

ISSN 2467-933X



THE GAZE

JOURNAL OF TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY

Vol. 7

No.1

Year 2016

Special Issue on Nepal's Earthquake-2015

Chief Editor
Prof. Dr. Ramesh Raj Kunwar

International School of Tourism and Hotel Management
(Affiliated to Salzburg University of Applied Sciences, Austria)

Editorial Policy

The Gaze is an interdisciplinary Journal which welcomes research articles, research abstracts and book reviews for the dissemination of knowledge about tourism and hospitality. Articles should be original and unpublished, based on primary sources or field work or reflecting new interpretations, written in English, but not exceed twenty five pages. The research work should be based on global research methodology in which the researcher will be required to use parentheses or author date system.

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International School of Tourism and Hotel Management

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Editorial Note

We are very happy to offer The GAZE, Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Vol. 7, No. 1, 2016 to our readers. This journal is published annually in English by International School of Tourism and Hotel Management, which is affiliated to Salzburg University of Applied Sciences of Austria.

The purpose of this journal is to disseminate the knowledge and ideas of tourism to the students, researchers, journalists, policy makers, planners, entrepreneurs and other general readers.

Articles and reviews in the journal represent neither the views of the concerned publishers nor those of editorial board. Responsibility for opinions expressed and for the accuracy of the facts published in the articles or reviews are solely with the individual authors.

We have realized that it is high time to make this effort for tourism innovation and development. We strongly believe that this knowledge based platform will make the industry and the institutions stronger.

The Editorial Board

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Tourism Crisis and Disaster Management

Ramesh Raj Kunwar*

"Allowing things to happen", "Making things happen"(Adler, 2002; in Schmidt & Barrell, 2007: 77)

Abstract

The article provides a review on the concepts of safety, security and surety in tourism and the repercussions that risk, vulnerability, crisis, disaster, hazard, emergency and political turbulence can pose upon the industry. The article aims not just to prioritize the impacts of disasters on tourism but also aims to focus upon the issues of crisis management, disaster management and new marketing approaches for revival of tourism which comparatively are the less touched upon issues in the context of Nepal. The concept of tourist decision making is also studied here in the light of various theories. The article also discusses on the cultural dimension of tourist decision making and crisis management in relation with national culture and some theoretical orientation of crisis management in relevance to tourism.

Keywords: *Crisis, disaster, hazard, risk, vulnerability, fuzzy, hesitation, worry, safety, security, surety, crisis and disaster management model*

Introduction

Tourism industry, arguably one of the most important sources of income and foreign exchange, is growing rapidly. Not only is tourism a big business, but it also holds nation's iconic treasures. It is fair to say that it is one of the world's largest, if not the largest, non-belligerent industries (Tarlow, 2007: 83). Tourism is both a product and an element of a complex interdependent, interrelated system comprised of destination and society. In reality, tourism is a composite industry composed of numerous smaller industries, and as such no one really knows the industry's true economic impact (Tarlow, 2014: 2).

Crises are inevitable and their impacts do not leave the tourism industry untouched. Tse (2006) states that "There have been crises in history, such as war and terrorism, which interrupted the growth of tourism." While Tse (2006) argues that despite the

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history of crisis, the study of crisis management in tourism began recently, Santana(2009) gave a very interesting view that research on crisis management has been largely overlooked in comparison to other issues that promote “success”. Therefore, an attempt has been made here to conduct research on tourism, crisis and disaster management.

Academically this work is related with knowledge based platform and knowledge management. Methodologically, this study is based on global research methodology. Therefore, it is interdisciplinary in nature. Secondary sources are the major source of information for this research. The international events of disaster and crises reveal that the hospitality and tourism industry is full of uncertainty and unpredictability. Thus, as an applied field of study, it is inevitable that academics are involved in conducting research related to the tourism sector, for assisting the tourism industry as well as the government.

While these types of issues are mostly researched upon by Western and Pacific scholars, this area remains still untouched in Nepal. This paper highlights on the concept of safety, security and surety in tourism and the repercussions that risk, vulnerability, crises, disasters, hazard and emergency can pose upon the industry. Thus, this paper does not just focus upon the impacts of disasters on tourism but also discusses upon the less touched upon issues of crisis management, disaster management and the new marketing approaches for revival of tourism. The concept of tourist decision making is also studied here with reference to the concepts such as hesitation, worry and fuzzy. The paper also focuses upon cultural dimension of tourist decision making and crisis management in relation with national culture and some theoretical orientation of crises management in relevance to tourism. This study presents an overview of the general trends in tourism crises events in the last two or three decades and assesses the impacts of major man made crises and natural disasters in the industry.

As a voluntary, peace time activity, tourism is very sensitive... (Santana, 2009: 300). Tourism industry has experienced a series of catastrophic incident in the past, which have raised public consciousness of the risk associated with activities and sectors within the industry. As noted by Pearce (1992), Woodside and Lyonski(1990)and Goodrich(1978; in Santana,2009: 300) destination image is a key factor in tourists' buying behaviour. Research conducted by above scholars clearly demonstrates that there is a strong correlation between a positive perception of a destination and a positive purchase decision. Likewise, a negative image, even if it is unjustified, inhibits potential tourists and results in negative buying behaviour.

Enjoyment, pleasure, relaxation and safety are embodied in the concept of tourism whereas crisis/disasters bring distress, fear, anxiety, shock, trauma, and panic (Santana, 2009: 300). Safety and security will grow in importance, especially since many terrorist attacks deliberately target tourism honeypots in order to take advantage of international media coverage. Increasingly, destinations and tourism organizations will need to

develop crisis management plans to be able to avoid and/or handle disasters (Buhalis and Costa, 2006: 3).

Being a tourist, however, is not always easy. It is true, of course, the tourist can be more at risk than locals, mainly because they are unfamiliar with the local terrain and the customs, and may be instantly recognizable as both strangers and relatively wealthy potential targets (Clayton, Mustelie&Korstanje, 2014: 58). Tourists suffer pains of vulnerability and anomie,.... Violent crimes of both a social nature (murder, rape, armed robbery) and of a political nature (acts of terrorism) have made many individuals fear travel. Violence directly impacts a nation's image to the world and to its own citizens. Violence, whether it emanates from crime or terrorism, can destroy the fabric of society and interface with the free flow of people and ideas. Few people travel to places where they feel threatened. When people fear to travel, isolation begins, xenophobia reigns and cross-cultural fertilization ceases, if the world's travel industry cannot promote a safe and worry-free travel experience then nations suffering from the social cancer of crime suffer economically, socially, morally and spiritually. Only in recent years have tourism industry and government leaders began to address the issue of crimes against visitors (Tarlow, 2014: 1-2).

Mansfield & Pizam(2005) thus argue, that the guarantee of tourists' personal safety is perhaps the most important prerequisite for any aspiring tourism destination. Incidents of terrorism, natural disasters and epidemic outbreaks all negatively impact on place image and pose major challenges to the tourism industry, especially as the global media reinforce such security fears (Anson, 1999; in Novelli et al., 2012: 1446). However, unlike short-term disasters, Beirman(2002) suggests that civil unrest can affect the image of the destination for years to come and so internal conflict is totally inconsistent with sustainable tourism development. This is a particular problem for many of the world's poorest country, most of which are heavily reliant on tourism (Cole & Morgan, 2010; in Novelli et al.,2012:1446). According to Kahler(2007), around 60% of the poorest countries have recently experienced civil conflict of varying intensity and duration; conflict that usually erupted after a period of economic stagnation of collapse. Many of these states are so-called 'situations of fragility' (OECD, 2008: 1; in Novelli et al., 2012: 1447).

When most people are away from home, their thoughts are focused on the excitement of experiencing new places, people and cultures, not personal safety. However, sometimes tranquility of a vacation or even a business trip is interrupted by disaster. When confronting an unfamiliar event in a place at which you have just arrived, feelings of uncertainty are exacerbated. Questions require answers – the quicker the better (Drabek, 2007:43). In this regard, Murphy and Balay (1989) as cited by Drabek (2007), have highlighted the unique vulnerabilities of tourists namely lack of familiarity with both place and the event.

In this regard,Faulkner(2001) acknowledges that tourists are in fact considered more vulnerable than the resident population, as they became more relaxed away

from their usual environment. The concept of vulnerability varies and may be described as a function of a particular society and/or culture. Sometimes this state is created by previous actions that influence the control of places and persons. Marginalization and lack of assurance are two key factors that often lead lay people to a context of vulnerability (Korstanje and Tarlow, 2012; 23). Gurtner(2007) adds that such vulnerability is generally increased where significant cultural and language differences exist.

Many of these factors can be hazardous for tourist or regarded as such, resulting in the outright rejection or avoidance of areas where they occur by visitors and the tourism industry. Foreign governments may also intervene and published advisories which recommend against non-essential travel in order to protect their citizen from danger associated with political upheaval. Corruption could perhaps be added to the inventory as proper planning and the conduct of business is made difficult in countries where it is endemic (Henderson, 2007: 36). The term "travel advisory" requires a basic definition. Although fleshed out in more detail during the course of the chapter, a government travel advisory constitutes several elements:

1. It is a security and safety assessment issued by the government of a travel-generating country to its citizens applying to specific destinations.
2. Advisories incorporate information and advice on legal, cultural, religious and social mores, which may apply to the destination and suggest appropriate conduct for travelers to observe in order to optimize personal safety and minimize legal entanglements at the destination in question. They incorporate relevant contacts, including the diplomatic legation for travelers in the event of emergencies and outline the services the legation can provide while in any given foreign country.
3. In essence, government travel advisories are an extra-territorial security measure designed to protect travelers when leaving their country of citizenship (Beirman, 2006: 309).

Thus, national and international crises have huge negative economic consequences (Glaesser, 2003). Glaesser (2003) based on recent international events has discussed theory and the actions that can be taken to encourage a better understanding of consumer economic and environmental reactions that should help the businesses involved become better prepared for such events and know how to handle their business in times of crisis.

Consistent with the notion of sustainable tourism, effective destination crisis management needs to be coordinated and integrated with corresponding legislative, institutional and human resource development (Gurtner, 2007: 218).Goeldner, Ritchie & McIntosh(2000) identify that tourism growth is dependent on a number of factors such as development and improvement of infrastructure, information, facilities, access transportation options, safety and security.

Safety... is all about preventing injury or harm to individuals and/or groups (Wilks, 2003a). While the term 'safety' technically covers the main threats to tourists, it is common in the tourism and the travel literature to distinguish between health, safety and the security. Security, defined as freedom from danger, risk or doubt, was included in the original list though until recently it has been a largely neglected area service consideration in tourism (Wilks & Oldenberg, 1995; in Wilks, 2006: 4). Although many scholars and professionals in other fields may distinguish between issues of safety and security, in reality the two are intertwined when it comes to tourism. The reason for this intertwining is that a security mishap, a safety mishap or a mechanical mishap may all result in high levels of frustration and anger and have the potential on the macro-level to ruin not only a vacation but on the macro-level harm a particular tourism industry. To get around this problem the word "tourism surety" is often used. Tourism surety is a term borrowed from insurance industry and works under the assumption that any negative act, but in one of safety or security can ruin a vacation and destroy a location's reputation. Tourism surety as Tarlow(2009) notes "is the point where a safety, security, reputation, and economic viability meet".

As an industry primarily based on consumer confidence, reputation and positive imagery, most destinations can ill afford to be associated with increased risk or adversity(Gurtner,2007: 218). Once place "branded" as being unsafe and unfriendly, the tourism industry and the locale will be forced to invest a great deal of resources into a recovery program. It is interesting to note that a tourism industry's reputation will recover sooner from a negative act of nature (for example a tsunami) then it will from an act of man (such as terrorist attack or a crime wave). A general principle is that further a visitor is from the place where the tragedy has occurred, the worse that tragedy will seem and the longer it will stay in the potential visitor's memory (Tarlow, 2014: 9).

Despite the significant growth of global tourism since 1970, the management of risk and crisis has rarely management agencies. During the first decade of the 21st century an upsurge of crisis events have impacted on tourism. Some include natural disasters such as volcanic eruptions, earthquakes and most notably tsunami events in which tourists and tourism infrastructure to be located in regions (Weaver and Lawton, 2010) referred to as pleasure periphery make them highly vulnerable to storm and climatic extremes. For Beirman(2011), the pleasure periphery refers primarily to coastal areas which are often subject to cyclones, typhoons and hurricanes (depending on their geographical locations).

Tourism involves elements of uncertainty and unpredictability that have always been in a way part of its attraction. Distance travelling has always involved risks, but the difference now is that these risks are progressively more evident (Moreira, 2007: 51).

Though tourism disasters have not been systematically studied from that perspective, it is evident that tourism areas, especially those which underwent rapid

development, are particularly vulnerable to natural disasters; their location, for example on beaches or mountain slopes, their impact on basic environmental features, the absence of precaution or emergency procedures, and the often prevailing ludic atmosphere, expose them to sudden, unexpected natural threats, which developers as well as their clients usually disregard or are unaware of. Such neglected vulnerability was tragically exposed in the high price in lives and destruction that coastal tourist areas in the Indian Ocean region paid in the 2004 tsunami (Calgaro & Lloyd, 2008; E. Cohen 2008a, pp. 23-51; in Cohen & Cohen, 2012: 2188-2198).

In the tourism literature, disasters were generally dealt within the wider theoretical framework of "tourism crises" (e.g. Laws & Prideaux, 2005). Specific studies of the interface of tourism and disaster have been primarily concerned with issues of disaster management (Huan, Beaman, & Shelby, 2004; Hystad & Keller, 2008; Ritchie, 2004, 2009). Remarkably little work has been done on the specific social processes by which the vulnerability of tourist destination is produced, or on the conduct of tourists, hosting establishments, locals and official institution at the outset, during and in the immediate aftermath of a natural disaster (for an exception see E. Cohen 2009). There are some studies, however, on the decline and revival of tourism in wake of a disaster (e.g. E. Cohen, 2008b; Henderson, 2005; Ichinosawa, 2006; Rittichainuwat, 2011) and of the remarkable phenomenon of disaster tourism (Pezzullo, 2009; Rittichainuwat, 2008), which links this topic with the broader study of "dark tourism" (Cohen & Cohen, 2012: 2188-2198). Several tourism literatures highlight on dark tourism or thana tourism. Thana tourism or dark tourism is travel to locations associated with death and disaster (Seaton, 2000: 578; see in detail Korstanje, Skoll & Timmermann, 2014: 4-6).

Drury & Cocking (2007: 6) stress that "it is crucially important to develop an accurate understanding of human behavior in such disasters and mass emergencies. This is because fatalities and injuries may be due not only to the nature of the disaster or emergency itself-whether a fire, bombing, sinking ship, or train or plane crash-but also to human factors. These human factors include not only the effectiveness and appropriateness of emergency procedures and services, but also the behavior of the evacuating crowd, which has often been blamed for panic, disorganized, over-emotional, irrational and in effective egress. Other human factors which may play a role include decision-making and the interpretation of events, leadership and social influence, and after-care policies and practices"(2007: 6).

Political Turbulence and Tourism Crisis

Instability implies constant and unpredictable changes and disruption to the established political order, including external parties which use illegitimate tactics (Poirier, 1997; in Henderson, 2007: 36). Media reports and popular conceptions of such instability are key determinants of decision made by travelers, the industry and investors who generally show an aversion to risk. Henderson's(2007) research found

out that relatively peaceful locations where there are few perceived threats to personal safety and security and least commercial uncertainty are preferred by all parties.

Political instability has numerous manifestations and six types have been proposed by Hall and O'Sullivan(1996) as cited by Henderson(2007). These are: "international wars, civil wars, coups, terrorism, riots and political and social unrest, and strikes". A more detailed list of 28 instances is reproduced below which further indicates the range of political events to which tourism is vulnerable (Seddighi et al., 2001: 185): Armed attack events, Assassination (political), Bombing, Change in the government, Change in the political party governing a country, Civil wars, Guerrilla warfare, Hijackings, Kidnapping, Peaceful demonstration, Peaceful strikes, Riots, Successful coup d'etat, Mass arrests, Political instability in neighboring countries, Threats of war with other countries, Terrorist attacks to tourism industry related targets (sightseeing, transportation, accommodation), Unsuccessful coup d'etat, War, Censoring of media, Imposition of martial law, Restriction of political rights, Wars in the neighboring countries, Arrest of significant persons, Terrorist attacks or threats of attacks to non-tourist targets (foiled bombing, sabotage), Army attacks beyond the country's borders, Political illegal executions.

Natural Disasters

Natural disasters are forces of nature that cause catastrophic events (UNESCO, 2006). Natural disasters are a specific type of disaster defined according to their origin. They are events that are precipitated by the occurrence of natural extreme events such as earthquakes, fire, volcanic eruptions, floods, and tsunamis, or are due to biotic organisms (e.g. disease outbreaks and epidemics). Specht(2006) defines natural disaster as the product of property, life, economy, or environment beyond the coping ability of the affected party.

Disaster recovery has three distinct but interrelated meanings. First, it is a goal that involves the restoration of normal community activities that were disrupted by disaster impacts – in most people's minds, exactly as they were before the disaster struck. Second, it is a phase in the emergency management (see in detail Drury and Cocking, 2007: 32-33) cycle that begins with stabilization of the disaster conditions (the end of the emergency response phase) and ends when the community has returned to its normal routines. Third, it is a process by which the community achieves the goal of returning to normal routines. The recovery process involves both activities that were planned before disaster impact and those that were improvised after disaster impact. These are the physical and social disturbances that a hazard agent inflicts when it strikes a community. Physical impacts comprise casualties (deaths, injuries, and illnesses) and damage to agriculture, structures, infrastructure, and the natural environment. Social impacts comprise psychological impacts, demographic impacts, economic impacts, and political impacts. Incident stabilization. This is the point in time at which the immediate threats to human safety and property resulting from the

physical impacts of the hazard agents have been resolved and the community as a whole can focus on disaster recovery (Lindell, 2013: 812).

As noted earlier, disaster impacts comprise both physical and social impacts. The physical impacts are casualties (deaths and injuries) and property damage, and both vary substantially across hazard agents. The physical impacts of a disaster are usually the most obvious, easily measured, and first reported by the news media. Social impacts include psychosocial, demographic, economic, and political impacts. A very important aspect of disaster impacts is their impact ratio – the amount of damage divided by the amount of community resources (Lindell, 2013: 812).

Disaster impacts vary among households and businesses because of preexisting variation in the vulnerability of social units within each of these categories. Specifically, social vulnerability is people's "capacity to anticipate, cope with, resist and recover from the impacts of a natural hazard" (Wisner et al., 2004: 11; Lindell, 2013: 812). Whereas people's physical vulnerability refers to their susceptibility to biological changes (i.e., impacts on anatomical structures and physiological functioning), their social vulnerability refers to limitations in their physical assets (buildings, furnishings, vehicles) and psychological (knowledge, skills, and abilities), social (community integration), economic (financial savings), and political (public policy influence) resources. The central point of the social vulnerability perspective is that, just as people's occupancy of hazard prone areas and the physical vulnerability of the structures in which they live and work are not randomly distributed, neither is social vulnerability randomly distributed – either geographically or demographically. Thus, just as variations in structural vulnerability can increase or decrease the effect of hazard exposure on physical impacts (property damage and casualties), so too can variations in social vulnerability (Bolin, 2006; Enarson et al., 2006). In particular, households that are elderly, female-headed, lower income, and ethnic minority are likely to have high vulnerability to disasters (Lindell, 2013: 812).

According to the EM-DAT database (www.emdat.be/database), there were 25 geophysical, hydrological, or meteorological disasters that produced more than 50,000 deaths between 1900 and 2011. Of these, 12 were earthquakes (maximum = 242,000), seven were tropical cyclones (maximum = 300,000), and six were floods (maximum = 3,700,000). There is significant variation by region, with Asia experiencing 54% of the earthquakes but 71% of the casualties from these events, 41% of the floods but 98% of the casualties, and 41% of the storms but 92% of the casualties. By contrast, the Americans experienced 22% of the earthquakes but 17% of the 812 RECOVERY AND RECONSTRUCTION AFTER DISASTER casualties from these events, 24% of the floods but less than 2% of the casualties, and 33% of the storms and 8% of the casualties. Berke (1995) found that developing countries in Asia, Africa, and South America accounted for approximately 3,000 deaths per disaster, whereas the corresponding figure for high-income countries was approximately 500 deaths per

disaster. Moreover, these disparities appear to be increasing because the average annual death toll in developed countries declined by at least 75% between 1960 and 1990, but the same time period saw increases of over 400% in developing countries (Lindell, 2013: 812-813).

Losses of structures, animals, and crops also are important measures of physical impacts, and the EM-DAT database shows that these have been rising exponentially throughout the world since 1970.

Damage to the built environment can be classified broadly as affecting residential, commercial, industrial, infrastructure (water, waste disposal, electric power, fuel, telecommunications, and transportation), or community services (public safety, health, education) sectors. Moreover, damage within each of these sectors can be divided into damage to structures and damage to contents. Collapsing buildings are a major cause of casualties as well, this suggests that strengthening the structure will protect the contents and occupants. Other important physical impacts include damage or contamination to cropland, rangeland, and woodlands. Such impacts may be well understood for some hazard agents but not others (Lindell, 2013: 813).

Research reviews conducted over a period of 25 years have concluded that disasters can cause a wide range of negative psychological responses (Gerrity and Flynn, 1997; Norris et al., 2002a; in Lindell, 2013: 813). In most cases, the observed effects are mild and transitory – the result of “normal people, responding normally, to a very abnormal situation” (Gerrity and Flynn, 1997: 108). The vast majority of disaster victims experience only mild psychological distress. For example, Bolin and Bolton (1986) found negative impacts such as upsets with storms (61%), time pressures (48%), lack of patience (38%), and strained family relationships (31%) after the 1982 Paris Texas USA tornado. However, victims also experienced positive impacts including strengthened family relationships (91%), decreased importance of material possessions (62%), and increased family happiness (23%). The data showed only minor differences between Blacks and Whites in the prevalence of psychosocial impacts. Researchers have also examined public records in their search for psychological impacts of disasters. For example, Morrow’s (1997) examination of vital statistics (births, marriages, deaths, and divorce applications) had no significant long-term trends due to Hurricane Andrew (Lindell, 2013: 813).

It is more useful to think of disaster recovery in terms of four functions: disaster assessment, short-term recovery, long-term reconstruction, and recovery management. The recovery phase’s disaster assessment function should be integrated with the emergency response phase’s emergency assessment function in identifying the physical impacts of the disaster. Short-term recovery focuses on the immediate tasks of securing the impact area, housing victims, and establishing conditions under which households and businesses can begin the process of recovery (Lindell, 2013: 815). Long-term reconstruction actually implements the reconstruction of the disaster impact area and manages the disaster’s psychological, demographic, economic, and political impacts.

Finally, recovery management monitors the performance of the disaster assessment, short-term recovery, and long-term reconstruction functions. It also ensures they are coordinated and provides the resources needed to accomplish them (Lindell, 2013: 816).

Natural Disasters and Tourism Crisis

When a crisis, in turn, escalates we then have a disaster, defined by Zamecka and Buchanan (2000: 8) as: "A catastrophic event that severely disrupts the fabric of a community and requires the intervention of the various level of government to return the community to normality" (Wilks, 2006: 11). Natural disasters include eruptions of volcanoes, tsunamis, floods, landslides, hurricanes, cyclones, typhoons, tornadoes, earthquakes, avalanches, heat waves, droughts, winter storms, and wildfires (Rodda, 1999; in Park and Reisinger, 2010: 5). Natural disasters are unavoidable because they are beyond human control (Weisaeth et al., 2002). They bring loss of life and create economic, physical and social damage (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998; Smith, 2003; in Park and Reisinger, 2010: 5), or are due to biotic organisms (e.g. disease outbreaks and epidemics) (Specht, 2006: 125). Besides nature induced events, human induced event are also equally important in the study of crisis management in tourism. The Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA) has identified some human made events which are as follows: acts of terrorism, adventure sports, aircraft crash, assault, building fire/collapse, civil/ political unrest, cruise ship/ ferry disaster, fire, hijacking, industrial action, kidnapping, murder, hostage situations, mechanical/systems failure, personal harassment, political action, riots, surface transport accident, war (Wilks & Moore, 2004: 11-12).

Natural Disasters have often been seen as "acts of God" in the past, beyond human control or influence. As a corollary of this view, the study of disasters was until recently an isolated specialty, unrelated to wider theoretical developments in mainstream sociology (Tierney, 2007), and concerned mainly with issues regarding responses to disaster (Drabek, 1986), and especially the management of its consequences. It was in anthropology, particularly through the work of Hoffman and Oliver-Smith (1999) and Oliver-Smith and Hoffman (2002a), that natural disasters came to be understood as "happenings humans themselves to some degree construct" and that many "socio-cultural elements [are] entangled within the vortex of [natural] catastrophe" (Hoffman & Oliver Smith, 1999:2). The main insight from these researchers is that whilst disasters are exogenic to society, the intensity and breadth of their impacts might result from or be aggravated by "a historically produced patterns of 'vulnerability', evidenced in the location, infrastructure, sociopolitical organization, production and distribution systems and ideology of a society" (Oliver-Smith & Hoffman, 2002b: 3; in Cohen & Cohen, 2012: 2188).

It has a commonplace meaning: being prone to or susceptible to damage or injury. According to Wisner, Blaikie, Cannon & Davis, "Vulnerability means the characteristics of a person or group and their situation that influence their capacity to anticipate,

cope with, resist and recover from the impact of a natural hazard (an extreme natural event or process)” (2003: 11).

Beck (like many other researchers) finds those roots in the rampant consumerism of contemporary rich societies. But also (and this is of more interest to disaster studies) in two forms of social control of the consequences of over-consumption. According to Goldbatt (1993: 379), as cited by Beck (1992: 21; In Wisner, Blaikie, Cannon & Davis, 2003: 16 - 17), one is “ecological modernization”, by which the technicians of the ‘risk society attempt to ‘fix’ environmental problems without ever addressing root causes. The other is a form of amnesia or denial of environmental problems that he terms “organized responsibility”.

Beck maintains that the more developed world is in a transitional state between industrial society and ‘risk society’ with so much wealth also come risks. With an increasingly complex and technologically driven society come new threats: ‘hazards and insecurities induced and introduced by modernization itself” (Beck 1992: 21; in Wisner, Blaikie, Cannon & Davis, 2003: 17).

Lewis and Kelman (2010: 197) as cited by Korstanje and Tarlow (2012: 22-23) define vulnerability as a process that ‘... refers to the values, ideas, behaviors, and actions that have led to characteristics of fragility, weakness, exposure and susceptibility and that can perpetuate or absolve these issues. Heijmans (2001; in Korstanje and Tarlow 2012: 22-23) adds that the concepts of vulnerability is not only socially construed, but also introduced by outsiders following external interests.

As can be seen from this argument, vulnerability is based on an ongoing and reciprocal relationship between the state and society that are rooted in a specific time and place. Unfortunately, the state of disaster almost always evokes a long-simmering previous situation of abandonment and fragility that is manipulated by politicians and officials (Korstanje, 2011).

Therefore, some scholars considered risks an important aspect in forecasting the future in contexts of uncertainty (probability) (Anderson, Juaneda, & Sastre, 2009; Dominguez, Burguette, & Bernard, 2003; Floyd & Pennington-Gray, 2004; in Korstanje & Tarlow, 2012: 23). From this perspective, it is assumed that risk works as a mechanism to familiarize experience when travelers are away from home (Smith, Pan, Li, & Zhang, 2009). One of the aspects that characterize risks, however, seems to be the potential of danger.

In this vein, Peattie, Clarke, and Peattie (2005; in Korstanje & Tarlow, 2012: 23) call into questions two different relevant aspects that determine risks research: safety and security. The authors define security as any physical harm that can be directed against tourists in accidents. When they use risks, they refer to the potential dangers in which a visitors can be involved, for example, an assault or direct onslaught. Lofstedt (2010; in Korstanje & Tarlow, 2012: 23) suggests that risks communication should be

based on three relevant aspects, (a) risks should trigger initially a single factor, (b) involving multiple stakeholders or social actors and (c) transcending the boundaries of nationhood and taking international repercussions. The concept of security plays a pivotal role for expanding our existing understanding as to how a risk is socially elaborated (Korstanje & Tarlow, 2012: 23).

'Crises' and 'disasters' are related but different events. While disasters or catastrophes imply a clearly unpredictable event that can normally only be responded to after the event (Glaesser, 2003), crises have been described as 'the possible but unexpected result of management failures that are concerned with future course of events set in motion by human action or inaction precipitating the event' (Prideaux et al., 2003: 477; in Pechlaner, Abfalter, Raich & Dreyer, 2007: 158).

Faulkner (2001) identifies crises as having 'detrimental or negative effects on the organization as a whole, or individuals within it. He further refers to disasters as situations where an enterprise or destination is confronted with sudden unpredictable catastrophic changes over which it has little control (Faulkner, 2001). Crises can range from small scale internal events such as diverse problem concerning staff (illness, breakdowns, etc.) to external incidents such as terrorist attacks (Coombs, 1999; in Pechlaner et al., 2007). In the European Alps, events including accidents with cable car or in tunnels and avalanches, as well as the latent fear of terrorist attacks have led to increased risk awareness and to the development of crisis management plans (Pechlaner et al., 2007: 158).

There are a range of types of event that come under the broad heading 'disaster and mass emergency'. Social scientists looking at emergency evacuation have defined such events in terms of three factors that have to be present which are (1) involve a mass of people (2) include the actual or perceived threat of death, but (3) in which there is still a subjective possibility of escape, albeit time-limited. The type of events of interest would therefore include fires in crowded buildings, sports stadium crushes, sinking ships, air crashes, terrorist attacks (bomb threats as well as actual explosions), and natural disasters such as earthquakes (Drury, & Cocking, 2007: 6).

The definition of a disaster applied by the International Strategy for Disaster (ISDR, 2004b) is that it is a serious disruption of societal or community function where losses (human, economic, material, or environmental) to cope is a critical distinguishing feature. For a disaster to enter into the database of the OFDA/CRED International Disasters Database (EM-DAT) for example, at least one of the following criteria must be fulfilled (Specht, 2006: 124):

- 10 or more people reported killed;
- 100 people reported affected;
- declaration of a state of emergency; and
- a call for international assistance.

