise industry enjoyed substantial growth in both major harbours, Durban and Cape Town. In 2012, Cape Town had 6050 passengers. This number soared to 29,269 passengers in 2016 and to 31,035 passengers in 2017. During the cruise season 2016/2017, an estimated 19 vessels arrived at Cape Town harbour. The closure of the cruise sector due to COVID-19 means that both the economic contribution and the job creation prospects were forfeited.

In the bus/coach sector, there has been little or no revenue generated for the sector under lockdown levels 5 and 4 as fleets were stationary (Luke, 2020). Of all the sectors, this sector experienced the most closures and retrenchments with general labour, but also some specialised tasks such as tour operators, guides, translators and drivers bore the brunt (Bama & Nyikana, 2021). The most popular example is the Greyhound Lines Company which, after 37 years of services in South Africa, had to cease operations on 14 February 2021 due to waning revenue due to COVID-19-related restrictions. In the cross-border market, no tourism licenses were issued under lockdown levels 5–3. Small tour operators dependent on international visitors were thus severely affected as operations came to a complete halt, with an estimated loss of R 4.6 billion by March 2020 (DoT, 2021a). Government assistance has been limited, while the loss of revenue was aggravated by the high costs of safety protocols (Bama & Nyikana, 2021; Luke, 2020). Metered taxis and Uber were also hit hard. With people working from home, the closure of bars and restaurants, as well as the general fear of being in the same car with a stranger who might have COVID-19 or has been in contact with numerous strangers, weakened in-ride share company performance, with Uber recording a 70% decline (DoT, 2021a). Some Uber drivers have had to return their vehicles to financiers (Luke, 2020). Metered and minibus taxis suffered as restrictions on movement were introduced, and only essential workers could be transported with limited capacity (Asmal & Rooney, 2021). Taxis, which normally transport tourists, ceased operating as tourism came to a standstill.

Regarding the taxi industry, just like buses, taxis were required to operate on limited occupancy levels to maintain social distance and under strict safety protocols (Ramaphosa, 2020). This became a huge additional cost for taxi operators, for which the government later intervened by offering a bailout to save both lives and livelihoods (Asmal & Rooney, 2021). However, subsidies have not kept pace with increases in costs, and most operators are dependent on the number of full-load trips they can make (Bama & Nyikana, 2021). Movement restrictions, compounded by directives regarding occupancy levels, reduced a large portion of the operators' income and livelihoods and the welfare of commuters (Luke, 2020). Prior to the pandemic, about 60% of the population in South Africa used public transport (Venter et al., 2020). Luke (2020) proposes that the transport industry be recognised as a key component of the public transport landscape and that it be provided with credit, regulation, subsidisation and formalisation, at a level that can benefit commuters and warrant sustainability of the sector.

The car rental industry also faced the withdrawal of all bookings in all non-essential businesses (Venter et al., 2020). Furthermore, there was a decrease in the fleet size by a third (DoT, 2021a). The kilometres driven were also down by two-thirds due to inter-provincial restrictions and the avoidance of areas deemed as COVID-19 hotspots. Revenue plunged by approximately 71%, while rental days plummeted by two-thirds (DoT, 2021a; Luke, 2020). These realities were also accompanied by massive job losses as businesses de-fleeting and reduced their workforce to control costs (Business Tech, 2020).

Air transport was heavily hit due to the restrictions on people's movement and the closure of international borders (DoT, 2021a; Venter et al., 2020). In South Africa, the sudden drop in demand for passenger air transport (and freight) due to lower levels of movement for the luxury items usually moved by air (Luke, 2020) due to the COVID-19 suppression measures threatened many airlines' sustainability. In this sector, the COVID-19 disruptions were more severe than elsewhere. The number of inbound tourists plunged by 74% in 2020. There was a 78% decline in international tourists through Oliver Tambo International Airport, 70% through Cape Town International Airport and 79% at King Shaka International Airport. Due to restrictions on staff capacity and work from home, some administrative measures were abandoned, causing job losses for some people.

With some companies already having challenges even before the pandemic (Luke, 2020), the lockdown proved too huge to navigate around. For instance, South African Airways (SAAs) has had a tumultuous history, occasioning unremitting losses and bailouts with a business rescue plan eventually implemented in December 2019 (De Groot & Lemanski, 2020). This was followed by Kulula, which went into business rescue in May 2020 (Luke, 2020). Altogether, the industry was already struggling, and the pandemic aggravated the situation. In the domestic market, survivors included companies such as FlySafair and Airlink (van der Merwe et al., 2021). However, this survival, if not supported by sustainable government interventions, could only be short term because the contraction of the economy as a result of the pandemic could have changed the demand for domestic services in the long term (Luke, 2020). Continuing restrictions and regulations on international travel and tourism and the popularity of the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) technologies as the new alternative for doing business, the future of international air travel could have changed forever.

As the sector that holds the economy together, transport is not only indispensable to the functioning of the economy but also bears the brunt of any changes in economic activity (Bama & Nyikana, 2021). The uncertainty of the transport sector in South Africa, therefore, necessitates a move from the regulatory policy approach towards a more flexible and open enabling environment, thorough-going economic autonomy for the transport tourism industry to respond to market opportunities, which may be transitional, to support the swiftness necessary under these states of affairs. Given the lack of success of formalisation, particularly for the taxi industry, as well as its informal nature and fierce autonomy (Luke, 2020), it is not yet clear whether it is achievable, affordable or even necessary to enforce some new frameworks for the sector, considering the track record of under-subsidisation of public transport services (Asmal & Rooney, 2021).

5.5.3 COVID-19 and the Accommodation Sector

In South Africa, it is widely reported that while the COVID-19 pandemic has caused a harmful impact on the tourism industry in general, it has particularly harmed the accommodation sector (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2020; Rogerson et al., 2021a, b; Sucheran, 2021, 2022). This conclusion is supported by Gössling, Scott and Hall (2020:7), who posit that "travel bans, border closures, event cancellations, quarantine requirements and fear of spread have placed extreme challenges on tourism and hospitality sectors". With a focus on guesthouses across the country, Dube (2021) found that the protracted lockdown and closure of leisure tourism led to severe financial losses. This is confirmed by Stats SA (2020), which reports that revenue losses by the accommodation sector plunged to record lows. Dube (2021) found that between April and July 2020, most accommodation guesthouses collected only 10% of revenue compared to 2019. Revenues losses across the accommodation industry ran into billions of Rands, particularly between April and May 2020 (Rogerson et al. 2021a, b), and only faintly improved with easing the lockdown restrictions in level 3, with many improvements only observed in October when domestic and some international travels resumed. Dube (2021:279) concludes that "The year 2020 was the worst financial year in recent memory for the accommodation sector" and that "any recovery efforts needed to understand the need for an injection of liquidity to allow the industry space to fund operational and capital expenditure".

Concerning the hotel sector, by late March, a 50% decline in hotel and guesthouse occupancy had already been reported (Stats SA, 2020; Sucheran, 2022). During level 5 of the lockdown, occupancy dropped to under 5% as hotels mainly served as quarantine and isolation sites (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2020). By May 2020, the total income for the accommodation sector had declined by 98% compared with May 2019 (Stats SA, 2020). For instance, Sun International, one of the biggest hotel groups in South Africa, experienced a revenue decline of R3.7 billion, down from its annual of R8.5 billion (Dube, 2021). The Mount Nelson Hotel had to dismiss 154 of its 251 workers at the peak of the pandemic due to scaled down operations (Sucheran, 2021). City Lodge hotel also experienced huge losses of R486.6 million and now needed a capital injection of R1.2bn to survive (Business Day, 2020). Tsogo Sun closed 36 hotels between March and April 2020 due to travel bans, resulting in a lack of demand (Bhengu, 2020; Rogerson et al., 2021a, b). Marriott International's Mount Grace Country House and Spa, the Protea Hotel by Marriott Durban Edward and the Protea Hotel by Marriott Hazyview also closed permanently (Sucheran, 2021).

As flagged above, however, not all accommodation establishments closed with the start of the lockdown. A few, mostly hotels, remained open to service existing guests and guests who could not travel back home due to various reasons. Some hotels were also selected to serve as quarantine sites (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2020). Sucheran (2021) posits that one of the most immediate impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on the accommodation sector in South Africa is reflected in the interrupted cash flow. Many accommodation businesses collapsed due to failure to manage fixed costs while losing business. This view is supported by the DoT (2020), which reports that in March 2020, 58% of South African tourism businesses failed to service their debts, and 61% struggled to cover fixed costs in October 2020.

South Africa's experiences compare with what is obtained elsewhere. The American Hotel and Lodging Association (2020) reports that with the COVID-19 pandemic, major hotels resorted to massive layoffs and leave of absence. Dube et al. (2021) found that globally, except in countries such as Australia, Germany and Mexico, there was a marked decline in sit-in bookings at the onset of the pandemic, with most countries recording sit-in declines of about 90%. In countries that went into the strictest lockdown, such as Britain and within the USA, such as Washington, California, New York, New Mexico and Minnesota, among others, many restaurants plunged into a liquidity crisis, and some closed permanently (Job Quality Index, 2020).

5.6 Towards Building Resilience and Recovery

Building resilience is a crisis management tool/strategy for business stability and adaptability to all risk types during natural disasters and emergencies (Sharma & Mahendru, 2020). Business resilience is the organisation's ability to adapt to the environment and new circumstances to mitigate the effects of the incident (Supardi et al., 2020). Resilience stratagems require coordination, numerous crisis management systems, good relationships among stakeholders, a comprehensive network, recognition of risks and opportunities and timely and scalable intervention (Sharma et al., 2021).

With the advent of the COVID-19 vaccines, businesses across industries, including tourism, are looking forward to "business as usual". Most industries are banking on vaccinating patrons and employees but also largely upon government stimulus packages and interventions to improve productivity (Dube, 2022).

The South African government made some social policy-based recovery interventions for businesses, including tax relief measures, relief funds, emergency procurements, wage support through the Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF) and funding to small businesses to deal with COVID-19 setbacks. Through the Temporary Employer/Employee Relief Scheme (TERS), the government offered funds to businesses (or directly to employees) to pay wages. By 19 June 2020, 355,267 employers and 2.4 million employees had received payments (Nyashanu et al., 2020). Through this social policy intervention, the government became a significant role player in the resilience and recovery of businesses in the tourism industry. This is different from previous crises, which triggered curiosity in research and institutions and had no "policy impact," especially in the tourism industry (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020). The government's proposal for businesses to operate at limited capacity during the gradual easing of lockdown restrictions was a strategy that enabled businesses to survive while saving lives and livelihoods. The grants released by the government, inadequate as they may have been, were able to support the lower capacities recommended (Bhengu, 2020). There was also a massive government intervention in the working and operation of the tourism industry during the COVID-19 crisis, including the provision of personal protection equipment (Gössling et al., 2020). However, while government intervention is welcome, it may not be sustainable and convenient, especially for businesses that operate for profits. Government processes are often laborious and poorly coordinated, so relying on the government for support can leave the business stranded. Therefore, government interventions are not the ideal resilience and recovery strategy.

Some scholars have proposed the deployment of the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) tools as a possible resilience and recovery strategy (Bama & Nyikana, 2021; Butler, 2020; Mhlanga et al., 2021). These technologies allow businesses to be conducted online and remotely (Bama & Nyikana, 2021). However, not all business can and should be conducted remotely. For instance, while some sectors can benefit from using smart technologies and the Internet of Things, such technologies may be difficult to adopt for some sectors, especially small businesses such as emerging restaurants, guesthouses and car rental businesses. In addition, restaurants can sell more to sit-in patrons than when patrons order online (Cheer, 2020). Evidence has shown that during the strictest levels of the lockdown in South Africa, only e-commerce businesses flourished through online purchases and meal delivery operations, with a sales growth of 59% in 2020 compared to 2019 (Ntloedibe, 2021). However, beyond the e-booking facility, the transport and accommodation sectors, on the other hand, benefited less from the use of smart technologies as they thrive on the physical presence of people in order to conduct business. The decline in the performance of Uber services is testimony to this reality (DoT, 2021a). Thus, the proposition of smart technologies as the overall solution in the post-COVID-19 era is misguided as it is not empirically based. Innovative technologies need to be considered for particular contexts and situations. In addition, using e-services can be expensive for most businesses located in a developing country like South Africa.

In the face of limited resilience and recovery options, researchers and scholars have concluded that COVID-19 impacts are uneven in both space and time (Hall et al., 2020), and therefore, "there is a need for each destination, tourism sector, and subsector to have customised measures aimed at conducting business under the new normal" (Dube et al., 2021:1489). Dube (2022) anticipates a vaccine-induced recovery in which massive vaccination of most people could eventually translate into relaxed control of movement and travel, thereby enabling the industry to slowly recover. This chapter adds that there will not be a one-size-fits-all recovery strategy for businesses affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. Some businesses and sectors could be more responsive while others can actually benefit from the crisis while others may never recover. The success of business sectors and sub-sectors will depend on their nature of operations and their ability to adopt or adapt response mechanisms based on their context of situation and business cultures.

Because of the above, while businesses can continue to lobby for state support, creativity and flexibility are also needed, such as operating in joint ventures and partnerships to allow for capital injection in the business. This view is consistent with Sharma et al. (2021:5), who support "public-private partnership and cooperation" as the best recovery strategy. Joint ventures are a cooperative strategy where businesses create an alliance in which they combine their resources and capabilities (Huang, 2018). Similarly, a partnership is a co-operation between actors where they reach an agreement to cooperate towards an identified economic development goal and draw the key distinctions between generalised policy communities that develop a broad local vision for the local economy and the specific networks (or partnerships) that are indispensable to support individual projects (Ofosu & Sarpong, 2022). Both frameworks aim to establish a stronger competitive and survival position.

Tourism businesses can diminish the pandemic's negative effects through amalgamating financial resources, research and development, production and distribution channels. For smaller organisations, such as restaurants, with inadequate finance and/or specialist management skills, joint venture and economic partnership facilities can enable businesses to obtain the necessary resources to survive post-COVID-19 stresses. Joint ventures and partnerships can provide specialist knowledge of local markets, entry to required distribution channels, access to raw materials supplies, government contracts and local production facilities. Businesses in the tourism industry can choose to engage in joint ventures and/or partnerships with other businesses in the same industry or sector or with public or private entities. They can also cooperate with individual investors with the required resources. Government intervention will, however, be needed to monitor the often-opportunistic behaviour of private capitalists who engage in joint ventures and partnerships on unequal terms with their vulnerable stakeholders, thereby complicating recovery mechanisms.

5.7 Conclusion

This chapter explored the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the tourism industry in South Africa by examining the emerging body of literature in the field. The aim was to propose resilience and recovery pathways for the selected industries: food and beverages, transport and accommodation. Drawing from a selected number of secondary sources, this chapter found that while the COVID-19 pandemic has been a public health catastrophe, it has also ignited huge socio-economic challenges for the tourism sector. A worrisome number of businesses in the tourism industry, particularly those in the food and beverages, transport and accommodation, and other sectors plunged into a liquidity crisis, with some businesses having to close either temporarily or permanently due to lack of demand. This chapter proposes that in addition to government stimulus packages and the adoption of smart technologies, businesses must be creative in engaging in partnerships and joint ventures. This allows capital injection aiding survival and possibly re-flourishing. Finance capital has some opportunistic tendencies whereby it uses financial power to manipulate its vulnerable partners to engage in arrangements that are not based on equal power balances and that eventually do not benefit the vulnerable. Thus, the government (on behalf of businesses) should design guiding principles and frameworks under which joint ventures and partnerships can be pursued to create an opportunity for business recovery. Furthermore, this chapter recommends that businesses execute context-specific development models since there will not be a one-size-fits-all framework for survival in the face of a pandemic which is of the COVID-19 magnitude. Future research on the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic needs to be subsector-specific to show a detailed picture.

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Chapter 6
Mountain Destinations and COVID-19: An Overview of Impacts and Implications

Bushra Choudhary, Saima Kareem, Abdul Qadir, and Sarah Hussain

Abstract Mountain destinations have always been the most preferred destinations among tourists. Before the pandemic, many tourists travelled to mountain destinations for various reasons, such as connecting with nature, experiencing peace and undertaking adventure tourism activities. Studies that explore how mountain destinations were impacted by the pandemic, however, are scant. This chapter, therefore, explores the impacts and implications of COVID-19 on mountain destinations. The study utilises secondary data in magazines, tourism journals, blogs, newspaper articles, governmental websites and reports. The study found that COVID-19 had direct and indirect impacts on mountain destinations due to the various restrictions imposed by countries to reduce the spread of the virus. However, the study found that while COVID-19 had long-term adverse impacts on mountains' economies, the imposed restrictions, on the other hand, promoted healthier environments following reductions in fossil fuel consumption due to reduced economic activities.

Keywords COVID-19 · Impacts · Implications · Mountain destinations · Recovery strategies

6.1 Introduction and Background

Mountains are vital regions for biological diversity. Their natural landscapes and flora and fauna species fascinate tourists who appreciate their therapeutic potential (Zeng et al., 2022). While mountains provide tourists with intangible benefits, the communities in which these mountains are located often reap tangible economic benefits. Many mountain economies rely on tourism, particularly in areas where natural resource extraction is costly due to restricted accessibility (UNWTO, 2021a). Tourism development in mountain areas is dependent not only on existing natural resources but also on the efforts of regional authorities, businesses and communities

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to create unique attractions and brands for tourism destinations to entice potential tourists (Cozma et al., 2021). This expansion has resulted in both economic and social transformation, as well as unanticipated environmental effects (UNWTO, 2021a).

The COVID-19 pandemic has, therefore, raised the need to emphasise the significance of establishing sustainable mountain tourism. In a new hunt for settings that offer a healthy environment and better quality of life, mountain and rural places are increasingly considered a haven against the epidemic (Seraphin & Dosquet, 2020). This is despite the resurgence of the pandemic; tourism was blamed for aiding in the spreading of the disease, which had an adverse impact on people living in mountainous areas (Hollingsworth et al., 2006; Su et al., 2021). Indeed, lives were severely disrupted by measures put in place to curb the spread of the virus (Dube et al., 2021). The lockdown was imposed, which caused closures of hotels, borders and a significant decline in the road, air and water travel. Epidemics and pandemics have been shown to have significant social implications, including mobility limitations, travel bans, border closures and, in extreme situations, area quarantines (Espinoza et al., 2020). Globally, the pandemic caused a decline in international tourists by 74% in 2020 (UNWTO, 2021b).

The COVID-19 pandemic affected transportation networks, supply chains and workforces worldwide. However, the COVID-19 emergency put geographically isolated people in danger by triggering food supply challenges (Zhang et al., 2021) with the potential of also affecting tourism food supplies in mountain destinations. Studies have shown that food hunger and poverty are higher in mountain regions than in plains (Ahmad et al., 2015; Dame & Nüsser, 2011). Since the mountain communities were already facing a food crisis, the COVID-19 pandemic has made it more severe, which could prove detrimental to mountain tourism operations.

The COVID-19 pandemic affected the local population, recreational activities and accident management of mountain destinations (Van Veelen et al., 2021). Several studies suggest that urbanisation, increased global travel and extensive exploitation of the natural environment often result in disease spread (Jones et al., 2008; Morse, 1995). However, the impacts of the pandemic have not been limited to adverse environmental impacts but extended to people's socio-economic lives. The COVID-19 pandemic also tested the resilience of the world's health system resulting in millions of people losing their lives.

Mountain tourism is related to adventure and sports tourism (Beedie & Hudson, 2003). It plays a vital role by contributing to regional economic growth through tourism activities (Fredman, 2008). On the other hand, mountain tourism can be detrimental to the environment as it results in the commodification of various mountain products, which could result in the over-exploitation of resources (Beedie & Hudson, 2003). Even though mountain ecosystems are vulnerable to tourism, local and rural communities require this economic activity to survive (Luthe et al., 2012).

The pandemic has negatively and positively impacted mountain tourism due to the decline in tourists at mountain destinations (Seraphin & Dosquet, 2020). While the decline of tourists had environmental benefits, these were outweighed in many respects by socio-economic losses. Overall, the pandemic has caused massive global socio-economic upheaval, which has had a direct or indirect effect on the environment, such as improved air and water quality, noise reduction and ecological restoration (Chakraborty & Maity, 2020; Saadat et al., 2020). A decline in tourism arrivals due to the pandemic caused a loss to the livelihood security of people residing in mountain destinations. Regardless of the foregoing, not much work has been done on assessing the impacts of COVID-19 on mountain destinations. Therefore, this chapter will discuss the effects and implications of COVID-19 on mountain destinations and the recovery strategies adopted by mountain destinations.

6.2 Research Methodology

Secondary research was done in this study. The data was collected from secondary sources available in the public domain, such as books, journals, reports, research articles, government official websites, magazines, newsletters, review articles, etc. Articles were searched on Google Scholar using keywords Mountain tourism, mountain destination, COVID-19, Environmental impact and Economic impact. Apart from these critical words, the Himalayas, the Alps and Andes were also used to identify the article. Reports of UNWTO were also considered. All the pieces from renowned databases such as Scops, Web of Science and Taylor and Francis were considered. Forty-six articles were discovered at the end of the search. These articles were critically examined for the selection of the study. Articles published from 2020 to 2022 were reviewed. Researchers finally considered 11 pieces which were relevant for the study. The collected data were then analysed to achieve the primary objective of this chapter.

6.3 Findings

6.3.1 Impacts of COVID-19 on Mountain Destinations

The natural splendour, sporting options and rich cultural legacy of the world's mountains have long drawn travellers (UNWTO, 2021a). Tourism is a lifeline for many isolated mountain towns. It has the potential to boost household incomes, provide job possibilities and revive local customs (UNWTO, 2021a). This is especially crucial when we realise that one out of every two persons living in rural mountain areas in developing countries is at risk of starvation. However, on the other hand, mountain tourism has negative impacts and comes at stake. It can severely impact vulnerable mountain ecosystems, damage biodiversity, fail to guarantee local people benefit from income and even jeopardise the identity of mountain communities themselves if it is not well managed (UNWTO, 2021a). COVID-19 has wreaked havoc on the tourism business, and mountain tourism, as one of the vital wings of the travel industry, has been among the hardest-hit areas (Ebrahim and Memish, 2020; McCloskey et al., 2020). Based on the reviewed articles, the economic and environmental impacts of COVID-19 on mountain destinations are as follows.

6.3.2 Economic Impact

The physical and social environment of the mountain regions of the world is a critical contributor to local tourism (Zeng et al., 2022) and hence generates economic advantages (employment, tourism consumption, etc.) as well as social cohesiveness (accommodation, mutual interests, well-being, etc.) (Bouhaouala, 2022). The COVID-19 outbreak spread around the world and had direct and indirect impacts on the tourism industry (Hamid et al., 2021), including mountainous destinations, where it continues to impact the inhabitants, recreational activities and disaster mitigation strategies (Opoku et al., 2021; Van Veelen et al., 2021). A study by Opoku et al. on coffee tourism in Ali Mountains found a negative impact of COVID-19 on revenue generators and the country's gross domestic product. Due to the risk associated with the COVID-19, the coffee tourism business faces both logistical and operational disruptions in procuring raw materials and delivering completed goods. As a result, this pandemic harmed the income sources and the country's gross domestic product (Opoku et al., 2021). Another study published by Veelen et al. highlighted that in early 2020, high-altitude climbing sites in South Asia provisionally halted climbing permits to contain the transmission of the COVID-19 virus. The study also pointed out that the initial surge of the COVID-19 pandemic badly impacted other high locations, including the European Alps and the Rocky Mountains.

In numerous ski resorts as early as February 2020, outbreaks began before tourists practised social distancing and preventive measures in tourism infrastructures, including restaurants and cafes, mountain lodges and cable cars (Van Veelen et al., 2021). However, a study by Lazić and Martinović on the increase in demand for tourism-related services in the Republic of Serbia as a result of the pandemic's outbreak and declaration of a global emergency discovered that mountain attractions saw an increase in the proportion of domestic tourists from 83% in 2019 to 88% in 2020. Nevertheless, after the virus' breakout, demand for mountainous destinations decreased by 24.1% (Lazić & Martinović, 2021). Similarly, Ante Mandić (2021) investigated the impact of a pandemic in the Plitvice Lakes National Park, a prominent nature-based tourist attraction in Croatia's mountainous regions heavily reliant on tourist income and gravely endangered by unrestrained tourism expansion. Their study also discovered that the COVID-19 pandemic had caused a significant reduction in tourists, resulting in a decline in tourism earnings, lower incomes and increased unemployment (Mandić, 2021).

The lockdowns compelled the borders to close, leading to a sharp decline in air, road and waterway movement (Lakshmi Singh et al., 2021), leading to tourism supply chain (TSC) disruptions and, as a result, the overall economic turmoil of TSC activities (Guan et al., 2020). Our findings reveal that the economies of mountain destinations, which only depends on tourism, have been impacted by the COVID-19 pandemic the hardest. Thousands of individuals in the tourist business lost their jobs, causing the leisure and hospitality industry to have the largest laid off employees (Klein & Smith, 2021). Working in non-essential employment, such as in the tourism and hospitality industries, with limited work-from-home practicality and needing strong face-to-face engagement has been linked to high likelihood of COVID-19 unemployment (Adams-Prassl et al., 2020; Montenovo et al., 2021).

Although the overall number of jobless persons with temporary jobs increased from the pre-COVID-19 to the COVID-19 period, the total rise in unemployed individuals was more significant, diminishing the generalisability of this group during the COVID-19 period (Lopes et al., 2021). Our findings agree with the results of Blake et al. (2010), which concluded that employment insecurity was a severe concern for many working individuals in the United States amid the influenza outbreak (Blake et al., 2010). Consequently, the COVID-19 pandemic has had a severe socioeconomic impact on the mountain destinations, resulting in financial instability and a decline in revenue owing to lengthier lockdown times (Ali et al., 2021) and, hence, a dramatic decrease in overall tourism earnings (Lakshmi Singh et al., 2021).

6.3.3 Environmental Impacts

Tourism leads to employment generation, economic growth, increased foreign exchange earnings and export income from international tourists worldwide (Matthew et al., 2021; Yabuuchi, 2013). However, tourism-related environmental degradation has severely challenged tourism-focused countries (Yabuuchi, 2013). Tourism development, without a dispute, adds to economic growth; nevertheless, economic activities ultimately result in environmental degradation, and the subject of reducing greenhouse emissions to combat climate change is a significant concern nowadays (Wang & Wang, 2018). As a result, it is not astonishing that mountain tourism is becoming an increasing environmental concern in such destinations. Indeed, mountain tourism frequently occurs in restricted regions and vulnerable habitats; consequently, activities such as hiking threaten the sustainability of this type of tourism (Geneletti & Dawa, 2009). The decrease in economic operations and tourism amid the COVID-19 pandemic has lowered environmental stress (Mandić, 2021), and unforeseen air quality influences significantly impact human society (Han et al., 2021). Extreme lockdowns and quarantines resulted in a significant reduction in pollution emissions, giving helpful information about the elements that may impact air quality (Han et al., 2021).

Mountain tourism is also affected by commercialisation as a result of the industry's democratisation (Beedie & Hudson, 2003). Therefore, tourism has had a particularly negative influence on the ecosystem in mountainous locations. However, the COVID-19 lockdown and travel restrictions positively impacted the environment. Research carried out by Nagaj and Žuromskaitė (2021) in Central and Eastern

Europe (CEE) found that COVID-19 was an advantage to the environment since it helped economies to emit less pollution (Nagaj & Žuromskaitė, 2021). According to the study's findings, the COVID-19 outbreak reduced emissions of greenhouse gases from tourism in all CEE nations (Nagaj & Žuromskaitė, 2021). Similarly, Han et al. (2021) investigated to identify the linkages between the COVID-19 pandemic lockdown and air quality in the vicinity of Qinling Mountain, near Xi'an Xi'an, China. The results revealed that throughout the lockdown period, the concentration of O3 increased by 100.61%, while the attention of the pollutants decreased by 22.4% (Han et al., 2021). Lenart-Boroń et al. (2022) researched and showed how COVID-19 and lockdown demonstrated the extent to which natural mountain regions in Poland are impacted by excessive tourism (Lenart-Boroń et al., 2022). The research was conducted across six locations along the Bialka river valley (one of Poland's most popular tourist destinations), spanning three seasons: summer tourist season, winter tourist season and during the COVID-19 lockdown. The assessments of the study revealed a decline in the number of bacterial indicators of freshwater contamination as well as the proportion of antimicrobial-resistant *E. coli*. Moreover, during the lockdown, antibiotic concentrations were at their peak. Hence, their findings revealed a distinct pattern of tourism-related human impact on the aquatic ecosystem, along with the significant improvement of water quality due to the COVID-19 lockdown (Lenart-Boroń et al., 2022).

Nevertheless, mountain tourism is expected to serve as a placebo in the aftermath of the COVID-19 lockdown (Seraphin & Dosquet, 2020). The placebo effect of mountains is psychological because their location typically makes people feel physically and psychologically safe and secure and is related to pleasant sensations contributing to pleasurable experiences. Hence, the COVID-19 pandemic also exemplifies the tourism industry's dual nature. The initial lockdown restricted tourists' visits. Nevertheless, the opposite is expected to happen in the post-COVID-19 world. The possibility that COVID-19 promotes mountain tourism rather than eliminating tourism demonstrates the robustness of mountain tourism (Seraphin & Dosquet, 2020).

6.3.4 Recovery Strategies

The tourism industry has suffered a lot because of the pandemic; closures of ski resorts, lockdowns and travel restrictions have impacted all destinations. However, the pandemic has allowed mountain destinations to rethink their products and services to tourists. A thriving tourism business relies on product creation for new products or to revitalise the existing ones. The destinations such as Plitvice Lakes National Park, a prominent nature-based tourist attraction in Croatia's mountainous regions (Mandić, 2021) and Lomas of Lúcumo in Central Peru in the Andes mountainous region (Gabriel-Campos et al., 2021), updated their marketing plans encouraging tourists to discover or rediscover the destinations through direct marketing techniques. Diversification, upgrading and revitalisation of products and services are essential for mountain tourism to thrive.

Mountainous tourist destinations are intricate socio-economic and ecological systems that need a delicate balance of environmental protection and people's economic earnings. For example, the new management approach in Plitvice Lakes National Park focuses on estimating hourly capacity and implementing monitoring of predetermined metrics to manage and monitor tourists and their related impacts (Mandić, 2021). The management is striving to minimise overcrowding to prevent virus transmission and assure the health and well-being of the tourists and the local community through social distancing. Moreover, they also deal with problematic behaviour and disputes that may emerge due to viral transmission worries (Mandić, 2021). Therefore, the pandemic has had a profound impact on the planning and execution of tourist experiences, as well as their management. The shift to new sustainable modes of transportation, such as electric boats or trains, is critical for nature-based mountainous areas because it balances tourist pursuits with the conservation of the environment (Bigerna et al., 2019).

Mountain regions may experience new prospects in the post-COVID-19 age as travellers' preferences for less crowded vacation destinations and their desire to re-establish a connection with nature develop. The COVID-19 crisis's rising digitalisation presents an opportunity to attract digital nomads and remote workers, fostering local growth. The COVID-19 pandemic has provided a chance to emphasise the significance of creating sustainable mountain tourism, taking advantage of travellers' increased desire to spend time in nature.

To recover from the COVID-19 impacts, the governments of different nations have enacted plans to help the tourism industry bounce back at an incredible pace. Most governments globally have undertaken job creation initiatives to support the country's ordinary people. For example, Georgia imposes a strategy to support the tourism industry. The country has put off the property and income taxes for the tourism sector and restructured the debts for tourism companies and individuals (Intra-European Organisation of Tax Administration, 2020). It is suggested that other nations can also adopt these kinds of strategies for the tourism industry to recover. The agrifood systems in today's scenario must be restructured and become more sustainable, efficient and resilient to enhance livelihood, ensure that the local communities are fully engaged in and profit from mountain tourism. The mountain destinations, in particular, must adapt and diversify themselves to attract tourists as tourism emerges from the pandemic's shadow. Mountain destinations are putting efforts into promoting lesser-known sites to attract tourists. After the economic loss incurred by the COVID-19 pandemic, such as employment and tourism earning reduction, developing tourism for an entire year in the mountains can create additional revenue, which is becoming increasingly important as the effects of the climate crisis are shortening the length of snow seasons. Other than winter sports and hiking, mountains have a lot to offer. In today's scenario, snow sports in winter and trekking in summer are only two of the many activities available in the mountains. So, more mountain activities can be added to attract tourists to mountain regions. The other examples of tourist diversification opportunities are rare flora and fauna, archaeological sites, spiritual and wellness sites, mineral springs and thermal baths, gourmet routes and attractive villages. The Cordillera area of the Philippines is a notable example. A project launched aiming to create a connection between service providers (small service providers and tourism service providers) allowed the tourists to discover and experience superior-quality mountain products. On the one hand, commodities such as heirloom rice provide an opportunity for people residing in the mountain region to increase their income by Slow Food, the tourism department and the mountain partnership secretariat in 2018 (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 2018).

Several incidents of natural disasters, such as landslides and floods, are reported every year. Therefore, taking the risk of ignoring climate change will further increase the frequency of such incidents in the mountain region, ultimately impacting the tourist's arrival. Aiding mountain regions in their recovery from the pandemic necessitates short- and long-term initiatives beyond the tourism industry. The businesses need to be rebuilt more sustainably and equitably in ways that benefit mountain people and their environs in the long run. The COVID-19 pandemic has changed tourist's preferences, behaviour and values; traveling as safely and healthily as possible is now becoming a top goal. As a result of the pandemic, consumers are becoming more conscious of the social and environmental effects of their travel decisions. Further, travellers are now being more aware of sustainable travel options, and a study conducted by Expedia Group (2021) shows that nearly three in five travellers are willing to pay extra costs for a sustainable and environment-friendly trip. It gives an opportunity to the service providers to consider tourists' choice and preferences and include sustainable policies in their marketing plan and be more cautious towards it. If they do not think it now, it will create negative reviews by the tourists, ultimately impacting their marketing efforts. The mountain destinations may focus on sustainable growth by helping tourists make sustainable choices. The lesser-known destinations and places with fewer footfalls should be promoted to decongest crowding destinations and disperse visitors. In this way goals can ensure sustainable growth to bring back tourists and overcome the loss incurred during the COVID-19 outbreak in the mountain destinations.

It is recommended that the destinations should come forward with ways to strengthen crisis management capacity and health and safety standards. It will be beneficial for the world to remain to prepare if any such thing as COVID-19 happen in the future. Also, the destinations that can differentiate themselves from their competitors are the chosen ones. Further, the guarantee of safety and cultural and natural sustainability capture the tourists in the market in the post-pandemic times.

6.4 Conclusion

One of the most severely affected sectors of the travel industry by COVID-19 has been mountain tourism. The COVID-19 pandemic will have a long-term impact on the mountain economy and have an adverse impact on those who are reliant upon it.

The study found that COVID-19 pandemic severely adversely affected mountain communities as many were left jobless or with limited livelihood security. This could be attributed to a significant slump in tourist arrivals, which led to lower tourism earnings, decreased incomes and increased unemployment.

Much as the COVID-19 pandemic had an adverse impact on the environment, there were also some positive spin-offs on the environment. The measures required to prevent the virus's transmission and the suspension of economic operations have caused a significant reduction in carbon footprints leading to more sustainable solutions. Due to mobility restrictions and a significant delay in social and economic activities, most regions of the world witnessed improved air and water quality, noise reduction and overall ecological restoration. As a result of the lockdowns and travel restrictions, fossil fuel consumption was significantly reduced, leading to decreased greenhouse gas emissions. Thus, the COVID-19 pandemic resulted in environmental reset.

The pandemic also promoted responsible tourism and fostered a high degree of environmental consciousness. This can equally benefit mountain destinations which were battling from overpopulation and pollution of all sorts. With the international tourists gone, mountain destinations saw a rise in domestic tourism which is considered less carbon-intensive in comparison to international tourism. There is also a view that the domestic tourist is more accepting of local cultures and heritage which benefits the local destinations. These developments suggest a reconnection of tourism to the interests of host communities as part of a survival mechanism in the absence of visitors. Given these lessons there is therefore a need for marketers to include domestic tourism as part of tourism resilience building.

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Part III
Tourism Operations During the COVID-19 Pandemic: Innovations and Resilience-Building

Chapter 7
Rural Tourism Creative Innovations in Italy and Kazakhstan as a Response to the COVID-19 Pandemic: Revisiting Rural Leisure and Travel

Aliya Tankibayeva, Silvia Grandi, and Sandy MacDonald

Abstract This chapter presents the results of qualitative research exploring innovative developments by rural tourism sites in Italy and Kazakhstan in response to the disruption caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. This chapter draws attention to the quintessential components of tourism, such as leisure and recreation, distance and associated travel experience, as essential determinants of rural tourism's innovative developments during the pandemic. The authors conceptualise the model of rural tourism creative innovation in the COVID-19 pandemic and use it to explore how rural tourist sites in two countries, Italy and Kazakhstan, revisited their tourism resources during the pandemic. It was found that despite differing tourism resources and differences in established forms of rural tourism in these two countries, the rural sites applied creative means to underscore the rural tourism experience as a source and enabler of human well-being. Acknowledging many inherent sustainability values that are at the core of rural tourism's appeal and tourism products, this chapter concludes that the pandemic revealed new perspectives on both the strength and fragility of rural tourism as a sustainable form of tourism, calling for practitioners and scholars to reassess the understanding of rurality in sustainable tourism development.

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7.1 Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic has dramatically impacted the tourism sector through the disruption of tourism worldwide (UNWTO, 2020; WTTC, 2021). At the same time, the pandemic brought new perspectives on specific facets of tourism. The protracted restrictions on travel, business uncertainty and tourist anxiety prompted innovative ways for tourism destinations to adjust. In this chapter, we focus on rural sites' response to the COVID-19 pandemic to reinvent their tourism offerings. Rural tourism is a form of broader tourism that offers leisure or other types of purposeful experiences for visitors outside their usual settings (UNWTO, 2022). At the same time, acting in rural areas has produced unique advantages and vulnerabilities for rural tourism sites. The capacity of rural locations to comply with social distance requirements and to satisfy the increased need for recreation, thus elevating human physical and mental health, has proved to be relatively advantageous. The pandemic has revealed the potential of rural areas to add to the well-being and experiential richness of human living (Palacios-Florencio et al., 2021; Chin, 2022; Cvijanović et al., 2021; De la Barre et al., 2020; Grandi et al., 2022). However, the differing degrees of remoteness often resulting in less functional connectivity exposed rural sites to more pronounced effects from restricted mobility (Lebrun et al., 2021). While constrained travel might have generated social appreciation of mobility as a human experience and travel as a realisation of mobility, fundamental human rights and freedom (Kang et al., 2021), the practical difficulties with ensuring visitors' transportation to rural sites result in rural areas having to reinvent their accessibility (Hussain et al., 2021; Cheung & Wong, 2022). In this context, rural tourism found itself paradoxical to the essence of travel to rural areas and rural touristic leisure (Jacobsen et al., 2021). These specific features, alongside emerging scholarship in innovative tourism behaviour during the pandemic, drove the need for research in understanding the creative behaviour of rural tourism sites.

We analyse the cases of Italy and Kazakhstan to explore the innovative developments that rural tourism sites have undertaken in response to the COVID-19 pandemic. Despite having different forms of rural tourism in each country, we argue that the creative behaviour of rural tourism sites has taken similar directions during the pandemic. In both countries, rural tourism has commonalities in supporting rural economies, facilitating social development and preserving rural heritage (Grandi et al., 2022). Furthermore, a similar role of rural tourism providers in maintaining the viability of rural tourism (Lupi et al., 2017; Aktymbayeva et al., 2017) has directed the focus of this chapter to explore the innovative approaches of rural sites operating in the face of the pandemic. We examine the dimensions of human experience that universally and quintessentially define tourism: leisure, recreation, travel experience and travel distance (Lane & Kastenholz, 2015; Butler, 2004). We suggest that while doing so, rural tourism sites have been innovating by applying 'creativity' to produce the value of rural tourism in a new pandemic-constrained setting. Recreativity in this context is possible due to the human faculty for imagination, creativity and assigning non-material meanings to the physical environment. Acknowledging that the study of creativity as an innovative process by tourism enterprises is not entirely new in research (Ratten et al., 2019; Tejada & Moreno, 2013; Yachin, 2019), we offer a perspective on innovation by rural tourism in a highly interrupted operating environment of almost ubiquitous immobility, high anxiety and uncertainty. The findings are analysed concerning the character of innovative behaviour, followed by the discussion of observed and potential effects of such behaviour on the sustainability of rural tourism.

7.2 The Nexus of Human Well-Being and Sustainable Rural Tourism

In this chapter, cases in Italy and Kazakhstan are analysed about the effects of the pandemic on rural sites' creative adjustment. The analysis revealed that these rural tourism adjustments were possible due to the potential of rural areas to operationalise diverse forms of tourism, many of which have the potential to develop into socially and environmentally sustainable forms of tourism. There is growing research focus on rural tourism as a form of sustainable tourism, which is a tourism goal in both developed and developing countries (Lane et al., 2022; Kantar & Svržnjak, 2017; An & Alarcón, 2020; Martínez et al., 2019). The study underpinning this chapter is developed on the assumption that the pandemic-related changes in rural tourism created a strong momentum for strengthening both environmental and psycho-social dimensions of rural tourism (Jones & Comfort, 2020).

A driver of innovation for tourism sites during the pandemic is their need to maintain operation in conditions of travel restrictions. A creative approach to mobilising material and immaterial resources has been the leading enabler of innovation (Wang et al., 2022; Vaishar & Šťastná, 2022). Given the novelty of the research focus, the authors undertook an exploratory study of rural tourism response guided by a conceptual framework for creative innovation (see Fig. 7.1). This framework describes how rural tourism sites have addressed the changing notion of leisure and recreation due to the pandemic in the conditions of uncertainty, health safety requirements, mobility restrictions, disrupted supply chains and constrained human and economic resources:

The character of rural tourism innovation in the face of pandemic restrictions can be conceptualised as creative innovation (Richards, 2014; Ateljevic, 2009; Joppe & Brooker, 2013). Unlike technological-driven innovation, efficiency-seeking innovation or innovation based on the adoption of existing blueprints in the industry – the rural tourism innovation, especially in remote areas – was mainly based on inventing new approaches to deliver rural tourism experience, including choices on tourism activity and modes of delivery (Ateljevic & Doorne, 2000). The sector downturn has also conditioned the application of various forms of meaning-making. Reference is made to innovation by 'creativity', implying that sites often had to creatively use the notion of rurality in non-rural or non-conventional settings. This also applies to the site technique to mould visitors' unconventional needs to be accommodated in rural settings (Textbox 7.1).

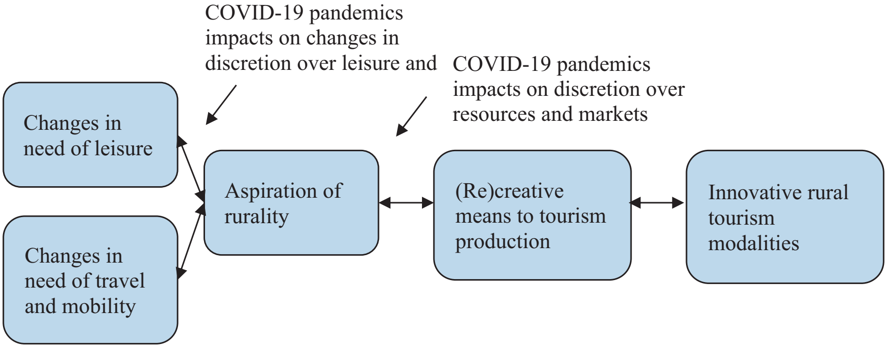

Fig. 7.1 Model of rural tourism creative innovation in the COVID-19 pandemic

Textbox 7.1 Examples of creative innovations

Rural tourism recreative innovation:

Task:overcoming distance in condition of mobility restrictions

Recreative means: moving cooking classes close to tourist homes retain authentic food and tastes and satisfy mobility restrictions

Task:meeting social distance requirement for forms of collective recreation

Recreative means: creating real-time online playing ground with vivid images of real

Task: accommodate visitors' work-related needs in rural 'offices'

Recreative means: modify the schedule of cultural performances and events in order to reproduce scheduling routines of working people

Although creativity (i.e. the generation and use of imagination or original ideas to create something) is often linked with innovation (i.e. new ideas set in practice), the pandemic has pointed to the existence of more space and more need for creativity in rural tourism. Mutually reinforcing links between firms' creativity and sustainability increasingly becomes a focus of research interest. Souto (2022:805) suggests that '.... innovation and creativity contribute – in an interconnected way – to sustainable development, as well as overcoming sustainability challenges and firms' barriers to sustainability'. Awan et al. (2019) consider creativity as the leading enabler of green products and processes, seconded by Fazlagić and Skikiewicz (2019) and Ratten et al. (2019). Although the sustainability behaviour of rural sites during the pandemic was not directly in the scope of the exploratory case studies conducted for this chapter, the innovative behaviour of rural areas has been assessed in terms of its implications for the sustainability aspects of rural tourism.

7.3 Methodology

This exploratory research draws on two case studies (Stake, 1995; Creswell & Poth, 2016) based on qualitative data received from multiple sources (Table 7.1). The qualitative data predominates in these cases because, as Cochrane (2010,185) points out, although quantitative measures are helpful in research on tourism resilience, there is a need for more qualitative approaches as they are more suited to what she describes as 'a richer interpretation of human systems such as tourism'. The cases are developed based on data from the semi-structured interview protocols with the same questions for both countries' samples of rural tourism sites. This also calculates the analysis by cross-checking interview answers with commentaries from the tourism sector experts in both countries. The survey of visitors of 15 tourist sites in Almaty, conducted before and at the early stage of the pandemic, complements the analysis of the case study in Kazakhstan. Researchers were constrained by mobility restrictions, although they aimed to develop comparable samples from each country. Purposive sampling was used to ensure inclusion in selecting the short-distance and long-distance sites from major cities. Each category of sites was also represented by those specialising in domestic or both domestic and international visitors. Differing rural tourism activities were carried out at the sample sites, which helped to elicit insights about reinventing leisure offerings to respond to the pandemic's restrictions rather than based on the specific type of leisure offered.

The data analysis was conducted by identifying and eliciting main themes and recurrent patterns in the data about the main research question: *how does rural tourism innovate itself in response to the COVID-19 pandemic*? Analysis of primary data in both cases used supplementary data from research and analytical literature and media coverage. The adopted method is in line with Mik-Meyer (2020), Rishi and Gaur (2012) and Datta et al. (1997), a multi-sourced qualitative approach for data collection and analysis appropriate for exploratory studies (see Table 7.1).

Table 7.1 Profile of data sources for qualitative approach (Mik-Meyer, 2020)

Italy	Kazakhstan	Sampling strategy and selection criteria
Interviews with one expert Scholar and ministerial official	Interviews with two experts Expert A: owner of tourism agency specialising in nature-based and rural tourism Expert B: practitioner and policy advisor in tourism destination development, sustainable tourism	Purposive sampling based on expertise in rural tourism and sustainable tourism Data were collected by the use of interview protocol with identical questions for all experts
Four rural tourist sites Day trip host in agri-farm (international visitors' focus) Day trip host in agri-farm (domestic visitors' focus) Horse riding and rural life (proximal to urban centres) Food and wine tourism, rural living tourism (the remote site from urban centres)	Four rural tourist sites Apiary with day trips and special event services (focus on both domestic and international visitors) Ethno-village in a remote area from urban centres (focus on both domestic and international visitors) Horse riding in natural settings (proximal to urban centres) Glamping provider (several locations in both remote and proximal areas to urban centres)	Purposive sampling based on distance (remote-proximal) and visitor orientation (domestic – both domestic and international) Use of interview protocol with identical questions
	Survey 40 visitors to 15 nature-based and cultural sites in the Almaty region	Convenience sampling of visitors at sites
Desk research Legal and regulatory documents OECD reports Media coverage	Desk research Legal and regulatory documents Reports from tourism development agency 'Kazakh Tourism' and association 'Kazakh Tourism Association' Media coverage	

7.4 Results and Discussions

7.4.1 Case Study Analysis: Kazakhstan

Rural tourism context Regarding the normative framework, rural tourism in Kazakhstan is in the process of conceptualisation, exploration and experimentation. *The Tourism Strategic Development Plan for 2019–2025* outlines the goal of developing definitions for 'rural tourism' and 'agritourism products' and exploring viable models for tourists and rural destinations. In practice, rural tourism in Kazakhstan is not a new phenomenon. The social value of rural areas is defined by the traditional appreciation of nature, linkage of rural areas as ancestors' origins and locales of events with historical significance. In the nomadic lifestyle, where families migrating over long distances could meet occasionally, a guest-hosting culture became a prominent cultural norm (Tleubayeva, 2019; Tiberghien & Xie, 2018). Tourism to rural areas has mainly formed as visits to family or extended family. Therefore, a tourist infrastructure has not developed at a mass scale. The agricultural specialisation of the rural regions varies where large agri-firms are mainly engaged in crop production; simultaneously, medium- and small-holder farms are dispersed all over the country, engaging in livestock (staple and pastoral), kitchen gardening and agroforestry (Iskakova et al., 2021a). Nonetheless, tourist infrastructure in rural areas is scarce: the resort areas are more equipped and established, while only a minor share of agri sites is provided to regularly offer tourism services (Iskakova et al., 2021b). Traditional crafts and cuisine have strong links with historical lifestyles; however, their production has recently been practised in rural areas and cities (Tiberghien & Xie, 2018; Tiberghien et al., 2015).

The nature-based and ethnocultural tourism in Kazakhstan has a more elaborate policy framework. It includes regulations regarding tourism in protected areas and heritage sites. In addition, the domestic tourism sector mainly comprises nature-based packages and self-organised visits to nature-based sites. Indeed, the geographical endowments of rural areas in Kazakhstan are very diverse with varied natural landscapes with mountains in the south, south-east and some central parts, steppes (24%) stretching from centre to north and deserts (24%) and semi-deserts (44%) on the west and west-north (Orexca, 2022). Vast territories (2,724,900 sq. km) and long distances between major cities, to an extent, explain why many nature-based touristic sites are concentrated close to cities.

Despite the slowdown in touristic activities due to COVID-19, tourism development continues to be one of the critical national priorities, reaffirmed by the government in the tourism strategic development plan for 2019–2025. Targeting at least a 3% increase (from 5.6% in 2019) of tourism share in GDP by 2025, the plan outlines priorities for agritourism, ecological tourism, ethnographic tourism, youth tourism, medical tourism and MICE tourism, each having the potential to be developed in rural areas.

The pandemic's impact on leisure needs Before the pandemic, the perceived attractiveness of visits to the rural countryside was relatively high (Shaken et al., 2020). In their survey conducted in 2018, almost 60% of respondents expressed interest in leisure time in the countryside. The majority of those interested in visits to the country focused on the provision of clean air and natural and organic food (72%), with significantly lower interest in closeness or unity with nature (27%) as well as in learning and experiencing rural lifestyle (25%) (see Table 7.2). It is essential to clarify that buying agricultural products directly from farms or via farmers' markets is quite a conventional behaviour. However, staying on farms (other than those of relatives and friends) and participating in production processes have been timely novels for both farmers and visitors.

Table 7.2 Ranking of factors attractive and preventing the visit (sample size = 40.X) (1, most influence, to 6, most minor influence)

	Domestic tourists to nature-based sites in the Almaty region	Mean rank (of 6)	Inbound tourists in the Almaty region	Mean rank (of 6)
Factors perceived as attractive	Nature Financial affordability Near the city (Almaty) History and culture	1.34 3.48 4 4.41	Nature Financial affordability History and culture Comfort	1.33 3.41 4 4.42
Factors perceived as preventing a visit	No information/no awareness No regular transport Unsatisfactory level of service No unique sites	2.93 3.72 5.13 5.75	No information/no awareness No regular transport Language barriers	2.17 2.67 3.92 3.92

During the first lockdown, for those domestic and international visitors who visited one or several of the 15 nature-based sites in the Almaty region, the most attractive factor for their visit was the uniqueness of the place and its natural scenery. The second most attractive factor was financial affordability. Domestic visitors' proximity to the city was the third most attractive, followed by the representation of national history and culture by a site. For international visitors, history and culture appeared as the third most attractive factor, followed by the level of comfort offered by the site.

The pandemic has certainly re-emphasised the potential of rural areas for nature-based recreation: the public discussion of rural sites as bases for nature-embedded stays has been very vivid. The links between human well-being and planetary health have been popular in the media and among tourists. The actual effects of changing perceptions are rather complex: immediately after the end of the strict lockdown in 2020, the rural and nature-based sites received significant demand for visitors. Not all sites could accommodate the increased demand due to insufficient regular capacity or the required health measures. About 30% of visitors, according to the sites interviewed in our study, choose the visit in pursuit of reducing their anxiety or because there are no preferred alternatives. Moreover, not all visitors were happy with their tourist experience because they lacked awareness and interest in the type of pastime offered.

As the pandemic unfolded, the first wave's impulse visitors fell away. Still, it can be observed that some more sustained and innovative forms of rural tourism have taken place (KTA, 2022): there have been exciting nature-based and farm-based stays, which have led to the creation of 'glamping tourism', 'eco-hotels', 'guest-houses', 'ethno-villages', 'agri-settlement' and other forms of accommodations. The initial interest in such innovative forms appeared before the pandemic from the side of tourism enthusiasts' experiments to innovate in tourism (Katenov, 2021). The pandemic has accelerated their adoption and redirected support from both public and private investments. In addition to being well-received by visitors, these forms showed multiple configurations adequate for adoption by rural site operators of various sizes and directed at diverse tourist audiences (Shaikenova, 2022).

According to the Kazakh Tourist Association (KTA, 2022), the number of guest houses from 2008 to 2021 increased by 95 units (107%), and the number of community-based tourism communities more than doubled – by 13 units (118%). The most well-known community-based tourism sites with guesthouses (also those which appeared among the first established) are nature-based (Saty village) and combined nature-based and ethnocultural tourist offerings (Altyn-Emel).

The Impact of the Pandemic on Travel and Mobility Needs
The pandemic underscored both the difficulties and opportunities of long-distance tourism. In the survey, two factors that visitors expressed as preventing them from visiting a site are the absence of clear and accurate information about the site and the absence of regular and reliable transportation. In conditions of constrained conventional travel, the Kazakhstan Association of Camping Tourism and Caravanning held the Second Rally of Caravanning tourists in October 2021. In September 2020, the auto- and moto-caravanning expedition 'Caravanning – tourism of real nomads' took place along the route of the Great Silk Road. The initiators of the project 'Kazakh Tourism' and the Kazakhstan Association of Camping Tourism and Caravanning aimed to cover 3500 km over 15 days to explore the potential of remote areas for various types of long-distance tourism. The development of caravanning is compatible with the development of on-farm tourism and the development of rural settlements. Overall, there is a need for water and medical infrastructure, which makes suitable development of settlements along the tourist routes. The story of small-scale rural accommodation is a good alternative for making long-distance travel affordable for people not equipped with convenient transport – people can walk from location to location with minimum luggage.

The effects of restrictions on travel have revealed the patterns in short-distance tourism too. Rural areas proximal to cities also have essential untapped potential for diversifying types of rural tourism forms in post-pandemic times. Despite good connectivity and accessibility of rural sites, the most visited were those most famous – although some of them are difficult to reach. Some popular and proximal sites to the cities have almost doubled the number of visitors in 2 years, respectively increasing recreational loads on natural ecosystems. For instance, the resort areas were visited by 1.7 million tourists in 2020, 1.2 million in 2019 and 1.1 million in 2018 (Kazakh Tourism, 2021). At the same time, many areas with public awareness but well-connected and within proximal (weekend or even excursion) zones received essentially few visitors. Among 15 nature-based rural sites in the Almaty region, the most visited were quite distant and challenging to reach but unique and popular. The least seen were those with unclear leisure and recreation components, despite being easily accessible (Table 7.3). The insights are essential for developing more sustainable tourism and viable regional and local economies.

Creativity in rural tourism innovations Not all rural sites could innovate during the pandemic, but those who implemented creative endeavours have done it differently. Rural sites in proximity to cities showed a more varied range of innovative developments, many of which were implemented with the help of non-material resounded or restructuring of the existing resource bases. The creative efforts have

Table 7.3 Tourist perceptions on distance and intention to visit (Kazakhstan)

Nature-based sites	% of visitors	Travel time (space) from Almaty	Leisure and recreation	Representative themes
Most visited				
Charyn Canyon	**74**	2 hours, 50 minutes (220 km)	Nature-related, outdoor	'Unique place in central Asia, not recommended to go there in hot summer, a lot to do there, from camping to exploring the canyon'. 'Fee for entrance is not appropriate and expensive'. 'Need sanitary facilities'. 'Somewhere in between this walking course there should be some rest stop', 'Should be visited at least once'.
Big Almaty lake	**67**	53 minutes (32 km)	Mountain tourism, not a resort	'Close to the city, easy to reach'. 'Dangerous Road'. 'I walked to Almaty Lake, and the tour was one of my hardest walking tours. But the Lake itself is very beautiful and should be visited'. 'Overcrowded on weekends'.
Last visited				
Huuns Ethnic Aul (village)	18	1 hour (5 km)	Cultural, heritage	'Nice place to spend your day with your friends, colleagues or family and interesting activities on site'. 'Entrance needs to be more affordable'. 'National cuisine should be better represented'.
Burundai Saka mounds	10.7	By car, less than an hour (suburban site)	Nature, cultural, heritage	'Nothing to see and no promotion so far, lack of transport'. 'Need more information about site's natural and historical value'.

been organised to address the highlighted needs for health safety and simultaneously for physical and mental recreation and enjoyable pastimes:

> We see that visitors appreciate the positive effect of natural products on their health, with such an attitude they are more willing to come to us despite difficulties and uncertainties. (Owner of the apiary)

> Recently, we have received more local visitors interested in nomadic life and traditions. They like our stylised show programs and national games. (Manager of an ethnocultural nature park)

Rural tourism sites increased the application of digital tools for product presentation and communication with visitors. It is not necessarily that the rural areas use advanced data management and analytics, but they turned their attention to visitor engagement. Remote rural areas were more dependent on disruption of the supply chain and transportation unless they could be reached by car. However, remote rural areas were able to raise their public image and appeal to visitors by offering a choice of their sites for other vacations. It appears that in the first year of the pandemic, most of the sites had to use the only resources available. Those sites lacking access to additional investments expressed a shift in providing creative activities too and especially in modifying their offers to their regular visitors:

> Now, because people are not very mobile, we try to keep in touch with them anyway. Here is a pack of seasonal vegetables and cooking guidance, so we sell them at affordable prices to our customers to remind them to come to us after the pandemic. (Owner of apiary and agrofarm)

At the same time, the pandemic has fostered creative developments of travel to rural areas in non-conventional forms and purposes. The conditions of gastronomic leisure with participation in food harvesting and tasting have emerged as relatively novel forms of activity for rural farms. The formation of these leisure activities occurs not only through the pandemic restrictions but in relatively unrestricted pre-existing agri- and gastronomic tourism products; therefore, tourist sites have shown great diversity in what they offer and how they make the offerings financially viable. In pre-pandemic times, craft-based tourism was usually carried out in trade fairs accompanying special events and craftsman centres or villages – an assembly of sites offering trade, workshops or exhibitions in the designated outlets in urban and rural areas tourist areas. Traditional arts and craft-making participation during the pandemic has moved into craft-makers' sites. The creative shifts have been like other forms of rural tourism in that the sites have to think of more explicit links between craft-making and health: the craft-makers also looked for creative ways to deliver the value of craft and find innovative outlets for hosting visitors. One outcome of their creative efforts is the changing social attitude toward more normal co-staying and accommodating visitors at farmers' sites.

The creative offerings have been incremental for all types of sites in the first year; however, in the second year after the pandemic, some creative initiatives have turned into more established innovative developments with the potential to turn into viable tourist products. For instance, expanding the network of glamping (i.e. a variation of nature-based stay in rural and suburban areas with enhanced comfortability) reflects the mixture of hedonistic, recreational and utilitarian demands that were rather characteristic for urban residents/city tourists:

> We understand that tourists have different needs. Glamping is intended for those who love outdoor recreation and, at the same time, do not want to compromise comfort. They plan to come to us for a combination of beauty, wildness, comfort, and healing. Therefore in our glamping, they can choose to prepare meals for themselves, do horse-riding, walk, do sports, take recreational baths and spas, do meditation or take sports classes. (Owner of glamping)

The creative means for enhancing the value of conventional rural experiences were also observed. In such cases, creative efforts were undertaken to capture and communicate the traditional values for a new type of tourist:

> The demand has increased. However, we need more trainers and develop other types of materials for novice riders; we hope that more people will appreciate the importance of preservation of horse-riding heritage. (Owner of sport and recreational horse-riding site)

In general, the response of rural tourism sites to pandemic situations was varied and creative. The sector appears to be in the process of probing and transformation:

> Tourism is becoming more creative and more professional. During the quarantine period, the tourism sector suffered a lot. The market weeded out weak players, strong ones remained, and new ones appeared. (Owner of glamping).

In the pandemic, rural sites' creative and innovative competence turned out to be a decisive factor in sites' functioning. Two independent tourism experts agreed that rural sites must think about the available resources more creatively:

> In my opinion, rural tourism 'products' are already there: beautiful landscapes, charming villages, and auls with traditional culture. The biggest challenges are the transport infrastructure and lack of information about what they offer. Tourists need to know that these 'products' exist and there is an opportunity to reach them. (Expert A)

The experts and scholars appeared to be in consensus that tourism in rural areas in Kazakhstan would be invigorated if there was a more vivid presentation of the sites and their offerings and designing more varied tourist experiences at new and existing sites.