The comparison of terminologies such as crisis, catastrophe, and disaster may seem somewhat semantic, but the important point is that to be a disaster, the event has to be abrupt, somewhat unexpected (at least at the time), the loss of life and/ or property considerable, and the affected community unable to cope within their own resources.

The ISDR (2004: 5; Specht, 2006:126) defines a hazard as "a process or phenomenon occurring in the biosphere that may constitute a damaging event", which may constitute a disaster. How hazardous an extreme natural event is depends on the vulnerability is still fuzzy (Weichselgartner, 2001). Vulnerability is "susceptibility to injury or from a hazard" (Goschalk, 1991: 132; cited in McEntire Myers, 2004: 144), or "the conditions determined by physical, social, economic, and environmental factors and process, which increase the susceptibility of a community to the impact of hazards" (ISDR, 2004b: 8). According to Chapman(1999), the type of level of vulnerability is not "natural" for any community or society, but is the outcome of a complex suite of factors including affluence, education (both formal and informal), technological sophistication, and preparedness. Vulnerability is partly the manifestation of the human tendency to defy hazard: by necessity (lack of alternatives) by default (ignorance) or by willfulness (desire take risks) (Alexander,2000;in Specht,2006: 127). People often themselves create inherently hazardous areas, assuming that technology (e.g. warning systems, dams) will protect them, often having erased the very natural ecosystem buffers that might have protected them, and/ or ignoring historical and ecological indications of the nature and extent of likely hazards, thus increasing vulnerability when the next event occurs (McEntire, 2004; in Specht, 2006:127). Indeed, where and how development occurs can clearly determine the losses that will be suffered.

Among natural disasters, earthquake and to a large degree tsunamis (when the time between detection and striking an inhabited area may be minutes) can be considered special disasters. When it is not possible to tell potential tourist that well planned escape or safe protection can be offered to them if disaster occurs, one is in a different situation than that with escapable disaster. Even landslides, avalanches and similar phenomena can be no-escape natural disasters (NEND) on a small scale (Huan, Beaman & Shelby, 2004: 256).

Of the various types of natural dangers, earthquakes are one of the most serious and unpreventable (Vare-Jones, 1995; in Tsai & Chen, 2010: 470). An earthquake is a sudden and unpredictable movement of the Earth's crust caused by the release of strain that has accumulated over a long time. An earthquake belongs to the most devastating natural disasters. Earthquakes may cause many deaths, injuries and extensive property damage. Earthquakes often trigger avalanches, rock falls and tsunamis (Park & Reisinger, 2010: 6). The occurrence of earthquakes in New Zealand, Japan, Taiwan, Turkey, the United States, El Salvador, and Peru, could be the examples in the history of tourism crisis and disaster management. They clearly demonstrate

the catastrophic impact of earthquakes on tourism. Following the occurrence of a disastrous earthquake, tourist related organizations and destinations are placed in a particularly difficult position, faced with the challenges of declining numbers of visitors and falling revenues. Recently, Nepal also experienced a disastrous earthquake (7.8 magnitude) on 25 April, 2015 which severely hampered the tourism industry (see in detail Kunwar, 2015; Kunwar& Limbu, 2015).

Tourist destinations could thus cope with such challenges more efficiently if they had guidelines for appropriate action in place before anything on toward had happened. In this regard, Tsai & Chen(2010) stress disaster planning and response to be significant for the tourism industry.

There is no universally accepted definition of what constitutes crisis and different writers present their own interpretations. These do, however, frequently correspond and it appears that æ three elements must be present: a triggering event causing significant change or having the potential to cause significant change; the perceived inability to cope with this change; and a threat to the existence of the foundation of the organization (Keown – McMullan, 1997: 4, in Henderson, 2007: 4).

According to the Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA,2003: 2; in Wilks, 2006: 11), a crisis can be defined as: Any situation that has the potential to affect long- term confidence in an organization or a product, which may interfere with its ability to continue operating normally. But, Henderson (2007: 3) strongly believes that Pearson and Clair's (1998) definition of crisis is useful not only because it has wide acceptance but also because it emphasizes the needs for timely action. Expanding Pearson ad Clair's definition a crisis in global tourism is a low probability high impact event that threatens the viability of tourism and its stakeholders, either directly or indirectly. While determining the cause of a crisis may be problematic and time consuming, resolution must be swift and decisive.

Faulkner & Vikulov (2001) while writing about 'Katherine, washed out one day, back on track the next: a post-mortem of a tourism disaster' reviewed several literatures published by different scholars of crisis and disaster management and highlighted 'How the tourism sector adjusts to disaster situations has not received a great deal of attention in tourism management research, even though it is arguable that all destinations face the prospect of either a natural or human-induced disaster at some time in their history' (p. 332). The vulnerability of many tourist destinations has been noted by several authors, who have emphasized the attractiveness of high-risk exotic locations (Murphy & Bayley, 1989) and the exposure of visitors to injury owing to their unfamiliarity with local hazards (Burby& Wagner, 1996; Drabek, 1995). Despite this, tourism business and organizations are generally unprepared for disaster situations even in high-risk areas (Cassedy, 1991; Drabek, 1992, 1995), while many have played down the actual or potential impacts of disasters for marketing reasons (Cammisa, 1993; Murphy & Bayley, 1989). The latter reaction is largely a response to the importance

of safety considerations within the market and the tendency of press reports to exaggerate the impacts of disasters in tourism areas (Faulkner & Vikulov, 2001: 332).

In his Foreword to the recent Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) report 'Tourism Risk Management for the Asia Pacific Region' Sir Frank Moore (Wilks & Moore 2004: iii) noted that:

In times of crisis, for any tourism destination the first concern must be for visitors. Away from home, in unfamiliar surroundings, they are quickly disorientated and very reliant on their hosts and the host communities in general. Adequate planning for what has in the past been seen as the 'unexpected' can be the difference between a well-managed problem and a human and economic disaster.

Sonmez et al. (1999: 82) use the term 'tourism crisis' to describe circumstances:

which can threaten the normal operation and conduct of tourism related business; damage a tourist destination's overall reputation for safety, attractiveness, and comfort by negatively affecting visitor's perceptions of that destination; and, in turn, cause a downturn in the local travel and tourism economy and interrupt the continuity of business operations for the local travel and tourism industry, by the reduction in tourist arrivals and expenditures.

According to Ritchie (2004: 679), crisis and disasters are chaotic and complex and their impacts can make long lasting changes to systems, but these changes they can be positive or negative. In fact some organizations or destinations may benefit from a crisis or disaster as travelers change their travel patterns. Examples include the US market visiting the Caribbean in greater numbers during 1991 Gulf War and avoiding Europe and the Middle East. As stated earlier, this is also because the US tourists perceive higher travel risks. When a destination is unavailable to the tourist they will find alternative destinations, and they need to be re-introduced to that destination for them to return (Durocher, 994; in Specht, 2006: 139). Such marketing can be very effective. As travellers perceive travel risks differently, so the marketing ought to be different.

Within the month of the Izmit earthquake in August 1999, Turkish tourism authorities began the task of rebuilding the market. They used several approaches, including visits by travel industry and tourism journalists to see the recovery first hand. This proactive response enabled tourist numbers to recover the pre-earthquake levels within a year (Beirman, 2003; Kunwar, 2015; Kunwar & Limbu, 2015). In the same year (1999) the most disastrous earthquake struck on 21 September, 1999 in Taiwan also called 9/21. This heavily impacted on tourism industry of Taiwan. To revitalize the dramatic decline in inbound tourist flows, the government of Taiwan implemented a series of swift counter measures. The tourist arrivals were bouncing back from the disasters indicating the government's efforts proved effective (Huang & Min, 2002; Huan, Beaman & Shelby, 2004; Tsai & Chen, 2010; Wilks & Moore, 2004).

Causes of many tourism crises can be traced to developments in the economic, political, socio –cultural and environmental domains which affect demand and supply in tourism generating and destination countries(Henderson, 2007: 4).The observation made by Cassedy(1991) shows that many tourism organizations do not include the possibility of disaster in their strategic plans (Anderson et al., 2007: 267).

External and internal threats of crisis

Domain	External	Internal
Economic	Recession	rising costs
	Currency fluctuations	falling revenues
	Taxation	unprofitability
Political	government policy	
	International relations	
	Instability	
	Terrorism	
Socio cultural	unrest	staffing
	Crime	cultural conflicts
Environmental	natural phenomena	overdevelopment
	Natural disaster	environmental degradation
	Pollution	
	Health scares	
Technological	computer system failure	transportation accidents
	Mechanical failure	
	Design faults	
	Failure	
Commercial	Regulations	competition
	Government intervention	labor disputes
	Management decisions	
Human error		

Source: Henderson (2007: 5)

Crisis situations usually force management to make decision rapidly with incomplete information, which makes responding to chaotic situations difficult. In his recent article, Ritchie (2004) proposes a strategic, holistic and pro-active crisis management approach in the tourism industry through the development of pro-active scanning and planning, the implantation of strategies for crises of disaster situations and an

evaluation of the effectiveness of these strategies in order to ensure constant refinement (Pechlaner et al., 2007: 159).

Extraordinary events, defined as crisis, in the external environment presents challenges that force tourism operators to respond quickly in order to maximize business opportunities or minimize losses. Anderson et al.(2007) supports Booth's(1996) view that externally generated crises are unforeseen and may suddenly engulf organizations.

There have been numerous other works focused on risk in tourism published in the last couple of decades. Balton (1994; in Tsai & Chen, 2010: 471) has suggested that everyone from senior management down to receptionists, should have a predetermined role to play in an anticipated crisis. A well thought-out crisis plan can help management response and facilitate damage control. Drabek (1995; in Tsai & Chen, 2010: 471) argued that the best way for tourist business executive to handle disaster planning response is to plan appropriate actions, resist denial, arrange to have a single person in charge, improve employ-costumer communication, anticipate the needs of special populations, and recognize family priorities as well as facilitate good media relations.

Despite the negativity that crises generate, crises are not only considered negatively. On the contrary, some researcher suggest positive effect of crises such as stimuli to innovation or the recognition of new markets (Faulkner&Vikulov, 2001).At the heart of every crisis lies tremendous opportunity, and perhaps this is why the Chinese word for crisis is surprisingly composed of two symbols meaning 'danger' and 'opportunity' (Holmes, 2003; in Campiranon,& Scott, 2007: 151).

Beyond forecasting and risk management , tourism crisis management is offered as a proactive ,holistic approach to enhance operational capability and a capacity to resist, respond to and recover from potentially detrimental circumstance .In the past decade, there have been numerous models, guidelines and frameworks designed to conceptualize this process:(1)Faulkner's (2001)'Tourism Disaster Management Framework'; (2) World Tourism Organization's (2001) 'Crisis Guidelines for the Tourism Industry';(3)'Pacific Asia Travel Association's (PATA) (2003)'The Four R's of Crisis Management'; and, (4), Ritchie's (2004) 'Strategic Management Framework'. Here Gurtner(2007) acknowledges each to have made a significant contribution to the general awareness and understanding of effective tourism management strategies...

World Tourism Organization (2005a) has developed a crisis management model for tourism destination. This model consists of three stages: before the crisis (crisis preparation),during a crisis(crisis response) and following a crisis (crisis recovery) then crisis outcome. The proposed model also incorporates culture, leadership and resources as factors that influence those stages (Campiranon& Scott, 2007: 151).

But, PATA (2004: 37-38) has developed a model of 'Four Rs' regarding crisis management which are as follows: Reduction (crisis awareness, political awareness and standard operating procedures); Readiness (crisis management plan, tourism planning and health and safety measures); Response (emergency response procedures, investigation, family assistance and communication); and Recovery (business continuity plan, human resources and debriefing). Besides having those four model, the Australian/ New Zealand Standard for risk management (Standard Australian, 2004) is a relevant framework that can be applied to a broad range of risk situations (Morgan & Dimmock, 2006: 179). The Standard specifies seven elements that comprise the risk management process. These are: establish the risk context; identify risks; analyze risks; evaluate risks; treat risks; monitor and review; and communication and consultation. In this regard, Ritchie (2004) has developed strategic and holistic approach to crisis planning and management.

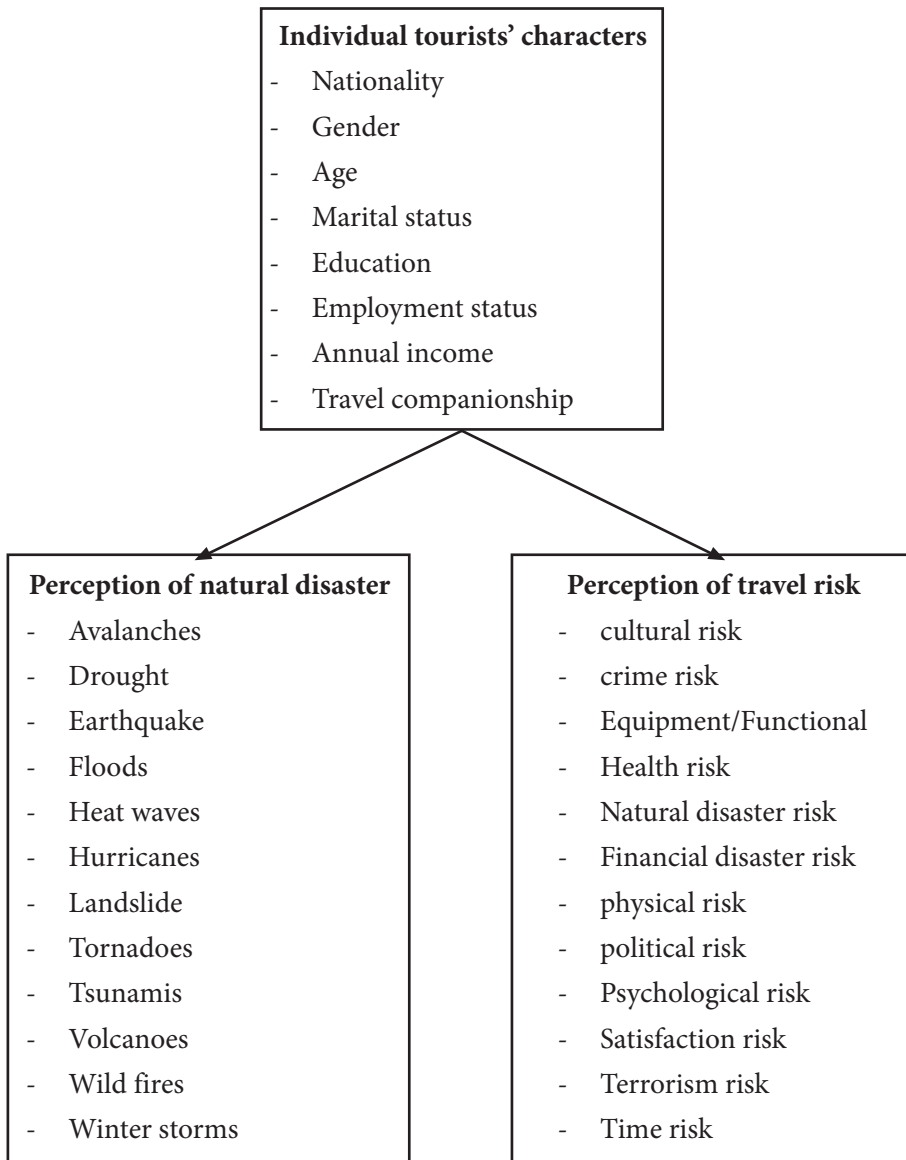
These steps parallel those of rescue, relief, and recovery which are recommended for dealing with disasters (IBLF, 2005; in Henderson, 2007: 162). Disaster management has its own academic and practitioner literature which the tourism industry has drawn from and is relevant in the worst of tourism crisis when physical infrastructure and people are harmed by disastrous events. Henderson (2007) stated that each crisis stage encompassed several aspects and tasks requiring the management.

Tourism researchers have adapted and applied more general theories of crisis management which describes the dynamics of crises in terms of a series of stages (Turner, 1976; Fink, 1986). The tourism disaster management model proposed by Faulkner (2001) is frequently cited and traces responses through principal phases labeled pre-event, prodromal, emergency, intermediate, long term recovery and resolution. Santana (2003) maintains that warning signal detection, preparation and prevention are pre-crisis management functions, while crisis resolution encompasses containment, damage limitation, recovery and learning. However, it may be impossible to predict certain manifestations of crisis, and a time of realizations when avoidance tactics are viable could be of extreme brevity or non-existent, exemplified by airline crashes (Henderson, 2003a) and terrorist attacks (Pizam, 2002; in Henderson, 2007: 190).

Tourism and Risk Perceptions

Existing literature shows that risk perception is a multi-faceted phenomenon. Tourist perceive different types of risk and/or a combination of these risks, which makes tourists perceive a global level of risk (Bielen and Sempel, 2003). Park and Reisinger have selected 13 major types of travel risk, including cultural risk, crime risk, equipment / functional risk, financial risk, health risk, natural disaster risk, physical risk, political risk, psychological risk, satisfaction risk, social risk, terrorism risk and time risk (Reisinger and Movando, 2006a, 2006b).

Influence of natural disaster and travel risk on international travel



Source: Conceptual framework of the study developed by. (Park & Reisinger, 2010: 3)

Emergency is another term sometimes employed interchangeably with crisis, but it refers to a less serious and therefore more easily managed event or threat. An associated concept is that of risk pertaining to latent, rather than actual, individual

or sets of conditions which can become crises if realized and of sufficient gravity. Risk assessment is a key stage in planning for crisis, involving the anticipation of what might go wrong and identification of the reasons for divergences from expectations (van Waldebeek, 2005; in Henderson, 2007: 3). Every crisis is unique, yet characteristics generally cited include unexpectedness, urgency and danger (Hermann, 1972; in Henderson, 2007: 3).

How those with responsibility for emergency planning and disaster responses understand human responses to emergency, and in particular crowd behavior in such events, has particular implication for safe and effective evacuation and risk management. Theories of collective evacuation behavior, whether explicit or implicit, inform practice, policies and procedures. For instance, the assumption that people in a crowd will necessarily panic-i.e. behave competitively or thoughtlessly, and simply stampede towards the nearest exit-has clear implications for both the planning and design of public spaces as well as for evacuation procedures. Specifically, the presumption of crowd panic would dictate that emergency contingency plans for the evacuation of buildings focus on physical (non-psychological) factors (such as the width of emergency exits to prevent jamming, and the rate and speed of people's egress), downplaying the importance of meaningful communication with the ('irrational') crowd. Moreover, withholding information because the evacuating crowd is seen as over-emotional and unable to act rationally on such information means that survivor of emergencies-and indeed the wider public- may develop a distrust of the authorities. In turn, this may mean valid information may be ignored and not acted upon by the public in the future (Drury, & Cocking, 2007: 7).

Existing typologies of corporate crisis as a whole are founded on root causes (Srivastav&Mittroff, 1987), time (Booth, 1993), gravity (Brecher, 1978) and facets of business operation (Mayers, 1987). Specific tourism crisis can be classed in these ways and domain of origin or cause in a relatively straight forward method which permits comprehensive analysis (Henderson 2007: 4).

As Alison Specht (2006: 123-142), correctly points out "Active (Tourism industry) participation in regional planning and disaster management teams will ensure that the needs of the tourism industry are understood and incorporated sensibly into planning. A strong, effective, regional (world, country, state or smaller) tourism body which actively engages with its members and with other organizations can be an insurance policy in itself".

In the field of marketing research, Cunningham (1967) and Bettman (1973) as cited by Tsaur, Tzeng& Wang (1997: 798) have developed schema for specifying the components of risk. Risk has been defined by Priest & Carpenter (1993: 52; in Fluker, 2005: 70) as "the potential to lose something valuable". According to Australian and New Zealand Standard (1999), a risk is the chance of something happening that will have an impact upon objectives, it is measured in terms of consequences and

likelihood (Wilks & Moore, 2004: 2). Cheron and Ritchie (1982; in Fluker, 2005: 7) view risk as a multidimensional psychological phenomenon which influences individual perceptions and decision processes. While studying perceived risk in tourism, Fluker (2005:8) has distinguished two types of risk: real risk and perceived risk. The term "real risk" is defined as "that which actually exposes the participant to the possibility, even probability, of being hurt or having a close call" (Ewert, 1989: 4). Perceived risk refers to "illusion of danger" (Ewert, 1989: 4). Maser and Weiermair (1998; in Fluker, 2005: 8) say that perceived risk is characterized as a function of uncertainty and its consequences with some consequences being more desirable to the tourist. Balancing "safety, the abilities and skill of the participants, and real and perceived risk" (Hall, 1992: 145) is the role of the adventure tour operator (Fluker, 2005: 8).

It thus becomes important to know what risk management is. According to the Australian and New Zealand Standard (1999; in Wilks & Moore, 2004: 2), risk management is an iterative process consisting of well-defined steps, which taken in sequence, support better decision making by contributing a greater insight into risks and their impacts. The risk management process can be applied to any situation where an undesired or unexpected outcome could be significant or opportunities are identified. Cunningham specified these components as certainty and consequences.

Bettman built a theoretical model and measurement system for perceived risk, including inherent risk and handled risk, and its components are developed. In the attempt to investigate the relationship between the risk perceptions of tourist and pleasure travel, Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992: 18) have categorized tourist risk into seven items: equipment risk, financial risk, physical risk, psychological risk, satisfaction risk, social risk and time risk. Moutinho (1987; in Tsaour, Tzeng & Wang 1997: 798) reviewed marketing literature and divided tourist perceived risks into five categories: functional risk, physical risk, financial risk, social risk, and psychological risk.

Roselius (1971), in consumer's behavior research, defines the types of consumer (tourist) loss as time loss, hazard loss, ego loss, and money loss. Pinhey and Iverson (1994) explored safety concerns centering on typical vacation activities among Japanese visitors to Guam. Tsaour et al. (1997) divided the evacuation aspects of travelling safety concern into seven items: the perception of the described safety, the perception of sightseeing safety, the perception of the water sports safety, the perception of beach activity safety, the perception of night life safety, the perception of in-car safety, and the perception of road safety.

Synthesizing the studies just mentioned above with the goal of this study, "tourist risk" is defined as the possibility of various misfortunes which might befall a group package tourist in the process of travelling or at its destination. According to this definition, the tourist risk cited in this study intend to cover two main categories: physical risk, which refers to the possibility that an individual's health is likely to be exposed to risk, injury, and sickness because of conditions like law and order, weather,

and hygiene problems found during the tour; and equipment risk, which refers to the dangers arising from the unavailability of the equipment or its malfunctioning, such as insufficient telecommunication facilities, unsafe transportation, and break-down of vehicles, etc. (Tsaour et al., 997-798).

Risk has been successfully used in theories of decision –making in economics, finance and the decision sciences (Dowling and Staelin, 1994; in Tsaour, Tzeng & Wang, 1997: 797). When faced with a purchasing situation such as choosing a group package tour, a tourist has a certain degree of risk involved in the decision to be made. The concept of perceived risk most often used by consumer researchers defines risk in terms of the consumer's perceptions both of the uncertainty and the magnitude of the possible adverse consequences (Cox, 1967; Cox and Rich, 1964; Dowling and Staelin, 1994). Since the degree of risk itself is not known with certainty, its evaluation must therefore be conducted in an uncertain, fuzzy environment.

Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992: 21-24; Lepp, & Gibson, 2003: 610) classified tourists into three groups based on their perception of risk: risk neutral, functional risk and place risk. The risk neutral group did not consider tourism or their destination to involve risk. The functional risk group considered the possibility of mechanical, equipment, or organizational problems as the major source of tourism related risk. The place risk group perceived risk vacations as fairly risky and the destination of their most recent vacations as very risky. While the perception of risk was a potential deterrent for the place risk and functional risk groups, the authors suggested that the perception of risk might actually add to the excitement of tourism for the risk neutral group (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992: 21-22.)

Although the authors did not draw a connection with SS (safety and security), perhaps tourists high in this trait would be more likely to frame risk in terms of excitement and therefore as a motivation for travel. In an earlier paper, Lepp and Gibson add further insight to these relationships. Classifying respondents by Cohen's (1972) tourist typology, they compared how novelty seeking tourists (explorers and drifters) perceive the risks associated with international tourism to how familiarity seeking tourists organized and independent mass tourists perceive the same risks. Results showed that novelty seeking tourists' perceived international tourism to be less risky than familiarity seeking tourists.

Tourism and Decision Making Process

Supported by theories of risky decision-making and the accepted models of consumer and tourist decision-making, Sonmez & Graefe's (1998) study suggests that decisions are influenced by several factors as they progress through a sequence of stages. Subject to sociodemographic and psychographic influences, motivation to travel results from various personal, social, or commercial cues. This awareness, which may also develop as a result of exposure to external factors, such as media coverage,

travel advisories, or social interaction, is a potential influence on the rest of the decision-making process.

Undoubtedly, tourist behavior and decision making have always been a central issue in the tourism management literature. Numerous studies indentified various factors causing people to visit a destination which basically can be categorized by pull and push factors (Crompton, 1979; in Wong & Yeha, 2009: 6). Subsequently, preceding research discovered other influencing factors to build travel models, such as tourist characteristics (Morley,1994), destination preferences awareness (Goodrich, 1978), race (Philipp, 1994), nationality (Pizam&Sussmann, 1995), attitudes (Um & Crompton, 1990) and other marketing and consumer variables (Muhlbacher & Botschen, 1988; in Wong &Yeh, 2009: 7).

Several paradigms of decision-making were integrated, and then adjusted, to reflect decisions involving terrorism and/or political instability risks. Expected utility theory (UT) is based on individuals' expectation of the overall usefulness of a prospect, its promise to increase existing resources, and their aversion to risk (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). Its inadequacy as a descriptive model of choice under risk has inspired the development of other theories, such as protection motivation theory (PMT) (Rogers 1975), catastrophe theory (Svyantek, Deshon & Siler, 1991), and information integration theory (IIT) (Anderson, 1981, 1982). Information integration theory was developed to explain the risk element in consumer decisions but it can also be applied to decisions involving terrorism risk (Sonmez&Graefe,1998: 123). IIT proposes that individuals form psychophysical and value judgments according to complex decision making steps, and that those judgments are influenced by the amount and contents of received information. PMT focuses on three cognitive processes.Individual experience in a risky decision process and thus the likelihood of engaging in protective behavior, such as risk avoidance, is positively related to the availability of information. Together, IIT and PMT imply that future travel behavior would be influence by images of safety and risk that individuals have of regions (Sonmez and Graefe 1998: 172; in Wong & Yeh, 2009; 9-10).

There is another theory known as prospect theory (PT) developed by Kahneman and Tversky (1997; in Sonmez & Graefe, 1998:172; in Wong & Yeh, 2009: 9-10). According to Sonmez and Graefe (1998: 123), prospect theory proposes that risky decision-making occurs in two stages: prospects are narrowed down to several alternatives and evaluated before the best option is selected (those considered undesirable are eliminated). When the theory is applied to touristic decisions involving terrorism risk, prospects are represented by potential destination. If potential tourists obtain new and negative information about a destination (after it has been choosen), it is likely for these individuals to integrate that knowledge into the decision process, even if it means altering the outcome by canceling plans.

The concept of "hesitation" has not been clearly defined in previous studies, with only exception being the study of Cho, Kang and Cheon (2006; in Wong & Yeh, 2009:

9) where it is defined as postponing or deferring product as cited by Wong and Yeh (2009: 9). Purchases by having additional processing time before making final product purchase decision. Hesitation belongs to decisions making styles. The term of decision making styles is closely related to that of cognitive style. Both often, refer to individual thinking practices central to decision process (Thunholm, 2004: 932; in Wong & Yeh, 2009: 8). These basically can be categorized as intuitive, analytical modes (Sjoberg, 2003: 18; in Wong & Yeh, 2009: 8). Arroba (1977) devised six styles types- emotional, intuitive, rational, hesitant, complaint, and no-thought falling along an active- passive continuum.

Here, it is important to follow the discussion about tourist hesitation studied by Wong and Yeh (2009: 6-23). As they write, ‘...tourists typically face a dilemma- they want the product or services possibly that match their needs but are also afraid of making wrong decisions and getting a bad purchase experience’. Hence, ‘tourist hesitate to make the final decision (Wong & Yeh, 2009: 7). The term of decision making style is closely related to that of cognitive style. Both often refer to individual thinking practices central to the decision process. Thunholm (2004: 932: in Wong & Yeh, 2009: 8) sees the problems for tourism practitioners and write, “tourist hesitation creates difficulties in convincing consumers to make immediate purchase decisions and increasing the possibility of potential clients shifting to other travel agents then negatively impacting the sales performance. Furthermore, from the perspective of tourists themselves, hesitation is likely to result in them missing the desired trip owing to the seasonality to tourism products, although they may be able to select similar trips provided by other travel agents with different prices and itinerary items”. However, the present study does not exclude the concept of “tourist worry” developed by Larsen, Brun and Øgaard (2009: 260-265).

Though they have not discussed on earthquake or natural hazard they have focused on crime, accidents, terrorist attack, strange culture, health hazard etc., which will be very useful to understand why do tourists seem to be worried visiting tourist vulnerable destinations? the answer found by Fischhoff et al. (2004; Larsen et al., 2009: 261) is “worry played an important role in peoples’ willingness to travel to various places in as much as worry predicted peoples’ trip cancellation choices. Worrying about travel related topics may come as a function of them being made salient in the individual’s minds. Consequently, tourist worry is to be viewed as a state as opposed to a personal disposition or a trait as measured in generalized worry. Tourist’s worries should therefore vary as a functional situations factor and depend on the individual expectations and experiences of such factors. Thus, Larsen et al. (2009: 261) define “Tourist Worry” as the individual’s attempts to engage in mental problem solving regarding tourist trip-related issues where outcomes are thought to be uncertain and contain possibilities for negative results.

Besides studying “tourist hesitation”, “tourist worry”, it is also important to cite “fuzzy theory” (Tsaur, Tzeng & Wang, 1997). “Not very clear”, “probably so”, “very

likely”, “rather dangerous”, these terms of expression can be heard very often in daily life, and their commonality is that they are more or less tainted with uncertainty. With different daily decision-making problems of diverse intensity, the results can be misleading if the fuzziness (uncertainty) of human decision making is not taken into account. However, since Zadeh, Tsaur et al. (1997: 801) put forward fuzzy set theory (1965), and Bellman and Zadeh (1970) describe the decision making method in fuzzy environments, and increasing number of studies have dealt with uncertain fuzzy problems by applying fuzzy set theory. With such an idea in mind, this study includes fuzzy decision making theory, considering the possible fuzzy decision making theory, considering the possible fuzzy subjective judgement of the evaluators during tourist risk evaluation (Tsaur et al., 1997: 801).

National Culture and Crisis Management

The notion of global tourism necessarily involves thinking about national cultures. Culture can be distinguished on the basis of cultural dimensions. Cultural differences are especially relevant to the tourism industry. The most widely utilized dimensions of culture are the five proposed by Hofstede (2001) and his colleagues from their instrument called the Values Survey Module (VSM). Previously, in a survey of IBME employees in 40 countries, Hofstede (1980) found that the United States exhibited cultural characteristics of low power distances, high individualism, high masculinity and low uncertainty avoidance, while residents of some Asian and Latin American countries exhibited characteristics of high power distances, high collectivism, and high uncertainty avoidance (Kim, 1998: 202). Briefly, describing (Chen and Pizam, 2006: 188; in Reisinger, 2009: 139; Clarke and Chen, 2007: 42-44; Campiranon & Scott, 2007; Schmidt & Barrell, 2007):

- Power distance refers to the degree to which cultures encourage or maintain power or status differences between interactants (i.e., hosts and guests).
- Masculinity- femininity- refers to the relevant emphasis on achievement and interpersonal harmony which characterizes gender distinction in some national cultures.
- Individualism- collectivism- has to do with whether one's identity is deemed by personal choices and achievement or by the character of the collective groups to which one is more or less permanently attached.
- Uncertainty avoidance- has to do with the degree to which societies and cultures develop ways to deal with the anxiety and stress of uncertainty. Uncertainty avoidance involves situation where the outcomes is uncertain.
- Confucian dynamism- long- verses short-term orientation in life.

Until recently the role of national cultural characteristics and cultural differences in determining tourist behavior, leadership pattern, decision making process, risk

taking, risk avoiding, hesitation, gender role had not been given much attention in hospitality and tourism research. There are some studies conducted by Pizam and colleagues from the UK (Pizam and Sussmann, 1995), Israel (Pizam and Reichel, 1996), Korea (Pizam and Jeong, 1996) and the Netherlands (Pizam et al., 1997), assessing the explanatory value of nationality in regards to tourist behavior. These studies showed that nationality influences tourist behavior and that there was a significant perceived difference between the tourist behaviors of the affected nationalities. Other researchers (eg. Groetzbach, 1988) have also noted from their own structured observations, marked differences between the behavior of Japanese, American, Western European and Arab tourists (Chen and Pizam, 2006: 189).

In times of crises, leaders must demonstrate strong interpersonal skills (King, 2002) by implanting the most effective plan of action, sticking with it and continually monitoring the organization's performance (Brennenman, 2000; in Campiranon & Scott, 2007: 150). Leadership is required to provide direction and guidance when dealing with incidents, and nomination of a spokesman responsible for communication with the media is desirable. The complexity of the subject requires a pro-active role and a high degree of coordination from all tourism officials in the public and private management or marketing activities (Cavlek, 2002; Pechlaner, Abfalder, Raich & Dreyar, 2007: 159).

Chandler (2005) adds that national culture and leadership also appear interrelated in management of crises and crises response process. It is evident that national culture has an indirect influence over both crises planning and crises response processes. By adopting Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimension to explain this phenomenon, it is evident that power distance is directly involved with leadership. In the high power distance culture, for example, authoritative leadership and close supervision leads to satisfaction, performance and productivity. On the other hand, consultative leadership is preferred in the low power distance. Additionally, Hofstede's masculinity versus femininity theory could also strengthen the influence of national culture, as a manager in a favorability culture are expected to use intuition, deal with feelings and seek consensus. On the other hand, managers in a masculinity culture are supposed to be decisive, firm, assertive, aggressive and competitive. Again, masculinity versus femininity reflects the relationship between national culture and a decision making process (Hofstede, 2001; in Campiranon & Scott, 2007: 148).

In high context societies, approaches to crises management are often characterized by an orientation towards "allowing things to happen", compared with the low context orientation towards "making things happen" (Adler, 2002, in Schmidt & Barrell, 2007: 77). Schmidt and Barrell (2007: 78) have concluded that a fuzzy logic classification of a crises and a heuristic guided response to a crises, the implementation of either approach faces barriers given the cultural architecture of some non-Western cultures (Schmidt and Barrell, 2007: 78).

Today, the principles and practices associated with determining the influences of national culture on human behavior are at a post theory stage (Schmidt & Berrell, 2007: 66). For example, while a Western country such as Australia is a low context society, a country such as Malaysia is a high context one. Differences in thinking by each cultural group about crisis management in global tourism can be considerable. The wider external environment influences the behavior of members of high context cultures, where the value of long-term relationships and dealing with insiders as well as specifics of a situation and implicit forms of knowledge all cast their influence. In contrast, behavior in low context cultures is motivated more by universal principles, short-term relationships, people external to the in-group and explicit forms of knowledge (Hall, 1976; Adler, 2002).

Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) also identify differences in people's basic orientation to interpersonal and environmental relationships, their modes of activity, and understanding of temporal matters. In addition, members of low and high context cultures think differently about causality, space and cosmology (Adler, 2002). Gert Hofstede (1994) also describes a framework that accounts for the influence of national culture on how people might react and respond to crisis in global tourism. The subtitle of this popular text, 'software of the mind', indicates the deep-seated nature of culture's influence and its capacity unconsciously to program behavior. In particular, his ideas that some cultures accept quite large differentials, in the distributions of power within organizations, that some groups have a low tolerance for others are status-bound in social interactions there help explain the responses of people to stressful situations in global tourism. (Schmidt & Berrell, 2007: 67).

Different individuals perceive travel risk differently and react to it differently (Reisinger and Mavondo, 2006a; in Park & Reisinger, 2007: 8-9). According to tourism literature, tourists' perception of natural disasters and travel risks differ depending on their familiarity with a destination (Millman and Pizam, 1995; Han, 2005) and national culture (Bonetempo et al., 1997; Seddighi et al., 2001; Reisinger and Mavondo, 2006a, 2006b). For example, significant differences in travel risk perception were found across various national cultures (Seddighi et al., 2001; Fuchs and Reichel 2004; Pizam et al., 2004; Reisinger and Mavondo, 2006a, 2006b). Bonetempo et al. (1997) found out that the risk perception of the Chinese significantly differs from that of Westerners. Tourists from low Uncertainty Avoidance (UA) cultures tend to perceive lower risks than tourists from high UA cultures (Hofstede and Hofstede, 2005). However, tourists from Singapore, China and Malaysia (low UA cultures) tend to be more sensitive to infectious disease, terrorist attack and natural disaster risk (Kozak et al., 2007). US, Australian and Hong Kong tourists (low UA) perceive higher travel risks than Greek and Canadian tourists (Reisinger and Mavondo, 2006a; in Park & Reisinger, 2007: 8-9).

In addition, tourists who travel alone (individualist) perceive higher risk than tourists who travel with family/friends (collectivists). The collectivistic cultural

orientation explains the risk perceptions in context of travel companionship. Weber and Hsee(1998) as cited by Park & Reisinger(2007) highlight that the focus on group activities acts as cushion against potential risk.

Female tourists perceive a greater influence of avalanches, landslides, tornadoes and tsunamis than male tourists and they also feel more uncomfortable about these disasters. Possibly female tourists believe they cannot quickly escape these disastrous events and thus their perceptions of natural disasters are stronger. Furthermore, female tourists perceive a greater influence of terrorism, natural disaster and physical risks than male tourists probably, because they feel they may not be able to easily escape the catastrophic events and might be physically injured. The result confirms most of the findings of the past research studies (Lepp and Gibson 2003; in Park & Reisinger, 2007: 19). However, it is inconsistent with the finding of Sonmez and Graefe (1998) who found no gender differences in travel risk perception.

Tourism Crisis Management

Crisis management has been a recognized concept since the 1962 Cuban missile crisis although it has been practiced for much longer (Sausmarez, 2009: 218). Basically when crises occur, the tourism destination country will make teams or tourism crises management unit that have been developed to deal with tourism crises and disaster. Again the team should comprise representatives from government travel and tourism industry professionals and community leaders or other stakeholders. Sonmez et al. (1999) suggest that any group can be divided into team to share task including: 1) a communications/ public relation team to represent the destination and provide accurate information; 2) a marketing promotional team to manage the recovery marketing process including any required re-imaging or branding activities; 3) an information coordination team to assess the damage done to help aid recovery; and, 4) a financial or fund raising team to estimate the cost of recovery and develop fund raising or lobbying government to fund the ongoing crises management activities (Ritchie, 2004: 678). Garg (n.d.:4) believes that the short term impact may remain for a period of 6 to 12 months. As time goes off, fear among people vanishes and normally turns back, bringing business on track.

Faulkner (2001) and Prideaux et al. (2003) emphasize the managerial responsibility for a crisis, while Pearson and Claire (1998) are more focused on the characteristics of the event (low probability and ambiguous). Pauchant and Douville (1993) note the novelty and urgency of decision making required in a crisis. Selbst (1978) discussed in Faulkner (2001), examined the internal and external effects of a crisis. From these perspectives, crisis management involves dealing with a novel and urgent problem which has serious and far-reaching implications (Campiranon. & Scott, 2007: 148). ... a major component of most disaster management planning is planning what do when disaster strikes.(Huan, 2007: 170-171).

Crisis management is clearly a task of destination management and an important tool to enhance destination competitiveness. Pechlaner et al. (2007) focuses on tourism development within destinations to be sustainable, not just economically or ecologically, but also socially, culturally and politically. The most competitive destination is one that most effectively creates sustainable well-being for its residents, safety and security being considered qualifying determinants (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003; in Pechlaner et al. 2007: 169).

The need for contingency plan for each organization in the tourism industry cannot be stressed enough. The plan would help the management think and prepare before a risk becomes a crisis. Specifically, according to Tse, (2006: 35-36), the contingency plan helps identify the following: signals of a crisis; stakeholders (customers, staff, supplier, media, victims, owners, etc.); crisis management team members and their contacts; meeting venue for the crisis management team; measure to prevent a crisis; measures to reduce the impact should a crisis happen; chain of command; spokesperson; need for making a public statement; communication channels with the stakeholders; training required; relief measures for the victims; additional financial and non- financial resources available; signals of an end of a crisis; and recovery measures.

Here, it is noteworthy to mention about the countermeasures against disasters in Japan as identified by Cooper & Erfurt (2007) which fall into the following categories: (1) research into the scientific and technical aspects of disaster prevention; (2) reinforcement of the disaster prevention system (facilities and equipment); (3) construction projects designed to enhance the country's ability to defend against disasters; (4) emergency measures and recovery operations ; (5) improvement of informal and communications systems.

The crisis management strategy of recovery is concerned with the restoration and rehabilitation of regional tourism and its return to full functioning. Business continuity starts with the responses to a crises: taking the earliest opportunity to identify and resolve problems which will disrupt regional tourism operations; to identify strategies and the resources required to restore normal functioning; and to secure the cooperation and assistance to government and community leaders for the crisis response and recovery process (Robertson et al., 2006: 63).

Crisis management plans are sometimes only developed in response to a particular disaster and development occurs with varying degrees of speed and efforts. Huan et al. (2004) found out in his research that after the 1989 earthquake, managers of San Francisco Convention and Visitors Bureau gathered to create a crisis management plan within 36 hours. Action plan elements included research, direct marketing, media interviews and releases, informational bulletins, creation of an informational hotline etc. In this case, infrastructures related directly to tourism had not been damaged, so an effective communication response was the focus. However, Loosemore (1998; in Schmitt & Berrell, 2007: 69) suggests that crises are unexpected events for which no contingency plans are readily available. Likewise, Temple (2003; in Schmidt & Berrell,

2007: 69) also highlights the impossibility of predicting all crises and subsequently points to the difficulty of having suitable contingency plans at hand for low probability events.

Richardson's (1994: 5-6; in Ritchie, 2004) analysis of crisis management in organization provides another perspective on community adjustment capabilities by distinguishing between "single and double loop" learning approaches. In the former, the responses to disasters involves a reorientation "more or less in keeping with traditional objectives and traditional roles". Alternatively the "double loop" learning approach challenges traditional beliefs about what society and management is and should do. This approach recognizes that management system places can themselves engender the ingredients of chaos and catastrophe and "organization must be prepared to manage through crises driven era. That is one sense, given to them but managers must also be more aware and proactively concerned about organization as the creator of crises"(Richardson, 1994: 6). Faulkner (2001) put forward a comprehensive tourism disaster contingency plan. The three prerequisites of effective tourism disaster management planning identified were: coordination, consultation and commitment (Tse,2006:29). Though the above mentioned crisis interpretation is self-sufficient in its own area, the interpretation of tourism crisis is still lacking.

Lepp and Gibson (2003; 607; Larsen, Brun & Øgaard, 2009: 260) identified that risk factors in tourism concern various hazards, including dangers such as those related to for example political instability of the area visited, terrorism, strange food, cultural barriers and crime. While these hazards may give rise to people's judgment of various destinations as risky, tourists do not necessarily worry about these risks. Worry is therefore not identical to risk perception, Risk is the probability of certain adverse events times the magnitude of their consequences where as subjective risk in the intuitive individual perceptions of these factors (Bruss, 1994). Worry on the other hand may be understood as negative effect and relatively uncontrollable chains of thoughts as a function of uncertainty concerning possible future events. Although worry is related to anxiety and depression, predominantly a cognitive activity involving what Borcovic and Inz(1990) label verbal linguistic thinking. As a matter of fact, Borcovic(1994) maintains that a fundamental characteristics of worry is that it is a type of thinking related to the future and to future's uncertain outcomes.

Conclusion

Toursim is primarily concerned with safety, security and surety. There is no doubt that the tourism industry is one of the most vulnerable industries to crisis. A crisis is not an event. It is a process that develops in its own logic. It has been argued that crises are becoming more frequent and complex and that tourism destination as well as businesses should be better prepared to deal with this phenomenon (Santana, 2009: 318). Crisis by definition unpredictable and the future is unknown, although many causes of crisis will undoubtedly persist and types of crisis will repeat themselves. Extreme economic volatility, violent social upheaval, disease, political dislocation, terrorist

atrocities, tropical storms, earthquakes and environmental pollution are present or constantly threatened in several parts of the world and can precipitate tourism crises. Crisis prevention, management and recovery therefore necessitate a team effort among and between the public and private sectors. Case histories yield valuable lessons and can be a foundation for theories explaining the evolution of tourism crisis which permit insightful comparisons across companies, destinations and industries. Tourism businesses in the developing world are sometimes uninsured or underinsured by choice because of lack of funds or awareness and this can add to the impact of crises and impede recovery (Henderson, 2007: 172). Disaster management has its own academic literature within the tourism industry has drawn from and is relevant in the worst of tourism crises when physical infrastructure and people are harmed by disasters events caused by nature and humans. Marketing in the short, medium and longer term is allocated space in crisis management plans and is another core tool in recovery efforts (Henderson, 2007: 165). The spate of tourism crisis in the past decade and prediction of more tourism academics alongside practitioners. Indeed it appears to be emerging as a distinct stream or subfield in the tourism literature (Henderson, 2007: 11).

Usually the tourist destinations will do marketing for inviting the tourists in order to increase the number of tourists after the disaster by providing cheap air fare, hotel discount and other facilities. Accordingly, some cheap tourists gradually start visiting the destinations who will be one of the most important sources for promoting tourist destination. This has been reflected by a case study of Tsunami (sea quake), which occurred in 2004 in Phuket of Bangkok among many others. It is mentioned that:

'In the US travel trade, the term 'Teflon tourist' has emerged (Kurosawa, 2005; in Prideaux and Laws, 2007: 376) to describe travelers who are prepared to take advantage of the low rates offered by destinations following disasters. One example of this trend is tourists who took advantage of cheap flights to Phuket immediately after the 2004 Tsunami. Even while recovery of persons killed in the tsunami was taking place, Teflon tourists, also referred to as 'vulture tourists' by Kurosawa (2005) were arriving at the destination and recording interviews of their trip with television journalists.'

Nepal has been suggested to follow the model of tourism crises management plan for restoring tourism from Turkey and Taiwan (Beirman, 2003; Wilks & More, 2004: 30; Huang & Min, 2004; Huan, Beaman & Shelby, 2004; Tsai & Chen, 2010) where a disastrous earthquake not only damaged the physical settings but also it badly affected on tourism in 1999. Turkey, within a month of the earthquake, Turkish tourism authorities began the task of restoring the market. Turkey went very tactical in the restoration task where the Turkish Ministry of Tourism provided strong moral and financial support (see in detail 2015; Beirman, 2003; Kunwar, 2015; Kunwar & Limbu).

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my sincere thanks to Usha Chand, a very serious student of M.A in Conflict, Peace and Development studies, Tribhuvan University who made a lot of efforts to edit this article. Likewise, my thanks go to Drishti Bhattarai and Richa Rana who provided frequent help in course of writing this paper. The similar thanks go to Suman K.C and Sudip Thapa of Gateway College of Professional Studies and Reshma Shrestha of IST College who without any hesitation helped me to type this material.

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Disaster Management and Post-quake Impact on Tourism in Nepal

Him Lal Ghimire*

Abstract

Tourism, a large and unique collection of industry sectors is an expanding worldwide phenomenon. By the next century, tourism will be the single largest industry in the world with special needs in disaster planning and recovery. Tourism is a vulnerable sector that has been experiencing major crises from disasters. No tourist destination is immune to such crisis. Nepal is one of the world's 20 most disaster-prone countries where earthquakes are unique challenges for tourism. Nepal has to be very optimistic about the future of tourism as it has huge potentials to be the top class tourist destinations. Nepal should target the global tourism market and take serious efforts to convince foreigners to visit Nepal and revive immediately. The Nepali tourism industry requires a strategy that will help manage crises and rapidly implement recovery strategies.

Keywords: *Vulnerable, disasters, challenges, strategies, mitigation.*

Context

Tourism is an expanding worldwide phenomenon, and has been observed that by the next century, tourism will be the single largest industry in the world. Today, tourism is also the subject of great media attention (Ghimire, 2014: 98). It has been experiencing major crises from disasters such as earthquakes, storm, tsunami, terrorist attacks, political instability, and economic recession. No tourist destination is immune to such crisis. The tourism business around the globe is one of the most susceptible and vulnerable sectors. In Nepal, thousands of tourists, tourism entrepreneurs and tourism products were affected and damaged or destroyed by the 7.8 earthquake on April 25, 2015. Earthquakes occur with no warning and is unpredictable. Mostly, tourists plan their trips in advance and travel a long distance from their home. That is why, tourism activities cannot be closed in advance, nor can tourists be evacuated easily in case of emergency (Ghimire, 2015).

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Nepal is one of the world's 20 most disaster-prone countries. Due to its location on the Alpide belt (Alpine-Himalayan), the country is highly susceptible to damage from a wide range of natural disasters including floods, landslides, and earthquakes. Contributing to the high risks are factors such as a lack of synchronization amongst government agencies, poor infrastructure, lack of public awareness, and rampant poverty, challenges that Nepal must face in improving its disaster preparedness (NDMRH, 2015: 26). The two mega quakes and their large families of aftershocks that are still showing their presence around have been great teachers for the Nepalese people. What is required, though, is deep insight, a strong motivation to learn and dedication to implement what is decided at the central level of disaster management. In fact, this was an opportunity for the government of Nepal, leadership and local bodies to test their capacity to handle the crises of this magnitude. But managing things has not been smooth. Managing a disaster of any scale or managing everything in a proper, systematic and agreeable way has been a challenge for a country like Nepal.

Tourism is a large and unique collection of industry sectors with special needs in disaster planning and recovery. Tourism is especially vulnerable to disasters and, being fragmented, often its response is difficult to initiate and coordinate (Mistilis & Sheldon, 2005). This paper attempts to explain disaster management techniques and present the modules for disasters management. It also highlights the impacts of devastating earthquakes and suggests the frameworks and guidelines to revive tourism in Nepal.

Importance of Tourism

Tourism is one of the driving forces of economic development in industrialized, less-developed and developing countries. TRM (2006) writes that travel and tourism industry contributes substantially to:

- strong economic growth,
- creation of skilled and semi-skilled jobs,
- greater export returns,
- foreign investments and currencies, and
- economic well-being and social stability.

Tourism plays a vital role in world business. Travel and tourism is one of the world's largest industries and generators of jobs. The tourism industry provides a wide range of employment opportunities, especially for women and young people, helping to break the vicious cycle of poverty by enhancing human capital and creating new prospects for future generations. The jobs are spread across a wide range of industries and comprise a broad range of remuneration levels. The development of small and medium size enterprises creates work for unskilled and skilled workers in existing centers and rural areas. Visitors' expenditure in a destination flows directly to industries

that serve visitors and indirectly to the many other businesses that supply goods and services to these tourism businesses. In this way, the benefits from visitors' expenditure flow right through local, regional, state/provincial and national economies and throughout communities (TRM, 2006). With global climate change, rapid economic development and accelerated urbanization, the pressures from resources, environment and ecology have been intensified on most countries in the world. In recent years, frequent world-wide natural disasters have brought about huge devastation to human society, life and property (Ying, 2011: 1). Many sectors of tourism, such as visitor arrivals, employment, private sector profits, and government revenues and eventually further investment, can be impacted negatively when a disaster occurs in a tourism destination (Huang et al., 2008; in Ying, 2011: 2). Therefore, a promising sunrise industry that inevitably has to grow with disasters if it is to succeed has been attracting increasing scrutiny about its crisis management from the academic perspective. For many years scholars and experts have been constructing generic models of tourism crisis and disaster management, specifically since "models suggest that a strategic management and planning approach to crisis and disaster management can be beneficial for tourism planners and managers" (Ritchie, 2004; in Ying, 2011: 2).

Earthquakes are unique challenges for tourism, especially for a country like Nepal. Earthquakes occur with no warning and is unpredictable. Mostly, tourists plan their trips in advance and travel a long distance from their home. That is why, tourism activities cannot be closed in advance, nor evacuated tourists easily in case of emergency. The tourism business around the globe which is one of the most susceptible and vulnerable sectors has been experiencing major crises from disasters such as earthquakes, storm, tsunami, terrorist attacks, political instability, and economic recession. Generally, disasters are large non-controllable problems that evaluate the capability of nations and communities to effectively protect the population and its ability to recover after the disasters. No tourist destination is immune to such crisis. Tourism is an expanding worldwide phenomenon, and it has been observed that by the next century, tourism will be the single largest industry in the world. Today, tourism is also the subject of great media attention.

Tourism involves elements of uncertainty and unpredictability that have always been in a way, part of its attraction. Distance travelling has always involved risks, but the difference now is that those risks are progressively more evident (Moreira, 2007; in Kunwar and Limbu, 2015 p.16). Despite the huge importance and potentials of tourism industry, it has been highly affected by the natural disasters, national and international incidents, quality of services, security and many more. If it is managed properly, millions of opportunities are created and can cope with the risks, crisis and challenges. An interesting explanation could be noticed that two characters "wei ji" in the following figure has been widely adopted to illustrate the word "crisis" in China. The combination of these two characters form the meaning of crisis, Chinese language,

however, “wei” stands for “threat” while “ji” refers to “opportunity”. This Chinese word is well in accordance with the view that a crisis can be regarded as a turning point for changing an existing system. The results might lead to change for the individuals, organizations or even for whole countries. How to mitigate the negative losses coming from the “threat” while taking advantage of the “opportunity” has been paid much attention from academics and practitioners (Ying, 2011: 20).

Figure 1: Threat and Opportunity in Two Chinese Characters



Source: ISDR 2004; in Ying, 2011: 20.

Crises and disasters are related but different events. Disasters or catastrophes imply a clearly unpredictable event that can normally responded to after the event (Glaesser, 2003; in Kunwar 2015). Crisis have been described as the possible but unexpected result of management failures that are concerned with future course of events set in motion by human action or inaction precipitating the event (Prideaux et al., 2003; in Kunwar, 2015).

Vulnerability

One of the important factor that contributes to disaster risks is vulnerability, which is the susceptibility of people, properties and livelihoods to the damaging effects of the hazard. Historical damage and loss data provides insights on the vulnerability of people and assets in Nepal. A large proportion of destructive disasters in Nepal are small-scale disasters, averaging more than 90% of all disasters, which cause more death; affects more people; destroy more houses; and cause more economic damages, as compared to large but infrequent disasters. This shows that there is very high vulnerability of both people and assets in Nepal. The Pacific Disasters Center ranks Nepal as 37 out of 172 countries in its disaster vulnerability index (UNISDR (2015).

Risk

UNEP (2008) writes that risk is most commonly held to mean something to be avoided; in everyday usage, risk is associated with the probability of a loss. In the framework of "disaster risk management" risk is defined as "the probability of harmful consequences, or expected losses (deaths, injuries, property, livelihoods, economic activity disrupted or environment damaged) resulting from interactions between

natural or human-induced hazards and vulnerable conditions". Risk may also be computed as the product of a disaster's probability multiplied by the vulnerability and divided by the capacity to adequately respond.

$$\text{Risk} = \frac{(\text{Probability of a disaster} \times \text{Vulnerability})}{\text{Capacity}}$$

The equation shows that larger the capacity to respond the lower would be the risk. Therefore two main and complimentary approaches to reducing risk are:

- Decreasing vulnerability
- Increasing capacity

Based on the above, it is generally agreed that the impacts of disasters can be substantially reduced if vulnerable communities are fully informed about possible hazards and have participated in the formulation of risk and crisis management plans – that is their capacity to respond is greater.

Disasters

Oxford dictionary defines disaster as a sudden accident or a natural catastrophe that causes great damage or loss of life. IFRC (2015) writes "disaster is a sudden, calamitous event that seriously disrupts the functioning of a community or society and causes human, material, and economic or environmental losses that exceed the community's or society's ability to cope using its own resources. Though often caused by nature, disasters can have human origins". Disasters can take many different forms, and the duration can range from an hourly disruption to days or weeks of ongoing destruction. A disaster occurs when a hazard impacts on vulnerable people.

$$\text{Disaster} = \frac{(\text{Hazard} + \text{Vulnerability})}{\text{Capacity}}$$

The combination of hazards, vulnerability and inability to reduce the potential negative consequences of risk results in disaster (ibid, 2015). It is acknowledged that due to population growth, increased urbanization, greater use and dependence on technology and globalization, disasters are becoming more frequent and geographically diverse (Pelling, 2003; in Biran et al.; 2014)

Types of Disasters

Natural disasters are out of human control. Hurricanes and tropical storms are among the most powerful natural disasters. Tornadoes are relatively brief but violent. Both earthquakes and tornadoes strike suddenly without warning. Flooding is the most common of natural hazards, and requires an understanding of the natural systems of our environment, including floodplains and the frequency of flooding events. Disasters are also caused by human activities. Hazardous materials emergencies include

chemical spills and groundwater contamination. Workplace fires are more common and can cause significant property damage and loss of life. Cyber-terrorism involves attacks against computers and networks done to intimidate or coerce a government or its people for political or social objectives. Man-made disaster becomes sometimes more harmful than the natural disaster for a country like Nepal. Below is a list of the various types of disasters – both natural and man-made or technological in nature – that can impact a community.

Table 1: Types of disasters

	Natural	Man-Made and Technological
Geophysical	Earthquakes	Nuclear power plant and nuclear blast
	Landslides and debris flow	Radiological emergencies
	Tsunamis	Chemical threat and biological weapons
	Volcanic activity	Cyber attacks
Hydrological	Avalanches	Explosion
	Floods and flash floods	Civil unrest/war
	Hailand ice storms	Terrorism
Climatological	Extreme temperatures	Criminal activities
	Drought and water shortage	General strikes and blockages
	Wildfires	Industrial accidents
Meteorological	Cyclones	Transport accidents
	Storms/wave surges and lightning	Displaced populations
Biological	Disease epidemics	Emergencies/conflicts
	Insect/animal plagues	IT /Telecommunication System failure

Source: IFRC, 2015 and internet search

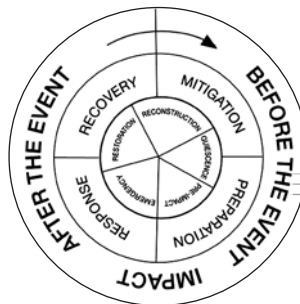
Nepal has been suffering with political instability and conflicts for more than 20 years. Lastly, strikes, blockades and protests against Nepal's new constitution have cost the economy more than \$1 billion – just months after the country was struck by a series of devastating earthquakes. The crisis as the country's worst economic disaster. The economy has been completely stalled for the past couple of months and the impact is worse than the earthquake. Things have become unbearable for the tourists and negatively affecting the tourism in Nepal because of blockage in Nepal India boarder and fuel crisis. Two of the most important historic sites, the Chitwan National Park

and the Lumbini – the place where Buddha was born – have become red zones. Taxi fares have gone up almost 1000%, and restaurants are no longer operating due to the lack of gas. Some hotels report only 10% occupancy rate in contrast with the 90% rate expected during this time of the year. Since tourism in Nepal is an important source of income for the government, the current crisis only worsens the dire economic situation of the country (Tourism review, 2015).

The Disaster Management Cycle

A disaster involves hazards which can be detrimental to human life and property e.g. floods, earthquakes, tsunamis, high winds, intense rainfall or drought. These hazards can affect the entire community or selective areas, such as the coastline or floodplain, as part of one or more natural events. The impacts are potentially disastrous when the capacity of the responders is severely tested or exceeded, as in a catastrophic event. The disaster management cycle, also referred to as the emergency management cycle, involves 4 phases such as Prevention, Preparedness, Response and Recovery (UNEP (2008: 29).

Figure 2: The Disaster Cycle



Source: “Principles of Emergency Planning & Management” by D. Alexander (Harpenden: Terra Publishing, 2002); in UNEP, 2008: 29).

The “prevention” phase includes mitigation and risk reduction associated with new construction, planning and redesign of infrastructure, processes and activities for climate-proofing tourism destination and increasing resilience against disasters. In fact, these prevention activities should be considered earlier on in the design, construction, and refurbishment phases of tourism infrastructure development. The “preparedness” or pre-impact phase includes all tasks and activities that build the capacity of the community for an effective and organized response. The “response” phase constitutes all actions geared towards stabilization, containment or control of crisis or emergency conditions. The “recovery” phase refers to a reinstatement of normal or near normal conditions following a disaster event and includes repair,

restoration or reconstruction of damaged or destroyed homes, facilities and infrastructure. Traditionally, the term 'emergency response' has been used in a reactive sense to describe a community's typical response after a disaster has struck. This approach has largely been replaced by the more proactive practice of 'managing' disasters. 'Disaster management' is a continuum of all the phases mentioned above. This continuum is especially relevant for prevention in that it can occur in all phases of the disaster management cycle. Disaster management defines an approach that seeks to understand the full range of impacts, identifies the risks to people, their livelihoods and property. Further, it develops preparedness and response measures to reduce exposure, improve capacity and hence to limit the likelihood of a future disaster or its impacts (UNEP, 2008: 30).