Implications to sustainable rural tourism It is premature to make clear-cut projections about the sustainability and continuity of innovations in the long term. However, our research makes it possible to suggest that recent decisions about two rural tourism features, choice of physical infrastructure (roads, etc.) and rural tourism value orientations, will significantly influence rural areas' sustainability. As discussed above, sustainable development of long-distance travel would require both social inclusion and environmental sustainability. Therefore, the effect of light infrastructure and distances manageable by walking with minimal luggage is a reasonable direction for sustainable rural tourism development. The innovative results in rural tourism have been driven mainly by the sites' need for operational survival and tourists' well-being demand. This, however, produced an intensive and vivid public consensus about the value of rural areas, rurality and nature per se and as factors in the overall sustainable development of the country.

7.4.2 Study Analysis: Italy

Rural tourism context Rural tourism can be considered one of the oldest forms of tourism in Italy (Battilani, 2001). Forms of hospitality in rural areas can be recognised in the tradition of pilgrimages. The genesis of rural tourism can be seen in both the Middle Ages and the Renaissance when the embryonic form of rural tourism could be said to have begun. Modern rural tourism originated in the late nineteenth century (Battilani, 2001). In 1991, Bernardi observed that, despite the hospitality culture being part of the tradition of farmers' families in most Italian regions, it was still developed only in a few places such as Alto Adige and Tuscany. However, this perspective has changed significantly. Italy adopted a particular law relating to agritourism (Legge Quadro Nazionale sull'Agriturismo n. 730/1985), followed by an amended one in 2006. In the first decade of the twentieth century, agritourism was one of Italy's highest-growing tourism sectors. As stated by the

Italian National Institute of Statistics (2017), in 2016, there were 22,661 agritourism farms licensed to provide accommodation while hosting 12.1 million visitors. Agritourism is defined explicitly by law as a form of tourism where each farm offers tourism products based on a farm's production. In this way, the policy of rural tourism facilitates the development of sustainable rural tourism in two ways: by supporting the farms' income (economic and social sustainability) and by maintaining the diversity and uniqueness of agricultural production, which also prevents excessive commodification of agriculture in rural areas (environmental and socio-cultural sustainability).

Agritourism in Italy mainly comprises forms of agricultural farms offering food-tasting experiences and short stays with various types of incidents related to rural or farm life. Agritourism in Italy shall consist of 19 agritourism districts, each with its characteristic gastronomic speciality. Italy, as of 2016, counted 863 IG appellations – 299 IG food and 526 IG wine geographical indications (Piñeiro et al., 2019), with some agri farms specialising in food production, some in wine and some in both. Other than agritourism, rural tourism sites offer 'sun and beach' tourism, directly linked with the sustainability of nature-based resources – nature and historical architecture, sightseeing, hiking, trekking and visiting national parks. Most of the rural districts in Italy have good road connectivity within and among the communities, which in pre-pandemic times allowed for the creation of multi-destination routes and tour packages (e.g. the 'Roads of flavours' or '*I Borghi più Belli d'Italia* (the most beautiful villages of Italy') and numerous associations of small towns and villages to introduce food, architectural and cultural heritage; thematic routes dedicated to olive oil, pasta, wine and flavours; and walking and trekking tours.

The pandemic's impact on leisure needs Free time, *otium* – as the Romans used to call it – has been the historical ground on which travel for leisure and recreation began for the Roman *élite*. The availability of free time from work, days off paid and agreed job contracts are a more recent phenomenon (Battilani, 2001). Excluding obligations, work and tasks required for pure existence, such as sleeping or eating, according to statistical data, in Italy in pre-pandemic times, according to the multipurpose survey on household time use (Italian National Institute of Statistics, 2013), the average time usage of people of 15 years old and over is concentrated in personal care (including main tasks required for existing such as eating, sleeping), social life and entertainment, sport and outdoor activities, hobbies, using a computer, reading, watching TV and listening to the radio.

Therefore, leisure time can be defined as the discretionary time remaining after working, commuting, sleeping and doing necessary household and personal care, which can be used in a chosen way (Tribe, 2020). The activities done during these hours are in general recreation activities at home, in nearby places, i.e. in the hometown, or a few hours from it. When home-based, examples of activities are listening to music and radio, watching television or video, playing games, *bricolage* and do-it-yourself, reading, writing, use of computer for leisure, hobbies such as collections, modelling, cooking, painting, decorating, exercising, etc. and other home entertainment activities, including socialisation with friends and relatives, when done for leisure. Similarly, but even more extensive is the list of activities engaged outside: watching or practising sports, dancing, arts and crafts, travels, wild gaming, cultural visits (museums, exhibitions, seminars, public reading, labs, etc.), eating and drinking fine food, and so on. Leisure is substantially subjective. However, the COVID-19 pandemic acted as a universal selector in people's pursuit of well-being and recreation outside home settings.

A shrinking set of opportunities has started to drive creative solutions in rural tourism demand and supply. The rural sites analysed in our sample suggested that the share of domestic tourists increased during restricted international travel. Three tendencies can be seen: (1) sites have been booked for day trips, (2) new requests appeared for Internet connectivity as tourists intended to work while visiting, and (3) recreation and health-related services were necessary for tourists (Table 7.4).

It should be noted that all types of surveyed rural tourism sites (those with a focus on domestic visitors or international, sites with proximity to urban centres and remote sites) foresaw no significant changes in how they run their business models. However, the agritourism site with proximity to urban centres expressed the view that the need for a powerful Internet connection will likely remain. The sites suggested that as compared to other forms of tourism (except the area focusing on international visitors), rural tourism has been less affected by the pandemic; however, all sites mentioned operational challenges that they had to overcome in response to the changing situation (hygiene requirements, suspension in operations

Table 7.4 Impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on sample rural sites in Italy

Changes in demand	'In Summer (when open) even more requests but 95% domestic, vs 50% of previous years' (agritourism site with international target) 'In summer, even more requests, all very concentrated in July and August '(international only in case of returning customer) (agritourism site close to the urban area) 'In summer even more request, all very concentrated and domestic' (agritourism site in a remote area – more than 1.5-hour drive from a major city – Milan/Rome)
Changes in leisure	Demand for adjustment to remote work: 'Request of powerful Wi-Fi for teleworking' was the most challenging situation for a site to satisfy' (agritourism close to urban area – max 1.5-hour drive from a major city – Rome) Demand for recreational leisure 'Horse riding and rural life' (agritourism site close to the urban area) 'Having the swimming pool made a difference' (agritourism site with domestic target)
Predictions on the time horizon	'Some updates on the tourism booking platform. Domestic vs International, but seems only temporary' (agritourism site with international target) 'No' (agritourism site with domestic target) 'No significant changes. The need for more powerful wi-fi' (agritourism site close to the urban area) 'Not significant in long-term' (agritourism site in a remote area – more than 1.5-hour drive from a major city – Milan/Rome)

due to lockdowns, adjustments to changes in demand). The section on creative innovation contains an analysis of site response strategies.

The pandemic's impact on travel and mobility needs According to the *OECD Regional Outlook* (2019, 7), 20% of rural people of the total OECD population live in rural regions close to cities, which are defined as territories less than 60 minutes of driving time from urban centres. This distance is generally used to describe weekend tourism locations or excursion places. The remaining 6% of the OECD population lives in remote rural regions. In Italy, a larger share of the rural population lives close to cities, while a significantly smaller percentage lives in remote areas (Summary for 2014–2020 Rural Development Programme ENRD, 2016). This is reflected in the visiting numbers to rural agri farms, with more tourists visiting rural sites near the cities. In contrast, more remote sites are attended to less frequently and by fewer people.

In the surveyed sample of agritourism sites, the site with proximity to urban areas noted that the domestic share increased essentially because of the pandemic, and visitors tended to have stayed longer even within the nearer cities. The remote site noticed an effect on its operations due to increased volatility of planning behaviours: visitors were reluctant to make advance payments. They were inclined to last-minute confirmation and cancellations, although the overwhelming majority were domestic tourists. In one instance, this trend can reflect visitors' challenges in overcoming physical distance. Visitors wanted to ensure that they eventually arrived where intended, and in conditions of uncertainty, their perception of long-distance travel challenges became more accentuated. Nonetheless, the remote site in the survey noted the increased demand compared to pre-pandemic times, suggesting that remoteness may have both potentials for creative tourism and specific challenges.

Another effect on the perception of the distance and travel over distance caused by the pandemic was enhanced appreciation of travel as a relational activity. In the study of 874 guests visiting the Italian region of South Tyrol, including rural tourist sites during the pandemic, Scuttari et al. (2021) found that travel approaches varied from cautious to adventurous; however, relational components of travel were found to be strong overall. In particular, it was necessary for visitors to whom they travel and how supportive and empathetic a host is. Imaginative long-distance travel appears less appealing, and this can be seen in the tendency of visitors to undertake proximity travel (Travel and Holidays in Italy and Abroad, Italian National Institute of Statistics, 2019). Italy, indeed, was experiencing several prolonged lockdowns, various lengths and intensities of travel restrictions and accommodating visitors' preferences – all of which could be a factor in the ability of visitors to undertake travel. With the increased interest, increased appreciation of local sites could also be noted too – for example, media coverage and visitors' reviews captioned their visits as 'reinventing the culture and beauty of known sites' (Ferraretto, 2020), 'paving a new way of travel' and 'rediscovery of the places that were close and familiar', etc. However, the concerns about overcrowding proximal sites and diluting their cultural and aesthetic value due to conducting more unconventional tourist recreations were also expressed. The pandemic thus showed the resilience of domestic tourism and indicated areas where a sustainable approach should be adopted to maintain the cultural and environmental integrity of rural sites.

Creativity in rural tourism innovations The rural sites' creative efforts in Italy appeared to be driven by the need for resilience in situations of restricted mobility and uncertainty. The areas focused their creative efforts on innovations within existing forms of tourism. As noted above, there was more emphasis on health-related and recreational activities as induced by health and safety regulations and visitors' preferences. The new and conventional forms of leisure had to be delivered in a new operational environment. The rural tourism sites had to modify their strategies in managing the booking of visits and communicating with customers. The surveyed rural sites had needed to adjust, reducing offers either due to health and safety considerations or excessive demand, thus finding themselves in a somewhat paradoxical situation where despite excessive demand, the sites may have ended up with unfilled capacity due to volatile booking and last-minute cancellations. The sites had to adjust sensibly to retain the appeal and satisfaction of visitors:

> In summer had even more requests, all very concentrated in July and August' while acknowledging that most difficult when adjusting was '...volatility in the reservation, booking platforms cancellations management. Stopped using booking platform, only used for last-minute reservations. (Agritourism site in proximity to the urban area)

The survey results suggest that online booking platforms played an important role in visit essential communication for all sites. During the pandemic, sites have modified their use of booking platforms differently. While in the example above, the sites reduced their use of booking platforms, others had to amplify their online presence and use the booking systems creatively to attract visitors and continue operations.

For the agritourism site with a focus on international visitors, the most difficult was resolving low demands: 'in general only 35% of room occupancy compared to before (due to strong lockdown)', despite domestic tourists replacing about 40% of the international visitors. In this situation, the site implemented 'Some updates on tourism booking platforms', the use of which the site believes will be a permanent trend after the pandemic.

At the same time, other innovative developments were observed where the application of 'creativity' creative means was caused by the need to maintain the type of rural experience that is conventionally valued and sought by tourists:

The site in our sample specialising in horse riding and rural life stated that they '*Stopped the restaurant and moved to B & B only for the time being*'. There are economic rationales for that; however, offering *B & B* appears to be more in line with rural living values than restaurant services. Another site specialising in providing wine and food as part of rural living chose to hire new personnel *'to satisfy the need to serve instead of using a self-service buffet'*. Although contrary to the first example, this adjustment also represents the features of rurality by continuing to offer food and wine experiences to visitors. Barcaccia et al. (2020) observed another creative trend regarding rural products – they concluded that there was a change in buying preferences toward purchasing more primary products such as flour, oil, eggs and cheese. While the difference was somewhat practical due to the desire to have better outcomes and eat healthier, another motivation and effect of this was the desire to organise some creative pastime with the participation of family members. In the pandemic, not all rural sites could find this creative or physical way to reach tourists at home. However, those who could diversify their tourist offers and shorten their supply and delivery chains were more resilient (Mastronardi et al., 2021; Peira et al., 2021; Barcaccia et al., 2020).

Implications for sustainable rural tourism Tourism to agri farms in the way established in Italy contains many sustainability mechanisms – it aims to support local livelihood and production and maintain its cultural heritage. The response of rural sites to tourism, in general, has not induced intensive construction of new physical infrastructure with many adjustment measures focused on tourist experiences. The form of agritourism promotes diversification and preservation of local specialities. The increased interest in recreational activities and pastimes at rural sites, especially in proximity to urban areas, raised concerns about the effects of increased loads on rural areas' natural and heritage resources (Manganelli et al., 2020). The remote regions have shown a greater need for connectivity, with the pandemic revealing their vulnerability to disruption in travel. The innovations by the rural tourism sites mainly mitigated the sector disruption effects. However, areas for sustainable development of rural tourism should be further explored and promoted.

7.5 Conclusions

The study aimed to identify and analyse the creative efforts of rural tourism sites to sustain or reinvent their operations in conditions contrary to the essence of tourism: travel restrictions and adverse impact on the leisure-seeking behaviour of tourists. A creative innovation model was applied to explore rural sites' innovative behaviour in simultaneously satisfying the demand for rural leisure and recreation and overcoming constrained mobility. It was found that despite rural tourism being at different stages of development and comprising various tourism forms, the response of rural tourism sites in both countries to the constraints caused by the COVID-19 pandemic was similar. In particular, the rural areas reassessed the tourist needs for rural leisure directed toward more safety and well-being, although still rooted in the conventional experience of rural pastimes.

The significant contribution of the findings is an initial systematising of the insights into the interrelations of the intrinsic values of rural tourism's leisure offerings with human well-being. Furthermore, it was found that despite having similar drivers such as tourist demand for increased health and well-being and a similar character of innovation, the outcomes of innovative responses varied in the two countries: while proximity tourism has appeared to be both more viable and creative in Italy, Kazakhstan showed the rise of various imaginative forms of tourism based on the long-distance travel experience, the appeal of mobility and staying in mobile accommodation.

Finally, it was found that the link between creative responses to the pandemic and sustainable development of rural tourism is yet not clear. One apparent conclusion is that the creative potential of rural areas for sustainable rural tourism is high. Future studies are needed to capture, analyse and theorise the innovative behaviours of rural sites during the pandemic and the resulting implications for the longer-term viability of rural tourism sites. The nexus of tourism and generous capacity of rural areas for human needs for physical and psychological well-being need to be further explored to lay the ground for the conceptual understanding of both sustainable and recreational forms of rural tourism.

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Chapter 8
Tourists' Travel Motivations During Crises: Lessons from the COVID-19 Pandemic

Rasha Kassem and Chanaka Ganepola

Abstract This study seeks to explore tourists' travel motivation during the COVID-19 pandemic. This study presents findings from an online questionnaire sent to 166 tourists in various regions, including Europe, America, Australasia, Asia and Africa. This study identified seven travel motivators but found that the COVID-19 vaccine and guaranteed refund schemes are the prime motivators of future travel in all regions. Most younger participants consider the vaccine a prime motivator for post-COVID-19 travel. Although not as significant, hygiene is also identified as a travel motivator and is appreciated more by females than males. Moreover, the majority of participants in the age group (20–29 years old), those living with dependents and relatively low-income earners (income <$20,000), identified discounts on accommodation and travel as travel motivators. Understanding what may motivate tourists to travel is essential as it would help government agencies, travel agents, tourism marketers, transport systems and hospitality services cope with the current crisis more effectively. Additionally, this study summarises recovery strategies used to manage previous health crises as reported in the literature. This summary can be used as a toolkit or guide to managing health crises by practitioners and policymakers. Therefore, this study provides timely information about a recent and fatal crisis and can thus serve as part of the knowledge base in crisis planning.

Keywords Tourism · COVID-19 · Travel motivation · Crisis management

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8.1 Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic is a unique case due to its speed, spreading worldwide and creating turmoil in the global economy (Sharma et al., 2020). At the time of writing this article, the COVID-19 pandemic potentially represents the first public health crisis to cause a global recession since the Spanish flu in 1918 (Zheng et al., 2021). As with COVID-19 today, governments worldwide introduced public health interventions in the form of social distancing measures and the shutdown of the broader economy to limit the spread of the virus (Barro et al., 2020). With today's pandemic, the inclusion of travel restrictions by over 150 countries that account for most of the travel demand led to the cancellation of many planned holidays, visits and flights (Rogers, 2020), which has impacted tourism, hospitality and travel industries significantly.

The tourism literature has long reported the sensitivity of tourism demand to security and health concerns (Blake et al., 2003; Cavlek, 2002; Richter, 2003). Nevertheless, one of the challenges of COVID-19 is predicting its impact on tourists' motivation to travel during these unprecedented times. Travel motivation, especially during the pandemic, is an under-researched area. This study explored what may motivate tourists to travel during the pandemic to fill this gap. Understanding what may motivate tourists to travel is essential as it would help government agencies, travel agents, tourism marketers, transport systems and hospitality services cope with the current crisis more effectively (Mao et al., 2010; Rosselló et al., 2020), hence the importance of our study.

The data was collected via an online questionnaire sent to 166 tourists from several regions, including Europe, America, Australasia, Asia and Africa, between March and May 2021. This study identified seven travel motivators but found that the COVID-19 vaccine and guaranteed refund schemes are the prime motivators of future travel in all regions. Although not as significant, hygiene is also identified as a travel motivator and is appreciated more by females than males. Most younger participants consider the vaccine as the prime motivator for post-COVID-19 travel. Additionally, the majority of participants in the age group (20–29 years old), those living with dependents and relatively low-income earners (income <$20,000) identified discounts on accommodation and travel as travel motivators. The findings have theoretical and practical implications later discussed.

This study makes the following contributions. It is one of the few studies (Fisher et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2021) that examine tourist travel motivators in times of health crises. Therefore, this study builds on existing experience and research into the impact of health crises on tourism. Further, knowledge of the factors that could motivate tourists to travel could help businesses in the tourism, travel and hospitality sectors to prepare for the COVID-19 crisis by rebranding their services tailored to tourists' needs and concerns during these unprecedented times. Moreover, this study summarises recovery strategies used to manage previous health crises as reported in the literature. This summary can be used as a toolkit or guide to managing health crises by practitioners and policymakers. Therefore, this study provides timely information about a recent and fatal crisis and can thus serve as part of the knowledge base in crisis planning. This study responds to current calls for future research focusing on crisis preparation and planning (Ritchie & Jiang, 2019). Further, Henderson (2003) noted the significance of proactively managing crises in the tourism industry. This study provides timely information about a current and fatal crisis and can thus serve as part of the knowledge base in crisis planning.

8.2 Literature Review

8.2.1 The Impact of Health Crises on Tourism

Tourism could be affected by various unexpected crisis events and disasters. These crises include financial, health, natural, political, personal safety and terrorism (Cavlek, 2002; Hall, 2010; Richter, 2003). Faulkner (2001) points out that a "crisis" is an event that disrupts an organisation's functioning and of which a large part of its effects can be prevented or reduced by human efforts. While in a "disaster", a destination is confronted with unpredictable catastrophic change over which it has little control. Hall (2010) adds that tourism crisis events refer to events that affect tourists' confidence in travelling to a destination and disrupt the continual regular operation of the tourism industry. In that sense, the current COVID-19 pandemic is more of a crisis than a disaster.

Health pandemics could affect tourism flows considerably and threaten tourism businesses' and destinations' viability due to their scale and impact (Ritchie & Jiang, 2019). Research indicates that health-related crises could influence tourist risk perception, resulting in a sudden decrease in tourism demand, with significant socio-economic impacts, especially in tourism-dependent countries (Blake et al., 2003; Novelli et al., 2018; Rosselló et al., 2020). Pandemics are also prone to negative media coverage, making them particularly challenging for the tourism sector to manage (Novelli et al., 2018; Schroeder & Pennington-Gray, 2014).

Jonas et al. (2011) find that health risk perception ranks relatively high against other types of risk perception and that ensuring tourists' safety and health is the key to keeping demand for inbound tourism. Previous health pandemics such as foot and mouth disease (Blake et al., 2003), SARS (Kuo et al., 2008; Mao et al., 2010; McKercher & Chon, 2004), Ebola (Novelli et al., 2018) and swine flu (H1N1) (Page et al., 2012) are shown to have significant effects on local and international tourism. For instance, the outbreak of SARS in 2003 had a negatively profound impact on tourism around the world, with powerful influences on countries in South-East Asia, where tourist arrivals significantly dropped in SARS-affected countries due to the increasing number of SARS infections (Kuo et al., 2008; Mao et al., 2010; Pine & McKercher, 2004). Chen et al. (2007) report steep declines in the earnings and stock prices of seven publicly traded hotel companies during the SARS outbreak.

Similarly, Page et al. (2012) investigate the effect of the swine flu (H1N1) pandemic in the United Kingdom on the tourism industry and uncover that the most considerable reductions in tourist arrivals are sourced from Spain, China and South Korea. In another study that examined the effects of the Ebola virus on Gambia's tourism sector, Novelli et al. (2018) indicate that the sector's impact was negative as tourist arrivals reduced with the increasing number of infections. Surprisingly, no Ebola cases were reported from Gambia, but the authors elucidated that Ebola negatively impacted tourism in Gambia mainly due to the high number of infections in the neighbouring state.

Although COVID-19 is another health crisis, however, its nature and impact demonstrate that it is not only different from previous health crises, but it can have profound and long-term structural and transformational changes to tourism as socio-economic activity and industry (Fong et al., 2020; Sigala, 2020; Zenker & Kock, 2020). Amankwah-Amoah (2020) argues that government decisions and social distancing regulations during COVID-19 have altered airlines' investment plans and deteriorated the airline industry. Chen (2021) finds that hospitality industry employees have been psychologically affected by the pandemic, and these effects are more pronounced among unemployed, female and younger respondents than other respondents. Equally, Foroni et al. (2022) predict an economic and financial crisis, represented by negative growth of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and a decrease in investment growth due to the COVID-19 pandemic to last till mid-2021. Brada et al. (2021) indicate that the impact of COVID-19 will take longer than that, where they predict that even after a 2-year recovery period, employment levels may not recover up to pre-pandemic levels.

8.2.2 Health Pandemics and Travel Motivation

Travel motivation plays a critical role in tourist behaviour, as March and Woodside (2005) pointed out. Rosselló et al. (2020) examine the effects of natural disasters and unexpected events on tourism using data from 1995 to 2013. They found that the magnitude of the negative impact on travel motivation depends on the type of natural disaster. Volcanic eruptions and floods negatively affect travel motivators, while unexpected epidemics and heat waves have a marginal impact. Rittichainuwat (2006) concludes that low-cost tour packages did not motivate tourists to visit a disaster-hit destination and recommends conveying enhanced security information to increase the tourist's sense of personal security rather than running promotional campaigns to convince tourists to visit the affected destination after a crisis.

Similarly, Biran et al. (2014) uncovered that tourists would still be motivated to travel to disaster-affected destinations as long as they satisfy their psychological needs, such as fun and recreation, prestige, escape and relaxation. They also uncovered that health, hygiene and cleanliness dominate post-disaster travel motivators. Jang and Wu (2006) argue that the push factor "knowledge-seeking" reflects the traveller's eagerness to gain more knowledge of the culture and history of the destination as the dominating psychological motivator among seniors. Further, cleanliness, hygiene and safety were the most significant external motivator. According to Baloglu and McCleary (1999), young travellers tend to take the risk of travelling to disaster-struck areas. This is mainly due to finding discounted travel packages, accommodation and airfares to disaster-struck areas attractive over health and safety (Lepp & Gibson, 2003). This implies contrasting travel motivators between young travellers and senior travellers.

According to Reisinger and Mavondo (2005), travel motivation is directly and negatively associated with perceived health, financial risks and anxiety of foreign travel while positively associated with safety. Further, travel motivation is indirectly but positively associated with intentions to travel abroad. Khan et al. (2017) concluded that travelling to India is positively influenced by travel motivation to know the culture and new places, seeking knowledge, relaxation, adventure and diversion and entertainment. They do not find any significant association between domestic travel motivation and perceived health risks. This is the general case where travellers are motivated to select their destination that yields the highest benefit for the lowest perceived risk. However, McIntyre and Roggenbuck (1998) prove that some exceptional individuals may be motivated by the experience of risk embedded in travel.

The protection motivation theory (PMT) explains how and why people behave to protect their health and has been widely used to explore the health behaviour of individuals (Conner & Norman, 2005). People adopt recommended behaviours to protect themselves against public health risks (Lwin et al., 2010). Slevitch and Sharma (2008) explored tourist behaviour to health issues and found that travellers were prepared to bear the higher cost of travel products perceived as safe and secure. Fisher et al. (2018) concluded that travellers' perception of washing hands increased despite difficulties reaching a wash station during a norovirus outbreak. These studies imply that post-disaster travel is motivated by psychological needs for a healthy and hygienic environment, and travel costs do not drive it. Zheng et al. (2021) conclude that travellers are demotivated to travel after lifting any travel bans due to the travel fear triggered by the perceived severity of being infected by COVID-19. Interestingly, demotivating travel fears depend on individuals' threat appraisal of the destination rather than the level of infections in their country of residence.

8.2.3 Recovery Strategies in Times of Health Crises

Although eradicating contagious disease matters for tourism revival, research finds that it is not the only requirement for managing health crises. For instance, Mao et al. (2010) analysed the recovery of tourist arrivals from the United States (US), Hong Kong and Japan in Taiwan following the SARS outbreak in 2003. They found evidence that tourist arrivals from both the USA and Hong Kong were restored almost immediately following the removal of travel restrictions in Asia. Lepp and Gibson (2003) uncovered that perceived health risks associated with tourist destinations depend on their nature, experience and gender. They found that experienced travellers' perceived health risks are much lower than new travellers, while female travellers are more concerned about health risks than male travellers. They also found that organised and independent travellers' perceived health risk was higher than explorers and drifters who preferred adventure.

Fong et al. (2020) showed that government performance and efficiency in crisis management negatively affect the tourism industry's recovery time. Kuo et al. (2008) attribute the insignificance of the impact of avian flu on tourism to the preparedness of earlier countries affected by SARS, which are allocating funds to fight avian flu. Baker (2015) and Novelli et al. (2018) show further evidence that the absence of a crisis management plan, the lack of measures taken to assure safety in Gambia and the delays in executing such actions led to the depletion of tourist arrivals in the country. Costa (2004) concluded that a national strategy for human resource training and development is needed, together with a code of ethics for human resource management in the Portuguese tourism sector in response to SARS.

Specific to the impact of SARS on hotel services, Tew et al. (2008) argued that a well-developed and integrated preparedness plan and management plan are vitally crucial if the tourism industry survives a health crisis or disaster with minimal impact on visitors, businesses and locals. They advised that an effective strategy should include (i) identifying likely effects and risks to the organisation given the nature of the crisis, (ii) informing managers and employees on how to handle the specific situation, (iii) ready availability and familiarity with emergency and crisis response equipment and information, (iv) using media as communication vehicle focusing on restoring consumer confidence to the hotel product and service, (v) implementing cost-cutting strategies and (vi) redirecting marketing and sales efforts. To instil confidence in the patron during and after the SARS crisis, Tse et al. (2006) recommended that restaurant managers advertise their hygiene policies and the restaurant's measures to safeguard the customers' physical health.

8.2.4 COVID-19 Research in the Tourism, Hospitality and Travel Literature

The focus of the literature has been on travel intentions and recovery strategies in times of the pandemic. However, there is no evidence of prior studies exploring tourists' travel motivations during COVID-19. A few studies reported the impact of COVID-19 on travel intentions. Gallego and Font (2020) indicated that the desire to travel has dropped by about 30% in Europe and America and 50% in Asia, while the intention to travel has decreased a further 10–20%. Li et al. (2020a, b) found significant evidence on intra-pandemic perceptions affecting post-pandemic travel plans in China. According to their study, there is a decreasing tendency to use public transportation for future travel.

Nevertheless, most Chinese tourists in their study claimed they might extend their holidays once the pandemic is controlled. They also report that crisis-resistant tourists with higher educational qualifications are firmly against cancelling or reducing their planned holiday length. In contrast, non-crisis-resistant tourists living with dependents are most likely to reduce the length of the holiday. In contrast, Craig (2020) uncovered that US travellers intend to travel as soon as possible post-COVID-19 and that travellers with camping/glamping experiences in 2019 are more likely to consider the same post-pandemic.

Concerning recovery strategies, some studies recommend using technology to manage the impact of the pandemic. Gallego and Font (2020) discussed how Big Data supplies prompt granular data essential in highly volatile situations and argue that destination management organisations must improve their Big Data analytical and evidence-based decision-making skills. Pani et al. (2020) found that consumers living in urban areas prefer to obtain the service of automated delivery robots (ADRs), most probably due to the higher COVID-19 risk perception in crowded areas. Wan et al. (2021) found that service robots could increase Chinese and American customers' intentions to visit restaurants and hotels based on an online survey.

Several other studies suggest introducing hygiene measures to increase tourism demand during the pandemic. For instance, Farzanegan et al. (2021) recommend routine disinfection of ships, flights and airports. Jones and Comfort (2020) suggest that the hospitality industry must work closely with the governments to preserve their overseas customer base. The authors recommend introducing special measures encouraging personal hygiene at hotels, including screening guests on arrival, using thermal cameras, providing sanitisation facilities and promoting staycations in place of overseas travel. Shin and Kang (2020) found that hotel customers perceive a lower level of health risk when advanced cleaning systems are used, which is further reduced with automated cleaning systems. Based on interviews with industry workers and educators, Kaushal and Srivastava (2021) highlight the importance of a dedicated team to address hotel sanitation issues.

Some scholars emphasise the importance of communication as a recovery strategy during the pandemic. Jamal and Budke (2020) recommend that communication channels remain open between crucial tourism and hospitality stakeholders and the local and regional public health authorities as part of a proactive strategic response plan. Sharma et al. (2020) indicate that COVID-19 has shown the importance of informational uncertainty and the growing role and influence of direct communication and social media, with inconsistent news and communication from various sources causing confusion and panic. Consequently, the authors recommended that UK retailers communicate directly to their customers, sending a personal letter explaining all measures they have taken to face abnormal customer demand and disrupt international distribution channels. Similarly, Im et al. (2021) emphasise the importance of communication and recommend that hospitality companies make transparent and timely announcements to reconcile their troubled relationships with stakeholders.

Other suggested recovery strategies related to COVID-19 include embedding travel insurance policies with travel packages (Choquet & Sam-Lefebvre, 2020) and encouraging small tourist operators to collaborate with external systems such as health and emergency (Zenker & Kock, 2020). In a study by Bucak and Yi˘git (2021), chefs suggest the vaccination for the tourism industry and replacing buffets with you-can-eat menus with personally made food prepared using local healthy products. Sheller (2020) proposes a sustainable framework to revive tourism by encouraging local farm production, using renewable energy sources and reducing waste. Farmaki (2021) concludes that tourists may achieve crisis forgetfulness (i) if they have no prior experience at the affected destination, (ii) get to know about the crisis through non-personal channels, (iii) if travel agents/destinations are more responsive to crisis management, and (iv) previous tourists remain significantly unaffected by the crisis.

8.3 Research Design

Using an online survey, this study collected data from 166 tourists from various regions, including Europe, America, Australasia, Asia and Africa, between March and May 2021. This study used the snowballing technique to gain access to the participants through social media such as LinkedIn, Twitter and Facebook. Snowballing requires the random invitation of subjects to participate in the study and hence does not create estimation issues and biases (Krishen et al., 2019). Moreover, this methodology is consistent with Krishen et al. (2016) and Li et al. (2020a, b). We started by posting the questionnaire on our social media, explaining the purpose of the survey and requesting participation in the study from tourists in various regions. We also asked potential participants to share the survey with other tourists in the same message. We used Collins' dictionary definition of a tourist as "a person who is visiting a place for pleasure and interest, especially when they are on holiday".

The online survey was designed using the Bristol Online Survey,[1] consisting of two pages and 11 questions. The first page includes the participant information sheet and consent form. The second page contains four research questions that explored whether the participants travelled during the pandemic, and if yes, they were asked about the reasons for travel. The questions also sought whether the participants had any travel restrictions and what may motivate them to travel once the travel restrictions are lifted. All research questions were closed-ended, but some included the "others" option (e.g. questions 2 and 4).

The last page includes seven demographic questions seeking participants' region, age, gender, employment status, household income and whether they live with dependants. A copy of the questionnaire is available upon request. Table 8.1 summarises participants' demographics.

[1] http://www.onlinesurveys.ac.uk

Table 8.1 Participants' demographics

Region of residence	Participants
Africa	15
Middle East	12
Americas	13
Europe	84
Asia	27
Australasia	14
No answer	3
Gender	
Male	101
Female	63
I prefer not to say	3
No answer	1
Employment status	
Full time	111
Part time	19
Contractor	6
No answer	32
Age group	
20–29 years	46
30–39 years	65
40–49 years	35
50–59 years	14
60–69 years	5
70–79 years	2
80 and above years	0
No answer	1
Household income	
≤ $20,000	37
$20,000 to $50,000	57
$50,000 to $100,000	42
≥ $100,000	25
No answer	7
Living with dependents	
Yes	89
No	78
No answer	1
Total	168

For data analysis purposes, frequencies, cross-tabulations and logistic regression were used for the closed-ended questions. Content analysis was also used to analyse the questions, including the "others" option where applicable. Content analysis is a careful, detailed, systematic examination and interpretation of a particular body of material to identify patterns, themes, biases and meanings (Bazeley, 2013). Open coding was used to identify relevant categories. Open coding is a free coding of the data where we have carefully read participants' responses line by line and word by word to determine the concepts that fit each category (Berg, 2009). The analysis of the open-ended responses has identified the following categories: other purposes for travelling during the pandemic and other travel motivations. Similar responses in each category were then counted to calculate frequencies and percentages.

To ensure data reliability, this study adopted some measures recommended in the literature (Saunders et al., 2009; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009; Creswell & Clark, 2011). For instance, the survey was designed in consultation with four senior academics to ensure the wording, structure and questions were straightforward to understand. The research addressed all relevant ethical issues, including anonymity, confidentiality and loss or damage to data. Before conducting this study, ethical approval and participants' consent were obtained. A copy of the consent form is available upon request. A detailed participant information sheet was also provided to each participant to explain the purpose of this study and their rights as participants (a copy is available upon request).

8.4 Presentation and Discussion of Findings

8.4.1 COVID-19 and the State of Travel

The study participants were first asked if they travelled during the COVID-19 outbreak and what the purpose of their travel was. The participants were also asked if their regions had any travel restrictions. The results show that 65% of the participants ($n = 109$) travelled during COVID-19. Of the participants, 46% indicated that the reason for travel was mainly for visiting family or friends, 27% reported travelling for leisure, 20% for work and 8% for other reasons. Analysing the "other" category shows that participants also travelled during the pandemic for immigration purposes ($n = 3$), moving houses ($n = 2$) or medical appointments ($n = 3$). The results are summarised in Table 8.2. The findings also show that 78% of participants ($n = 130$) indicated travel restrictions in their regions during travel time. Therefore, these results clearly show the impact of COVID-19 on travel for tourism in various regions where only a tiny percentage of participants could travel for leisure during these unprecedented times.

Table 8.2 Reason for travel during the COVID-19 outbreak

Reason for travel	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Visiting family or friends	50	46
Leisure	29	27
Work	22	20
Other	8	7

8.4.2 Tourist Travel Motivations During Pandemics

The study participants were asked what may motivate them to travel. The results revealed seven travel motivators. However, the COVID-19 vaccine and guaranteed refund schemes are the prime motivators of future travel in all regions (see Tables 8.3, 8.4, and 8.5). Therefore, the findings align with the views of restaurant chefs in a study conducted by Bucak and Yiğit (2021). They also suggested that vaccination for the tourism industry will help the tourism sector survive the impact of COVID-19.

While other studies (Farzanegan et al., 2021; Jones & Comfort, 2020; Shin & Kang, 2020; Kaushal & Srivastava, 2021) emphasise the importance of introducing hygiene measures at hotels and flights as a way to increase tourism demand post the COVID-19 pandemic, the current study's results indicate that hygiene levels at hotels, resorts and airports are not statistically significant as travel motivators in comparison to guaranteed refund schemes and the provision of vaccinations. Although this finding may seem surprising, it could be that travellers may believe that hygiene requirements are not as necessary when fully vaccinated.

Guaranteed refund schemes positively motivate future travel as this offers flexibility to travellers. This could be an important finding, particularly for the hospitality sector, because a recent study by Farmaki et al. (2020) found that hotel reservation platforms may lose hotel listings as their terms of cancellations are unfavourable for hosts. This could result from frequently changing travel restrictions due to the spread of COVID-19 and quarantine rules. These quarantine rules remain different from one region to another depending on the level of infections and risk averseness of governments. For instance, the United Kingdom's government allowed entry to many nationalities despite many infections and deaths. In contrast, Australia and New Zealand keep their borders closed, although the infections are substantially low (Costantino et al., 2020; Hale et al., 2020; Li et al. 2020a, b). Providing a service guarantee also bolsters prevention-focused consumer reactions.

Analysing the results based on other demographics shows that males and females have slightly different opinions regarding hygiene as a travel motivator. Females seem to appreciate hygiene as a travel motivator more than males. Most younger participants (age 20–49 years) consider the vaccine the prime motivator for post-COVID-19 travel. This is a surprising finding to a certain extent, as COVID-19 is believed to cause more complications to the elderly than to the younger population. The results also show that the majority of participants in the age group (20–29 years old), those living with dependents and relatively low-income earners (income <$20,000) identified discounts on accommodation and travel as travel motivators.

Concerning the "others" category, only two participants indicated that the following could motivate them to travel: "Type of holiday package, preferably nature-related" and "guarantee to return home on time with no delay due to further COVID-19 restrictions".

Table 8.3 This table reports the choice of travel motivators by region of residence and destination

	Residence (%)						Destination (%)					
Motivators	Africa	Middle East	Americas	Europe	Asia	Australasia	Africa	Middle East	Americas	Europe	Asia	Australasia
Hygiene levels at hotels (M1)	64.8	46.6	34.5	51.8	71.2	50.0	47.8	43.7	50.0	51.0	53.3	22.2
Hygiene levels at airports (M2)	51.8	38.9	43.2	54.1	64.8	50.0	53.8	38.9	38.9	51.0	53.3	22.2
Hygiene levels at holiday resorts (M3)	64.8	38.9	43.2	51.8	71.2	55.5	53.8	43.7	50.0	49.9	59.9	33.3
COVID-19 vaccine (M4)	71.2	46.6	60.4	57.4	64.8	66.6	41.8	34.0	63.8	62.6	53.3	66.6
Guaranteed refund schemes (M5)	58.4	62.2	51.8	56.3	45.3	66.6	53.8	38.9	58.3	56.8	53.3	55.5
Protection against fraud and cybercrime (M6)	45.3	38.9	51.8	37.2	51.8	44.4	35.9	34.0	41.6	39.4	44.4	33.3
Hotel/accommodation discounts and deals (M7)	64.8	46.6	43.2	40.5	58.3	66.6	41.8	38.9	47.2	41.8	51.1	66.6
Flight discounts and deals (M8)	71.2	38.9	43.2	46.2	58.3	72.2	53.8	43.7	52.7	45.2	55.5	77.7
Other reasons (M9)	13.0	23.3	17.3	5.6	13.0	16.7	0.0	14.6	8.3	10.4	11.1	11.1

Percentages shown are the number of responses to the total number of respondents with travel intentions

Table 8.4 This table reports the choice of travel motivators received from survey participants by gender, age group, household income and whether they are living with dependents

	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	M6	M7	M8	M9
Gender									
Male	63.64	61.62	64.65	79.80	68.69	45.45	66.67	67.68	14.14
Female	66.13	67.74	67.74	79.03	74.19	59.68	53.23	62.90	6.45
Prefer not to say	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	66.67
Age group									
20–29 years	71.11	64.44	73.33	84.44	75.56	53.33	71.11	77.78	15.56
30–39 years	65.63	65.63	67.19	82.81	76.56	48.44	65.63	65.63	10.94
40–49 years	58.82	67.65	61.76	82.35	58.82	52.94	47.06	58.82	8.82
50–59 years	57.14	64.29	57.14	50.00	64.29	57.14	50.00	50.00	14.29
60–69 years	60.00	20.00	40.00	80.00	60.00	40.00	60.00	60.00	0.00
70–79 years	100.00	100.00	100.00	50.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	50.00
80 and above years	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Household income									
≤ $20,000	68.29	68.29	75.61	75.61	75.61	58.54	68.29	78.05	12.20
$20,000 to $50,000	62.50	67.86	58.93	78.57	76.79	50.00	58.93	64.29	8.93
$50,000 to $100,000	73.81	66.67	76.19	85.71	71.43	47.62	69.05	66.67	9.52
≥ $100,000	52.00	48.00	52.00	80.00	52.00	52.00	48.00	52.00	24.00
Living with dependents									
Yes	65.52	63.22	70.11	81.61	65.52	48.28	67.82	70.11	21.84
No	64.94	66.23	62.34	77.92	77.92	55.84	55.84	62.34	9.09

All values are shown as a percentage of total responders from each category who intends to travel once travel restrictions are lifted

Table 8.5 The willingness to travel once travel restrictions are lifted on an intercept based on travel motivators (M1–M9)

Motivators		Coefficient	*P*-values
M1	Hygiene levels at hotels	0.517	0.495
M2	Hygiene levels at airports	0.014	0.982
M3	Hygiene levels at holiday resorts	0.118	0.857
M4	Covid-19 vaccine	1.117*	0.066
M5	Guaranteed refund schemes	0.684**	0.015
M6	Protection against fraud and cybercrime	−0.185	0.679
M7	Hotel/accommodation discounts and deals	−0.655	0.362
M8	Flight discounts and deals	−0.305	0.652
M9	Other reasons	−0.701	0.310
	Constant	1.552	0.009

Symbols ***, ** and * show statistical significance at 99%, 95% and 90% levels, respectively

8.5 Implications of This Study

8.5.1 Theoretical Implications

The study's findings highlight the adverse impact that health crises could have on the tourism industry in various regions, where only a tiny percentage of the study's participants were able to travel for leisure during the COVID-19 pandemic. By so doing, the results support prior studies' conclusions of the negative impact of health crises on the tourism sector. For instance, Gallego and Font (2020) indicate that the desire to travel has dropped by about 30% in Europe and America and 50% in Asia, while the intention to travel has decreased a further 10–20%. Li et al. (2020a, b) find significant evidence on intra-pandemic perceptions affecting post-pandemic travel plans in China.

The study also expands the literature on travel motivations during times of health crises by providing evidence on what motivates tourists to travel during the COVID-19 pandemic. Our findings in this area particularly emphasise the significance of vaccination and guaranteed refund schemes in motivating tourists to travel. As such, the findings align with the results of Bucak and Yi˘git (2021) that vaccination for the tourism industry will help the tourism sector survive the impact of COVID-19. Our findings also imply that hotels, airlines and travel agents ignoring guaranteed refund schemes could discourage tourists from considering them as hosts. Therefore, our results support the conclusion of Farmaki et al. (2020) that hotel reservation platforms may lose hotel listings as their terms of cancellations are unfavourable for hosts.

8.5.2 Practical Implications

Knowledge of what motivates tourists to travel during health pandemics could help practitioners in the tourism, hospitality and travel sectors design effective marketing campaigns tailored to tourists' needs. This study provides evidence of what motivates tourists to travel post the COVID-19 pandemic. In particular, highlighting the importance of the vaccine as a travel motivator could encourage regions that have not invested enough in vaccination programmes to reconsider their decision if they wish to enhance tourism demands. Besides, offering guaranteed refund schemes could be an essential consideration, particularly for the hospitality sector, because recent research indicates that hotel reservation platforms may lose hotel listings as their terms of cancellations are unfavourable for hosts (Farmaki et al., 2020) and that providing a service guarantee is shown to bolster prevention-focused consumer reactions.

Additionally, this study provides a summary of the methods used for managing health crises as reported in the literature (see Table 8.6). This summary could be used as a toolkit or guide to managing future health crises by practitioners and policymakers in the tourism, hospitality and travel sectors.

Table 8.6 Lessons learned from previous health crises

Health crisis	Lessons/recovery strategies	Source
SARS	The tourism sector was revived by the removal of travel restrictions in Asia	Mao et al. (2010)
SARS	Identifying likely impacts and risks to the organisation based on the nature of the crisis Informing managers and employees on how to handle the specific crisis Ready availability and familiarity with emergency and crisis response equipment and information Using media as a communication vehicle focusing on restoring consumer confidence in the hotel product and service Implementing cost-cutting strategies Redirecting marketing and sales efforts	Tew et al. (2008)
SARS	Using cleanliness and hygiene as a selling point in addition to food quality and cost in restaurants	Tse et al. (2006)
General	Efficient circulation of health information Setting international standards to cleaning and sanitisation Designing health crisis awareness programmes to the public of affected countries	Richter (2003)
General	Providing financial resources to private sector to fight a health crisis Enhanced collaboration among public and private entities to handle a crisis Tour operators' and airlines' involvement in the collaborative effort to mitigate a health crisis	Morakabati et al. (2017)
General	Assuring safety and eliminating fear among travellers through mass media campaigns Targeting tourist segments and individual travellers to reduce the perceived risk of individuals	Richter (2003), Mao et al. (2010) and Novelli et al. (2018)
General	Managing specific travel fear by providing risk-specific knowledge and promotion	Yin et al. (2014)
General	Conveying enhanced security information to increase a sense of personal safety among tourists rather than running promotional campaigns to convince tourists to visit the affected destination after a crisis	Rittichainuwat (2006)
General	Using social media to raise funds and donations during the recovery phase	Möller et al. (2018)
H1N1 infection	Introducing voluntary personal non-pharmaceutical interventions, including better knowledge of the pandemic; improving personal hygiene practices while travelling; using social distancing; monitoring personal health before and after the trip	Lee et al. (2012)
Avian flu	Scrutinising media messages carefully Designing appropriate response strategies to avoid reputational damage Having a national strategy for human resource training and development Designing a code of ethics for human resource management	Page et al. (2006)

(continued)

Table 8.6 (continued)

Health crisis	Lessons/recovery strategies	Source
COVID-19	Using technology such as Big Data, automated delivery and service robots to manage the impact of the pandemic.	Gallego and Font (2020), Pani et al. (2020)
	Introducing hygiene measures to increase tourism demand during the pandemic. For instance, routine disinfection of ships, flights and airports; screening guests on arrival using thermal cameras; providing sanitisation facilities; promoting staycations in place of overseas travel; using advanced cleaning systems, particularly automated cleaning systems; and appointing a dedicated team to address hotel sanitation issues.	Farzanegan et al. (2021), Jones and Comfort (2020), Shin and Kang (2020), Kaushal and Srivastava (2021)
	Using open communication channels between tourism and hospitality stakeholders and the local and regional public health authorities; retailers should communicate directly to their customers, sending a personal letter explaining all measures they have taken to face abnormal customer demand and disrupt international distribution channels; the hospitality companies must make transparent and timely announcements to reconcile their troubled relationships with stakeholders.	Jamal and Budke (2020), Sharma et al. (2020) and Im et al. (2021)
	Embedding travel insurance policy with travel packages.	Choquet and Sam-Lefebvre (2020)
	Encourage small tourist operators to collaborate with external systems such as health and emergency.	Zenker and Kock (2020)
	Using vaccination for the tourism industry and replacing buffets with you-can-eat menus with personally made food prepared using local healthy products.	Bucak and Yiğit (2021)
	Employing a sustainable framework to revive tourism by encouraging local farm production, using renewable energy sources and reducing waste.	Sheller (2020)

8.6 Conclusion

The COVID-19 pandemic has significantly impacted the financial health of the tourism, hospitality and travel industries. However, knowledge about what may motivate tourists to travel during health crises is still limited. Prior studies have focused on tourists' travel intentions and recovery strategies during the pandemic, leaving tourists' travel motivations unexplored. This study filled this gap by exploring tourists' travel motivations during the COVID-19 pandemic.

The findings revealed seven travel motivators, including hygiene levels at hotels, airports and holiday resorts, COVID-19 vaccine, guaranteed refund schemes, protection against fraud and cybercrime, hotel and flight discounts, type of holiday package and guarantee to return home on time with no delay due to further pandemic restrictions. However, the COVID-19 vaccine and guaranteed refund schemes are the prime motivators of future travel in all regions. Females seem to appreciate hygiene as a travel motivator more than males. Most younger participants consider the vaccine the prime motivator for post-COVID-19 travel. The results also show that the majority of participants in the age group (20–29 years old), those living with dependents and relatively low-income earners (income <$20,000) identified discounts on accommodation and travel as travel motivators.

Recognising the factors that could motivate tourists to travel could help businesses in the tourism, travel and hospitality sectors prepare for health crises similar to the COVID-19 by rebranding their services tailored to tourists' needs and concerns during health crises. This study also summarises prior studies' findings on recovery strategies in times of health crises. This summary can be used as a toolkit or guide to managing health crises. Therefore, this study provided timely information about a current and fatal crisis and can thus serve as part of the knowledge base in crisis planning. Future studies can replicate the current study in other regions to determine if other travel motivators can be identified.

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Chapter 9
Redefining the Idea of Equal Distribution of the Benefits of Tourism in the Era of the COVID-19 Pandemic

Kevin Phun and Olusegun Samson Obadire

Abstract Equal distribution of benefits in tourism has always been a complicated matter. It is compounded by the fact that communities are never homogenous. The COVID-19 pandemic has changed many aspects of tourism, including how tourism's benefits are perceived and distributed. The pandemic shifted the focus on tourism from ensuring maximum revenues and high tourist arrivals to managing negative impacts associated with over-tourism. Most literatures on income distribution and sustainable development need to be understood holistically. This study conducted a secondary data analysis of literature on tourism between 2020 and 2021. The study analysed survey reports from South Africa's National Department of Tourism, Statistics South Africa and other relevant sources. It explored how researchers perceive COVID-19 and equal distribution of tourism benefits, considering sustainability perspectives. The study found that the tourism sector's resilience, flexibility, collaboration and co-creation are important for survival. It recommends that the private sector utilise different types of resources to help local communities lift themselves from poverty.

Keywords Tourism · Equal distribution · Sustainable tourism · Local community · COVID-19

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9.1 Introduction

Equal distribution of benefits is a vague concept which mainly reflects equal economic benefits (Atuguba, 2013; Björk, 2007; Arts & Gelissen, 2001). This concept somehow limits the idea of tourism's many benefits. In addition, it potentially makes sustainable tourism practitioners unaware of the possible non-economic benefits that tourism can generate for local communities. The quest for equality and non-discrimination in the distribution of the benefits of development will remain an ideal that is never realised (Atuguba, 2013). Many benefits that tourism brings cannot easily be shared equitably because they are not tangible (Björk, 2007). As a result, the emphasis on equal sharing may result in a loss of focus on the more important task. Bridging the gap between the rich and poor and providing opportunities for poverty alleviation among the local communities and providing skill acquisition programmes could be more important than benefit sharing for economic reasons. The COVID-19 pandemic disrupted travel and changed the way many communities practice tourism (WHO, 2020). As a result, there could be a need to relook at how and where tourism's benefits can come from, making it imperative beyond direct economic impacts. Less emphasis on equal sharing of benefits perhaps can contribute to peace, justice and equality issues in tourism communities (Arts & Gelissen, 2001).

In this study, we explore the issues around the equal distribution of benefits of tourism, especially during the era of the COVID-19 pandemic. The study assesses the perception of stakeholders on the equal distribution of the benefits of tourism. Dabphet (2012) asserts that diverse stakeholders should be consulted when implementing sustainable tourism development principles. Hence, the issues of justice, ethics and equity that have remained unexplored in community-based tourism in liberal democratic settings such as the Republic of South Africa were tackled. This study generates insights that could broaden the understanding of the benefits of tourism in the era of the COVID-19 pandemic.

In the next section, the study reviews the literature related to the study. This is followed by an outline of the adopted theoretical framework and the research methodology for the study. Thereafter, the results of the study are presented and discussed. Lastly, recommendations are made and conclusions are drawn.

9.2 Literature Review

The COVID-19, which started as an epidemic in the Wuhan region in China, was declared a pandemic by the World Health Organization (WHO) on 11 March 2020 (WHO, 2020; CDC, 2019; Gallegos, 2020; Ramzy & McNeil, 2020). According to World Health Organization (WHO, 2020), the severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus (SARS-CoV-2) caused COVID-19. The acronym was derived from 'coronavirus disease 2019' (Obadire et al., 2020; Schiavone et al., 2020). A study by

Škare et al. (2021) provides a clear picture of how the virus impacted the travel and tourism industry. Depending on the dynamics of future pandemics (from April 2020 to December 2021), the travel tourism industry worldwide was expected to drop by 5% in the total GDP contribution (Škare et al., 2021). Jobs in the travel tourism industry decreased by 3%. The study also shows that the estimated inbound tourist spending was lost by 5%. Total capital investments fell by 6% due to the pandemic (Škare et al., 2021). The lockdown led to changes in how work is conducted, as well as the spending patterns of households (Bressan et al., 2021).

Due to shrinkages in income sources, internal resources and capabilities were affected. The COVID-19 outbreak, therefore, significantly affected global travel and tourism (Deb & Nafi, 2020). The pandemic hit hard the aviation sector of various airport companies in South Africa and the region due to a series of travel restrictions (Dube, 2021). To reduce the spread of the virus, all countries had imposed lockdowns and restricted domestic and international travel (Deb & Nafi, 2020). Tourism is related to human movement, and therefore, it was hugely affected by travel restrictions as potential tourists could not travel (Deb & Nafi, 2020; Manolova et al., 2020). The COVID-19 pandemic has also taken a toll on financing options available to enterprise development, thereby limiting the funding and financing options available to entrepreneurs in the tourism sector (Brown et al., 2020).

In some countries, women-owned businesses have a reduced chance of business recovery and are most affected by the COVID-19 pandemic (Manolova et al., 2020). The COVID-19 pandemic also had a devastating impact on the socio-economic well-being of tourism employees (Dube, 2021). Many tourism employees were not paid as most companies adopted a leave programme and reduced working days, while others closed altogether, thereby resulting in job losses (Suau-Sanchez et al., 2020; Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020). This further aggravated the poor conditions of local tourism operators. A study by Jung et al. (2021) lamented the impact of COVID-19 on job security and turnover for hotel employees, many of whom were forced to live below the poverty line. Resource components such as strategic, physical, financial, human and organisational resources were constantly redirected or re-prioritised because of the pandemic (Jung et al., 2021).

Given the social distancing measures imposed by countries, there is a need for an innovative approach for tourism business engagement going forward (D'Agostino et al., 2020). The idea of building resilient small businesses becomes an important focus. Given the COVID-19 pandemic, the foundation for this is policies that encourage localised flows of product offerings while prioritising labour and diversification (Korsgaard et al., 2020). The focus should also be on equipping entrepreneurs within the COVID-19 era with the requisite coping skills and competencies (Doern et al., 2019). The pandemic has widened the inequality gap between the 'haves' and the 'have-nots' in the tourism industry. Those with enormous resources can afford to close their businesses for long periods, unlike those with small tourism businesses who only depend on daily customer patronages and cannot survive without their businesses. For example, in an examination of Black American entrepreneurship, Gold (2016) and Dangi and Petrick (2021: 15–42) revealed that race-based disadvantages included 'low level of earning, lack of wealth, poor education, lack of experience in a family business, and difficulty in getting a loan'. Rather than always aiming for equal distribution of benefits in tourism, the goal should be a broader engagement with tourism stakeholders through the distribution of a wider variety of benefits (Walker et al., 2020). This study attempts to create a broader definition of the benefits of tourism to broaden understanding of benefits beyond economic terms. According to Dabphet (2012), the support of tourism stakeholders is essential for tourism's development, successful operation and long-term sustainability. Tourism stakeholders include different types of groups depending on their geographical locations. Perceptions and understanding of how benefits are shared cannot be assumed to be the same everywhere.

Snyman and Bricker (2021) note that revenue sharing or the sharing of economic benefits is not straightforward and should reflect the costs experienced by local communities from tourism. This resonates with calls to move away from mainly focusing on economic benefits and the concept of equal sharing (Prasetyanti & Nugroho, 2019). Dabphet (2012) states that not all stakeholders have the same interest in sustainable tourism development; while some may be active, others may not. Hence, there is a need for broadening the engagement of tourism stakeholders rather than being overly concerned about how the benefits are to be shared equally, mainly when there is a growing awareness that tourism's benefits often come in different shapes and forms.

According to Heslinga et al. (2019: 1), in protected areas, benefit sharing is 'the process of making informed and fair trade-offs between social, economic, and ecological costs and benefits within and between stakeholder groups'. This means that the idea of equal sharing is not straightforward. The aim could be effective sharing and not so much equal sharing. A study on the ethics of care by Dangi and Petrick (2021) shows that tourism made a remarkable contribution to enhancing community pride and respect for diverse cultural groups and their heritage which fosters community cohesion, one of the criteria outlined for community-based tourism (CBT) success (Mielke, 2012).

Some stakeholders are powerful than others in determining the success of sustainable tourism development than striving to achieve equality in the distribution of benefits (Cooper et al., 2006). Striving to ensure that benefits are equally shared may also lead us to neglect those who often and usually contribute the least to tourism's growth but who may pay a heavy price when tourism grows, such as the vulnerable and the poor. Tourism stakeholders vary in size, power, number, control and involvement, meaning that trying to ensure equal distribution of benefits will be difficult and risk missing out on more pertinent issues.

The perception of tourism is unique and can be assessed through many domains, such as transportation, lodging, land use, environment, social structure and entertainment exercises (Hayllar et al., 2011, cited in Afthanorhan et al., 2017). Wanner and Pröbstl-Haider (2019) concur that regulatory constraints, lack of information and low levels of awareness or knowledge of planning, among other factors, are to be considered a hindrance to local people benefitting from tourism. These factors potentially also ensure that the idea of equal sharing of benefits is not feasible. Rural tourism encompasses various activities such as farm tourism/agritourism, food and wine tourism, adventure tourism, cultural and heritage tourism, nature tourism and ecotourism (Karali et al., 2021).

In many countries, numerous communities and family-based small and medium enterprises (SMEs) within the rural sector contribute significantly to tourism revenues and employment (Jamal & Dredge, 2014). Too much focus on ensuring that benefits are equally distributed prevents us from seeing the long-term or bigger picture. Snyman and Bricker (2021) highlight revenue sharing's tangible and intangible benefits, noting how it is only a one way of sharing benefits from tourism and protected areas. It is also important to note that focusing on broadening the idea of benefits rather than mainly looking at revenues as benefits could help alleviate the impact of costs associated with tourism on stakeholders, such as increased local prices, loss of access to land, human-wildlife conflict and other related costs.

Muganda et al. (2012) note that in Tanzania, little is known about local communities' involvement in the sharing of tourism benefits and the extent to which tourism has contributed to improving local people's livelihoods. Expanding the involvement of local stakeholders is imperative to achieve a greater variety of tourism products and services. Dujmovic and Vitasovic (2014), cited in Nguyen (2021), argue that it is important to develop new tourism products and destinations and provide tourists with more sources of inspirational experience. Borges et al. (2011) assert that by ensuring that all stakeholders are involved from the beginning, more holistic decision-making can be achieved, and enhanced ownership from all parties is possible. Identifying different types of non-economic benefits of tourism could also help tourism communities become more resilient to external shocks. There seems to be an increase in the possibility of contributing to sustainable tourism by local stakeholders. Dabphet (2012) asserts that diverse stakeholders should be consulted when implementing sustainable tourism development principles. This makes a case for focusing less on achieving equal distribution of benefits and more on what benefits can be created and who can benefit even more critical.

Aas et al. (2005: 4) assert that tourism stakeholders include any individuals or groups involved, interested in or affected (positively or negatively) by tourism. Effective stakeholder engagement must, therefore, minimise potential conflicts between tourists and the host community by involving the latter in shaping how tourism develops. The tourism sector was hard hit during the lockdown and travel restrictions in most countries. It is high time stakeholders in the tourism sector develop innovative ways for businesses to thrive in the face of the pandemic. Local community stakeholders play essential roles as the preservers of the cultures and traditions in tourism sites worldwide. Hence, their roles should be given the necessary recognition. Like the United Nations, World Tourism Organization's Global Code of Ethics which Fennell (2014) claims lacked inclusivity and does not protect the welfare of those who, by their involvement as workers, entertainers and competitors, is an important part of the tourism industry's operations.

Bianchi (2003) asserts that the involvement of residents in decision-making is key to sustainable tourism development and would also create increased acceptance and legitimacy of tourism as an economic development policy. Similarly, Wanner and Pröbstl-Haider (2019) state that stakeholder involvement increases equity in decision-making, incorporates marginalised groups, helps us understand the diverse range of (potentially conflicting) interests and navigates specific issues regionally. The same authors also noted that the benefits of participation are felt most strongly if stakeholders are truly incorporated into decision-making and results (ibid). Muganda et al. (2012) further assert that obtaining sociocultural and environmental returns from tourism requires the private sector's willingness to get into partnerships with the local community so that such business opportunities can be a way local communities can lift themselves out of poverty.

9.3 Theoretical Lens

The dynamic capability perspective theory (Chesbrough & Rosenbloom, 2002; Ragmouna & Alwehabie, 2020) posits that dynamic capabilities exist as those competencies that assist the firm in responding to the rapid changes happening within the environmental context (Samsudin & Ismail, 2019). Given the environmental uncertainty, dynamic capabilities allow one firm to perform better than another (Abbady et al., 2021). Dynamic capabilities can assist in forming a competitive advantage (Ragmouna & Alwehabie, 2020). Dynamic capability activities are framed as sensing and seizing opportunities, including reconfiguring internal opportunities (Semke & Tiberius, 2020). The thinking is that small business owners will do everything to perform better despite challenges. The current challenge of the COVID-19 pandemic will merely be a stepping stone to rise above such a challenge. This will come from the identified activities from the extant literature (Semke & Tiberius, 2020). To achieve this, the role of resources is key together with an organisational culture (Glyptis et al., 2021). The dynamic capability approach also addresses relevant firm capabilities to adapt to fast change in an environment that threatens a firm's competitiveness and survival. Despite these conceptual similarities, their relationship remains opaque (Semke & Tiberius, 2020; Ragmouna & Alwehabie, 2020).

The participatory tourism development model, which integrates sustainable, equal distribution, has been described as citizen participation for the redistribution of power that enables have-not citizens excluded from the political and economic processes to be deliberately included in the future (Giampiccoli & Saayman, 2021). It is a strategy by which the have-nots join in determining how information is shared, goals and policies are set, tax resources are allocated, programmes are operated, and benefits like contracts and patronage are parcelled out. Thus, the participatory tourism development model (Fig. 9.1) can induce significant social reform, which enables tourism stakeholders to enjoy the benefits of an affluent society.

CBT is a form of tourism that arose to offset the negative impacts of conventional tourism (Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2017: 16; Mielke, 2012), such as leakages and loss of local control of natural resources. CBT 'is increasingly being promoted as a means of reducing poverty and fostering local community development' (Runyowa,

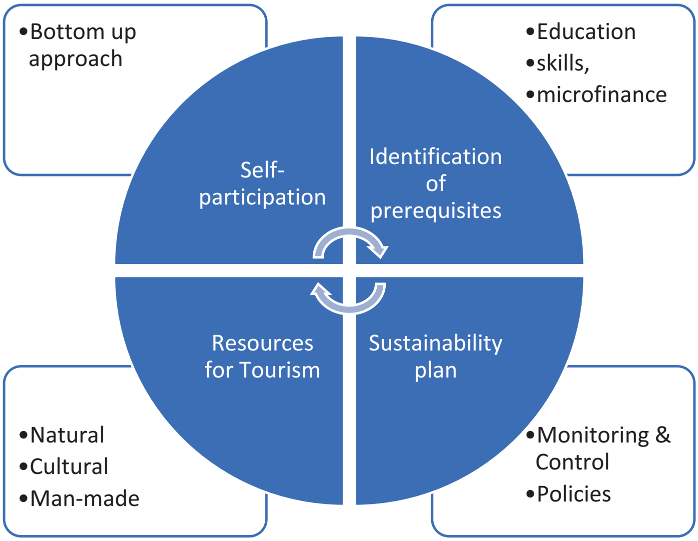

Fig. 9.1 Participatory tourism development model. (Source: Giampiccoli and Saayman (2021))

2017: 2). It has been found that CBT can work with mainstream tourism to strengthen links between tourism and local people (Giampiccoli & Saayman, 2021). Figure 9.1 shows the concept of participatory and sustainable tourism that may enhance equal distribution of tourism benefits (Giampiccoli & Saayman, 2021). At the model's core is the interdependency of processes involving stakeholders from start to finish. It allows the local community to take ownership of their tourism businesses rather than the ones prescribed by outsiders. It recommends local initiation and upskilling of human resources to build capacity: increase sustainability and conservation of the processes through monitoring and evaluation.

9.4 Materials and Methods

This chapter draws heavily from a secondary and extensive desktop literature review of the state of COVID-19 and the equal distribution of benefits of tourism development research in South Africa. The data were analysed to identify emerging research trends, patterns, gaps and opportunities within the sector. The study used reports from South Africa's National Department of Tourism, Statistics South Africa and other relevant articles in the Google Scholar database. Sixty (60) journal articles and documents with direct references to the paper's title were selected out of hundreds of related articles (Table 9.1). The selected articles were further analysed using thematic content analysis to rank and review the identified themes. These themes were the most frequently mentioned in the reviewed articles. Emerging themes are discussed in the results and discussion section below.

Table 9.1 Review of journal articles on the equal distribution of tourism benefits and COVID-19 between 2020 and 2021

Themes	Source of article	Reviewed articles	Samples of paper
COVID-19 as an induced sustainable tourism challenge	Google Scholar (26,500), National Department of Tourism (3), Statistics South Africa (4)	10	Dube (2021); Rahman et al. (2021)
Challenges confronting equal tourism distribution, social and economic development	Google Scholar (19,900), Statistics South Africa (2)	8	Loureiro et al. (2020)
Equal sharing of tourism's benefits versus broader engagement for inclusive growth	Google Scholar (21,000), Statistics South Africa (1)	10	Lo and Janta (2020); Dangi and Petrick (2021)
Alternative tourism business in the era of COVID-19	Google Scholar (26,500), Statistics South Africa (2)	7	Davchev (2020); Medeiros et al. (2021)
Prevailing opportunities towards achieving inclusive growth through sustainable tourism in the era of COVID-19	Google Scholar (26,000), Statistics South Africa (2)	11	Dangi and Petrick (2021); Ye et al. (2021)
Interest in sustainable tourism	Google Scholar (26,000), Statistics South Africa (1)	5	León-Gómez et al. (2021)
Unequal importance and locals' perceptions	Google Scholar (26,100), Statistics South Africa (3)	6	Andries et al. (2021)
Revenue sharing in the tourism business	Google Scholar (26,600), National Department of Tourism (1), Statistics South Africa (2)	3	Akbar and Yang (2021)
Total		60	

In answering the research question on equal distribution of tourism benefits in the pandemic era, an interpretive research philosophy, using a qualitative research approach, was utilised in this study (Ryan, 2018). The rationale stems from the praise given to this philosophy and approach to understanding the complexity that accompanies human experience (Chinyamurindi et al., 2021). Such a philosophy and approach enable a subjective understanding of the meaning of social action and potential response sense-making (Jamal & Dredge, 2014). In previous studies, such a philosophy and approach have been utilised to understand the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic within the human resource profession (Chinyamurindi et al., 2021).

Ethical clearance was granted by the institutions with which the authors are affiliated (Patten et al., 2018).

9.5 Results and Discussion

The findings in this study are presented based on the identified eight themes, which are further compressed into five subsections. The framework on participatory tourism development focuses on self-participation, which has to be bottom-up, including community tourism players, big tourism corporations and the government getting involved from the planning stages; identification of prerequisites (skills, for example); resources; and sustainability plan. The results are critically discussed from various perspectives from previous authors, with inferences from other relevant documents as well.

9.5.1 COVID-19 as an Induced Sustainable Tourism Challenge

Findings from the reviewed articles (67%) indicate that COVID-19 has adversely affected the tourism sector, which was almost halted due to several travel restrictions imposed by different states. Most of the literature reviewed (75%) confirmed that social distancing and other COVID-19 protocols prevented people from visiting tourist destinations where there are usually large crowds. It was reported that in South Africa, Kruger National Park (KNP) was closed for visitors at some point (SANPARKS, 2021), while hotels and recreational centres were put under lock and key. Dube (2021) avers that the chaos brought about by the COVID-19 pandemic had a devastating impact on the tourism market, wreaking havoc on tourism company stocks. The findings show that practitioners in tourism did not come together to map out the ways and manners of their business operations during the pandemic. This would have provided solution to so many contradictory views and conflicting information experienced during the period. This study found that the COVID-19 pandemic has ruined all the previous narratives on development. According to Obadire et al. (2020), lockdowns were supposed to be a temporary measure. Unfortunately, globally, lockdowns became prolonged, thus resulting in negative impacts on the tourism businesses around the world. As revealed by Rahman et al. (2021), the consequences of the pandemic could change many aspects of human life and business, including tourism management, as almost half of the global population adopted restrictions on movement at an unprecedented scale. According to

Dube (2021), it is important to look at how restrictions by COVID-19 could be reviewed in favour of tourism businesses in South Africa. Many of the reviewed articles show that COVID-19 has brought about devastating health challenges to the local populace, thereby exacerbating the economic downturn, and the survival of the ordinary tourism businesses was in jeopardy.

9.5.2 Challenges Confronting Equal Tourism Distribution, Social and Economic Development

The study revealed that there are various challenges faced in equal tourism benefit distribution in South Africa, some of which emanate from the pandemic, while others are because of existing disparities between the 'haves' and the 'have-nots' in the tourism sector. Some of the reviewed articles (18%) believe that local tourism players are usually unable to meet certain policy requirements and standards due to a lack of access to required resources. This view was corroborated by Jamal and Dredge (2014), who say the controlling and integrating forces in international tourism are primarily the large multinational 'First World' companies that control airlines and hotel chains that facilitate and manipulate the movement of large numbers of travellers, hence 'mass tourism'. However, it is unclear to what extent particular developmental vehicles such as tourism are effective in addressing these issues, especially as many of the problems facing developing countries may be the outcome rather than the cause of underdevelopment (Jamal & Dredge, 2014). There are success stories of sustainable livelihoods and ecological conservation, such as in rural Botswana (Mbaiwa & Stronza, 2010) and Brazil (Pegas & Stronza, 2010).

On the other hand, critiques of the political economy of tourism and the neoliberal agenda suggest that pro-poor tourism initiatives should also be cautiously approached (Jamal & Dredge, 2014). Some of the reviewed articles (38%) emphasised that cultural empowerment under conditions of oppression is not entirely precluded when state and tourism interests intervene, but the hope is that tourism can foster rather than hinder cultural well-being, self-determination, self-reliance, sense of pride and respect, local control and sustainable livelihoods (Higgins-Desbiolles et al., 2010; Jamal & Dredge, 2014). The study revealed that individuals should take ownership of their tourism businesses rather than shifting their responsibilities while relying on handouts. Some authors (46%) mentioned that the local community around tourism destinations are the custodians of indigenous knowledge concerning the site. A proper survey and mapping of the tourist sites should be done by the community with the assistance of the government. Often, these people are marginalised while the sites are being defiled or polluted. Hence, they sometimes result in violence. A conflict of this nature is not supposed to erupt if proper stakeholder engagement processes are in place (Loureiro et al., 2020).

9.5.3 Equal Sharing of Tourism's Benefits Versus Broader Engagement for Inclusive Growth

Some of the articles reviewed in the study confirm that broader engagement among tourism stakeholders has multiple benefits; according to Lo and Janta (2020), residents in a CBT project lost several valuable natural resources, like land, to outside investors, with many guest houses owned by outsider investors. This justifies calls to move away from focusing only on moving equal benefits to ensure that engagements or involvement in tourism is widened. Broadening the engagement of stakeholders gives ethical tourism a more robust framework, while focusing less on equal sharing of benefits and more on seeing how tourism's benefits can be more widely shared can also help to enhance the notion of ethical tourism. Where local participation has been effectively implemented, it has proven to be a key element for success in empowering local stakeholders (Gebara, 2013).

It was shown from this study that a community-based participatory tourism development model would increase equity in tourism benefit distribution among the stakeholders. Findings from this study agree with previous authors (Jamal & Dredge, 2014; Dixey, 2009) on tourism's contributions to community development. It revealed a diverse range of forms and approaches to community-based tourism, as well as a wide variety of planning and community engagement tools. According to Jamal and Dredge (2014), development agendas have shifted to incorporate pro-poor initiatives as well as identifying 'triple bottom line' (environmental, economic and social) goals that comport with community development agendas. This study emphasises the importance of networking and training opportunities to empower small business owners in required skills such as microfinance, computer literacy, strategy and management in response to the COVID-19 pandemic. The priority here could be alerting the small business owners to opportunities that may exist within their local context. This is a welcome move from a dependency approach that seeks to ascribe responsibility to the government to investigate larger benefits for the entire community (Dangi & Petrick, 2021).

9.5.4 Alternative Tourism Business in the Era of the Pandemic

Some of the reviewed articles emphasise the need to focus on innovative tourism business to transform some of the disruption brought about by the pandemic into a positive addition in the sector, such as looking for a modern way to express yourself, a function of the advancement in the new technology or the next touristic phenomenon (Davchev, 2020). A recent analysis of redefining and reorienting tourism offers new insights for rethinking tourism by providing alternative tourism businesses (Medeiros et al., 2021). This will include making people and the environment the priority during this period of health crisis rather than focusing on economic benefits only. The study revealed that providing equal access for local and corporate tourism businesses to thrive would create partnership opportunities and a long-lasting relationship. These types of partnerships may focus on capacity and skill development training, joint policy or guideline formulation and microfinance support. Alternative tourism businesses were suggested by a few authors (12%), including virtual tourism on digital platforms (Lu et al., 2022; Fountain, 2021). Although these types of tourism are still in the infant stages, they could be exclusive to well-established tourism practitioners. Some of the technology and infrastructure may be out of reach to local people unfamiliar with the high-technological requirements of virtual tourism and may end up exclusive to rich tourism business companies (Lu et al., 2022; Nummela et al., 2020; Mura et al., 2017). It is clear from this study that a tourism management strategy has been developed to allow for inclusive local community participation despite the pandemic.

Collaborative networks and linkages between SMEs and communities, as well as between key stakeholders, including policymakers and funding organisations, are vital to effective community-based tourism in rural areas (see Albrecht, 2011; Jamal & Dredge, 2014). Such efforts are important in this moment when possibilities for transformative change are made possible through the pandemic's disruption to tourism business as usual (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020; Medeiros et al., 2021).

9.5.5 Opportunities for Achieving Inclusive Growth Through Sustainable Tourism

Study findings revealed that the role of government is a critical success factor in stimulating rural tourism and poverty alleviation in both informal and formal sectors during pandemic times. Like any other country in Africa, South Africa has made policy commitments to harness tourism for poverty reduction in rural areas (Dixey, 2009; Jamal & Dredge, 2014). It has been argued that qualitative changes, as opposed to quantitative changes in community conditions, should be emphasised when discussing development (Jamal & Dredge, 2014; Himberg, 2006). The majority (58%) reviewed in this study believed that project activities striving for community development should, in the first place, focus on ways of life rather than livelihoods, and local people should have the option to decide what kind of development, if any, is desirable to them as they draw upon their values, beliefs, traditions and customs to guide the process of change (Jamal & Dredge, 2014). These are essential factors that will enrich the tourist experience in the area. Participation of the local community right from the planning stages will be inclusive of increasing direct engagement with tourists, thereby enhancing equal distribution of benefits for local tourism stakeholders.

The ability of rural tourism to contribute to community development goals and enable sustainable livelihoods across the developed and developing context continues to be challenged by declining agricultural incomes. This is often affected adversely by global free trade policies, lack of marketing and business planning skills and lack of integrated approaches to policymaking, planning, developing and marketing rural tourism products and attractions (Ye et al., 2021). Some authors argue that the close interdependence of various parts of the community ecosystem has made early involvement of the community in local tourism planning a step in the right direction. Stakeholder engagement should leverage the large community of practice to provide solutions in favour of the local people in the business. The design of various training modules should include indigenous knowledge system experts led by the local people. According to most articles (65%), governance has an important role in addressing issues of justice, ethics and equity which need further research in relation to sustainable tourism practices, including CBT (Dangi & Petrick, 2021; Dangi, 2016; Jamal & Camargo, 2014; Nummela et al., 2020; Mielke, 2012).

9.6 Recommendations

The study sought to redefine the equal distribution of benefits in tourism by looking more into sustainable development by providing inclusive tourism practices among practitioners. Considering this study's findings and discussion, the recommendations could only be suggestive rather than prescriptive since tourism operations differ in various geographical, sociocultural and economic contexts (Dangi & Petrick, 2021). It should be noted that certain industries are thriving even amid the COVID-19 pandemic. Stakeholders in the tourism sector should find innovative ways for business continuity during the period of a pandemic such as COVID-19. Virtual tourism could be an innovative and alternative way to sustain tourism businesses during the pandemic. This presents a shift in the use of technology for tourism, and it is currently gaining grounds in some countries (Wu & Lai, 2021). Sustainable tourism development models require more proactive, inclusive, ethical tourism development. Dangi and Petrick (2021) observe that as much as tourism helps promote cultural preservation, community pride and a sense of mutual respect and understanding among visitors and stakeholders, some local community practitioners felt they were not receiving the full benefits of tourism. Rather than looking at equal beneficiation in terms of monetary benefits, the government and established tourism companies should provide opportunities for meaningful engagement with local providers and find ways of improving the quality of local tourism products. However, we cannot rule out the provision of financial incentives for locals from tourism-related businesses, which could facilitate business ownership through a conducive environment for easy access to funds and infrastructure by the government and private establishments. There is a need to understand the constraints and limitations communities face in better tourism planning to prevent standardised strategies deployed so that sustainable development can truly happen for all stakeholders. Some of the standards raised due to the COVID-19 pandemic should be reviewed in line with the current situation in the local community. There is a need for community-industry partnerships in the tourism sector development for an inclusive strategy which increases equal beneficiation among locals on established tourism companies. Promoting tourism entrepreneurship and professional competency for an inclusive strategy for local community members will bring much-desired harmony to the sector.

Dangi and Petrick (2021) state that the road to sustainable tourism development has not been straightforward, including conceptual, implementation and governance challenges. Identifying innovative solutions to address the different costs faced by local tourism communities is imperative. Creating creative ways and means of how tourism could enable those with fewer resources to overcome situations they find themselves in, could help. Thus, enabling local communities to be able to partner with private sector entities to allow meaningful collaborations to be made possible, especially those with marginalised groups, is essential. Collaborations with private sectors, government departments and NGOs to organise capacity development trainings targeting all economically disadvantaged groups without discrimination could further enhance trust among locals and benefit all (Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2017). Studies have shown that SMEs are the mainstay of any economy. Therefore, government interventions and monitoring processes should be developed with local stakeholders. The local indigenous knowledge and tradition, if well managed, will enrich the tourism destinations and improve the standard of living of the communities in the area.

9.7 Conclusion

The notion of equal benefits is often not easy to conceptualise clearly across different types of communities. The focus on ensuring that tourism's benefits be equally shared may well prevent tourism stakeholders from focusing on meaningful and necessary engagement and that a shift in priorities is crucial for all stakeholders to assimilate sustainable tourism practices into business operations. Equal distribution of benefits should also be about non-economic benefits as tourism can enhance local people's lives in many ways. Creating a conducive environment for stakeholder engagement to improve quality through providing adequate training for local tourism practitioners is also imperative. The idea of benefits being largely economic can be widened to identify ways of improving the distribution of benefits, particularly by improving the engagement of the stakeholders. There could be some sort of a window of opportunity created by the pandemic to improve the ways certain stakeholder groups engage in tourism so that the benefits obtained can better meet local peoples' specific needs, thereby helping to address sustainable development objectives.

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Chapter 10
Revenge Tourism: A Response Mechanism of the Traumatic Era

Sagyan Sagarika Mohanty, Subramani Krishnamurthi, Dammalapati Ravinath, and Jayashree Veluthakkal

Abstract Human inclination and zest for visiting and exploring places of the created world give rise to various tourism concepts. "Revenge tourism" is an upcoming concept of tourism. It reflects acute and persistent post-lockdown reactions. This chapter explores the concept of revenge tourism as an uncultivated section of the tourism and hospitality sector to find out the factors activating and influencing this concept. It also investigates the pros and cons of this concept and how it can supplement the revival of the tourism and hospitality industry from the devastating COVID-19 effect. News articles, narratives of published reports in different media, a few interviews and discussions with tourists helped the authors reveal the factors influencing revenge tourism, such as push and pull factors, as well as the psychological, economic and socio-environmental impact of revenge tourism on tourism and the hospitality industry. In the post-COVID-19 lockdown context, revenge tourism could act as a tonic for the revival of the hospitality sector. Beyond this, this study highlighted a combination of push and pull factors substantiating this concept and discussing their influences on various stakeholders by developing a conceptual model. This study was only confined to limited destinations within India, which restricted the findings of this research. So, future studies can be augmented by focussing on various other states within India and overseas destinations.

Keywords Revenge tourism · COVID-19 · Mental and physical well-being · New normal economy

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10.1 Introduction

Travel and tourism can always be a medium of expressing and exploring oneself. It offers fun, relaxation, a rich experience and ways to contribute constructively to conservation and the communities one visits (Jamal & Budke, 2020). It sparks inner happiness and acts as a panacea that enriches a traveller's mind and soul beyond the chaotic commercial world. The COVID-19 pandemic has posed a serious question to travellers regarding their travel decisions and dampened the desire to travel and explore destinations, owing to a lack of accessibility and mobility (Hall et al., 2020) due to the lockdown restrictions imposed by governments. Consequently, the global tourism industry's sustainable future has been challenged by the wellness and lives of millions supported by the sector (Zaman et al., 2021).

As the pandemic fear gripped the globe, people confined themselves to the four walls of their places of living, waiting eagerly for the uncertainties to finish, the "unlock" phase to commence and to step out and breathe in the open air. The increasing frustration among people, attributed to the COVID-19 pandemic, created an unexpected phenomenon of r*evenge tourism* in the post-pandemic period. Revenge is a psychological state in which one feels sad about some issue and reacts to it. Francis Bacon was very apt in saying, "Revenge is a kind of wild justice" (Francis Bacon, 2021), and this proves to be right in the context of revenge tourism, where people desire to travel more because of the imposed restrictions. A recent report published in India.com termed travelling the second most desired activity after eating out in the post-pandemic world (Shekhar, 2021). Revenge tourism is a buzzword in the travel and tourism industry that stems from the feeling of wanting to break free from the monotonous life caused due to COVID-19 restrictions (Ghosh, 2021). The term "lockdown fatigue" was coined in 2020 by Dr. Randeep Guteria, director of AIIMS (All India Institute of Medical Sciences*)*, Delhi, India. It has become a major concern for government and health experts, as the irresponsible behaviour of the crowds might cause another wave of the pandemic, posing a severe threat to humanity. Meanwhile, revenge travel sounds like sweet music to the ears of the tourism industry and a source of hope and happiness for the states that depend heavily on tourism as a source of revenue.

Like many world countries, India was also grappling with the life versus livelihood dilemma that the pandemic poses (Pasricha, 2021). The need to focus on economic stability and restoration of livelihood amid the threat of surging COVID-19 infections is expected to have a catastrophic consequence which has brought a perplexing issue to the fore for the state authorities and experts to solve.

This research explores the concept of revenge tourism as an uncultivated facet of the tourism and hospitality sector. This study also intends to find out the factors influencing this concept and how it can enhance and complement the revival of the travel industry from the devastating effects of COVID-19. It also attempts to investigate the pros and cons of this concept by taking instances and cases from a few Indian states such as Uttarakhand, Goa, Rajasthan and Karnataka. The following section describes the theoretical and empirical literature on the concept of revenge tourism and the scenario of the tourism sector in the post-pandemic world. The methodology section contains the design of this study, data collection procedures and the approach to analysing the data. Finally, the findings, discussion and conclusion are presented by analysing the sample states with a proposed model.

10.2 Literature Review

The impact of COVID-19 would outshine the effect of all such past pandemics on tourism-related activities and its industry (Gossling et al., 2020). As per the United Nations World Tourism Organization's (UNWTO) 2021 report, international tourism declined to 74% in 2021, compared to the last 2 years, which witnessed the worst year in international tourist arrival. Based on UNWTO, tourism becomes fully accountable for keeping current and future economic, social and environmental impacts that address the needs of visitors and the industry's needs, environment and host communities.

The tourism industry crisis (pandemic) leads to restrictions on movements, events and businesses that impact tourists' arrival and economic transactions (Tuclea et al., 2014). The crisis, be it the swine flu or economic crisis, significantly impacted tourism and low demand (Page et al., 2012). The pandemic crisis affects the attitude of travellers towards tourism (Sekulovic, 2011). Consumers show changes in their behaviour and become sensitive in making decisions during crises (Balalia & Petrescu, 2011).

Sustainability becomes an alternate future for any crisis, revealing both explicit and latent themes that would provide multiple ways of sustainable tourism (Giovanna, 2022). Revenge travel is counter behaviour to the lost time due to lockdowns and curfews (Zaman et al., 2021). Research reveals that sustainability has become a vital core factor in bringing quality tourism and competitiveness (Torres-Delgado & Palomeque, 2014). Accessibility of local resources to tourism has become challenging and necessary to protect and pass them to the next generations (Ozgit & Ozturen, 2021). Tourism is a recognised way to stimulate local economic industries and development (Lin et al., 2018). A country like Portugal has adopted the concept of "Cannot Skip Portugal" as a hope campaign and promoted the "Clean and Safe" seal for the strict safety guidelines (McTeigue et al., 2021).

In addition to this, Australia had come up with a border reopening campaign of "Come and Say G'Day – Don't Go Small. Go Australia" (Australian Tourism, 2021/2022) to boost paused tourism. Sustainable and resilient tourism depends on ecology, socio-economy and sociocultural element to be integrated for exemplary implementation (Azhari et al., 2021). In the post-pandemic period, governments must implement appropriate policies to support, promote the reform and innovation development ideas of tourism enterprises and boost the tourism industry's recovery (Yan et al., 2021), to encourage revenge tourism systematically and more safely.

To encourage and enhance the prospect of revenge tourism throughout the country, destination speciality products and allied services will be promoted along with a tourism package to attract domestic and foreign tourists. The tourist promoters should analyse the preference level of current and potential customers for better use of the existing tourism environment. International tourists would be delighted with better service quality (Tsai, 2021).

Revenge tourism is also one way of compensating for travel time lost by travel enthusiasts. Revenge travel is a trip made to tourist places to vengeance on the pandemic that may be reactions fuelled by forced lockdowns, quarantines, mobility bans and social distancing (Sahdel, 2020). The psychological pressure, daily routines and rules from the pandemic restrictions have made people look for alternative behaviour and accelerated due to long-prolonged lockdowns, curfews and mandatory precautions (Ghosh, 2021).

10.3 Methodology

As the concept of revenge tourism is a relatively new phenomenon and emerged in a short span of the post-pandemic period, the researcher decided to conduct a qualitative study based on narratives and thematic analysis. The researcher adopted a narrative approach hoping it could provide important insight into the emerging and unchartered topic (Phi, 2019). Figure 10.1 depicts the structure of research followed and the process of data collection and analysis in a framework.

The articles collected were published in 2020, 2021 and 2022 soon after the travel restrictions eased down following the lockdown due to the pandemic (Katira, 2020; Mukherji, 2021). The four Indian states, namely, Uttarakhand, Goa, Rajasthan and Karnataka, have been taken as sample destinations as these are considered the most preferred tourist destinations in the pre- and post-pandemic period and also covered different regions of the vast geographical area of the nation, as per the research of Singh (2020), Shenoy (2020), Sinha (2020), BankBazaar (2011) and Taheem (2021).

Considering this, the total number of newspaper articles collected was 105 (Uttarakhand, 25; Goa, 27; Rajasthan, 28; and Karnataka, 25). Out of which, 24 articles were selected by giving equal weightage to all four regions after a process of elimination, while the rest of the articles were removed as they were not complying with the research objectives and research questions of the paper like the factors that are triggering the concept of revenge tourism, the positive and negative impact of revenge tourism on various stakeholders as a whole.

In addition to the newspaper narratives, a few unstructured interviews were conducted to get a deeper insight into consumer expectations and real-time experiences in post-pandemic travel. The respondents were selected randomly based on the criteria that they have visited any of the above-mentioned four states after the commencement of the unlocking phase for various purposes. The respondents' number is limited to 9 as people were reluctant to interact due to the pandemic norms. The blogs' references were also taken along with the interview to add value to the analysis. The collected data were analysed thematically through systematic coding and

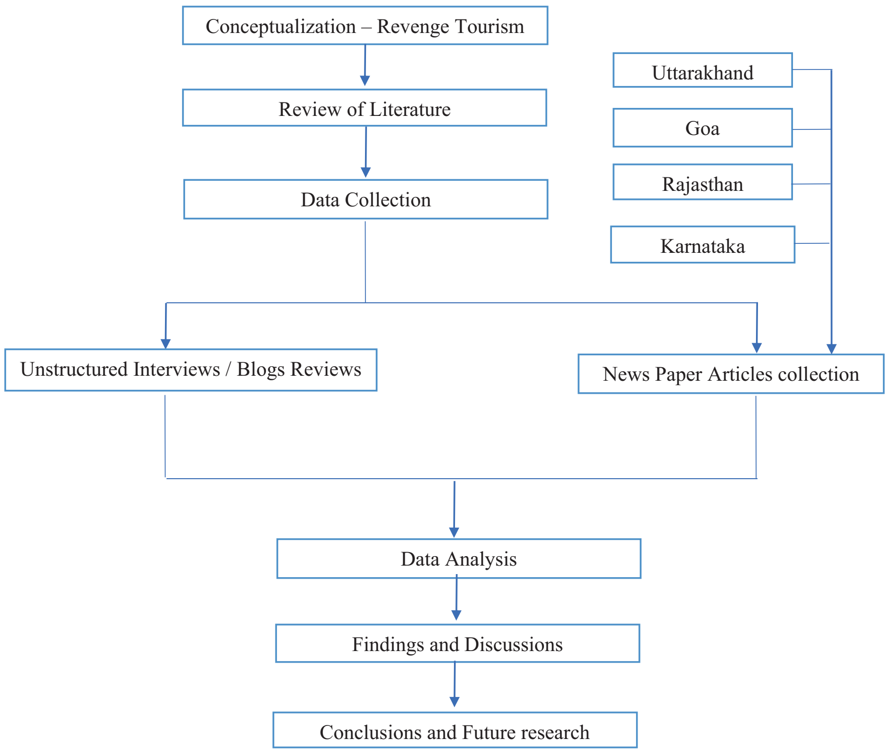

Fig. 10.1 Process of data collection and analysis. (Source: Authors' compilations)

noting each piece of information (Darbi & Knott, 2016) collected from various sources, thereby developing a conceptual framework model to represent the research objectives.

10.3.1 Description of the States and Study Areas

This study considers the case of four Indian states, Uttarakhand, Goa, Rajasthan and Karnataka. The reason for selecting these states was because they are vibrant and popular tourist destinations in India. According to statistics, revenge tourism seems more prominent in the post-pandemic period (King, 2021). The following are the descriptions of these destinations (states) to explain their relevance in the context of revenge tourism.

Uttarakhand is a state in the northern part of India, popularly known as "Dev Bhoomi" (the land of Gods) and is India's spiritual soul. It is a travel destination with something to offer everyone, irrespective of age. No matter which country one comes from or what religion one believes in, one can easily fall in love with and be astounded by this land and indulge in a wide range of recreational, adventurous and spiritual activities.

Uttarakhand has several famed destinations like Nainital, Mussoorie, Corbett National Park and Auli. It also has pilgrimage centres like Kedarnath, Badrinath, Rishikesh, Haridwar and many other uncharted destinations (uttarakhandtourism.gov.in) that will spark the innate purity and natural goodness of tourists, which remains with them as an unforgettable experience.

In addition, Uttarakhand emanates a prominent spiritual aura as it is dotted with numerous Hindu temples. The presence of the holy Ganga makes it a sacred pilgrimage destination. Uttarakhand has some of India's most beautiful hill stations, making it one of the most alluring destinations for solo travellers, family vacations, adventure hunters, honeymoon couples and wellness tourism.

Uttarakhand, the Himalayan state of India, annually attracts 34 million domestic tourists and over 130,000 foreign tourists, and the economy of the state and the livelihood of its people is highly dependent on tourist revenue (Gupta, 2021). But COVID-19 has put a full stop to tourism, which has again shown signs of revival with a gradual easing of movement restrictions and a national vaccination drive (Financial Express, 2021).

"Sarve bhadrāṇi paśyantu mā kaścid duḥkhamāpnuyāt" (may everyone see goodness; may none suffer any pain) is the motto of the Goa state. Goa was a Portuguese colony, the smallest Indian state in the Arabian sea, with attractive tourist spots. Goa was the best-performing state in tourism for three consecutive years (2018, 2019, and 2020). Goa's Susegad attracts many domestic and international tourists (Joshi, 2021).

The friendly tourist environment and festivities throughout the year attract many tourists to Goa's cities. The state of Goa has been divided into North Goa and South Goa; North Goa is the nightlife hub with flea markets and beach shacks, and South Goa is known as a land of luxurious resorts with vibes of the laid-back beach environment (Tour My India, 2021).

The Goan architecture reflects a combination of Indian, Portuguese and Mughal styles that have their allure. The cuisine of Goa, such as seafood with spices, coconut oil and chilli peppers, is prepared using unique methods, attracting more tourists to Goa than any other Indian tourist destination. The state maintains a lower tariff on alcoholic beverages, meaning tourists can have pleasure trips with tighter pockets, especially youngsters. The coastal area, a central attraction of Goa tourism, spreads over 100 kilometres with stunning beaches (Goa Tourism, 2021).

The casino business is evolving, and it attracts casino lovers to Goa. The state has been hosting the International Film Festival of India (IFFI) since 2004 and attracts global attention during November and December (Incredible Goa, 2019).

Even with the strict restrictions on travel, Goa has witnessed more influx of tourists. The state has prepared its SOPs to follow the COVID-19 norms strictly to avoid any widespread infections. The state's stand would boost tourism which has been sinking due to waves of pandemics (Express News Service, 2020).

Rajasthan is perhaps one of India's most colourful states and a land of unending diversity. Whether it is about the "pink" in Jaipur, the "blue" in Jodhpur or the "golden hues" of Jaisalmer, its landscape is swathed in colours of the rainbow (Government of Rajasthan, 2022).

The state has some of the most beautiful palaces and forts in the country, which are well maintained by the government and the former royal families, which narrate exciting stories of a bygone era. Most of these palaces and hotels are equipped with all the modern amenities. The restaurants on the premises of the forts treat the tourists as royalty and sometimes even have musicians and dancers to entertain the visitors (Government of Rajasthan, 2022).

Rajasthan is the magnificent land of numerous Rajput kingdoms, majestic forts and palaces, diverse cultures, landscapes and vibrant colours. The best way to experience this royal land is with the train "Palace on Wheels". It stands on its tracks, a gleaming sealed carriage, the personification of everything regal (Banerjee, 2011).

Rajasthan attracts tourists with its slogan "Padharo mhare desh", which means "We welcome guests to our state"; one in every three foreign tourists visiting India travels to Rajasthan, as it is part of the "Golden Quadrilateral Triangle for tourists visiting" India. Some twelfth-century forts, palaces and havelis built by Mughal and Rajput rulers have been deemed UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) World Heritage sites due to their impressive architecture and historical significance. The distinct topography of Rajasthan is heaven for an infinite number of birds and animal species. These sanctuaries' exotic flora and fauna set the perfect environment for hiking and nature walks. Rajasthan's bustling ethnic street market is another reason why it is popular among tourists. The shops in these markets exhibit rich art and craft belonging to different parts of Rajasthan (Pooja, 2019).

Rajasthan's fairs and festivals have inherently preserved India's culture and traditions, which leave everyone amazed with their vibrancy, contributing to a major influx of tourists. Rajasthani cuisine, having a royal touch, is famous for its fiery flavours enticing everyone to try it (Pooja, 2019).

Karnataka is a south Indian state home to some of the powerful empires of ancient and medieval India, with antiquity dating back to the palaeolithic period. The state has been ranked the country's fourth most popular destination for tourism because of an array of ancient, sculptured temples, scenic hill ranges, forests and beaches. The state also has the country's second-highest number of protected monuments (Singh, 2018).

Karnataka has many popular ecotourism locations like Kudremukh, Madikeri and Agumbe, and the state has 25 wildlife sanctuaries and national parks. The state boasts some famous UNESCO World Heritage sites, Deccan style of architecture and many beautiful waterfalls, enough to attract tourists from various parts of the world annually. Monuments and temples of many religions exist in the state and are also a reason for tourists' fascination (karnatakatourism.org).

Of late, Karnataka has become a centre of healthcare tourism and has the highest number of approved health systems and alternative therapies in India, which attracts many health tourists. The Karnataka government has recognised the importance of tourism. It has identified this as a priority sector, and it has been followed up by some proactive steps to entice tourists encompassing different interest groups in the post-lockdown period (karnatakatourism.org).

10.3.2 Research Instrument and Methods of Data Collection

A few unstructured interviews and discussions with tourists (Table 10.1) have also been conducted to record their experiences. They have been transcribed to get a deep insight into the concept, cause and consequences of revenge tourism. The respondents who had visited the mentioned four states after lockdown and were ready to share their experiences were randomly selected to participate in this study.

In addition to this, the authors also accumulated narratives of news media and news articles, individually for all the sample destinations, to procure relevant and detailed information regarding revenge tourism and how it is a prime contributor to tourism sector revival, as well as being a risk factor in terms of irresponsible post-pandemic tourist behaviour, which is a point of argument. The following tables highlight narratives of published articles covering various aspects of revenge tourism for the selected destinations.

10.3.3 Uttarakhand: Narratives of News Articles

Uttarakhand's Nainital has received massive footfall following the drop of COVID-19 restrictions, as people stuck in their homes for a few months during the lockdown expected to bring back life in the lap of nature. It was termed revenge tourism. Though it is a much-needed relief to the floundering tourism industry, and they were ready to welcome tourists, the apathetic and careless tourist attitude has made the fear of a third-wave pandemic loom quite prominently and was a matter of worry for the state government and healthcare experts (Palliwal, 2021).

The article reflects the eagerness and enthusiasm of travellers to move and explore the hill stations as soon as some states lifted restrictions to attract tourists. The explosion of revenge travellers led to a sizeable demand for homestay and service apartments along with hotels with all necessary COVID-19 protocols, which is the highlight point (Sharma, 2021b). People who locked themselves indoors and fear COVID-19 have landed on India's popular hill stations like Uttarakhand and Himachal Pradesh as COVID-19 restrictions eased has coined the term revenge tourism. The priority is to free themselves from anxiety, stress and isolation. Even though it possesses an infection threat, it acts as a tonic for the tourism and hospitality industry, especially for states depending on tourist revenue to set the economy (Pasricha, 2021).

The travellers were eager to get back to their travel passion, with a little twist in their preference. The hospitality industry also tuned its business model and put in lots of incentives in the form of COVID-19 protocols, last-minute cancellation

Table 10.1 Summary of tourist feedback and responses

S. no	Respondent(s)' details	Particulars
Respondent 1	A family of six from Maharashtra December 2021	I went to Rajasthan with my family as my parents have wanted to go on a pilgrimage since early 2019. Due to the pandemic, we could not visit any place. It is so rich in culture and heritage, and the people are very hospitable with their warmth.
Respondent 2	A newlywed couple from New Delhi January 2022	I got married just before the pandemic, and we booked our tickets for our honeymoon trip to Seychelles but could not visit as we were hit with restrictions on travel, and most of the air services were cancelled. Rajasthan was a preferred destination as we booked our stay in one of the Palaces in Pushkar to experience the concept of living life as King-size as portrayed by my friends. We enjoyed the trip, and it was worth the money.
Respondent 3	A family from Andhra Pradesh October 2021	Rajasthan was a preferred choice for a Destination wedding for my daughter's marriage. There were many restrictions imposed by the State and Central Government on organising weddings. I thought, with a limited number of invitees, why we cannot arrange a wedding in Goa or Rajasthan? Finally, we picked Rajasthan for various reasons, namely, rich culture, heritage, palatial buildings, variety of vegetarian food and cuisine, hospitality, ample sightseeing options in Rajasthan, etc.
Respondent 4	Tourists from Maharashtra December 2021	I love travelling to India's most sought-after travel locations in my Bolero. COVID-19 has been like hell for me, who loves travelling and visiting places. The uncertainty and unprecedented lockdowns announced by the governments and the containment zones have curbed my travel and fun. To break free from this monotony, I came to Rajasthan. It's been an awesome and pleasurable trip. Rajasthan has abundant heritage, and a systemic COVID-19 protocol helped me eliminate all anxiety.
Respondent 5	Tourists from Punjab December 2021	I have come here to enjoy my honeymoon, which was postponed due to the pandemic. I had a lot of choices, but I wanted to go only to Goa because the place looks fun and offers many entertainment avenues. I feel Goa is a place for combining joy and peace for any tourist who visits it. After the pandemic, we found offers by tourist operators, which attracted us. We will be coming back here after the relaxation of COVID-19-related travel restrictions.

(continued)

Table 10.1 (continued)

S. no	Respondent(s)' details	Particulars
Respondent 6	Tourist from Delhi 17 Nov 2020	Soon after lockdown, I decided to take a break from my monotonous life and a couple of my friends, and obviously, the first choice was my dream destination, "the snow-clad Himalayas". Two of my friends opened a homestay in Uttarakhand, which gave me a clear idea about the place, and I planned the journey to spend a month at The Doi Homestay in Nathuakhan as I was permitted to work from home. This part of the state had zero COVID-19 cases, and we felt that nothing like COVID-19 had ever happened to the world. The freedom to enjoy Yoga, Mediation, trekking in the lap of nature, sunshine, and the fresh air without mobiles and laptops seems surreal and beyond belief.
Respondent 7	Make my trip blog Last updated: 24 December 2020	It was quite unbelievable for me to leave my flat in Delhi and head towards Bhowali, Uttarakhand, in mid-June 2020, soon after the relaxation of lockdown. I booked a homestay run by a friend's family and was assured of the safety and sanitisation. It's unbelievable to be in Uttarakhand, where I was in nature's eternal home and left COVID-19 miles behind. Saying that the view and vibe cured my pandemic blues instantly would be an understatement.
Respondent 8	Make my trip log Last updated: 8 December 2020	After months of monotonous and stressful stay at home, I eagerly awaited an escape. I planned to explore "the queen of hills", "Mussoorie", which seemed less affected by COVID-19 and follow all the requisite safety protocols to avoid any problem. Mussoorie had been so welcoming and was a perfect getaway after a stressful lockdown and is an amazing option for leisure and adventure travellers as well as to get rid of anxiety and stress.
Respondent 9	Make my trip blog Last updated: 17 December 2020	After months of frustration, I finally dared to escape to the hills with my travel buddies. We set out for Jibhi, a beautiful place near Banjar Valley of the Kullu District. We opted for a very particular homestay about cleanliness and hygiene and followed all COVID-19 prevention guidelines laid down by the Government. We did not miss the comfort of home. The trip was mind-blowing and rejuvenating, and we cheered the idea of escaping to the hills.

Source: Primary data collected and collated through interviews

options and various programs to address their anxiety to attract family and leisure travellers. To prioritise the safety of tourists, the state of Kerala has introduced an efficient and meticulous bio-bubble model, creating protective layers of service providers to receive and host tourists (Shekhar, 2021). Soon after, the relaxation of lockdown restrictions shows an unanticipated eagerness among people to travel for different purposes, bringing revenge travel's concept to the surface. It has brought a ray of confidence and optimism to the tourism and hospitality industry. The industry has set up safety, hygiene and many other benefits to regain their lost fame by taking advantage of travellers' new trends and mindsets (Bora, 2021).

Revenge travel has brought a wave of optimism to the tourism, hospitality and transportation sectors after the shocking effect of the pandemic. Tourism-related entities that offer attractive incentives may be financial or non-financial, like safety, accessibility, privacy according to customer demand and a large drive-in number of tourists across India (Paytm Money, 2020).

10.3.4 Goa: Narratives of News Articles

Based on a survey conducted among people from tier II and tier III cities, they did not take any vacation due to pandemics in the last 3 months. Most respondents have opted for domestic travel, and Goa is the most preferred tourist destination. The discretionary spending and savings motivated leisure travellers to look for good travel packages and staycation options. Many travellers opted for an EMI payment system for their travel provided by many sources (Awasthi, 2020).

Goa has been rediscovered as the most preferred destination by domestic tourists due to easy accessibility and middle-class mobility, and the numbers have also increased steadily over a period. Domestic tourists were looking for a balance of professional and personal life through “staycations,” “workcations” and “drive cations” to fulfil their travel itch (Ribeiro, 2021). When the lockdown was released after the first wave of COVID-19, Goa had positive sentiments. The people wanted to come to the coastal state as it was considered “safe”, even though the pandemic never ended. The Travel and Tourism Association of Goa (TTAG) has insisted the government follow the strategies to avoid the spread like COVID-19-negative certificates or vaccination certificates and setting up testing facilities at the state borders, airports, bus stands and railway stations at affordable prices (PTI, 2021).

One of the enthusiastic testimonies given by a tourist from the eastern Indian city of Patna was “I wanted to get some beach air ... you know, wind in my hair, sand in my feet - so for that, I thought Goa would be the best place to go”. The government of India has suspended international commercial flights which have boosted the domestic tourism and Goa being the most benefitted of roaring trade in hotels and restaurants (Kataria, 2021). Most travellers travelled to Goa during a pandemic and stayed in unregistered hotels and guesthouses. The government of Goa has spent Rs. 33 crores on promoting tourism and roadshows to attract quality travellers to the coastal state from all over the world. The government was ready to spend up to Rs. 200 crores on tourism promotion and its related activities to revive the sector (Times Now, 2021).

Removing Goa’s night curfew and the clean beach has become an attractive place for tourists with complete vaccination. The people were stressed because of long stays at home due to the pandemic and travel restrictions, now ready to hit the road, especially for the desired tourist destination (Live Mint, 2021).

10.3.5 Rajasthan: Narratives of News Articles

Revenge tourism is real and holds hope for the air travel and hospitality sector, severely battered by the pandemic. During the winter, passenger traffic surpassed pre-COVID-19 numbers in Rajasthan. Jodhpur and Udaipur are marquee destinations in Rajasthan, and Kishangarh saw a 36% increase in air passengers in Rajasthan, the gateway to Ajmer Sharif and Pushkar (Joshi, 2022). The phenomenon of revenge travel, which refers to the desire to go on a vacation after an extended lockdown, has led to most well-known touristy sites being crammed with visitors. To fulfil their sense of wanderlust without getting into the crowd, travellers now prefer to visit less-explored destinations in Rajasthan. "People now do not want places that are commercialised". They do not want to go sightseeing but want a beautiful view and a relaxed environment like heritage properties such as Vivaana in Rajasthan (Gauba, 2021).

The "revenge travel" trend picked up from Unlock 4, bringing some relief to an industry that took one of the worst blows of the pandemic. Indians have had enough of staying at home; people in large numbers and across cities are packing their bags to go to destinations that have been so far restricted from the moment. It could be a vacation, a "staycation" or a "workcation," but the travel shoes are back on despite the risk of COVID-19 infection remaining high (Pant, 2020).

Revenge tourism, a term used to describe bottled-up demand for travel after months of lockdown, is in fashion nowadays. In countries around the world, companies are offering work from home. Therefore, the occupancy from nearby tourist locations to good resorts with workstations has increased exponentially with an 80% occupancy level. There is a particular segment taking to travel with a vengeance such as millennials, young, working professionals making the most of remote working as per experts (TFIPOST, 2020). Revenge travel is not just a buzzword; it is happening in reality; many are revenge travelling. The number is good enough and will increase with time and ease restrictions. Accordingly, hotels attract customers by keeping up with all the revenge travellers' needs and wants regarding hygiene and safety (Sarmah, 2021).

More bookings in Rajasthan are due to destination weddings; this trend will remain till January. The most interesting situation is in Rajasthan, where mass booking of hotel rooms for wedding ceremonies occurs. Since November, 80 to 100 weddings have occurred every month in Rajasthan hotels, and the same trend is visible till January (Sharma, 2021a).

10.3.6 Karnataka: Narratives of News Articles

Revenge travel is picking up in the tourism business. Still, it is not getting translated into big money for the travel trade as people prefer shorter weekend trips rather than high-margin leisure activities. There is also a looming fear of another wave of

COVID-19. Travel agents and tour guides also expect government intervention in case of any surge in COVID-19 cases (Khan, 2021).

People seem to be holidaying with a vengeance to release the frustration of being holed up in their homes, be it workcation, staycation or drive action. Tourist travel hubs in Karnataka are witnessing huge footfalls, which is a huge relief to the battered tourism industry, helping in its resurrection, which is welcome to the industry (Deepika, 2021). With the increase in the vengeance in people to break free from the monotony of working from home, many of them are vacationing and spending a long period in homestays to take advantage of remote working, which is a matter of concern for the authorities and the medical community (Amin, 2021).

Tourist hotspots in and around Bengaluru are gaining traction as people leave their homes to get over the lockdown fatigue. People are opting for shorter and budget-friendly travel. The professionals are being lured to break free from their work monotony by social media (Sharma, 2022). With the lockdown being relaxed, the state has witnessed a surge in the tourists flocking to various destinations. The cause of concern to the officials is that the appropriate COVID-19 behaviour is disregarded not just by the tourists but also by the owners of homestays, who are only trying to ensure that they fill their wallets (Shreyas, 2021). After lifting the second lockdown, the Karnataka state-owned ecotourism company Jungle Lodges and Resorts (JLR) witnessed a travel boom clocking double the revenue it had earned in July pre-COVID-19 years. Since international travel was banned and with still an innate fear of the pandemic, people wanted to travel to safer destinations with fewer populations (Sukumaran, 2021).

10.3.7 Data Analysis

The collected data in the form of narratives were analysed using a thematic approach (Darbi & Knott, 2016), which helps the authors classify the cause and consequences of revenge tourism. First, the authors transcribed, noted and coded all the derived information, which may be travellers' interviews, field notes and news article narratives, before allocating it to the most applicable themes and patterns (Kasim et al., 2020). The authors ensured repeated reading and analysis of the entire document by two of the authors separately to identify the codes and then compared to identify similarities between them that needed to answer the research questions (Akella & Eid, 2021). The recurring codes, topics and activities that emerged from the interview transcription, as well as news article narratives, and are significant for the research objectives were selected and listed. The common codes selected in this context are fatigue, frustration, anxiety, inclination towards social and cultural gatherings, workcation, staycation, remote working, offers, discounts, customer-centric provisions and inclination towards safety and hygiene.

Further, all these codes and topics were categorised under different heads based on their relationship to one another and the themes. Then relevance of each segment was evaluated to eliminate some irrelevant points, and some were merged based on their similarities and synchronisations (Kasim et al., 2020). After reviewing the data several times and redefining the themes (Morioka & Carvalho, 2016), five themes were identified that reflect the significance of the concept of revenge tourism and other research objectives. The five main themes are push and pull factors that initiated the concept of revenge tourism and psychological, economic and socio-environmental factors that reflected the impact of revenge tourism (refer to Fig. 10.1 for more detailed information). All these themes were introduced and described systematically (Kasim et al., 2020) in the next section with a proposed model.

10.4 Discussion and Findings

A model has been proposed by recapitulating all the data collected from news article narratives, unstructured interviews and selected themes representing these points. The model described that tourist explosion soon after the commencement of the unlocking phase is the outcome of push and pull factors and also highlighted the impact of revenge tourism under the head of psychological, economic and socio-environmental influences (Fig. 10.2).

Push factors are tourists' inner instincts and motivation to travel to the desired destination soon after the commencement of the unlock period. The outbreak of COVID-19 led to a complete travel ban, internationally and domestically.

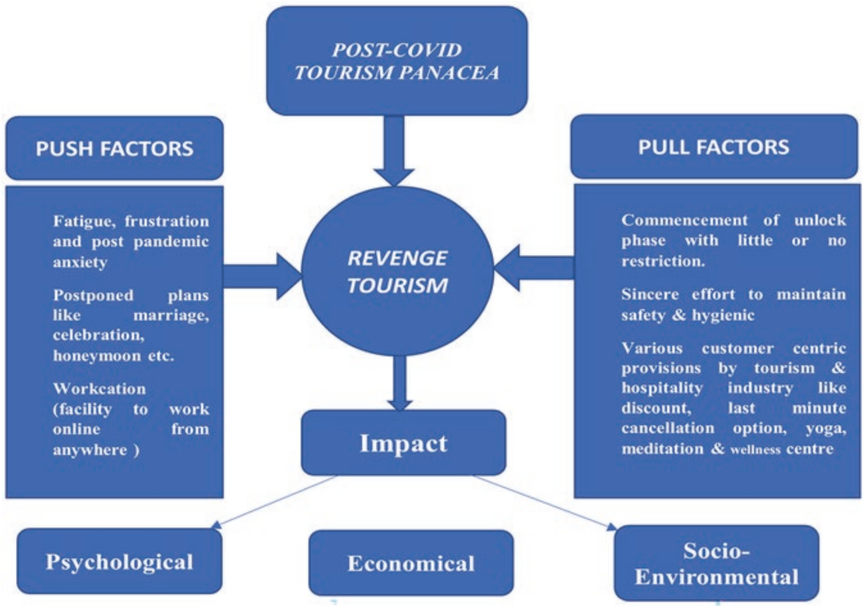

Fig. 10.2 Model proposed. (*Source*: Author's compilation of data)

Nevertheless, the era of Unlock 4.0 and the so-called new normal has made people get back on their feet, albeit with many travel restrictions. Though life is not back to normal, people are eager to be free from the confines of four walls, where they have been held up for over months due to the lockdown. The urge to get relief from lockdown fatigue and the desire to take a breath of fresh air by being close to nature are motivational points enough *(refer to respondents 4, 6, 8 and 9 from Table 10.1,* Shekhar (2021) *from Section 4.1 and* Joshi (2022)*,* Gauba (2021) *and* TFIPOST (2020) *from Section 4.3)* to make a travel plan to explore the pristine landscape of India. In addition, the 2 years of social distancing and avoidance of social gatherings prevented people from arranging and attending social and cultural gatherings like parties, ceremonies, functions and pilgrimage, which are integral parts of Indian society and culture. Soon after the lockdown was lifted, there was an unprecedented interest among people to travel and take part in ceremonial gatherings to find inner happiness *(respondents 1, 2, 3 and 5 from Table 10.1,* Awasthi (2020)*, and* Live Mint (2021) *from Section 4.2).* As COVID-19 brought about a change in the work culture in the form of work from home, it was an added advantage for the people to work from various desired destinations instead of restricting themselves within the four walls of their homes. The virtual workplace has been well facilitated by the concept of homestay, which provides a home-like cosiness and safety with lesser expenses, desirable for an extended stay *(respondent 6 from Table 10.1,* Sharma (2021b) *from Section 4.1,* PTI *(*2021*) and* Kataria *(*2021*) from Section 4.2 and* Pant *(*2020*) from Section 4.3).*

Pull factors encompass all the state authority and tourism department initiatives to revitalise tourism in various states from the disruptive COVID-19 crisis, as tourism is "bread-and-butter" for these few states in India. The respite from the lockdown restrictions was a blessing for the tourism sector bringing in the hope of recovery and revival. The popular destinations of India opened to receive bookings with prescribed COVID-19 norms, which surely was a pull factor for travellers to pack their bags and flock to popular destinations *(respondents 6, 7 and 8 from Table 10.1,* Bora (2021) *from Section 4.1,* PTI (2021) *from Section 4.2,* Sarmah (2021) *and* Sharma (2021a) *from Section 4.3).* The tourists had an innate fear of COVID-19 despite their bold decision to travel. The study of traveller's behaviour says that there is a drastic change in preference to moving to secluded, natural and remote places in the hope of experiencing a crowd-free as well as COVID-19-free zone and maintenance of hygiene and safety protocols.

Consequently, the tourism and hospitality industry, not only at the government level but also at the private level, gave utmost importance to these factors in their offerings, which are considered a prime criterion in tourist decision-making *(respondents 6, 7, 8 and 9 from Table 10.1,* Pasricha (2021) *and* Paytm Money (2020) *from Section 4.1,* Times Now (2021) *from Section 4.2).* In addition, hotels and hospitality entities have also come up with discounts, allowing last-minute cancellations and arrangement of wellness tourism activities like yoga and meditation for relaxation of mind and soul, which factored in boosting travellers' confidence *(respondent 6 from Table 10.1,* Palliwal (2021) *and* Bora (2021) *from Section 4.1).*

Psychological Impact Like any other concept, revenge tourism originated with positive and negative effects. A continuous period of lockdown and social distancing made people crave to connect with their social life and explore the world outside of their four walls. Tourism is not merely a leisure and fun activity for people in the post-pandemic; instead, it acts more as a psychological retreat, essential to "destress" the anguished mind reflections of the pandemic. COVID-19 is one of the most challenging periods humanities have faced so far; it has made the world meet its catastrophic effects: loss of life, livelihood and peace and tranquillity. The enthusiasm among people to travel in the post-pandemic had a constructive impact on human psychology and well-being *(respondents 4, 6, 7, 8 and 9 from Table 10.1,* Pasricha (2021) *from Section 4.1, and* livemint (2021) *from Section 4.2).* It contributed towards Sustainable Development Goal 3 to ensure a healthy life and promote well-being at various life cycle stages.

Economical Impact In addition, the tourist explosion in the post-pandemic period has impacted the economy to help recover the damaged hospitality and travel industry and bring back livelihood to all peripheral stakeholders like the tour and taxi operators, local vendors, tourist guides and small restaurants supported by this sector *(*Pasricha (2021) *and* Paytm Money (2020) *from Section 4.1 and* Sarmah (2021) *from Section 4.3).* Revenge tourism could supplement Sustainable Development Goal 8, highlighting sustainable economic growth with full and productive employment and decent work for all.

Socio-environmental Impact Considering the socio-environmental influence showed a combination of positive and negative impacts. It has brought a positive attitude towards safety and hygiene among stakeholders in the post-pandemic period. The notion of ecotourism, sustainable tourism, homestay and wellness tourism are new priorities among travellers. These new trends and mindsets created new opportunities for travel and tourism and initiated a sustainable tourism model. But in many cases, the inappropriate behaviour of travellers and the absence of strict COVID-19 protocols from the governing authorities might invite another wave of the pandemic with more adverse effects *(*Bora (2021) *from Section 4.1,* PTI (2021) *from Section 4.2,* Sharma (2021a) *from Section 4.3,* Amin (2021) *and* Sukumaran (2021) *from Section 4.4).*

10.5 Conclusion

The COVID-19 pandemic has been seriously disruptive and adversely impacted the growth of many sectors. It is a well-known fact that tourism was one of the deeply affected segments during the pandemic. In addition, many other supporting industries and sectors supported by tourism were also not beyond the awful influence of this crisis.

This study effectively unfolded the cause and consequences of revenge tourism in the context of the Indian tourism sector. However, the consequence is a combination of both positive and negative effects. The concept of revenge tourism is highly paradoxical. On the one hand, it plays a significant role in the revival of the battered tourism and hospitality sector as the last hope; on the other hand, it can be a cause of another explosion of the COVID-19 pandemic as all the covid protocols went for a toss with this concept.

To conclude, the choice between life and livelihood is a million-dollar question. However, responsible behaviour from various stakeholders on the demand and supply side, strict protocols and intervention of government and legal authorities might be a solution to some extent.

However, this study has limitations in its empirical contribution and scope of reporting. Therefore, future studies should focus on the scenario of revenge tourism in some states and overseas destinations and accumulate feedback from more revenge travellers. Again, this study highlighted a one-sided reality like collecting feedback and understanding the perception of travellers travelling to different destinations in the post-pandemic period. Future studies can be augmented by focussing on supply-side stakeholders like hotel managers, travel agents, local vendors and other interest groups to portray a complete and concrete framework of revenge tourism.

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Chapter 11
Assessing the Impact of COVID-19 on Tourism in Northern Ghana: Role of Local Governments for Destination Recovery

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Abstract In Ghana, the COVID-19 pandemic adversely affected every facet of life and the tourism industry. The partial lockdown, restrictions on movement, a ban on social and public gatherings and closure of airports, land and sea borders brought tourism and related activities to a halt for several months. This chapter examines how the pandemic impacted northern Ghana's tourism industry and the local government's role in long-term destination recovery. Using qualitative research-inspired approaches, the results show that the COVID-19 pandemic adversely impacted tourism in northern Ghana. There were significant reductions in daily and monthly numbers of tourists/visitors, a fall in revenues, slow local economic development and activities during the pandemic in all the sites and the host communities. The municipal and district assemblies for the respective sites offered financial support and provision of safety equipment and facilities to site authorities to enhance the recovery of tourism destinations. We conclude that the COVID-19 pandemic severely impacted the tourism sector in northern Ghana and that the recovery process was still slow for both the tourism sector and the local economic development. It is recommended that significant investments from municipal and district assemblies and other public and private sector actors be made to enhance recovery and build a resilient tourism sector to future shocks in northern Ghana.

Keywords COVID-19 · Tourism · Recovery · Northern Ghana · Local government

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11.1 Introduction

The emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 has had daunting effects on the world economy. It was a respecter of no economy as it ravaged both developing and developed economies devastatingly, requiring practical and collaborative efforts for recovery after the pandemic (McCartney et al., 2022).

Countries across the world imposed travel bans and restrictions on movement, and by the second quarter, all countries had, in one way or the other, imposed a ban on the movement of people (Nhamo et al., 2020). There was a closure of international borders ban on air, land and sea travel coupled with lockdowns by both developing and developed countries. There were also restrictions on public gatherings and tourism-related activities, leading to the closure of tourism sites, hospitality industry, restaurants and schools for several months by countries as part of measures to contain the spread and effects of the virus. According to Gössling et al. (2020), over 90% of the world population was affected by travel restrictions and a ban on social gatherings, which caused devastating damage to the global economy more than the disruptions and impacts of any other crisis since World War II. The World Health Organisation (WHO) came out with safety protocols and admonished countries and humanity to adhere strictly to them to avoid the spread of the deadly pandemic since it was majorly spread through air and body contact. These protocols were rolled out by countries in all public places and homes (Bulchand-Gidumal & Melián-González, 2021; Schotte et al., 2021).

African countries were severely hit by the deadly pandemic, worsening their health and economic situations (Musavengane et al., 2022; Rogerson & Baum, 2020). Cases of the pandemic began to be reported in some African countries during the early days of the first quarter of 2020, and by the close of it, many African countries had recorded some cases with deaths (Nhamo et al., 2020). Aged and people with underlining health conditions were/are most vulnerable to the virus and consequently have higher fatality rates than other groups of people (Hoffmann et al., 2022). Health facilities were overwhelmed with increasing daily recorded cases, and intensive care units (ICUs) of health facilities were too few to cater for patients in critical conditions in many countries. This put undue pressure on African countries' limited available health facilities and services. Despite these levels of vulnerability to the COVID-19 pandemic and its related misfortunes, Nhamo et al. (2020) noted that the African continent demonstrated an enviable leadership in detecting the risk of the COVID-19 pandemic early and undertook planning where comprehensive emergency preparedness plans and testing centres were established before the declaration of COVID-19 as a pandemic.

Nevertheless, the impacts of the pandemic on various sectors of the African economy, particularly the tourism sector, cannot be overemphasised due to its high vulnerability to the pandemic. The consequences manifested in staff lay-offs, salary reduction and drastic fall in local economic activities in host and neighbouring communities of tourism destinations in African countries. This came as a significant economic blow considering the tourism sector's contributions to sociocultural development and many African countries' gross domestic product (GDP) (Tichaawa et al., 2021).