Taken together, these elements are not static, but revolve around a continuous cycle of activity and interlocation among the responsible and collaborating agencies, united by a common objective to reduce the probability for disaster occurrence. In order for the responsible agency to prepare and respond effectively, there needs to be an analysis of the key disaster risks that threaten the destination. UNEP (2008) has highlighted five basic sequential tasks to be undertaken for disaster management:

- Identifying hazard risks: analyzing hazards resulting from a natural or man-made event, along with an understanding of the full range of probable effects and consequences.
- Assessing a community's vulnerability to the risk: a community's vulnerability may be measured in terms of its size, geographic location, economic status, level of organization, and available resources; infrastructure, and response capability, among other factors. Its vulnerability will therefore depend upon the level of exposure and its capacity to adapt, respond to or recover from the hazard.
- Developing a preparedness and mitigation plan: a plan to address any institutional or systemic weaknesses, which could limit the destination or community's ability to mitigate disaster risks.
- Implementing the plan: implementation may be simulated to ensure that the plan is workable during real disaster conditions. It is also important to document the lessons learned from the exercises in order to assemble a databank of learning, experience and information.
- Monitoring, evaluating, revising and updating the plan: the information assembled provides essential learning for revising and updating the plan, correcting any areas of weakness or ineffectiveness, reallocating resources for greater efficiency and improving community resilience overall.

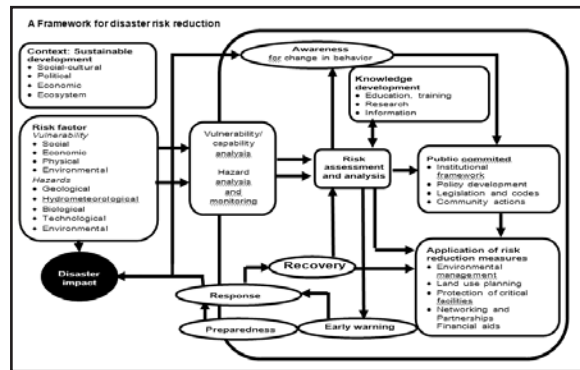
Organizing the disaster management capability at tourism destinations is principally the responsibility of national and local governments. However, disaster management

policies and responsibilities are often enshrined in national laws. These provide the overarching legislative framework through which states and local governments receive the authority to implement their response strategies (ibid, 2008: 31).

Disaster Risk Reduction Framework

Faulkner (2001) developed a comprehensive framework to describe stages of community response and a generic framework for tourism disaster strategies. He gave a framework with five phases in disaster process, which are pre-event, prodromal (disaster imminent), emergency, intermediate and long-term recovery. Each is linked to elements of the disaster management response (precursors, mobilization, action, recovery, reconstruction, reassessment and review) and to principal ingredients of the disaster management strategies (risk assessment and disaster contingency plans). The elements of Faulkner’s framework that immediately relate to knowledge management are risk assessment, prioritization protocols, community capability audit, disaster management command center, media and monitoring activities, warning systems, flexibility and involvement education and review.

Figure 3: A Framework For Disaster Risk Reduction



Source: UNEP, 2008: 43.

The above figure graphically presents the typical network of inter-related activities required for disaster risk reduction. The main message of it is working to achieve destination resilience requires an understanding of and a commitment to systematically undertaking the major work items in this diagram (UNEP, 2008: 42).

Tourism and Risk Management

TRM (2006) points out two fundamental roles for tourism in risk management: the first of these is as a partner with government and community agencies in the development of multi-agency, coordinated disaster management plans, systems, procedures and processes which include the needs of tourism; the second is to develop

plans and procedures appropriate to a destination and to the specific roles and responsibilities of an organization, to train personnel to those plans, and to conduct regular tests of plans, procedures and personnel with subsequent amendment and updating. No organization involved in disaster management should work in isolation. Each tourism operator and organization is part of the disaster management community and should function within the established, coordinated and integrated system. The development of effective plans and procedures in the disaster management context is dependent upon:

- regular inter-agency meetings, networking and liaison;
- implementation of a disaster risk management process;
- development of plans and procedures;
- establishment and nurturing of partnerships;
- community consultation;
- effective communication;
- training of personnel;
- testing of plans, procedures and personnel through exercises (simulated disaster activities); and
- efficient review and amendment procedures.

TRM (2006) further writes that the disaster management system in each country will have allocated roles and responsibilities for the management of disasters. It is not the responsibility of the tourism industry to assign these responsibilities or to allocate tasks to disaster management agencies. Rather, they should work within the established framework to add value to the overall outcomes. Different sections of the tourism industry will have different responsibilities in disaster management, and will need to liaise at different levels of the disaster management system. National or state/provincial-level tourism authorities should participate through membership of appropriate committees, in national and state/provincial-level disaster risk management processes, contributing to the development of policy and strategic planning processes. An individual tourism operator should contribute, again through appropriate committees, to local-level disaster management processes, including the development of response and recovery plans for the community, and plans and procedures for tourism facilities. At all levels, disaster management is a multi-agency system. The second fundamental role for tourism in risk management is to be proactive and develop strategies for a destination or an individual business/organization to maximize the potential for continuity of normal business and to protect the safety and security of visitors and staff in the event of a disaster or crisis. The development and implementation of tourism risk management strategies which comprehensively address potential risks to tourism are now becoming an integral part of managing tourism in destinations.

These tourism risk management strategies should link to community disaster management plans and include actions which tourism operators and organizations can take to complement the work of community disaster management agencies.

Risk management plans for tourism should provide, as appropriate and as a minimum, for:

- the safety of visitors and employees;
- secure systems to communicate with all persons within the facility and within the destination;
- security of buildings, facilities and equipment from the effects of the disaster;
- contributing trained liaison personnel to the disaster management agencies during response and recovery operations, as required;
- supplying resources to support response and recovery operations; and
- procedures for return to normal business activities upon termination of the disaster operations.

Natural Disasters in Nepal

Natural disasters are common in Nepal. The damage and negative impacts of April 25, 2015 devastating earthquakes and its aftershocks are significantly large in the history of Nepal. The casualties were over 8,790 and 22,300 people were injured. It is estimated that lives of eight million people (almost one-third of the population of Nepal), have been impacted by these earthquakes. Thirty-one of the country's 75 districts have been affected, out of which 14 were declared 'crisis-hit' for prioritizing rescue and relief operations; another 17 neighbouring districts were partially affected (NPC, 2015: 11). In 2014, Nepal faced landslide creating blockage in Sunkoshi River (killed 156, injured 27 and displaced 436 people), avalanches in Mt. Everest (killed 25 men mostly Sherpa) and blizzards and avalanches in Annapurna circuit (killed 29) that hampered largely in Nepalese tourism industry. Among all of the other challenges in the development of tourism in Nepal, the natural disasters are the major challenges to be faced (Kunwar, 2015: 24).

The humanitarian challenge became immediately apparent as millions of people whose houses were either destroyed and those who were fearful of imminent aftershocks started camping out in the open. This put a tremendous demand on the government and philanthropic associations for materials to erect makeshift shelters and to supply essentials. More than a month after the disaster, tens of thousands of people are still reported to be living either in temporary or transitional shelters in spaces presumed to be safe from landslide and rain. The distribution of relief materials proved challenging because of the remoteness of many villages, rugged terrain, threat of landslides, and logistical difficulties (NPC, 2015: 13).

Table 2: Summary of Disaster Effects

	Disaster Effects (NPR Million)			Distribution of Disaster Effects (NPR million)		Losses in personal income (NPR million)
	Damages	Losses	Total	Private	Public	
Social Sectors	355,028	53,597	408,625	363,248	45,377	-
Housing and Human Settlements	303,632	46,908	350,540	390,540	-	-
Health	6,422	1,122	7,544	1,394	6,190	-
Education	28,064	3,254	31,318	2,365	28,953	-
Cultural Heritage	16,910	2,313	19,223	8,948	10,274	-
Productive Sectors	58,074	120,046	178,121	158,079	20,043	17,124
Agriculture	16,405	11,962	28,366	25,813	2,553	4,603
Irrigation	383		383	-	383	
Commerce	9,015	7,938	16,953	16,953	-	2,667
Industry	8,394	10,877	19,273	19,271	-	3,654
Tourism	18,863	62,379	81,242	75,106	6,137	6,200
Finance	5,015	26,890	31,905	20,937	10,969	-
Infrastructure Sectors	52,460	14,323	66,783	17,281	49,502	
Electricity	17,807	3,435	21,242	15,569	5,673	-
Communications	3,610	5,085	8,695	1,712	6,983	
Community Infrastructure	3,349	-	3,349	-	3,349	-
Transport	17,188	4,930	22,118	-	22,118	
Water and Sanitation	10,506	873	11,379	-	11,379	-
Cross-Cutting issues	51,872	1,061	52,933	1,755	51,178	-
Governance	18,757	-	18,757	-	18,757	-
Disaster Risk Reduction	155	-	155	-	155	-
Environment and forestry	32,960	1,061	34,021	1,755	32,267	-
Total	517,434	189,027	706,461	540,362	166,100	17,124
Total {US\$ million}	\$5,174	\$1,890	\$7,065	\$5,404	\$1,661	\$171

Source: (NPC, 2015).

Devastating Earthquake's Impacts on Tourism

Nepal's tourism sector has suffered losses worth Rs 44 billion in the aftermath of the devastating earthquake and its aftershocks. These disasters have heavily damaged the infrastructure of tourism in Nepal, affecting not only the mountaineering, trekking and tour businesses, but also, many cultural heritage sites, shrines, pagodas, temples and archaeological sites—properties over hundreds of years old (Ghimire, 2015). The earthquake affected about 2,900 structures with a cultural and religious heritage value. Major monuments in Kathmandu's seven World Heritage Monument Zones were severely damaged and many collapsed completely. In addition, in more than 20 districts, thousands of private residences built on traditional lines, historic public buildings as well as ancient and recently built temples and monasteries were affected by the earthquakes, 25 percent of which were destroyed completely. The total estimated damages to tangible heritage amounts to NPR 16.9 billion (US\$ 169 million) (NPC, 2015).

Table 3: Summary of Damage and Losses

Subsector	Disaster Effects (NPR Million)			Share of Disaster Effects	
	Damages	Losses	Total	Private/Community*	Public
Heritages sites in 16 districts	7,875	1,409	9,284	-	9,284
Monasteries & historic structures (older than 100 years)	5,300	530	5,830	5,830	-
Monasteries & historic structures (less than 100 years)	2,835	283	3,118	3,118	-
Temples in remote areas	900	90	990		990
Total	16,910	2,313	19,223	8,948	10,274
*Almost all the monasteries are under community ownership and management					

Source: (NPC, 2015).

The overall impact of the earthquake on the tourism sector goes beyond the 14 affected districts, which have suffered significant physical damage to well-known tourist destinations like Chitwan and Pokhara in terms of a sharp fall in the number of tourists. The negative repercussions of the disaster are likely to translate into a reduced number of tourist arrivals over the next few years, reduction in tourist spending per day from US\$43 to US\$35 (as per industry sources), which will significantly affect revenues. Other nations that have experienced similar disasters have generally taken several years to recover fully with regard to tourist arrivals. It is estimated that the overall impact of the earthquakes on the Nepali tourism industry will be a reduction

of about 40 percent on average over the next 12 months, and a 20 percent reduction in the next 12 to 24 months (NPC, 2015).

Table 4: Summary of Damages and Losses

Subsector	Disaster Effects (NPR Million)			Share of Disaster Effects	
	Damages	Losses	Total	Private	Public
Hotels and others	16,295	-	16,295	16,295	-
Homestays	1,720	495	1,720	1,720	-
Eco-lodges	415	-	415	415	-
Trekking trails	426	5,711	6,137	-	6,137
Tour operators	7	4,924	6,137	-	-
Tourism revenues	-	47,013	47,013	47,013	-
Air transport revenues	-	4,720	4,720	4,720	-
Restaurant revenues	-	11	11	11	-
Total	18,863	62,379	81,242	75,105	6,137
Losses under homestays are included under the housing sector and not included in the total					

Source: NPC, 2015

Public Outreach and Education

The public should always be kept informed and educated as progress is made in the formulation and implementation of disaster management plan. Usually, disaster management planners underestimate the importance of public education and outreach. Tourism communities have multiple interests who also need to be educated about plan objectives and requirements. It is especially important to educate the stakeholders and their members regarding the integrated plan. Educating communities about the disaster preparedness plan is distinct from the internal communication procedures and requirements needed between agencies (horizontally) and within the disaster management hierarchy (vertically) (UNEP, 2008: 81).

A public outreach and education program for the disaster preparedness plan should consider the following points:

- **Develop a Public Outreach Objective and Strategy:** This should be a clearly enunciated policy and strategy informed by a specific goal and objective aligned with the overall community-based disaster management strategy. The purpose is to ensure that the outreach efforts are effective and can be digested and transformed into concerted action by the community for all phases of the disaster management cycle.

- o Hotel and resort owners, managers and workers;
- o Cruise ship, terminal and pleasure craft operators and workers;
- o Industry contract carriage and other operators e.g. tours, attractions, transportation (air, sea, land), diving, entertainment, food and beverage etc.;
- o Tourists;
- o Tourism industry associations;
- o Local population;
- o Adjacent and residential communities including schools;
- o Hospitals, emergency rooms/triage and other primary care facilities.

Each target group may require differently structured information and messages. Be alert to their particular communication needs in order to focus the outreach exercise. For example, ensure where necessary that the messages are multi-lingual for the spectrum of visitors at the destination. Use also an appropriate combination of signage and pictures for the messages to be conveyed to the illiterate or to those who do not speak the native language (UNEP, 2008: 81).

The earthquake is likely to have inflicted profound impact on the wider economy and mountain livelihoods unless a number of mitigating initiatives are pursued. These efforts need to target the global tourism market and convince potential visitors to come to Nepal, which will help affected tourism entrepreneurs in rural and urban areas (NPC, 2015).

The recovery strategy of NPC has four distinct phases:

- Identify and assess unaffected and safe tourist destinations.
- Create a 'safe trekking system' for mountain tourism in Nepal.
- Rebuild and redevelop damaged areas and enterprises following improved guidelines and regulations of the 'safe trekking system'.
- Identify and develop new tourist products and services. Some of these phases can be sequential or run in parallel depending on the needs.

Way Forward: Back to Normal

Tharoor (2015) writes that the natural disaster, as many have noted, did not come out of nowhere. For decades, there have been studies showing how prone Nepal is to such temblors, but little was done to prepare for a quake of this magnitude. Experts point to the country's endemic poverty as a reason for its particular vulnerability. The vast international relief mission that has whirred into motion has reinforced the image of a seemingly helpless Nepali state, dependent on outside aid. In the minds of many

outsiders, Nepal remains a romantic Himalayan destination. Kathmandu, famed for its ancient palaces, is just a gateway to trekking adventures in the shadow of Mount Everest or some of the country's other epic ranges. But this picture-perfect postcard obscures the sweeping, traumatic changes that have racked the country over the past two decades. But the past decade has also seen Nepal lurch from one crisis to the next, the national interest held hostage to the quarrels of feuding political parties. Years of political turbulence have left the Nepali economy in the doldrums, and the Nepali state woefully unable to cope with a tragedy of this size in a country where the infrastructure — from a lack of airports to a shortage of paved roads — is notoriously poor. After a decade of conflict between the government and Maoist insurgents, Nepal's politicians have been too busy battling one another, most recently over constitutional reform, to treat disaster preparedness as a priority. There have been no elections at the district, village or municipal level for almost two decades, and the committees that run local councils aren't organized to coordinate emergency assistance. To be sure, Nepal's political dysfunction is not just the product of incompetent, shortsighted elites.

Despite devastating earthquakes, Nepal is as beautiful as before and its people are just as welcoming. Compare to tourism potential and attractions, damage and loss in tourism sector by the devastating earthquakes was not as massive as it came in media. Even after the earthquakes, most of the tourist trekking routes are safe and fine, except Langtang and Manaslu. Annapurna circuit, one of the best trekking routes in the world (catering 60% trekkers), Khumbu (catering 20% trekkers) of Nepal and other trekking routes in eastern and western parts of Nepal have no problem for tourists and are open. Almost 95 percent of all hotels in Nepal are safe and in operation. The internet, telephones and ATM machines are also in operation. There is no danger of any other type of natural calamity or any issues regarding communicable diseases. All hospitals, nursing homes and clinics are well-equipped. All highways are fine. The condition of major tourist destinations, including Pokhara, Lumbini, Palpa, Chitwan, Bardiya, Dolpo, Janakpur and Suklaphanta are safe well-facilitated for tourists. Nepal has world's top class pilgrimage destinations such as Lumbini, the birthplace of the Buddha, Pashupatinath, Muktinath, Manakamana and many more. Nepal has many places with touristic values and rich cultural traditions. There are some must-visit places so that tourists could understand the Himalaya culture and history in depth. It is the high time to explore Nepal and visit virgin destinations of Nepal (Ghimire 2015).

The Nepali tourism industry requires a strategy that will help manage crises and rapidly implement recovery strategies. After the earthquake, several countries warned their citizens not to visit Nepal unless they were involved in rescue and relief. Nepal could have turned this warning into an opportunity by inviting distinguished guests and goodwill ambassadors such as the UN Secretary General, Hollywood and Bollywood

stars, sport stars, singers, writers from different countries and diplomatic missions. It could send a strong message to the world, stating that Nepal is open for travel. Nepali embassies and diplomatic missions abroad have been criticized for their inability to lobby with international communities and branding of Nepal. Nepali ambassadors in different countries should play a proactive role to win back the trust of international community towards visiting Nepal. The Tourism Ministry and the Nepal Tourism Board are failed to coordinate and organize various promotional programs including talks, slide shows, conference presentations, and public relation activities to revive tourism after the earthquakes in Nepal.

Natural disasters can have a devastating effect on tourism. The impact appears bigger than it is. As people from outside do not know the geography, they become confused over the extent of the disaster and the areas affected. Visits to death related sites are not a new phenomenon and people have long been attracted to places or events linked with death and disaster (Biran et al., 2014: 4). Walters' research shows that there has been a significant increase in the number and intensity of natural disasters in recent years. We have seen the Black Saturday bushfires, the earthquakes in Christchurch and Japan, the floods in Queensland and New Orleans, and the Thai tsunami to name but a few. When disaster hits, the media sensationalise what is happening which draws people's attention to a destination for all the wrong reasons. With events like these becoming more prevalent, we are likely to see more destinations affected. We need to learn lessons from the past to help such locations to restore their tourist trade and rebuild their economy. Whatever the cause of the crisis, Walters' research has shown that there are a number of common steps which destinations can take to limit the damage and project a more positive image (Momentum, 2014):

- **Manage the media:** Help journalists to understand the damage that sensationalist reporting can cause. Work with them to achieve balanced coverage. Encourage them to be specific about the location of trouble spots to isolate the areas affected, and to cover some stories about positive outcomes as opposed to continually reporting on tragedy and loss. Try to get them involved in some way, for example by giving them a formal role on the tourist board. Educate stakeholders on how to communicate with the media.
- **Make use of social media:** Use it as a market research tool to assess public opinion and identify emerging trends, and to promote your destination in a positive light. Counter damaging stories in the media with images which directly contradict them – such as tourists relaxing and having fun or hotels and attractions operating as normal in unaffected areas. Encourage tourists to post their own photographs on social media and share them with friends.
- **Provide factual information:** Give out up-to-date information about safety and the status of attractions, accommodation, restaurants and other facilities.

Ensure tourists are aware of areas which are not affected so they have alternative destinations within the same area if they need to re-evaluate their travel plans. Providing access to factual and reliable information helps to combat media sensationalism and ensures visitors can make an informed choice.

- Differentiate your destination: In times of crisis, a destination's competitiveness becomes even more important. This is the time to focus on what makes you unique rather than luxury hotels or other facilities that tourists can find elsewhere.
- Don't discount: Research has shown that tourists are not tempted to visit a crisis-hit area solely because of price cuts. Discounting can devalue a destination in the eyes of visitors and once you have cut prices, it's hard to push them up again. It also attracts a fickle audience – consumers who buy on price have no long-term loyalty.
- Beware of being 'open for business' too soon: Announcements of this type should only be made once the whole area is ready and willing to receive visitors. Marketing a destination prior to its full recovery can generate distrust. In the meantime, marketing efforts should be carried out via individual operators within unaffected areas targeting their existing client base directly. In any case, previous visitors are the ones who are most likely to return following a disaster.
- Be prepared: No one likes to acknowledge the risk of disaster but it is worthwhile having a crisis plan in place. This would include helping individual operators to plan for a crisis by considering cancellation policies, evacuation procedures and how the business would survive with no tourist income; preparing marketing messages to roll out following a disaster; and agreeing spokespersons and an effective media management strategy.
- Learn from the past: Look at what measures have been successful in helping other areas to recover. Celebrity endorsements proved highly effective following the bushfires and research suggests that festivals and other events are most valuable in the 12 months to two years following a crisis.

Ying (2011) writes Murphy & Bayley (1989) suggested that the recovery stage holds a distinctive relationship with tourism from a tourist destinations perspective. At this point, the destination's image of security and pleasure is shattered, to some extent, and whether the recovery is successful or not has a decisive effect on future bookings and economic prospects. They also restated the important role of tourism in terms of attracting visitors back to the affected area quickly and passing the real recovery information from the disaster area to the international community through witnessed visitors. In addition, with the tourists coming, new revenue will be brought to the reconstruction work, which then is greatly able to accelerate the recovery phase.

Conclusion

Nepal has to be very optimistic about the future of tourism as it has huge potentials to be the top class tourist destinations. Tourists can experience, enjoy and feel the difference with diverse tourist attractions in Nepal. Nepal can have multiple benefits from tourism. Tourists visiting means directly helping rebuilt the country. Their contribution means a lot to boost up the tourism activities and economy, transform the best technology and practices to the needy ones. There is something called social tourism that includes disaster tourism, volunteering tourism, cultural tourism, heritage tourism, responsible tourism, educational tourism, medical and relief tourism which is the act of travelling to a disaster areas as a matter of curiosity and generosity that ultimately gives them a satisfaction. Any time is good time to visit Nepal. Everybody travel for fun but tourists can make difference while visiting Nepal in this difficult situation and make it the most fulfilling trip. However, the government and tourism entrepreneurs should assure tourists for quality services and their safety. If they are satisfied with their visit, it will have multiple benefits such as lengthening their stay period, repeat visits, recommend to the friends and relatives, videos posting and write-ups about their trips in Nepal and many more.

The damages caused to the tourism sector in Nepal by the April 25 earthquake and powerful aftershocks were wrongly reported in the international community. Only some tourist sites suffered damages, while most destinations favored by tourists are remained unaffected. It is unfortunate that it has been miscommunicated among foreigners that almost all tourist destinations are damaged. Tourist arrivals in Nepal after the quake have been affected and declined, however, Nepal should take serious efforts to convince foreigners to visit Nepal and revive immediately. Likewise, the government and tourism stakeholders should seriously follow the code of conducts, modules and innovative activities to handle the difficult situation after disasters, strategies of risks and crisis management, and marketing plans for sustainable tourism development in Nepal.

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Nepal's Earthquake-2015: Its Impact on Various Sectors

Nimesh Ulak*

Abstract

Natural Calamities are unavoidable events that lead to chaos, crisis and disaster. Nepal faced a disastrous earthquake; 7.8 Richter scale. Being repeatedly analyzed about the vulnerability of earthquake in Nepal, the country seems not prepared enough for the event. The unpreparedness had taken many lives including tangible and intangible values of society and cultural aesthetics. The earthquake has hindered the overall economic, social and environmental aspect. Tourism was one of the major economic backbones for the nation which with the event has barred at least for sometimes. According to the survey conducted on the Tourism Employment by Ministry of Culture, Tourism and Civil Aviation (MoCTCA) indicates that approximately 138,148 persons were engaged in the tourism sector (National Planning Commission, 2015b: 118). The pre-earthquake data, indicates that 487,500 jobs which would be 3.5 percent of the total employment in Nepal. The number of jobs was expected to rise by 4 percent in 2015 and 3 percent per annum to 681,000 jobs (World Travel and Trade Council, 2015). According to World Health Organization, the epicenter of the earthquake was Barpakh, Gorkha and the magnitude of the earthquake has catastrophic effect on 14 district of Nepal, including Gorkha, Dhading, Rasuwa, Sindhupalchok, Kavre, Nuwakot, Dolakha, Kathmandu, Lalitpur, Bhaktapur, Ramechap, Sindhuli, Okhaldhunga and Makwanpur districts out of which Dolakha and Sindhupalchok are the most severely affected districts by the second earthquake on 13 May, 2015 World Health Organization (WHO, 2015).

Keywords: Crisis, Disaster, Disaster Risk Reduction, Rehabilitation.

Background

Nepal, of its nature, is a country prone to disasters (Chhetri, 2001; Malla et al., 2015). Carter (1992) defined disaster as; 'an event; natural or man-made, sudden or progressive, which impacts with such severity that the affected community has to respond by taking exceptional measures'. The World Health Organization (2002) has defined disaster as

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“... an occurrence disrupting the normal conditions of existence and causing a level of suffering that exceeds the capacity of adjustment of the affected community” (WHO/EHA, 2002: 3). Definition of disaster varies in level- national level to individual level that leads to long-term problems for rescue, restoration and rehabilitation as in the case of Nepal facing crisis after the tremendous shocks of earthquakes. Nepal is the 11th most earthquake-prone country in the world in terms of seismic vulnerability (United Nations Development Program, 2004; National Planning Commission, 2015a; Nepal Disaster Management Reference Handbook, 2015) and 30th ranked in terms of flood.

Nepal is a landlocked country located between two giant countries India and China. The country has more than 28.5 million of population and 1, 47,181 square kilometers of area; Nepal occupies 0.3 and 0.03 percentage of land area of Asia and the world respectively (Central Bureau of Statistics, 2010). According to Dahal and Gnawali (2000) “geographically Nepal lies in 80°, 04’ and 88°, 12’ east longitudes and between 26°, 22’ and 30°, 27’ north latitude.” On the basis of geographical position of Nepal, Shrestha (2000: 3) mentioned that “its shape is roughly rectangular with the length of 885 Kilometers east-west and its breadth varies from 145 to 243 kilometers north-south, the mean width of which is 193 kilometers.” Nepal’s landscape composed of hills and steep 8 world’s tallest mountains including Mt. Everest (8848 m) (Kunwar, 2015; Nepal Tourism Board, 2015) with breathtaking landscapes, mountains, lakes and national parks combined with fragile geographical formations and heavy monsoon rainfall resulting landslide, debris flows and floods (United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, 2015).

The country is situated upon the Alpine-Himalayan or Alpine belt, where 17 percent of world’s largest earthquake occurs as the Indian plate pushes upwards into the Eurasian plate, causing great stress to build up in the Earth’s crust, only to be relieved through earthquakes. Similarly, Kathmandu Valley, the capital city of Nepal would suffer enormous damages in the event of catastrophic earthquake as it lies on the location of an ancient lake bed, since the floor consists of loose soil sediments (Nepal Disaster Management Reference Handbook, 2015). Nepal experiences a variety of natural hazards that occur throughout the year. People live with hazards, accepting them as a part of life (UNDP, 2009). The high level of hazards easily translates into risk because of the vulnerabilities that have been built up and are being built (National Society for Earthquake Technology, 2008). A devastating earthquake struck in Nepal on 25 April 2015 followed by several strong earthquakes and another massive earthquake on May 12, 2015 (European Commission, 2015; Nepal Disaster Management Reference Handbook, 2015). A magnitude of 7.8 earthquake occurred on Saturday April 25, 2015 at 11:56 local time (ca. 6.11 UTC) in Nepal as recorded by National Seismological Center (NSC). The epicenter of earthquake was located approximately 77 km northwest of Kathmandu, Nepal’s Capital City, and 73 Km east of Pokhara, another major population center in Barpak, Gorkha (WHO, 2015; Incorporated Research Institutions for Seismology (IRIS), 2015 & UNISDR, 2015).

There are different records on the casualties in different published reports. According to WHO (2015), "...the earthquake resulted in landslides, further deaths, injuries and damages to buildings". The government has recorded 8,219 deaths and over 17,866 people injured, 4.2 million people have been affected and 2.8 million people had been displaced. However, Nepal Disaster Management Reference Handbook (2015) published a data which shows 8,669 deaths, 16,808 injured, and thousands unaccounted for. 70 aftershocks and the deadliest avalanche occur in Mount Everest, killing 20 hikers. Similarly International Center for Integrated Mountain Development (2015) estimated the death report more than 8,000 people and more than 22,000 were injured.

The vulnerability risk in Nepal compared to developed countries like Chile or Japan due to earthquake is higher because of poor quality of construction of buildings and infrastructure due to prevalence of non-engineered construction (>90%), poor quality control of materials and construction processes is the main cause of structural vulnerability. Similarly Lack of awareness programs, and concentration of knowledge and skills are another reasons for vulnerability. Nepalese trends of settlements and public services are often seen in hazardous area and marginal lands because of lack of proper land use assessment or even can be said of not implementing the land use policies developed by the Government of Nepal which could be another source of vulnerabilities (NSET, 2008). The overall earthquake losses are presented in the table below since 1970-2003:

Table 1: Direct Losses due to Earthquake (1970-2003)

Item	Number	Value of Direct Losses (NRs)
Total number of events	22	
Death	876	
Injury	6,840	
Affected	4,539	
Buildings Destroyed	33,706	8,200,838,000
Buildings Damaged	55,234	1,309,606,450
Livestock Death	2,215	11,075,000
Total loss at present value (NRs)	9,566,605,507	
Average loss per year due to earthquake	289,897,136	

Source: NSET (2008: 4)

Historically, Nepal has suffered many destructive earthquakes- 1934 Great Nepal Bihar Earthquake 8.4 Richter scale was especially damaging causing 8,519 human casualties, damaged 126,355 homes, and destroyed 80,893 buildings. However, the deadliest earthquake in Nepal's recorded history occurred in 1255, when a 7.7 earthquake shock the center of the Kathmandu valley, killing the King Abahya Malla

along with one-third of the population of Kathmandu, approximately 30,000 people (NDMR Handbook, 2015). Even from the past experiences of disasters, the government policies on nation building are not implemented strong enough to overcome the disasters. Nepal should have learned lesson where, the nation had gone through severe disaster and had tremendously impacted the social, cultural and economical sector overall. The below tables shows the losses due to earthquake and other disasters in different period of time and the Nation Policy which compares between the GDP and development expenditure in Nepal since 1987 (CBS, 2000; Ministry of Home Affairs quoted in Disaster Review, 2005; in NSET 2008: 4).