In Ghana, the first case of COVID-19 was reported in early March 2020, and within a few weeks, the cases began to increase, leading to the closure of schools, tourism sites and other related activities. The numbers kept increasing in the major cities of Accra and Kumasi, leading to a 3-week lockdown in those areas. There were also restrictions on the movement of people across the country. Handwashing, use of sanitisers, wearing of nose masks and social distancing became compulsory for citizens, as well as quarantining visitors into the country for a mandatory 14-day period (Mensah & Boakye, 2021). The ban covered all tourism and related activities, such as the closure of bars and restaurants, hotels, tourism sites, festivals, funerals, congregational prayers in churches and mosques, nightclubs and cinemas and markets. Workers were admonished to work from home. These measures led to the lay-off of many tourism and related sector workers (Acquaah et al., 2021). The general effects on tourism have been acknowledged to be devastating, with severe negative implications for both local and national economic development (Dube, 2021; Nhamo et al., 2020).

Leading from the above, the role of local governments (Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies) in the recovery of tourism and tourism sites in northern Ghana have not been explored and therefore received little discussion. Hence, this study explores the impact of COVID-19 on tourism and the local government's role in recovering the sector in northern Ghana. Specifically, the work examines the COVID-19 impact on the Mole Game Reserve, the Laribanga Mystic Stone and the Gwollu Slave Walls and the respective municipal and district assemblies' role in recovery.

11.2 Literature Review

11.2.1 Background to the Global Pandemic and its Impact on Tourism

Tourism ranks among the fastest-growing sectors driving global economic growth and development. According to the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD, 2020), the sector accounted for US$1480 billion in tourist receipts in 2018, accruing from 1407 million international tourist arrivals and US$1.7 trillion from tourism export, representing an increase of about 7% in global trade in goods and services over the previous year. It further noted that an amount of US$250 billion was realised from global transport, with the People's Republic of China, France, the United States (USA) and Spain being the most preferred tourist destinations. The contributions and role of the tourism sector to economic growth and development have been acknowledged globally through the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (SDGs 8, 12, 14) (United Nations, 2015; UNCTAD, 2017). This presents the tourism sector as a cross-cutting sector with an influence on achieving the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the SDGs (Nhamo et al., 2020).

Therefore, the tourism sector remains one of the major sources of domestic revenue and foreign exchange earnings for governments. It is also a major employer of the populace in developed and developing countries globally. The sector accounted for about 29% of services exported globally in 2019 and offered over 300 million jobs to people in developing and developed countries. In terms of employment, women and young people dominate more in the tourism sector than any other sector of the global economy (UNCTAD, 2021). This comes in the form of direct and indirect jobs in hotels, restaurants, travel agencies, airlines, ships, shopping centres and the supply and sale of food, souvenirs, infrastructure, and construction, among others. However, the COVID-19 pandemic is estimated to jeopardise the tourism sector's 100–120 million direct jobs (UNWTO, 2020a). In 2020, the pandemic accounted for an estimated loss of about US$2.4 trillion in GDP, which continued into 2021 with a projected loss of about US$1.7 to US$1.8 trillion compared to 2019 (UNWTO, 2020a). To this end, it has been anticipated that the introduction of mass vaccinations, relaxation and removal of travel restrictions and effective coordination among countries would prepare the tourism sector for effective recovery (McCartney et al., 2022; UNCTAD, 2021).

The global economy has, therefore, suffered one of the worst recessions following the outbreak of the novel COVID-19 pandemic. China, where the pandemic originated from, and others such as Taiwan, Hong Kong, the USA, Italy and Brazil, among other countries, were reported to have suffered some unforgettable damages to human health and loss of lives at the early stages of the pandemic. The alarming rate at which the number of infected cases and deaths and the speed at which the pandemic spread globally traumatised the world (Nhamo et al., 2020). This reinforced the imposition of lockdowns, bans and restrictions on international travel by countries worldwide to contain the pandemic's spread. Although this decision affected all sectors of the global economy, tourism was one of the worst affected sectors (Nicolau et al., 2021). This resulted in growing unemployment and a drastic reduction in GDP. The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) (2020b) estimated a rise of 20% in global unemployment as direct and indirect costs of the COVID-19 lockdowns, which could risk the total collapse of some sectors.

The global community has now come to live with the pandemic as people continue to get infected and die from the virus despite the several continuing efforts by various nations to reduce the spread and infections (McCartney et al., 2022). Adherence to the COVID-19 safety measures and mass vaccinations have become the most important strategies for nations to contain and control further spread and infections of COVID-19 (Galanakis et al., 2022; UNCTAD, 2021). It took almost 2 years to find a vaccine for the pandemic, although these vaccines do not cure nor effectively prevent the spread of the virus (Rosenberg et al., 2022; Whitaker et al., 2022).

It has been argued that the impacts of the COVID-19 crisis are most damaging because of the significant reliance of the global economy on global interconnectivity with such sectors as transport, hospitality and agriculture sectors (Bulchand-Gidumal & Melián-González, 2021). It was suggested that the linkages of the tourism sector with the agriculture sector alone could lead to an average of 2.5-fold loss in real GDP if stimulus measures were not adopted (UNCTAD, 2021). It has been revealed that countries such as China, Spain, Italy, the United Kingdom, Turkey and Canada recorded a decrease of over 50% in travel and tourism their GDPs due to the COVID-19 pandemic (Orîndaru et al., 2021).

According to Gössling et al. (2020), international travel was estimated to reduce by as much as 20% and 30% relative to 2019 statistics due to the COVID-19 pandemic. It was further reported that the period between March and December 2020 recorded a decline of 84% in the number of international tourist arrivals relative to 2019, which accounted for economic losses of between US$1.7 trillion and US$2.4 trillion in 2021 (UNCTAD, 2021). The UNWTO (2020b) also revealed that there was a decline of 70% in international tourist arrivals between January and August 2020 and reached 74% by December relative to the previous year's statistics. This translated into about 1 billion trips with a massive drop in arrivals in developing countries by 80–90% for the same year. According to the UNCTAD (2021), the early months of 2021 recorded significant declines in arrivals in tourism destinations with a global average of 88% relative to pre-pandemic levels.

In Africa, the global growth in the tourism sector's contribution to GDP from $69 billion to $166 billion for the period 1995–1998 and 2011–2014, respectively, translated into a growth of 6.8–8.5% of GDP (UNCTAD, 2017). Also, the sector generated about 21 million jobs between 2011 and 2014, representing about 7% of the jobs in Africa for people, including women and the youth. Furthermore, the tourism sector's role in promoting economic growth and development in Africa has been acknowledged through the African Union's Agenda 2063 and the Tourism Action Plan under the New Partnership for Africa's Development. The UNWTO (2016) had also projected international tourist arrivals in Africa to reach 134 million by 2030, which could create more jobs for many people in African countries.

As indicated earlier, the tourism sector's contribution to African economic development cannot be overemphasised enough. The tourism sector has contributed immensely to Africa's rural transformation through direct and indirect livelihood activities/services in tourism destination communities. These efforts by the sector to achieve economic growth and sustainable development in Africa have been very promising since the early 1990s (UNCTAD, 2017) until the outbreak of the global COVID-19 pandemic in the first quarter of 2020 (UNCTAD, 2020). According to Nhamo et al. (2020), the COVID-19 pandemic was a no-respecter of development status as it severely impacted both developed and developing countries.

The early days of the pandemic in Africa saw some countries such as South Africa, Egypt, Madagascar, Algeria and Morocco being severely hit on the continent (Ataguba, 2020; Dube, 2021; Ozili, 2020). African countries have limited resources, which aggravated their risks and vulnerability to the COVID-19 pandemic. This leaves much to desire for the achievement of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development since many African countries do not have adequate access to basic food (SDG 2), basic healthcare services (SDG 3), quality education (SDG

4) and potable water and sanitation services (SDG 6) (Nhamo et al., 2020). Nhamo et al. (2020) further noted that the threats of climate and environmental changes could have further worsened the risks and conditions for the spread of COVID-19 in Africa. The travel restrictions and lockdowns in African countries accounted for an estimated loss of US$ 400 million to African airlines (Ozili, 2020).

Newsome (2020) reported that the restrictions in movement, lockdowns and staff lay-offs led to significant rising poaching cases in Africa in wildlife-protected areas. Thus, the absence of tourism activities, lay-offs and the subsequent unemployment created among rangers and members of host and neighbouring communities further increased the risk of human intrusion and poaching in wildlife reserves (Newsome, 2020; Usui et al., 2021). It is further indicated that bush meat trade, consumption and wildlife trafficking were exacerbated in Africa by losing millions of jobs due to COVID-19. Staff lay-offs led to reduced patrols in protected areas, which was detrimental to the safety of wildlife populations and the successes of conservation programmes in the long run, according to Newsome (2020).

However, Usui et al. (2021) believed that conservationists could take the opportunity of the COVID-19 pandemic to reconsider how humans interact with nature with a special focus on wildlife tourism in sustaining the gains of conservation programmes. Newsome (2020) also called for intensified efforts at funding regular patrols and antipoaching programmes in Africa to avert the increasing risk of poaching on wildlife species such as the gorilla, rhinos and elephants, among others which are becoming critically endangered species in the African continent. This should be backed by effective collaborations through effective coordination, cooperation and communication to enhance tourism sector recovery (McCartney et al., 2022).

11.2.2 The Role of Local Governments in the Recovery of the Tourism Sector

It has been anticipated that it will take up to 2023 or later for the tourism sector to return to pre-COVID-19 tourist arrival levels due to travel restrictions, slow containment of the virus, low traveller confidence and poor global economic environment (UNCTAD, 2021). However, with an increasing proportion of people getting vaccinated globally, travellers' confidence in tourism is anticipated to gradually return with an initial preference for closer destinations over longer destinations. Significant variations exist in the proportion of vaccinated people across countries with expectations that countries with high proportions of vaccinated people will have a faster rebound in their tourism sectors than those with very low proportions. Therefore, it is projected that tourism activities in developed countries may rebound faster than those in developing countries, including Africa, due to their limited capacity to acquire adequate vaccines (UNCTAD, 2020).

To this end, governments, through local governments, instituted stimulus packages for businesses and tourism institutions as response mechanisms to enhance their local economies' recovery from the pandemic's damages. These stimulus packages came from financial assistance to business entities, including tourism-related entities affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. The funds were disbursed as loans to small and medium enterprises (SMEs) and tourism authorities to enhance building back. Nhamo et al. (2020) reported that there were various stimulus packages put in place by African governments to enhance the recovery of the tourism sector and related businesses from the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic. The authors further indicated that income tax and corporate tax deferrals were the most popular stimulus packages across African countries. In Nigeria, it is reported that the Federal Government offered financial assistance of about 3.5 trillion Naira loan support to some sectors of the country's economy to cushion businesses and institutions towards recovery (Ozili, 2021).

11.2.3 The Ghanaian Experience

In Ghana, the tourism sector is one of the major contributors to foreign exchange. It ranks as the fourth foreign exchange contributor to the economy of Ghana (Ministry of Tourism, Arts and Culture – MoTAC, 2020). According to the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) (2017), there has been a substantial increase in international visitors from different parts of the world, with a corresponding increase in receipts for the tourism sector. The tourism sector recorded a growth of 392,500 to 1,093,000 tourist arrivals, with a corresponding increase in total receipts from US$627.1 million to US$2.06 billion for the period 2005–2014. Visits to major tourism sites increased from 381,600 to 592,300, with a marginal increase in revenue from GH¢490,000 to GH¢492,000, representing an annual average growth rate of 10.7% and 6.1%, respectively (GSS, 2017).

In 2019, the tourism sector recorded about 1.13 million visitors for the celebration of the 'Year of Return', which represented a growth of 18% (MoTAC, 2020). Growth in international arrivals and domestic visitations rose from 932,579 to 1,130,307 arrivals in 2016 and 2019, respectively, accounting for an increase in receipts from US$1651.67 million to US$3312.93 million for the tourism sector (MoTAC 2020). Leading from the experiences of the 'Year of Return' in 2019, which accounted for about US$2 billion, the tourism sector is estimated to attract eight million tourists annually by 2027, generating US$8 billion for the Ghanaian economy (United Nations, 2020). However, the expectations for increased revenue contributions, employment and related activities and services were brought down with the emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic, which was estimated to cause Ghana's tourism sector to lose about US$170 million in revenue (United Nations, 2020). According to the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (2020), the fall in government revenues against increased expenditure would account for an increase in the deficit from 4.7% to 11.4% of GDP, translating into an extra financing gap of GH¢ 25.2 billion. Inadequate financial reserves, lack of data and lack of insurance packages for the tourism sector in Ghana made it particularly vulnerable to the pandemic (Mensah & Boakye, 2021).

There are various tourist sites across the country, with many of the sites concentrated in Greater Accra, Ashanti and Central Regions of Ghana. Tourism and hospitality are intertwined. Hence there is increased demand and supply for tourist accommodation in tourism destinations (GSS, 2017). Many people are employed to work and earn income from these sites, with people in host and neighbouring communities engaged in different related livelihoods for the survival and development of the local economy. However, the general impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism in Ghana related to losses in livelihoods, jobs and a bad local economic outlook, which were occasioned by the closure of tourist sites and related activities in addition to travel restrictions and bans (Mensah & Boakye, 2021).

According to Soliku et al. (2021), the economic activities of host and neighbouring communities of tourist sites in northern Ghana are mostly tailored towards providing for the needs of tourists, so most livelihoods are tourism-dependent. Therefore, livelihoods and businesses that tourists much patronised came to a standstill for most of 2020, and hence staff of hotels, restaurants, local tour operators and guides, sellers of tourist souvenirs and many other people in related livelihood activities were out of their jobs and sources of living (Mensah & Boakye, 2021; Soliku et al., 2021). In Ghana, the tourism sector is estimated to take about a year for the local economy to recover from the damages of the COVID-19 pandemic (GSS/UNDP, 2020) despite the disbursement of a syndicated loan facility worth GHC3 billion (about US$600 million) by the Government of Ghana to businesses in the tourism and other sectors to cushion their operations.

11.3 Materials and Methods

The study areas comprised the Mole National Park and Laribanga Mystic Stone, both in the West Gonja Municipal of the Savannah Region, the Hippo Sanctuary and Gwollu Slave Walls in the Wa West and Sissala West Districts, respectively, of the Upper West Region. The Mole National Park is located within the Laribanga enclave and about 23 km northwest of Damongo, the capital of West Gonja Municipal. It is the largest protected area in northern Ghana, with a land size of about 4577 sq km (West Gonja Municipal Assembly (WGMA), 2020). The Mole National Park is a significant tourism destination in northern Ghana and attracts domestic and international tourists. The Mystic Stone is also located in the Laribanga community in the West Gonja Municipal. The stone is believed to possess some spiritual powers for protecting and blessing the people of Laribanga.

It is believed to return to its original place when taken to another place. The Wechiau Hippopotamus Sanctuary is found in the Wechiau community in the Wa West District in the Upper West Region of Ghana. The Black Volta River runs through several districts and communities, but only the Wechiau stretch of the river hosts the hippopotamuses. This is the only place where hippopotamuses can be found in northern Ghana and Ghana as a country. The place has been developed to provide for tourism activities as people visit to catch a glimpse of the animals in the river (United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 2012). The Gwollu Slave Wall is in Gwollu within the premises of the palace of the Paramount Chief of the Gwollu Traditional Area in the Sissala West District of the Upper West Region. The palace also houses the tomb of the third president of Ghana, the late Dr. Hilla Limann (Sissala West District Assembly, 2019).

The study adopted the qualitative research approach that employs various methods of data collection and analysis and uses in-depth participant interviews, focus group discussions and observation (Creswell, 2009). This approach was useful in probing for information through in-depth interviews and discussions with participants on their perceptions, attitudes and opinions about the impact of the pandemic (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2019). It also focused on participants' in-depth knowledge and understanding of key issues, which allowed further probing and cross-checking emerging issues (Creswell, 2014). The study areas, as mentioned above, were purposively selected because they were the dominant tourist sites in the respective districts.

The purposive sampling technique was used to select participants for the interviews and group discussions. Eighteen (18) in-depth interviews were conducted among 3 officers in each of the assemblies, the human resource manager of Mole National Park, the manager of Zaina lodge and 1 caretaker each in Mystic Stone, Hippo Sanctuary and Gwollu Slave Wall sites, the assembly members of the respective communities and a leader of one women group in each community. In each of the assemblies, we interviewed the coordinating director, the planning officer and the director of the Centre for National Culture; thus, nine officers were interviewed from the three assemblies. The participants were purposively selected due to their knowledge and roles in the management of affairs in the assemblies and the tourist sites (Kumar, 2011).

Four focus group discussions were conducted among purposively selected members with tourism-related livelihood activities; thus, two discussions in Laribanga and one discussion each in Wechiau and Gwollu communities. Interviews and discussion guides were used to moderate interactions to avoid digression and waste of time (Mohajan, 2018). Interactions during interviews and discussions were done in the local languages (Gonja language in Laribanga, Dagaare in Wechiau and Sissali in Gwollu). We occasionally made field visits to the sites to observe the daily number of visitors and the level of adherence to safety protocols at the sites (Muyambo et al., 2017). We observed the screening of visitors in terms of checking body temperatures, handwashing, wearing facemasks and the reaction of community members to visitors, especially foreigners. We transcribed the data from the interviews and group discussions for analysis and presentation under two sub-headings: effects of COVID-19 on tourism and the local economy and the role of local government in the recovery of tourism sites.

11.4 Presentation and Discussion of Findings/Results

11.4.1 Effects of COVID-19 on Tourism and the Local Economy

The Wechiau Hippopotamus Sanctuary is the only predominant tourism site in the Wa West District. It receives domestic and international tourists who visit the hippopotamuses in the Black Volta River (UNDP, 2012). This generates revenue and income for the district assembly, tour guides and businesspersons, canoe owners, fishermen and petty traders. The river provides fishing activities for fishermen and transport services for businessmen and women from Ghana and Burkina Faso who cross the river daily to transact business (Wa West District Assembly, 2019). The closure of the site did not only adversely impact revenue to the Sanctuary authorities and the Wa West District Assembly but also significantly impacted the livelihoods and alternative sources of household income for families. The closure brought the livelihoods of the tour guides and canoe owners to a halt, and they consequently missed out on their alternative income sources. Canoe owners who rent out their canoes and services could no longer do so since the site was closed to tourists. Fishermen and women who sell fish to visitors were also affected as tourists were their major customers. Their situation was further exacerbated by the national closure of all markets, including major markets in the Wa West District. A women group leader narrated during a focus group discussion that:

> the disease brought more hardship to our families. We could not get visitors to buy our fish and could not send them to the markets too for sale because the markets were all closed. We could not even move around for fear of contracting the virus. We used to stay away from strangers because we could not guarantee if they were not carrying the virus. We could not also access our household needs outside of Wechiau, which further affected farming where our survival depends on. (Excerpt from focus group discussion, 2021)

Mostly, women were the main traders at tourist sites and therefore suffered severely with the closure of the sites in all the study areas. Tourists were also their major customers who patronised their services.

The findings of the study also showed that people who were engaged in the canoe transport services for travellers, tourists and traders crossing the Black Volta River to and from neighbouring Burkina Faso and vice-versa lost their jobs. Although this was considered an unapproved route to and from Burkina Faso, major business activities were going on among the people from both countries who cross the river daily to transact their business activities with tourists. Tourists from closer communities in Burkina cross to catch a glimpse of the hippopotamuses using the services of private canoe operators. The ban and restrictions on movement halted canoe transport services, and people could not cross into both countries, leaving canoe owners and paddlers out of their jobs. Businessmen and women buying their goods from Burkina Faso via the river transport system were folded up for almost more than a year. This brought harsh socioeconomic conditions to households.

The impacts of the pandemic on tourism activities and the local economy of host and neighbouring communities were much more debilitating than anticipated. In all three study locations, the COVID-19 pandemic brought all economic and tourism activities that generated household income and revenue under siege for several months. Many tour guides were laid-off from their jobs, and others had their salaries reduced. Sites that depended on the revenues raised from the tourists' visitations, such as the Hippo Sanctuary, the Gwollu Slave wall and the Laribanga Mystic Stone sites, were most affected as these sites could no longer raise funds to pay caretakers and guides. The workers of these sites were not formalised, and the tour guides and caretakers mostly survived on the proceeds made from tourists' visits. The staff of the Mole National Park were entirely formalised under the public sector employment and did not suffer lay-off. However, Motel, Zaina Lodge staff and the restaurants suffered job losses.

The fetish priest at the Laribanga Mystic stone revealed that he was no longer receiving windfalls (gifts and appreciations) from tourists because of the site's closure. It was revealed that, although tourists were no longer visiting the site, the fetish priest could not abandon the site because of traditional and spiritual reasons. It requires that the priest be available at the site every day as tradition demands and to occasionally perform rituals, especially amid the pandemic, for some amount of spiritual protection of the community members.

The closure of the Gwollu Slave Wall led to the loss of revenue from tourists to the authorities and the Sissala West District Assembly. Tour guides were temporary laid-off. Roadside traders who usually hang around to sell yam, potatoes, vegetables, local fowls and others to tourists no longer had the opportunity to trade. These livelihoods and sources of income for families got folded up, putting undue pressure on families to meet the demands of household members.

The closure of the Mole National Park to tourists and other visitors led to the subsequent closure and seizure of the patronage of hotel and restaurant services within the park. This affected internal revenue generation to the park authorities and the source of livelihood and income to individuals. The entry and other fees charged by the park authorities were no longer forthcoming, and internally generated funding had dropped drastically, with the park's operations solely resting on state funding. The number of tourists to the Mole National Park had reduced from a daily average of 51 tourists during the pre-pandemic period to 23 per day after the park authorities resumed services. This accounted for a loss of about 55% in revenue to the park authorities. There was also a decline in local economic activities in the host communities due to a fall in prices and patronage of goods and services since tourists were their major customers. These resulted in a significant fall in local government (assemblies) revenues against increased expenditure, as indicated by the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (2020).

Furthermore, the study found that many of the staff of the hotels and restaurants were laid off, with only very few also having to survive on reduced allowances for the period. This corroborated Soliku et al. (2021), who reported that the closure of the Mole National Park during COVID-19 caused lay-offs among the staff of the hotels within the park. This brought untoward hardships to the affected staff and their families, as indicated by Baah-Boateng (2021). The manager of Zaina lodge in the park indicated that many bookings for their hotel services by prospective foreign tourists were cancelled when COVID-19 was declared a pandemic in early March 2020. According to the manager:

> We lost much revenue due to the pandemic. All bookings for our services here in Zaina Lodge were cancelled immediately after declaring the disease a pandemic. When the president of Ghana announced the closure of tourism and hospitality services, we had to close our facility immediately. Therefore, we could not have continued to keep the staff because we were not working and so we were not making sales, and so many of our staff were asked to go home [laid-off]. We have been out of work for about a year, and when we resumed operations, the patronage had never been the same. We record low bookings for hotel services because visits to the park have also been low. Some of our staff who were laid-off have been recalled, but it has not been easy. (Excerpt from an in-depth interview, 2021)

Also, the closure of the park and the introduction of restrictions on movement, shift system at the workplace and stay-at-home measures among workers affected patrols, increasing poaching activities in the Mole National Park. The low local economic activities contributed to hunters' increased poaching of animals in the park. Due to the shift system, there were reduced personnel on duty, which resulted in inadequate patrols within the park; hence, poachers took advantage of hunting for the animals. This supported the findings by Newsome (2020), who reported an increased risk of poaching and bush meat trade and consumption in Africa due to limited patrols by wildlife reserve staff during the pandemic's peak.

The implications of the impacts from the above discussions will slow efforts at attaining the SDGs (particularly SDGs 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 10, and 15). The processes towards attaining these SDGs were directly and indirectly affected by the COVID-19 control measures (restrictions/ban) adopted by the Government of Ghana. Many of these measures had severe direct impacts and implications on people's livelihoods and economic activities.

11.4.2 Role of Local Governments Towards Tourism Recovery

Following the devastating impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the performance of the tourism and related sectors, the Government of Ghana, through the local government structures (municipal and district assemblies), offered relief services to the tourism sector to enhance recovery and build resilience. The three assemblies, namely West Gonja Municipal, Wa West and Sissala West District Assemblies, implemented government initiatives at the local level (communities) where they rolled out some severance packages in their respective jurisdictions to enable the recovery of the tourism sites from the impacts of the COVID-19.

The results of the study show that, prior to the opening of the tourism sector and related activities, the assemblies of the respective sites had, through the central government, taken delivery of handwashing facilities popularly known as 'veronica buckets', face/nose masks, liquid soap, alcohol-based sanitisers, tissue and thermometer guns to the department and authorities that oversee tourism activities and sites for use by potential tourists and visitors in their bid to enable recovery of the tourism sector and the general economy from the impacts of the pandemic. All three assemblies commonly provided this equipment to the respective tourist sites and other public places. All the selected sites of this study had these facilities for tourists, and other visitors were bound to use the facilities at the site. The provision of these boosted tourists' confidence since their risk of exposure to COVID-19 at the sites was reduced.

The assemblies through local radio stations, information vans and other media platforms carried out sensitisation and education of host community members to demystify any wrong perceptions about potential tourists after the reopening of the sites. They also collaborated with Ghana Health Service officials to have some health personnel at sites to screen tourists before and after entries to track potential virus carriers and reduce fear among tourists and community members. This was necessary because some communities were reported to have been very sceptical about visitors, particularly foreigners and to some extent were not allowing unknown persons into their vicinities.

To keep the tourism industry's viability in the respective jurisdictions, some staff (particularly caretakers) of tourism sites who were paid through internally generated revenues from the sites were given monthly allowances by the local Assemblies during the closer period. This helped to maintain the caretakers on sites who kept the sites clean and protected the properties from damage. It prevented poaching and related activities on the hippopotamuses at the Hippo Sanctuary. Thus, the caretakers in the Hippo Sanctuary, the Gwollu Slave Wall and the Laribanga Mystic Stone sites were given monthly allowances, but lower than their normal allowances, by the West Gonja Municipal, Sissala West and Wa West District Assemblies, respectively. This kept the sites alive in the traditional sense because these usually have traditional attachments with their respective communities.

Similarly, the assemblies collaborated with traditional authorities to purify the sites before reopening to tourists. These were done by pouring libations at the sites where the assemblies assisted in providing the animals and fowls for the priests and elders. According to a participant in West Gonja Municipal Assembly,

> the mystic stone has traditional and spiritual attachments, which is why the fetish priest is the caretaker. The assembly's role was to provide money for them to buy fowls and sheep to make sacrifices before the site could be reopened to tourists. (excerpt from in-depth interview, 2021)

Except for the Mole National Park, the other three sites had strong traditional/spiritual connotations with the traditions of the people in the respective communities. Even though it was believed that traditions of the Laribanga community were guiding the park, the sacrifices made to Laribanga gods and ancestors covered it too.

Furthermore, the assemblies through the medium and scale loans centre (MASLOC) and the Ghana COVID-19 Alleviation Programme assisted businesses and local tourism sites to build back from the pandemic by disbursing their shares of the GH¢600 million COVID-19 Alleviation Programme Business Support

Scheme (CAPBuSS) to tourism authorities and related businesses such as hotels, guest houses and restaurants. The disbursement was done through loans with more than 3 months of moratorium payment and at reduced interest rates. This was helpful in the post-COVID-19 rebuilding processes of the tourism industry in northern Ghana. The Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (2020) indicated that the GH¢600 million was supplemented by an additional amount of GH¢400 million in bank lending to tourism-related businesses, including the hospitality and transport sectors.

Notwithstanding these supports and interventions by the various assemblies, the recovery process of these sites has been slow. The supports in most cases were inadequate and had always not been timely in trying to mitigate the effects of the pandemic. This corroborates Soliku et al. (2021), who related that central government COVID-19 severances were generally inadequate to enhance effective, full and fast recovery of affected sectors. Therefore, there is a need for a concerted effort and a comprehensive strategy from the government through the assemblies to fund and remarket tourist sites as they work towards recovery.

11.5 Conclusion

The study shows that the COVID-19 pandemic significantly impacted tourism in northern Ghana. There was still low tourist patronage in all the study sites months after the reopening of these sites to tourists. The average numbers of tourists per day at the sites were low, leading to low revenue mobilisation, which will further delay the recovery processes of the sector and local economic development in northern Ghana. There was a general decline in local economic activities in the host communities due to a fall in demand and patronage of goods and services.

In conclusion, northern Ghana's tourism sector and the local economy were severely impacted by the COVID-19 pandemic, and the recovery process was still slow for both the tourism sector and economic development. Local government support has been inadequate for the fast recovery of the tourism sector in northern Ghana. We, therefore, recommend that building back the tourism sector and the local economy are necessary and should be tackled by stakeholders from the national to local level with significant investment that will keep tourism to the test of future shocks. This will not only make the sector resilient, but it will also develop the sector in northern Ghana, considering the low interest of local people in tourism and related activities in the area.

This chapter contributes to the impacts of the pandemic as generally witnessed, affirming some similarities between the impacts and response initiatives. However, a limitation of the study was its inability to examine the dynamics, synergies and trade-offs between tourism and smallholder agriculture as a major economic activity among the people in the study areas. A further study in the future in that direction is recommended.

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Chapter 12
Sports Recovery amid COVID-19 Pandemic: A Focus on Football and Lessons for the Future

David Chikodzi, Godwell Nhamo, and Kaitano Dube

Abstract The impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic have been felt worldwide by all sectors of the economy, and the sporting arena is no exception. The pandemic led to a complete and historical global shutdown of sporting events and sports tourism by default. As a critical international sport, football was one of the most impacted. This chapter assesses the preliminary recovery pathways of football from the impacts of COVID-19 as several significant associations resume play. Critical document analysis was the primary method utilised, with documents obtained from Deloitte sports analysis, Deutsche Bank, Yahoo Finance and Sports Value Analysis. The results show that most football resumed during the pandemic without live fans, leading to a loss of match day revenue. Under pessimistic/realistic scenarios, football clubs lost up to 31% of their usual revenue, resulting in substantially reduced profit margins. Shares for listed football clubs also plunged steeply during the early days of the pandemic (February–March 2020). However, they managed a v-shaped recovery between April and June 2020, although they were still underperforming. It emerged that a strong appetite for live sporting events worldwide was likely to guide the anticipated quick recovery of football. By resuming early during the pandemic, football benefited from solid capital consumption. However, the football fraternity needed to protect players from muscle-skeletal injuries due to the sudden resumption of matches, which followed a long period of detraining. This chapter recom-

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mends that the football ecosystem and value chain come together and create new and ground-breaking solutions to mitigate the adverse effects of COVID-19 on revenue, athletes, fans and the greater society.

Keywords COVID-19 · Recovery · Sports tourism · SDGs · Football · Consumption Capital Theory

12.1 Introduction

Categorised as a black swan event by Nicola et al. (2020), COVID-19 was declared a pandemic by the World Health Organisation (WHO) on 11 March 2020 (Xiong & Yan, 2020). In declaring COVID-19 a global pandemic, the WHO called on governments to take 'urgent and aggressive action' to delay and mitigate the peak of its infection (Ibid.). In the absence of a known cure or vaccine, non-pharmaceutical preventive strategies need to be instituted globally to limit the further spreading of the disease. Non-pharmaceutical interventions created to limit the spread of the disease differed from country to country. However, the interventions mainly included isolating and quarantining suspected cases, enforcing social and physical distancing, national lockdowns, banning mass gathering events, encouraging good personal hygiene and mandatory wearing of face masks (Pakpour & Griffiths, 2020). Cowling and Aiello (2020) observe the goal of these measures as being to prevent a sharp peak of infections, reduce pressure on healthcare systems and ultimately save lives.

Sports tourism is one of the fastest-growing tourism industry segments (Daniels & Tichaawa, 2021). Major sporting events, whether professional or amateur, usually involve considerable travelling to compete at different destinations. This makes sport a powerful tourist attraction that significantly contributes to the tourism image of the host destination (World Tourism Organization, 2021). The advent and rapid spread of COVID-19 negatively impacted sports tourism and its entire ecosystem (Pakpour & Griffiths, 2020). For the first time, global sporting events and related tourism suddenly stopped. This was witnessed by the postponement or cancellation of almost all professional sporting events globally between early to mid-March 2020 onwards (O'Brien, 2020). Some key cancellations included those of major football leagues in countries such as Belgium and France, the postponement of football leagues in the United Kingdom (UK), Italy, Germany and Spain, as well as the postponement of the Tokyo 2020 Olympics in Japan. There were also cancellations of significant tennis events and the landmark EURO 2020 football event (Pakpour & Griffiths, 2020). These moves were historical as not even during the First and Second World Wars did global sport come to a complete stop as it did during the

COVID-19 pandemic. Horky (2020) observes that because of the pandemic, the world witnessed an experience of no sport for the first time in several weeks. Many prominent sports personalities supported the postponement and cancellation of sporting events in light of the pandemic. Liverpool Football Club manager, Jürgen Klopp, spoke of football as 'the most important of the least important things during a pandemic' (Wilson, 2020: non), and prominent Golfer Tiger Woods stated that there were a lot more essential things in life than golf tournament (Carroll, 2020). These emphasised that sporting events can never take preference over global health and safety.

From grassroots to the elite, sport has been trying to respond to the ramifications of the COVID-19 pandemic. Given the amount of income derived from sponsorship deals, television rights and match day revenue, most elite football leagues around the world managed to restart events as quickly as it was deemed safe to save some of this revenue from being completely lost (Webb, 2020). Sport and related tourism contribute significantly to societal well-being and achieving sustainable development goals (SDGs). The impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on sporting events and related tourism are still unravelling, and some are still to manifest. Therefore, there is a need for research that details preliminary impacts of the pandemic and recovery pathways to inform best practices in building back better and future resilience to pandemics. The chapter aims to highlight the preliminary impacts of football stoppage during the COVID-19 pandemic and the noted recovery signs of the sport and related tourism between May 2020 and January 2021. In the process, opportunities for building back better are forwarded.

12.2 Literature Survey

Sport and, by default, sports tourism play an essential role in society. It significantly impacts host communities because sports attendees spend money before, during and after their events and can also attract investors to host destinations (Daniels & Tichaawa, 2021). For centuries, sports have succeeded in bringing people together, and even in the darkest of times, it has been practised to maintain at least a semblance of normality and to build and sustain morale (Blocken et al., 2020). Even during the war, soldiers exercise some sports in the trenches to kill time and to enjoy themselves (Ibid.). More importantly, sports can contribute to several of the United Nations (UN) SDGs and are an essential enabler of sustainable development. The UN (2015) recognises the growing contribution of sport to realising development and peace (SDG 16) as it promotes tolerance and respect. The UN also recognises that sport contributes to the empowerment of women (SDG 5) and young people, individuals and communities, as well as to health (SDG 3), education (SDG 4) and social inclusion (SDG 10) objectives. Some of the SDGs that sport contributes to are shown in Box 12.1. Sporting activities can therefore contribute many health, economic, social and cultural benefits to communities emerging from the COVID-19 pandemic (Hughes, 2020). During the COVID-19 pandemic, sports have been and still are undoubtedly important (Blocken et al., 2020).

Box 12.1 SDGs Impacted by Sport

SDG3: Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages.

SDG5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls.

SDG8: Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work.

SDG9: Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialisation and foster innovation.

SDG10: Reduce inequality within and amongst countries.

SDG11: Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable.

SDG16: Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all, and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels.

SDG 17: Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalise the global partnership for sustainable development.

Source: Authors, based on the United Nations (2015: 14).

The total global value of goods and services produced by the sports industry in 2019 is estimated at over US$756 billion (Sports Value, 2020). In the face of the COVID-19 pandemic-induced disruptions, millions of jobs have been put at risk globally, not only for sports professionals but also those in related tourism, retail and sporting services industries connected with leagues and events (United Nations, 2020). These include travel tourism, hospitality, infrastructure, transportation, catering and media broadcasting, betting and many more (Deloitte, 2020). In addition to economic consequences, the annulment of games impacted many social benefits of global and regional sporting events, thereby delaying the attainment of the SDGs, specifically SDG8 dealing with decent and sustainable work. Sporting events strengthen social cohesion and contribute to supporters' social and emotional enthusiasm and identification with athletes, leading to better physical activity (United Nations, 2020). Sport has long been considered a valuable tool for fostering communication and building bridges between communities and generations. Through sport, various social groups can play a more central role in social transformation and development, particularly in divided societies (United Nations, 2020). Within this context, sport is used to create learning opportunities and access often marginal or at-risk populations.

The outbreak of infectious diseases with pandemic potential has negatively impacted sporting events and related tourism, but none have been as widespread as those imposed by COVID-19 (Parnell et al., 2020). Most of these, however, did not result in total event postponements or cancellations (Duarte-Muñoz & Meyer, 2020). Some of the outbreaks include the Zika virus, which occurred before the 2016

Olympic Games in Rio de Janeiro, and the outbreak of the Ebola virus disease before the 2015 Africa Cup of Nations held in Equatorial Guinea (Ludvigsen & Hayton, 2020). Sports mega-events have been successfully hosted in the middle of disease outbreaks declared Public Health Emergencies of International Concern by the WHO (McCloskey et al., 2020). Examples include the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympics and the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa, successfully held during the H1N1 influenza pandemic. During the outbreak of the Ebola virus disease, the 2015 Africa Cup of Nations was staged in Equatorial Guinea, as well as the Rio 2016 Olympics in Brazil, which was held in the middle of the Zika virus. However, some athletes, particularly the golfing contingent and potential visitors, did not attend these events because of the threat of virus infection (Ludvigsen & Hayton, 2020).

Before the COVID-19 pandemic, security and safety threats had been the most significant risk impacting sporting events and related tourism. Over the years, the skills for dealing with these threats have been perfected and led to the growth of interdisciplinary research into mega sporting events security governance (Klauser, 2011; Cleland, 2019). In light of the 9/11 terrorist bombing in the United States (USA), there has been an observed increase in security budgets and security efforts at sporting events. Giulianotti (2013) notes that the security expenditures for the 2012 London Olympics were estimated at around US$1.9 billion. Predominantly, security threats were posed by terrorism, hooliganism and crime. On the other hand, the skills of handling threats from pandemics and epidemics in sports and sports tourism are still scarce, as shown by limited literature on the subject thus far.

Previously there have been global threats such as the global economic crisis of 2007–2008, which tattered the banking and financial markets and plunged most western economies into recession. Although this had cascading effects impacting all sectors of the economy, it did not affect sports much (Parnell et al., 2017). The period saw elite-level football leagues worldwide delivering impressive revenue returns during a global economic downturn (Deloitte, 2017). Parnell et al. (2020) argue that the seemingly 'recession-proof' sustainability of football clubs during this global recession might have encouraged some football clubs to live a financially high-risk and precarious existence. This resulted in them prioritising football performance ahead of financial longevity. Hence the COVID-19 pandemic may have caught them unprepared (Ibid). While football continued during the great economic recession of 2007–2008, COVID-19 halted global sporting and restricted people's movement, including sports tourism. This left the entire sporting value chain of club owners, sports entrepreneurs, investors, broadcasters and advertisers with no option but to reconcile the downstream impact of event cancellations and make operational modifications (Mohr et al., 2020).

12.3 Materials and Methods

This chapter mainly uses critical discourse and document analysis to collect and analyse the obtained data. Critical document analysis is a primarily qualitative data collection process in which the researcher collects and interprets documented

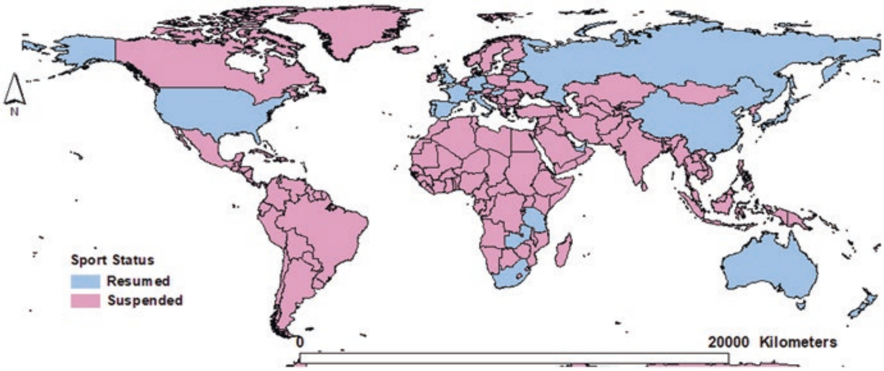

Fig. 12.1 State of sport around the world as of 30 July 2020. (Source: Authors)

information to produce meaning around the research objectives (Nhamo et al., 2020). The study's documents, reports and peer-reviewed literature were obtained from online databases such as Research4Life, Scopus, Google, Google Scholar and Web of Science. Reputable organisations producing and distributing global sports statistics were also visited online. These included Deloitte sports analysis, Deutsche Bank, Yahoo Finance and Sports Value Analysis websites. These provided data that the researchers viewed as trustworthy compared to other available sources but could not be used. A keyword search was used to identify relevant literature, reports and documents. Keywords as an inclusion criterion used expressions like 'COVID-19 and Football recovery'; 'COVID-19 and sports tourism recovery'; 'Football and post COVID-19 sustainability' and 'COVID-19 and Football and SDGs'. Exclusion criteria were all documents before 2020 and nonsporting literature. For example, in Nhamo et al. (2020), critical document analysis has been used in similar studies.

The most significant number of literature resources used in the chapter were published during the COVID-19 pandemic, between 2020 and 2021 (n = 74%) and (n = 67%) directly focused on sports/sports tourism and the COVID-19 pandemic. The author collected and reviewed over 45 documents. Of these, >65% were published peer-reviewed scholarly articles from journal and book chapters, and 26% were reported by government agencies, United Nations Agencies, and other organisations in an analysis of sporting value chains. The remaining 9% were from sports and finance-related press. Thematic analysis was then carried out to discuss the contents of the derived literature. Figure 12.1 shows the countries that had resumed sporting events, including football, during the peak of the COVID-19 pandemic as of the 30th of July 2020. It emerges that most of the world at this time was still paused in terms of sport, with African, South American and Asian countries being the most affected. Countries with the go-ahead for sports events were mostly Europe, the USA, New Zealand and Australia.

12.3.1 Consumptive Capital Theory

Stigler and Becker's (1977) Consumption Capital Theory is used in the study to explain how the safe resumption of elite football during the COVID-19 pandemic can increase its popularity over other sporting disciplines in the future, further increasing its sponsorship and fan base. The Consumption Capital Theory envisages that the utility consumers derive from a particular good or service increases with prior consumption. Without previous exposure, the pleasure from sports consumption, in the study case, is limited. For a fan to fully appreciate the sport, a basic understanding of the game's rules, team-historical context, the league in which it competes and some acquaintance with the broader issues in the sport are essential (Opitz & Hofmann, 2016). Adler (1985: 208) simplifies the theory to the expression 'the more you know, the more you enjoy'. This implies that given the availability of goods or services providing identical essential utilities, invested consumers will systematically prefer the familiar good because it offers incremental utility based on the existing consumption capital and a possible interaction benefit (Opitz & Hofmann, 2016). Other researchers who have applied this theory before in sports include Schellhaaß and Hafkemeyer (2002) and Horky (2020).

12.4 Results and Discussion

Before the COVID-19 pandemic, football as a sport had been an enormous success story in its ability to generate revenue growth. Figure 12.2 shows the revenue mix of the major football leagues in Europe for the 2018–2019 season. It emerges that the

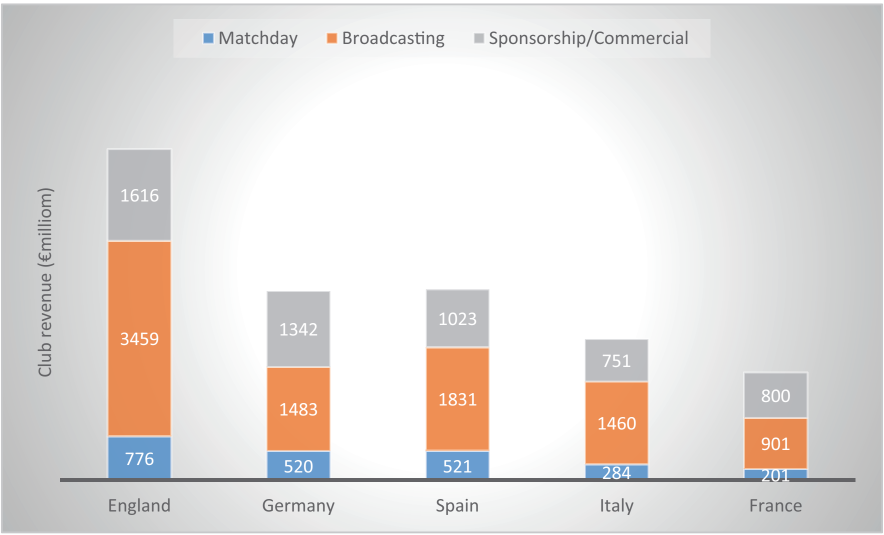

Fig. 12.2 Revenue streams for the top five European leagues 2018–2019. (Source: Authors used data from Deloitte (2020))

Table 12.1 Dates of suspension and resumption of major football leagues during the COVID-19 pandemic

Football league	Date suspended	Date resumed/cancelled
Serie A	9 March 2020	20 June 2020
Ligue 1	13 March 2020	28 April 2020 (cancelled)
UEFA club competitions	15 March 2020	5 August 2020
Premier League	13 March 2020	17 June 2020
La Liga	12 March 2020	11 June 2020
Bundesliga	13 March 2020	16 May 2020

Source: Authors used data from Deloitte (2020)

three primary sources of revenue for the football leagues are broadcasting and commercial/sponsorship deals supported by matchday revenue. The advent and spread of COVID-19 in March 2020 had a seismic impact on all sporting events and related tourism activities because they had to be stopped. This severely disrupted football leagues around the globe.

Some leagues ended prematurely, including those from France and Belgium, while others were suspended till it was safe to proceed, such as in England, South Africa and Germany. By June 2020, football began to gradually return in Korea on the 8th of May 2020, followed by Germany in the following week. The resumption was guided by strict COVID-19 health and safety regulations such as rigorous testing, players and staff, no pre-match handshakes, coaches and substitutes to wear face masks and practice social distancing. Table 12.1 shows the dates of suspension and resumption of major European football leagues. The world saw the resumption of football in June 2020, as well as most of the 2020/21 season being played behind closed doors. This has a disruptive effect on sports tourism. Fans only returned for live matches towards the end of the 2020–2021 season.

The most critical condition, which has become the 'new normal' for football resumption, was eliminating fans from the stadia. As seen in Fig. 12.2, matchday revenue makes up a significant but the most minor contribution to the total income of Europe's five leagues. It contributed 13% in England, 16% in Spain and Germany, 11% in Italy and a mere 1.1% in France in the 2018–2019 season, which was the last to be completed before the advent of COVID-19. This implies that even with no matchday revenue, the leagues would suffer financial losses but could afford to resume playing in empty stadiums. While this condition will impact all sports and teams, it is anticipated that clubs from smaller countries and leagues that typically have a greater dependence on match day revenues will be the hardest hit.

Given that matchday revenues were the hardest hit during the COVID-19 pandemic, Fig. 12.3 shows the major sporting leagues in the world by matchday revenue in the 2018–2019 period. The top four sporting leagues in the USA, which are Major League Baseball (MLB), National Football League (NFL), National Hockey League (NHL) and the National Basketball Association (NBA), stand to have the most significant shock should they proceed to play in empty arenas. Widely used approximations in NBA circles submit that each game yields an average of US$1.2 million in gate takings (Sports Value, 2020). In football, the most significant loss of

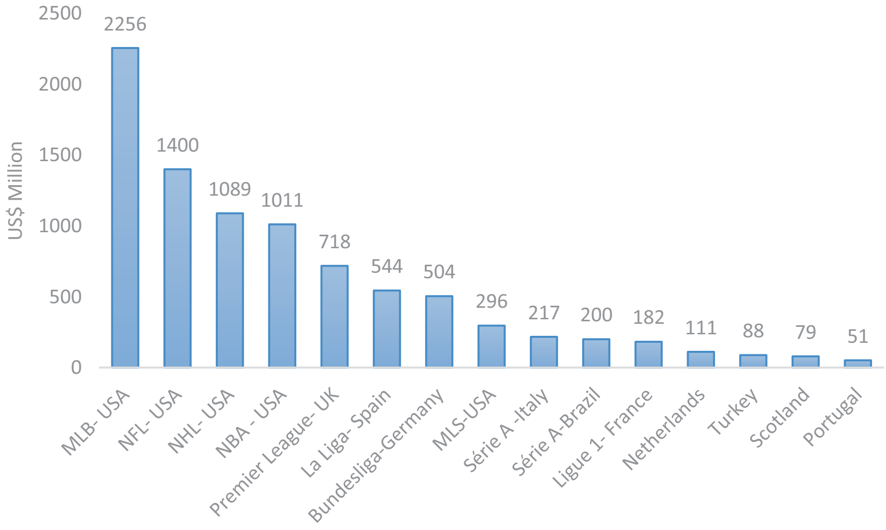

Fig. 12.3 Matchday revenues by league 2018–2019. (Source: Authors used data from Sports Value (2020))

matchday revenue is likely in the UK, with an average match attendance of 38,484 fans translating to an average of 97% utilisation of stadia capacity (Sports Value, 2020; Deloitte, 2020). This will be followed by Spain with an average match attendance of 26,585, translating to 75% capacity utilisation. Germany has an average match attendance of 42,738 with a stadia utilisation of 88% capacity (Ibid.).

The European football market declined by 13% in the 2019/20 season, which translates to a €3.7 billion drop (Deloitte, 2020). This was the first observed drop in football revenues since the 2008–2009 financial crisis. The decrease in income strained football clubs because their wage commitments remained the same. Table 12.2 shows the revenue shocks predicted for the top ten football clubs in Europe under different scenarios of the impact of COVID-19 on the 2019–2020 season. Under the most optimistic plan, clubs would lose up to 13% of revenue, with the pessimistic/realistic scenarios predicting up to 31% losses for the season (Deutsche Bank, 2020; Sports Value Analysis, 2020). This will see the profit margins of these clubs being significantly reduced. Suppose the COVID-19 pandemic persists and fans continue to be shut out of the stadia in the 2020–2021 season. In that case, Deutsche Bank (2020) further anticipates that television (TV) rights, the primary source of revenue, risk being renegotiated up to 20% to reflect the playing in empty stadiums, ticketing/matchday revenue will be entirely lost, and commercial advertising had a 30–60% risk of loss especially matchday sponsorship.

Figure 12.4 shows the movement in share prices for selected publicly listed football clubs for the period before and during the COVID-19 pandemic. The price movement of the shares can be deemed an objective measurement of investor confidence in the sporting industry during this period. The football club stocks have generally been underperforming during the COVID-19 pandemic. The share prices

Table 12.2 Projected revenue shocks for the top ten clubs in Europe

Team	2019 revenue (€ million)	Optimistic scenario revenue (€ million)	Pessimistic/ realistic (€ million)	Minimum Loss	Maximum Loss
Barcelona	841	721	581	−14%	−31%
Real Madrid	757	657	527	−13%	−30%
Manchester United	712	622	497	−13%	−30%
Bayern Munich	660	580	460	−12%	−30%
PSG	636	536	441	−16%	−31%
Manchester City	611	536	426	−12%	−30%
Liverpool	605	530	420	−12%	−31%
Tottenham hotspurs	521	451	361	−13%	−31%
Chelsea	513	453	358	−12%	−30%
Juventus	460	395	320	−14%	−30%

Source: Deutsche Bank (2020) and Sports Value Analysis (2020)

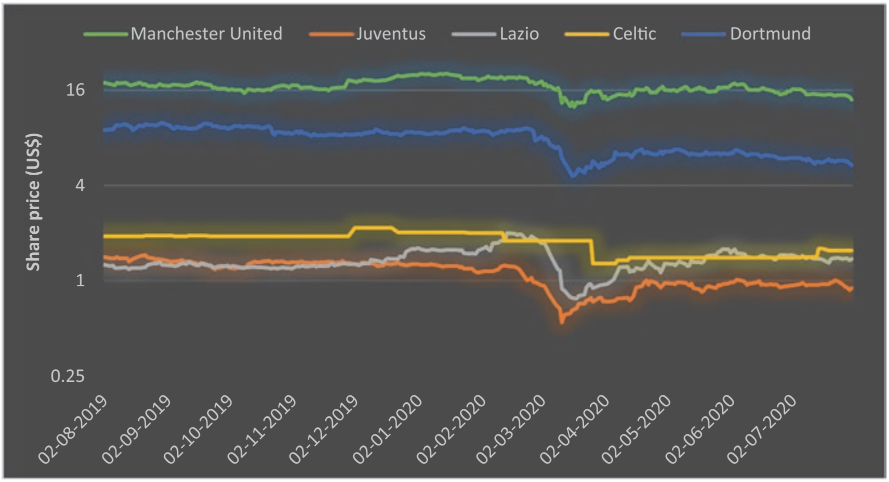

Fig. 12.4 Share prices of publicly listed football teams. (Source: Authors used data from Yahoo Finance (2020))

plunged steeply during the early days of the pandemic (February–March 2020) but managed a v-shaped recovery between April and June 2020. However, the stocks were still to make full recoveries to the pre-pandemic levels, and all were still in the negative as of July 2020. Manchester United, for example, was trading at −17% of the pre-pandemic value, Juventus at −25% and Dortmund at −35%, all indicating investor pessimism in the industry (Y-Charts, 2020).

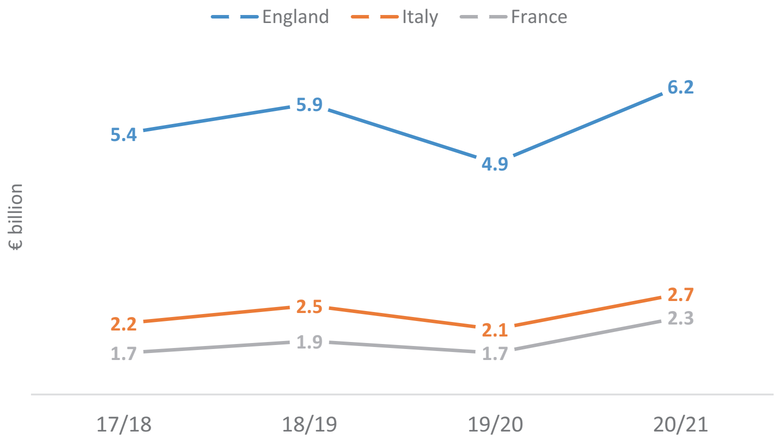

Fig. 12.5 Projected recovery from the COVID-19 slump. (Source: Authors used data from Deloitte (2020))

Figure 12.5 shows the projected recovery path for selected European football leagues after the COVID-19 downturn. As already indicated, 2019–2020 and parts of 2020–2021 financial years will be directly impacted by the pandemic, with lost and deferred revenue from the 2019–2020 season creating a v-shaped recovery for most leagues (Deloitte, 2020). According to Sports Value (2020) estimations, every US$1 generated directly by a professional sports league can translate to US$2.5 produced in indirect and economic induced effects within the sporting industry value chain. This, therefore, means that the decline in revenue from sports will also translate to even deeper losses within its value chain. Hall (2020) also notes that all three primary sources of income, broadcasting, commercial and matchday revenues will be severely affected by the pandemic. However, the continued desire by fans from all over the world to consume top-level football will drive both the short-term recovery and future long-term revenue growth. Most leagues were expected to recover and register changes in revenue that are way above the pre-COVID-19 levels. This signals a bright future for football in general setback the COVID-19 setback.

Generally, in sports, and football, in particular, fans are the ultimate consumers of the goods and services produced; hence should be the primary consideration for decision-makers in the football fraternity. All the three income streams by which the industry's revenue is categorised are invariably driven by fan consumption. Fans subscribe to television networks or streaming services to watch the sport, providing the broadcasting income. It is the fans that businesses partnering with football clubs and leagues wish to reach out to, thus providing commercial revenue. Fans also directly provide matchday revenue through their attendance (Deloitte, 2020). The consumption utility and demand from fans in the post COVID-19 period will be essential as the industry consolidates its recovery and ultimately grows in the face of the pandemic.

Deloitte (2020) surveyed over 30 countries to assess how fans prefer to consume football. The survey was done in early May 2020 during the suspension of sporting events. Fans were asked to rank their methods of consumption by order of preference. Over 40% of the participants highlighted the attendance of live matches as their first preference, which was the highest. The second and third preferences were live television and live streaming broadcasts, respectively, with highlights through television and streaming services being ranked joint fourth and fifth. Despite significant progress in broadcasting and real-time technology, the results from the survey show a strong desire for live sports from the fans' perspective. Therefore, the resumption of football without live fans is unlikely to be sustainable in the long term from the point of view of recovery and continued growth. Horky (2020) advocates for the unique adaptation of existing business and broadcasting models to the consumption preferences of fans watching from home as the football industry adjusts to games being played without live fans. Using a conservative estimate, Yip (2020) is of the view that fans will most likely not be allowed to attend stadium events before the middle of 2021 except for a handful of the least affected countries such as New Zealand, China and Australia. The author highlights that Tokyo 2020 Olympics, due to be held in July 2021, will most likely mark the re-entry of fans in stadiums provided the virus spread is considerably slowed down and a vaccine or cure is found by then.

As a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, many sports event tourism players have begun to offer virtual or hybrid events, which can be used to complement traditional sports events in the future (Helsen et al., 2021; Westmattelmann et al., 2020). Mixed sports events allow participants and attendees to participate in a virtual world from any location while offering a certain realism level that makes them credible. Looking forward, it is likely that these sports events will be a part of the new normal in the sphere of sports tourism which will require unique and specialised knowledge. Sports event tourism stakeholders and role players must be clear on whether hybrid events will be incorporated into existing sports event tourism strategies or if they require a stand-alone strategy of their own. What also needs to be considered is whether hybrid events should resemble traditional events as closely as possible or whether they should be regarded as through the lens of gamification (Westmattelmann et al., 2020). Research conducted by Weed (2020) has shown that during the global COVID-19 lockdown, sports event attendees developed strong feelings of nostalgia – linking memories of attending sports events in the past to the hopes of attending them once again in the future. This nostalgia indicates a clear link to the desire for social interaction and connectedness of sports event attendees, illustrating their desire to attend these events again as soon as possible (Adams et al., 2011; Weed, 2020). This desire also suggests the strong likelihood of sports tourism to recover rapidly post – pandemic recovery as individuals show significant eagerness to attend future sports events.

Majumdar and Naha (2020) observe that the absence of fans from sporting venues has meant great difficulty for sports broadcasters to capture the emotional resonance of sport. They argue that fans are part of a massive consumption-oriented community, and their participation makes sporting events more intense and entertaining as both a moment in history and a marketable product. Therefore, broadcast partners needed to actively enrich fan experience in the COVID-19 hit sports world to make live broadcast far more creative than it currently is. Broadcasters and football clubs playing in empty stadiums have been edged to devise new ways of recreating fandom drama in the stadium (Dwivedi, 2020). This may include the installation of screens and speakers that will replicate the visual and sound effects of a packed stadium to give players and fans a sense of continuity and consistency, which is preferable to an unsettling silence (Majumdar & Naha, 2020). Broadcasters also need to consider the possibility of showing videos of fans at home at appropriate moments during the broadcast. These can help to show the emotions of fans that are tense with anticipation, anxious at their team faltering or failing to perform (Ibid.). For any of the above to materialise, governing bodies must relax some rules and show more adaptability to the present situation. However, sports clubs needed to think and plan carefully before taking any measures to reproduce fandom in the stadium. For example, a top Korean football club was fined heavily for renting female sex dolls to fill the empty stadium (McCurry, 2020). The move had been made in a bid to re-create a packed stadium and give a sense of continuity to the players and those watching from home.

Applying the consumption capital theory to global sporting events during the COVID-19 pandemic, football could have benefited both in the short and long term compared to other sports. This is because it resumed earlier than other sporting disciplines and hence was likely to attract more viewership from global fans who had starved of the live sport during the early days of the pandemic. The quick resumption of football, even when playing in empty stadiums, was also because most of their revenue comes from broadcasting deals rather than gate takings from the matchday. This has the effect of increasing football's consumption capital over other sports. As a result, sports that rely more on matchday revenue suffered due to the pandemic as they could not resume playing in empty arenas, hence gaining lower consumption capital. Although not from the footballing hall, the return of live fans to New Zealand rugby tests matches and stadiums (Bangkok Post, 2020) remains a beacon of hope for a quicker recovery in other sports. An estimated 20,000 plus fans attended the inaugural 'post-COVID-19' Otago Highlanders versus the Waikato Chiefs test on Saturday, 13 June 2020. However, this move was informed by the country's drastic reduction and ultimate declaration of COVID-19 cases eradication.

From the capital consumption theory point of view, a minor sport with lower consumption capital will always be inferior compared to a major sport with higher ratings for consumption capital. With an increasing number of TV broadcasts and live streaming of football when other sports are still to resume, the gap in consumption with other sporting disciplines will continue to widen with time, and the consumer of major sports will decide earlier to skip alternative programs. Schellhaaß and Hafkemeyer (2002) investigate the chances of boosting TV coverage of four different sports using the interest in and reputation of these sports by TV consumers. They concluded that the consumption capital of more minor disciplines will always be lower than those of more extensive and more reputable sports. In Germany, Horky (2020) observes that the massive dependency of all other sports, such as hockey, handball and basketball, on live public sports in front of fans put them at a disadvantage during the COVID-19 pandemic when compared to football. Further, the researcher concluded using the consumption capital theory that the COVID-19 crisis might increase the gap between major and minor sports in Germany, leading to possible bankruptcy for several clubs and leagues.