Table 2: Major Earthquakes in Nepal in the last 100 years

Year	Location	Magnitude	Damages	Cost
1934	Nepal	8.4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 10,700 Dead • 126,355 houses damaged • 80,893 buildings destroyed 	NRs. 205,500 (Kathmandu Valley only)
1980	Baitadi Bajhang Darchula	6.5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 125 dead • 248 seriously injured • 13,414 buildings damaged • 11,604 buildings destroyed 	Unknown
1988	Eastern Development Region Some parts	6.8	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 721 dead • 6,553 injured • 65,432 buildings damaged • 1,566 livestock dead • 22 districts of eastern Nepal affected 	5 billion rupees
1993	Central Region Mid-Western Region	Unknown	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1 Dead • 11 Injured • 72 houses Destroyed • 451 Buildings Damaged 	48.39 million rupees
1994	Mid-Western region	Unknown	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 12 Injured • 623 Affected • 84 Houses Destroyed • 287 buildings Damaged 	16.35 Million Rupees
1997	Central Region Far-Western Region	Unknown	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1 injured • 1,489 Affected • 196 Houses Destroyed • 60 Buildings Damaged 	51.29 Million Rupees
2015	Northwest of Kathmandu	7.8	As of May 25, 2015: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 8,669 Deaths • 16,808 Injured • 288,793 Buildings Damaged • 254,114 Buildings Partially Damaged 	TBD (To be declared)

Source: Nepal Disaster Management Reference handbook (2015)

Table 3: Disaster Losses Compared to GDP and Development Expenditure in Nepal

Disaster Year	Major Hazard Event In that Year	Deaths	Direct Disaster Loss by all hazard events in that year, MNR (Price in Same Year)	GDP MNR (for the Disaster year)	Loss as % GDP	Average Annual GDP Growth %	Development Expenditure (MNR)
1987	(Floods)	881	2,005	76,906	2.6	4.6	
1988	(Earthquake)	1584	6,099	89,269	6.83		
1989	(Fire, Flood, Epidemics)	1716	4,172	103,416	4.0		
1991	(No specific major hazard event, "Normal Year?")	971	43	149,485	0.03		91/92=13,979
1993	(Floods)	1524	5,189	199,216	2.6	4.8	93/94=21,188
1996	(Floods)	895	1,579	280,513	0.56		96/97=26,542

Source: Ministry of Home Affairs quoted in Disaster Review, 2005 and Central Bureau of Statistics, 2000; in NSET, 2008: 4.

Natural Disaster Preparedness in Nepal

In 2003, PATA published a crisis awareness document called "Crisis, it Won't Happen to Us! Expect the unexpected. Be prepared (Beirman, 2011). Many researches were undertaken and reports being published on the risk of natural disaster in Nepal. National level planning and strategies on this behalf shows the concern for reducing the impacts. Nepal faces high magnitudes and intensities of a magnitude of natural hazards such as flood, landslide, earthquake, fire, cyclonic winds and hailstorms, cloudburst, drought, famine, and epidemics. Industrial accidents, explosion, traffic accidents and hazardous events associated with poisonous substances are also recorded (NSET, 2008). Earthquake is a major potential hazard to reckon with- the country is located on an active seismic belt and the exponential urbanization trend over the past decade with general disregard of earthquake-resistant measures in building construction is the cause of ever-increasing earthquake risk.

According to (NSET, 2008), different government departments have made significant efforts in the past in mapping the natural hazards of Nepal. A variety of geologic, hydrologic, climatic hazard maps has been prepared at various scales by the respective technical departments of the government and other agencies. Many of these maps are available in the public domain.

In 1997, an earthquake risk assessment and scenario development was conducted as part of the Kathmandu Valley Earthquake Risk management Project (KVERMP) and implemented by National Society for Earthquake Technology-Nepal (NSET). After the assessment, it was estimated that if Nepal experienced an earthquake of the magnitude as the 1934 Great Bihar Earthquake, Kathmandu Valley would suffer the following: 40,000 deaths, 95,000 injured, 600,000-900,000 homeless, and 60% of all the buildings damaged. Kathmandu Valley experiences a major earthquake every 70-80 years, so the 2015 Nepal Earthquake was expected (Nepal Disaster Management Reference Handbook, 2015; & CEDIM, 2015).

The National Strategy for Disaster Risk Management is a commitment of the Government of Nepal to reflect the paradigm shift towards Protection as part of the fulfillment of the basic right of the people. It also expresses the desire of the people and government of Nepal to reduce disaster risks to an acceptable level for safeguarding their lives, properties, development investments, cultural heritages as well as to mitigate the adverse impact to the environment from natural hazards thereby contributing to the aspirations of alleviating poverty and improving the quality of life of all Nepalese. The vision of the National Strategy for Disaster Risk management is “Disaster-resilient Nepal”, and the mission is to guide, encourage, and ensure development and implementation of organized approached for managing and minimizing disaster risks and for effective preparedness at all levels. According to NSET (2008: 23), the mission of the National Strategy for Disaster Risk Management includes:

- Institutional Development
- Enhancing policy and legal environment for participation by all the stakeholders adhering to the principles of **Centralized Policy, decentralized implementation.**
- Creating enabling environment to encourage DRR (Disaster Risk Reduction) and implementation at central level to household levels, and
- Ensuring integration of disaster risk reduction strategies into sectoral development and poverty alleviation plans.

Besides vision and mission on disaster risk management, Nepal had expressed her commitments to Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) by signing the Hyogo Framework of Action 2005-2015 (HFA). The HFA framework provides logical steps for achieving DRR; Knowledge of the risk faced, especially from a participatory process with the participation of the people and communities at risk, is the starting point. HFA is the consensus strategy

adopted by 168 member countries in the UN World Conference on Disaster Reduction in January 2005 in Kobe for spearheading the task of disaster risk reduction globally. According to NSET (2008: 27), the framework of action was developed based on the gap analysis in the national and global efforts in DRR whose goals are:

- Integration of disaster risk reduction into sustainable development policies and planning,
- Development and strengthening of institutions, mechanisms and capacities to build resilience to hazards, and
- Systematic incorporation of risk reduction approaches into the implementation of emergency preparedness, response and recovery program which recommends five priorities for Action, namely,
 - a) HFA Priority Action 1: Ensure that disaster risk reduction (DRR) is a national and a local priority with a strong institutional basis for implementation.
 - b) HFA Priority Action 2: Identify, access and monitor disaster risks and enhance early warning.
 - c) HFA Priority Action 3: Use knowledge, innovation and education to build a culture of safety and resilience at all levels.
 - d) HFA Priority Action 4: Reduce the underlying risk factors.
 - e) HFA Priority Action 5: Strengthen Disaster Preparedness for effective response.

As per Malla et al. (2015: 4) Nepal is worst prepared now than it was in 1934. Considering the scenario that the consequences of the future earthquake in Nepal in mind, on March 31, 2010, the three major professional organizations of the Nepali Diaspora in USA, ASNEngr, ANMF, and CAN-USA, joined hands for providing guidelines and suggesting appropriate action plans for mitigating damage through earthquake. The committee came up with three major areas of preparedness to be considered are pre, during and post-earthquake.

Kunwar (2012) in his article entitled “Safety and Security in Tourism: A Study of Crisis and Disaster Management” mentioned about the provisions of disaster management published in Nepal Disaster Report 2009 by Ministry of Home Affairs. The provisions for disaster management are:

- Disaster Risk Reduction (Pre-prepare and awareness)
- Legislation and Institution (Post-disaster Management)

1. Pre-earthquake preparedness

According to Malla et al. (2015: 5), to avoid or at least minimize the human casualties and property and infrastructure damage and loss, it is of utmost importance that the general population should be fully prepared and the infrastructure should be

built for any impending earthquake disaster. Therefore, pre-earthquake preparedness includes following:

- Public awareness programs;
- Regular earthquake drills in schools, colleges, public buildings, and hospitals;
- Training of personnel in different sectors of public and private institutions and construction industries;
- The necessity of strict adherence to building codes and their implementation;
- Quality construction practices;
- Upgrading the existing building codes; and
- Preparation of new codes and standards for infrastructure design.

2. During earthquake preparedness

“Avoid panic and stay calm” is the most important thing during an earthquake. Detailed procedures should be followed when inside or outside a house or inside a vehicle and following the systematic step-by-step procedures practiced during drills. Turning on a battery-operated radio and listening to the siren; taking immediate shelter under a sturdy desk, table, or doorway; staying away from windows and using the “duck, cover, and hold” rule are some of the immediate steps to be followed until the shaking stops. Adequate ambulance services, readily available emergency medical supplies, first responders, paramedics, and expert medical health teams, coordination with local and international Red Cross societies, and unobstructed access to the pre-assigned open grounds and facilities for temporary health camps are a few of the main components required for a successful response during an earthquake. An effective intercommunication network maintained to fully operate during the inevitable panic is the key to an operational success during an earthquake. The Nepal Government’s Emergency Operation Center and privately owned emergency communication links, including those owned by nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and international non-governmental organizations (INGOs) within the country, are effectively mobilized to disseminate information locally, nationally, and globally (Malla et al., 2015).

3. Post-Earthquake Preparedness

According to Thapa (2009; in Kunwar, 2012), there are Natural Calamity Relief Act, 1982 and Local Self Governance Act 1999 for post-disaster management. However, the biggest challenge during post-earthquake preparations lies in coordinating and mobilizing the nationally and internationally available resources properly and effectively, in a chaotic situation, with the possibility of aftershocks. Qualified professionals must evaluate and red-tag unsafe buildings and infrastructure in the affected areas essentially immediately. Effective use of the sophisticated heavy machinery and equipment necessary for rescue, immediate repair of essential facilities and the

public transportation system, fast erection of temporary shelters at different locations, and maintenance of pedestrians' safety and mobility will have to be coordinated under difficult conditions. Moreover, due to its geographical location, the Kathmandu valley has additional constraints to receiving immediate assistance from outside the valley and from neighboring countries (Malla et al., 2015).

Impact of Earthquake in Nepal

The earthquake has affected environment, socio-culture, and economy of Nepal. Nepal as mentioned by Chhetri (2001) and UNDP (2009) that the country is prone to disaster, the country faced many disasters in different period of times. The earthquake and associated landslides have had a major socioeconomic impact in Nepal; almost all aspects of life have been affected and the lives and livelihoods of 8 million people have directly threatened (NPC, 2015a & ICIMOD, 2015). The paper published by ICIMOD (2015) reveals a heartbreaking report on the disaster scenario. There were some 500,000 houses destroyed and 300,000 partially damaged which has displaced more than 100,000 people and a million lost their employment. Similarly, CEDIM Report (2015: 2) published the paper where NEOC and Nepal Police estimated 300,000 buildings were destroyed and 250,000 damaged. Many landslides blocked roads resulting infrastructure damage as well as 500 deaths and Avalanches destroys camps and results in 20 deaths in Mt. Everest region (CEDIM, 2015).

The earthquake has affected different socioeconomic sector of country overall, the event was catastrophic and had destroyed or damaged houses and animal shelters, livestock, crops, seeds, and food stores, as well as social infrastructures such as school, health centers, banks, business centers, microenterprises, roads and trails. Therefore, the result is much stressful and disturbing as it has severely affected health, threatened food security, and disrupted production, employment, business, trade, and services (ICIMOD, 2015).

International Labor Organization has estimated that 150 million work days were lost in 31 districts in the first few weeks following the earthquake (ICIMOD, 2015: 13). The earthquake created many social problems and caused psychological trauma. Many people were compelled to live outside in tents and open sky for many days to months including children and girls putting them in an especially vulnerable position. There have been reports on trafficking of women and children. Hence, the scenario led to mental and physical pressure which had directly increased stress levels and estimated to have long-term health impacts. Vulnerable groups, such as women, children, and the disabled, the elderly and ethnic minorities remain higher risks to be excluded if their specific needs are not addressed as priorities to restore and enhance their livelihood assets, capabilities and opportunities (ICIMOD 2015: 14).

Education Sector

According to the NPC (2015b: 57) report, the total value of the damages and losses to the education is estimated to NPR 31,317.9 million (US\$ 313.2 million). More than 80 percent of the damages and losses were in the 14 most-affected districts, with the damages amounting to NPR 22,375.1 million (US\$ 223.8 million) and losses being NPR 2,629.1 million (US\$ 26.3 million).

Health Sector

According to PDNA, a total of 446 public health facilities were completely destroyed including five hospitals, 12 primary health care centers, 147 Health Posts (HPs) and 12 others as well as 16 health facilities were completely destroyed. The largest number of completely destroyed health facilities was in Sindhupalchok, Nuwakot and Gorkha Districts. The damage status was reported by the District Health Offices and was validated by the assessment team's first visit in the field. Considering the health risk of epidemic and disease outbreak, Health Emergency Operation Center (HEOC) established a hospital-based post-earthquake surveillance system to cover public and private hospitals in the 14 highly affected districts. The total value of disaster effects (damages and losses) is estimated to be NPR 7.54 billion, 85.1 percent of which constitutes damages and 14.9 percent amount to losses. The public sector accounted for 81.5 percent of the disaster effects. The effect on the health spectrum was quite diverse, leaving many long-term problems and impacting on the development goals (NPC, 2015b).

Cultural Heritage Sector

Many government, religious and private building were destroyed (CEDIM, 2015). Major monuments in Kathmandu's Seven World Heritage Monument Zones were severely damaged and many collapsed completely. Similarly, in more than 20 districts, thousands of private residents built on traditional lines, historic public buildings, ancient and recently built temples and monasteries, were affected by the disaster, 25 percent of which were destroyed completely. According to the report of PDNA published in NPC (2015a), the total estimated damages to tangible heritage is NPR 16.9 billion (US\$ 169 million) affecting 2,900 structures with a cultural, historical and religious heritage value. The earthquake damaged a large number of cultural and heritage sites in Nepal. Outside Kathmandu, a number of such sites and structures survived the earthquake and its aftershocks, including Boudhanath and Swayambhunath. Within Kathmandu in Durbar Square, a large number of iconic sites and structures were destroyed, though a few survived, including Taleju and Jagannath temples, the Kumari house and the Pashupatinath Temple. The list of destroyed cultural and historic structures been reported to have been completely destroyed include Kasthamandap, Maju Dega and Narayan Vishnu Temples, Trailokya Mohan, Krishna (Chasin Dega), Dharahara (Bhimsen Tower), Hari Shankar, Jagan Narayan, Fesidega Temple, and Vatsala Durga Temple (UNSDIR, 2015).

Food Security and Nutrition Sector

As per PDNA team published on NPC (2015b) under-nutrition has been a longstanding problem in Nepal. A post-earthquake assessment found that food consumption practices have worsened in the affected districts compared with the levels recorded in the pre-earthquake assessment data.

Economic Sector

Nepal has a net capital stock around \$ 36 billion USD with approximately 28.8 million inhabitants. In terms of capital and GDP it is extremely poor nation with less than \$ 700 (USD) GDP per capita in 2015. The Kathmandu area has a GDP slightly higher than the rest in Nepal (Center for Disaster Management/CEDIM, 2015). According to the World Bank, the Kathmandu Valley has a population of 2.5 million people and a population density of about 13,000 people per square kilometers (UNISDR, 2015). The Post Disaster Needs Assessment (PDNA) Report of the National Planning Commission (NPC) reveals that the earthquake has already pushed a further 700,000 people below the poverty line (NPC, 2015a).

Productive Sector

According to Food and Agriculture Organization of United Nations (UNFAO) (2015) confirms that the agricultural livelihoods in the six districts including, Dhading, Dolakha, Gorkha, Nuwakot, Rasuwa and Sindhupalchok suffered particularly high levels of damage, and therefore support to livelihoods in these districts should be prioritized in agricultural recovery program. The contribution of GDP has remained almost unchanged since 2001 at around 35%.

The PDNA report shows nearly 1,000 hectares of land have been rendered useless due to landslides and land slips; these lands will most likely not be recovered. The estimates of the value of losses and damages in the agriculture sector amount to about NPR 28,366 million. Approximately NPR 16,405 million damages reported on the data compiled from the 14 affected districts. Similarly, the commerce and industry sectors too are affected severely and are one of the major sectors play a key role in the economy. Based on the PDNA report, the 14 affected districts reported the damages for this sector is NPR 15,611 million (US\$ 16,873 million) (NPC, 2015a). The PDNA Team has published a summary of disaster effect after earthquake where the social, cultural and economical sectors and sub-sectors losses are presented. The table shows the losses in the social, environmental and economic sectors of Nepal and it requires millions of USD to recover the losses. Hence, the table below shows the losses due to earthquake and the estimated capital requirement for recovery and re-establishment.

Table 4: Disaster Effects and Capital needs in Nepal after earthquake

	Disaster Effects (NPR million)			Distribution of Disaster Effects (NPR million)		Losses in Personal Income (NPR Million)
	Damages	Losses	Total	Private	Public	
Social Sectors	355,028	53,597	408,625	363,248	45,377	-
Housing and Human Settlements	303,632	46,908	350,540	350,540	-	-
Health	6,422	1,122	7,544	1,394	6,150	-
Education	28,064	3,254	31,318	2,365	28,953	-
Cultural Heritage	16,910	2,313	19,223	8,948	10,274	-
Productive Sectors	58,074	120,046	178,121	158,079	20,043	17,124
Agriculture	16,405	11,962	28,366	25,813	2,553	4,603
Irrigation	383	-	383	-	383	-
Commerce	9,015	7,938	16,953	16,953	-	2,667
Industry	8,394	10,877	19,271	19,271	-	3,654
Tourism	18,863	63,379	81,242	75,105	6,137	6,200
Finance	5,015	26,890	31,905	20,937	10,969	-
Infrastructure Sectors	52,460	14,323	66,783	17,281	49,502	-
Electricity	17,807	3,435	21,242	15,569	5,673	-
Communications	3,610	5,085	8,695	1,712	6,983	-
Community Infrastructure	3,349	-	3,349	-	3,349	-
Transport	17,188	4,930	22,118	-	22,118	-
Water and Sanitation	10,506	873	11,379	-	11,379	-
Cross-Cutting Issues	51,872	1,061	52,933	1,755	51,178	-
Governance	18,757	-	18,757	-	18,575	-
Disaster Risk Reduction	155	-	155	-	155	-
Environment and Forestry	32,960	1,061	34,021	1,755	32,267	-
Total	517,434	189,027	706,461	540,362	166,100	17,124
Total	\$5,174	\$1,890	\$7,065	\$5,404	\$1,661	\$171

SECTOR	Total Needs (NPR million)	Total Needs (US\$ million)	Share of Needs by Sector
Social Sectors	407,747	4,077	60.9%
Housing	327,762	3,278	49.0%
Health	14,690	147	2.2%
Nutrition	5,036	50	0.8%
Education	39,706	397	5.9%
Cultural Heritage	20,553	206	3.1%
Productive Sectors	115,618	1,156	17.3%
Agriculture	15,561	156	2.3%
Irrigation	467	5	0.1%
Commerce	20,051	201	3.0%
Industry	7,357	74	1.1%
Tourism	38,710	387	5.8%
Finance	33,472	335	5.0%
Infrastructure Sectors	74,266	743	11.1%
Electricity	18,586	186	2.8%
Communications	4,939	49	0.7%
Community Infrastructure	4,450	45	0.7%
Transport	28,185	282	4.2%
Water and Sanitation	18,106	181	2.7%
Cross-Cutting Issues	71,873	719	10.7%
Governance	18,442	184	2.8%
Disaster Risk Reduction	8,204	82	1.2%
Environment and Forestry	25,197	252	3.8%
Employment and Livelihoods	12,547	125	1.9%
Social Protection	6,398	64	1.0%
Gender and Social Inclusion	1,086	11	0.2%
Total	669,505	6,695	

Source: NPC (2015a: XIII-XIX)

Crisis in Tourism Sector

Tourism is traditionally associated with leisure and vacation, and tourists look for rejuvenation and relaxation in a holiday. There have been crises in history, such as war and terrorism, which interrupted the growth of tourism, but the study of crisis management in tourism began only recently (Tse, 2006). Just over ten years ago, Barton (1994) was the first person to argue for using a crisis management plan as a management tool in the hospitality industry (Kunwar, 2012: 73).

It is unusual to think of tourism and disasters in the same light. Safety and security issues have assumed a position of critical importance for the tourism industry globally (PATA, 2011) However, tourism communities are especially vulnerable to disaster occurrence due to their economic dependence on visitors and the need to maintain positive image of attractiveness and safety for continued success. The past decade has witnessed various natural disasters in tourism industry like Hurricane Hugo, Hurricane Andrew, as well as numerous tornadoes in the Southeastern coast of United States (Sönmez & Backman, 1992). While a natural disaster can impede the flow of tourism as tourists can easily choose safer destinations, but the effects of negative occurrences on the local tourism industry and tourist destination can be profound (Sönmez et al., 1999).

The earthquake in Nepal actually has created a crisis situation in every aspect in the nation overall, therefore, tourism industry cannot be separable. Therefore, community leaders, local governments, and the tourism industries need to handle the situation efficiently to reduce loss of life and property as possible, the situation is very likely to evolve into a full blown crisis, which can lead to severe short-term and long-term economic ramifications for a tourism sectors (Sönmez & Backman, 1992). According to Sönmez et al. (1994: 30), tourism crisis is:

“...any occurrence which can threaten the normal operations and conduct of tourism related businesses; damage a tourist destination’s overall reputation for safety, attractiveness, and comfort by negatively affecting visitors’ perceptions of that destination; and, in turn, cause downturn in the local travel and tourism economy, and interrupt the continuity of business operations for the local travel and tourism industry, by the reduction in tourist arrivals and expenditures.”

The definition of crisis management is simplified by World Tourism Organization which is put forward by Luhrman (2003), that tourism crisis is “... any unexpected event that affects traveler confidence in a destination and interferes with the ability to continue operating normally”. In the same manner, defining a tourism crisis varies as (Beirman, 2011 In PATA) defines tourism crisis as “...an event or set of circumstances which can severely compromise or damage the marketability and reputation of a tourism business or an entire tourism destination region.”

Similarly, Nepal a heaven destination for adventure seeker and culture lover faced disastrous earthquake which created a chaos and crisis situation. The earthquake centered outside Kathmandu, the capital, was the worst to hit Nepal in over 80 years. The disastrous earthquake has destroyed swaths of the oldest neighborhoods of Kathmandu as well as severely damaged three UNESCO World Heritage Sites of Nepal (IRIS, 2015). The earthquake has severely affected the tourism industry and its sub-sectors in Nepal. Most of the reports are claiming that the effects of earthquake is limited to 14 districts however, the overall impact goes beyond these districts. The physical impact may not be seen in the touristic destinations like Chitwan, Pokhara, Annapurna Base Camp, but these destinations are suffering with the downfall of tourists (NPC, 2015). 35 out of 75 districts in the country are affected.

The Ministry of Health and Population has identified 14 districts severely affected, including Gorkha, Dhading, Rasuwa, Sindhupalchok, Kavre, Nuwakot, Dolakha, Kathmandu, Lalitpur, Bhaktapur, Ramechap, Sindhuli, Okhaldhunga and Makwanpur districts out of which Dolakha and Sindhupalchok are the most severely affected districts by the second earthquake on 13 May, 2015 (WHO, 2015).

The negative repercussions of disaster are likely to translate into a reduced number of tourist arrivals over the next few years significantly, reduction in tourist spending per day US\$43 to US\$35 (NPC, 2015), which will significantly affect the revenue generation of the nation as well as the local people directly and indirectly involved in this industry. It is also estimated the impact of earthquake in tourism industry will be reduced to 40 percent on an average. Therefore, the effects on the tourism sector as per NPC (2015: 29) are as follows:

- About NPR 16 billion worth of hotel properties were fully or partially damaged in the affected areas.
- Domestic airline operators reported total monthly income losses to the tune of NPR 400 million for the month following earthquake.
- Tourist accommodations of different categories were either fully or partially damaged in the Langtang, Gorkha-Manaslu, Khumbu, Charikot, Kalinchok, Jiri, Dhading and the Rolwaling area. A few hotels in the Kathmandu Valley (including Nagarkot) were damaged extensively, while a majority of hotels developed minor cracks.
- A portion of key tourism monuments and heritage sites turned to rubble.
- With respect to tourism infrastructure, about 150 Km of trekking trails were significantly damaged. Another 200 km require maintenance and repair since access to rural areas is impeded.
- Tourist numbers are expected to decline by about 90 percent between May and July 2015.

According to the survey conducted on the tourism employment by Ministry of Culture, tourism and Civil Aviation (MoCTCA) indicates that approximately 138,148 persons were engaged in the tourism sector. The pre-earthquake data, indicates that 487,500 jobs which would be 3.5 percent of the total employment in Nepal. The number of jobs was expected to rise by 4 percent in 2015 and 3 percent per annum to 681,000 jobs (WTTC, 2015). The total impact of the earthquake on the tourism sector alone is estimated as NPR 81.24 billion (USD 8.2 million), which is the highest among all the productive sectors of which indirect loss (mostly revenue loss) is 77% (NPC, 2015a).

More than 50% of existing private infrastructure was lost (hotels, homestays, travel/trekking agencies), while the destruction of major buildings at heritage sites also represents a significant loss to public infrastructure. Several UNESCO World Heritage Sites and famous trekking routes were extensively damaged or destroyed, including temples and monasteries that are flagship destinations in Kathmandu, Lalitpur, and Bhaktapur, tourism infrastructure such as hotels, resorts, restaurants, and shops, and diverse tourism-related enterprises (IRIS, 2015).

Some areas famous for trekking and adventure tourism, such as Manaslu and Langtang have been completely destroyed, and the local people have been forced to relocate. The cultures and settlements of certain ethnic groups have been primary attractions for many tourists, especially for those studying local traditions and cultures. After the earthquake, many of these villages need to be resettled in new areas, during which time it must be ensured that the unique cultural identity of these communities is preserved (ICIMOD, 2015).

In addition, the post-disaster exposure of Nepal in the international media has almost completely destroyed the image of the country as a safe destination, resulting in a dramatic decrease in the number of tourists. In the months following to earthquake some hotels registered an occupation rate of less than 5%, and many bookings have been cancelled for the current and coming seasons. The tangible losses are accompanied by the long-term intangible loss of tourist confidence and interest; indirect and long-term losses are expected to be high in the tourism sector. Some 55,000 tourists usually arrive in Nepal in May and June (MoCTA 2014, 2015); in 2015 this number has dropped to close to zero. For example, Nepal's protected areas are well known for adventure tourism, with about 400,000 tourists visiting during 2012/2013. More than 40% of total tourists during this time visited the four protected areas (Annapurna Conservation Area, Sagarmatha National Park, Langtang National Park, Manaslu Conservation Area) located in earthquake-affected districts (ICIMOD, 2015).

Table 5: Tourism Damages and Losses due to earthquake

Subsector	Disaster Effects (NPR million)			Share of Disaster Effects	
	Damage	Loss	Total	Private	Public
Hotels and others	16,295	-	16,295	16,295	-
Home stays	1,720	495	1,720	1,720	-
Eco-lodges	415	-	415	415	-
Trekking Trails	426	5,711	6,137	-	6,137
Tour operators	7	4,294	4,931	4,931	-
Tourism revenues	-	47,013	47,013	17,013	-
Air Transport Revenues	-	4,720	4,720	4,720	-
Restaurant Revenues	-	11	11	11	-
Total	18,863	62,379	81,242	75,105	6,137

Source: NPC (2015a: 29)

Post-Disaster and Crisis Management

A ten step process developed by Beirman (2011; in PATA, 2011) with an intention of successful tourism recovery program is not merely restoring or getting back to where things were before the crisis event but to build back better. The improved infrastructure, marketable destination and business will have less impact in future even if the earthquake event takes place again in Nepal. Similarly, Kunwar (2015) elaborated the steps focusing on the context of Nepal's recovery from the crisis with an intention of successful tourism recovery program as well as managing the destination even better as well as more marketable and improved infrastructure to withstand the similar events in the future resulting less destruction.

Step 1: Prime Messages

Step 2: Setting out the facts

Step 3: Complementary Alliances with Principals

Step 4: Restoring Confidence in Source Markets

Step 5: Alliance Marketing Models to emulate

Step 6: Protecting Profitability during Marketing Recovery

Step 7: Re-imaging the Business and the Destination

Step 8: Incentives with Attract Tourists

Step 9: Publicize the Positives

Step 10: Reporting and Monitoring Progress

Beirman (2011) highlights on the PATA guidebook about allies at home and abroad during crisis and recovery:

- National, State, Provincial and Regional tourism offices
- Regional Tourism Authorities.
- PATA, APEC, IATA, World Travel and Tourism Council.
- Travel Industry Associations
- UN World Tourism Organization
- UN Tourism Emergency Response Network
- Travel Industry Media
- Local police, rescue, medical and fire fighting authorities
- National, Provincial/State Emergency Management Agencies
- Foreign Ministries

The Pacific Asia Travel Association (2003) puts forward the Four 'R' concept of crisis management (Tse, 2006; Beirman, 2011), representing four distinct phases dealing with a crisis. The 'Four Rs' are a guide to prepare and protect an organization or destination. The 'Four Rs' are:

Table 6: The elaborated form of 'Four Rs' put forwarded in PATA (2011);

1. Reduction	1.1	Crisis Awareness
	1.2	Political Awareness
	1.3	Standard Operation Procedures
2. Readiness	2.1	Crisis Management Plan
	2.2	Tourism Planning
	2.3	Health and Safety Measures
3. Response	3.1	Emergency Response Procedures
	3.2	Investigation
	3.3	Family Assistance
	3.4	Communication
4. Recovery	4.1	Business Continuity Plan
	4.2	Human Resources
	4.3	Debriefing

Source: PATA (2011)

Table 7: Best Practices from the post-disaster recovery experiences

Disaster	Post-disaster recovery strategy/programme	Factors contributing to success	Key Challenges
Northern Pakistan, 2005: earthquake	<p>Livelihood Rehabilitation Strategy: Consisting of subsistence cash grants, livelihood cash grants and micro-credit (for revival of small business)</p> <p>The livelihood support cash grant by the Government of Pakistan was one of the world's largest post-disaster cash grant based recovery initiatives, disbursing grants of USD 300 per family to 267,802 families.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integration of all livelihood initiatives under the national strategy, while at the same time seeking to be informed by bottom-up perspective in the form of community livelihood restoration plans. • Strict beneficiary selection criteria for livelihood grants • Context-specific customization (e.g., grants in the form of goods and services instead of cash to take account of the history of loan recovery) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Power relations at VDC level (potential for favoritism) • Leakages (faulty targeting in implementation) • Underfunding
Aceh, Indonesia, 2004: earthquake and tsunami	<p>Cash for Work Programme (by Mercy Crops): Implemented in 60 tsunami-affected communities, with an average of 10,905 participants a month and a mean monthly disbursement of USD 650,517 for 7 months.</p> <p>In post-tsunami Aceh, Cash for Work played an important role in the revitalization of household economies and longer-term economy recovery.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decision-making power remains with individuals and households, who are employed to make their own spending choices • Timely phasing out: shift in programme focus from cash for work to output based labor payments (OBLPs) after seven months • Transparency in implementation • Community perception of psychological benefits failure) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Logistics and security were the main concerns • Problem with ghost worker • Quick scale up requires strong management capabilities and uninterrupted supply of tools, materials, and skilled labour

Disaster	Post-disaster recovery strategy/programme	Factors contributing to success	Key Challenges
Tamil Nadu, India and Pidie, Indonesia, 2004: earthquake and tsunami	Micro-entrepreneurship creation and development by NGOs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prior mobilization of communities in the form of self-help groups helped in making this work 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inadequacy of local markets and market-linked infrastructure
Gujarat, India (Kachch district), 2001: earthquake	Community/owner driven in-situ housing recovery plan: Purpose was to address structural vulnerability Project was successful in terms of high occupancy; the provision of extensive training to masons, artisans, engineers in the design and construction of multi-hazard reconstruction; and achieving a shift in construction practices in region.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Technical knowledge transfer to community • Compensation disbursement linked to phases of housing reconstruction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non-institutionalization of the knowledge transfer to community • Cost implications for poor due to change in construction practices • Underfunding • New sources of vulnerability introduced (e.g., use of asbestos sheets)
Nicaragua, 1998: hurricane	'Picking Winners': Employed selective recovery investments (e.g., in the coffee industry), which later (in 2006) shifted to a more broad-based and pro-poor food security programme (including the provision of livestock and agriculture inputs)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The success of cooperation sector (in organized commerce) highlights the importance of organizational capacity as a precondition for benefiting from recovery investments. Capacities, especially those related to social capital, are more important than capitalization. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developing livelihood-social protection synergies • Ensuring equity in access to externally-supported social protection

Source: ICIMOD (2015: 24)

In the process of crisis management, Kunwar (2010: 317; Kunwar, 2012: 74) suggested some activities that the destination should exercise for damage control at the time of the negative event. This includes such activities as:

- Monitoring and managing media coverage-ensuring that all reports present a balanced and accurate picture;
- Conducting background briefings for journalists, key tourism players (especially in the source countries from which tourists come), tour operators, and travel agents;
- Limiting harm to tourists already on the location;
- Restricting damage to tourism infrastructure and showing tourism services operating normally;
- Seeking assurances from source governments that they will support a destination's attempts to control the problems and the image damage resulting.

Kotler et al. (1998; in Kunwar, 2012) recommended four critical elements in crisis management in this context which could applied to a destination. The critical elements recommended by Kotler et al. are:

- The destination should appoint a spokesperson to handle the media;
- The spokesperson should gather the facts and stick them in reporting: (the authors also recommend that the spokesperson should say: 'I don't know at this time' - rather than no comment');
- If the destination uses a particular PR agency, contact them immediately; and
- Notify the press and keep them informed-they will find out anyway! (Kunwar, 2012: 74-75)

According to Nepal MOHA (Ministry of Home Affairs, 2015) To handle post-earthquake disaster, Central Natural Disaster Relief Committee (CNDRC) meeting was held on 25 April, 2015 just two hours after the major hit of earthquake as mandated by disaster Relief Act 1982 and recommended to Government of Nepal to declare emergency for 1 month to highly affected districts and the cabinet declared emergency to 14 districts: Gorkha, Sindhupalchok, Dhading, Kavre, Dolakha, Nuwakot, Ramechhap, Sindhuli, Rasuwa, Kathmandu, Lalitpur, Bhaktapur, Makwanpur and Okhaldhunga. Response Coordination Center was established after the decision made in meeting for acceleration to Search and Rescue (SAR) operation, Central Command Post, coordinate between government and international organizations for relief support and appealed to International Communities for their assistance. MOHA also appealed to National, International Organizations, donors and local communities to contribute in response activities. As per the information of Nepal MOHA (Ministry of Home Affairs, 2015), different activities and task performed for post-earthquake crisis management were:

26 April 2015: Activities and Task Performed

1. Helicopters of Nepal Army, Private Sectors and India mobilized for SAR operation in highly affected districts.
2. 16 shelter camps established in Kathmandu for the Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs).
3. MOHA appealed not to generate any unauthentic rumors to public

Losses recorded: Total death: 2430 (Ktm Valley-1152 & outside-1278) Injured-5936.

27 April 2015: Activities and Task Performed

1. MOHA appealed to functionalize all the activities to provide basic services and constructive support from all sectors to access market, clean water and sanitation, and creating healthy environment

28 April 2015: Activities and Task Performed

1. Injured were treated in health institutions.
2. Helicopters mobilized for relief package
3. NRs. 263 million released to affected districts for the relief support.

Losses recorded: Total death: 4680 & injured-9230. 1672 houses fully and 2597 houses were partially damaged.

29 April 2015: Activities and Task Performed

1. MOHA established information desk for disseminating and publishing information on response and relief status at the interval of 4 hrs each day.

1 May 2015: Activities and Task Performed

1. Search and Rescue (SAR) operation
2. Initial assessment and relief distribution
3. 132427 security personals have been mobilized for SAR operation
4. MOHA released total of 640 million NRs to affected districts.
5. Local organizations and Communities continue the relief collection and distribution.
6. MOHA urged such concerned organization to coordinate and contact with local administration for effective response
7. Bangladesh, Algeria and India provided 23.6 MT of relief items including medical services in the affected areas.
8. India, Russia, Thailand, Pakistan, USA, Malaysia, Singapore, China, Turkey, Israel, Netherlands, Belgium, Spain, Canada, France and UK continued SAR operation.

2 May 2015: Activities and Task Performed

1. SAR operation;
2. Assessment and relief distribution;
3. Helicopters used in affected areas to supply relief package and rescue operation;
4. According to MOHA, total of: 7812 Quintal of rice, 310 Quintal sugar, 277 Quintal salt, 94442 carton noodles, 28945 carton biscuit, 3249 Quintal bitten rice, 3600 Sac lentil, 47801 Tent, 18900 Tablets water purifying tablet, 2520 Soaps distributed in affected districts.
5. Total of 1.35 billion NRs released to affected districts for the relief support.

Losses Recorded: Total death reached to 7040 (including foreigners- 54) and injured- 14100

4 May 2015: Task and Activities Performed

1. Search and Rescue operation,
2. Assessment and relief distribution have been continuing.
3. Helicopters used in Earthquake affected areas of various districts to supply relief package and rescue operation.
4. Total of 131565 security personals (Nepal Army-65016, Nepal Police-41776, Armed Police Force-24775) have been mobilized for search and rescue operation.
5. Relief support from various countries and organization is continuous
6. Total of 1.79 billion NRs released to affected districts for the relief support.
7. As per the record of MOHA, total of: 98191 Quintal of rice, 690 Quintal sugar, 573 Quintal salt, 182034 carton noodles, 57775 carton biscuit, Water-15798 case, Bitten Rice-3249 Quintal, lentil-45 Quintal, Dalmot-90 Sac, Tent-159134, Blanket-4523, water purifying tablet-213171, hygiene kits-2670, Soap-8520 distributed in affected districts.
8. Relief support from India, Bangladesh, Myanmar, Pakistan, China, Thailand, Sri Lanka, Indonesia, Azerbaijan, Korea, Algeria, Oman, Switzerland, Singapore, Germany, Japan and including other countries reached to distribute relief items: Rice-1271 Quintal, Sugar-61Q, Salt-68 Q, Bitten rice-1580 Q, noodles-8900 cartoon, Dryfood-400 cartoon, Water-45904 cartoon, Others-11756 set, Tent- 114735, Tarpaulin-34861, Blanket-149840, Other-9499.

Losses Recorded: Total death reached to 7366 (including foreigners-57) and injured-14371 (Including foreigners-51).

7 May 2015: Activities and Task Performed

1. Search and Rescue operation, assessment and relief distribution has been continue from government, NGOs and private sectors. For this, Helicopters from Nepal Army, India, China and America have been used in Earthquake affected areas of various districts to supply relief package and rescue operation
2. Total of 131557 security personals (Nepal Army-65017, Nepal Police-41776, Armed Police Force-23764) have been mobilized for search and rescue operation.
3. 2.43 billion NRs released to affected districts for the relief support. Monitoring of the relief distribution from the monitoring team is continuous in the affected districts.
4. Relief assistance from various countries and organization is continuous from India, Bangladesh, Myanmar, Pakistan, China, Thailand, Sri Lanka, Indonesia, Azerbaijan, Korea, Algeria, Oman, Switzerland, Singapore, Germany, Japan, Bahrain, Bhutan, Canada, Netherlands, Poland and including other countries reached to: Rice-2915 Quintal, Sugar-292 Q, Salt-96 Q, Bitten Rice-1885Q, Noodles-12716 cartoon, Biscuits-19608 cartons, dry food-1921 cartoon, water-41647 cartoon, other-23161 set; Tent-118348, Tarpaulin- 195058, Blanket-170754 , other-11396. As per the record of MOHA, total of Rice-105234 Quintal, Sugar-719 Q, Salt-851.5 Q, Noodles- 210623 carton, -Biscuit-75559 carton , Water- 17798 Case, Bitten Rice-4895 Q, Lentils-145 Q, Dry Food-2525 Carton; Tent-266818, Solar Light-3528, Blanket-325703, cloths-21 Sac, Soap- 56226, water purifying tablet-213172 tablet, hygiene kits-2670 including kitchen utensils distributed in affected districts.

Losses Recorded: Total death reached to 7802 (including foreigners-57) and injured-15911 (Including foreigners-52).

8 May 2015: Activities and Task Performed

1. The Home Ministry issued a statement on 8 May following news from Kathmandu, Lalitpur and Bhaktapur that some landlords were increasing house rent after in the earthquake of 25 April 2015.
2. Complaints could be recorded by calling Nepal Police at 100 and call cente-1234 or the Armed Police Force-1114.
3. The government has also directed to District Administration Offices to take stern action against those house owners inside Kathmandu Valley who increase the house rent taking undue advantage in the aftermath of the earthquake.

9 May 2015: Activities and Task Performed

1. As per the decision of Government of Nepal on 8 May 2015, The Government clarify the notice in order to dismantle the houses that were not completely damaged but not appropriate to live by the devastating EQ on 25 April 2015.

10 May 2015: Activities and Task Performed

1. Search and Rescue operation, assessment and relief distribution has been continue from government, NGOs and private sectors, Helicopters, Nepal Army, Nepal Police, Armed Police Force and Civil servants were mobilized.
2. Relief assistance from various countries and organization is continuous.
3. 2.84 billion NRs released to affected districts for the relief support.
4. The demand of Tent/Tarpaulin is high from the affected districts, India provided 229298 and other country provided- 340221 (China, Thailand, Pakistan, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, and Ministry of Urban Development).
5. This Tent/Tarpaulin was provided to districts as: Sindhupalchowk-38728, Rasuwa-10524, Dhading-14217, Kavre-28410, Nuwakot-20210, Sindhuli-22440, Okhaldhunga-12024, Ramechhap-26956, Gorkha-29098, Dolakha-31553, Makwanpur-13998, Kathmandu-43567, Lalitpur-22841, Bhaktapur-21071 and Lamjung-4584.
6. Local organizations and NRCs supported Tents in other districts as well.
7. Ministry of Home Affairs requested to all organizations to coordinate and contact with concerned DDRCs in order to minimize gaps and optimum utilization of the resources.

Losses Recorded: Total death reached to 8020, Injured-16033 and missing-375. According to initial assessment report (MOHA, 2015), total of 416359 houses were damaged (fully damage – 202157, partially damage-214202). Among which, Full damage of physical infrastructure (including Government Buildings, Temples, Educational and Health Institutions and others)-1661, partial-11332; Damage of private houses: full-200546, partial-202870.

Conclusion

Crisis Management is a critical function (Coombs, 2007) and should be handled properly. As Kunwar (2012: 74) suggested activities that the destinations should undertake during the negative event. Despite of being one of the most earthquake prone countries in the world, Nepal seems less prepared for the event. Government of Nepal, however, in different period of time has signed and committed different pacts, treaty and agreements between other countries and organizations globally with an intention to reduce the risk of disaster- (DRR- Disaster Risk Reduction). Nepal faced a disastrous earthquake; 7.8 Richter scale which destroyed some 500,000 houses

destroyed and 300,000 partially damaged displacing more than 100,000 people and a million lost their employment. The government has recorded 8,219 deaths and over 17,866 people injured, 4.2 million people have been affected and 2.8 million people had been displaced (Nepal Disaster Management Reference Handbook, 2015). Health, Education, Economy, Cultural Heritages, Food and Nutrition, Tourism and other productive sectors are damaged due to earthquake and are mostly affected on the 14 districts of Nepal, including Gorkha, Dhading, Rasuwa, Sindhupalchok, Kavre, Nuwakot, Dolakha, Kathmandu, Lalitpur, Bhaktapur, Ramechhap, Sindhuli, Okhaldhunga and Makwanpur (National Planning Commission, 2015b).

Aftermath the earthquake, the total impact on the tourism sector alone is estimated as NPR 81.24 billion (USD 8.2 million). More than 50% of existing private infrastructure was lost (hotels, home stays, travel/trekking agencies), while the destruction of major buildings at heritage sites also represents a significant loss to public infrastructure. Several UNESCO World Heritage Sites and famous trekking routes were extensively damaged or destroyed, including temples and monasteries that are flagship destinations in Kathmandu, Lalitpur, and Bhaktapur, tourism infrastructure such as hotels, resorts, restaurants, and shops, and diverse tourism-related enterprises (IRIS, 2015). Many International organizations are helping Nepal to cope the crisis situation aftermath the event. They are basically concentrated in the sectors of health and sanitation, rehabilitation, renovation and rebuilding, as well as economic upgrade of the nation.

Acknowledgement

I would like to express my sincere thank to Prof. Dr. Ramesh Raj Kunwar, Tourism Educationist and Anthropologist, Former Dean of Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences for his continuous guidance and support. I would also like to thank all of my family members for their cooperation.

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Impact of the Great Earthquake-2015 on Hospitality Industry of Nepal

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Abstract

Hospitality organizations face a serious threat from disasters, with only few of these firms engaged in planning for effective disaster management. Nepal has a high risk profile for natural disasters; and it was struck by the great earthquake on April 25th, 2015 which was followed by 400-plus aftershocks creating havoc mostly in the eastern, central and western part of the country. This article aims to present some insight on the impact of the earthquake in the hospitality sector. Secondary data available from various reports, newspaper articles, government reports, and studies conducted by individuals and different organizations have been taken into account while preparing this article. Some people associated with hotels of different category from different locations were also interviewed to get in-depth views on the effects of the natural calamity. The damages and losses caused by the earthquake have engulfed most of the tourism-related organizations and activities. This has subsequently made the concerned stakeholders – regardless of their size and scope of operation – to rethink about their strategy for disaster preparedness. After studying the extent of the same, all hospitality firms are encouraged to prioritize the need and to engage in practice for disaster and crisis management.

Keywords: Earthquake, Nepal, hotel industry, disaster preparedness

Introduction

Worldwide, the hospitality industry is facing increasing rates of disasters resulting from both naturally occurring disasters, such as the 2010 earthquake devastation in Haiti or the 2011 tsunami in Japan, and man-made disasters such as terrorist attacks in the likes of 2008 attack on the hotels in Mumbai, India and the September 11th, 2001 terrorist attacks in the United States. British security personnel, as well as hospitality industry leaders, faced monumental security challenges in their successful efforts to avoid any major crisis situations or disasters during the 2012 Summer Olympics. While many disasters occur either locally or regionally, their impacts are

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often felt over a much larger region than that in which the disaster occurred and may even be felt on a global scale; thus, magnifying the importance of the hospitality industry's ability to manage and recover from disaster situations. Similarly, many hospitality firms recognize that disaster planning is important; however such planning is still too often a neglected part of a firm's management actions. As a result, many hospitality firms are still at a low level of disaster preparedness (Gruman, Chhinzer & Smith, 2011; McCool, 2012; Racheria & Hu, 2009; Soraghan, 2009).

Natural Disasters and Tourism

Natural disasters are a basic part of the workings of nature and therefore, will always be with human beings and other species. Nature forces occur just about everywhere, from rural towns to metropolitan cities. It is difficult for mankind to escape contact with natural forces because the human population continues to grow. Therefore there are increasing numbers of people who are forced to inhabit areas susceptible to disasters. Natural forces do not discriminate in terms of where they strike and how much destruction they cause. Each one is powerful in its own right. With all of the human technology that exists today, scientists are only able to monitor conditions in an attempt to predict the occurrence of natural forces and its intensity. The violent forces of nature have been part of this world long before the arrival of mankind. These forces helped shape the history of the world and, are nature's way of retaining balance and stability (Beattie, 1992).

Kendrick Frazier (1979) stated in his book, *The Violent Face of Nature – Severe Phenomena and Natural Disasters*, that the powerful forces of nature are not something apart from the natural order of things. They are the natural consequences of a quest for balance, an outgrowth of the need for equilibrium. With the arrival of mankind, natural forces became natural 'disasters' because they began to disrupt the lives of people. Natural forces that take place in uninhabited areas are not disasters. They are in fact just nature's way of maintaining stability. It takes both the presence of humans and a natural force to make a disaster.

When a natural force strikes an area populated by the people and developed with real estate and businesses, it becomes a disaster because there is the potential for great loss in terms of lives and property. Natural disasters are catastrophic events that are likely to outstrip the capacity of societies to manage their impacts (Richardson, March, Lewis & Radel, 2012). While such events are usually limited in their duration, they are nevertheless events on a scale sufficiently significant to cause governments to substantially and often urgently modify their funding and political priorities. The events can have sizeable and long-term negative impacts on the social, economic and ecological environment in the affected areas (Anderson, 1990).

There has been an increasing trend in the communicated cost of natural disasters globally (Munich Re, 1999) and recovery from these disasters can account for a

significant proportion of national economies (Benson & Clay, 2004; Munich Re, 1999). Direct losses include damage to premises, infrastructure, equipment and loss of revenue resulting directly from the event (Cochrane, 2004). Indirect losses, which are difficult to measure, include income loss due to supply chain issues or decreased sales caused by customer income losses (National Research Council, 1999). Rose and Lim (2002) state that business interruption losses are possible even without physical or property damage and can result from interdependencies and flow-on effects between organizations, employees, suppliers and customers. Also, the trajectory of economic trends within business sectors is influenced by disasters (Benson & Clay, 2003). For instance, it is expected that the retail sector suffers loss of revenue while the construction and manufacturing sectors experience a boom in the wake of a disaster (Boarnet, 1997; Tierney & Webb, 2007). It is recognized that factors such as the type of organization and industry sector, the size of the organization and its location contribute to how different organizations and sectors recover from disaster (Kachali et al, 2012).

Tourism is a major sector of the world economy. Shorter working hours, greater individual prosperity, faster and less expensive travel, and the impact of advanced technology has all helped to make the leisure and tourism industry the fastest growing industry in the world. (Edgell, Sr., 1990). Regardless of their reasons for traveling, tourists spend money. Travel and tourism generated US\$7.6 trillion (10% of global GDP) and 277 million jobs (1 in 11 jobs) for the global economy in 2014. Recent years have seen travel & tourism growing at a faster rate than both the wider economy and other significant sectors such as automotive, financial services and health care. International tourist arrivals also have surged, reaching nearly 1.14 billion and visitor spending more than matched that growth. Visitors from emerging economies represented a 46% share of these international arrivals (up from 38% in 2000), proving the growth and increased opportunities for travel from those in these new markets (WTTC, 2015).

In this scenario, natural disasters and tourism are two elements that play significant roles in the world today and will continue in the future. In the past these two elements have intersected and it is likely that they will again in the future (Beattie, 1992).

Separately, natural disasters and tourism conjure up entirely different images. When thinking of tourism, images that come to mind are vacationers, fun, relaxation, sightseeing and beautiful surroundings. Natural disasters, on the other hand, bring to mind images of destruction, death and tragedy. For many people, areas affected by natural disasters do not conjure up images of ideal vacation destinations. It appears that these two elements are on opposite ends of the spectrum and therefore, are mutually exclusive rather than complementary. Often it seems that tourism and the benefits derived from it become 'victims' of natural disasters (Beattie, 1992).

Natural Disasters in Nepal

Nepal, officially known as the Federal Democratic Republic of Nepal, is a landlocked sovereign country located in South Asia. It has an area of 147,181 square kilometers and a population of approximately 27 million. It is located in the Himalayas and bordered to the north by the People's Republic of China, and to the south, east, and west by the Republic of India. Kathmandu is the capital of the country and the most populous city of the country (CBS, 2010).

Nepal is situated on the southern slopes of the Central Himalaya. The country is located between latitudes 26° 22' and 30° 27'N, and longitudes 80° 40' and 88° 12'E. The length of the country is 885km from west to east and its width varies from 145km to 241km with a mean of 193km north-south. About 86% of the total land area is covered by hills and high mountains, and the remaining 14% are the flat lands of the Terai region with less than 300m in elevation. Altitude varies from some 67m above sea level at Kechana Kalan, Jhapa district in the south-eastern Terai, to 8848 meters at the peak of the world's highest mountain Mt Everest, or known as Sagarmatha amongst Nepalese (CBS, 2010).

With its unique geo-physical settings and socio-economic conditions, Nepal is highly vulnerable to disasters. The country is prone to disasters due to a number of factors, both natural and human-induced, including adverse geo-climatic conditions, topographic features, environmental degradation, population growth, urbanization, unsuitable development practices, and so on. As far as the geographic dimension of the country is concerned, five ecological regions of the country exhibit their own specific problems. Due to geographical and other climatic conditions, rugged and steep topography, extreme weather events and fragile geological conditions, the country is regarded as a disaster hotspot because of vulnerability of the population together with regular and frequent occurrences of different natural hazards (MoHA & DPNepal, 2013).

Risk Profile of Nepal

Located in the central of the Himalaya range, Nepal is one of the most disaster prone countries in the world due to its topography and climatic condition. Earthquakes, landslides, floods, fire, thunderbolts are the major causes of disaster events that caused major damaged in the past, weakening the fragile ecosystem of the country. Economic Vulnerability Analysis shows that Nepal exhibits the largest losses due to large exposure at risk and the high level of hazards. As a matter of these phenomena not only cause loss of lives and properties, but also pose severe threats to physical infrastructure, and also disrupt economic development (Nepal Disaster Risk Reduction Portal, 2015a).

The frequently occurring natural disasters and likely zones are mentioned below:

Landslide

Landslide is one of the very common natural hazards in the hilly region of Nepal. Both natural and human factors such as steep slopes, fragile geology, high intensity of rainfall, deforestation, unplanned human settlements are the major causes of landslide. The risk of landslide is further exacerbated by anthropogenic activities like improper land use, encroachment into vulnerable land slopes and unplanned development activities such as construction of roads and irrigation canals without proper protection measures in the vulnerable mountain belt. The hilly districts of Nepal located in the Siwalik, Mahabharat range, Mid-land, and also fore and higher Himalayas are more susceptible to landslide because of steep topography and fragile ecosystem.

Floods

Flood is a common cause of flood in the rainy season in Nepal, and has been most frequent, highly damaging and wide spread natural hazards. It is estimated that more than 6,000 rivers and rivulets are in Nepal flowing from north to south. Among these, snow fed rivers, such as the Koshi, Narayani, Karnali, and Mahakali, are perennial rivers. They originate from the Himalayas and snow capped mountains and pass through the hills to the Terai plains. During the monsoon (June-September), these rivers swell and cause damage to the villages, crops lands, and people and livestock remained within the river basins. Historical data has shown that Nepal witnessed major flood in Tinao basin (1978), Koshi River (1980), Tadi River Basin (1985), Sunkoshi Basin (1987) and devastating cloud burst in Kulekhani area (1993) which alone claimed the lives of 1336 people.

Glacial Lake Outburst Floods (GLOFs)

Glacial lakes are located in the high altitude areas particularly in the foot hill of mountain. The lakes are formed due to damming in by moraines. These lakes contained huge volumes of water melting of glacier may lead to outbreak the lakes, called a glacial lake outburst flood (GLOF) with substantial capacity to cause great damage in downstream. 2,315 glacial lakes have, in total, been identified in Nepal and 14 GLOFs were recorded to have occurred between 1935 and 1991 in Nepal. At this background, 15 glacial lakes are found substantially dangerous in Nepal.

Earthquake

Nepal on a regular interval witnesses earthquake along the major active faults in east-west alignment. Historical data and ongoing seismological studies have clearly indicated that the entire region of Nepal is prone to earthquake and it lies in the active seismic zone V. It is evident that the seismic pattern has geographically divided into three clusters of events; namely western, central and eastern Nepal. It has also pointed out that Siwalik, lesser Himalaya and frontal part of the Higher Himalaya are the most

vulnerable zones. Historical data has shown that the country witnessed three major earthquakes in 20th century namely Bihar-Nepal earthquake (1934), Bajhang earthquake (1980) and Udayapur earthquake (1988). According to Global Report on Disaster Risk, Nepal ranks in 11th position in terms of earthquake risk as earthquakes have often occurred in Nepal.

Fire

Of the total households of the country, nearly 78 percent households are agro-base households. In the rural areas thus, about 86 percent of the population lives in the houses made of earthen wire, stone and wood. In Nepal, houses for residential purpose are developed in cluster basis which are more susceptible to catching fire and spreading over there immediately due to close connectivity especially in the dry season. Wildfire is another cause of natural disaster which usually occurs during dry season, especially in the mid hill areas. In the Terai region, fire, including the wildfire occurs mainly in the dry season.

Drought

Drought is the frequently happening hazard in Nepal. This is mainly caused by uneven and irregular low monsoon rainfall. Some parts of Terai, mid-land and Trans-Himalayan belts of Nepal are prone to drought. The lack of irrigation facilities further exacerbates the effect of drought causing enormous loss of crops production leading to the shortage and insecurity food. The droughts that happened in 1972 and 1979 were the most seriously damaging and harmful to the people, livestock and crops. In 1994 Nepal witnessed the worst drought in its history that affected 35 districts of western hilly and Terai regions.

Avalanche

Avalanches are a rapid movement of snow and debris flowing down through the slope or flanks of mountains. It can be triggered by natural factors like slopes, thickness of snow or human activity. They have the capacity to carry massive masses of snow and associated debris that make them one of the most destructive elements of hazards. The high mountainous region having the rugged and steep slopes topographically is susceptible to avalanche. A number of cases of avalanche with destructive nature have been reported in Nepal. Unexpected Seti River Flood of 5th may, 2012 at Kaski district could be an example of this type of hazard.

Tourism in Nepal

The country profile published by WTTC in 2015 provides details on the performance of tourism sector in Nepal. As per the report, the direct contribution of 'travel and tourism' sector to GDP (Gross Domestic Product) was NPR 83.7 billion (4.3% of total GDP) in 2014, and is forecast to rise by 5.4% in 2015, and to rise by 4.4% per annum, from 2015-2025, to NPR 135.7 billion (4.8% of total GDP) in 2025. Likewise, the total

contribution of travel and tourism to GDP was NPR 171.6 billion (8.9% of GDP) in 2014, and is forecast to rise by 5.8% in 2015, and to rise by 4.5% per annum to NPR 281.5 billion (10.0% of GDP) in 2025.

Similarly, in 2014, travel and tourism directly supported 487,500 jobs (3.5% of total employment). This is expected to rise by 4.0% in 2015, and rise by 3.0% per annum to 681,000 jobs (3.9% of total employment) in 2025. The total contribution of travel and tourism to employment, including jobs indirectly supported by the industry, was 7.5% of total employment (1,059,000 jobs). This is expected to rise by 4.4% in 2015 to 1,105,000 jobs, and rise by 3.1% per annum to 1,494,000 jobs in 2025, or 8.5% of the total (WTTC, 2015).

Visitor exports generated NPR 53.7 billion (25.2% of total exports) in 2014. This is forecast to grow by 1.1% in 2015, and grow by 6.0% per annum, from 2015-2025, to NPR 97.3 billion in 2025 (23.8% of total). Travel and tourism sector investment in 2014 was NPR 15.7 billion, or 3.6% of total investment. It is estimated to rise by 12.0% in 2015, and rise by 5.2% per annum over the next ten years to NPR 29.2 billion in 2025 (4.6% of total) (WTTC, 2015).

The number of tourists visiting Nepal has been targeted to reach 2 million by the year 2020. February, March and April in spring season, and September, October and November in autumn season are deemed to be the most appropriate time to visit Nepal; and it receives the maximum number of its guests in the afore-mentioned months. Monthly tourist arrivals in the years 2013 and 2014 are shown in the table below:

Table 1: Tourist Arrivals by Month in 2013 & 2014

Year	Month												Total
	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	
2013	47,846	67,264	88,697	65,152	52,834	54,599	54,011	68,478	66,755	99,426	75,485	57,069	797,616
2014	70,196	69,009	79,914	80,053	62,558	50,731	46,546	59,761	52,894	80,993	76,305	61,158	790,118

Source: MOCTCA, 2015: 33

Similarly, tourism is one of the main contributors of foreign currency income in Nepal's economy. As per the reports published by Ministry of Culture, Tourism and Civil Aviation (MOCTCA, 2015), Nepal generated NPR 46 billion in foreign exchange earnings in the fiscal year 2013/14, a 21.4% rise in comparison to the previous year, as shown in Table 2. Each visitor had spent on average US\$ 48 daily in 2013/14, compared to US\$ 42.8 in 2012/13. This data highlights an increasing trend in tourism earnings. The first eight months of the current fiscal year, from July 2014 to February 2015, did generate NPR 34 billion. The details on the same after the great earthquake in April 2015 are yet to be published.