Besides the economic ramifications of the pandemic on sport, its resumption during the COVID-19 pandemic needed to be guided by several strict guidelines that needed to be adhered to before and during the resumption. These guidelines differed from country to country and region to region, with no harmonised approach being followed uniformly worldwide. Australia, one of the first countries to resume sporting activities during the pandemic, produced National principles for the resumption of sports and recreation activities (Hughes, 2020). Amongst some of the regulations was that the resumption of sports activities could contribute many health, economic, social and cultural benefits to communities emerging from the COVID-19 pandemic. It was also noted that the resumption of sports should not compromise the health of individuals or the community. It needed to be based on objective health information to ensure they were conducted safely and did not risk increased COVID-19 local transmissions. Before the resumption of community sport, it is essential for sporting clubs or groups to prepare for the sporting environment safely, as well as carry out a thorough risk assessment with preparation specific to the sporting environment (Hughes, 2020). In addition to strict health and safety protocols, South Africa's Premier Soccer League (PSL) instituted new rules permitting the use of five instead of three substitutes per match (PSL, 2020). This effectively brought an additional two substitutes on the bench compared to the usual seven. Unused substitutes were allowed to be carried over into extra time as appropriate during cup games.

Another issue of concern during the resumption of football and sports, in general, was the risk of serious injury to athletes due to the sudden detraining imposed on them by the COVID-19 pandemic (Mohr et al., 2020). As many countries were proposing to re-start sport, the timelines gave athletes less than a month to train and return to competitive action. This comes against a well-known fact that long-term detraining can lead to a marked decline in maximal oxygen consumption, loss of the recently acquired gains in terms of endurance capacity. More significant loss of muscle strength and mass (Paoli & Musumeci, 2020) hence the need for injury prevention training needs to be highly prioritised during the COVID-19 outbreak. As observed by Krustrup et al. (2006), football-specific fitness has been shown to decline by 11% in male players during a normal off-season period. However, Mohr et al. (2020) argue that the lockdown period during the COVID-19 pandemic likely caused a more significant decline due to the long duration and restricted possibilities for training.

Parekh et al. (2009) observe that limited access by athletes to team doctors and high-level coaches and an absence of structured pre-season preparatory conditioning were the cause of an unprecedented number of Achilles tendon ruptures in training camps and the beginning of preseason matches. These injuries, unfortunately, represent career-altering and or career-ending events for professional athletes. For example, one-third of the NFL players who sustained an Achilles tendon rupture never return to competition. After Achilles tendon repair, the remaining two-thirds who make it back to play require approximately 11 months of rehabilitation (Ibid.). This, therefore, represents a considerable risk for footballers during the resumption of matches if precaution is not taken after the COVID-19-induced break. The risk of loss is high for athletes and the entire sports industry, given the long period required for a complete recovery after a muscle-skeletal injury (Paoli & Musumeci, 2020). There is fear and anxiety amongst some athletes that decisions to resume sports leagues across the world will consider the political and commercial aspects of the sport before public health (Mann et al., 2020). Several proposals have been raised to limit athletes' health impacts and injury during this period. This includes the introduction of halves that are less than 45 minutes, having regular breaks, and allowing for more substitutions, given the lack of game time and match fitness that players have had since the start of the COVID-19 pandemic (Webb, 2020).

The return to football after the COVID-19-induced break will also have an impact on referees and match officials. The on-field referees, assistant referees and the fourth official operate in teams and the operation and management of these teams would require further thought. Referees usually function with different assistant referees and in other groups throughout the season (Webb, 2020). This, however, can bring with it the potential for increased chances of infection as referees and assistant referees move around the country, depending on the stadiums that have been selected (Ibid.). On the other hand, not changing personnel or driving the same referee groups between different stadia to prevent any potential spread of the virus could mean that players are referred by the same group of officials more often, leading to issues with overfamiliarity between the referees and the players (Webb, 2020). Balmer et al. (2007) also observe the benefits and challenges associated with officiating in environments lacking supporters. This could see decision-making improve, as there is a lack of influence over the decisions of the referee from the supporters in the stadium. This variable has been confirmed in previous literature.

Playing in empty stadiums can also potentially induce behaviour change in football by changing the fractious relationships between coaches, players and referees that have been observed in the past (Webb, 2020). With the lack of a tense environment in the stadiums due to the absence of spectator noise, players and coaches may be highly aware that the pitchside microphones will broadcast any conversation they engage in. This may include any kind of verbal abuse directed at match officials. This implies that players and coaches will adjust their conduct due to the more sterile atmosphere in which they will compete. This change in mannerism may provide positive influences not only in the top leagues and professional football but also in grassroots football when the mass participation game resumes. There is literature that suggests that referees at lower levels of football perceive a link between the negative behaviour of players towards referees in professional football and the negative behaviour of players in grassroots football (Webb et al., 2019).

12.4.1 Implications of the Study and Recovery Model

Sport in general and football, in particular, can be viewed as critical enablers for communities to attain SDGs. Football has in the past enabled the creation of spaces for dialogue, decent employment, social inclusion and gender equality and tackled discrimination against vulnerable groups. To build back better from the COVID-19 setback, the entire football value chain has to redefine and redesign itself along with the SDG framework. Football, as a popular sport, will find it much easier to recover from the COVID-19 shock and, in the process, needs to bring the world to refocus on SDG implementation. Following the SDG framework in recovery will bring more sustainability to the sport and its related tourism value chain and will bring greater hope to the broader community for the return to normalcy after the unprecedented disruptions brought about by the pandemic. The sport needs to develop the skills that will make it a key stakeholder in building resilience to future pandemics. Football Building Back Better from the pandemic will not be too complex compared to other sports as informed by the Consumptive Capital Theory. The sport is famous across the globe and managed to resume when other forms of sport had not during the peak of the COVID-19 pandemic.

12.5 Conclusions and Recommendations

The research found that the COVID-19 pandemic had a significant economic impact on football. The sudden stoppage of all sporting events during the early days of the pandemic led to the loss or deferment of potential revenue by clubs. In the worst-case scenario, football clubs are projected to lose as much as 30% of potential revenue due to the pandemic. Football also resumed earlier than other sporting disciplines during the pandemic, with additional rules adopted, including increasing the number of substitutions per game. This was because the business model of many soccer leagues relies more on broadcasting and commercial deals than match day revenue, which contributes the least to their total accrued revenue. This means that top football leagues could sacrifice matchday revenue to gain broadcast and commercial income, an option that other minor sports do not have due to overreliance on matchday revenue for payment. The share prices of most publicly listed football clubs were also shown to be underperforming during the pandemic, with most realising negative returns signalling low investor confidence in sporting counters during this period. Most projections seem to show a strong rebound of football after the pandemic to even higher than the pre-pandemic levels. This is due mainly to an observed strong appetite for live sporting events worldwide. Fans who are football tourists were also shown to be a vital element of the sports industry ecosystem, and without them, sports can never be sustained. This implies that playing games without fans cannot be sustainable in the long term. Football was also shown to have benefited from increased capital consumption during the COVID-19 pandemic, hence predicted to grow even further due to more consumers of the product.

Many countries of the world produced guidelines that needed to be followed before the resumption of sporting activities, with most being guided by epidemiological knowledge and education of the athletes. The health of athletes was also at stake during the resumption of football. The sudden stoppage in sporting events and the limited time given to high-performing athletes to return to the field was likely to expose them to potential career-threatening injuries. This was due to little training during the lockdown periods and the lack of match fitness when sporting activities resumed, making them vulnerable to muscle-skeletal injuries. It is recommended that sports federations worldwide, athlete representative bodies and sports medicine practitioners take an unequivocal stand on this subject to protect the careers and health of athletes. Although sporting events could be restarted safely during the COVID-19 pandemic, clubs and sports federations need to see athletes as part of a more extensive community rather than a commodity before asking them to return to sport.

Planning for sport during this pandemic period may be the most complicated task to perform due to many unknowns such as how long the pandemic will linger, will a cure or vaccine be developed and the possibilities of second or third waves of infections. However, given the available knowledge, it is recommended that the sports administrators create a series of contingency plans for events with no spectators, followed by those with a limited number of spectators, then with a more significant number of spectators before finally returning to maximum-capacity events. The sports ecosystem and value chain, comprising clubs, broadcasters, fans, sponsors, businesses, producers, owners and players, need to come together and devise new and ground-breaking solutions to mitigate the adverse effects of COVID-19 on the world of sport. This may include a revamp of the current business model, which is not resilient to shocks such as COVID-19. Although football was negatively affected by the pandemic, it was most likely to recover within a year of the pandemic. The recovery path of the sport and its related tourism needs to be guided by the SDG framework. Football needs to broaden its position as a critical enabler of SDG implementation. The research was limited by data availability because it was done during the peak of the COVID-19 pandemic; therefore, it represents preliminary findings. More research needs to be done on the recovery of lower-tier football leagues and those that had not resumed during the research.

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Chapter 13
COVID-19 and Potential for Early Recovery and Implications for the Restaurant Industry

Kaitano Dube, David Chikodzi, and Godwell Nhamo

Abstract The outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic presented a global challenge to the tourism and hospitality industry, particularly the restaurant sector. While the impact of the coronavirus on tourism and hospitality is still unravelling, there has not been empirical documentation to assess the early recovery of the restaurant sector from the pandemic. Such an assessment is critical in informing stakeholders such as industry players, government and academia to continue to seek a comprehensive response to the global pandemic in the sector. This study uses restaurant databases, such as OpenTable, market charts and other reliable archival databases, to track the recovery process of the restaurant sector from the COVID-19 impacts. This study finds that although the pandemic led to almost 2 months of business stagnation, resulting in revenue losses, the restaurant industry has recovered from mid-May 2020, pointing to the sector's resilience. However, the recovery pathways vary across the industry in different geographic areas. The evidence suggests that the recovery process will likely be long and slow. If the recovery was to be rapid, there could be challenges with staffing and resourcing of restaurants which could affect service delivery in some areas given modifications imposed by the impacts of COVID-19. A proactive approach is therefore needed to deal decisively and urgently with the eventualities brought about by the COVID-19 recovery.

Keywords COVID-19 · Pandemic · Tourism · Hospitality · Restaurants · Recovery challenges · Fast food

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13.1 Introduction

The global tourism and hospitality industry, including the restaurant sector, has been a critical pillar of international development for the past couple of years (Dogru et al., 2019, 2020). Consequently, the sector has been a critical global performer in employment creation and revenue generation across various global tourism regions. The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) reported that tourism industry exports had grown by 4% in 2019, equating to total revenue of US$1.7 trillion (UNWTO, 2020). This was against a 5% growth in international tourist arrivals, which saw a historical figure of 1.4 billion tourist arrivals.

The positive growth trajectory has been ongoing since the 2008–2009 global slump instigated by the financial crisis of 2008. As a consequence, tourism has been seen, by academia, governments and other stakeholders, as a reliable partner for achieving sustainable development. Hence, the sector has been targeted to respond to the 17 United Nations (UN) Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) enshrined in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (Bramwell et al., 2017; Florian & Job, 2019; Dube & Nhamo, 2020). According to Hall (2019: 1044), 'it had become something of a truism that sustainable development is a major focus of tourism policymakers, including industry and destination marketing organisations, and tourism researchers'. There was a belief that the tourism and hospitality industry could indeed be used to achieve almost all of the SDGs (Dube, 2020). Within the tourism and hospitality spectrum, sustainability has been incorporated, and, in this regard, the industry has gone beyond corporate social responsibility (CSR) (Font & Lynes, 2018).

While the global outlook and anticipation for the industry was robust growth in 2020, even after a year of a record number of extreme events, marked by tropical cyclones, fires, flooding and severe droughts, there was no expectation that the global economy was going to be drastically disrupted by a pandemic. When global economic leaders met, in January 2020, for the assessment of global risks, pandemics were ranked lower than any other threat and placed at the bottom of a list of ten concerns (World Economic Forum, 2020).

The advent and pronouncement of COVID-19 threw the global economy into a tailspin, disrupting the demand and supply system (UN, 2020). Most governments instituted and enforced social distancing measures in response to the global pandemic's threat. Also, most countries closed their borders and all other ports of entry. In addition, all social gatherings and events were prohibited, causing an adverse impact on the tourism and hospitality industry, including the restaurant sector (Dube et al., 2020).

This study tracks the restaurant industry's early recovery process and trends, focusing on major markets such as the United States (USA), Canada, Europe and Australia. This aligns with the UN calls for impact and recovery monitoring (UN, 2020). Gallego and Font (2020) underscore the importance of studies like this, as they provide insights which can assist in the proactive and ongoing management of shocks inflicted by a crisis such as the COVID-19 pandemic.

Given the preceding, this study raises the research question: What potential exists for recovery in the restaurant sector from the impacts of COVID-19? Specifically, the research aims to investigate and document the emerging potential for COVID-19 recovery by restaurants from Europe, the Americas and Australasia.

13.2 Literature Review

At the height and spike of the pandemic in early to mid-March 2020, particularly in America, Europe, Australia and other COVID-19 hotspots, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) reported that the world had entered a global recession (IMF, 2020). This was barely a month after the global COVID-19-induced shutdowns in mid-March 2020. One of the sectors that showed huge vulnerability was the tourism and hospitality industry, as it is a sector that is propelled by travelling. Destination and borders were closed, also harming the restaurant sector. The tourism industry was reported to lack adequate knowledge, capacity and resilience to deal with, plan and manage risks and uncertainty (Chung, 2015). According to Hall (2011), the sector's resilience to biosecurity shocks such as pandemics was very limited. These assertions were repeated by Gössling et al. (2020) in the initial rapid assessment of the impacts of coronavirus on the global tourism industry. The hospitality industry, particularly the restaurants, has a long history of battling crises such as the 2003 severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) outbreak and the economic woes of 2008–2009, which have all shown the sector's weaknesses (Alan et al., 2006).

According to Henderson (2007), the interlinkages through the value chain within the tourism and hospitality industry are such that an adverse impact within one sector or sub-sector, for example, transport disruptions, could affect the hospitality and destination arms of the sector. In the recent past, scholars have sought to understand the impact of disasters and, in some ways, to model crises and their management within the tourism spectrum. In this regard, Paraskevas and Altinay (2013) recommend early signal detection better to manage the crisis in the tourism and hospitality sector. This involves three stages: signal scanning, capture and transmission to the crisis response centre. After the SARS and avian influenza A (H7N9) outbreaks, Chuo (2014) developed a model that looks at restaurant diners' protective behaviour to adjust to the realities of diseases and pandemics. Regardless, evidence still shows the industry's vulnerabilities to pandemics and diseases.

Previous disease outbreaks are reported to have altered travel desire for tourists, leaving the various sectors of the tourism industry vulnerable to negative growth. According to Lee et al. (2012), the 2009 H1N1 influenza significantly altered tourists' travel intentions and behaviour, which worsened the impact of the global economic recession in many tourism regions, except for Africa and South America. These were the only regions which recorded positive marginal growth. Unlike previous epidemics and pandemics, the COVID-19 pandemic, at one stage, led to a total lockdown (100%) of many tourism destinations. Indeed, it is no wonder that Rivera (2020) postulates that the pandemic has touched all aspects of people's personal lives and disrupted the hospitality industry. The extent of the impact of COVID-19 is far-reaching, unlike any other pandemic. Preliminary studies by Dube et al. (2020) found that the restaurant industry was one of the worst affected sectors in tourism. The study pointed out that the demand for social and physical distancing led to the closure of various types of restaurants, particularly fine dining restaurants, where customers would sit down to enjoy their meal.

With the world learning to live with the pandemic, most economies had a staggered reopening approach in opening their economies. However, with 'the invisible enemy' (COVID-19) still very much present and many people still fearful of contracting the coronavirus (Dube et al., 2020), the sector needs to monitor the impact and track the early recovery process. This could assist in understanding consumer response in various geographic regions as economic sectors open up. According to Rivera (2020: 1), understanding consumer confidence is also crucial in enabling the hospitality industry to have a better picture of decision-making and future consumption behaviours. This is more crucial given that the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) had instituted tailor-made health and safety protocols to kick-start the tourism industry (WTTC, 2020). Understanding how the consumer market is responding to the kick-starting of the industry is crucial for those countries and regions still under strict lockdowns, such as the People's Republic of China, and for tourism stakeholders to have a clearer picture of what the future might look like for planning purposes.

Chang et al. (2020) propose a charter for sustainable tourism after COVID-19, a pandemic that they realise is unique if one considers other earth-shattering events, including SARS, MERS and the global financial crisis of 2008. The authors highlight that the COVID-19 pandemic transformed the world in a big way and impacted profoundly international travel, tourism demand and the hospitality industry. Included herein are restaurants, an aspect emphasised by Romagosa (2020). To this end, Chang et al. (2020) identify the enforcement of social distancing for religious, adventure, farm and meetings, incentives, conferences and exhibitions (MICE) tourism, as well as hotel accommodation at the lobby during check-in/out, when serving meals and during social activities. According to Cheer (2020), this brings a new normal. Chang et al. (2020) further identify travel and entry restrictions on tourism numbers for domestic and international destinations, mandatory personal protective equipment (PPE) for medical tourism and air and sea travel. In addition, medical and health situations at destinations need monitoring to ensure the safety of tourists and those serving them. Some of the engagements under this scenario include holistic and frequent COVID-19 monitoring and robust tests for tourists. As for major events such as sports, musical and theatrical performances, as well as concerts, fairs and expositions, should impose and enforce protocols on social and physical distancing. Lastly, knowledge and experience gained by the tourism industry should be applied to control the rise in insurance premiums and exclusions for pre-existing illnesses. Some of the building blocks in the Charter are also covered by Hall et al. (2020a).

Considerable literature has emerged on resetting tourism post the COVID-19 pandemic by mid-2020. Haywood (2020: 1) maintains that the advent of the pandemic 'necessitates an interrogation – a re-exploration and a re-envisioning of the future of tourism – of what has to change (and remain constant)'. Romagosa (2020: 1) supports this perspective by indicating that 'No one knows what will happen, even in the short term, the almost immediate future'. Haywood (2020) noted that COVID-19 means new ways of doing things should be discovered to ensure that the SDGs are attained come 2030, which demands that key stakeholders in the tourism industry work together and build resilience to shocks which threaten the sector. This is proposed against a background that realises that tourism has recovered well from past pandemics such as SARS, although under COVID-19, the industry should pass a severe stress test (Romagosa, 2020). As such, the author also proposes that the tourism sector takes advantage of the period of COVID-19 stoppage to embark on deep structural reforms beginning with a reflection on sustainability matters. Cheers (2020) considers COVID-19 a wake-up call on sustainability issues in the tourism sector. Sustainability demands that matter to the uplifting host communities, especially indigenous peoples, are considered (Carr, 2020). A move towards sustainable tourism further will assist the sector in addressing criticisms in recent years, especially from academia, as the sector has been accused of sidelining sustainability concerns (Romagosa, 2020). Prideaux et al. (2020) identify the opportunity for the industry to scale-up activities to reduce carbon emissions that lead to climate change and embrace the circular and greener economy. This way, Mostafanezhad (2020) sees the tourism recovery pathway as contributing to a more socially and environmentally just society. To this end, governments' COVID-19 recovery blueprints incorporating diverse cultural values are preferred as they ensure equitable futures (Carr, 2020). Hence, positive experiences will be realised by tourism providers, tourists and host destinations.

Hall et al. (2020a) perceive the COVID-19 pandemic as having the potential to raise and bring unwanted selfish nationalism and regionalism agendas, yet to respond to planetary boundaries and sustainable tourism, there needs to be a global approach. In Malaysia, the government put up a stimulus package to boost tourism, including tax incentives, restructuring loans and discounts on monthly electricity bills (Foo et al., 2020). Ultimately, tourism (including restaurants) recovery post and during the COVID-19 pandemic should focus on the following pillars: the importance of the local, addressing inequalities and enhancing inclusivity, bringing back the (environmental) sustainability debate, the complexity of globalisation, warming up to the new normal and prioritising what matters. The following section presents the research design used to generate and analyse the data.

13.3 Research Design

As highlighted in the introduction, this study sought to quantify, track and examine the extent of COVID-19 recovery of the restaurant industry in Europe, the Americas (North and South America) and Australasia as of the end of July 2020. This study used archival data from authoritative industry platforms, such as OpenTable, a part of Booking.com and Rally for Restaurant's databases, which have been recording daily activity, informing the impact of COVID-19 on the restaurant sector. The data was from 1 January 2020 to 31 July 2020, the peak period of the first wave of the pandemic. OpenTable, an online restaurant booking platform, is a subsidiary of Booking.com. It is utilised by about 31 million dinners a month, connecting customers to about 60,000 restaurants worldwide. It is a registered company which trades on the NASDAQ stock exchange. OpenTable's software seats more than 1 billion dinners annually and helps more than 60,000 restaurants, bars, wineries and other venues attract guests, manage capacity, improve operations and maximise revenue. Its network spans 80 countries, including Australia, Canada, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Mexico, the Netherlands, Spain, the United Kingdom (UK) and the USA. OpenTable has integrations with more than 600 brands, including Amazon Alexa, Facebook Messenger, Google, Instagram, Snapchat, TripAdvisor, Yahoo! and Zagat (OpenTable, 2019). To enable like-for-like comparisons, data from OpenTable was segregated according to country, state/province/region and city. Under each category, five of the most affected and five least affected were selected for illustration purposes. The average decline was used to measure and rank the impact objectively.

On the other hand, Rally for Restaurants is a US grassroots initiative introduced to give restaurants a fighting chance amidst the COVID-19 health crisis. The platform brings together restaurant technology providers, public and private companies, restaurant owners and workers and people everywhere to support the restaurant community in their time of need. The online database was premised on real-time data collected from 13,000 restaurants on the Toast platform, which has been in operation for more than a year Rally for Restaurants (2020a). The data collected includes utilisation and revenue on a year-to-year, same-day comparison. Other secondary data sources, such as stock markets and their respective representative organisations, were also used. All the data used is publicly available. According to Rally for Restaurants, the data was collected to 'provide government officials, restaurant operators, members of the media, and the general public with visibility into how the restaurant industry is navigating the impact of COVID-19'. The time series data were analysed and visualised using Microsoft Excel. The software was used to generate the graphs to allow for a visual understanding of the impacts of COVID-19. The data was arranged to show changes in reservations, use and revenue of restaurants over time during the study period. To this extent, data for a period ranging from January 2021 to September 2021 was explored.

The authors acknowledge some limitations with the data sets that were used. To start with, OpenTable does not operate in all countries worldwide, the reason why the study had to focus on selected countries. For example, although OpenTable is used by about 31 million diners a month and connects customers to about 60,000 restaurants worldwide, the platform does not include customers from other regions like Africa. Hence, there remain gaps in coverage for the global restaurant industry. The same gaps may also exist regarding customers and restaurants that are not covered even in areas where OpenTable operates.

Furthermore, OpenTable data will be dominated by responses from the USA, which will likely impact even global trends. The Rally for Restaurants data was included to gather additional information and supplement the OpenTable data, although this too is only a US-based initiative. The data sources, therefore, remained relevant under the circumstances that the authors could not find alternative data sources. Effectively, the streamlining of the study to focus on selected countries helped in closing data gaps compared to a study that would have been more global. This weakness implies that the authors will not make generalisations from this study's findings.

13.4 Presentation of Results

This study shows that the restaurant industry in Europe, the Americas and Australasia had one of the most devastating historical episodes, characterised by low business activity and revenue. Data from the OpenTable, which captures seated diners from online, telephonic and walk-in reservations, shows that the period preceding the full-blown pandemic, around February 2020, was characterised by regular business sales. Due to the outbreak of the pandemic in the countries under study, namely Australia, Canada, Germany, Ireland, Mexico, the UK and the USA, fell to record levels of near to no business activity by mid-March. Due to the pandemic, most businesses could not operate normally as they would, with business activity and sales plunging to record bottom levels between mid-March and the end of April (Fig. 13.1).

The situation was similar in various cities and states across the study area, as seen in Figs. 13.2 and 13.3. It was from the beginning of May 2020 that many

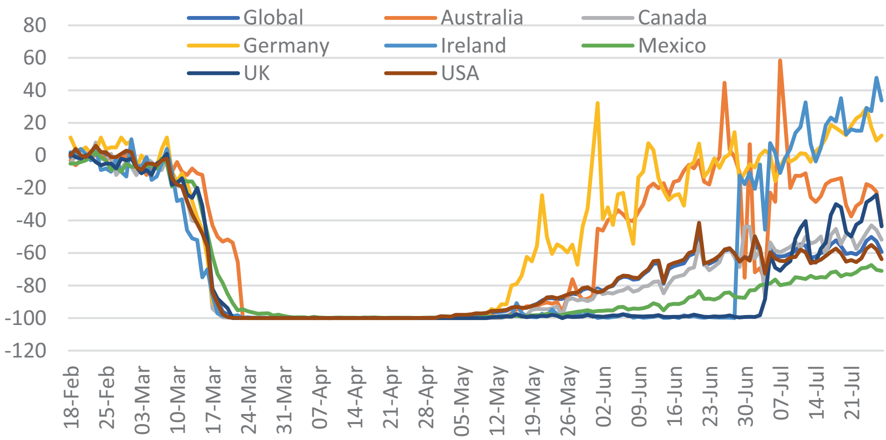

Fig. 13.1 Impact of COVID-19 on year-on-year sit-down dinners, walk-ins and reservations for global and selected countries. (Source: Authors, Data from OpenTable (2019))

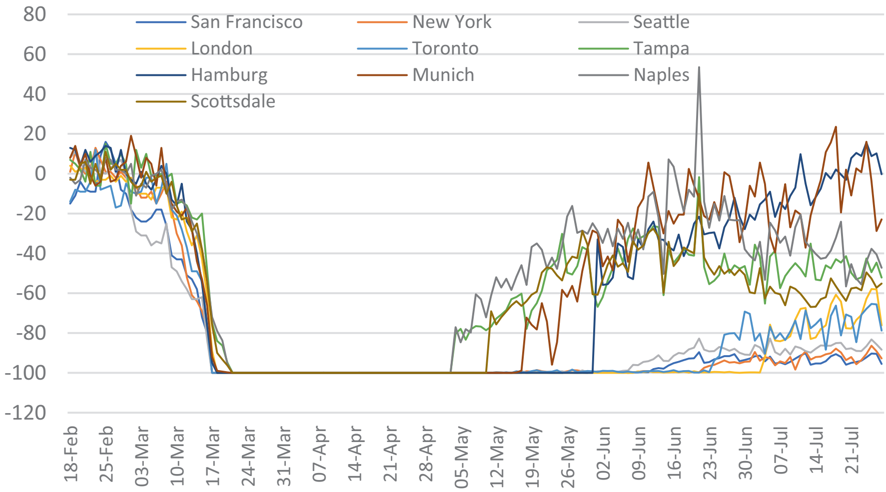

Fig. 13.2 Impact of COVID-19 on year-on-year sit-down dinners – walk-ins and reservations for selected cities. (Source: Authors, Data from OpenTable (2019))

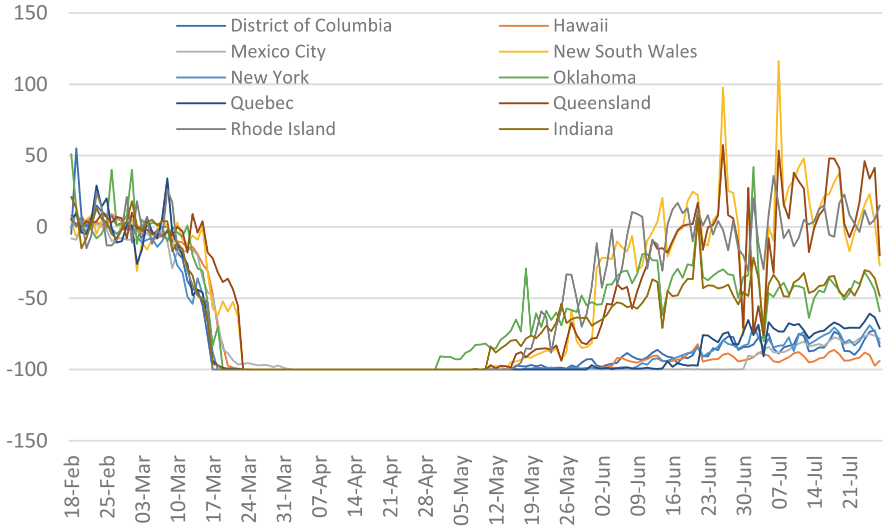

Fig. 13.3 Impact of COVID-19 on year-on-year sit-down dinners – walk in and reservations for selected states/provinces/region. (Source: Authors, Data from OpenTable (2019))

countries and cities and states took a different recovery trajectory depending on government regulations that were prevailing at the time. At a country level, Germany seems to have had a better response to the opening up of the industry, with business reaching and surpassing the previous year's level for the first time since the beginning of the pandemic. In the first episode between the 26th of May 2020 and the beginning of June 2020 sit-in tables fluctuated in negative territories before emerging and going into positive territories at the end of June 2020. Throughout the study in July 2020, there was a better performance, with the uptake of sit-ins higher than the previous year in 2019. The growth in July 2020 recorded as much as 20% more business than in 2019 on some days. Nevertheless, this was not enough to offset losses experienced between March 2020 and May 2020.

On the other hand, Australia witnessed some early recovery early after the opening up of the economy, much earlier than other countries globally, opening up around mid-May 2020 and surpassing the zero mark around the 23rd of June 2020. The sit-in dinners fluctuated between the 23rd of July 2020, moving back into negative territory and recording a peak of close to +60% more business compared to 2019 volumes on the 7th of July 2020 and soon took a downward spiral back into negative territory. By the 9th of July 2020, a decline of −20% was witnessed, maintaining a further downward spiral for the rest of July 2020. By the end of July 2020, only two countries had witnessed a positive growth in sited dinners, namely Germany and Ireland, which all recorded a higher number of seated dinners compared to 2019. Although in other countries under investigation, the uptake of seated dinners started peaking off in mid-May 2020, the recovery remained primarily subdued, with most countries operating below −40% as compared to the previous year, up from near −98% from mid-March 2020 to April 2020. Mexico recorded the lowest number of seated dinners by July 2020.

The picture was almost similar to recovery at a city and state level (Figs. 13.2 and 13.3). At a city level, the city of Hamburg seems to have had a significantly better recovery than other cities as the uptake of the seat is operating near previous levels, with recovery taking place at the end of June 2020. Generally, Munich, Naples and Scottsdale were operating at fluctuating rates of between −20% and −60% between July 2020 and June 2020. Other cities (Fig. 13.2) fluctuated between −90% and −80% between June 2020 and July 2020. In major cities such as London, Toronto and New York, seat in dinners remains subdued as there was a tendency for the cities to have the highest infections due to high mobility, high populations and consequently high transmission rates.

At the state level, the pattern also differs across states (Fig. 13.3) given the variance in infections across US states which also falls under different administrative regimes, all of which adopted different control and containment measures across the states at different periods of the lifecycle of the pandemic. Most states were down close to −100% for seated dinners by mid-March 2020 and began opening early to mid-May 2020. States and provinces or regions where infection rates had fallen had noticed some business rebound at levels better than most ravaged states. New South Wales, for example, in Australia, which was one of the countries to have achieved some early recoveries, had managed to record some huge spikes on certain days and by July 2020 was dovetailing between +50% and minus 20% with the highest number of days largely in the positive territory with the overall average seat in rates at 8% for July 2020. The deep at the end could have been triggered by a slight increase in the number of new infections, which had risen to 19 new imported cases and 91 new local transmissions (NSW Government, 2020).

Other areas where infections had remained comparable low had fallen or somewhat eased off. There was better recovery, for example Queensland had been swinging between negative and positive territories in July 2020, although there was a retreat at the end of the month owing to global fears at that time of a new wave of new infections and resurgence. The overall monthly average for sit in for July 2020 for Rhode Island was 3%. By the end of the month, Rhode Island, which had experienced a peak in infection at the end of April 2020 with 430 infections on a single day, had witnessed declines in daily infections, which reached a peak low in June 2020 and July 2020 where on some days had zero reported infections but had about a daily infection rate of 114 daily infections by the end of July 2020 (The New York Times, 2020). Other regions and states that had recorded monthly average positive include Queensland at 8% and New South Wales at a monthly average of about 8%. In other states or regions, the business had remained subdued, with seats in demand remaining largely in the negative, around less than −70%.

In New York State, for example the business had remained subdued with an average of about 89% since it started efforts to recover on the 14th of March 2020, and for July 2020 was about 78%. New York was one of the most affected states globally by COVID-19. According to NPR (2020), by the end of July 2020, New York had some of the highest infected states in the USA, after California with 492,934, Florida with 461,379 and itself with 414,370 infections. New York also had 2130 infections per thousand people and 168 deaths per thousand people. The number of fatalities in New York stood at 32,683 and had the highest fatality rate in the USA. The threat of infections could have forced many people to avoid areas where the risk of infection was likely to be high as a protection measure. The study confirms the findings by Hall et al. (2020b), who observed changes in spending patterns amongst hospitality consumers due to the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic.

The study findings also confirmed earlier findings by Bae and Chang (2020). They observed that COVID-19 triggered confusion, anxiety and indeed fear, which led to a demand for 'untact' consumption and the corresponding lifestyle, which explains why people were not eager to consume food in restaurants, resulting in negative impacts on restaurants. Levels of fear were high in societies and settings where the pandemic had inflicted huge casualties, and this could lead to a long-term impact on restaurants that offer dine-in services. This demanded that businesses adopt a new approach to remain viable, such as allowing for takeaways, which brought about challenges for business, such as the need for appropriate packaging that allows for food preservations so that it is delivered in near original consumption state and as fresh as possible. More importantly, the packaging had to meet stringent safety and environmental standards. The packaging had to be as environmentally friendly as possible, addressing the previous concerns of high pollution levels from the hospitality and tourism sector, which had been blamed for a host of challenges, including ocean pollution and land pollution in many communities.

To further understand the impact of COVID-19 on the restaurant sector, we used a different sample for the US market, which Rally collected for Restaurants. Rally for Restaurants looked at full restaurants (dine-in) and quick service restaurants (takeaway and delivery). The study found that the restaurant industry was generating about 88% of its revenue from the dine-in option and less than 20% of its revenue from off-premises food options such as takeaways (Fig. 13.4), with early March 2020 witnessing a slump in revenue for dine-in restaurants. By 17 March 2020, most restaurants generated about 50% from dine-in restaurants and 50% from takeout and deliveries. This was days after the disease was declared a pandemic. Following that period, the restaurant industry generated more money from takeaways than dine-ins. This trend continued till 6 June 2020, when there was another switch, resulting in slightly more business for dine-ins, as most states in the USA started to open up their economies.

In June 2020, therefore, dine-in's revenue was slightly above 50%, while home deliveries were hovering around 40%. The need for social distancing and lockdown regulations may have affected diners' consumption patterns and behaviours, as most people preferred to consume food off-premises. It is crucial to note that by the end of July 2020, revenue proceeds from dine-in restaurants were about 58%, whereas that for off-premises was 42%. This is significant given that food consumption was less than 20% off-premises before the pandemic. This shows significant consumption and behaviour patterns amongst consumers, with more people preferring than before preferring off-premises food consumption as the demand for physical and social distancing continued across countries due to the increased dominance of the virus. A different business model that accommodated more off-premises

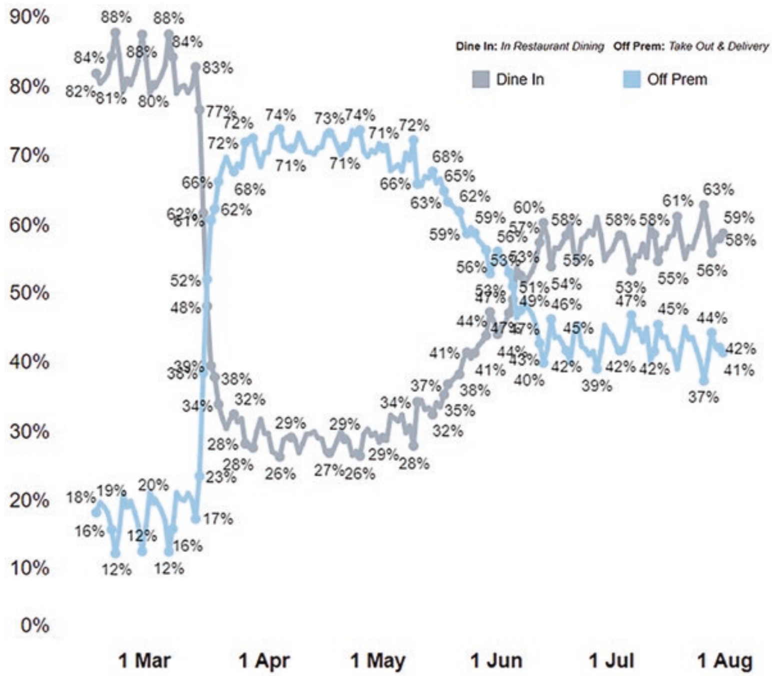

Fig. 13.4 Percentage of revenue by dining options. (Source: Rally for Restaurants (2020b)

consumption was needed to tap into the new adjusted customer behaviour. Home deliveries through the utilisation of some the innovations such as Uber Eats and the use of robots needed to be explored to assist in building some form of business resilience.

Figure 13.4 shows the revenue trends for the restaurant industry in the USA. It shows that, while the industry generated slightly more revenue in February 2020, the situation dramatically changed in March 2020. In line with the trends observed earlier, the declaration of COVID-19 as a pandemic triggered a decline in revenue, with revenue showing a record low of more than 80% decline between March 2020 and April 2020. For the entire April 2020, revenue collection fluctuated around ±75%. In May 2020, revenue collection slightly improved, which improved from −60% to about 50% on a same-day comparison of the same period in 2019. In June 2020, the average revenue improved to about −50% compared to a similar period in the year 2019. The strict lockdown had a huge knock-on effect on revenue collection. The impacts were felt even after the relaxation of the lockdown, as revenue did not suddenly improve in most cases. There is an anticipation that the recovery process in the USA will be slow with most businesses recording a lot less business than they recorded in 2019, as seen in Fig. 13.5. This means there was continued demand for government and other support to ensure business continuity, and some protection was offered to restaurants operating way below average. The continued subdued performance means that businesses continued to make losses and operating below capacity also means fewer employees were needed resulting in employee vulnerabilities to layoffs.

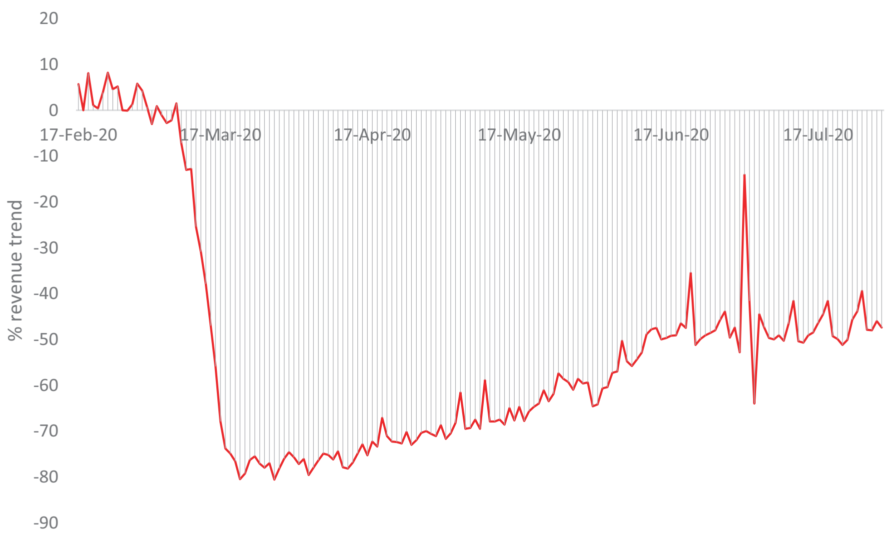

Fig. 13.5 Average daily revenue trend due to the impact of COVID-19 on American restaurants. (Source: Authors, Data from Rally for Restaurants (2020a, b))

The study also examined the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on major restaurant share performances. The market chart (Fig. 13.6) shows that, in the main, the shares were negatively affected by the lockdown. The most significant drop was in mid-March 2020, with some counters falling as much as −60%, in the case of Restaurant Brand International (RBI) restaurants. RBI is the owner of 27,000 restaurants in more than 100 countries and US territories and the owners of brands like Burger King®, Tim Hortons® and Popeyes® (RBI, 2020). Yum Brands is a fast-food company with over 50,000 restaurants in more than 150 countries and territories and the owners of KFC, Pizza Hut, Taco Bell and the Habit Burger Grill (Yum, 2020).

Yum Brands saw its market value drop in mid-March 2020 by about −50%. On the other hand, the global giant MacDonald's Corporation's shares dropped by about −35% during the same period. At the same time, most fast-food restaurants seem to have suffered from the impact of COVID-19, including Domino's Pizza Inc. (Fig. 13.6), seems to have somewhat managed to resist the impact of the pandemic, with its share price remaining in the positive territories during the shock that was experienced by the sector in March 2020. The share price quickly shot up, reversing all the losses earlier experienced, and recorded its peak values in the past 11 months. Chipotle Mexican Grill also seems to have gained during the pandemic, recording the largest growth in the 11 months. Yum China Holdings also shows that it has recovered from the previous setbacks, while the rest of the companies are still battling to recover lost value. This could be attributed to the People's Republic of China being the first country to open up its economy, and there was some semblance of a return to business during the period under review.

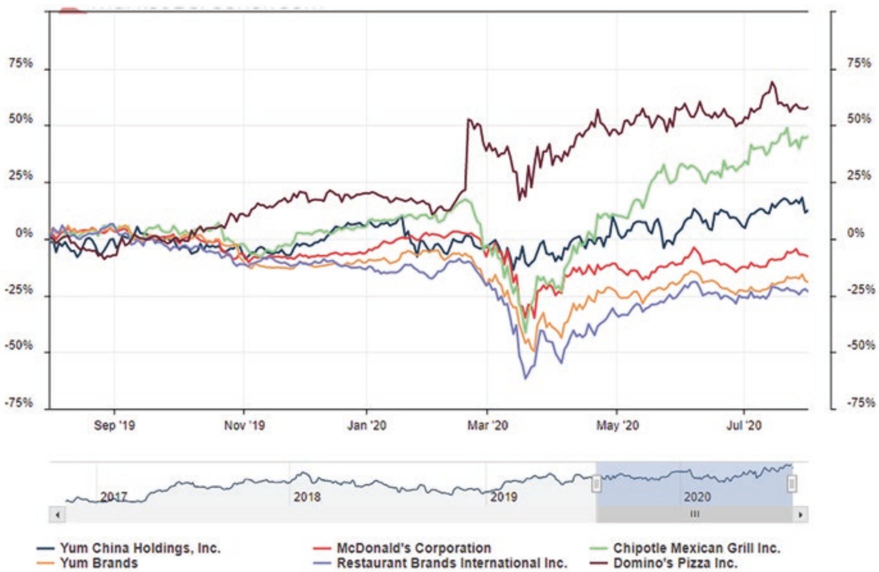

Fig. 13.6 Quick service restaurants share performance under COVID-19. (Source: Market Screnner (2020))

MacDonald's Corporation, Restaurant Brands International Inc. and Yum Brands remain in the negative territory as they battle to recover from the lost ground at the pandemic's peak. This could reflect a lack of confidence due to a decline in business in the USA's main market, as already discussed earlier. It is important to note that this study confirms the observations made by Zhang et al. (2020), who observed strong market volatility linked to individual country infection rates and policy interventions but, most notably, the risk of losses in a highly unpredictable market. Ashraf (2020) also reported a negative response of the stock market linked to a spike in infection rates.

13.5 Discussion

Due to the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic, the National Restaurant Association (NRA) reported that the restaurant industry lost more than eight million jobs between March and April 2020, with employees being laid off or furloughed, representing about 66% of the jobs in the sector. Over the same period, about $80 billion was lost from loss of sales revenue, with the figure for March 2020 alone amounting to $30 billion, and for April 2020, $50 billion (National Restaurant Association, 2020a). About 40% of the restaurants were shut down due to the impact of the lockdown in response to the pandemic. The trend was not unique to the restaurant industry, as preliminary studies show that the coronavirus pandemic also had a significant impact on other tourism sectors such as hotels, airlines, tourist arrivals and jobs in the entire tourism value chain (Foo et al., 2020; Nicola et al., 2020; Dube et al., 2020).

In July 2020, the NRA brought up a blueprint for restaurant revival in the USA (NRA, 2020b) that they presented to Congress. The action plan presents both short-term and long-term relief to restart the industry. In the short term, they already passed US$120 billion Recovery and Revitalisation Fund which was created as a relief for the food service entities. The NRA was now calling for the second instalment as a Payback Protection Programme (PPP). The PPP would enshrine a tax-deductible for small businesses. However, a long-term loan programme was conceptualised to address liquidity issues in the industry. Such a programme would cover a minimum of 6 months of operating costs, including payroll. The loan programme should also allow deferred payments, low-interest rates, long-term maturity and a federal government guarantee.

Furthermore, there should be an enhanced employee retention tax credit for restaurants to keep employees on the payroll. Given that restaurants need working capital for operations, PPE and other expenses, the NRA proposes that Congress replenish funding in the blueprint. Other proposals include ensuring stability in the food supply chain, including prioritising access to COVID-19 testing and vaccine distribution for the supply chain. In addition, there is a proposal to enact payroll tax relief for essential workers in the food supply chain. Lastly, as part of the NRA's corporate social responsibility and to grow future trust, the blueprint advocates for assistance in supporting at-risk communities through food parcels and other means. Those defined as at-risk include senior citizens, children and low-income Americans.

The pandemic has exposed the vulnerability of the restaurant industry to epidemics and pandemics, and, with fears that the worst is not over yet, in the absence of COVID-19 treatment and vaccine, the restaurant industry remained vulnerable. This study confirms earlier studies that have pointed out the sector's vulnerability to natural disasters and biosecurity threats (Hall, 2011; Bhaskara et al., 2020). It would seem very few lessons were learnt from past epidemics and pandemics, as earlier proposed by the likes of Lee et al. (2012) and Paraskevas and Altinay (2013).

The restaurants remain vulnerable to outbreaks at their premises, which can disrupt the business flow, as this will require the fumigation of premises and COVID-19 patient contact tracing. In the event of infection on-premises, this will lead to closures, disrupting the little business that is currently flowing. In the same breath, where employees are either infected or affected, there could be a requirement for all employees to be tested to ensure the health and safety of the clients. There is a clear indication of a depressed market, which could be attributed to poor purchasing power, triggered by the high unemployment caused by job layoffs, furloughs and the announced economic recession, which is feared to be the worst in history (Dube et al., 2020). On the other hand, depressed sales could result from customers' anxiety and fear of consuming or getting food, where there is a risk that the invisible enemy of the coronavirus can infect diners. The sector is, therefore, confronted by a huge challenge to stay open to remaining viable during the pandemic. It will take some effort to lure customers back to eateries. This might mean increased efforts in marketing and a change in business practices that would inspire customer confidence. Restaurants have to think of innovative ways to future-proof their businesses, to some extent, from the uncertainties of doing business. The entire business model for restaurants might need to be reoriented to ensure that it is COVID-19 compliant.

Evidence before us seems to suggest that restaurants that offered takeaways were less impacted than those that offered the dine-in option only. The home delivery business model has seen some phenomenal growth during the pandemic. Since the pandemic might be here for a while, there is a need for investment and improvement of the home delivery system that provides fast and efficient delivery of meals. The use of vehicles and scooters might need to be enhanced as well as the use of drones. Drones ensure the reduction of human-to-human contact, protecting both the restaurant employees and consumers. Where delivery is used, there is a need for specific protocols to be put in place to ensure that the risk of transmission is lowered or curtailed altogether. To achieve this, there is a need for the sector to consider four principal aspects, namely managing employee health, increasing focus on employee hygiene, focusing on operations in the food-service establishment and managing the food pickup and delivery process. Similar measures are recommended for wider industry adoption by the National Restaurant Association (2020a).

Ongoing mandatory daily screening could be something that restaurants consider. Restaurants may also wish to institute weekly staff testing to reduce the risk of disease being spread by employees to customers. Ensuring that sick employees, or those who could have been exposed to people infected with COVID-19, stay at home, is a good option. This can be done without the risk of employees losing their income. While at work, employees should be encouraged to strictly adhere to continuous sanitisation and cleaning of hands and all surfaces that customers usually touch, such as door handles and counters, to add another layer of protection and protective wear, such as face masks. The need for social distancing among employees cannot be overemphasised, and this can assist in reducing the risk of employee-to-employee transmission. During delivery, it is imperative to keep physical distance, avoid contact with the customers as much as possible, and continually disinfect and routinely clean containers used in food delivery.

Dube et al. (2020) suggest that, where possible, technology can be deployed in some of these tasks, which might see the deployment of robots. Robots could be used to ensure deep cleaning of restaurant facilities and making food. There was also a call to reduce contact when making and facilitating payments and other payment systems that required the physical exchange of cash through the introduction of QR codes. Physical menu cards could be disposed of and replaced with electronic boards to reduce contact. While other food dispensers, such as tomato sauce bottles and saltshakers, which are rotated between customers, are replaced with smaller sachets used only by one customer.

Protocols, developed by the WTTC, centre the success of the opening up of the tourism economy on ensuring the safety of clients by adopting a raft of protocols, which takes into consideration the social distancing of guests, continuous disinfection of tables and other amenities used by diners in a restaurant (WTTC, 2020). There is also a need to provide financial relief to the sector to allow it to navigate and deliver a safe place for dining. This call is crucial, particularly to support small to medium enterprises, which might not have had enough cash to see them through these difficult times instigated by a coronavirus. In some destinations, however, a total opening of the borders allowing for the international movement was a must to ensure that the businesses have enough clients to keep business going as some restaurants were largely fuelled by international tourists.

13.6 Conclusions

This study sought to investigate, assess and track signs of recovery in the restaurant industry from the fallout of the COVID-19 pandemic. This study found that the pandemic took a severe toll on the restaurant sector in Europe, the Americas and Australasia, resulting from the government's lockdowns and regulations that required social and physical distancing. The most significant impact of the pandemic was experienced at the beginning of March 2020, and by the time the disease was declared a pandemic, it took about a week for the industry to fall to historically low levels. This resulted in severe revenue loss. However, the industry started to open up in May 2020, although, by that time, many people had already lost their jobs. The dine-in restaurants were worst affected by the pandemic, while those with drive-through and pickup facilities were less affected. Most probably, for the first time in history, revenue from takeaways outpaced revenue from sit-down restaurants.

As the tourism and hospitality industry opened, various countries and cities witnessed some recovery, with Germany and Australia seemingly having taken an early lead. However, it is clear that the recovery process is rather volatile, as spikes of highs and lows mark it. Business activity in some global coronavirus hotspots, such as London and New York, shows that the recovery process will be slow and long. Therefore, the recovery of the restaurant industry in some destinations will likely be closely intertwined with how fast the market opens up to international tourism and the appetite of the public to travel globally. Resilience for the sector seems to be hinged on initiatives that ensure social and physical distancing, as well as efficient delivery systems that can supply fresh food. The pandemic resulted in a compromised revenue base for restaurants, and there is an urgent need for continued support for the sector, either as concessionaries, reduced tax, tax incentives and recapitalisation, through a cash injection from shareholders, to turn the corner. Given their role in income generation and employment creation, restaurants should remain on the government and other relief organisations' radars. Future studies need to focus on initiatives to build the resilience of the sector to future shocks similar to COVID-19 in the restaurant industry.

Given the foregoing future, studies can be conducted that focusses on challenges faced by the restaurant industry as the industry makes full recovery. Such studies will provide critical learnings for such future events and pave way for policy and support for the industry.

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Part IV
Tourism Industry Recovery and Prospects of a Post COVID-19 Proofing

Chapter 14
Text Mining Tweets on Post-COVID-19 Sustainable Tourism: A Social Media Network and Sentiment Analysis

Dongdong Wu, Hui Li, Yueqing Li, and Yuhong Wang

Abstract The primary purpose of this chapter is to get to know the public attitude towards sustainable tourism after COVID-19 and its polarity or emotion. Using Twitter Archiving Google Sheet, 6718 tweets were collected from July 11 to August 10, 2021, with the hashtags #covid19 and #tourism, #sustainabletourism or #eco-tourism or #responsibletourism. Tableau and Gephi were used to visualise and aggregate the social media network. Using R Studio, the word frequency, association and sentiment analysis were carried out. The main findings are as follows: (1) retweets take most of all data; (2) media accounts are more visible and active than individual ones in the community network; (3) the "trust" emotion and "anticipation" emotion are dominant in the tweets. Besides, this chapter also tried to use related social behaviour theories to explain the observed social media user behaviours. Practical implications have also been provided to dissolve people's psychological and emotional problems and enhance people's confidence in tourism recovery.

Keywords Post-COVID-19 · Sustainable tourism · Text mining · Social media network · Twitter · Sentiment analysis

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14.1 Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic has wreaked havoc on the tourism industry, particularly on tourists' fears and risk perceptions (Balasubramanian et al., 2021). In the age of big data, public perceptions towards post-COVID-19 sustainable tourism is an important area of investigation, which could influence the development direction of e-tourism with information and communication technologies (ICTs). For example, public opinions and perceptions could spread rapidly with the help of ICTs and influence actual individual behaviours or community involvement. To explore the recovery of tourism in the post-COVID-19 era, sustainability may be an important research topic (Dube et al., 2021). The unique features of social media are that it connects contributors and audiences through conversations that can occur in real-time (Segerberg & Bennett, 2011). Social media application programming interfaces make it possible to gather data around specific hashtags and keywords and reveal the hashtag public that forms around current issues or events. Twitter, for example, is less controlled than surveys, but it represents a much larger sample and provides an almost real-time index of perception (Weller et al., 2014). With a focus on post-COVID-19 sustainable tourism-related hashtags, all the above features make Twitter the ideal place for real-time collection and new data analysing and conducting real-life research.

However, the data produced by social media, huge in size and noisy, needs to be summarized and converted into interpretable forms so that the information contained can be utilized for practical purposes (Wu et al., 2020). Sentiment analysis (or opinion mining) has been one of the most active fields for natural language processing (NLP) research. Since its inception, the NLP research has expanded significantly (Liu, 2015). Balasubramanian et al. (2021) examined post-COVID-19 tourist concerns using sentiment analysis and topic modelling, but semi-structured survey data could be subject to subjectivity. Besides, automated sentiment analysis has been used to extract public opinion from various sources (Kiritchenko et al., 2014). As a typical user-generated content (UGC), tweets (maximum 140 characters) are short and informal and often contain slang and emotion. Thus, a higher sentiment analysis accuracy for tweets is frequently easier to achieve. In this context, our primary purpose is to get to know the public attitude toward sustainable tourism after COVID-19 and its polarity or emotion.

Despite Twitter's potential as a data source, only very few researchers have researched its use for analysing sustainable tourism after COVID-19. Twitter data can supplement and extend information on big data and tourism research. This chapter contributes to further exploring the tweets mining of post-COVID-19 sustainable tourism through social media networks and sentiment analysis. Specific research questions include the following: (1) Why does a specific type of information spread widely via Twitter? (2) What type of sentiments are expressed towards the topic-related tweets? (3) How do social behaviour theories explain the observed social media user behaviours? In the next two sections, the literature review and methodology are introduced, respectively. Then, the result and discussions are provided regarding the research topic. Finally, we conclude this research and provide policy implications for the recovery of tourism.

14.2 Literature Review

14.2.1 Study on COVID-19 and Sustainable Tourism

While the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic has been thoroughly examined, there has been very little attention paid to the social media network and sentimental reaction, particularly on post-COVID-19 sustainable tourism. COVID-19 is widely recognised as a challenge or even a game-changer for travel and tourism (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020; Nhamo et al., 2020). Serval studies have investigated the sustainable and competitive issues of tourism destinations (Wu & Li, 2021; Wu et al., 2022b), but the situation has changed in the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic crisis. Some studies focused on the recovery of tourism-related industries, such as national COVID-19 exit strategies for tourism (Collins-Kreiner & Ram, 2021) and the impact of public health emergencies on hotel demand (He et al., 2022).

Sustainable tourism has been deemed a driving force of the tourism industry in the post- COVID-19 scenario (Palacios-Florencio et al., 2021). Several studies discussed whether a shift of tourism towards a higher level of sustainability or not under the COVID-19 crisis (Romagosa, 2020; Tauber & Bausch, 2022). However, it is rare to find the analysis of post-COVID-19 sustainable tourism-related topics based on social media. Academics have found that social media data is of great value. It reflects what people think, and the data is large enough to access. For example, Kim and Chae (2018) explored the relationship between social media usage and hotel performance using firm-generated tweets. Therefore, text information from social media (i.e. Twitter) can be used to supplement data sources and provides direct insights into public perceptions of post-COVID-19 sustainable tourism.

14.2.2 Study on Social Media Network and Sentiment Analysis

Social networks represent a challenging emerging sector in the context of big data: The natural language expressions of people can be easily reported through short text messages, rapidly creating unique content of huge dimensions that must be efficiently and effectively analysed to create actionable knowledge for decision-making processes (Pozzi et al., 2016). Text mining includes the collection, analysis and study of frequencies of words and recognition of patterns to support visualisation and predictive analytics. It has been applied in a wide variety of fields, such as job advertisements (Pejic-Bach et al., 2020), customer service (Mahr et al., 2019), customer complaints (Hu et al., 2019), tourist perceived experience (Li et al., 2020) and online hotel or travel reviews (Berezina et al., 2016; Guerreiro & Rita, 2020; Hou et al., 2019), amongst others.

In addition, limited research has been conducted using sentiment analysis in sustainable tourism studies in a post-COVID-19 context. Sentiment analysis is an analysis of the information extracted to identify reactions, situations, contexts and emotions (Thelwall, 2019). In this chapter, it refers to the practice of applying NLP and text analysis techniques to identify and extract subjective information from post-COVID-19 sustainable tourism-related tweets. It has been used to analyse short informal texts and monitor emotions, such as on Weibo and WeChat, but data from the Twitter platform (with a wider coverage) has not been considered (Kirilenko et al., 2018; Mohammad et al., 2015). For post-COVID-19 sustainable tourism research, it is crucial to gain important insights from opinions expressed online, particularly from social media blogs (i.e. Tweets).

While the statistical representation can effectively capture information on different parameters in a database, text mining aims to capture and provide a coherent overview of content in various areas (Cambria et al., 2017). In social media studies of hospitality and tourism, Xiang et al. (2017) comparatively explore data quality. Database research frequently suffers from the inability to record public exposure, which can cause an estimate to be inaccurate. Online surveys and questionnaires can gather subjective results, but they cannot reflect the actual sentiment and public perceptions (Qian et al., 2019). Hence, the visualisation of user interaction and mapping of community networks using UGC from social media shall be an exploratory vision.

14.3 Methodology

Data collection and preprocessing are necessary initial steps for text mining. Then, we focus on the research topic through social media networks and sentiment analysis. Figure 14.1 explains the methodology and framework of this research, which is designed by the authors.

14.3.1 Data Collection

Twitter Archiving Google Sheet (TAGS) was adopted to collect the Twitter tweets of research interest. Tweets can be sampled in real-time over a predefined period using user-defined hashtag search terms. Sampled from July 11, 2021, to August 10, 2021, we collected 6718 tweets (5987 unique tweets) with a focus on post-COVID-19 sustainable tourism using the hashtags #covid19 and #tourism, #sustainabletourism or #ecotourism or #responsibletourism. Google spreadsheet stores

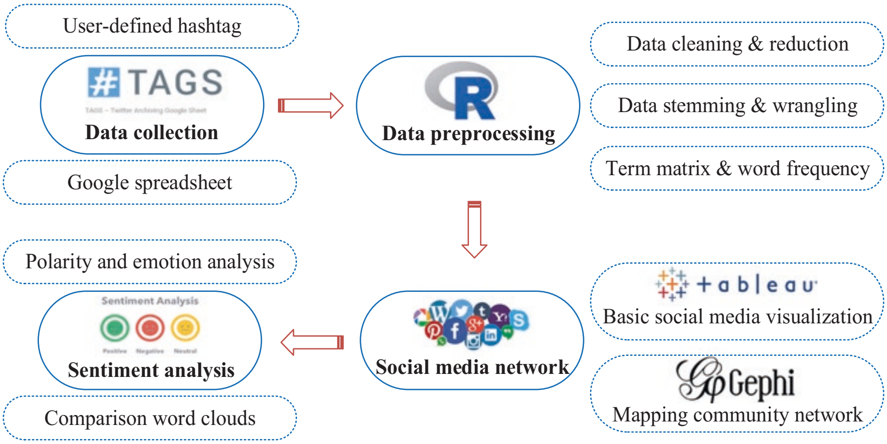

Fig. 14.1 Research methodology and framework

the following related data: Twitter ID and username, tweet content and generated time, user follower and user-friend count, etc.

14.3.2 Data Preprocessing

In order to transform the unstructured raw text into a format for identifying patterns, preprocessing is necessary (Feldman & Sanger, 2007). R Studio is a free and open-source integrated development environment for R, and its featured 'packages' are utilised for data preprocessing.

Data cleaning and reduction The 'tm' package uses the 'Corpus' function to create a corpus (Feinerer & Hornik, 2019). To clean the corpus, unwanted characters (such as '&amp', 'RT|via', 'http\\w+', etc.) were removed. Then, independent terms (words) are created, and tokenization is conducted by splitting text into tokens. The entire text is converted to lowercase, removing URLs, emojis, non-English words, punctuations, numbers and whitespace. With the help of the 'SnowballC' package (Bouchet-Valet, 2019), stop words (e.g., 'the' and 'a') are removed using the stop words dictionary.

Data stemming and wrangling Stemming collects similar words in one word to improve the accuracy of the mined text by removing suffixes and reducing words to their fundamental forms. Data wrangling is also carried out, which promoted the process of cleaning up data and removing redundancy. 'tidyr' and 'dplyr' packages, great and simple data wrangling tools, were used to implement this process.

Term matrix and word frequency Using the stemmed terms, a document-term matrix (DTM) has been created in which the rows match documents, i.e. tweets, and the columns reflect the terms., i.e. words (Liu, 2015). The DTM describes the frequency of terms that occur in a collection of documents. The frequency of words indicates that from the word that is used most often in the dataset to the one that is least used when compiling DTM occurrences.