Table 2: Gross Foreign Exchange Earnings from Tourism

Fiscal Year	Total Earnings (Net received)			% Change in US\$	Average expenditure per visitor (US\$)*	Average expenditure per visitor per day (US\$)
	NPR (000)	Annual average exchange rate	US\$ (000)			
2012/13	34,210,576	87.66	390,264	2.6	538	42.8
2013/14	46,374,900	98.3	471,769	21.4	597.6	48.0
2014/15*	34,313,300	98.6	348,005	13.6	NA	NA

* Based on eight months of current FY

Source: MOCTCA, 2015: 71 & 74

Nepal's ranking in Global Tourism

In 2014, out of 184 countries affiliated to World Travel and Tourism Council, Nepal ranked in 122nd position in terms of absolute relative importance of travel and tourism's total contribution to GDP. Likewise, it ranked 101st in terms of relative size of contribution to GDP. Nepal is forecast to be 26th nation relative to the growth of travel and tourism sector, while it ranked 72nd in terms of long-term (2015-2025) growth estimate (WTTC, 2015).

Hotels in Nepal

The number of star hotels that stood at 117 between the periods of mid-January 2013 and mid-January 2014 had reached to 118 by mid-January 2015 with addition of one hotel during the same. The number of tourist class hotels except star hotels increased to 957 by mid-January 2015 from 909 of the previous year. Similarly, the number of beds in star hotels reached to 9,554 with increase of 48 beds as compared to preceding year, while the number of beds in tourist class hotels other than the star hotels increased by 1,608 reaching a total of 26,625 by mid-January 2015 (Ministry of Finance, 2015: 157).

Table 3: Contribution to GDP by Hotels and Restaurants

Fiscal Year	2012/13	2013/14R	2014/15P	2014/15P*
Gross Output (NPR millions)	95,080	1,08,943	1,23,683	1,20,639
Gross Output at basic prices	2,525,886	2,857,120	3,146,376	3,094,883
Contribution to Gross Domestic Product in percentage	1.89	1.96	2.09	2.07
Annual Growth Rate of GDP in percentage	5.50	6.77	6.60	3.98
Overall Annual GDP Growth	4.13	5.38	5.00	3.36

R = Revised; P = Preliminary; P* = Preliminary revised after earthquake

Source: CBS, 2015: 315, 325 & 326

Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) publishes National Accounts every year with respect to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of the nation and contribution to it by different sectors of the country. The table above, Table 3, shows the contribution of Hotels and Restaurants sector to the GDP of Nepal. The data provided for the fiscal year 2012/2013 and 2013/14 are actual figures, whereas the estimated figures for the fiscal year 2014/15 have been revised after the great earthquake. Based on the increasing trend of tourism activities and number of tourists in 2014, it had been estimated that this sector would experience a growth of 6.60%, compared to the nation's overall GDP growth rate of 5%. However, the aftermath of the earthquake has forced the growth rate to be estimated at 3.98%; while that of the nation's overall annual GDP growth rate has been revised to 3.36%, instead of the initial forecast of 5% in 2014/15. The report shows that Nepal experienced a growth rate of 5.38% in 2013/14, a improved one over the fiscal year 2012/13. It could be foreseen that decrease in economic activities have been expected after the earthquake.

Impacts of Earthquake-2015

Nepal is the 11th most earthquake-prone country in the world. Ever since the first recorded earthquake of 1255 AD that killed one-third of the population of the Kathmandu Valley and its King, Abhaya Malla, Nepal has experienced a major earthquake every few generations. The last great earthquake of magnitude 8.4 in 1934 AD resulted in more than 10,000 deaths in the Kathmandu Valley. Most of the infrastructure and major heritage sites had to be rebuilt. There have since been earthquakes causing severe human and physical loss in 1980, 1988 and 2011 (NPC, 2015a).

On Saturday, April 25th, 2015 at 11:56 local time, a 7.6 magnitude earthquake as recorded by Nepal's National Seismological Centre (NSC), struck Barpak in the historic district of Gorkha, about 76 km northwest of Kathmandu. Nepal had not faced a natural shock of comparable magnitude for over 80 years.

The catastrophic earthquake was followed by more than 400 aftershocks greater than magnitude 4.0 (as of October 2015 as per National Seismological Centre). Four aftershocks were greater than magnitude 6.0, including one measuring 6.8 which struck 17 days after the first big one with the epicenter near Mount Everest. To date, there have been over 8,790 casualties and 22,300 injuries. It is estimated that the lives of eight million people, almost one-third of the population of Nepal, have been impacted by these earthquakes. Thirty-one of the country's 75 districts have been affected, out of which 14 were declared 'crisis-hit' for the purpose of prioritizing rescue and relief operations; another 17 neighboring districts are partially affected.

The destruction was widespread covering residential and government buildings, heritage sites, schools and health posts, rural roads, bridges, water supply systems, agricultural land, trekking routes, hydropower plants and sports facilities. Rural areas

in the central and western regions were particularly devastated and further isolated due to road damage and obstructions. In the worst hit areas, entire settlements, including popular tourist destinations like Langtang, were swept away by landslides and avalanches triggered by the earthquakes. Due to the weakened, ruptured, and destabilized slopes and surfaces, the vulnerable areas have now become even more susceptible to flooding and landslides that could have occurred during the monsoon.

Hundreds of historical and cultural monuments at least a century old were either destroyed or extensively damaged. Over half a million houses were destroyed. The damage exposed the weaknesses of houses that did not have any seismic-resistant features or were not in accordance with the building codes. The disaster also highlighted aspects of inequities in Nepali society spanning geography, income and gender. Poorer rural areas have been more adversely affected than towns and cities due to their inferior quality of houses. More women and girls died than men and boys, partly because of gendered roles that disproportionately assign indoor chores to women.

The time and day the first earthquake was experienced saved thousands of lives. Being a Saturday, the weekly holiday, schools across Nepal were closed on 25 April. The death toll of young people could have been much higher considering that nearly 7,000 schools were completely or significantly damaged. Similarly, if the earthquake had struck at night, and not in the middle of the day, there would certainly have been greater casualties.

In services, tourism has been adversely affected with every nine in ten planned foreign arrivals cancelled in the aftermath of the quakes which occurred during the first of the two major seasons of the year. The main earthquake and prolonged aftershocks caused damage to seven out of 10 World Heritage sites in the Kathmandu Valley and affected popular trekking routes. Destroyed tourism-related supply of services and decreased tourist spending are likely to lead to a loss of NPR 62 billion over the next two years. Conditional on low or no seismic activity over the coming months, tourism is expected to rebound somewhat by the autumn, and strongly by next spring's climbing season.

Cultural Heritage – Damages and Losses

The earthquake affected about 2,900 structures with a cultural and religious heritage value. The list of damaged or destroyed structures was compiled by Ministry of Culture, Tourism and Civil Aviation (MOCTCA), the Pashupati Area Development Trust (PADT), and the Buddhist Philosophy Promotion and Monastery Development Committee. Major monuments in Kathmandu's seven World Heritage Monument Zones were severely damaged and many collapsed completely. In addition, in more than 20 districts, thousands of private residences built on traditional lines, historic public buildings as well as ancient and recently built temples and monasteries were affected by the earthquakes, 25 percent of which were destroyed completely. The total

damage to tangible heritage is estimated to be at NPR 16.9 billion (US\$ 169 million) (NPC, 2015b).

The baseline information on the size and nature of damage to the buildings, and the effects on its occupants, varies widely. While detailed documentation is available on monuments within the Kathmandu Valley and some major sites in the districts, there is a lack of precise information on the condition of buildings in remote areas. It is estimated that the decline in revenue from ticket sales at monuments within the Kathmandu Valley will amount to losses worth NPR 600 million (US\$ 6 million) over the next 12 months. Places of worship such as temples and monasteries also provide occasions for revenue generation, such as during religious festivals and performances when shrines receive substantial monetary offerings. The preliminary monetary loss was set at 10 percent of the physical damage or close to US\$ 17 million (NPC, 2015b).

Table 4: Summary of Damages and Losses of Cultural Heritage

Subsector	Disaster Effects (NPR Million)			Share of Disaster Effects	
	Damages	Losses	Total	Private/ Community*	Public
Heritages sites in 16 districts	7,875	1,409	9,284	-	9,284
Monasteries & historic structures (older than 100 years)	5,300	530	5,830	5,830	-
Monasteries & historic structures (less than 100 years)	2,835	283	3,118	3,118	-
Temples in remote areas	900	90	990		990
Total	16,910	2,313	19,223	8,948	10,274
*Almost all the monasteries are under community ownership and management					

Source: NPC, 2015b

Cultural Heritage – Recovery Needs

The cost of reconstruction has been calculated at the estimated value of damages plus 20 percent to build back better through the use of high quality building materials and structural improvements for seismic strengthening. The cost of recovery includes the professional services provided by technical experts, capacity building support to the Department of Archaeology (DoA), and support to the preservation of intangible cultural heritage (ICH) by means of specialized training for craftspeople, among others.

It is estimated that the overall cost for recovery needs in all sectors after the great earthquake is NPR 669,505 million or US\$6,695 million. The amount forecast for recovering cultural heritage is calculated at NPR 20,553 million or US\$206 million. This represents a share of 3.1% of the overall amount (NPC, 2015b).

Tourism – Damages and Losses

The overall impact of the earthquake on the tourism sector goes beyond the 14 affected districts, which have suffered significant physical damage to well-known tourism destinations like Chitwan and Pokhara in terms of a sharp fall in the number of tourists. The negative repercussions of the disaster are likely to be translated into a reduced number of tourist arrivals over the next few years, reduction in tourist spending per day from US\$43 to US\$35 (as per industry sources), which would significantly affect revenues. Other nations that have experienced similar disasters have generally taken several years to recover fully with regard to tourist arrivals. It is estimated that the overall impact of the earthquakes on the Nepali tourism industry would be a reduction of about 40 percent on average over the next 12 months, and a 20 percent reduction in the next 12 to 24 months (NPC, 2015b).

According to Post Disaster Needs Assessment (NPC, 2015b), the effects on the sector could be pointed out as follows:

- About NPR 16 billion worth of hotel properties were fully or partially damaged in the affected areas.
- Domestic airline operators reported total monthly income losses to the tune of NPR 400 million for the month following the earthquake.
- Tourist accommodations of different categories were either fully or partially damaged in the Langtang, Gorkha-Manaslu, Khumbu, Charikot, Kalinchok, Jiri, Dhading, and the Rolwaling area. A few hotels in the Kathmandu Valley (including Nagarkot) were damaged extensively, while a majority of hotels developed minor cracks.
- A portion of key tourism monuments and heritage sites were turned to rubble.
- With respect to tourism infrastructure, about 150 km of trekking trails were significantly damaged. Another 200 km require maintenance and repair since access to rural areas is impeded.
- Tourist numbers expected to decline by about 90 percent between May and July 2015.
- A further implication concerned to the loss of jobs and revenue that the sector has provided to the country over the years.

A summary of damages and losses in the tourism sector is shown in Table 5 below. It is notable that apart from the trekking trails maintained by the government and other public organizations/projects, all the other sub-sectors are operated by the private sector; thus the impact of the earthquake has been greater upon the private sector.

Table 5: Summary of Damages and Losses in Tourism Sector

Subsector	Disaster Effects (NPR Million)			Share of Disaster Effects	
	Damages	Losses	Total	Private	Public
Hotels and others	16,295	-	16,295	16,295	-
Homestays	1,720	495	1,720	1,720	-
Eco-lodges	415	-	415	415	-
Trekking trails	426	5,711	6,137	-	6,137
Tour operators	7	4,924	6,137	-	-
Tourism revenues	-	47,013	47,013	47,013	-
Air transport revenues	-	4,720	4,720	4,720	-
Restaurant revenues	-	11	11	11	-
Total	18,863	62,379	81,242	75,105	6,137

Source: NPC, 2015b

Tourism – Human Casualties

Apart from the damages to physical properties and loss of business revenues induced by the great earthquake, there have been human casualties in the tourism sector too. As per the information available on the website of Nepal Disaster Risk Reduction portal (2015d), there have been 111 missing foreigners since the day of the earthquake. Most of them had been trekking in the Langtang region. The Government of Nepal has consolidated a list of 50 foreigners who had been injured during the crisis (Nepal Disaster Risk Reduction portal, 2015c). The list of 70 dead foreign visitors (Nepal Disaster Risk Reduction portal, 2015b) would certainly leave an unwanted but reminiscing memory for the tourism sector. The human casualties were mainly reported in the Langtang region with 18 dead. Hotel Budget Multiplex in Thamel had collapsed during the earthquake taking away life of at least 9 guests; while official record showed 7 foreigners dead in the Everest region.

Tourism – Recovery Needs

The earthquake is likely to have inflicted profound impact on the wider economy and mountain livelihoods unless a number of mitigating initiatives are pursued. These efforts need to target the global tourism market and convince potential visitors to come to Nepal, which will help affected tourism entrepreneurs in rural and urban areas (NPC, 2015b). The table shown below, Table 6, gives details on the recovery needs for the tourism sector as estimated by National Planning Commission (NPC) in the following two years. These figures cover the expenses required from demolition and clearing the debris at damaged sites to reconstruction activities. They also cover

the amount of money required to help various tourism operators to revamp their businesses following the aftermath of the earthquake.

Table 6: Summary of Recovery Needs for Tourism sector

Sub-sectors, activities	Financial Year (NPR million)		Total (NPR million)
	2015-16	2016-17	
Recovery Activities	10,866	5,209	16,075
Demolition and rubble removal	3,018	755	3,773
Promotion campaign costs	2,730	2,520	5,250
Loan rescheduling	5,118	1,934	7,052
Reconstruction Activities	18,571	4,064	22,635
Hotels	15,643	3,911	19,553
Homestays	2,064	-	2,064
Eco-Lodges in Conservation Areas	498	-	498
Trekking trails	358	153	511
Tour Operators Office	8	-	8
Total	29,437	9,273	38,710

Source: NPC, 2015b

Impact of the Earthquake on Hotels of Nepal

According to the Ministry of Culture, Tourism and Civil Aviation (MOCTCA, 2015), 319,284 room nights out of the 523,453 room nights produced by the luxury hotels were sold in 2014. Five-star hotels recorded an average occupancy of 61 percent in 2014, up from 58.85 percent in 2013. There are 10 five-star properties in Nepal, eight in Kathmandu and two in Pokhara. The hotels recorded the highest occupancy rates of 86.33 percent and 73.02 percent in November and October respectively in 2014. Following the October-November season, hotels were busiest during March and April, recording an average occupancy of 72.77 percent and 70.62 percent, respectively. The lowest occupancy was recorded in January (49.78 percent), June (49.21 percent) and July (49.74 percent). Despite the growth in room occupancy last year, Nepal's hotels are foreseen to see a sharp fall in occupancy this year due to the earthquake (eKantipur.com, 2015).

As per news article posted on eKantipur.com by Sangam Prasain, Nepal could lose more than 300,000 tourists this year as a result of the April 25th earthquake and its aftershocks which forced mass departure of tourists and prompted many to change their travel plans. Tourism Ministry spokesman Mr. Mohan Krishna Sapkota had

informed the Parliamentary Development Committee that the country could lose up to 40 percent tourists – 320,000 – year-on-year basis. The country had received nearly 800,000 tourists in 2014. Based on the NPR 46 billion foreign exchange earnings from tourists that year, the country is likely to lose NPR 18 billion this year. The sharp drop in arrivals would also affect livelihood in the mountainous region, particularly among the people who depend on tourism income. Almost all the foreign sightseers had left the country immediately after the earthquake, affecting the business of hundreds of restaurants, hotels and retail stores (Prasain, 2015). Even domestic and international airlines had suffered huge losses following the crisis. The repercussions are estimated to continue at least until 2017. Sapkota had also told the lawmakers that tourist arrivals are projected to shrink 20 percent, both in 2016 and 2017.

Table 7: Preliminary statistics of damages in HAN member & non member hotels

District	No. of Hotels (approx.)	Loss in NPR (approx.)
Kathmandu	300	3 billion
Lalitpur	50	1 billion
Bhaktapur	75	2 billion
Kavre	50	1 billion
Sindupalchowk	100	2 billion
Dolakha	90	2 billion
Rasuwa	100	2 billion
Dhading	100	2 billion
Tanahun	100	200 million
Pokhara	450	No loss reported
Chitwan	200	No loss reported
Lumbini	150	No loss reported

Source: HAN, via email

As per preliminary survey conducted by Hotel Association Nepal (HAN) with the help of different agencies of Government of Nepal, Nepalese hotel sector has sustained losses amounting to more than NPR 15 billion approximately. Hotels in Kathmandu suffered the most with an estimate of NPR 3 billion damages and losses. Hotels in tourist destination such as Pokhara, Chitwan and Lumbini did not report any damages to the physical property due to the great earthquake. The amount of losses sustained by member and non-member hotels of HAN is presented in Table 7.

The intensity of capital investment in land, building and equipment are the causes that hotels have reported such huge amounts of damages and losses, as per Mr. Prabesh

Aryal, Executive Director of HAN. He also stated that the increasing market prices, on-site surveys and detailed report by professional agencies would definitely lead to higher estimates than those stated in the table above.

The above figures are supported by another news article published on eKantipur.com which stated that profitability of hotels would plunge during the current fiscal year. The Soaltee Hotel Limited and Oriental Hotel Limited, which run Crowne Plaza and Radisson brand hotels respectively, posted a slowed revenue growth in the fiscal year 2013/14, largely due to the April 25 earthquake that severely affected business. The downturn was expected to continue in the following fiscal year as demand from business and leisure travelers had plunged since the disaster (eKantipur.com, 2015).

The article also reported that hoteliers are keeping their fingers crossed in the hope that the industry would see a revival in arrivals during the September-November peak tourist season. According to the fourth quarter report of the above two five-star hotels listed on the Nepal Stock Exchange (Nepse), Soaltee Hotel Limited had recorded a net profit of NPR 207.42 million in the fiscal year 2013/14, down 6.49 percent from previous fiscal year. Likewise, Oriental Hotel Limited had recorded a net profit of NPR 198.54 million, down 5.51 percent in comparison to the previous fiscal year.

According to Soaltee Hotel, negative travel advisories issued by a number of source markets, including the fastest growing Chinese market, immediately after the earthquake significantly affected tourist arrivals in the fourth quarter. Due to the dreadful event that prompted a mass departure of tourists, the hotel said that its revenues had dropped by 16 percent during the April-June period year-on-year basis. However, its earnings in operation rose by 3% to NPR 1.39 billion despite the earthquake. The hotel also mentioned that the government and concerned stakeholders in the hospitality industry had been devising various strategies to revive the industry in the aftermath of the earthquake which is expected to lead to a rebound to some extent. It also stated that it would continue its marketing and promotional strategy in various source markets, and would be diversifying and focusing on the meetings, incentives, conferences and exhibitions (MICE) segment to attract more visitors in the coming days.

Meanwhile, Oriental Hotel reported that its earnings in operation dropped by 2.57% to NPR 1.05 billion. It also mentioned that the hotel had taken some time to get back to full operations after the earthquake as it had conducted repair works; which in turn had affected the overall earnings. Oriental Hotel also stated that it had missed its occupancy targets as the tourist arrivals dropped to almost zero for a brief period after the great earthquake (eKantipur.com, 2015).

According to Ms Sinead O'Reilly, General Manager of Hyatt Regency Kathmandu – another five-star rated hotel in Kathmandu – in an interview published on tourismexecutives.com, the property did not sustain any structural damages, and received green sticker from the government to continue operating the hotel

(Pradhananga, 2015). She also mentioned that the period after the earthquake had been slow in terms of business, with cancellations and visitors shortening their stay with the continuous aftershocks and rumors of even greater devastation. At being asked whether she felt safe staying in Nepal, she had replied that being a foreigner with two young daughters, she would not have stayed back here in Kathmandu if she would not have been confident enough about the safety of the hotel's physical structure. She also highlighted the fact that the hotel being operated by an international chain, there are safety and security procedures and plans in practice for various cases of emergencies. The staffs were able to implement the detailed procedures on April 25th, thus there was not much panic in the hotel that day.

The Everest Hotel, another five-star category hotel in New Baneshwor, Kathmandu survived the earthquake on April 25th, 2015. However, according to Mr. Prahlad Kunwar, the General Manager of the hotel, the aftershock of May 12th of 6.8 magnitude affected the physical structure with four columns damaged in the lobby area. Thus, it received 'red' sticker for structural damages and was subsequently shut down. Until then, it had 62 % and 56% occupancy in April and May respectively, compared to 60% and 56% during the same months in 2014. The hotel had estimated 82% occupancy for the month of June, which was all cancelled after the closure. There were no injuries to guests or staff; the safety procedures were followed by the employees as devised by the hotel. The hotel is estimated to come into operation in September 2016 after the completion of renovation works.

Hotel Shanker, a four-star category hotel located in Lazimpat, Kathmandu, sustained 10% damage to the physical property and suffered cancellation of 80% bookings after the earthquake, according to Ms Prina Shrestha, Executive Manager. She also mentioned that renovation had started and the hotel is currently operating with 40 guestrooms (out of 94).

Similarly, another famous and iconic property in Thamel area, Kathmandu Guest House, mentioned that the estimated cost of renovation after the earthquake would amount to NPR 30 million, with three months required to complete renovation works. It suffered a damage of 25% to the property, specifically in its old building that housed Heritage wing. Forty guestrooms, out of 139, have been on 'out of order' status since the disaster. The occupancy has remained on an average of 20% in the months of May to July 2015 with an expected increase to 60% occupancy in the month of August.

Mr. Hemanta Pokhrel, Front Desk Executive at Hotel Yurkhang, Thamel mentioned that the hotel is running at an occupancy level of below 5% after the earthquake, compared to above 50% during the same time period in 2014. According to him, one guest also suffered a minor injury during the disaster. Minor renovation has already been completed in July, with the cost amounting to almost NPR 1 million.

Hotel Pacific at Jyatha, Kantipath suffered a major loss, as 50% of its 32 rooms were damaged during the earthquake. After spending almost NPR 700 thousand, the

hotel had 40% occupancy in the month of August. In August 2014, the hotel was operating at 80% occupancy, as per Mr. Suman Shrestha, Managing Director of the hotel. This shows that it had lost 50% of the business after the earthquake. Likewise, in the months of May and June, only 2% occupancy was recorded compared to 70% occupancy in the same period in 2014.

Another hospitality property, Kathmandu Beijing Hotel at Jyatha, Thamel, is almost without any guests since the earthquake. As per Mr. Sushil of the hotel, most of the hotel's clients are business people; thus the closure of border points with China had led to all the guests flying back to their hometown. However, he also stated that the guests have promised to come back as soon as everything comes back to normal.

Royal Singi Hotel (2015), located at Durbar Marg, Kathmandu had immediately closed down after the earthquake. The hotel had the following message posted on its website (<http://royalsingi.com/>)

“Dear Industry & Business Partners, Friends, Families and Guests,

Our sincere gratitude for all your prayers, well wishes and support over the last few weeks since the closure of the hotel due to the unfortunate earthquakes. We would like to inform you that the repairs of the hotel are underway with strong pace and we are now pursuing to be open for operations as of Friday, September 25th, 2015.

We are confident that the nation is taking every measure to increase the safety of our citizens and guests. It gives us great pleasure to inform you that several countries have already either lifted their travel advisories or reduced the risk level. So for those of you who wish to visit Nepal again, thought of trekking one of the mountains in the Himalayan ranges or have us on your bucket list, please do visit our beautiful country where the hearts of the people are as strong and warmly welcoming as their determination to rise up as One Nation.

Namaste,

Royal Singi Hotel Management.”

As of now, Royal Singi Hotel has reopened with more determination to provide better service with safer infrastructure.

Hotel Budget Multiplex in Thamel suffered a major devastation during the earthquake as the building had collapsed, killing all of the in house guests and staff. The Nepal Disaster Risk Reduction portal has mentioned that nine foreigners were dead who were staying in that hotel (2015b). The video of the building falling down could also be viewed on online video sharing website, youtube.com.

Situation of Thamel: The Tourist Hub

Likewise, Research Management Cell of PATA Nepal Chapter prepared a report on 'Tourism in Thamel' after the earthquake, concentrating in Thamel, one of the famous tourist destinations within Kathmandu Valley. The report mentions that Thamel area was least affected by the quake in terms of physical and infrastructural damages, but the businesses in the area got affected economically. According to the survey, it was found that majority of the respondents (77.6 percent) stated 'financial loss due to loss of customers in shop/business' as the major impact of the earthquake. Similarly, 10.3 percent of the respondents had 'loss of guests', followed by 6.9 percent who had 'loss of relatives'. 4.3 percent stated there was 'loss of job in tourism industry', followed by 3.4 percent who suffered with 'injury' (Dahal, 2015: 25).

Similarly, 58.7 percent of the total respondents had stated that they had lost '76 to 100 percent' in business (due to cancellations), 30.2 percent had 'less than 25 percent' cancellation, followed by 41.3 percent who had '26 to 50 percent' cancelled bookings (Dahal, 2015: 26).

Likewise, with regards to the impact of the EQ on respondent's organization finances, the survey reports that that most of the businesses suffered financially; while 63.1 percent of the respondents stated that the overall impact of the EQ on their revenues was 'very negative', followed by 32.0 percent who stated the impact to be 'negative', and lastly, 4.9 percent of the respondents stated 'neither negative nor positive' (Dahal, 2015: 32).

Tourist Arrivals in Chitwan

Table 8: Visitors in Chitwan

	Baishakh (Apr/May)	Jestha (May/Jun)	Ashadh (Jun/Jul)	Shrawan (Jul/Aug)	Bhadra (Aug/Sep)	Ashwin (Sep/Oct)
2071/72 (2013/14)	NA	NA	NA	NA	10,661	20,957
2072/73 (2014/15)	10,530	1,592	1,594	2,690	2,179	4,506

Source: Poudel, 2015

Though hotels in Chitwan did not report any physical damages (Table 8), they did experience a downfall in number of visitors following the devastation of the great earthquake. According to an article published on Nagariknews.com by Ramesh Kumar Poudel (2015), the month of Baisakh (April/May), when the earthquake had occurred, saw 10,530 visitors coming to Chitwan; however it was followed by 1592, 1594, 2690, 2179 and 4506 tourists in the following five months of the Nepali calendar (May to September). On average, Mr. Poudel reported that Chitwan received 10,000 visitors every month in previous years. In 2014, Chitwan National Park had earned as much

as NPR 240 million in entrance fees, from 178,000 visitors. The month of Ashwin, which saw 4,506 tourists in Chitwan this year, had accommodated 20,957 guests last year. This shows significant drop of 80% in number of visitors to Chitwan, which would lead to significant decrease in entry fee earnings of Chitwan National Park, as well as revenue from business of tourism operators in the region.

Maruni Sanctuary Lodge in Chitwan, operated by Kathmandu Guest House, mentioned that it is running at an occupancy level between 5 to 10% since the earthquake, though the natural disaster did not affect any of the buildings of the hotel. In 2014, the hotel had 50% occupancy in the month of April, followed by 25% in the months of May, June and July. The hotel had operated at 90% occupancy in the month of August 2014.

In the same scenario, hotels in Pokhara also suffered with guests leaving before the slated departure dates, as well as declining number of tourist arrivals. Pokhara is one of main tourist destinations of Nepal. Ms Shirish Gurung, Managing Director at Hotel Didi, had been very optimistic with increasing trend of hotel bookings in her hotel, as well as other hotels of Pokhara in general, for the upcoming tourist season. Pokhara had not suffered any damages or losses caused by the earthquake, except that the tremors were felt by the residents; however the earthquake became the reason for reduced business revenue.

Similarly, Hotel Lumbini Garden New Crystal in Lumbini has reported that the hotel is operating at an occupancy level below 5% since April 2015 till date, with all of its 72 guestrooms in operation. As per Mr. Avyudaya Ratna Sthapit, Executive Director, 70% of the bookings were cancelled after the earthquake, even though there had been no damage reported in Lumbini, the birthplace of Lord Gautam Buddha.

The consequence of lesser tourists visiting Nepal has directly affected even those areas not devastated by the earthquake, such as Pokhara, Chitwan and Lumbini.

Role of Hotel Association Nepal (HAN)

Immediately after the great earthquake, HAN had arranged for Emergency Executive Committee Meeting. According to Mr. Prabesh Aryal, Executive Director of HAN, it was decided to form following three committees to be headed by Past Presidents.

- Tourist Help Desk for Committee under the Chairmanship of Mr. Yogendra Sakya that would collect tourist information (missing & whereabouts) and hand over to the Government of Nepal
- Insurance, Banking, Finance Related Committee under the Chairmanship of Mr. Prakash Shrestha
- Hotel Infrastructure and Employee and Families Loss Assessment Committee under the Chairmanship of Mr. Prasadha B. Panday

Mr. Aryal also informed that 'HAN Earthquake Relief Fund' was established under the Chairmanship of Mr. Shyam S.L. Kakshapati and it was requested to all HAN member hotels and institutions to contribute to the fund. The money collected was handed over to Prime Minister's Disaster Relief Fund later. The Committee also distributed biscuits and drinking water to the tourists at Tribhuvan International Airport (TIA). It also distributed relief materials like tents and blankets in Nagarkot to 250 earthquake victim families. Tents, food items and medicines were also handed over to 600 earthquake victim families in Boch VDC of Dolakha District.

'Hotel Infrastructure and Employee and Families Loss Assessment Committee's objectives were to be involved in endeavors to support and expedite government's rescue mission to the victims of devastating earthquake. The committee had immediately started collecting the data of human and property loss in member hotels. The Committee had decided to provide national and international experts for assessment of the damages after receiving details from HAN Members.