14.3.3 Social Media Network

A business data analysis tool, Tableau Desktop Professional Edition, was used to achieve meaningful results from the tweets. The basic statistics of tweets, including tweet content, temporal trends, retweets, tweet reach, user activity, user visibility and secondary hashtags, are examined using Tableau.

Gephi, an open-source network visualisation software, was adopted to map the virtual clusters (Qian et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2020). The number of interactions between users determines the distance between users and followers. The linkages between Twitter users are generated as a spatial map with the help of the Forceatlas2 algorithm, which embeds in the network software (Jacomy et al., 2014).

14.3.4 Sentiment Analysis

The 'syuzhet' package is loaded into R Studio to analyse the polarities, which can be converted into categorical variables 'positive', 'neutral' and 'negative' (Jockers, 2017). The 'get_nrc_sentiment' function in the 'syuzhet' library is used to get an analysis of emotions using the text that is being tested and divide the emotions into eight categories. The function calculates the presence of emotions: 'anger', 'anticipation', 'disgust', 'fear', 'joy', 'sadness', 'surprise', 'trust' and overall 'negative' and 'positive' sentiment scores.

The 'ggplot2' package (Wickham & Chang, 2019), known as the grammar of graphics, is used to further visualize our results from the sentiment analysis. The 'word cloud' package is used to find out the words that were most commonly associated with each emotion, as well as with each polarity. The analysis of independent word associations with the 'findAssocs' function provides information about post-COVID-19 sustainable tourism that goes beyond typical experimental results.

14.4 Result and Discussions

14.4.1 Social Media Visualization Analysis

Three types of tweets, i.e. @mention (14.34%), original (31.47%) and retweet (54.19%), are presented in Fig. 14.2 during the study period. *Agenda setting theory* examines why information about some issues, but not others, is available to the

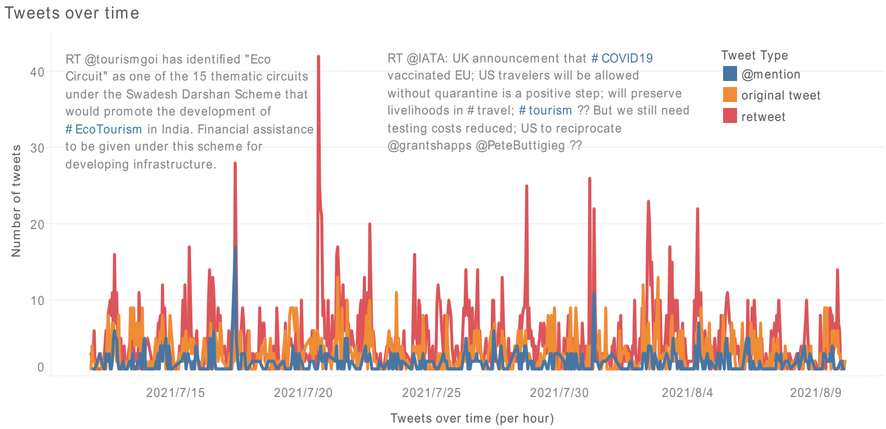

Fig. 14.2 The temporal trends of tweets per hour

public and how public opinion is changed (McCombs & Valenzuela, 2020). Therefore, mass communication can influence public perceptions of a specific theme. Retweets take most of all data, which ensures increased exposure to valuable information. The fluctuation of these three is synchronous, basically as a whole. Spikes indicate specific events of interest for the topic.

During the study period, the type of ‘retweet’ is the most, compared with ‘@ mention’ and ‘original tweet’. On July 17th, the widely retweeted tweet posts the news that financial support will help ecotourism development in India. On July 20th, another hot retweet says that the United Kingdom (UK) hopes to reduce the costs of COVID-19 vaccination to preserve livelihoods in travel. The above tweet texts are inserted in Fig. 14.2.

Table 14.1 shows the top five messages that are most worthy of sharing, and the range of propagation and most followed users, respectively. Retweet indicates the frequency of retweeting activity on a specific tweet. While tweet reach represents the number of followers that each tweet potentially could have reached. We can find that most tweets appeared prominently in both lists: they have achieved wide reach because they have been retweeted by many users with substantial follower networks.

The tweet texts listed in Table 14.1 highlight the popular topics about post-COVID-19 sustainable tourism that is eco-tourism destination recommendations, concerns about COVID-19 vaccination, suggestions for sustainable tourism and attention to the practice of ecological tourism construction. *Planned behaviour theory* points out that the best way to predict and explain a person’s behaviours is through one’s behavioural intentions (Ajzen, 1991). These popular topics may be an indication of the way things are going.

As shown in Fig. 14.3, the distribution of the secondary hashtags by day indicates the different preferences and habits of Twitter users over time. The topic of daily tweets during the study period can be represented by several secondary hashtags represented by stacked colour blocks. That is to say, secondary hashtags

Table 14.1 Top five retweets and tweet reach

Retweet	Tweet reach	Text
98 (1)	23,382 (3)	RT @user: Odisha, an eco-tourism destination that the nature-lover in you can't afford to miss! #EcoTourism #DekhoApnaDesh
72 (2)	7483 (5)	RT @user: UK announcement that #COVID19 vaccinated EU; US travellers will be allowed without quarantine is a positive step; will preserve livelihoods in #travel; #tourism?? But we still need testing costs reduced; US to reciprocate
67 (3)	97,359 (1)	RT @user: We can all take small steps this summer?? to reduce?? and help make #tourism greener! Here are our 5 tips to make your holidays more #sustainable?? #EUClimatePact #MyWorldOurPlanet #sustainabletourism
63 (4)	41,590 (2)	RT @user: The user has identified "Eco Circuit" as one of the 15 thematic circuits under the Swadesh Darshan Scheme that would promote the development of #EcoTourism in India. Financial assistance to be given under this scheme for developing infrastructure
60 (5)	12,725 (4)	RT @user: Nakta Pahad in McCluskieganj located on Chhotanagpur Plateau is every traveller's dream pursuit! #EcoTourism #DekhoApnaDesh

Note: The numbers in parentheses indicate the order of the tweets

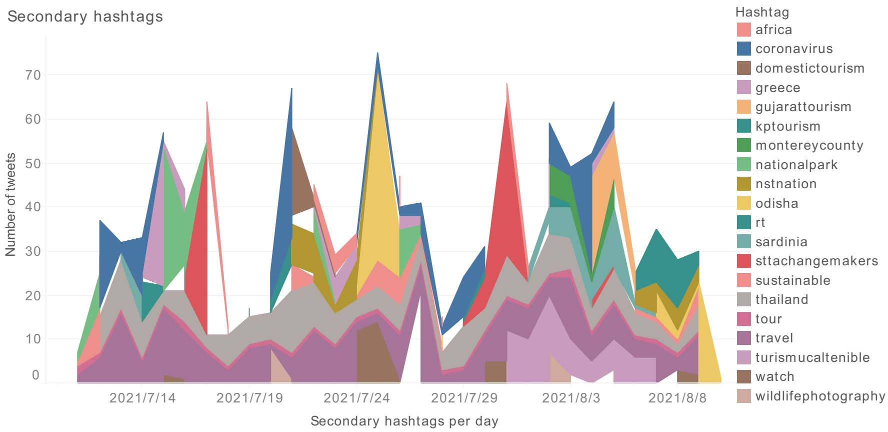

Fig. 14.3 The distribution of the top 20 secondary hashtags by day

can explain events or topics related to the topic of this research, and the degree to which they are related. As can be seen from Fig. 14.3, the contributions of hashtags # 'travel' and # 'Thailand' to the topic during the study period are continuous. We will dig deeper into this connection in the following paragraphs.

14.4.2 Mapping the Community Network

As shown in Fig. 14.4, the visible and active users are the statistic of the number of tweets from different users. The most followed users may not appear as the most active or most visible, but their large follower numbers may make them influential.

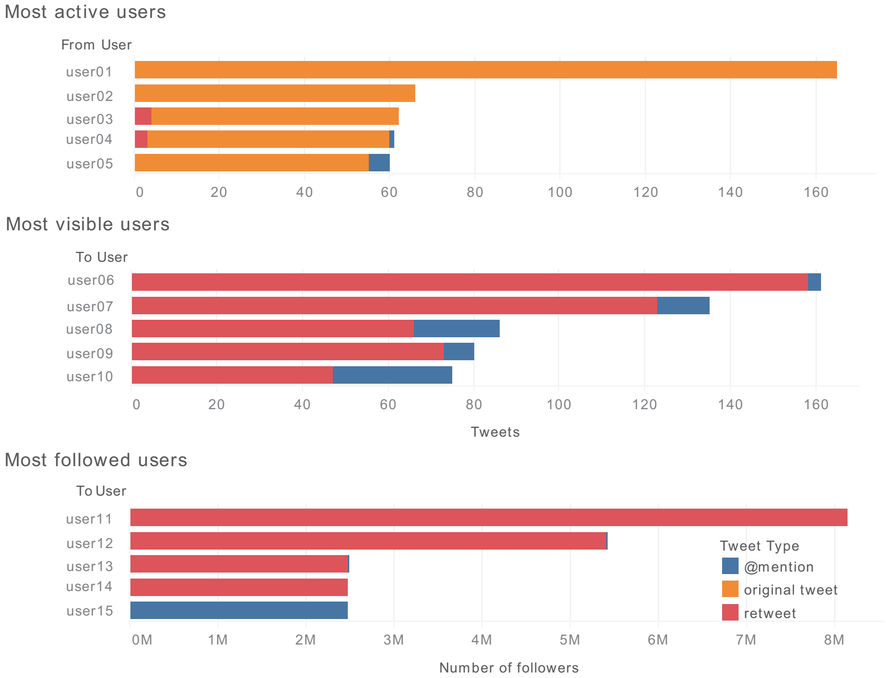

Fig. 14.4 The most visible, active and followed Twitter users

During the study period, the most active user is 'user01', which is a personal account spreading original tweets about travel experiences in Bangkok. User with ID being 'user06' is most visible, which is a media account aiming at propagandising the geography, humanity and tourism culture of India. The most followed user is 'user11', which is a marketing account focusing on recommending daily doses of travel, style, art, culture, food and healthy living.

Social network theory points out that people tend to think and behave similarly because they are connected (Wasserman & Faust, 1994). Figure 14.5 shows some major network trends based on the visualisation of the sustainable tourism community. The dots represent user accounts, and the edges represent the connections. A key concept of social network theory is 'centrality' and examines how being at the central point in a social network is the most 'popular'.

Six major clusters are visualised, which take 'gtpgr', 'traveltomorrow', 'sttakenya', 'incredibleindia', 'gujarattourism' and 'odhiamboatieno' as the core, respectively. These are either media accounts which post news about sustainable tourism or individual users who recommend eco-tourism destinations. These user networks are also embedded in Fig. 14.5, representing different roles in exploring the topic of post-COVID-19 sustainable tourism.

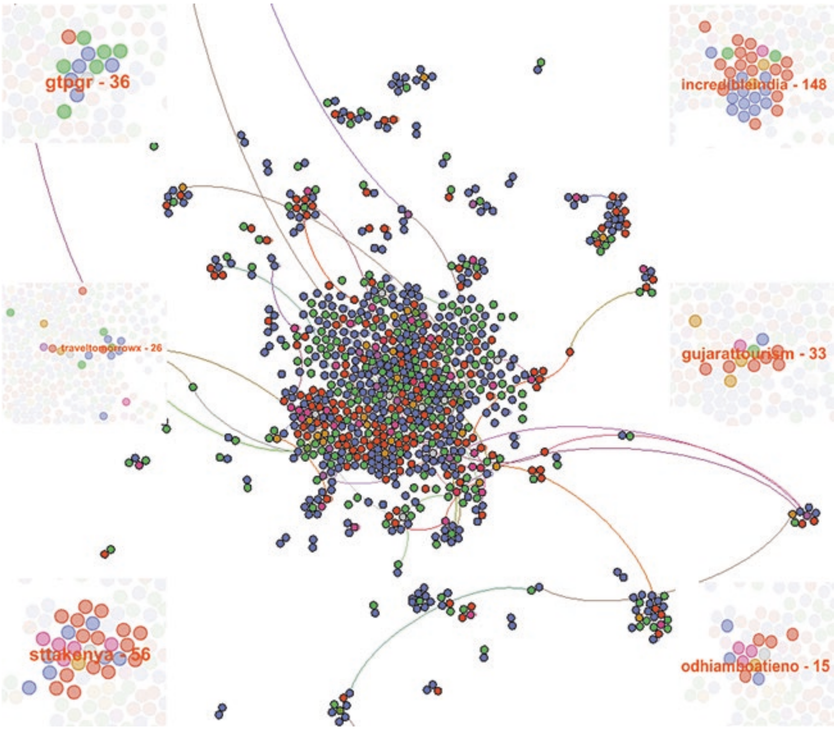

Fig. 14.5 Sustainable tourism network community map

14.4.3 Word Frequency and Association

The frequency of the word is the times that word is used in the dataset. The left side of Fig. 14.6 shows the word cloud, which represents the frequency of words that appeared top 100 in the tweet texts. The words ‘tourism’ (3909 times) and ‘covid’ (3009 times) are highly associated with the defined hashtags directly. Other words like ‘ecotourism’, ‘travel’, ‘sustainabletourism’, ‘coronavirus’ and ‘responsibletourism’ focus on the research topic well.

The association analysis based on the word ‘delta’ with other terms is carried out to dig deeper into the ‘connection’ mentioned above. The right side of Fig. 14.6 shows the correlation coefficients ranked top 10. It is evident that the delta variant leads to travel restrictions and an increase in COVID-19 cases in Thailand. The analysis of word frequency and association can help better understand how a pandemic affects public attention and perceived risks. COVID-19 poses a major obstacle to travel, and the following tweets can describe the causality properly.

‘Covid cases pass 750,000 as rate dips Sunday.’
‘100,000 retailers might cease operations without government support.’
‘Thailand recorded over 20,000 Covid-19 cases for the fourth day in a row on Saturday.’

Fig. 14.6 The word cloud and association of stemmed terms in tweets

#Thailand #Bangkok #Phuket #Samui #Pattaya #Ayutthaya #covid19 #coronavirus #lockdown #vaccine #travel #tourism #delta #curfew

14.4.4 Polarity and Emotion Analysis

Polarity in sentiment analysis refers to identifying sentiment orientation (positive, neutral and negative) in tweet texts. The sentiment score of neutral polarity (1186) is slightly higher than negative polarity (1009), and the sentiment score of positive polarity (4523) is the highest. However, the meaning of the crucial term "neutral sentiment" remains different, and the proper explanations still need to be explored (Liu, 2015).

Emotion analysis with the 'nrc' lexicon is shown on the right side of Fig. 14.7. The 'trust' emotion and 'anticipation' emotion are dominant in the tweets, with a score of 4435 and 4138, respectively. Followed by the 'joy' and 'fear' emotions with scores of 3461 and 2047, respectively. *Social learning theory* (Bandura & Walters, 1977) believes that individuals can influence each other, and all the observed perceptions (including emotional contagion) from social media users will generate the dominant emotions. Through text mining and emotion analysis, we can perceive that the public's attitude towards post-COVID-19 sustainable tourism is positive (i.e. trust, anticipation) as a whole.

The dominant words in different categories can give a specific cognitive sentiment intuitively. The words 'covid', 'pandemic', 'pollution' and 'costs' are obvious on the left side of Fig. 14.7. The words mentioned above mainly represent the 'fear', 'sadness' and 'disgust emotions vividly. In addition, it also reflects the public's sensitivity and aversion to the bad situation of COVID-19. This illustrates that the vision of sustainable tourism is intertwined with the intermittent spread of COVID-19. Sustainable tourism amid the pandemic will be a long quest.

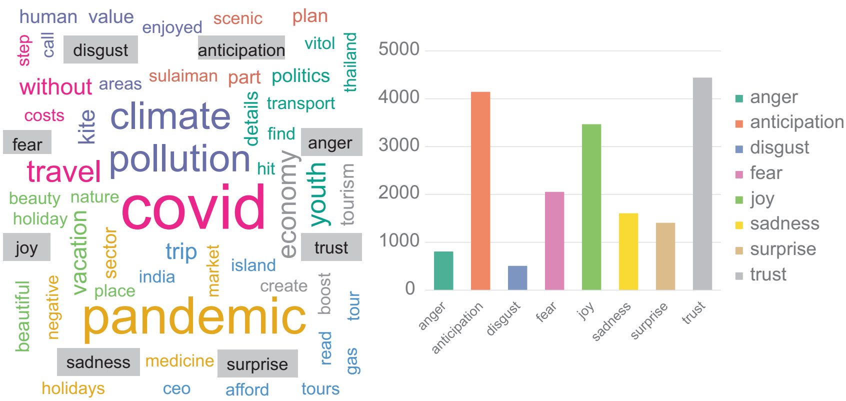

Fig. 14.7 Sentiment scores and word clouds are associated with each emotion

14.5 Conclusion and Policy Implications

14.5.1 Conclusion

COVID-19 has affected the tourism industry in many ways. At the same time, travel and tourism activities have also enabled the pandemic to become a global issue (Dube et al., 2021). This research aimed to understand public perceptions on the trends of post-COVID-19 sustainable tourism and uncover meaningful themes of concerns posted by Twitter users during the post-COVID-19 era. The result also confirms that the sentiment influences people's activities on Twitter, which is also correlated to the news coverage of popular tweets and the daily number of infections (Zhang et al., 2021). In addition, the analysis results can be used as a case to demonstrate that social-behavioural theory can well explain specific social media user behaviours.

This research remained some limitations that can be improved in future work. Firstly, there is necessary to add more related hashtags and lengthen the study period to enrich the tweets' dataset. Besides, how the sentiment score varies across time is also a deserved topic to study. Secondly, there is a need to further explore NLP to understand the semantics of text in different and complex contexts. It is prospective to conduct aspect-based sentiment analysis including sensitivity to context, subjectivity and tone, comparisons, irony and sarcasm. Thirdly, diverse machine learning methods can be applied to learn the correct sentiment value from a set of input features. Combining advanced machine learning techniques to create classifiers and train tweet samples is a burgeoning research direction (Hofmann & Chisholm, 2016).

14.5.2 Policy Implications

Since the COVID-19 outbreak, social media has become the most important channel for the public to obtain information (Yu et al., 2021). The exploration of social media networks and the sentiment analysis of the public can provide policy enlightenment for the recovery of tourist destinations. Government departments of tourism destinations should pay attention to collecting and releasing information related to the event and accumulating data that can reflect the emotional response of large-scale groups towards COVID-19 (Hou et al., 2020).

Tourism destination managers should pay attention to the gathering of social media networks and play a leading role to spread positive images of tourism destinations. In the post-COVID-19 era, individuals' emotional responses to the epidemic are crucial to the potential impact of tourism destinations. Further measures should be taken to reduce people's anger and other negative emotions, dissolve people's psychological and emotional problems and enhance people's confidence in tourism recovery. Besides, nudging people to think about accuracy is a simple way to improve choices about what to share on social media (Pennycook et al., 2020).

Social media is not only a channel for releasing important information but also a gathering platform for public opinions (Cinelli et al., 2020). The interactive nature of social media and the sudden generation of epidemic events lead to the rapid spread of public opinions on specific social media. In response to public opinions about the emergence of epidemic events, official institutions or social organizations must actively respond to the public. Through the sound management mechanism for epidemic events to realize the monitoring, early warning and response to social media public opinion can effectively resolve public opinions.

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Chapter 15
Post-COVID-19 Tourism: Transformations of Travelling Experience

Darius Liutikas

Abstract The COVID-19 pandemic has had an irreversible impact on the tourism sector. This is related to the transformation of tourism products and services, the supply of new tourism services and products and tourism development at new destinations. The tourism sector will have to introduce new technological and non-technological innovations, new products and services in a changing social environment, while tourism stakeholders must adapt to new business models and new social and economic realities. Based on document analysis, this chapter discusses both the sectors' adaptability and management measures taken in the tourism sector during the COVID-19 pandemic and the transformations of tourism in the post-COVID-19 period. Some examples from Lithuania are presented, where different governmental measures were implemented to manage the crisis and mitigate its impact on the tourism sector. Most implemented measures were intended to promote the tourism sector after the lockdown and pandemic and transform the tourism system by developing innovative and digital tourism services. Post-COVID-19 tourism is analysed using social, environmental and technological factors. The re-evaluation of tourism resources and the environment is related to a new tourism opportunity in sustainable business development, adaptation of innovations, digitalisation and climate change. This chapter proposes the concept of *re-tourism*, which is related to the transformation of the tourism sector. This chapter shows that *re-tourism* can be related to reshaping our mindset and preferences. The author provides examples of how future tourism trends relate to the lessons of the COVID-19 pandemic.

Keywords COVID-19 · Lithuania · Re-tourism · Post-COVID-19 tourism · Social environment · Sustainability · New technologies

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15.1 Introduction

Tourism is one of the sectors most affected by the COVID-19 global pandemic. According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), the COVID-19 pandemic affected all regions of the world, especially European countries (UNWTO, 2020a). In 2020, the number of international tourists worldwide decreased by 74% compared to 2019 (this is about 1 billion fewer tourists compared to 2019). For comparison, in 2009, during the global economic crisis, the number of international tourists fell by only 4%. The current pandemic has put around 120 million direct tourism jobs at risk at the beginning of 2021 (UNWTO, 2021a). Many of them were in small- and medium-sized (SME) enterprises. The international tourism industry could lose more than US$4 trillion to the global gross domestic product (GDP) for 2020 and 2021 (UNWTO, 2021b).

The travel and tourism sector accounted for 6% of Lithuanian GDP in 2019 and only 2.7% in 2020 (WTTC, 2021). Jobs in the travel and tourism sector decreased by more than 20%, from 4.8% of total employment to 3.9% of total employment (WTTC, 2021). After introducing various restrictions in the spring and autumn of 2020, there was a decline in inbound tourism, especially in business tourism. The impact of international visitors decreased from 3.8% of total exports to 1.3% in Lithuania (WTTC, 2021). In 2020, compared to 2019, hotels and other accommodation establishments registered 43% fewer guests and as high as 63% in Vilnius County (Statistics Lithuania, 2021). Respectively, the number of foreign tourists decreased by 73% and 77% in 2020 (Statistics Lithuania, 2021). Nationwide revenues from accommodation services decreased by more than 40%. All countries have a similar negative trend or even worse situation (UNWTO, 2021c).

Some countries still have closed borders (entirely or partially) and cancelled flights and events, including sports, entertainment and conferences. Despite the adverse outcomes, lockdown or quarantine conditions created opportunities to rethink the future of tourism and its role in the context of safety, sustainability and technological development. Regions and countries of the world are developing strategies for revitalising and transforming tourism (Department for Digital, Culture, Media, & Sport, 2021).

The renewal of tourism might include the restoration of the entire tourism ecosystem, the transformation of the tourism sector, the assessment of tourist destinations and the application of innovations and investment in sustainable and environmentally friendly tourism. The year 2021–2022 is a special time for the renewal of the tourism sector and the introduction of innovations.

In a global context, various studies related to the assessment of the consequences of COVID-19 and possible transformations of the tourism sector started at the beginning of 2020. In general, research can be divided into three foci. The first focus is research on tourism trends and renewal scenarios after the end of the COVID-19 pandemic (e.g. Zhang et al. (2021), Lew et al. (2022)). A second focus is a research on tourism adaptation and opportunities during a pandemic (Collins-Kreiner & Ram, 2021; Liutikas, 2021a). Another focus is related to studies on the impact of a pandemic on the tourism sector (Hall et al., 2020; Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020; Škare et al., 2021; Corbisiero & La Rocca, 2020), and the last focus is an analysis of problems of post-pandemic tourism sector renewal (Sharma et al., 2021; Hussain & Fusté-Forné, 2021; El-Said & Aziz, 2021). A pandemic makes it possible to look more broadly and to link the future of tourism to other future development scenarios of the world, including resilience, digital innovations, sustainability, accessibility and engagement with new business ideas.

The main goal of this chapter is to discuss both the tourism adaptability and management measures taken in the tourism sector during the COVID-19 pandemic and the transformations of tourism in the post-COVID-19 period. This chapter emphasises the conceptual transformations of the travelling experience. This chapter is structured as follows. The next section presents materials and methods. Document analysis becomes the driving force behind the article. The third section analyses the main future trends that allow the formation of the concept of *re-tourism* presented in the fourth section. The main findings of the research are divided into three major groups. The changing social environment is discussed first. A second focus is a sustainability and climate change agenda, and the third is new technologies and an automated environment. Finally, the concluding remarks are provided.

15.2 Materials and Methods

This chapter relied on document analysis and data on monitoring the situation of the tourism sector in Lithuania. The research includes a review of prior literature, institutional documents issued by the Lithuanian Government and reports carried out by international organisations (mainly UNWTO). The author aimed to use the latest documents and research materials. Document analysis requires repeated review, examination and interpretation of data (Gross, 2018), and it can incorporate simple Content Analysis (Botterill & Platenkamp, 2012). Inclusionary criteria were related to selecting the most recent documents in the field of research. Documents were selected and analysed to meet this chapter's aim. This chapter seeks to analyse the future trends of tourism and the transformations of tourism in the post-COVID-19 period. Social, environmental and technological factors are researched. The sociocultural consequences on tourism of COVID-19, related to the transformation of travelling experience, tourist behaviour and society's values, are still uncertain (Üngüren & Güçlü, 2021). Therefore, such a situation encourages a more generalised reflection on the future trends of tourism. Examples supplement the in-depth secondary data analysis from Lithuania, where different measures were implemented to manage the crisis and mitigate its impact on the tourism sector. Most implemented measures in Lithuania were intended to promote the tourism sector after the lockdown and pandemic and to transform the tourism system by developing innovative and digital tourism services.

15.3 Presentation of Findings

This section comes in four subsections, including the management measures of immediate response to crisis and discussions on a new trend for future tourism. The following subsections present the main findings of the research divided by the author into three major groups: social environment, sustainability and climate change agenda and new technologies and automated environment.

15.3.1 Management of the Crisis in Lithuania

Tourism adaptation to the crisis and the response of governments has taken different forms. Woods (2006) outlined such elements of resilience as buffering capacity (the size or kinds of disruptions the system can absorb or adapt to without a breakdown), flexibility (the system's ability to restructure itself in response to external pressures), margin boundaries (how precarious the system is currently operating relative to one or another kind of performance boundary) and tolerance (how a system behaves near a boundary). Adaptation strategies use various crisis management techniques and recommend different interventions (e.g. reorganisation of activities using innovations and creative solutions) (Gilpin & Murphy, 2008).

The question of adaptability or the ability to adapt to this crisis includes the challenges and changes to the tourism sector. Tourism is a complex system with many interacting agents, and it is affected by various technological, economic, political, social, cultural, legal, environmental and other factors. However, the main factors influencing tourism adaptability are health and political decisions to manage this emergency. Policymakers understand that a pandemic means a serious public health crisis and apply various fiscal, monetary and supply-side measures to manage the economic downturn and shape its recovery (Elgin et al., 2021; Babii & Nadeem, 2021). In this context, it is necessary to assess the dependence of other economic activities on tourism to single out the factors that can reduce the vulnerability of the tourism sector.

Sharma et al. (2021) proposed a resilience-based framework for tourism. This framework includes three elements: challenge, resilience and transformation. Current challenges posed by COVID-19 and its management measures such as a lockdown. Resilience is related to such factors as government response, technology innovation, local belongingness and consumer and employee confidence. Resilience could help to create the transformed tourism industry characterised by sustainability, societal wellbeing, climate actions and involvement of local communities (Sharma et al., 2021). Tourism resilience is generally analysed in the framework of global change (Butler, 2017; Cheer & Lew, 2018; Hall et al., 2018).

One of the adaptation strategies is to change travel destinations to regain the number of travellers to the 2019 level. New and safe travel destinations and domestic tourism are encouraged. For example, the United Kingdom (UK) government wants to recover annual inbound visitor volume and expenditure by the end of 2023 (Department for Digital, Culture, Media, & Sport, 2021). Tourism operators try to provide travel opportunities with a feeling of security for tourists. Some destinations (e.g. national and regional parks) could be promoted as safe and potentially attract those tourists who are risk-sensitive. Another adaptation strategy is to replace physical travel with virtual. Travelling using information technologies (IT) was one of the most popular forms of travel during the quarantine. Virtual-related travels include virtual routes, the use of hyper-real reality, augmented reality (computer-mediated reality) and even a combination of physical activity and virtual travel (e.g. indoor cycling systems) (Von Bromley, 2021).

Liutikas (2021a) analysed the adaptability of religious tourism and pilgrimage. He stated that pilgrimage could be a very flexible and adaptive system (Liutikas, 2021a). Pilgrimage is related to personal and social identity. The goal of the travel could be achieved in different ways. Alternatively, the physical movement in the geographical space could also be changed to such forms as an inner spiritual pilgrimage, ordering pilgrimage-related services (hiring another traveller to perform pilgrimage or to order service at the shrine for a person's intentions) and the creation of sacred place at home environment using different artefacts (e g. statues, icons or images). Virtual travellers can safely follow the path of Medieval pilgrims to experience the Holy Mass and can even perform various rituals, e.g. virtual repentance (Liutikas, 2021a).

Higgins-Desbiolles (2020) pointed out that COVID-19 can be seen as a result of neoliberal globalisation and time-space compression. The current world is integrated and globalised, leading to positive and negative consequences. This crisis is linked to changes in the transport sector, especially air transport, and involves various actions from governmental institutions. Tourism survival and recovery strategies are impossible without government response and intervention (OECD, 2020). The huge decline in international tourists has enabled governments of different countries to take some management actions. Sharma et al. (2021) also indicated that a government had become a significant player in the economy of tourism by offering various financial support measures. However, governments should find a balance between economic support and response to public health imperatives necessary to prevent the collapse of health systems and mass deaths (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020).

Government intervention has been one of the most important elements in managing the crisis. For example, the Ministry of the Economy and Innovation of the Republic of Lithuania aimed to manage the crisis and mitigate its impact on the tourism sector in 2020. The ministry took supportive actions to help the tourism sector financially. Other goals were to promote the tourism sector after the quarantine, transform the tourism system and develop innovative, digital tourism services for small groups of people, and 49 million euros from the state budget was allocated for different support actions in Lithuania. The measures taken by the government can be divided into three groups: compensatory measures, measures to support the viability of the sector and measures to promote transformation (Lietuvos, 2020a, 2020b).

The compensatory measures were as follows:

- Interest-free loans. Applicants – tour operators. The aim was to enable them to settle immediately with tourists who have refused travel vouchers. The Lithuanian Civil Code has the provision for tour operators to return all money paid by or on behalf of a tourist no later than 14 days from the date of termination of the tourist contract (INVEGA, 2022)
- Compensations for the transportation of tourists from abroad. Applicants – Lithuanian tour operators. The aim was to compensate for the transportation of tourists from abroad after an emergency declaration.

Measures to support the viability of the sector were as follows:

- Insurance guarantees. Applicants – tour operators. The aim was to propose a guarantee for covering part of the insurance or guarantee benefit paid by the insurance company under a surety insurance contract. It also provided for a return to creating a travel guarantee fund model to compensate for the losses incurred by tourists due to the insolvency of tour operators (INVEGA, 2022).
- Holiday vouchers for medical people working in Lithuania. Applicants – medical professionals and staff. These measures aimed to create and issue holiday vouchers. Various tourism services (accommodation, transport, catering, SPA, entertainment) were provided by local tour operators to the medical professionals and staff. The value of a holiday voucher was 200 EUR (Lietuvos, 2020b). The idea of this initiative was to thank the medical people for their work during the quarantine period and to encourage the recovery of the local tourism market.
- Tourism marketing measures. The aim was to promote tourism in local and closest priority tourism markets. The public body Travel Lithuania was responsible for launching and implementing different measures. Tourism from neighbouring markets was planned to help recover the inbound tourism. Actions to attract tourists from the neighbouring countries travelling by surface transport were developed. One idea was to create a compensation model for the third night for foreign tourists (this action was launched in 2021). The importance of internal tourism promotion has been a high priority.

For the promotion of transformation, several measures were also created and implemented:

- Tourism innovations. Applicants – tour operators, associations and others involved in tourism businesses. The transformation of the tourism sector was pursued by promoting innovation and digital technologies (‘E-business model’) through the development of tourism services and products (Lietuvos, 2020a). The measure financed new business models created by introducing e-business solutions and other tools and services of publishing, voice-reading, translation, photography, filming, design, communication, etc.
- Training of tourist guides was another measure related to tourism transformation. The aim was to take advantage of the period without tourists and to use this time for the professional development of tourist guides. Guides were able to improve their qualifications for free and even reorient their activities from city tours to guided tours in the national parks.

All these measures aimed at recovering tourism were included in the government's decisions to promote the economy and reduce the effects of the spread of Coronavirus (COVID-19). EU funding has also focused on mitigating the effects of COVID-19 and increasing resilience in similar cases. Various scientific projects could help to assess the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the tourism sector and to propose new innovative solutions. For example, the purpose of funding the EU program 'Targeted research in the field of smart specialisation' was to develop applied knowledge to reduce/address the problems caused by COVID-19 and to increase public resilience to similar potential crises. The project 'Transformations and perspectives of the tourism sector after the COVID-19 pandemic' received EU funding in October 2021 (esinvesticijos.lt, 2021). This project aims to reduce the problems caused by the COVID-19 virus and increase the resilience of Lithuania's tourism sector to potential future crises. The project's objective is to analyse the opportunities of the local and inbound tourism sector after the COVID-19 pandemic and to propose innovative forms of activity in the tourism sector related to new technologies, services and products, taking into account global trends and national challenges. The project is relevant for assessing the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the tourism sector and proposing new business models and other business opportunities in a changing social environment.

15.3.2 New Social Environment

Lucia and Giudici (2021) pointed out that the pandemic crisis highlighted the paradoxes and tensions of the dominant neoliberal capitalist context and tourism growth model. Such concepts as shared value, corporate social responsibility and sustainability help to address these challenges. Researchers (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020; Escudero Gómez, 2021) highlight the necessity of creating an alternative tourism model. According to Sheldon (2021), redesigning economic systems requires consideration of social capital, natural capital, cultural capital, intellectual capital, experiential capital, compassion capital, trust capital, innovation capital and spiritual capital. Examples of alternative economic structures for tourism are the collaborative or sharing economy, the circular economy (economy of resource efficiency), the creative economy, the gift economy, the sacred economy and the regenerative economy (Sheldon, 2021).

As Zenker and Kock (2020) noticed, tourism recovery starts from visiting friends and relatives (VFR). However, the lockdown in response to the COVID-19 pandemic has generated a lot of new initiatives on tourism's future. The travel experience takes on new forms; tourists have the opportunity to focus more on national and regional sites. Socialising tourism (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020; Higgins-Desbiolles et al., 2021) offers a chance to connect tourists and local communities. The added value of the situation is a new business opportunity, the promotion of responsible tourism practices and the development of a renewed tourism system. The main social factors that will influence tourism in future are changes in attitudes, preferences, lifestyle and mobility, awareness of global health and climate, demographic shifts and ageing and migration. The conception of social distance may lead to fewer social interactions and increased appreciation of quality in social relations. The requirement of social distancing makes it possible to assume that group travel will be less in demand. Many tourists in the immediate post-COVID-19 period may try to avoid mass tourism destinations and could use individual trips rather than organised group trips. Excursions on large coaches could be replaced by trips on smaller micro-buses, which will be able to travel with people from a closed circle of relatives or friends. Escudero Gómez (2021) noticed that the limit of the number of visitors brings an end to overtourism and its negative impacts. Wall (2020) provided examples of visitor management techniques such as entry fees and charges, restricted activities, zoning or designation sites for specific activities. So the tourism industry could expect changes in preferences of travel forms. Individual organised trips by car could likely become more popular than bus trips organised by the business side. On the other hand, greater individualism in travel is against the concept of sustainability and green tendencies. However, it would be interesting to observe how long those trends of social distancing will persist after the pandemic period.

New ideas tested during the pandemic in the event tourism (Coles et al., 2022) may be used during the post-pandemic period. Most of the new ideas of the pandemic period were related to limiting the number of participants in the events. These include concerts for one listener or family in the hall (others can listen virtually) and a revival of drive-in or fly-in events (attendees come by car or by small private aircraft). Limited opportunities for big events could create a niche for events with a smaller number of attendees. However, such events are not environmentally friendly and sustainable. Avoidance of mass gatherings can also affect shopping tourism, religious tourism and sports tourism to observe sports events. However, social distancing may influence the choice of nature-based (water, mountain, safari, eco, camping, birdwatching) tourism, agritourism, wellness tourism, experimental travel and culinary tourism in the countryside.

During the quarantine period, educational hiking trails in regional and national parks became very popular in Lithuania. People visited them with their families on day trips. The educational hiking trails, of which there are more than 150 in Lithuania, are in the most beautiful and interesting natural and cultural places; their distance ranges from a few to several kilometres. Another noticeable trend is the increased popularity of pilgrim ways and routes. While travelling such routes, pilgrims and tourists could visit as religious as other cultural and natural heritage sites. For example, a pilgrim route named *Camino Lituano* was founded in 2016. The route starts on the Lithuanian-Latvian border, spans about 500 km across the country from north to south and finishes on the Lithuanian-Polish border. The route is divided into stages, which are about 25 km long. In 2021, the Community of Lithuanian Pilgrims prepared a new pilgrim route – The Way of Grace (Via *Gratiarum*). This circular path was dislocated in four Lithuanian municipalities. The length of the pedestrian and bicycle route is 185 km. When travelling by car, it is 190 km. The initiators of this route suggest travelling on foot in 7–8 days, by bicycle in 3–4 days or by car in 2–3 days (Liutikas, 2021b).

In the immediate future, travel will take place in a changed and sustainable environment. Our habits and behaviour also will change as well as travel business models and practices. Health situations and sometimes fake news on a health situation in different regions could impact perceptions and choices of possible travellers. Tourists could pay more attention to the safety of travel. They could avoid some unknown activities (e.g. tasting local food) and prefer to travel with travel insurance. The pandemic brought attention to the importance of cleanliness and sanitation. Tourists are more likely to value the quality of services. The concept of quality experience can also include the environmental consciousness of service providers. Galvani et al. (2020) provided possible changes in the tourism system as expanding the traveller's knowledge and awareness of places and the world, appreciation of other people's life experiences and self-reflexivity and identity formation in a liminal space.

Tourism could offer travellers the opportunity to manifest their values and identities and to develop their attitudes (e.g. on the circular economy or climate-neutral economy) through active participation in various related activities (e.g. working at eco-farm, learning courses), which are available at tourism destinations. Valuistic travels (Liutikas, 2012, 2021a, 2021b) are related to the willingness to manifest identity at the meaningful destination point and to experience a temporary community.

Higgins-Desbiolles (2020) raised the idea of socially responsible future tourism. Community and social connections can contribute to public health and wellbeing. In this case, a new tourism environment could include authentic experiences as a participatory approach, special relations with the host community and maximised connection with a tourist destination. Community-based tourism includes a focus on community development thinking and an appreciation of the local culture, traditions, landscape and host attitudes. A shift from tangible resources (e.g. buildings, museums, monuments, natural landscape) to intangible resources (e.g. values, identity, image, lifestyles, traditions, narratives, atmosphere) could be observed in cultural tourism more generally (Duxbury & Richards, 2019).

However, some host communities could become less welcoming of incoming tourists and less supportive of tourism development (Zenker & Kock, 2020). Finding the balance between tourism development and the protection of community life will be one of the main challenges for the tourism business. Social solutions need to find consensus; they will probably emerge from different adaptation strategies.

Tourists could prefer digital travel companions to assist with information and guidance during the journey. The COVID-19 crisis revealed other social problems such as loneliness, anxiety and sedentary lifestyle. Tourism to address these issues may become particularly popular, for example, partnership search camps, wellness and retreat tourism (Kelly & Smith, 2016), active tourism and activities in host communities.

Not all people tend to accept life in a changing environment because of the new COVID-19 standards and rules. Approaches to the pandemic and the management tools that governments must adopt may differ. Unvaccinated people will be practically unable to travel abroad, or such trips could become extremely difficult due to additional tests and quarantine requirements. Such people are likely to choose local tourism opportunities. In the author's opinion, anti-vaxxers could create new subcultures and new tourism destinations for their communities.

People with a negative attitude towards the official management of a pandemic may try to choose spaces where they know they will meet people with similar views. The ability to facilitate the attitudes and outlook on life and to obtain and share valuable information could become the primary or latent motive for choosing a destination. Castells (2011) proposed the term 'resistance identity' or defensive identity, which is constructed by people who are stigmatised by the dominant groups or ideologies. This type of identity building leads to the formation of communities and reinforces the boundary. Identity could be assumed as a primary driving force for such tourists and their hosts.

Another social trend during the pandemic is the opportunity to combine tourist entertainment with work or studies. Working or studying virtually allows some people to live on working holidays. Some authors (Walia et al., 2021) proposed that the involvement of both business and leisure components in travelling can be defined as 'bleisure'. Uriely (2001: 6) depicted four categories of working travellers from the most work-oriented to the most tourist-oriented type: (1) travelling professional workers (they are mainly oriented towards work-related purposes and engage in tourist-oriented activities only as a by-product of their excursion); (2) migrant tourism workers (they travel in order 'to make a living' and 'have fun' at the same time); (3) non-institutionalised working tourists (they engage in work while travelling to finance a prolonged trip) and (4) working-holiday tourists (they perceive their work engagement as a recreational activity that is part of their tourist experience). In that case, we can extend the classification of Uriely (2001) based on the meanings of travellers' travel-and-work experience. The fifth category of such travellers could be digital nomad tourists (Chevtaeva, 2021). These tourists use attractive tourist destinations as co-working and co-living spaces (Chevtaeva, 2021). The website coworker.com offers a possibility to choose cost-effective co-working and flexible-work spaces in different countries, including such tourist destinations as Bali (Indonesia), Thailand and Mauritius (coworker.com, 2022). The target group of this website are freelancers, entrepreneurs, start-ups, small and medium businesses (SMBs) and other business companies. Some people just mix work and travel using the possibility of the remote working method. Hannonen (2020) pointed out that this growing lifestyle undermines 'traditional sedentary perspectives and attachment to the home, work and even nation-state' (Hannonen, 2020). The ideas and trends discussed in this section are reflected in Fig. 15.1.

15.3.3 Sustainability and Climate Change Agenda

Sustainability was a high priority for many tourism stakeholders before COVID-19 (Zenker & Kock, 2020). However, a sustainable approach can only be realised when understood, perceived and embodied in individuals' identities and daily life (Galvani

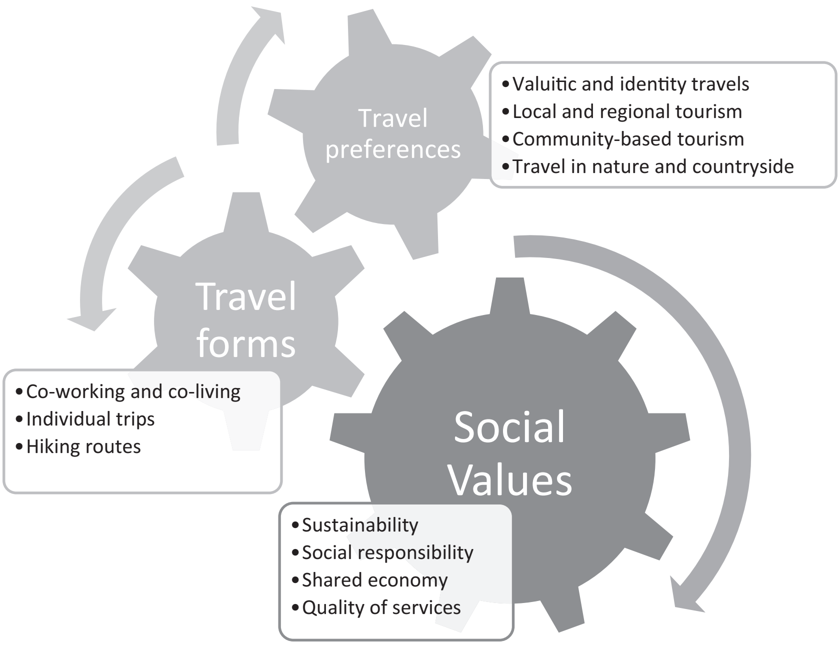

Fig. 15.1 Main trends of a new social environment

et al., 2020). A sustainable approach is integrated into the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) adopted by the United Nations (UNDP, 2022). As nature conservationist Birutė Galdikas pointed out, coronavirus pandemic was caused by human intervention in nature; if 'the environment remains unprotected, climate change is not stopped, pandemics will recur and could only get worse' (Baltic News, 2021).

A sustainable approach is related to awareness-raising, a change in beliefs and attitudes and introducing new practices, such as new business forms and economic system changes. There has been a wide field of research in sustainable tourism since the late 1980s (Nash & Butler, 1990; Clarke, 1997; Middleton & Hawkins, 1998; Butler, 1999; Swarbrooke, 1999; Liu, 2003; Weaver, 2005; Buckley, 2012; Harris et al., 2012; Hughes et al., 2015; McCool & Bosak, 2019; Fennell & Cooper, 2020; etc.). Sustainable development tries to address the negative impacts of tourism on the economy, social wellbeing, culture and environment. In the energy and sustainable environment field, possible models of transformed tourism activities that help mitigate the effects of climate change and increase energy efficiency and the potential of the circular economy should be adopted. Sustainable tourism generally represents 'a set of principles, policies and management schemes to protect a destination's ecological, social and cultural resource base' (Fennell & Cooper, 2020, 111–146). In agro-innovation and food technologies, the potential of slow tourism related to sustainable food consumption in the country's regions must be put into practice. The main EU agri-innovation objectives for 2014–2020 were related to resource-efficiency, food quality and safety, bio-based economy, biodiversity and innovative products and services for the integrated supply chain (EIP-Agri, 2020). Slow tourists looking for fresh and healthy local food want to know how it is produced. Short supply chains directly from farms to area visitors can contribute to such new market opportunities. In general, the analysis of tourism and climate change agenda includes the ideas of the circular economy and green transformation, thus increasing the sustainability and resilience of tourism and distributing tourist flows more evenly over time and space.

An important aspect that specifically arose in the COVID-19 situation is the intention to develop local tourism for the involvement of the country's regions in tourism renewal. A decrease in inbound tourism could accelerate the development of tourism innovations and tourism services in the regions. Promoting tourism in the regions related to sustainable and slow tourism and the cognition of natural and cultural heritage synergises with the new services and the new quality products. The World Tourism Organization also reported on the importance of rural tourism for the renewal of the tourism sector (UNWTO, 2020b). A sustainable approach in an economy includes the increase of tourism accessibility and development of the tourism value chain, involving local entrepreneurs, producers and inhabitants. New services, new tourism products and new business forms are essential to attract local tourists. It is important to include the tourism information centres operating in the regions to successfully implement the new models related to innovative forms of tourism and services. Researchers are developing new models related to the quality of service. As examples of such models, we can identify a model of service excellence, including the concept of customer delight (Klimkeit et al., 2021).

The number of rural tourism homesteads in Lithuania increased from 355 (in 2003) to 668 (in 2017). Rural tourism homesteads are usually established in places of an exceptional landscape, near water bodies. Rural tourism homesteads can usually offer customers a variety of entertainment in the natural environment, e.g. sauna and various bath activities, kayaking tours, canoe rental, food and drink tastings, fishing, cooking and other education. Some visitors are satisfied with the opportunity to enjoy nature and get calm recreation. Some others require a more comprehensive range of services (recreation in nature, cognitive recreation, active leisure, culinary heritage, health procedures and opportunity for family celebrations). Some homesteads are suitable for weddings and other large events, such as corporate parties. Thus, there is a danger that rural tourism could become a part of party tourism. Regarding sustainability, the range of services offered by rural tourism homesteads must make the most of the area's natural environment and social community (Fang, 2020).

In general, the adaptation and mitigation actions relating to climate change are very complex and cross-sectoral. Most actions focus on structural and social initiatives, seeking changes in governmental policy. Reduction of the tourism industry's carbon emissions footprint includes monitoring and evaluation, inclusive and cooperative policy framework, promotion of climate-friendly transport modalities and accommodation, development of environmentally friendly tourist service innovations, improvement of energy use and increased use of renewable energy. Practical management implications in the hospitality industry include a reduction of carbon emissions (new policies on the towel and bed-linen exchanges, food consumption, use of local foodstuffs and organic production), promotion of sustainable building design (low energy buildings, thermal insulation, solar roofs), increased improvement of energy use efficiency (power generation from renewable sources) and the use of other sustainable actions (recycling and minimising waste, diminishing of single-use plastic, use of sustainable procurement, applying restriction in water use), and applying discounts for travellers who came by electric transport or another climate-friendly travel mode. The Sustainable Hospitality Alliance (2022) and the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2021) prepared a methodology for hotel carbon measurement aiming for hotels to help understand their carbon footprint on site (including fuels such as natural gas, oil and purchased electricity) and from outsourced operations (e.g. laundry).

Environmental values influence the behaviour of tourists and providers of tourism services, and sometimes tourists have contradictions between their expectations and environmentally responsible service quality (Gössling & Lund-Durlacher, 2021). Education and public awareness raising through communication strategies are important elements of environmentally responsible behaviour. The set of ideas discussed in this section is reflected in Fig. 15.2.

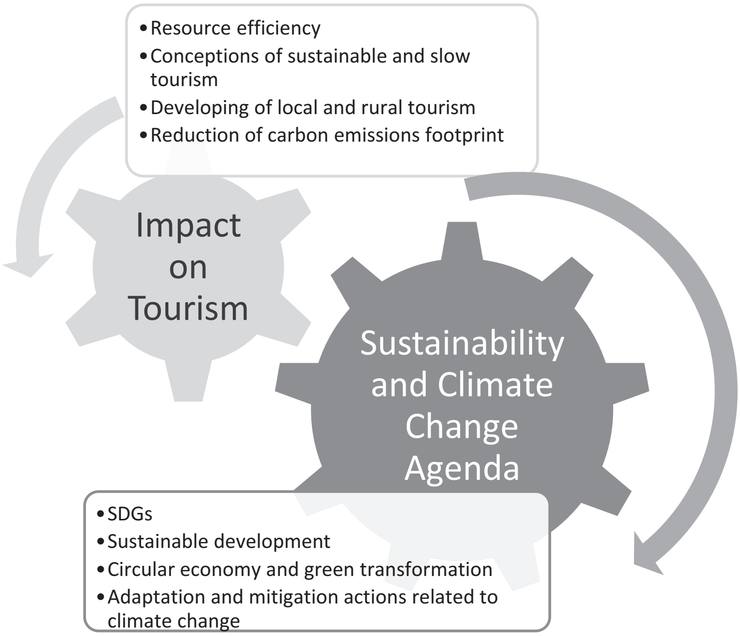

Fig. 15.2 Main aspects of sustainability and climate change agenda in tourism

15.3.4 New Technologies and Automated Environment

Technologies in tourism are the transformational driver of the industry structure and operations as well as the role and functions of its stakeholders (Sigala, 2018). Technological innovations are mostly related to the use of artificial intelligence (AI), automation, virtual reality (VR) and augmented reality (AR) and the proposal of new services based on the development of information technologies (IT). There is a close relationship between sustainable development and innovation in tourism (Elmo et al., 2020). The tourism sector is increasingly involved in developing and consuming technological and non-technological innovations and promoting new business models. However, creating and implementing tourism innovations are impossible without innovative and creative IT solutions. Tussyadiah (2020) noticed that new technologies could enhance the tourism experience and replace interpersonal contacts. The COVID-19 pandemic led to a faster adaptation of information and communication technologies in tourism. This section aims to assess the possibilities of digitisation and the ways of using new digital technologies in the tourism sector.

In the context of COVID-19, technological innovations could help to address specific pandemic problems, e. g. screening travellers and discovering COVID-19 cases, tracing tourists' contacts, ensuring social interaction and communication and analysing and mapping data (Zeng et al., 2020; Hall et al., 2020). The wider application of technological innovations can help address the challenges of social distance. Seyitoğlu and Ivanov (2021) pointed out that service robots could be used for cleaning, disinfection and delivery of food, medicines or goods. AI and robotics, the Internet of Things, could create a smart and autonomous system of tourism that can provide tourism services with little human intervention. By reducing service costs, financial capacity can be allocated to the management of potential risks and travel safety.

Robots could help passengers at airports and in hotels (at the reception or cloakroom, in-room and virtual personal assistance, robot porters, room delivery robots and robot barmen). Robots also can be used in public transportation (Zeng et al., 2020). Fully autonomous vehicles could take tourists to tourist destinations and serve as tour guides in museums and galleries. Some applications on smartphones can provide information, services and assistance during the preparation for the journey and throughout the journey (Yılmaz & Olgaç, 2016). At the pre-journey stage, we use apps that search for information about tourist destinations, book and purchase various tickets and self-service check-in. During the journey, audio and video guides tailored to the individual needs of travellers are increasingly being used and may offer new possibilities. Tourists also use gadgets that show various routes and descriptions of tourist objects, navigation and wayfinding, choice of transport modes, possibilities for catering and accommodation and help for language translation. For example, the National Lithuanian Tourism Development Agency *Lithuania Travel* and the Official Development Agency of the City of Vilnius – *Go Vilnius* – presents a 360° journey experience and virtual tours to museums and exhibitions.

The virtual tour *Inside the Vilnius Ghetto* presents the former Vilnius Ghetto in the 1940s. The tour includes choral and instrumental music, video, photography, historical narratives and archive documents (gete.lt, 2022).

Some mobile apps related to touchless accommodation service (for check-in and check-out, room keys, in-room technologies). Programs with augmented reality capabilities are becoming more and more popular. AR combines virtual images, real views and augmented experience. This technique is vital for the presentation of cultural heritage objects (Haugstvedt & Krogstie, 2012). Contemporary AR systems use head-mounted displays, smartphones, laptops, tablets or special windows. The AR applications enable users to view extra material such as drawings, historical photographs, movies, descriptions, maps or other images.

The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), developed by Davis (1986), assesses and predicts the acceptability of information systems and digital innovations. This model is especially relevant when analysing scenarios of post-COVID-19 tourism development. It is important to assess the readiness of the tourism sector (companies and local entrepreneurs in the regions) to use new digital innovations and computer technologies. The purpose of the TAM model is to predict the level of acceptability of systems and digital innovations and to suggest the necessary improvements that need to be made to the system to make it acceptable to users. This model relates to the factors of digital acceptability of innovations and shows that the acceptability of information systems is determined by two main factors: perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use. The first factor is defined as a degree that shows a person's opinion that using the system will improve his or her job performance. The second factor, perceived ease of use, is the degree to which a person feels the system will be used free of effort. The analysis of these factors allows for a more efficient application of digital innovations in the field of tourism.

Other researchers (Haugstvedt & Krogstie, 2012) reviewed and extended this model to five major parts: perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, perceived enjoyment and behavioural intentions to use. After the analysis of the application called *The Historical Tour Guide*, the authors concluded that people want to use augmented reality applications because they enjoy the experience and because it helps them achieve some learning goals (Haugstvedt & Krogstie, 2012, p. 253).

Rogers (2003) developed the diffusion of innovation theory. The book E. Rogers *Diffusion of Innovations* was first published in 1962. The diffusion of innovations refers to the process by which participants of a social system adopt a new idea, product or practice. Rogers (2003) distinguished five categories of adopters of an innovation: innovators (take the highest risks), early adopters (serve as the opinion leaders), early majority (join the process later, try to avoid risks), late majority (they adopt the innovation after the majority of society has adopted it, often stay sceptical) and laggards (they are the last to adopt an innovation; they are isolated from opinion leaders and want to maintain status quo). The adoption process consists of five stages: knowledge (awareness), persuasion (interest), decision (after evaluation), implementation (trial period) and confirmation (continuation of use).

Min et al. (2018) constructed research using both theories – diffusion of innovation theory and the technology acceptance model. The research on the factors that affect consumers' adoption of the Uber mobile application showed the importance of social influence to the existing diffusion of innovation factors (Min et al., 2018). In the case of research, social influence was related to seeing close social groups using the Uber mobile application.

Social influence as one of the four key constructs is included in the unified theory of acceptance and use of technology (UTAUT) formulated by Venkatesh and others (2003) and later extended by Venkatesh et al. (2012). The other three determinants are performance expectancy (the capability of the technology), effort expectancy (user expectations) and facilitating conditions (the organisational and technical infrastructure that can support the use of technology). Performance expectancy, effort expectancy and social influence are related to behavioural intention or the expectation of the user's intention to perform plans and decisions regarding the use of technology (Venkatesh et al., 2003).

Antunes and Amaro (2016) researched which factors affect a pilgrim's intentions to use a pilgrimage app. Their research was based on the extended unified theory of acceptance and use of technology (UTAUT2) model. UTAUT2 model (Venkatesh et al., 2012) integrates three more factors: hedonic motivation (fun or pleasure experienced in using technology), price value (monetary cost for consumers) and habit (prior behaviour and the degree to which people believe the behaviour to be automatic). Antunes and Amaro (2016) interviewed 222 pilgrims of the Camino de Santiago. Research results showed that performance expectancy was the major driving force for using a pilgrimage app. Intentions to use a pilgrimage app were also affected by effort expectancy, hedonic motivation and social influences (Antunes & Amaro, 2016). The author's results showed that facilitating conditions (knowledge and the resources to use apps) and habits did not affect intentions to use pilgrimage apps (Antunes & Amaro, 2016). However, new research is needed on how the new social environment affects the reliability of these models after the COVID-19 pandemic.

Usually, the intention for continued use of the system or new technology is related to acceptance and satisfaction. Labanauskaitė et al. (2020) analysed the effectiveness of e-marketing tools in Lithuania. They noticed that mobile applications are unreliable and do not fully meet users' needs. According to them, the most effective e-marketing tools are websites, social networks, e-mails and reservation pages (Labanauskaitė et al., 2020). Digital assistants could also help travellers post-trip, e.g. by collating and sharing photographs and writing reviews and impressions. AI and an automated environment could create some risks. First, there is a risk of losing contacts and social support from the host community. This could directly impact the travel experience and the satisfaction of the journey.

Moreover, it could create psychological issues, such as loneliness and alienation. Other risks are related to privacy issues, e.g. collecting and storing sensitive personal data. New research is needed to assess the impact of various new apps (e.g. indoor cycling systems) on post-COVID-19 tourism. However, it is important to highlight the factors that would influence the development of AI in the post-COVID-19 period. The models presented above show the importance of various elements towards integrating apps and other AI technologies as part of the tourism

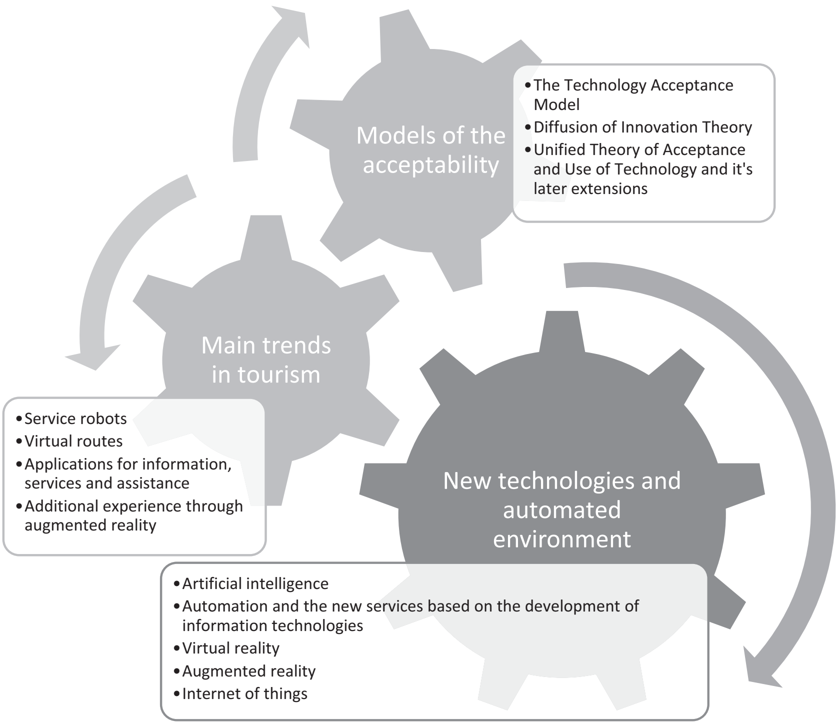

Fig. 15.3 Main aspects of new technologies and automated environment in tourism

experience. The intention to adopt IT could be associated with their attractiveness, realisation and fun (El-Said & Aziz, 2021). The ideas and trends discussed in this section are reflected in Fig.15.3.

15.4 Discussion: Re-Tourism or Trends in Post-COVID-19 Tourism

What are the future of the tourism experience and possible alternatives to it in the post-pandemic era? It is important to answer whether the pandemic has permanently changed travel motives and travellers' expectations and what impact it has had on the internal attitudes of the population to travel. As Fayos-Sola and Cooper (2019) noticed, the tourism system is a complex system of actors, organisations and destinations that must adapt to rapid and unexpected change. As shown in the third section of this chapter, the socioeconomic, technological and environmental change affects tourism and its resilience (Hall et al., 2018). As we can see from the previous sections, various technological (digitalisation, automation, development of transport modes), social (changes in urbanisation, lifestyle changes, changes in attitudes) and environmental (climate change, sustainable consumption) factors will have the greatest impact on tourism in the future. In my opinion, health (global health crisis and their management) and legal (actions of governments promoting or restricting travel) factors will have an equally important impact.

At this point, I would like to propose the concept of *re-tourism*. The English prefix *re-* (meaning 'again' or 'do again') has become the most common beginning of descriptions analysing the future directions of the tourism sector. *Re-tourism* is seen as re-imagined, re-enabled, re-created, re-invented, re-theorised, re-conceptualised and re-examined. Tourism transformations involve renewal, recovery, resetting, restarting, reorganising, rethinking, reconsidering and reviving. Societal and technological changes drive the conception of re-tourism. It is based on improved knowledge and the application of innovations. It involves adaptation and mitigation of negative impact, flexibility and dynamic, change and transformation. Re-tourism is related to the current pandemic and possible future crises.

Can this concept become a new model for tourism? Baggio and Baggio (2020) highlighted that the act of modelling maps complex problems to a simplified representation. Modelling allows us to test how specific changes affect overall outcomes. Tourism models could be either prescriptive (normative) or descriptive. Prescriptive models seek to present how policymaking should occur relative to pre-established standards and offer a guide to the future situation (Hall, 2008). Descriptive models explain how the policy process happens (Hall, 2008). Re-tourism could become a prescriptive model that shows and argues for future trends and values. The possible re-tourism model could promote the development of new forms of knowledge-based business and the transformation of the sector. However, a deeper analysis is needed to develop this potential model, including further conceptualisation, testing and applications. Transformation of the tourism system is a complex task (Hall et al., 2020; Corbisiero & La Rocca, 2020), and the important question is whether this is a historic moment to reinforce the old tourism paradigms or think of new ones (Escudero Gómez, 2021). The *re-tourism* model requires dramatic changes in the industry and a review of all pre-COVID-19 tourism practices (Fig. 15.4).

The innovative business models related to tourism include the approaches of sustainability, green and circular economy and digitalisation. These changes could create significant effects on travel organisations and propositions of tourism value. Social innovations include new offerings for tourists, reorganisation of service processes and changes in tourists' behaviour (e.g. social interactions based on technological development). Tourists, as cultural agents, may contribute to developing new technologies.

One crucial aspect is the use of new technological innovations. The impact of technological innovation on tourism has become a new social and economic reality. Smartphones and mobile devices play a key role in creating a touristic experience. Tourists use these devices to take photos, to find a way to tourist destinations or to get relevant information about tourist objects and other spots such as restaurants and pubs, shops and gas stations, accommodation places and leisure venues. Many of the current social innovations in tourism are combined with the IT technologies such as social platforms of the sharing economy (couch-surfing, co-living and

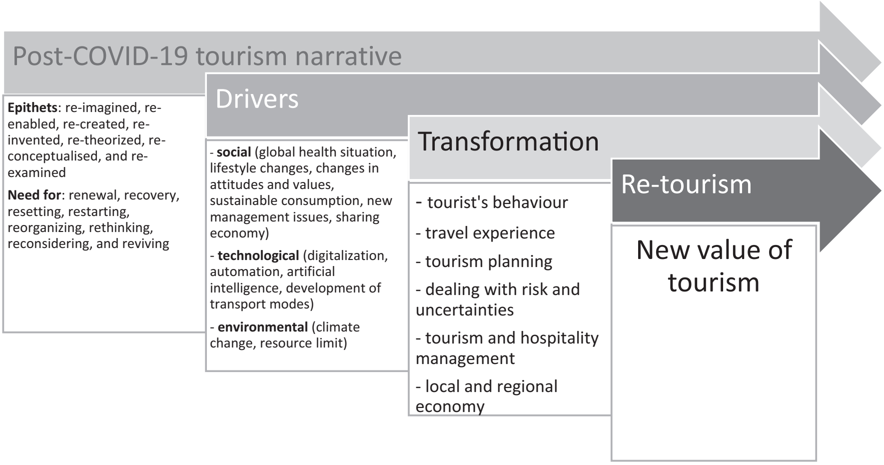

Fig. 15.4 The concept of re-tourism

co-working), alternative practises (temporary working on farms in the countryside) and temporary communities (social networks of people visiting the same places) (Mosedale & Voll, 2017). The possibilities of digital technology and virtual reality become especially relevant during quarantine. Travellers can use indoor cycling systems to make a pilgrimage to Santiago de Compostela or wear AR glasses to make a virtual vacation to Thailand's temples or the Louvre Museum in Paris. In the future, the application of such facilities in the field of tourism could be even wider. However, it is crucial to assess the benefits of innovations in the tourism sector and the social threats and risks and propose measures to manage them. Automation changes the tourist experience and replaces human contacts, so a relevant question is how much tourists are ready to accept those technological innovations.

15.5 Conclusions

COVID-19 interrupted our socioeconomic life. Recovery and transformation of tourism can be related to reshaping our mindset and preferences. Current research in tourism analyses resilience frameworks, new opportunities and potential risks of adapting them. One of the insights that can ensure a rapid response to unforeseen events in the future is sustainable, technologically advanced and community-based tourism development. Various new challenges in the future, such as the COVID-19 crisis, may threaten the social, economic or environmental sustainability of tourism businesses, as well as challenge the health or security of the different world regions or the entire world. The main question for the tourism industry stakeholders is what the specific proposals of the *re-tourism* agenda are and how to implement effective solutions that can ensure a rapid response to unforeseen events in future. Some governments will make efforts to return to the situation of 2019. Other governments will pay more attention to various alternatives and new models of tourism business.

Tourism transformation is concerned with cooperation between science, business and the public sector in introducing new technological and non-technological innovations and new products and services. The author believes that new forms of knowledge-based future tourism businesses will be more capable of meeting emerging global and national challenges. Becken and Loehr (2022) summarised the possible scenarios of change in tourism. The tourism future could be related to the increased use of digital technologies, the focus on national priorities, the ongoing impact of crisis and uncertainty and the transformation or shift in mindset (Becken & Loehr, 2022). The practical solutions include both scientific recommendations on new opportunities available to the tourism business and the application of innovative products and services in the tourism sector (e.g. routes of virtual and augmented reality, new walking routes combined with educational activities, innovative presentation of food and services produced by local people and reveal unique and different narratives of particular space). The ideas of the tourism future can be applied in shaping the decisions of governmental institutions and proposing new measures related to management in the field of tourism. A review of global and national challenges could help prepare a timely policy response. Post-COVID-19 tourism should include both scientific solutions and the application of innovative products and services, as well as the resilience of travellers, the tourism industry and government policy. Finally, I would like to emphasise that this research must be deepened and expanded because the travel experience and the future of tourism are affected by many different changes.

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Chapter 16
Resilience and Recovery Strategies to Tackle COVID-19 Pandemic and alike Crisis: A Systematic Review and Critical Examination of the Tourism and Hospitality Industry

Vivek Sharma and Dada Ab Rouf Bhat

Abstract The world has been hit by a COVID-19 catastrophe, a humanitarian disaster that has stopped the entire socioeconomic system. The tourist industry has been hit the hardest, as it is a major source of employment and revenue in developed and developing nations. The situation forced the industry to have strategies that could be fruitful in managing and minimising the impact of COVID-19 across the globe. This study aims to suggest a set-theoretical approach in the form of COVID-19 response strategies to evoke positive outcomes for the tourism and travel industry. A systematic literature review was performed, as regards the research method, using the PRISMA protocol (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses). The PRISMA approach enables the screening and selection of high-quality and impact research studies. The findings contribute to the detailed predictions of the future tourism development for the hotel sector, travel agencies and tourist attractions and propose a framework of possible recovery strategies that may be resilient for the tourism and hospitality industry to respond to the changes taking place.

Keywords COVID-19 · Crisis · Tourism · Hospitality · Resilience · Recovery strategies

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16.1 Introduction

The hospitality industry facesmany challenges due to increasing global issues (Bangare et al., 2022; Bhat & Sharma, 2022; Dube et al., 2021). The arrival of new crises due to natural or man-made disasters has pushed hospitality players into more extreme experiences (Hlengwa & Thusi, 2018). Disasters are hit with almost no warning, causing billions of US dollars in damage. In such times, a company's ability to implement new strategies may be the most important factor in ensuring survival in perplexing market situations (Sharma & Bhat, 2020). Over the previous decade, the tourist industry has encountered several crises and tragedies, including terrorist attacks and political unrest, economic downturn, bio-security hounding and natural catastrophe. Similar to such catastrophes is the pandemic called COVID-19, which has shaken the entire tourism and hospitality industry. The industry has been among the most brutal hit, and the pandemic's tremendous disruption has significantly influenced its global revenues. COVID-19 has shifted the scenario of the tourism and hospitality industry in each possible respect and has severely affected every section (Chang et al., 2020). According to an estimate by the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNTWO, 2020), international tourist arrivals dropped by 60 to 80%, resulting in a loss of between US$ 910 billion and US$1 trillion dollars. The COVID-19 pandemic wreaks havoc on the hotel industry's core functionality (Rivera, 2020) which is sometimes powerless to recover as rapidly as other businesses (Mair et al., 2014).

Given the diversity of crises and techniques implemented to respond to them (Pforr & Hosie, 2008), tourism crisis research has been compartmentalised and misses a comprehensive approach, resulting in a knowledge gap on the severity of the incidence of difficulties in the tourism industry (Pforr & Hosie, 2008). Management of crisis in tourism has traditionally been addressed in a national or regional context, with the triggering event being of various types, such as natural disasters (Ghaderi & Henderson, 2008), epidemics (Cooper, 2006; Kim et al., 2006; Pforr & Hosie, 2008; Zeng et al., 2006) or social confusion (Avraham, 2015). In the past, the response to the crisis has been reactionary, which now needs a proactive response based on past experiences. Further, the research about recovery after COVID-19 related to tourism and hospitality is under construction, with most publications conceptual focusing on impact (Hao et al., 2020, 2020a; Nicola et al., 2020) or critical reflections (Gossling et al., 2021; Gursoy & Chi, 2020) and very scarce recovery approaches (Hu et al., 2020). The current scenario indicates that the pandemic is not yet under control. As a result, the situation remains uncertain, and study is necessary to aid in the recovery of tourism and related industries (Chang et al., 2020; Rodríguez-Antón & Alonso-Almeida, 2020).

Accepting this call to fill the mentioned gaps, this research aims to leverage the broad work on crisis and recovery management as a platform for frameworks like these. In this research, an attempt has been made to find techniques for dealing with future crises and catastrophes upon reflecting on and combining lessons learned during COVID-19. The first stage in this procedure is to examine the preceding history and background of catastrophic events and crises to determine the intricacies concerned. Second, to produce substantial ideas for recovery management by the different industries, it is necessary first to comprehend the answers. Finally, all critical components of tourism were carefully investigated to build recovery management techniques and present an appropriate framework.

16.2 Review of Literature

16.2.1 COVID-19 Pandemic

In the last 40 years, humanity has gone through numerous major catastrophes, but not even a single pandemic has had the same repercussions on the worldwide economy as this catastrophe. COVID-19 does not share any similarities with other infectious diseases like measles and Ebola, nor is it expected to take a life of an infected person like Ebola (Bai et al., 2020; Rothe et al., 2020). On 31 December 2019, the World Health Organisation (WHO) Office in China issued the first warning of an unknown cause of pneumonia in Wuhan, China. The virus that leads to COVID-19 disease is extremely infectious and contagious and is expected to cause severe harm to inside appendages such as the liver, lungs and heart (Chang et al., 2020). In early January 2020, 41 people in China were admitted to hospitals with a suspected illness caused by a novel coronavirus (Gossling et al., 2021; Huang et al., 2020). Understanding the gravity of the situation, lockdown and quarantine measures were implemented to hold the virus in Wuhan, thus restricting the number of cases to 80,000 in China by mid-February (ECDC, 2020; Gossling et al., 2021). Unfortunately, by that moment, international air transport had already passed the infection through travellers to every continent, and by mid-March, it was reported by 146 countries. The number of confirmed cases started doubling and troubling quickly (Anderson et al., 2020), associated with various super dispersal activities, like the ski destination Austria (Hopkins, 2020). As a result of population spread, the contagion rate gathered speed, and by 23 November 2021, reported cases had reached 258,441,075 (with over 5,174,847 deaths) in around 200 nations (Worldometer, 2021). The total number of cases is still on the rise in the majority of countries.

16.2.2 Tourism and Hospitality Industry

The tourism and hospitality industry is very broad as it not only consists of one or two sub-segments, but many sub-segments make up the whole tourism and hospitality industry which includes Food and Beverage, Travel and Tourism, Lodging and Recreation (Bangare et al., 2022). As a result, tourism is one of the world's most diverse and highest-rising fiscal segments today. The sector's overall and direct contributions were projected to hit 11.5% and 3.5% of gross domestic product (GDP) by 2029, respectively, before the COVID-19 outbreak. Crises and disasters have always affected tourism and hospitality, and no tourism destination is let off (Beirman, 2006). The COVID-19 epidemic is much larger than past crises due to its international scope, widespread travel disruption and other daily activities (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020). Before the eruption of a worldwide epidemic of COVID-19, tourism was one of the fastest and majorly prosperous economic segments. The UNWTO forecasts disclose that in 2020, international tourist arrivals could decline by 34% to 80%, which accounts for the loss of more than US$ 500 billion in international revenue (UNWTO, 2020). Following the imposition of restrictions, local and global travel instantly impacted the domestic and international tourism system, including sub-segments like day visits, air travel, cruises, lodging, cafes and restaurants, conventions, fairs, gatherings and sports events. As a result of dramatic crises, domestic tourism turn-down suddenly over weeks.

16.2.3 Resilience

Resilience may be defined as the ability to defend against being ‘put down’ and to bounce back from and flourish after awful events (Harms et al., 2018). Policies with a focus on resilience are better able to deal with adversity (Liu et al., 2020). During natural catastrophes and calamities, the business sector acknowledges resilience as a crisis management technique for corporate stability and flexibility to all forms of vulnerabilities. According to the research, resilience can be preemptive, absorptive/adaptive, reflexive or dynamic (Pocinho et al., 2022; Supardi et al., 2020). Resilience has emerged as a fundamental objective and critical mechanism for overcoming the pandemic’s obstacles (McCartney et al., 2021). Tourism must become more resilient. In the recent systematic literature analysis, the number of papers focused on resilience compared to wellbeing which demonstrates the importance of promoting and enhancing resilience. A tourism sector resilience framework is required, emphasising the relevance of positive variables and how smaller businesses may acquire and maintain welfare on a larger scale while supporting more sustainable tourism (Pocinho et al., 2022; Sharma et al., 2021).

16.2.4 Recovery

The term ‘recovery’ refers to the process of restoring one’s self and returning to normal. Sustainable recovery can be defined as a ‘process of restoring, rebuilding and reshaping the physical, social, economic and natural environment through pre-event planning and post-event actions’ (Smith & Wenger, 2007:237). Because tourism is strongly linked to tourist movement as well as other systems such as the network of organisations that support travel and tourism around preferred places

(Yeh, 2021), it is critical to fully understand the tourism system, realise the extent of management changes that are needed for post-pandemic recovery and propose a long-term recovery guideline. COVID-19's enormous impact will necessitate equally exceptional efforts to recover. Tourism is predicted to rebound (Gossling et al., 2021). However, considerable changes in scheduled travel behaviour are likely during and after the COVID-19 crisis (Li et al., 2020; Viana-Lora et al., 2021). To provide a solution for long-term recovery, it is necessary to analyse existing theories, models and new insights (Pandey et al., 2021).

Further, when disasters like COVID-19 strike, tourism and hospitality businesses are forced to rethink their business models. These occurrences cause a lot of uncertainty and often need prompt responses to avoid harmful consequences (Ritchie & Jiang, 2019). However, prior studies have indicated that the hospitality industry is poorly prepared for a crisis (Bremser et al., 2018), owing to a lack of dedicated resources (Ghaderi et al., 2014) and an absence of experience and knowledge on how to respond (Ritchie & Jiang, 2019; Rodríguez-Antón & Alonso-Almeida, 2020). Previous studies have mostly focused on various industries' preparedness for reaction and recovery, with hardly any attention paid to hospitality response and recovery measures. However, little study related to this industry had a consensus that crisis conditions significantly influence the tourism and hospitality business. Table 16.1 summarises a literature review based on the tourism and hospitality business, which is organised by the types of crisis impacts and reaction and recovery techniques.

16.3 Methodology

A systematic literature review consistent with the studies of Santos et al. (2021) and Selcuk (2019) was performed as a research method using the PRISMA protocol (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses). The PRISMA approach enables the recognition and selection of high-quality and good-impact publications. As illustrated in Fig. 16.1, the PRISMA flow diagram was meticulously observed and applied in this systematic literature review. As a result, there were four important processes in the methodology: procedure description assessment (identification), publication selection procedure (screening), recognition of COVID-19, tourism, risk, resilience, and recovery in tourism (eligibility) and finally, the papers' inclusion (Fig. 16.1). As part of this method, the first stage was to do a keyword search in three of the most well-known databases, namely, Scopus, Web of Science, Science Direct, etc., to gather relevant literature sources on COVID-19, crisis, resilience and recovery in tourism and hospitality industry. Each indicator, component and aspect connected to resilience and recovery were analysed in the procedure's second stage, and whether they implicitly or explicitly affected the tourism business. Finally, our findings are presented, contrasted and discussed to reach a consensus.

Table 16.1 The tourism and hospitality business and the crisis: ramifications and methods for recovery

Geographical location and nature of catastrophe	Research	Impact summary	Mechanisms of reaction and recovery
COVID-19 (Global)	Heredia-Colaço and Rodrigues (2021)	Tourism and Hospitality industry	Standardised health and safety protocol Long-term vouchers
COVID-19 (Global)	Kimes (2020)	Tourism and Hospitality industry	Targeting new segments, increasing flexibility; enhancing communication mechanism
COVID-19 (European Union)	Vărzaru et al. (2021)	Tourism and Hospitality industry	Targeting tourist flow from over-tourism to less touristic destinations; Restructuring of tourism
COVID-19 (Global)	Persson-Fischer and Liu (2021)	Tourism	Resilience building; collaboration; co-creation; adaptivity; flexibility
COVID-19 (Spain)	Garrido-Moreno et al. (2021)	Tourism and Hospitality industry	Technology; social media; collaboration
COVID-19	Pocinho et al. (2022)	Tourism and Hospitality Industry	Innovation; new products focusing on wellness; worker security
COVID-19 (China)	Hao et al. (2020, 2020a)	Tourism and Hospitality industry	Market reshuffle, intelligent and digital transformation; special investment preference
COVID-19 (Global)	Sigala (2020)	Tourism and Hospitality industry	Experience redesigning; robotic mechanisms; in-room technology
COVID-19 (Global)	Yang et al. (2021)	Risk; threat; uncertainty	Updated information, Financial support; Cooperation
11/9/2001 USA terrorist assault	Stafford et al. (2002)	Lack of dealing; lower possession of rooms in hotels; harsh disturbance of normal functions	The coordinated reaction of hospitality business; reopen airport and other main tourist destinations; devising a marketing strategy
2003, Hong Kong Pandemic SARS	Chien and Law (2003)	Global tour abandonment; decline in hotel stay rate; labour cuts	Temporal closure of markets; Deferment of food and brew services; wage cuts and no-pay leaves; Arranging of emergency strategy; latest operating actions; protective health actions

(continued)

Table 16.1 (continued)

Geographical location and nature of catastrophe	Research	Impact summary	Mechanisms of reaction and recovery
2003, Singapore Pandemic SARS	Henderson and Ng (2004, 2004a)	Normal hotel use, usual stay rates constricted, earnings drop	People's promotional offers; improved services; new operating procedures; health precautions
Economic Northern Cyprus	Okumus et al. (2005)	Reduction in visitor arrivals from Turkey; preset and changeable costs augmented; loans collection obscurity; deferred potential investment strategy; faced trouble in paying debts	Reconsidered business agreements and commitments; increased advertising and marketing efforts; cut expenditures Potential investment plans have been postponed; staff reduction
Economic Turkey	Okumus and Karamustafa (2005)	Domestic demand fell; lenders had difficulty attracting loans; prospective investment projects were postponed; employees worked in a demanding environment; local government services were delayed; had trouble paying off debts; training budgets have been cut	Lessen costs; developed quality; make more cautious and prudent investment decisions; marketing and distribution campaigns stepped up; contracts and commercial agreements were double-checked. spent more time scanning the world and making plans
SARS Pandemic, Toronto, 2003	Tew et al. (2008)	Occupancy rates were lower than anticipated. Cancellations of leisure and business travel plans; visitors and sales are both down; loss of jobs	Cost-cutting; redirecting their selling; discounted deals to improve hotel occupancy; collaboration with industrial groups and governments; providing substantial discounts to entice consumers and altering considered plans; utilising hotel rooms for reasons other than lodging (e.g. renting them out as business offices); strategy of 'tourist in your city'
Spain in the Worldwide Recession of 2008	Bremser et al. (2018)	N/A	Prospectors had the best chance of surviving a downturn, with defenders coming in second. The malicious actors were the reactors

(continued)

Table 16.1 (continued)

Geographical location and nature of catastrophe	Research	Impact summary	Mechanisms of reaction and recovery
Honduras and Costa Rica experienced the 9/11 assault and the 2008 economic meltdown.	Kubickova et al. (2019)	Hotel occupancy and performance are reduced; rates are reduced. The number of paying guests has decreased	International travel has taken the place of local tourism; revenue managing tactics. focus on home travel; Honduras, Guatemala, El Salvador and Nicaragua reached an agreement to create a single Central American visa

Source: Developed by authors

Based on the research requirements of our study, 160 prospective papers were retrieved, and 20 redundant manuscripts were excluded. Further, following a more comprehensive investigation, 16 publications were deleted as a result of their insufficient titles, abstracts and editorial content (e.g. the text did not refer to the theme of tourism and/or crisis, recovery and/or resilience) (Fig. 16.1). As a result, the ultimate sample included 124 studies wherein the research examines the COVID-19, crisis, recovery and resilience at a deeper level in the tourism and hospitality industry. The systematic literature review is centred on a final collection of 124 papers that were appropriately collected and processed from Science Direct, Web of Science, Scopus and other online databases between 2002 and 2022. Further, Table 16.2 shows the list of journals that published the articles selected for this systematic literature review. The journals vary in their coverage fields, demonstrating that the topic is treated from multiple points of view.

16.4 Recovery Strategies

It is necessary to examine how the tourism, travel and hospitality businesses will recuperate after COVID-19 and how such businesses can be made sustainable in a changing world (Chang et al., 2020). Attention to post-disaster and pandemic reaction and revival is needed as a great deal related to tourism disaster and catastrophe management emerge to be affected through this period (Ritchie, 2008; Wang & Ritchie, 2010). Recovery has commenced immediately after the pandemic's shocks reduced or may take some time until the hosts can start recovery efforts. Depending on the magnitude and scope of the disaster, such recovery is multifaceted and can take a long occasion to bring back an affected site to its original status (Mair et al., 2014). This research proposes a resilience-based model for the tourism industry based on previous research undertaken to understand the industry in the context of COVID-19. It recommends that the tourist sector evolve more sustainably after the

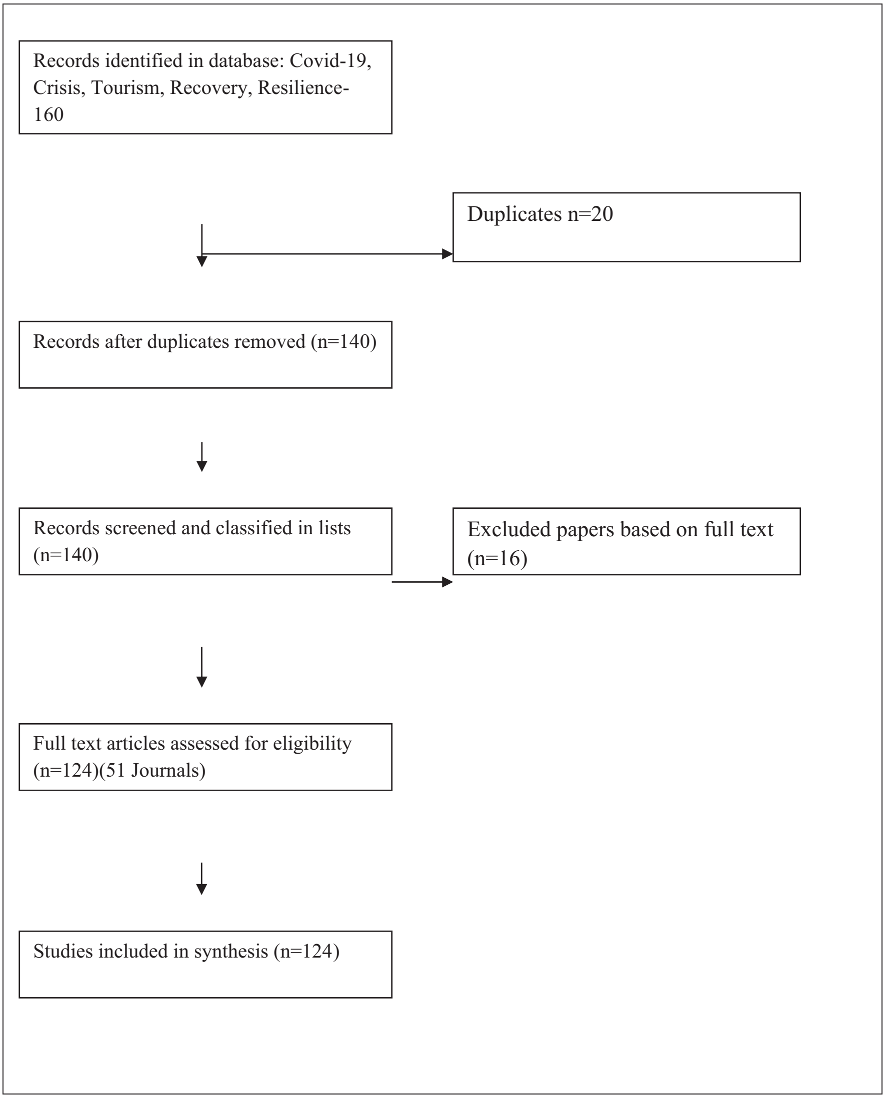

Fig. 16.1 PRISMA logical flow diagram of the systematic literature review (SLR)

pandemic with a resilient strategy from governments, market actors, technological developers and the industry's workforce. Tourism and hospitality businesses can undoubtedly win handily and assure the wellbeing of society at large while also supporting sustainable tourism if they act in accordance with our resilience-based approach. The framework can be adapted internationally with some changes based on local conditions. Following are the possible strategies that can be fruitful for the

Table 16.2 Journal contributions on the topic of the crisis, COVID-19 pandemic, recovery and resilience in the tourism and hospitality industry context

Journal	No. of publications per journal
Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing	13
Tourism Management	07
International Journal of Hospitality Management	09
Current Issues in Tourism	05
Annals of Tourism Research	05
Sustainability	04
African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism, and Leisure	03
Tourism Management Perspective	03
International Journal of Tourism Research	02
Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management	02
Journal of business research	02
International Journal of Information Management	01
International Journal of Tourism Policy	01
Tourism Review	01
International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	01
Cornell Hospitality Quarterly	01
Journal of Tourism, Hospitality & Culinary Arts	01
World Travel and Tourism Review	01
Others Related to Crisis, COVID-19, Tourism & recovery	62
Total	124

tourism and hospitality industry to recover its lost place after COVID-19 pandemic (Fig. 16.2).

Promote Domestic Tourism Domestic markets can be anticipated to recuperate first (Pandey et al., 2021). Once the restrictions are eased, or the pandemic is over, travellers will prefer domestic destinations rather than global destinations because of their health-conscious nature (Sharma et al., 2021). Several countries are developing measures to encourage domestic tourism and persuading people to reschedule tours they would otherwise call off. For instance, in Malaysia, the administration offered and provided income tax relief to tourists for spending on tourism and its related activities starting in March (ILO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, April, 2020). In France, the provisions for cancellations have been changed by the government to allow businesses to offer rescheduling vouchers (OECD, 15 April, 2020). Similarly, a 2-year grace period has been offered to tourists in Rwanda tourists to postpone bookings at no additional cost (The New Times, 10 March, 2020).

Switching to Virtual Mode

With various world countries increasing their quarantine, airlines are cautioning of bankruptcy, hotels are vacated and closed, and tourist buses stay vacant. Destinations experiencing overtourism for many years have suffered due to social distancing (Lu et al., 2021). But despite the lockdowns, travellers can experience virtual tourism (Zhang et al., 2022). Virtual reality (VR) may substitute for actual travel (Youssef et al., 2020). There has been a rise in the number of VR experiences on offer over the last few years, and in the present conditions, the idea is applauded

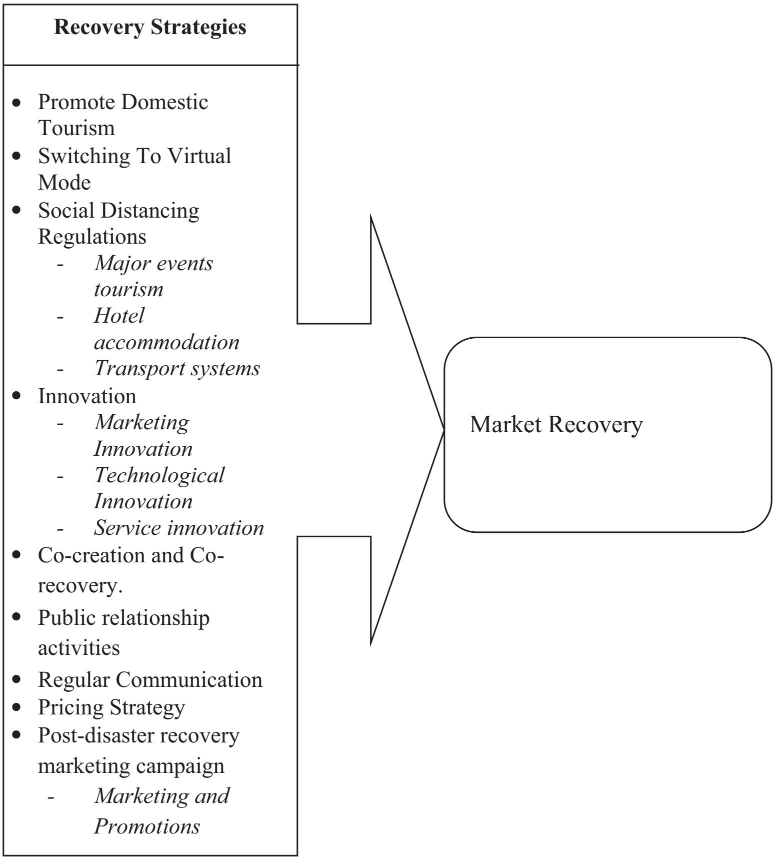

Fig. 16.2 Recovery strategies. (Proposed model by authors)

(Zhang et al., 2022). While COVID-19 has made travel not viable and visitor attractions have been blocked, curiosity about virtual travel around has seen a significant rise and is continuously anticipated to develop (Youssef et al., 2020). Customised and easily available information is possible with virtual tourism (Lu et al., 2021). It enables internet visitors to tour museums or other destinations, learn about particular components of curiosity, browse blog articles about events and understand the fundamentals of the area they are visiting (Youssef et al., 2020).

Social Distancing Regulations

Major events tourism is supposed to enforce updated laws and guidelines about social distancing, particularly for the following:

- Sports gatherings
- Musical festivals
- Theatrical performances
- Musical performances

- Conventions
- Exhibitions

Hotel accommodation should implement social separation at the following:

- The reception spot for check-in and check-out
- Delivering meals
- Social setups

Transport arrangements (air, sea, trains, buses, taxis) should impose restructured social distancing and protection principles, particularly for the following:

- Visiting locations
- Boarding and getting off
- Enhanced health check facilities and well-taught on-board healthcare staff
- Onboard seating arrangements

Innovation

To sustain in existing situations, businesses need to enrich their innovation competencies to fulfil current demands, which are vital for long-term success, progression, sustainable performance and survival (Dwivedi et al., 2020; Sharma & Bhat, 2020). Innovation is a means of altering the business, whether as a reaction to changes in its internal or external environment or as an anticipatory act taken to influence the environment. Through innovations, businesses can fit the environment to survive and prosper (Demircioglu, 2016) in challenging circumstances like COVID-19 (Choi et al., 2021). It can also be in the form of modification of the tools and software brought into use by a business for services to revolutionise the actions and methods engaged in distribution services (Tidd et al., 2008).

Marketing Innovation

Marketing innovation focuses on implementing novel strategies that result in dramatic changes in product design, wrapping, publicity, placement and sometimes even pricing. Hence marketing innovation strives to concentrate on the consumer's desires by opening new markets and the product relocation of a corporation within the market intending to enhance sales (Ganzer et al., 2017). In response to the international scenario (Like Coronavirus Pandemic) and rapid changes in the market, an organisation, by putting into practice marketing innovation, can retain the accurate symmetry, continue its market headship, magnetise and hold customers, take benefit of innovative prospects and spend in a range of innovations, thereby gaining medium-term and lasting results (Day, 2011).

Technological Innovation

Technological innovation is applying technical knowledge by way of improved tools/machines with enhanced performance characteristics to find a feasible solution to the perceived need of customers (Sharma & Bhat, 2020a; Bhat & Sharma, 2022). Databases, software, machinery and equipment are also covered, ensuring a systematic approach to technical learning that enhances innovation capacity (Gradvohl et al., 2011). Therefore, firms hunt for a technological way out simultaneously with speedy information technology innovations, resulting in connectivity based on cutthroat response (Bangare et al., 2022; Fawcett et al., 2011; Sharma et al., 2021), which can prove to be effective in tackling prevailing crises.

From the time of origin of the current coronavirus pandemic, there has been about a 5–10% increase in web traffic than what was used to be earlier. Customers and vendors have visited websites more than before the catastrophe to get information (Cortez & Johnston, 2020). Using social media amid coronavirus catastrophe can be extremely useful, mostly to correspond wide-ranging knowledge regarding business function (like operational hours, recommended links) and business dealings which might be vital for the public interest (like assistance to the public, aid, steps to care for the workforce) (Wen et al., 2020).

Service Innovation

Businesses that are smart enough to come up with creative ways to provide accurate customer experiences during the coronavirus pandemic will be able to seize the situation and accelerate the recovery process (Yeh, 2021). Researchers have been highly pushed to the call for exploring the basis of competitive advantage in the service area, particularly innovation as a cause of competitive advantage and its associated consequences (Prajogo, 2006; Bhat & Sharma, 2021, 2022). No industry has seen as many developments in its external environment in recent years as tourism has (Dwyer & Edwards, 2009). In such situations, tourism businesses would be fighting for survival in even more cost-sensitive segments of the market and committed to innovation and improving their operational efficiency. Understanding the link between achievement and innovation is critical for ongoing economic growth, but it is rarely discussed (Sitlington & Marshall, 2011). Various studies have looked into the connection, and it has been determined that 'innovation is a powerful explanatory factor behind differences in firm performance' (as cited in (Fagerberg, 2005, p. 20; Lin, 2013).

Co-creation and Co-recovery

Co-creation is a type of user participation in which dynamic customers collaborate with the organisation and freely contribute to the innovation process in the form of knowledge, informed observations and expertise resulting in an enhanced and more acceptable result (Hamidi & Gharneh, 2017; Sharma & Bhat, 2020a; Bhat & Sharma, 2021). Co-recovery (Dong et al., 2008) is a course of action to arrive at a way out utilising exchanges involving a service provider and its clients. Customer-centric recovery management, by the proactive workforce, can add to the effectiveness of recovery and results in delighted customers, which increases their repurchase behaviour (Xu et al., 2014). The objective of any recovery response should be to fix the abrupt problem. When customers contribute to the revitalisation, they are more contented and thus have higher repurchase/revisit intentions (Roggeveen et al., 2012).

Further, customers who participate in the recovery process have a top probability of receiving an outcome customised to their needs, which in turn develops more positive perceptions of the recovery process (Hazee et al., 2017). Collaboration in the context of crisis and disaster management includes the cooperation of all actors, including private and public players (such as associations, individuals or organisations) at the tourism destination level (Çakar, 2018; Garrido-Moreno et al., 2021). The absence of cooperation and coordination between actors forbids stakeholders from constructing Comprehensive Disaster Management (CDM) strategies (Jiang & Ritchie, 2017). Besides, the implications of supportive and collaborative techniques in tourism destination revival have been highlighted as a crucial approach (Gani & Singh, 2019).

Public Relationship Activities Public relations such as media visits and/or familiarisation trips for the travel industry may be an important part of a tourism destination recovery plan. For example, in the aftermath of the Boxing Day Tsunami in the Maldives, tourism promotion groups enticed over 1000 media agencies and wholesalers to travel and become acquainted with improvement through their trips (Carlsen & Hughes, 2008). Similar strategies were tested in New York after the 9/11 attacks (Floyd et al., 2004). Taiwan also adopted this approach when earthquakes hit the country (Huang et al., 2008). Such arrangements to sponsor tourist destinations can make possible positive publicity and better editorials and will also ensure that touristic place remains a piece of a continuous attraction. This will result in avoiding cancellations because positive word-of-mouth spreads (Gani & Singh, 2019). Festivals and events are said to represent an outstanding opportunity to persuade tourists to explore a location (Avraham & Ketter, 2008; Derrett, 2003; Hystad & Keller, 2008; Sanders et al., 2008) and can be a lure for travellers who wouldn't have considered the destination otherwise (Walters and Mair, 2012).

Regular Communication Communication is a fundamental challenge while dealing with crises and disasters as it may help mitigate or exacerbate an adverse condition's influence (Pandey et al., 2021). Communication plays an essential role in three key areas: communication from the destination to the tourism market, communication among tourism players and communication from the disaster department to different stakeholders (Kimes, 2020). Hystad and Keller (2008) highlighted the importance of receiving updated and accurate information for businesses and organisations in the tourism sector (Gani & Singh, 2019). Marketing communications must focus on two key areas to restore visitors' confidence. The first is changing misperceptions about the destination, and the second is restoring visitor confidence (Armstrong & Ritchie, 2008; Beirman, 2006; Scott et al., 2008). Social media, in particular, can be an important source of communication in disaster (Yates & Paquette, 2011), and customers may view it as a more trustworthy, engaging and reputable source in the revival phase (Mair et al., 2014).

Pricing Strategy Most disaster-affected destinations have used pricing strategies to convalesce after a debacle. Special offers or price reductions, significant-quality enhancement and so on attract visitors. But some researchers argue that price diminution is unsuitable as operators are likely to suffer financial loss already (Beirman, 2006). However, studying the effect of price reductions in attracting visitors seems worthy of detailed investigation, which may lure people into having certain visitation in a complicated situation (Walters and Maier, 2012).

Post-disaster Recovery Marketing Campaign The main aim of such a campaign is to re-establish a positive image of the destination, eliminate pessimistic metaphors and create a fresh and better image. According to Lehto et al. (2008), the most important advertising campaign is to rebuild visitor optimism in believing the safety of the destination. Different slogans have been employed to restore confidence in post-disaster circumstances like 'our heart's still going strong', which was employed to sponsor Canberra after bushfires in 2004 (Armstrong & Ritchie, 2008). Similarly, 'New Orleans—never better' (Pearlman & Melnik, 2008) slogan was used in the past to raise interest to lure visitors (Sanders et al., 2008). Avraham and Ketter (2008) suggested that slogans that use terms like 'rejuvenation' and 'revitalisation' and messages put more stress on the recovery of natural scenery and possibly infuse a type of inquisitiveness among the tourist, thereby motivating them to visit the disaster-affected region.

Marketing and promotions also assist a tourist destination in recovering from a debacle (Hystad & Keller, 2008). Certain promotion approaches have been considered more efficient in the aftermath of a disaster than extensive or nonspecific communication (Peters & Pikkemaat, 2005). As in the case of the 9/11 attack in the USA, persuasive advertising was used to encourage Americans, and it took only 4 weeks to resume travelling, which also resulted in significant numbers (Floyd et al., 2004). Further, Faulkner and Vikulov (2001) also suggested that hospitality marketing activities should be used generally during the recovery phase. The core focus of such post-disaster campaigns is to dispel misunderstandings about the catastrophe.

Testimonials In a percentage of situations, testimonials have been effective, whether they are celebrity endorsements, as recommended by Avraham and Ketter (2008), or testimonials from visitors, as used in the Maldives (Carlsen & Hughes, 2008). Guest testimonials were considered especially credible by prospective visitors, as they had been in the past (Carlsen & Hughes, 2008). As a result, it could be beneficial for disaster-stricken areas to gain recovery. According to Swerdlow and Swerdlow (2003), celebrity status comes with its own set of benefits and drawbacks. A product endorsed by a celebrity can capture viewers' concentration, raise civic understanding about the product and encourage clients to buy the product being certified (Walters & Mair, 2012). For instance, the case of the 9/11 event where the US president urged Americans to tour within the USA. Likewise, the Governor of Florida also recommended his people to make a trip to Florida to give a hand to the local tourism sector in fast recovery (Goodrich, 2002).

Post-disaster recovery messages are the means to gain the confidence of visitors to visit the affected destinations. Walters and Mair (2012) mentioned that nine messages are commonly used, which include the messages like 'business as usual, community readiness, solidarity, celebrity endorsement, reinstating confidence, spinning the unsafe reputation into assets, curiosity enhancement, short-term discounts, and guest/visitor testimonials' (Mair et al., 2014). These and every such message may persuade potential visitors and infuse curiosity among them to trip to the destination following catastrophe.

16.5 Summary and Conclusion

From a theoretical aspect, this research adds to the literature on tourism and hospitality recovery and resilience by creating a set of strategic approaches for adoption to alter day-to-day business to contend with the COVID-19 epidemic or a similar disaster. It also adds to the body of tourism and hospitality management knowledge by analysing patterns in best practices for dealing with adversity, resuming operations and improving organisational resilience. By proposing a coping strategy based on resilience, we make substantial theoretical and practical input to the discipline.

Managing business emergencies that surface from health epidemics to a worldwide extent is extra difficult than running the ones born out of usual 'financial' crisis or local epidemic disaster because a global pandemic is the rarest of its type in world history and can be compared to a black swan (i.e. an irregular happening that is afar what is generally anticipated of a situation and has prospectively stern results) (Bogle & Sullivan, 2009). As the Ebola epidemic shows, a health-related tragedy may kill several enterprises in exaggerated geographic areas (Balakrishnan, 2016; Cortez & Johnston, 2020).

The COVID-19 eruption has inflicted a mess on the international economic growth and job sector. The pandemics' critical control measures have hard hit tourism and hospitality businesses, and it appears doubtful that the industry will return to proper functioning immediately (Dube et al., 2021). Yet after the progressive lifting of restraint measures, existing enterprises will go on with facing the challenge of a likely sluggish recovery. In the existing unstable circumstances, determining the core necessary key recovery plans to implement is critical for the tourist and hospitality business (Filimonau et al., 2020; Melian-Alzola et al., 2020; Roundy et al., 2017). Based on the crisis management research, this study proposes a handful of action plans, clustered into nine categories, to recoup business operations following the COVID-19 disruption. The study offers valuable information for tourism and hotel management in dealing with ongoing crises and planning for the future. The policies will assist management in improving organisational resilience and avert the negative impact of COVID-19 on their employees, visitors and industry (Garrido-Moreno et al., 2021; Heredia-Colaço & Rodrigues, 2021).

The critically suggested recovery strategies mainly comprise, promoting domestic tourism, switching to virtual mode, social distancing regulation (in *major events tourism*, *hotel accommodation*, *transport systems*), innovation (*marketing innovation*, *service innovation*, *technological innovation*), post-disaster recovery marketing campaign (*marketing and promotions, post-disaster recovery messages, testimonials*), pricing strategy, regular communication, public relationship activities and co-creation and co-recovery. The tourism industry will not come out from the COVID-19 crisis without aftershocks. However, the industry is well-known for its adjustments to economic recession and crises, as was the scene after the SARS epidemic in 2003 and the worldwide financial crises of 2008–2009. Therefore, the industry may be beneficial in revitalising the global economy as soon as the pandemic is over. Further, this study has used the theoretical lens to propose a framework of resilience and recovery for the tourism and hospitality industry. Future research may use an empirical approach to find the factors and develop a scale based on resilience and recovery.

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Chapter 17
Revival of Urban Tourism amid COVID-19 Pandemic: A Descriptive Perspective in the Indian Context

Rajdeep Deb

Abstract Urban tourism is one such sector that was struck by the COVID-19 pandemic more badly than any other urban economic sector. This led to significant challenges for the sector, which need to be addressed to ensure the sector's sustainability going forward. In light of this, this study attempted to develop a narrative on the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the urban tourism industry and subsequent responses aimed at reviving the industry. The secondary research approach was adopted to pursue the objective. This study found that adopted measures included fiscal and regulatory relief courses, resilient-building efforts, promotion of domestic tourism, the gradual opening of foreign travel, digitalisation of the tourism sector and the introduction of a New National Tourism Policy focusing on sustainable and responsible tourism and other sectoral policies. This study contributes to the body of knowledge on urban tourism and the COVID-19 pandemic in the Indian context.

Keywords COVID-19 · Urban tourism · Coronavirus · Revival actions · India

17.1 Introduction

The meteoric rise of the COVID-19 pandemic thwarted the growth engine of the world economy and brought its downfall. No industry could escape the clutches of this dreadful pandemic, which is still marching ahead. Among all the industries, tourism is one such which has received maximum ire from this pandemic (Dube, 2022). With movement restrictions put in place, aircraft on the ground and hotel shutdowns were announced in virtually all nations around the world (Nhamo et al., 2020). Given its cross-cutting nature, the value chain of the tourism sector tends to touch almost all dimensions of a country's economy. The pandemic paralysed the Indian travel and tourism sector, which includes hotels, travel agencies, tour

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operators, destinations, family entertainment venues, restaurants and air, land and sea transportation, among others (Ghosh et al., 2020). Losses total up to USD 16.7 billion in 2020 (FICCI, 2020).

Urban tourism is one such sector that was struck by the COVID-19 pandemic more badly than any other urban economic sector (Milano, 2021). The crumbling of urban tourism due to the sharp rise of COVID-19 cases sparked interest among various tourism industry stakeholders to focus on framing policies and strategies to revive the sector and make it sustainable. Actions in the form of travel restrictions, social distancing and lockdowns to tackle the pandemic led to a disastrous effect on tourism (Dube, 2021). Many urban destinations worldwide that have successfully drawn millions of tourists annually are now fighting under tourism. In India, urban tourism destinations have faced unprecedented crises since the pandemic forced a national lockdown. In the wake of the pandemic, the economic and psychosocial impacts had potentially suppressed the demand for tourism products for several months. The collapse of the urban tourism industry has, in turn, bulldozed the employment opportunities and market dynamics across the value chain. This has led to a more significant challenge of strengthening the sector so that it may be positioned as a more sustainable and resilient tourism industry post this pandemic.

17.2 Literature Review

There is abundant literature that talks about tourism's sensitivity to crises (Henderson, 2003; McKercher & Hui, 2004; Wut et al., 2021). Studies have found that natural and artificial catastrophes are widespread in tourism (Gössling et al., 2020). Several destinations have also emerged from these disasters by formulating effective resilience and crisis alleviation policies and strategies (Ritchie & Jiang, 2019). However, the tourism crisis instigated by the COVID-19 pandemic is quite different in many aspects (Collins-Kreine & Ram, 2020); for example, it possesses a global reach, the economic impact of the pandemic has been more severe than in the case of crises faced in yesteryears (UNTWO, 2021), and the surge of COVID-19 worldwide caused primarily irreparable damage to the tourism sector (McCartney et al., 2021). To some academics, the current pandemic can bring about fundamental changes in various tourism fragments (Dolnicar & Zare, 2021).

Over the years, numerous strategies, policies, activities and frameworks have been designed to prevent and cope with crises (Koehl, 2011, as cited in Soliku et al., 2021). One of the most popular frameworks was developed by Faulkner (2001), who presented six stages for knowing and handling a crisis. According to his framework, response or recovery actions toward any problem starts at *the pre-event stage*, where contingency plans are made available to thwart a crisis from taking place based on valid information. If the crisis still erupts, it sets its foot in this second stage, the *prodromal stage* or the beginning of the problem. Here, policies are implemented to fight the crisis by initiating a contingency plan. In the emergency stage, protective actions are implemented amid the concern to safeguard individuals and property. After that, the short-term needs of the affected people are sorted out in the *intermediate stage*, while clear communication is initiated to solve long-term needs. In the *recovery stage*, the more long-term conditions, including infrastructure rebuilding, facilities and tourist attractions, are addressed in a coordinated and sustained manner. In the last *resolution stage*, all the adopted actions during the crisis are appraised and reinforced in future contingency plans.

Although profound literature is found regarding the impact of COVID-19 on tourism (Collins-Kreine & Ram, 2020), it is quite sporadic in the context of COVID-19 impact on tourism cities (McCartney, 2020; Li et al., 2021; McCartney et al., 2021). One of the special reports on the actions implemented by tourist cities to revive tourism is the 'Report on Recovery and Development of World Tourism amid COVID-19' (WTCF). The report put forward dealing strategies in two phases, firstly, crisis response which includes cooperation with national authorities, building cross-department collaboration with the urban system and maintaining tourism businesses and employment, and secondly, tourism industry recovery, which provides for launching data-driven phased action plans, advocating technology-facilitated innovation in tourism, rebuilding confidence in tourism and providing continuous financial support and consumption stimuli (Kowalczyk-Anioł et al., 2021).

It is quite substantial from the above discussion that history provides ample evidence of the impact of crises on the tourism industry and the subsequent responses and actions to rebuild the industry. However, the studies of the effects of COVID-19 on the urban tourism industry is partial in all Indian context. Also, rebuilding the urban tourism industry via policy responses by the Central and State governments is unusually subtle. Through this article, the author will attempt to draw a somewhat clear description of the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the urban tourism industry as well as comprehend the responses by the Government to fight and revive them in India.

17.3 Methodology

The key objectives of this study are to develop a narrative on the impact of COVID-19 on the urban tourism industry in the Indian context and to identify the key measures adopted by the Central and State governments to revive the urban tourism industry in the Indian context during the pandemic. The current study adopted the form of secondary research, taking into account the information generated, about the impact of a pandemic on the urban tourism industry and the subsequent revival actions, till the end of the year 2021. It involves a systematic reviewing methodology where records were searched and extracted from various secondary sources. The research methods employed included selecting articles from the online academic databases of reference, mainly peer-reviewed journals relevant to the subject area. The reports were searched with keywords such as 'COVID-19', 'urban tourism', 'coronavirus', 'rebuilding strategies' and 'policy response'. The total number of articles identified was 55 based on the search criteria, of which 11 duplicates were removed. Then, 44 articles were screened, out of which 27 were excluded by going through the abstracts. So, 17 articles were found to be relevant in the current study context of peer-reviewed journals (comprising different academic databases) which are justified by their widespread use by academicians (Rodrigues & Franco, 2020) as well as the use of other databases, reducing the degree of bias usually found in journals indexed exclusively in one database (Mongeon et al., 2016). Besides, multiple sources, including government-published reports, national newspapers, local press articles and tourism magazines, were also reviewed to quantify COVID-19 effects. However, these information sources are still very much constrained to the wholly novel and continuous changing of the situation and the partnering phenomenon.

17.4 COVID-19 Impact on the Urban Tourism Industry in India

While urban tourism showcased tremendous growth within overall tourism demand prior to the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, it is currently one of the worst segments in India's tourism. Tourism-dependent nations are most likely to feel the adverse impacts of the ongoing crisis for much longer than other economies. Contact-intensive services integral to the tourism and travel sectors are disproportionately affected by the pandemic. Their struggle will extend until people feel safe to travel in a mass again. As per an estimation, tourism receipts worldwide are not expected to recover to 2019 levels until 2023 (IMF, 2020).

With bulk cancellation of travel plans and itineraries by both foreign and domestic tourists, there was a sharp decline in both inbound and outbound tourism of almost 67% and 52%, respectively, in India from January to February 2020, as compared with the same period in 2019 (FICCI, 2020). At the beginning of the pandemic, many of the biggest cities in India (e.g. Mumbai, Delhi, Bangalore, Chennai) recorded a very high incidence of COVID-19 cases per person, which gradually spread into other cities of the country. According to JLL property consultancy, 11 major cities across the country saw a steep decline of 29% in revenue per available room (RevPAR) from January to March 2020. The city of Jaipur, also known as Pink City, a UNESCO heritage city, was in the fifth spot, witnessing a decline of 19.6% in RevPAR (Shrivastava, 2021b). However, Jaipur is not the only city that has been a spectator of the drastic reduction of tourist arrivals. Every major urban tourism destination in India has the same story to narrate. This dip in the tourist arrivals to tourist cities is causing a revenue crunch, bad times and difficulties for the development of the cities. Agra, a renowned heritage tourism city, was no different and facing a similar crisis as Jaipur. Tourist footfalls dipped by 60% in 2020, and more than 4.5 lakh people have been impacted. Tamil Nadu, one of the significant states of city tourism attractions, was under the fear of coronavirus strain during the month-long peak season starting mid-December 2019. The subsequent lockdown later in the state and the rest of the country has severely paralysed the state's tourism sector, leading to job losses and an economic impact that may take months to heal. There were little or almost no tourist activities in 2020 and 2021. Theme parks, hotels and restaurants were closed during the period. About 750 registered and 40,000 unregistered tour operators had stopped operations due to a lack of business. Another city tourism destination that witnessed a significant decline in tourist footfalls was Kerala. In 2019, nearly 18.4 million domestic and 1.18 million foreign tourists visited Kerala.

However, post report of the first case of covid positive in the state on January 2020, tourist footfalls dipped drastically, and only 349,575 foreign tourists visited in the year, a 61% decline in numbers compared to the preceding year. Domestic tourist arrivals also witnessed a sharp decrease of 85%, causing total losses of Rs 35,207 crore in 2020 (The Economic Times, 2020). The second wave of COVID-19 has struck a tremendous blow to the tourism industry in Jammu and Kashmir. According to an estimate, the industry lost about 1500 crores during the second wave. Also, if reports were to be believed, Kashmir reported almost 100% bookings for the first 3 months of 2021. But, due to the second COVID-19 wave in the country, all the bookings were cancelled, and the tourism industry was hit hard again (Zee News, 2021). The third wave of the coronavirus pandemic in Delhi has struck the tourism and hospitality sector in the national capital poorly, with field experts and owners of travel agencies and hotels in the city reporting a 60–70% fall in their businesses (The Economic Times, 2022).

The hospitality sector, which belongs to the tourism-characteristic industries, was the worst hit within the industry due to its nature. The sudden and unexpected resumption of the second wave has devastated the hospitality sector as travel restrictions were imposed again, and curfew continued to serve challenges for leisure and business travellers. India's major urban tourist destinations were reeling under the lockdowns and extended curfews. The preliminary indications are that nearly 40% of small-scale hotels had stopped operations across the country, while large numbers of others were staring at a possible disintegration in the case of lack of government support. Further, according to estimates, the sector has been impacted by Rs. 1.40 lakh crores in a fiscal impact. The lakhs of jobs were lost, with 40% of establishments closed down permanently, compounding the economic impact. However, reports show that it is not only the hotel industry but also other tourism-dependent earners like guides, tour operators, cab drivers and emporium owners that have suffered hugely due to the Corona crisis. The data shows that 650 hotels, 3500 guides and 800 photographers are officially registered with the district administration.

On the international front, Rajiv Mehra, President of the Indian Association of Tour Operators (IATO), asserted that the inbound tourism effect on the economy during the previous financial year till 31 March 2021 was approximately 95%. This suggests a loss of almost US$ 27 billion, nearly Rs 2 lakh crores on a direct basis. The loss was over Rs 6 lakh crores on an indirect economic front. The domestic tourism market had the impact of nearly 60% to 70% of the total value. This implies almost Rs 2.5 to 3 lakh crores of direct domestic tourism loss. The economic impact was close to Rs 6 to 9 lakh crores (Jha, 2021).

Lastly, the coronavirus has attacked the most important source markets for urban tourism. Also, it is difficult to predict to what extent coronavirus's economic and socio-economic consequences and taken measures will influence the travel behaviour of domestic and foreign tourists. However, the Indian tourism industry expects a quick revival and hopes that the helping hand of the government will help the industry find its feet again (Shrivastava, 2021a).

17.5 Responses by the Government

The COVID-19 pandemic-induced urban tourism crisis has reinstated interest in urban tourism governance, which has had to fight radically different challenges overnight. Travel curtailments, physical distancing and prolonged lockdowns brought an abrupt, short-term end to the menace of overtourism. Several cities that previously had witnessed millions of tourists yearly are now crippled and suffering from under-tourism. The government of India had adopted specific impact—making sure to revamp the urban tourism industry during the COVID-19 pandemic, including fiscal and regulatory relief courses, resilient-building efforts, promotion of domestic tourism, the gradual opening of foreign travel, digitalisation of the tourism sector and introduction of a New National Tourism Policy focusing on sustainable and responsible tourism and other sectoral policies (Ministry of Tourism, 2021). Also, new data-driven 'Incredible India 2.0' campaign concentrating on niche tourism products, including yoga, wellness, luxury, cuisine, adventure and wildlife among others, as well as investing in the industry via schemes like PRASHAD and Swadesh Darshan along with other initiatives, are among several initiatives to increase the domestic and international tourists in India (Financial Express, 2021; The Indian Express, 2021).

In response to the question regarding actions taken by the Indian government to revive the tourism sector in India, Shri G. Kishan Reddy, Minister of Tourism, Government of India, stated in Lok Sabha (Lower House of Parliament) that the Indian Government had come up with various policy responses to mitigate the impact of pandemic (Ministry of Tourism, GOI, 2021). Some of them are as follows:

1. The Government announced Atmanirbhar Bharat Package vide which Rs.3 lakh crore collateral free automatic loan has been made available for MSMEs.
2. The Reserve Bank of India had announced On-Tap Liquidity Window for Contact-Intensive sectors: A separate liquidity window of Rs. 15,000 Crore was being opened till 31 March 2022, with tenures up to 3 years, at the repo rate. Under this scheme, Banks could offer new lending support to various tourism stakeholders like hotels, restaurants, travel agents, tour operators, aviation ancillary services and other services, including private bus operators, rent-a-car service providers, event organisers, spa clinics, etc.
3. The initiative of financial support over 11,000 registered tourist guides/travel and tourism stakeholders. Under the new Loan Guarantee Scheme for Covid

Affected Sectors, working capital/personal loans were provided to people working in the tourism sector to oust liabilities and begin newly post being impacted due to COVID-19. The scheme covers 10,700 regional-level tourist guides recognised by the Ministry of Tourism and Tourist Guides recognised by the State Governments and Travel and Tourism Stakeholders (TTS) recognised by the Ministry of Tourism. TTSs are eligible to receive a loan up to Rs. 10 lakh each, while tourist guides can get a loans up to Rs 1 lakh each.

4. Free Tourist Visa to 5 Lakh: As per the announcement, once Visa issuance is restarted, the first 5 lakh Tourists Visas will be issued free of charge. The benefit of free charge visa was available only once per tourist during the issuance of the first 5 lakh tourist visas (free-of-charge visas). The scheme was applicable till 31 March 2022, or till 500,000 tickets were issued, whichever was earlier.
5. To prepare for a post-COVID-19 revival, the Ministry developed and issued detailed operational guidelines for Covid safety and hygiene for hotels, restaurants, B&Bs/Homestays and Tourism Service Providers on 08 July 2020 to facilitate the smooth resumption of business.
6. An initiative named SAATHI (System for Assessment, Awareness and Training for Hospitality Industry) was developed for effective execution of Guidelines/SOPs issued due to COVID-19 and beyond for cautious operations of Hotels, restaurants, B&Bs and other units.
7. Acknowledging that recovery in the tourism sector is vastly expected to be spearheaded by Domestic tourism, the Ministry arranged a series of webinars under the overall theme of Dekho Apna Desh. The aim was to create awareness and, at the same time, imbibe interest amongst stakeholders, students and the general public.
8. Going by reports, domestic tourism in a few cities of India has already started to witness growth in tourist arrivals.

Besides the above, individual states of India have also taken severe measures to stimulate the tourism business in their respective states. Some of them are as follows:

1. States like Karnataka and Maharashtra had a head start by bestowing industry status to the hotel and hospitality industry, which offers considerable relief in water and electricity tariffs.
2. The Uttarakhand Government has stretched various fiscal and monetary support to the tourism sector and has adopted various measures to help the industry. A package of INR 200 crore has been allocated for COVID-affected service providers like adventure tour operators and river guides, among others (The Times of India, 2021).
3. The Odisha government had sanctioned INR 200 and 350 crores in 2019 and 2020, respectively, for the development of religious tourist destinations and had also approved a budget of INR 1500 crores in 2021 to make religious goals ready post-COVID (Whereabouts, 2021).
4. Others states have also offered some relief relaxation depending on their financial resources. The popular notion and pattern are that the state governments highly support the hotel and accommodation sector (Hospitality Biz India, 2021).

Despite a slew of measures that have been adopted by the government and the industry to thwart the invasion of COVID-19 virus on tourism, swifter recovery is still not achieved for the urban tourism industry in India and also seems not reachable in short to medium-phase.

17.6 Conclusion and Study Implications

The sudden and unprecedented catastrophic effects of the health crises on India's tourism industry, particularly urban tourism and related sectors, demand quick policy responses to facilitate the industry's economic revival. India's central and various state governments have adopted prompt and innovative actions to pull the sector out of the mess while trying to safeguard jobs and businesses. Despite the immediate efforts, the longer-term implications of the crisis have also brought to light the pressing need to review existing urban tourism policy and tourism models fundamentally. Undoubtedly, the tourism industry in general and urban tourism mainly come from the clutches of the dreaded COVID-19 pandemic. However, the pertinent question is whether urban tourism will remain the same as before the pandemic. The economic recovery after the partial withdrawal of restrictions may lead to the development of novel patterns of holiday trips, focusing more on domestic tourism among visitors (Józefowicz, 2021).

The essence of any study is to extract more information and knowledge and add to the existing body of knowledge. The current study contributes in the sense that very few studies are available on urban tourism and the COVID-19 pandemic in the Indian context, so this study's findings may add to the existing body of knowledge in this area. This study also contributes by pursuing research based on secondary data instead of employing the questionnaire method.

Finally, in line with the objectives, this chapter has presented the effects of COVID-19 on the tourism industry and measures and actions against COVID-19 by the government. Ultimately, the chapter leads to the following questions, among others which may warrant further research on urban tourism and the COVID-19 pandemic:

1. Will the urban tourism offering be reviewed and more sustainable? Will post-COVID-19 pandemic urban tourism destinations become more sustainable and better places to reside in?
2. Will the 'new normal' be an ideal driver for post-covid tourism in urban areas, and if yes, then to what level? How will the different tourism stakeholders perceive the novel practices in the 'new normal'?
3. Will 'domestic tourism', promoted during the pandemic, will be able to reverse the slowdown in tourist arrivals to different Indian cities?
4. Will the government's support be sufficient for the revival of the urban tourism sector?

This study concludes with considerable limitations compared to other studies because of the unavailability and inaccessibility of the data on the impact of the COVID-19 outbreak on the Indian urban tourism industry. This study needs to be extended in the future with the attainability of statistical information to the researcher. So, this study concludes with the actual data as it encountered difficulty collecting sufficient data for the analysis.

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Chapter 18
Restaurants Industry Recovery Challenges from COVID-19 Amidst the Russo-Ukrainian War

Emmanuel Ndhlovu and Kaitano Dube

Abstract There was an anticipation that the advent of the COVID-19 vaccine would trigger a massive recovery in the tourism and hospitality sector. However, the post-COVID-19 vaccine discovery has been marred with several other global challenges ranging from extreme weather events to massive inflation and political crisis in Europe, which could scuttle the recovery process. Drawing from secondary and archival data sources and abstraction, this chapter explores the state of global restaurant industry recovery since February 2022 and identifies the challenges to the industry's prospects for recovery. The study found that while there are some individual restaurants that have registered some growth, possibly owing to their resilience and their capacity to tap from technological innovations, overall, the restaurant industry has had some challenges due to the Russo-Ukrainian war. The war has resulted in the plunging of restaurant stocks again; thus, only a few sampled companies are showing resilience to the shock imposed by the war. The study notes that in as much as the sector is resilient from the pandemic, a robust recovery strategy pathway, which can transcend both the pandemic and the Russo-Ukrainian war, is needed.

Keywords COVID-19 · Global challenges · Restaurant · Hospitality industry · Tourism recovery · War

18.1 Introduction

The advent of the Coronavirus disease of 2019 (COVID-19) has been catastrophic to business value chains worldwide (Hall et al., 2020). With the infection rate subsiding and lockdowns easing, businesses anticipated a quick recovery, particularly with the discovery of vaccines (Bama & Nyikana, 2021; Dzinamarira et al., 2021).

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However, the breakdown of relations between Russia and Ukraine has intensified into a global disaster with far-reaching implications on the global economy that is only recuperating from COVID-19 (Balbaa et al., 2022; Ozili, 2022). The idiosyncrasies of the Russo-Ukrainian war, both now and after the war, could be the beginning of untold suffering for many people and businesses worldwide. One of the sectors which had already been worst battered by COVID-19 and the associated response mechanisms adopted by countries has been the tourism sector, under which the restaurant industry is categorised (Baum & Hai, 2020; Sucheran, 2022). The Russo-Ukraine further complicates prospects for a speedy recovery of the sector (Butler, 2020; Dube, 2022; Feyen et al., 2021).

With the Russo-Ukraine war still ongoing and no prospects for ceasefire insight, empirical evidence and well-grounded abstractions are needed on how businesses can recover and/or survive in the face of adversity. Such an effort could also flag how national governments could intervene since challenges of this nature require consolidated interventions. Sharma et al. (2021) posit that pandemics are sudden, disastrous and have long-term implications both for lives and livelihoods. On the other hand, human-made disasters such as wars also wield long-term and drawn-out implications for human development (Brown et al., 2017). A combination of a pandemic and war is a double tragedy for human and business survival. Thus, rapid reviews of the implications and impacts of both the COVID-19 disease pandemic and the Russo-Ukrainian war are thus needed to provide timely evidence and abstraction for policymakers, businesses and governments to build resilience and recovery strategies. Drawing from this recommendation, this chapter (i) explores the state of global restaurant recovery from COVID-19 since February 2022 amidst the Russo-Ukrainian conflict; (ii) identifies the challenges being faced by the restaurant industry in its quest for recovery and (iii) proposes recovery and resilience pathways for the industry. This chapter does not merely consolidate the findings of existing studies and provides insights and directions for future research.

The following section outlines the research methodology for this chapter. This is followed by a background discussion of the COVID-19 pandemic and the ongoing war between Russia and Ukraine and a presentation and discussion of the results. After that, the article proposes potential recovery strategies amidst the identified crises. Finally, concluding remarks are made.

18.2 Methods and Materials

To track down the implications of COVID-19 and the Russo-Ukrainian war that took place when restaurants were battling to recover from the ravaging impacts of COVID-19, this chapter first draws from the data generated by an online restaurant reservation company, OpenTable. OpenTable launched a data collection programme using online, phone and walk-in reservations; it tracks down the implications of the pandemic on the sector using the year 2019 as the baseline. From the available data, this chapter only utilises data from countries such as Australia, the USA, Canada, Germany, Ireland, Mexico and the United Kingdom (UK), with more than 50 restaurants registered on the OpenTable platform and in which the restaurant business is significantly flourishing. This is consistent with Dube et al. (2021), who aver that the above countries account for the majority of the restaurants registered on the OpenTable. To sample the data, we first acknowledge the data for 18 February 2020, when OpenTable first recorded data on its platform. This is then followed by systematic sampling of 2-month intervals from 20 February 2020 until June 2022. Only the data for the last day of each selected month was recorded and analysed using descriptive statistics to generalise the performance dynamics of that particular entire month. We then compare the performance of the industry before and after the advent of the Russo-Ukrainian war.

In order to get the picture on the recovery front and other factors, the study turned to the market to understand how stocks were performing. The study selected and compared five leading restaurant companies based on market value to see how the Russo-Ukrainian war affected their share performance. The five companies tracked were compared against MacDonald's share price. The first company was Starbucks Corp (SBUX) – a leading global coffee company with more than 30,000 shops globally with a total market value of US$ 24.1 billion (Reiff, 2020). The second was Yum China Holdings, Inc. (YUMC) – 500-company incorporation with a global footprint and operates companies such as KFC, Pizza Hut and Taco Bell. This company has a market value of US$ 8 billion (Reiff, 2020). The other two companies include Darden Restaurants Inc. (DRI), a company with a net value of US$ 7.8 billion and operates fine and casual restaurants such as Steakhouse and Olive Garden, among others. The study also looked at Autogrill SpA (ATGSF) – a company with a footprint in 1000 locations and 31 countries with a net market value of US$ 6 billion (Reiff, 2020). It has 300 brands which operate in airports or along highways. Popular brands include Spizzico, Grabandfly and Ciao Ristorante (Reiff, 2020).

To assess the implications of the Russo-Ukrainian war on the restaurant industry's recovery, this chapter utilises secondary literature sources in both grey and academic literature. The articles were selected using the word Russo-Ukrainian war as the major keyword. The subsequent minor keywords included restaurant challenges, restaurant recovery and restaurant resilience. Combined with abstraction, the sources were analysed thematically. Two key themes that emerged from the data were economic and political challenges.

18.3 COVID-19 and the Russo-Ukrainian War: Implications on Tourism Activities

With the COVID-19 disruption to businesses and the world economy, much hope had been pinned on the discovery of a vaccine that would provide some semblance of immunity to global citizens allowing some modicum of global normalcy (Dube, 2022; Dzinamarira et al., 2021). Indeed, late 2020 and the dawn of 2021 came with much hope and excitement as the first vaccines were discovered and rolled out to the broader public (Dzinamarira et al., 2021). However, the Russo-Ukrainian standoff, which started on 24 February 2022 and is still ragging on, brought uncertainty and complicated the dimension of the global recovery process (Esfandabadi et al., 2022).

COVID-19 is a natural and healthcare disaster; thus, its implications could be studied, categorised and response mechanisms to mitigate its impact. For instance, when the pandemic was first detected in 2019 in China and when it spread across the world in a few months, the World Health Organisation declared it a global pandemic on 11 March 2020 to raise the alarm for people to be alert (Ou et al., 2020; Peterman et al., 2020). With no therapeutics available for the virus, response mechanisms adopted by countries across the world had been a wide range of restrictions meant to suppress the spread of the virus (Elham, 2020; Peterman et al., 2020). The measures had substantial negative implications for businesses, including the tourism industry, which rapidly crumbled under restrictions (Bama & Nyikana, 2021; Butler, 2020). The pandemic disrupted global flows, restricted human freedom, challenged public services and hospitality and generated economic loss to businesses and job precariousness (Butler, 2020; Lazaro, 2022). Both smaller establishments and businesses, including restaurants, were impacted (Butler, 2020), prompting a need to reconsider the sustainability and resilience of the restaurant industry.

The existing discourses on COVID-19 reiterate the need for efforts to reduce and evade the pandemic's negative impacts on tourism and hospitality sectors and small-scale businesses (King et al., 2021; Sharma et al., 2021; Sucheran, 2022), among others. There is also the need to formulate suitable recovery and resilience approaches for restaurant resilience and saving lives and livelihoods (Noorashid & Chin, 2021). Resilience strategies for future pandemic experiences include reviewing the adaptive resilience cycle in tourism. Lew et al. (2020) aver that a reorganisation, which involves innovation and inventiveness is critical in securing resilient and sustainable tourism. Sharma et al. (2021) propose four main transformational elements in reviving tourism and making it more resilient post-COVID-19: sustainable tourism, societal wellbeing; climate change and local communities as the centre of transformation.

While resilience and sustainability strategies in response to COVID-19 are a collective effort globally, this has not been the case with the Russo-Ukrainian war. The Russian offensive on Ukraine is human-made, and there seem to be no straightforward response strategies to adopt to reduce its implications on lives, livelihoods and economic activities. Firstly, the conflict emerges primarily from speculative reasons, including the claim that Western powers are controlling Ukraine, that it was using its military to persecute citizens loyal to Russia and that it is committing genocide against its people (Balbaa et al., 2022; Ozili, 2022). Russia also posited that Ukraine's desire to join a military alliance with the Northern Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) represents an existential threat to its national security as that would see the organisation expanding eastward and bringing it closer to its border

(Astrov et al., 2022). The Euro-Western countries, on the other hand, also purported that Russia opposed Ukraine's choice to adopt democracy because the country's alliance with the West could threaten the national security of Russia (Ozili, 2022). Whatever the reasons for the war, valid or invalid, what emerges distressing is that the standoff has had catastrophic implications for businesses, both small and big, and that response strategies are not easy to design because of the speculative nature of the causes of the crisis. Therefore, the relaxation of COVID-19 safety protocols seems to have not guaranteed a rebound for tourism due to the Russo-Ukrainian war (Astrov et al., 2022; Balbaa et al., 2022).

The restaurant industry is fragile and labour-intensive such that any slight disruption can generate long-lasting and even devastating socio-economic effects (Brown et al., 2017; Lazaro, 2022). A slight disruption can through several businesses in the industry into liquidity, closure and labour loss as workers migrate to other industries, as was the case during COVID-19 (Bama & Nyikana, 2021; Butler, 2020; Hall et al., 2020). Some restaurants and hospitality establishments performed well before the advent of the pandemic but got strained by the pressures of reduced patron numbers and financing the declared safety requirements (Lazaro, 2022). Such restaurants experienced temporary and even permanent closures of businesses (Baum & Hai, 2020), the disappearance of sit-in guests (Dube et al., 2021), and a liquidity crisis (Dube, 2022). The additional strain on business operations due to the Russo-Ukrainian war further strained an already struggling industry (Ntloedibe, 2021).

The restaurant and hospitality industry is not only a livelihood source for many people (Sucheran, 2022) but also contributes considerably to countries' economies (Hall et al., 2020). The industry is also a huge contributor to national economies. For instance, in the USA, the restaurant industry in 2020 was estimated to have amassed about US$ 899 billion in Sales Revenue 2020 (National Restaurant Association (NRA), 2020), while the industry was worth US$ 93 billion in 2019 in Canada (Restaurants Canada, 2019) and about 24.3 billion in Australia in 2017 (Dube et al., 2021). It was estimated to be worth €180 billion in 2018 in Germany (Germany Trade & Invest, 2018). With the advent of the COVID-19 pandemic, the sector was one of the most affected sectors (Dube et al., 2021). For instance, restaurants and coffee shops recorded a 35% revenue decline (Statistics South Africa, 2020). Fast-food and takeaway outlets also experienced a 23% decline in revenues from 2019 to 2020, while catering services recorded a 44% plunge in the same period (Rogerson et al., 2021). The decline in the industry as a result of the pandemic subsequently negatively impacted the livelihoods of workers, most of whom lost their jobs (Ntloedibe, 2021; Sharma & Mahendru, 2020). Even with the discovery of vaccines, the recovery trajectory of the industry seems to face numerous challenges, especially the Russo-Ukrainian war, and yet studies on this development are either lacking or are still in the embryonic stages.

18.4 Results and Discussion

The data show that the COVID-19 pandemic and the ensuing response mechanisms by governments worldwide negatively affected restaurants that utilise the OpenTable platform. Compared to 2019, the advent of the pandemic generated a mixture of resilience, survival and recovery challenges, as seen in 2020, 2021 and 2022 data (Fig. 18.1). By 18 March 2020, most countries had recorded sit-in declines of about 90%. The data show that although the pandemic arrived at the end of December 2019, it was mostly around mid-February 2020 that its impact became more pronounced as countries began to record severe declines in sit-in patrons. When COVID-19 was declared a global pandemic on 11 March 2020, most restaurants were already operating at between −10% and −20% compared to 2019, except for Australia, Germany and Mexico (see Fig. 18.1). By 28 February 2020, the global average performance of restaurants was already at −1%, while most countries rapidly plunged towards the −100% mark, with the UK recording a staggering −99.34% drop by 30 June 2020. Mexico followed this at −87.52%, Australia at −75.10% and the USA at −62.47%, while the global average was −62.74%. For the entire 2020 and 2021 and part of 2022, the global average remained negative until around 25 March 2022, when it started to record a positivity of 4.60%.

By 30 June 2020, however, restaurants in most countries (except for Mexico and the USA, which plunged drastically between 30 April and 31 August 2020) were gradually recovering, although they remained negative. There, however, remained a

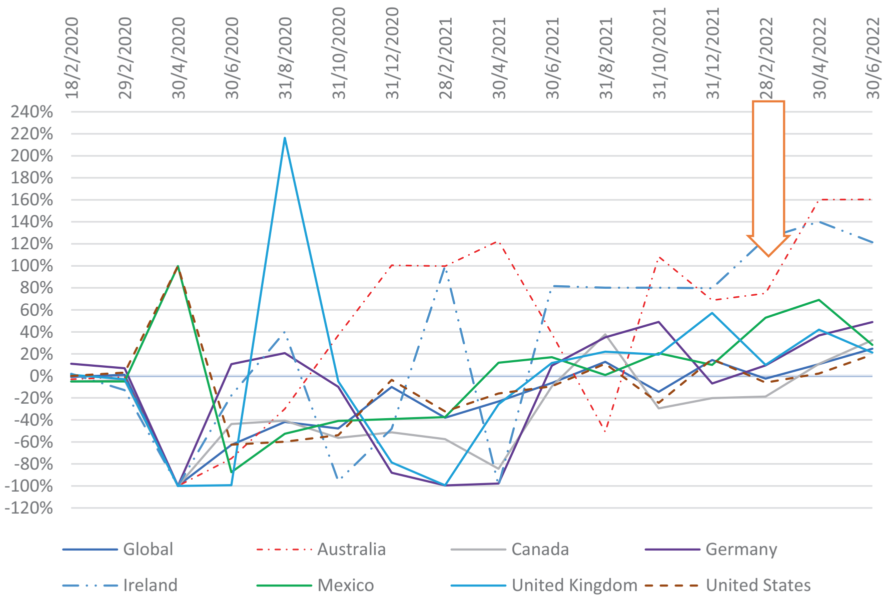

Fig. 18.1 The global restaurant industry. (Source: Authors, data from the OpenTable (2020, 2021, 2022))

turbulent recovery trajectory characterised by ups and downs until around 31 August 2021, when restaurants in most countries, except Australia, began to operate above the 0% mark. By the time the Russo-Ukrainian war broke out in late February 2022, the restaurant was slowly recovering from the pandemic's effects, although some turbulence persisted in most countries. Except for Australia, which continues to rise sharply, the growth of the rest of the countries was stifled with only stead-to-slight increases. By 30 April 2022, Ireland, Mexico and the UK began to record a rapid plunge below the global average, while Australia experienced a stagnant growth from 30 April to 30 June 2022.

In many respects, in Figs. 18.1 and 18.2, most countries' dinner uptake was primarily premised on the COVID-19 waves and variants that emerged and caused spikes in infections. The advent of vaccines seems to have promoted resilience within the tourism industry. It would appear that vaccines ushered some sort of resilience within the industry from a table uptake perspective. The year 2022, in the main, has seen most restaurants experiencing a boom in their seat uptake as several countries also opened their borders allowing for greater movement of people and socialisation. Greater freedoms, vaccines and protocols allowed many hotels to outperform the 2019 figures regarding the number of seated dinners in the main.

In the USA, the rebound of the restaurant has resulted in exponential growth in revenue between February 2020 and June 2020. This is particularly encouraging and points to the sector's resilience, which suffered the worst impacts in April 2020 (Fig. 18.3). The recovery could be attributed to a raft of measures adopted as cost containment measures by the sector, which seem to have reaped dividends for the sector but, most importantly, allowed it to be more resilient. Regardless of the fuel price increases, which reached a record high globally in May and June due to the war in Ukraine, people still spent considerable money on food and beverage. It emerges that revenue spent on food and drink did not respond negatively to the Russo-Ukrainian war as one would expect but was affected only in January, possibly with the advent of the COVID-19 Omricon variant. This resilience could have resulted from people desiring to go out after the stifling episodes at the beginning of the pandemic, which saw many people spend considerable amounts of time

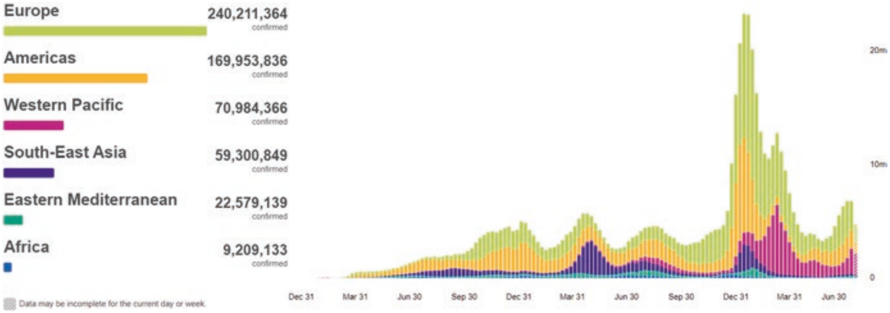

Fig. 18.2 Global trends in COVID-19 infections 2019–July 2022. (Source: World Health Organization)

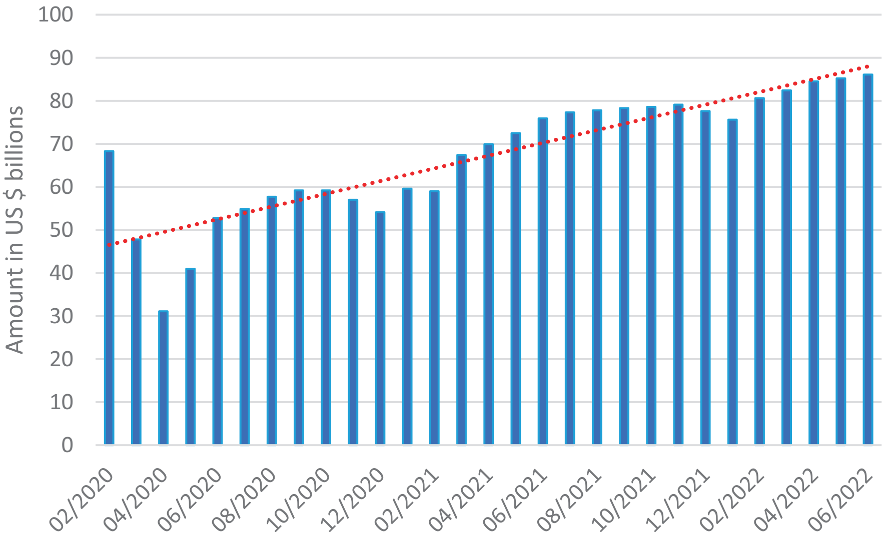

Fig. 18.3 Total eating and drinking sales in the US market. (Source: Authors, data from the National Restaurant Association)

confined in homes as one of the response strategies measures. Enjoying the new freedoms means many people want to go out and unwind.

The study also found underperformance by the five leading global restaurant companies that were selected for the study: McDonald's; Starbucks Corp.; Yum China Holdings, Inc.; Darden Restaurants Inc. and Olive Garden. The share prices of these companies plunged significantly after the Russian-Ukraine war. This could be attributed to the anxiety that was created by the war. Many did not know how and when the war was going to end. This triggered a sharp decline in the share price of these restaurants' companies and created a volatile situation in the market (Fig. 18.4). Figure 18.4 shows that out of the five sampled companies, only two had a recovery on a year-to-year basis. DRI had surpassed the previous year's performance by 9% at the end of July 2022. Given that the company operates at most airports and highways, this could indicate greater mobility ushered in by relaxation in lockdown measures by many countries. In addition, the chaos at airports triggered by staff shortages resulting in flight cancellations means more people could spend a lot more time at airports resulting in higher consumption at the outlets located in airports.

McDonald's also grew by 9% on a year-to-year basis despite taking a knock at the onset of the Russo-Ukrainian war. This highlights greater resilience to the pressure imposed by the war. When the war broke out, McDonald's was forced to close its operations in the two countries due to labour and commodity shortage in the first half of 2022 (McDonald, 2022). The company reported an almost 10% growth in sales. Digital sales, which include mobile apps, kiosks and delivery orders, reached a record high of US$ 6 billion, accounting for a quarter of their sales. This means

Fig. 18.4 Share price performance of MacDonald's and four other global restaurants between July 2021 and July 2022. (Source: CNBC (2022))

that despite the challenges, the company could leverage technology to show up its revenue. Using technology as part of resilience building and the new normal highlights the sector's capacity to innovate, deal with the challenges hospitality faces and ensure sustainability.

The war further worsened the challenges that restaurants were already facing regarding labour. At the height of the pandemic, most staff were laid off, and some went to other industries that were better in terms of job security. This left the hospitality industry grappling with finding suitable replacements in other countries in Europe and America (Choudhary et al., 2022). As of late 2021, companies like McDonald's were already battling to deal with supply chain challenges caused by truck driver shortages. During the first quarter of 2022, some restaurants such as KFC, Cafe de Coral and Pizza Hut were already closing and or reducing working hours and some services as labour shortages took a toll on the company's performance in Hong Kong, for example (Shum, 2022). This was not unique to Hong Kong as other countries such as Britain and the UK had similar challenges.

There is clear evidence that from a share price perspective, several companies are still battling to deal with the global challenges and global uncertainty, which is characterised by a hyperinflation environment, high-interest rates, high fuel prices, labour shortage and heat waves that affect Europe and other areas in the Global North in June and July 2022. The fears of a recession loom big in some restaurant companies, which could affect the pace and trajectory of recovery in short to medium term resulting from capitalisation challenges.

Despite the above global average performance, the future recovery of restaurants remains uncertain and unclear as the level of positive performance at each particular point is rarely improved or sustained even though COVID-19 vaccines are being rolled out across the world (see Fig. 18.1). The continued underperformance of restaurants in most countries regarding bookings and sit-in patrons exempts COVID-19 as the major challenge. The fact that restaurants in most countries once again started to record a sudden drop in sit-in guests on 30 April 2022 vindicates the observation of scholars who blame the underperformance of businesses since March 2022 on the Russo-Ukraine war (Ehsas, 2022; Meade, 2022; Ozili, 2022; Uwa & Adi, 2022). With the restaurant industry still recuperating from the socioeconomic effects of COVID-19, the Russo-Ukrainian crunch poses a grave threat to the recovery.

Since the advent of the war, commodities prices have continued to surge to historic heights, impacting both the operations of businesses (Ehsas, 2022) and the spending proclivities of patrons who could now prioritise the acquisitions of basic commodities required for human survival. Most countries and businesses worldwide, including restaurants, are strongly reliant on commodity imports from both countries (Russia and Ukraine), and therefore, they now face price shocks and supply chain disruptions (Astrov et al., 2022; Kagan et al., 2022). Due to the closure of critical port operations in the Black Sea, the sanctions imposed on Russia by Euro-Western countries could worsen business flows between Russia and many countries worldwide, eventually impacting all business activities, including the tourism industry. This could explain an abrupt plunge in the operational capacity of restaurants since April 2022, possibly as businesses now struggle to acquire cheaper commodities to utilise.

Russia and Ukraine are often discussed as the world's breadbasket (Meade, 2022; Walker, 2022). They are major players in the export of wheat and sunflower to Africa, Asia and other European countries (Ozili, 2022; Walker, 2022). Russia is also one of the world's biggest exporters of fertilisers (One Africa, 2022) which farmers use to grow the food sold and consumed in restaurants. After the USA and Saudi Arabia, Russia is also the world's third-largest oil producer (United Nations World Trade Organisation (UNWTO), 2022). As a result, fuel prices have been soaring due to global oil price disruption, as are agricultural production and labour expenses. This negatively impacts the recovery of the restaurant industry, which, like other businesses, is emerging from COVID-19-induced economic turmoil which had placed millions of customers under lockdown, hurling global supply chains into disarray and distorting and disrupting businesses around the world (Feyen et al., 2021). The Russo-Ukrainian conflict arrived at a time when the restaurant industry in most countries was slowly recovering from the pandemic, thus, undercutting its prospects for a breakthrough, especially in the face of limited safe havens for the industry.

The conflict affects the restaurant industry through several avenues, which can be placed into two modalities, namely, economic and political. In terms of the conflict's economic implications, as mentioned above, the invasion has provoked widespread international denunciation from governments and intergovernmental establishments, including socio-economic and political sanctions imposed on Russia. These sanctions have activated widespread economic effects on the Russian and world economies, negatively impacting businesses, including those in the restaurant industry. These sanctions include a ban on Russian aircraft using EU airspace and a ban on certain Russian banks, and a ban on certain Russian media outlets (Uwa & Adi, 2022). These highlights travel restraints on potential restaurant patrons who could be willing to travel from Russia to elsewhere to spend their money. A bank ban also means that potential patrons cannot utilise their monies in certain banks. The reaction by a non-governmental organisation to the invasion included a general stay away from Russia and Belarus in the areas of business, sport, entertainment and media (Timsit & Maite, 2022). This also implied that restaurants could not use these platforms for advertising their businesses, thereby losing out on prospective guests.

Russia and Ukraine also supply considerable volumes of products used in the restaurant and hospitality sector. For instance, the two countries supply a huge percentage of grains, including wheat and maise. On the African continent, for instance, North Africa (Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Morocco and Tunisia), West Africa (Nigeria and Ghana), East Africa (Ethiopia and Sudan) and Southern Africa (South Africa) import about 80% of the wheat which they use from these two conflicting countries (Mlaba, 2022). One Africa (2022) avers that in financial terms, primary exports from Russo-Ukrainian to African countries are wheat (US$ 4.8 billion), oil (US$ 2.3 billion), industrial supplies (US$ 2.1 billion) and steel and iron (US$ 1.6 billion) per year. The two countries also export these commodities to Europe and Asian countries (Esfandabadi et al., 2022; Millard et al., 2022). With the main business of restaurants being "food", the conflict between the two countries adversely affects the restaurant industry due to the disruption of how food is produced and distributed. Concerns are mounting that a global fertiliser shortage could lead to rising food prices, with knock-on effects on agricultural production and food security (Mlaba, 2022; Ozili, 2022; Walker, 2022). The Russo-Ukrainian conflict is hampering the restaurant industry's recovery from the COVID-19 blow by further destabilising a global, liberalised food system that the pandemic has already weakened by other challenges, including climate change. In the context of the African continent, Mlaba (2022: online) posits that

> Russia is also one of the world's largest exporters of fertiliser, and the war has caused its price to skyrocket. This can devastate some of Africa's food systems, particularly those that rely heavily on agriculture to feed their citizens and manage their economies. This has the potential to raise food prices and further exacerbate food insecurity on the continent.

When food becomes scarce, the result is inflated prices which ordinary customers of restaurants may not afford. The Russo-Ukrainian war has, therefore, unarguably generated some wide-ranging economic consequences for the restaurant sector, including the diminishing purchasing power of patrons. This has complicated the recovery trajectory of the industry even though, in the face of COVID-19, vaccine roll-outs at a time when most people are getting vaccinated.

Furthermore, with food prices customarily set on global markets, the adjustments countries are being now forced to adopt in response to the Russo-Ukrainian crisis will indirectly impact restaurants in countries with limited options in terms of commodity access. This explains why the restaurant industry in the USA managed to improve its operational capacity since 28 February 2022 and maintain a constant positive level of 160% since 30 April 2022 (Fig. 18.1), while the rest of the countries were in a downward spiral. Food markets are intricately linked to and dependent on other systems such as food trading, transportation, logistics and stock exchanges; therefore, the Russo-Ukrainian war affects how food commodities are accessed and distributed by restaurants and other food outlets. The majority of commodity exports, including those utilised by the restaurant industry worldwide, go through Odesa and other ports on the Black Sea, which are now closed to commercial shipping as part of the sanctions on Russia (Astrov et al., 2022; Behnassi & El Haiba, 2022). While most wheat and barley crops are harvested in the summer and exported during the fall, maise exports continue through spring in the two countries. As a result of the conflict, insufficient yield growth due to inefficient input and service provision, limited investment in sectors such as marketing and logistics as well as agriculture-specific financial services have now become a spill-over effect of the crisis (Astrov et al., 2022; Behnassi & El Haiba, 2022; Meade, 2022; Tosun & Eshraghi, 2022).

With most of Ukraine's agricultural production sites located along the large Russian border, the conflict will likely continue disrupting agricultural operations for as long as the conflict lasts. Therefore, unless other models of commodity access and distribution are developed, the performance of the restaurant industry will continue to be haunted by the Russo-Ukrainian crisis, which is now a further blow to the one already dealt by the COVID-19 crisis.

The other challenge generated by the crisis is the depletion of remittances that households get from Europe, particularly from the two conflicting countries (Behnassi & El Haiba, 2022). The disruption and destruction of businesses and the displacement of employees all serve as catalysts for the depletion of remittances. The destruction of physical and social infrastructures such as markets adversely affects the amount of money those in the diaspora can send back home. This, consequently, negatively impacts the disposable income that households can spend on eating food outside their homes.

The Russo-Ukrainian war also triggers, aggravates and sustains political challenges that hamper a rapid recovery of the restaurant industry since the ravages of the COVID-19 pandemic. For instance, the intervention of NATO members in providing arms to Ukraine to defend itself can lead to a protracted war, further complicating the recovery prospects of businesses, including restaurants. With the war triggering inflation and high food prices in many developing countries, the result could be political unrest (Tosun & Eshraghi, 2022; Uwa & Adi, 2022). This view is supported by Mlaba (2022), who avers that the Russo-Ukrainian conflict could generate a riotous impact on the global economy, raising interest rates and limiting credit availability.

In responding to the challenges of the conflict while emerging from the COVID-19, governments such as South Africa that acquired credit from international financial institutions such as the International Monetary Fund to provide safety nets to their citizens and businesses may struggle longer to service their debts (Department of Tourism, 2021). This is because they cannot raise the money needed to service the debt using tax as business operations are disrupted and not functioning at full capacity. The disrupted global economy both by the pandemic and the offensive by Russia on Ukraine also negatively impacts the prospects of countries that require credit to fund their budgets. Consequently, this has the latent to limit essential national budgets allocated to industries like tourism that are not regarded as critical (Rogerson et al., 2021). The pandemic has strained these national budgets (Department of Tourism, 2021). All in all, the food and energy scarcity, supply chain disruption and migration caused by the Russo-Ukrainian war, combined with the ongoing economic and social impact of COVID-19, form a "stress nexus" which could be intensified by the growing impacts of climate change, amplifying the risks to businesses worldwide in general.

Given the unfolding recovery challenges for businesses, it has become clear that the Russo-Ukrainian war has generated distressing spilling effects on the global economy and the restaurant and hospitality industry which had already been battered by COVID-19 and climate change (Tosun & Eshraghi, 2022; Walker, 2022). Uwa and Adi (2022) aver that the impacts of the Russo-Ukrainian war are being felt globally because of the two countries' weighty contribution to food and energy supplies. Importantly, food and energy also make the centre of the restaurant and hospitality industry's business operation, hence the resulting significant negative impact.

The United National Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) (2022) estimates that the world economy will plunge by a full percentage point of GDP growth than expected due to the war. The result is a severe disruption of already constricted food, energy and financial markets (UNCTAD, 2022). It is also estimated that about 1.7 billion people in approximately 107 economies, mostly in developing countries, are likely to be severely impacted by the war in terms of escalating food prices, soaring energy prices and labour costs and shrinking financial circumstances (Mlaba, 2022; Uwa & Adi, 2022). These are economies where people face challenges in affording healthy diets, where imports are indispensable to meet the food and energy needs of populaces, and where debt encumbrances and shrinking resources hamper the capacity to cope with the impulses of global financial realities. In such economies, the restaurant industry eventually suffers more since some people might consider eating in these businesses as a luxury that can be avoided in pursuing basic requirements.

On top of food price hikes ensuing from the war and the pandemic, which affect all food importing countries, some economies and their businesses are also directly exposed to the vagaries of the crisis through import dependence on grain commodities from the two conflicting countries. Where this obtains, the restaurant industry in these countries is likely to disintegrate further and has very slim chances of recovering from the COVID-19 blow. For example, most European countries were importing gas energy from Russia (Meade, 2022). With the sanctions imposed and the war slowing transportation processes, the performance of businesses in these countries plummeted to record lows. This is evidenced by the sudden plunge in the operations of restaurants in countries such as Germany, Ireland and the UK since 30 April 2022. Although it faced challenges, Australia, which possibly utilises other sources to access these commodities, managed to sustain some stability. The USA also registered positive growth in the period starting at 2% on 30 April and reaching 19% by the end of June 2022. The NRA (2022) reports that despite gas price hikes, the industry continued to trend higher in June in the USA, registering total sales of US$ 86.1 billion, up from US$ 8502 billion in May of the same year (NRA, 2022). This can indicate that the USA acquires its basic commodities elsewhere other than Russia and Ukraine, as has been the case with European and African countries, which acquire much of their grain commodities and energy supplies from the two countries.

The other consequence of Russia's invasion of Ukraine for the restaurant industry, particularly for European countries, is that oil marketers and oil companies in Europe are now experiencing challenges in receiving energy supplies from Russia, which is now under sanctions (Meade, 2022; Mlaba, 2022; Tosun & Eshraghi, 2022). These companies get most of their oil supplies from Russia, the world's second-largest oil producer, and sell most of its crude to European processing plants (Ozili, 2022). Oil scarcity and subsequent price hikes eventually translate into extra costs for restaurants that need to purchase and transport commodities for their operations. To meet the increasing procurement costs, restaurants will have no choice but to adjust the prices of their products. Increasing the pricing of products could eventually deter patrons whose financial reserves had also been hit by the pandemic. The overall effect is that the restaurant industry will continue to operate at a lower capacity, as has been the case since the advent of the pandemic.

With the restaurant industry but also other businesses in much of the world relying on imported products, particularly in Africa (Mlaba, 2022; One Africa, 2022), the disruption in global supply chains and financial markets by the Russo-Ukrainian standoff has further complicated prospects for a bounce back by the industry. Ozili (2022) opines that the Russo-Ukrainian war has exacerbated ongoing distortions and disruptions to global logistics and supply chains, leading to additional interruption across the global sea transportation system. Mainly due to the pandemic-induced restrictions on movements, freight costs even before the Russo-Ukrainian crisis have escalated unreasonably, thereby complicating business recovery efforts as consumer prices and import costs increased higher than what could be absorbed by small businesses such as restaurants and accommodation outlets, such as guesthouses (Bama & Nyikana, 2021; Esfandabadi et al., 2022).

Congestion at seaports has been identified as one of the major contributors to high-cost freight transport (Ehsas, 2022; Ozili, 2022). Restrictions on trade, airspace closure, contractor uncertainty and security concerns have continued to complicate all trade routes that pass-through Ukraine and Russia. Small businesses and vulnerable populations categories are bearing the brunt of these complications as they now have to spend more than they can afford on the transportation of commodities. The net result is the existence of businesses which struggle not to make profits but rather to survive. The restaurant industry, which operates on smaller profit margins compared to other sectors of the economy, faces huge recovery challenges in the post-COVID-19 era. Despite various forms of interventions that governments and private sector organisations had made, and by individual businesses themselves to shield the industry from the worst consequences of the pandemic, the

Russo-Ukrainian has arrived to ruthless shatter down the prospects for a quick recovery for the restaurant industry, particularly in the developing economies. Therefore, existing recovery models and frameworks need to be adapted, revised or redesigned to respond to the existing context of circumstances.

18.5 Pathways Towards Resilience and Recovery

In some countries, the response to the COVID-19 crisis has been social policy-based interventions in which funds were released to businesses to enable them to meet costs and thus, avoid plunging into liquidity. In South Africa, for instance, these interventions included relief funds, emergency procurements, wage support provision through the Unemployment Insurance Fund and funding to small businesses (Ramaphosa, 2020). In addition to tax reliefs, the government also released funds to companies (or directly to workers) to pay wages through its Temporary Employer/Employee Relief Scheme facility. The governments of the UK and Germany also provided relief aid to the TUI Group – a multinational company in the field of tourism. This enabled the company to reduce costs in its operations worldwide (Sharma et al., 2021). However, interventions of this nature are short-term and are not sustainable when the crisis is prolonged. While the gravity of the pandemic is gradually subsiding, the Russo-Ukrainian has undercut and rendered past recovery efforts inadequate and ineffective. Therefore, the response mechanisms to the survival and profitability of businesses, including the restaurant industry, need to be urgently reviewed.

With the COVID-19 pandemic still an issue (although subsiding) and the Russo-Ukrainian war still raging on, the restaurants industry needs to consider both long-term and short-term measures on the supply and demand sides. Such measures, however, require the active intervention of both national and local governments. The restaurant industry can consider diversifying the supply of its basic commodities, that is, wheat, energy and oil. This will require restaurants to put together their financial resources to buy elsewhere in bulk instead of relying on Russia and Ukraine, whose war may be protracted. In doing so, with the support and expertise of national governments, businesses must cautiously evaluate the costs and benefits of procuring elsewhere since products from the Black Sea, especially wheat and rice, are usually cheaper compared to other regions such as Europe or the USA (Abay et al., 2022). This can also be augmented by domestic production of products, hence the need for government intervention in mobilising local farmers to produce products needed by domestic businesses, such as restaurants.

Local restaurants across countries can also engage in contract farming arrangements with local farmers and thus, avoid or minimise the reliance on imported food products. Contract farming is an agricultural production arrangement in which farmers and buyers agree on producing and marketing particular products (Mujere, 2021). In this arrangement, the farmer agrees to provide particular quantities of an agreed product according to the agreed quality standards required by the buyer. On the other hand, the buyer commits to purchasing the agreed product and helps the farmer by providing inputs and other required support (Kariuki & Loy, 2016). As part of the recovery campaign in the aftermath of COVID-19 and the face of the ragging Russo-Ukraine conflict, restaurants that traditionally relied on products from these two countries could shift the centre and look inward through contract farming for products. This view is supported by development experts such as Samir Amin, who requires that developing countries adopt and implement what he calls "sovereign projects" "which are conceived of by us, for us and which are to the greatest extent independent of the tendencies and pressures exerted by the global capitalist system" (Amin, 2016: 155).

The restaurant industry could also mitigate the COVID-19-imposed business complications and deal with the Russo-Ukrainian-induced recovery challenges through collective innovativeness. This can be done by combining resources and skills to buy in bulk and thus, receive huge discounts and work together in research and development. Businesses can also be innovative in terms of engaging in joint ventures and business partnerships with other businesses in a similar field or outside, with public institutions or even with private investors willing to contribute resources. This will enable businesses in the industry to withstand the operational pressures exerted by the pandemic and the unfolding war between Russia and Ukraine. However, in engaging in partnerships and joint ventures, caution is needed to curb the often-opportunistic proclivities of private capital, which often seeks to engage in partnerships on unequal terms with their susceptible interested parties. Where this obtains, the partnership ceases to be a recovery strategy but rather a complete rip-off of vulnerable businesses. Thus, the outcome of the partnership will be worse than the consequence of the pandemic and the Russo-Ukraine war.

18.6 Conclusion and Recommendations

This chapter explored the restaurant industry recovery challenges from COVID-19 amidst the Russo-Ukrainian war. The aim has been to insert new categories of knowledge regarding recovery pathways amidst natural disasters and human-made chaos. This chapter shows that COVID-19 and the associated response strategies adopted by countries worldwide have had challenges for the sector. Although the restaurant industry struggled for the rest of the year 2020, most countries managed to operate slightly above the global average in terms of operational capacity. This raised much optimism for the world that was fast losing hope under the COVID-19 scourge. However, the gains and hopes raised by the advent of vaccines and the lifting of lockdowns seem to have been hugely undercut by the dawn of the Russo-Ukrainian war. A couple of months since the beginning of the conflict, the restaurant industry again experienced rapid operational capacity decreases. The reviewed discourses show that this has resulted directly from food and energy transportation challenges and spiking prices for basic commodities. With Russia and Ukraine being critical players in the supply of wheat, maise, oil and gas, the conflict between the two countries resulted in the suffering of countries that relied on them for these commodities.

The restaurant industry (and so is the tourism sector as a whole) is, by nature, fragile and more susceptible to disruptions and, therefore, has suffered gravely both from the disruption caused by the pandemic and the disruption caused by the war. It is recommended that while the industry can continue to lobby for government intervention, innovativeness is also required in diversifying commodity suppliers so as not to depend on suppliers who have already been affected by the activities of the war. The industry can also encourage joint ventures and business partnerships to increase capital injection in businesses, so they do not collapse. All in all, it is recommended that the restaurant industry adopts and adapts recovery pathways that directly speak to its own needs in the context of recovery needs. This study utilises only data from developed countries and large restaurants. Future research could include developing and developing countries and all categories of restaurants to generate a balanced assessment.

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Part V
Conclusion and Policy Recommendations

Chapter 19
Conclusion: Practical and Policy Perspectives in Reshaping the Tourism and Hospitality Industry Post-COVID-19 Industry

Kaitano Dube, Godwell Nhamo, and Magdalena Petronella (Nellie) Swart

Abstract COVID-19 reshaped the tourism industry in many ways never thought of before. It created many threats and opportunities, and the recovery has not been a smooth sail. Rather, the recovery is fraught with challenges that the sector should navigate to emerge better and more resilient. This chapter summarises some emerging tourism trends triggered by the COVID-19 pandemic. It further highlights that although the pandemic brought several challenges to the tourism industry, it created a more eager and attentive tourist to environmental and sustainability issues. As the recovery comes, the tourism sector should be responsive to the emerging expectations and demands of the tourism consumer post-COVID-19. Tourists expect, amongst other things, tourism to be more caring of the environment and socioeconomic wellbeing of the host communities and expect better tourism inclusivity. Given the challenges associated with the recovery, such as high inflation, high labour costs, high interest rates, labour shortages, pent-up demand, increased costs of extreme weather and climate change, there is a need for continued support to build a better and more resilient tourism future post-COVID-19. Central banks, governments and other funding urgencies have a critical role to play in this recovery process to finance the recovery process and programmes.

Keywords Inclusive tourism · Sustainable tourism · Tourism degrowth · Green tourism · Economic crisis

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19.1 Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic significantly altered the world, bringing numerous changes. It disrupted every aspect of human life in a manner that was never thought of before. The sudden shock of COVID-19 disrupted the tourism supply and demand of the entire tourism value chain (Pramana et al., 2021). This stopped a sector that has been one of the engines of global economic growth. Before the pandemic, the tourism sector was growing exponentially faster than the average global economic growth rate (Pham et al., 2021). Many global economies were largely dependent on the tourism sector to power their economies, and in many respects, the tourism industry was seen as a cog for addressing the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (Nhamo et al., 2020; Dube, 2021; Scheyvens & Cheer, 2021; Scheyvens et al., 2021).

Indeed, if there is anything the world learned from COVID-19, it is that overreliance on one sector can be a critical source of unsustainability. In this case, most developing countries that significantly relied on the tourism industry for sustenance battled economically as their economic fortunes were wiped off (Mariolis et al., 2021). With borders closed and airlines closed, most destinations were forced to shut down and cancel all bookings as the tourism industry was brought to a grounding halt. Most tourists were equally fearful of travelling owing to several factors that included challenges to health and safety. On the other hand, tourists were also afraid (Rather, 2021) of the uncertainties associated with lockdowns as nations and states respond to the peaks and drops of the COVID-19 infection rates.

Although there was hope that the discovery of the COVID-19 vaccines would ease the global fortunes, 2021 witnessed a slow return to normalcy given the vaccine inequity and slow vaccination rates amongst other nation-states (Zaman et al., 2021; Gursoy et al., 2021). Conspiracy theories around the vaccine led to many shunning the vaccine altogether (Zhu et al., 2022). This picture was particularly more pronounced in developing countries that accessed the vaccine at a later stage when the conspiracy had taken root amongst communities. This resulted in travel restrictions to other parts of the world, with the worst affected being the developing world (Dube, 2022).

This chapter, which forms the concluding chapter for this book, focuses on global destinations and examines how the pandemic reshaped the tourism industry. It also looked at practical and policy interventions reshaping the tourism industry as it starts to emerge from the most daunting impacts of the pandemic. These arise from the overall evaluation of the submitted board of works and other sources.

19.2 COVID-19, Tourism Destinations and Emerging Travel Trends

Given the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic and the learnings that the industry made from the pandemic, many things were changed as a consequence. These range from tourism business practices and operational changes. The changes were instituted either to ensure flexibility to accommodate the ever-changing terrain that COVID-19 brought or to facilitate business owing to altered tourist behaviour at the behest of the pandemic.

The pandemic altered many destinations' perceptions of tourism and tourists. For example, Woosnam et al. (2022) found that host communities were now more receptive to tourists in the area than before the COVID-19 regardless of the biosafety security issues brought about by the pandemic. In essence, communities were now more pro-tourism than previously. This could be attributed to the fact that residents had an opportunity to witness what life is like without the low-hanging fruits often taken for granted by communities provided by tourism. Most destinations experienced the socioeconomic brunt of not having tourism revenue, which usually comes with tourism operations. In most cases, with COVID-19 raging, most tourists resorted to travelling avoidance (Gupta et al., 2021) which adversely affected the socioeconomic benefits often associated with travel, tourism and the hospitality industry.

Indeed this is a subject that is well covered in the first section of the book, which demonstrates how the COVID-19 pandemic affected various resorts and destinations. Chapters 2 and 3 of this book highlight the work done on multiple goals and looks at how tourism as a whole has been resilient and mirrors what could be future directions for the tourism sector as it emerges from the pandemic under the new normal. The pandemic significantly impacted the developing world and nature-based tourism destinations with severe livelihood implications. Chapter 4 examined how the pandemic affected tourism and livelihoods in island destinations, and Chap. 5 explored how the pandemic affected nature and tourism destinations in South Africa. Ecotourism destinations have often relied on tourism revenue for their sustenance (Lindberg et al., 1996; Walia et al., 2021), but with the COVID-19 disruptions, these destinations and communities were left vulnerable. Chapter 6 focuses explicitly on how mountain tourist destinations were socioeconomically affected by the pandemic and highlight critical challenges that the same faced.

Part of living with COVID-19 requires the tourism industry to put concrete strategies to build resilience. This, in some cases, meant a departure from business as usual and the adoption of new measures to foster resilience and recovery. Living with the pandemic-altered tourist behaviour and demands at destinations, with most demanding that goals improve on several key sustainability issues, amongst these was greater demand for the tourism sector to improve on safety and hygienic issues (Yang, 2020; Dash & Sharma, 2021; Hossain, 2021).

This is understandable given the transmission models that the coronavirus assumed. To avoid infections, tourists expect destinations to improve cleanliness and expected that destinations have health and safety protocols in place. On top of the list was the demand for goals to have the flexibility in refunding made bookings (Fig. 19.1). This was a critical demand as COVID-19 resulted in many uncertainties in the market (Golets et al., 2021; Bielecki et al., 2020). The demand for booking flexibility became a common feature of travel, which continued to the time this book was being finalised. In as much as this was considered a temporary measure, there is no doubt that tourists would like to see this provision stay permanently,

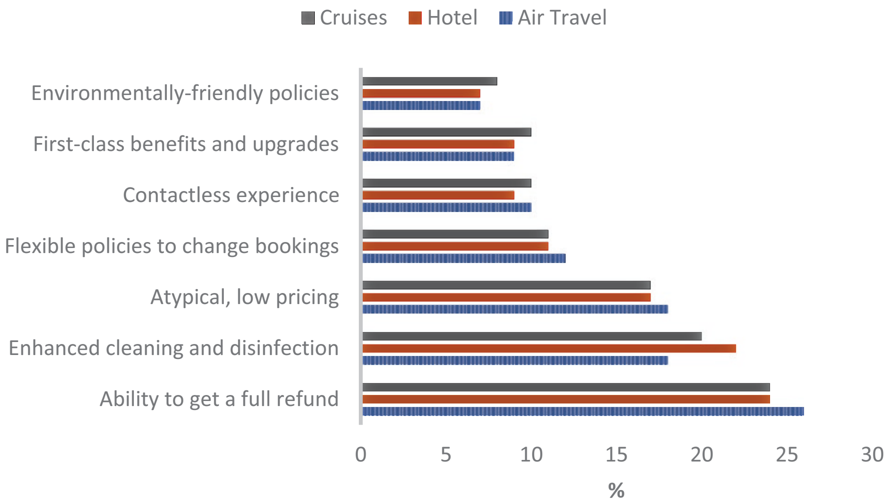

Fig. 19.1 Tourists travel imperatives in the wake of COVID-19. (Source: authors data from Expedia Group)

giving tourists flexibility in travel plans to accommodate sudden changes in diaries due to illness or other challenges. Given the chaos witnessed within the aviation industry due to labour shortages, labour unrest and the impacts of extreme weather over Europe and America, which led to flight cancellations and delays, demand for full refunds and flexibility in bookings remain a justified expectation from the tourists. Apart from the challenges stated herein, several countries were still battling visa issuance challenges which affected travellers adversely.

Another huge demand for tourists was deep cleaning and disinfection in tourism facilities, with the most significant demand on hotels. This is understandable given that hotel residents often contact several facilities, and to avoid getting diseases from other or previous occupants, such a measure was required. Most tourism establishments such as airlines, hotels and cruises, therefore, put in place measures to address these critical issues as part of the new normal. Most destinations had to obtain the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) Safe Travels Stamp to assure their commitment and adherence to safe and hygienic travel demands (Çetin & Coşkuner, 2021; Dube, 2021b).

Pricing issues also came into play with the tourists looking for bargains on travel deals. In response, most destinations and tourism establishments offered their clients discounted deals to lure and incentivise travellers to participate in travelling. Discounted travel was a way of marketing with most businesses that were tailored for international travel refocussing and changing their market target to include domestic and regional travel as tourists tended to make shorter trips in response to COVID-19 (Munne et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021). This required that some tourism entities rework their tourism product offering to appeal to the broader market. Affordability was a massive aspect of product development as overall, the pandemic eroded the purchasing power of many travellers. Volgger et al. (2022) and Zhang et al. (2021) underscored the critical role of price reductions and reduction in the recovery from COVID-19.

With fears of contracting the disease, most tourists in the travel subsector preferred contactless travel. This demand was also extended to the hospitality sector, and it triggered significant technology deployment in all facets of the tourism industry (Sanabria-Díaz et al., 2021). The technology also offered much more convenient travel, offering the needed efficiency. Technology also came in to deal with various labour challenges that became a vital characteristic of the recovery journey in the travel industry. At the heart of the paced-up technological evolution was the desire to improve customer experience and satisfaction. The introduction of Chatbots, online bookings, online menus and shopping for restaurants, as well as from hotels and airlines, was driven by the convenience this provided for the travelling public. There was also a significant rollout of robots to interface with guests in hotels and restaurants (Kim et al., 2021; Zeng et al., 2020).

The aviation sector, for example, made significant strides in ensuring that the industry is entirely technical in many respects. In several airports, contactless travel was and/or is now possible for tourists who can do online check in, contactless baggage drop after online check-in, use the boarding pass obtained online to access boarding gates using the generated QR code and go through security scanners. In some airports, passengers can now use biometric immigration services allowing for contactless travel. Restaurants have been innovative with increased online purchases and home delivery, which have allowed for convenience for customers and assisted in boosting sales for restaurants and kitchens.

The extended lockdowns, including ‘house arrest’, allowed tourists to better appreciate nature and develop a higher affinity with it. However, most importantly, the pandemic outbreak allowed people to intricately assess their relationship with the environment and the role it plays in their lives. The pandemic further coincided with a temporary decline in environmental catastrophes associated with climate change (Nhamo & Dube, 2021). With business nearly grounded to a halt, many people were able to enjoy a cleaner and better environment from the clean air and wildlife that wondered in the new quiet wilderness. Evidence shows a significant reduction in air pollution and carbon emissions at the height of lockdown measures (Berman & Ebisu, 2020; Venter et al., 2020; Briz-Redón et al., 2021). Tourists were not left out in the quest and demanded greater environmental accountability. The cleaner environments triggered calls for greater ecological responsibility by tourists across the tourism value chain (Almeida & Silva, 2020). According to Romagosa (2020), part of tourism’s embracing sustainability means taking shorter distances with a lower carbon footprint.

Destinations, therefore, continue making frantic efforts post-COVID-19 to address environmental challenges. To this end, the return to normal as tourism recovers has to be altered to foster environmental accountability by the sector as tourism should be seen to be doing more to ensure environmental stewardship. Sustainability in the tourism sector should also go further to address challenges such as low wages, which have been synonymous with the sector for some time

(Lacher & Oh, 2012; Bausch et al., 2021; Yıldırım, 2021). Tourism enterprises also need to do more to improve staff welfare and address long working hours and some of the many ills that tourism has been known for some time. Tourism employees have been pushing for better working conditions post-COVID-19, demanding better salaries, wages and job security. This has resulted in interruptions as employees shunned the sector resulting in labour shortages in Europe and industrial action, which disrupted flight operations in many instances.

The work in this book reveals that the tourism has to address issues around unsustainable consumption patterns as it sets its focus to meet the demands of SDG 12 on responsible consumption and production. Managing such SDGs resonate well with other related SDGs (Dube, 2020). Other matters related to tourism and SDGs include the pollution of water bodies, including the oceans (SDG 14), as well as land and air pollution (SDG 15) that are central elements of sustainable tourism in the future. This means addressing the issues of plastic pollution and encompassing responsible consumption patterns. Indeed tourist also expects the tourism sector to addresses its water consumption patterns (SDG 6) as the world battles water shortage. This will address the potential conflicts with host communities, a perspective that feature under SDG 16 dealing with peace and security. Communities do hope that the issues of overcrowding at tourist destinations that have been notorious in some places be an issue of the past (Palacios-Florencio et al., 2021). Respecting the environmental threshold will allow tourism to conserve the environment and biodiversity better and lead to more sustainable tourism ways.

There is an expectation that amongst all topical sustainability issues that tourism has to address on the top is fighting climate change by addressing the sector's exponential growing carbon footprint. Tourists expect that tourism entities do more to mitigate climate change (SDG 13) as a principal matter and most pressing challenge of our time. This can be done by adopting the latest technologies and practices addressing the sector's carbon footprint. Tourism degrowth, sustainability transitions and NetZero (Scott & Gössling, 2021; Kit, 2022; Higgins-Desbiolles et al., 2019) within the sector will top the tourism debate forward. This results from tourists demands and the increasing cost of carbon pollution in various countries and territories.

Apart from the expectation that the tourism industry has to be more caring about humanity, the tourism industry needs to be more embracing of the people. Tourism is expected to be more inclusive. This flies against proposals by some sectors of society calling for tourism to be more for the affluent only as part of the growth agenda. Post COVID-19, the New Zealand tourism industry hinted that budget tourists were not welcome in that country. Apart from New Zealand, other countries that indicated they were not as welcoming to poor tourists include the Cayman Islands, Fiji, Hawaii and Indonesia (Symons, 2022).

Findings by Expedia Group (2022) reveal that tourists expect a post-COVID-19 era that is more inclusive and respectful of people's uniqueness (Fig. 19.2). Tourism post-COVID-19 has to celebrate the diversity of tourists and host communities. This is aligned with ISO 21902:2021, which was developed specifically to ensure all people have equal access to tourism products. This standard calls for the sector to

Fig. 19.2 Post-COVID-19 tourism inclusivity model. Source: Expedia (2022:5)

ensure equal access and enjoyment of tourism by a wide range of people of all ages and abilities. This calls for tourism to deal with and address all discriminatory practices that hinder tourism flow and activities.

Including local communities as part of tourism is critical as the host communities can enhance the tourist experience. Most importantly, local communities should create and be a part of the total tourist experience. Given that host communities, particularly in developing countries, give away a lot to accommodate tourism and tourism activities, they form the critical core of tourism, and they also have to benefit from tourism activities in their backyard.

The book does cover some of these critical areas of tourism development during and post-COVID-19. Chapter 7 highlighted how creativity and innovation have assisted tourism in rural Italy and Kazakhstan, with Chap. 8 taking a shot at examining some of the critical travel motivations amidst the raging COVID-19. Chapter 9 touched on how tourism can ensure the fair distribution of tourism benefits in the context of COVID-19, while Chap. 10 looked at the concept of revenge tourism as a response to the impacts of COVID-19. The recovery of tourism is not without its challenges, given the disruptions caused by the pandemic. Chapter 11 addressed the implications of government support for Ghana. Chapters 12 and 13 looked at a sectoral approach and the recovery of restaurants and focus on trends and challenges of this recovery in the tourism sector.

The last part and chapters of this book dealt with the recovery of the tourism sector. Chapter 14 focused on the analysis of the coverage of sustainability issues to test the interest in terms of tourism recovery. Chapter 15 narrowed down to assessing how the COVID-19 pandemic transformed the tourism industry, while Chap. 16

assesses tourism and hospitality resilience and recovery and issues faced by the sector. Some of these issues have been dealt with already in the summation above. In the context of the witnessed downturn of the industry, Chap. 17 argued how tourism can be revived in the future. The book's last chapter, Chap. 18, scanned the recovery of the tourism and hospitality sector and addressed some of the pitfalls and challenges ahead of the industry. The chapter offered some solutions that can be considered.

19.3 Conclusion and Recommendations for Tourism COVID-19 Impacts and Recovery

Evidence suggests that the recovery of tourism post-COVID-19 remains fragile in many respects. The general picture is that there is a need for sensitivity and a general sense of cautious optimism as the world faces other challenges that can scuttle the recovery process, which has been highlighted in this book. The vulnerability and fragility of the recovery are particularly pronounced in developing countries and other fragile states. As the book was being finalised in September 2022, there are growing signs and fears that the era of the pandemic was not over yet, with new waves resulting in some countries reverting to hard lockdowns, particularly in China. In China, a zero COVID-19 case had been instituted. Such moves worsen the situation, given the situation's fragility on the ground.

While 2022 was expected to be a year of recovery for the global tourism industry, there seem to be mixed fortunes that had been worsened by several challenges ranging from political tensions and war in Europe between Russia and Ukraine and in the South China Sea between China and Taiwan. The war worsened the global supply and demand challenges in the tourism sector. The Russia-Ukraine war also resulted in the weakening of currencies for emerging markets and Europe; this, compounded with rising fuel costs, threatened the global economic recovery and could see several companies, including tourism start-ups, failing. If one considers that several tourism businesses took up cheap loans to remain afloat during the COVID-19 pandemic, the onset of the recovery is characterised by companies that are heavily indebted. The increasing interest rates aimed at containing inflation was another huge concern, which threatened the viability of several tourism enterprises across the tourism value chain. The South China Sea is a popular shipping route, especially for cruise liners with itineraries to Vietnam, Malaysia, the Philippines and Taiwan. As geopolitical tension increases in this region, it can severely hamper the much-needed tourism recovery for these developing countries.

Extreme weather events caused by climate change are a real threat to the tourism industry's recovery process. Extreme temperatures, flooding, extreme drought, fires and rising sea levels are some of the challenges that the tourism industry has to tackle and navigate to emerge stronger, better and more resilient post the COVID-19 pandemic. There is a need to ensure that tourism businesses are supported to ensure their sustainability. The support programmes can be designed and categorised as short-term and medium- to long-term. With respect to developing countries, there is still a need to ensure that the liquidity challenges faced by businesses are met to avoid market failure. Such liquidity can be used to support and retain workers to avoid the compounding impact of skills shortage during the recovery process. In developed countries, there is a need to reconsider the salary levels with the view of improving staff welfare and well-being. The staff were adversely affected by the pandemic materially and psychologically, and programmes aimed at ensuring staff welfare as they battle several challenges are a must to ensure optimum productivity.

The global governance system also needs to ensure that there is standardisation and better coordination of COVID-19 protocols, particularly those pertaining to those travelling across the borders. A synchronisation of entry requirements will assist tourists to prepare better and facilitate ease of doing business. There is also a need to stimulate demand in those markets where uptake is largely subdued. Such initiatives can focus on the local and international tourism market by creating products that respond to the tourist needs and demands which emerged post the COVID-19 pandemic.

Central banks and other funding agencies have a central role to play in the recovery of the tourism sector, and they can provide critical finance needed for tourism greening, making policies that ease the financial pressures created by inflation and high-interest rates. Special green bonds for tourism can be created to ensure that there is adequate financing for green tourism financing as the sector strives to build back better post the COVID-19 pandemic.

Overall, the lessons from the COVID-19 pandemic remain valuable to the tourism industry now and into the future. Should similar pandemics arise, the sector is better prepared to respond, build back and build forward better.

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