Similarly, 'Insurance, Banking and Finance Related Committee' was designated to coordinate hotels with the financial institutions like banks and insurance companies. It had collected information about HAN members' tentative loss by the earthquake, the respective names of their insurance companies and financial institutions. The Committee also collected grievances related to banking and insurance issues from member hotels and met with Chairman of Insurance Board Nepal, Chief Secretary of the Government of Nepal, Governor of Nepal Rastra Bank and officials of Bankers Association Nepal; and brief them about the losses in the hotel industry and requested them to initiate relief packages for the revival of tourism industry. The Committee also facilitated an interaction program between house owners/landlord and hotels operators on rental concession for some time considering the meager tourist arrival in the post earthquake situation.

HAN and National Society for Earthquake Technology (NSET)

From the disaster risk management perspectives, private sector entities have two-fold role in building resilience in their businesses and contributing as a part of corporate social responsibility in enhancing community resilience (NSET, 2014a). In this regard, HAN signed a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) with NSET to work together for disaster resiliency of hotel industry in Nepal (NSET, 2014a & 2014b).

Mr. B.K Shrestha, President of HAN and Dr. Amod Mani Dixit, Executive Director of NSET had signed the MOU. Mr. Shrestha had appreciated the initiation taken by NSET for collaborating with HAN, and for its active involvement towards disaster risk reduction of hotel industry in Nepal. He had also briefed that HAN would extend its cooperation in every aspect of Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) and would like to work with Government of Nepal, NSET and all concerned stakeholders on making the hotel industry disaster resilient and leave a positive message to the tourists coming from around the world.

Dr. Amod Mani Dixit also highlighted the role of private sector in earthquake risk management, and the need for the private sector to make their family and their business safer through the development and implementation of Business Continuity Plan. He had pointed out the importance of the hotel industry and its contribution to the national economy – thus the necessity of this industry on being safer against any kind of disaster. He had rolled out plans to work with HAN in future to implement Hotel Sector Earthquake Safety Program with the objective of making the hotel sector well-prepared and that, all stakeholders are able to continue their business activities uninterrupted even after a disaster.

A half-day interactive presentation session program was also jointly organized by HAN and NSET under Public Private Partnership for Earthquake Risk Management (3PERM) Program to enhance the disaster resiliency of Nepal's tourism industry, especially the hotel sector – which is considered to be a major stakeholder of national economy and, to have had the highest local private sector investment in Nepal with the recorded investment of around NPR 100 billion (NSET, 2014a).

Following such agreements with HAN, NSET had conducted specific training courses such as Light Search and Rescue (LSAR), Basic Emergency Medical Response (BEMR), Damage Assessment Training (DAT) and Non-Structural Mitigation (NSM) from October 14th to 17th, 2014 (NSET, 2014c). A total of 25 participants representing different hotels in Kathmandu had participated in the program.

Similarly, HAN Kanchanpur Chapter had also organized a half-day discourse on November 2nd, 2014 which focused on 'Earthquake Risk of Nepal & Need for Preparedness of Hotel Industry'. It was requested to all the existing hotel and guest house owners to act immediately on necessary disaster preparedness of the hotel sector (NSET, 2014d).

Disaster Preparedness

Every year, Nepal celebrates 'Earthquake Safety Day' on Magh 2nd (mid-January), the day of the Great Earthquake in 1990 BS (1934 AD). That earthquake had produced strong shaking in Kathmandu Valley and, destroyed 20 percent and damaged 40 percent of the valley's building stock. Many of the temples in Bhaktapur were also destroyed (NSET & GHI, 1998: 8).

NSET & GHI (1998) had published a report entitled 'The Kathmandu Valley Earthquake Risk Management Action Plan' which had a simple loss estimation study conducted for Kathmandu Valley. It had revealed that if the 1934AD earthquake shaking were to occur in modern day Kathmandu Valley, it was quite reasonable to assume that 60 percent of all buildings in the valley would likely be damaged heavily, many beyond repair; almost half the bridges in the valley would be impassable; 10% or paved roads would have moderate damage; many narrow streets would have been blocked by debris from damaged buildings; the only international airport, Tribhuvan

International Airport, would have been isolated from the rest of the valley; 95% of water pipes and 50% of other water system components would have been damaged seriously; almost 40% electric lines would likely be damaged and all these services would require at least one year to come into operation after repair.

Likewise, there would have been an estimated 22,000 deaths and 25,000 injuries requiring hospitalization; with increased estimated figures of 40,000 and 95,000 casualties respectively. An additional 600,000 to 900,000 residents of Kathmandu Valley were expected to be left homeless by the earthquake, due to either damaged buildings or the fear of being in their homes. And there would have been a major shortage of space for medical treatment in the valley (NSET & GHI, 1998: 9-10).

However, knowing the above data being published in 1998 – almost 20 years beforehand – deaths of almost nine thousand people and damages to 14 districts of the country showed that Nepalese were not fully prepared for such a natural calamity. As mentioned previously, the combination of natural forces and human settlements are the elements of natural disasters. Thus, such settlements and the inhabitants suffer the most during such crisis.

In terms of disaster preparedness, Ms O'Reilly had mentioned that Hyatt Regency Kathmandu was proactive about any case of emergency with detailed safety procedures and contingency plans. With ample space available for shelter, and the tennis court designated as the assembly area, the hotel had also kept containers with emergency essentials at different locations within the hotel premises. She also highlighted about the team effort of the staff for practice of safety procedures during training sessions and implementation of the same on the actual day of the disaster proved to be successful to avoid any kind of unwanted event. She also stated that the guests and staff were all safe as a result of such safety procedures being in place and the ability of the staff to follow them at the time of disaster (Pradhananga, 2015).

Mr Kunwar had also specifically pointed out the safety procedures devised by Everest Hotel were sufficient and up-to-date for incidents of large magnitude, just like the earthquake of April 25th, 2015. He also considers that it was the reason for none of the guests or staff being injured on that particular day. Ms Shrestha admitted that the safety procedure at Hotel Shanker were not enough to cover the incidents during and after the earthquake. She mentioned that more detailed safety procedures are being discussed and planned to be in practice soon at her hotel. Other hotels had raised the necessity for more training and practice of the safety procedures, so that the employees are better prepared for such natural calamities in the future.

Similarly, the survey conducted by PATA Nepal showed that only 6.9 percent of the respondents from Thamel were prepared for such quakes. On the other hand, 52 percent of the respondents were 'unprepared' for such quakes and aftershocks, followed by 30.4 percent who were 'very unprepared'. From the research, it was evident that

only 2.9 percent were 'very prepared' of such quakes. Similarly, 7.8 percent were 'neither prepared nor unprepared' for such situations. 12.1 percent did not respond to this question (Dahal, 2015: 28).

Crucial factors in organizations' survival in a time of disaster are effective and efficient preparation in advance of the disaster; a speedy response to the situation that occurs; and strategic recovery following the disaster. Today, as never before in the history of the hospitality industry, all industry organizations have an indisputable responsibility for the safety, health and welfare of their guests, as well as their employees (McCool, 2012). Thus, it is imperative that hospitality businesses are proactive in their approach to crisis and disaster management. Such organizations have written disaster management strategies and plans, along with a well-trained staff and persons in leadership roles who are knowledgeable about effective disaster management. While the importance of such preparedness is recognized throughout the hospitality industry, the need for guidance on the preparation and effective implementation of disaster management plans still remains.

In a study conducted by UNISDR, PATA and GIDRM (2015: 23) it was found that risk management strategies in small hotels tend to be designed based on the experience of the upper management. It was also mentioned by some small hotel representatives that they do not have the support of a 'head office' to guide them in the direction of best practices and to provide specialist advice. Whereas, those interviewed during the study had noted that chain hotels have thorough systems, processes and requirements in place for disaster risk management that are audited on a regular basis. It was also found that corporate support was provided to chain hotels, which included assisting hotels during disasters, crisis management software, provision of experts when necessary and the standards, policies and protocols developed on behalf of hotels (p. 24).

The same report also identified the importance of working alongside the government agencies that play a role in disaster risk management if any disaster risk reduction measures are to make a difference. This is due to the importance of these agencies in addressing risks such as road access, planting trees to prevent landslides, early warning systems, in communicating changing risks and in response (p. 24). The importance of training to ensure that staff are prepared for disasters and are confident of what to do in an emergency situation is also emphasized in the study (p. 25).

Conclusion

Dramatic fluctuations in tourist arrivals after the great earthquake have made Nepal's tourism sector vulnerable to uncertainty in many ways. Nine in ten planned foreign arrivals were cancelled in the aftermath of the quakes which occurred during the first of the two major seasons of the year. The main earthquake and prolonged aftershocks caused damage to seven out of 10 World Heritage sites in the Kathmandu

Valley and affected popular trekking routes. Destroyed tourism-related supply of services and decreased tourist spending could lead to a loss of NPR 62 billion over the next two years. Within the same scenario, Nepalese hotels have suffered a lot too with NPR 16,295 million estimated in damages and losses. The consequence of lesser tourists visiting Nepal has directly affected not only hotels in Kathmandu, but even those hotels that are located in areas not devastated by the earthquake too, such as Pokhara, Chitwan and Lumbini. There has been a significant decrease in occupancy level of the hotels as compared to same timeframe of previous years.

A hotel collapsed in a well-known tourist area in Kathmandu, while a five-star category rated hotel had to be shut down due to damage to its physical structure. Some have resumed operations after repair and renovation; however, most of the hotels are yet to achieve the targeted occupancy level on par with those of yesteryears. Nepalese hotels still lack preparedness in terms of disaster management and risk reduction. Learning from the experiences of the earthquake and post-earthquake events, they should be able to develop better safety procedures; with initiative taken by hotel owners and/or management, and involvement of the staff. Government of Nepal and Hotel Association Nepal should coordinate the rebuilding process of the hotel industry along with the assistance of various stakeholders of tourism sector.

Globally, visitors from emerging economies represented a 46% share of these international arrivals that showed growth and increased opportunities for travel from those in these new markets. This should be a source of hope and encouragement for Nepalese hotels. However, as rightly mentioned by Kachali et al (2012), post-disaster recovery is a complex economical, political, social and physical process. Recovery is not just about rebuilding infrastructure, it should also be used to plan for future economic growth. Nepal's hotel sector should materialize the goals to achieve more visitors as soon as possible along with better plans and strategy for disaster preparedness.

Acknowledgement

I would like to thank Prof. Dr. Ramesh Raj Kunwar for providing me this opportunity and his continuous guidance; MIMT faculty members for their support; my family for believing in me; and lastly, the management and colleagues at IST for their cooperation.

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Book Review

Drishti Bhattarai*

Book Title: Restoring Tourism Destination in Crisis

Author: David Beirman

Publisher: Wallingford, UK: CABI Publishing, 2003. Pp. 3 – 264

Year of Publication: 2003

ISBN No: 0 85199 729 5

Tourism Industry is one of the leading industries of the world. According to World Travel and Tourism Council, the total contribution of travel and tourism to GDP was US\$ 6,990.3 billion in 2013, and the total employment generated from this industry was 8.9% of total employment (265,855,000 jobs). This level of dependence on tourism industry is ample.

No matter whether it's developed or developing nation, whenever crisis hit the nation it is one of the biggest challenge ever encountered to revive tourism and development back on track. Any crisis disrupts the existing status of economy bringing pause to the development of the country. Not a single country has been free from the chains of terrorism, conflict, war, natural disasters or any other crisis. The degree and level of conflict might vary according to countries, but the overall outcome of these sorts of events hamper the progressive nature of the country.

This review presents the scenario of crisis faced by different countries from political turbulence to natural disaster to combination of crises and their attempt to restore and revive the 'crisis-hit' tourism industry.

United States: September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks

United States is one of the most famous touristic destinations of the world. In 2000, some 50.9 million tourists entered the United States, which generated US\$103 billion in revenue. Prior to September 11, 2001, the territory of US had been free of major threats to tourists. The attacks against the World Trade Center in New York, Pentagon in Washington D.C. and Pennsylvania on the morning of September 11, when American Airlines were hijacked and diverted en-route from Boston to Los Angeles. 2,950 people were killed in World Trade Center, 189 were killed in Pentagon and 44 were killed in Pittsburgh according to New York Officials, the Defense

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Department, American Airlines and United Airlines. The US and global tourism industries faced a severe marketing challenge following September 11 attacks. These incidents made a blanket media coverage as New York and Washington have the world's largest media organizations like CNN, ABC, NBC and CBS. According to US Department of Commerce Office of travel and tourism industries, inbound tourists' number dropped by 11% in 2001.

In order to respond this situation the government of US, which illustrated below, adopted crisis-marketing approaches:

- 'Sales-orientated' Approach was undertaken.
- To establish an international marketing crisis team to ensure that the interests of tourism industry are effectively met.
- Develop a global marketing strategy to promote tourism as a path to peace and reconciliation.
- Review the current status of travel insurance coverage for international travellers.
- Mayor of New York City pleaded to all American and International visitors to visit the city by staying and spending for solidarity tourism.
- Local tourism authorities did a great deal to entice tourists.
- Marketing appeal was directed towards Americans based on solidarity and patriotism.
- Hotel industries offer lower price range to lure tourists.
- Websites of New York City included promotions of restaurants, hotels and other attractions.
- Active campaign was launched to host American and foreign travel writers to see the city for themselves.
- Internet is one of the major communicating tools.
- Hoteliers, conference venues, tour operators had focused highly on tourist safety and security.
- Subsidies and tax reductions to tourism and hospitality industry

Through adoption of these measures, US was able to reduce the negative impact of crisis and restore tourism industry. US being one of the major touristic destination and powerful nation faced a downturn in number of tourists due to the attacks on New York City and Washington D.C., which had global ramification in the tourism industry worldwide.

One of the major sources of foreign exchange earning in Egypt is through tourism and travel industry. From 1992-1997, various factions within Islamist group targeted the most vulnerable sector of the Egyptian economy, tourism, as revenge towards the

government. On top of that with 1997 Luxor Massacre, where 58 tourists were killed, was one of the worst massacres experienced by tourism in Egypt. This had created negative image in the eyes of tourists of the major source markets whose primarily concern was safety and security.

To revive tourism in a crisis is one of the biggest challenges for the country. The Egyptian government to bring economy back on track, which was highly dependent upon tourism industry, adopted various post-massacre tourism-marketing approaches. Foreign exchange earnings from tourism industry were 24.4%, which was a rough estimation due to no record of various other economic activities performed in the country. This heavy dependency on tourism industry shows that significant measures need to be adopted in a strong manner to recover from the crisis. Various strategic approach adopted by Egypt can be highlighted below:

- Egyptian Tourist Authority and EgyptAir worked closely to attract tourists.
- Heavily discounted packages to travel to Egypt were offered.
- Overall improvement of internal security in all major destinations.
- Joint Marketing with travel industry of other nearby country, Israel, Jordan, PA, to promote the flow of people to touristic destination of Egypt.
- Joint Travel industry promotion began towards regionalization of travel industry marketing.
- Misr Travel, inaugurated a series of successful joint product seminars in all major Australian cities.
- Pricing was also one of the approach adopted to attract the tourists.
- Promotion as a pilgrimage destination for commemorating Christianity's bi-millennium
- Prevalence of strong synergy between public and private sector of Egypt's tourism industry
- When foreign countries issued travel advisories warning their citizens from traveling to Egypt, they adopted remedial measures to encourage early revocation by viewing these advisories positively.

To revive tourism industry from a crisis, country needs to be strong and adopt a strong measure. In case of Egypt, it adopted centralized and focused recovery program, which was the reason behind a successful recovery.

The growth of tourism industry in Israel has been subject to frequent interruptions due to external threats and internal inter-communal violence between Israel and Palestinian Authority. With the assassination of Israel's Prime Minister in 1995, tourism to Israel as well as Palestinian Authority suffered heavily due to never-ending conflict. In 2000, Israeli Prime Minister and Palestinian Authority were seeking resolution for

final peace agreement, but differences between parties made it a failure. Under the Clinton administration, Israel put forward an offer to Palestinian Authority, to withdraw 95% of West Bank and all of Gaza and shared sovereignty in Jerusalem, which was rejected by Yasser Arafat. This gave birth to another level of conflict. All of these crises decreased the number of tourists arriving to Israel by 55%, whereas for Palestinian Authority it decreased at the rate of 90- 95%.

Unlike in Egypt, Israel government did not adopt a strong measure when foreign countries, USA, Europe and Asian, issued travel advisories to defer their citizens from traveling to Israel. Some travel insurance companies either restricted or denied the coverage of insurance for the tourists. Israel is one of the world's most popular international tourist destinations for high level of seminar, workshops and conferences conducted. But the ongoing conflict decreased the trend of such market. In the aftermath of such crisis, the major post-crisis strategic approach adopted by Israel Ministry of Tourism to tackle with the challenges of blanket media coverage depicting outbreak of terrorism in Israel and Palestinian Authority as Middle east crisis or as a 'war zone' was handled through these various listed approaches:

- Adoption of Isolation Marketing Strategy made tourists aware of the specific troubleshooter places, apart from others.
- Precision Marketing of resort areas as specific destination met with relative success in northern Europe and Japanese source markets.
- Website of tourism industry was updated.
- Good relations with foreign ministries were maintained.
- Agents and media were involved in Post-crisis marketing strategy.
- Tourism ministry called its PR Specialists to map a strategy for marketing Israel.
- Eastern Mediterranean Tourism Association ran a series of seminars for push marketing campaign to large number of travel industry professionals.
- Europe is one of the major source markets of Israel. The media houses of Europe were paid for advertisement they made about Israel.
- Israel hosted selected media on the involvement of promotion of tourism in Israel.
- Active, organized Jewish Community encouraged its member from many countries to visit Israel.

When the tourism industry of many countries around the globe was affected by September 11, 2001 attack on New York City and Pentagon, Israel remained unaffected. Limited coordination between public and private sector of Israel created difficulty to revive tourism.

Twenty-nine years long, civil war in Sri Lanka ended with the victory of SriLankan Government over the Liberation of Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE). However, these years left the tourism industry of Sri Lanka in despair. SriLanka is the home to thousands of Buddhists followers. It has religiously and culturally diverse population. In 2001, Colombo International Airport was attacked by Tamil Tigers, which destroyed the aircraft and killed many people, including some tourists. This terrorist attack hurdled the long-term recovery process. One of the major attack against tourists was in 2001, when terrorist attacks destroyed five star Hotel Ceylon InterContinental and Galadari Hotel. However, late 1990s and 2001 saw success in rebuilding Sri Lanka tourism industry. The strategic approach adopted by Sri Lanka Ministry of Tourism to revive the twenty years long tourism industry which was destroyed in the civil war between Sri Lankan government and Tamil Tigers include:

- Highly professional image to depict country as a safe zone
- Foreign investment policies were made attractive enough to lure private investors in hotel and tourist resorts.
- Changes was made in the operation of National carrier, so that it would make Sri Lanka an attractive and feasible stopover.
- Low labor costs ensured that high quality services could be offered to travelers at competitive prices.
- Offered range of new routes of travel to and from Sri Lankan
- Ceylon tourism board had been granted US\$1.2 Million for marketing and promotion of Sri Lanka. Their major responsibilities include destination marketing and promotion, market research, establishment and enforcement of trade standards for hotels, tour guides and attractions, website updates which includes comprehensive destination information and up-to-date statistical and contact information.
- Sri Lankan airlines offered promotional material on Sri Lanka to travel agents and their clients around the world.
- Adoption of denial strategy by Sri Lanka, which means that if you ignore the problem it will turn its face around. But this approach could not be fully relied as activities done by Tamil Tigers weren't in isolation.
- Focused on adopting a proactive approach providing reliable safety and security advice to tourists and assisting travel professionals in this regard.
- Sri Lankan government established a Presidential Task Force on Tourism who were commissioned to prepare a Tourism Promotional Plan for 2000 and beyond.
- Adoption of cautious approach to travel throughout Sri Lanka was provided to the tourists.

- New tax concessions for overseas-based tourism-related industries and open sky policies provided a price-competitive destination.

The main challenge faced by Sri Lankan government was regarding safety and security issues of tourists. With the signing of cease-fire agreement between the Sri Lankan government and Tamil Tigers, a positive step towards building better future of Sri Lanka tourism industry was formulated.

The political coups of 1987 and 2000 were the results of the conflict, which existed between Fiji's indigenous group and the large minority group of Indian origin since they achieved independence from British rule. Although 1987 coup was a bloodless military-dominated takeover and the level of international media coverage was limited, but the year 2000 coup saw death and attacks against Indo-Fijians along with portrayal of events with the live updates by the international media. Among others, the major challenge to Fiji was in the context of coverage done by the media. Tourism industry of Fiji contributes 27% of annual GDP and employs 45,000 people.

Fiji reputation was destroyed due to the two coups of 1987 and 2000, so in order to recover the tourism industry; Tourism Action Group undertook certain actions after 1987 coup and 2000 coup:

- Government of key source markets were requested not to defer their citizens from traveling to Fiji
- Reduction in prices on tours, airfares and accommodation to lure the market
- Promotion of eco-tourism and MICE markets to Fiji
- Conducting market research to build new market
- Doubling the budget of Fiji government
- Development of touristic areas to encourage investment
- Adopt a proactive approach
- Simplify the procedure of investment for domestic and international investors
- Sought to revoke harsh travel advisories to travel to Fiji
- Fiji government was involved in isolating the actual problem of the coup
- Website updates to entice the travelers
- Discounted packages were offered
- Increase the staffing and budget of tourism industry
- Prepare for the designation of world heritage sites

In the market recovery phase, nation's centralized tourism infrastructure along with good cooperation between government and private sector was also achieved.

Being located at the epicenter of a series of fault line, Turkey has already experienced 96 earthquakes throughout the 20th Century whose victims have been thousands. When earthquake struck at 3 am on 17 August in 1999, 7.4 Rector Scale was recorded near the Turkish city of Izmit. This devastation took the lives of 20,000 people and 50,000 who were injured. Within hours of the devastation made by earthquake, international community responded promptly and abruptly. Rescuers along with medical team from Israel, UK, USA Greece, Kuwait, Germany and other 19 countries reached within 72 hours. Turkish government had not developed strong contingency plans and measures given the fact that they were aware of Turkey being located in the fault-zone. Although this has been the case, Turkish tourism industry had grown from 5.38 million in 1990 to 10.42 million in 2000.

The blanket media coverage by international news agency, heavy cancellation of bookings, defer to travel to Turkey from government advisories of other countries made Turkey tourism industry to suffer heavily. These were the major challenge faced by the Turkish Tourism industry. Given the criticism to prepare for the impact of earthquake, Turkish tourism industry developed certain strategic plans to revive tourism from the negative image, which was portrayed from around the world:

- Highlighting those areas that were least affected
- Encouraging travel agencies to urge their clients to visit
- Stressing overall safety of turkey
- Alliance with tour operators
- Strong financial support from Turkish government
- Ethnic communities were encouraged to support
- Television crews, journalists, reporters were encouraged to visit turkey to provide the message that no all of turkey was destroyed
- Marketing subsidies to promote Turkish tourism product
- Crisis management team was established
- Website updates to attract tourists
- Promotion for Christian pilgrimage

Thus, with the completely new marketing image which reassured travellers and travel agency to visit turkey as a tourism destination. Well-coordinated response between the government and private sector also played an important role to restore tourism.

Although being one of the leading destination and developed nations of the world, Britain faced serious problem in order to revive tourism industry when it had to tackle with the issue of foot and mouth disease in 2001. In 2000, 25.2 million people visited

Britain who spent US\$ 19 billion. Foot-and-mouth crisis was caused by the outbreak of a disease contracted by farm animals in 2001. This disease was equivalent to Black Death. It is highly contagious and as a result, it made farmer unsalable on the wool, meat and dairy products. Animals such as sheep, cattle, pigs and goats contract it. The first confirmed case of this disease occurred in 2001, followed by growing number of outbreaks on British farm. National and International media became a major challenge, which portrayed burning pyres of animals and remains of slaughtered animals along with polluted water. The disease was dubbed as a 'rural crisis' and 'economic cataclysm'.

In order to address the negative criticism received from people of rural areas, they underwent disinfection procedures; quarantine parks, gardens and rural attractions and showed it through the news. Even though effort was made, tourism industry suffered heavily. The strategic measures taken by Britain in order to revive the lost charm of tourism industry are:

British Tourism Authority formulated a recovery program with the help of:

- British Carriers
- Organized Familiarization trips for local and foreign travel journalists and travel agents
- Extensive use of website for easy access to tourists responsible
- Highly responsive approach to manage the crisis

British Tourist Authority developed three-stage marketing approaches:

1. Facts, information and rebuttal:

- British Tourism Industry website provided facts about places, which were open and closed.
- They invited key industry leaders from around the world in order to build positive impetus for tourists to visit.

2. Medium-term plans:

- It involves tactical marketing blitzes to pull tourists from markets in association with airlines, tour operators and hoteliers.
- They also focused on variety of promotion from Britain popular celebrities in sport, business, and arts to special deals for limited periods.

3. Long-term plans:

- It involves representing Britain in heritage, culture, sports, tourism, foreign and others.
- 2002 Commonwealth games were promoted as major attractions.

- Britain tourism authority worked on a range of partnership arrangements with airlines and tour operators to promote Britain.
- The partnership agreements between public and private sector are strong.
- National, county and local government provided marketing subsidies.

This is one of the most unusual crises witnessed when we talk about the revival phase of tourism. This disease feared the lives of thousands of people; Britain tourist infrastructure was on rural and religious tourism. 2001 crisis was handled effectively, which provided a path for revival of tourism for others.

South Africa is famous for its Anti-Apartheid Movement, led by Nelson Mandela, which believes that all Black and Whites must be treated with equal respect and dignity. Mandela was elected as first Black American President in 1994, after 27 years of imprisonment for being strong supporter of Anti-Apartheid Movement, which showed a golden new era for South Africa. One thing that existed during 1990s that restricted the path of growth is, 'Crime'. During the prevalence of Apartheid system, Wealthy whites used to suppress the Majority Black who were financially backward. The movements of Blacks were restricted to many places through the imposition of 'Pass Laws'. Although Anti-Apartheid movement ended this racial discrimination, but still large segment of Majority Black were living in worst condition. This gap between the rich and poor created a big problem for South Africa. Wealthy whites used to hire bodyguard to protect them, but tourists were left with no arms to protect themselves from assault, theft, rape, murder carjacking, etc. Although by the end of 2000, the crime rate dropped significantly.

Tourism is regarded as one of the minor economic activity for South African. Neither of its government has treated tourism as a major economic boon. Challenges faced by South African in order to attract tourists are warning of travel advisory issued by western countries; government perception of tourism as a minor economic activity; treatment towards tourists, nearby and international, was different. In order to overcome with these challenges, strategic approaches adopted by South African Tourism are:

- South Africa Tourism has offices in 11 countries who are actively involved in developing promotional partnership ties with carriers and tour operators to promote South Africa.
- It worked in coordination with South African Airways, which plays an important role in promotion.
- Updates on the websites.
- With the collapse of Apartheid, earlier restrictions were opened for International carriers.
- Focus on Upmarket Clientele i.e. Western Countries due to earlier restriction and limited options provided.

- Resumption of Sporting ties between South Africa and other nations also paved the road to attract tourists.
- Devaluation of its currency also attracted western travellers

Despite its political success with Anti-Apartheid Movement, it wasn't able to achieve significant progress with tourism industry in the beginning. Nevertheless, with the strong strategic approaches, it was able to welcome thousands of tourists with full security and safety, which played a role in reviving tourism industry.

Port Arthur, being one of the most visited sites in Tasmania, lies in the oldest city of Hobart. It is also the home to former prison settlement, which was established in 1830 to incarcerate the most hardened criminals. Prison symbolizes the dark history of Tasman. It is one of the best-preserved convict-era prison complexes in Australia. On 1996, when 35 people were shot to death inclusive of 4 tourists in Port Arthur, it triggered with the existing image of Tasmania as a peaceful region. This incident was highly condemned from international platform due to extensive media coverage of the massacre. Martin Bryant, person responsible for this attack was charged with and convicted of the crime. However, the immediate effect of this massacre was that many tourists instantly cancelled their travel plans to Port Arthur.

To resolve the issue, Tasmania Tourism Industry came up with the following strategic approaches:

- Implemented a crisis contingency plan.
- Destination TV Marketing was suspended to respect the loved ones.
- State government committee was formed to respond with the tragedy.
- Public Relations Consultant was appointed.
- Informal Tourism task force or think tank was established to devise marketing strategy.
- Media Management was highly prioritized and it was controlled in a good manner.
- Good cooperation between public and private
- High-level support in the airfare by offering good discount
- Construction of new food and beverage facilities at port Arthur
- 'Fresh New Look' campaign was launched to rebrand Tasmania
- Refocused on the previous dominant images

Unlike other nations, Tasmanian tourism authorities were highly effective in managing crisis to restore the tourism industry. Major challenge, which was tackled by Tasmanian Tourism Industry in the recovery phase, was the lack of success in stimulating a higher level of growth in the international market.

The long-standing enmity between Bosnia-Herzegovina gave birth to Communist leader Marshall Tito from 1945 – 1980. Communism began to collapse towards the end of 1980s. From 1991 – 1995, Croatia was in a state of war against the Serbian dominated Yugoslavia. This war introduced a new term 'Ethnic Cleansing'. Dayton Agreement was signed in December 1995 between Yugoslavia and Croatia, but it didn't resolved the bitter relationship between the Serbs and Croats. In 1985, 8.35 million tourists visited whereas by 1990, the number was 7.05 million and in 1995, the number decreased to 1.23 million.

The major challenges faced by Croatian tourism industry were to remove the portrayal of Croatia as 'collateral image damage' and 'war zone' along with overestimation of damages made by foreign government. Governments of Western Nations advised their citizens to defer to travel to Croatia as it had received international condemnation. Tour agencies reduced their services to Croatia between 1991-95. Prior to that, Tourism was largest source of income for Croatia. Various strategic approaches adopted by Croatia's Ministry of Tourism to restore the tourism industry were:

- Establishment of links with key tour operators
- Low-price accommodation
- Promotion of those regions that were least affected
- Tax breaks were offer to investors to motivate for investment
- Priority was given to improving road and rail links
- Solidarity based tourism was focused
- Eco-tourism was prioritized
- Attention was diverted towards attracting sport-oriented tourism, coastal-based tourism, congress tourism, health tourism, pilgrimage tourism.

With the end of war, tourism industry in Croatia began to move in an upward direction. The recovery program launched was highly successful as extensive market research and strategic planning was focused on with high degree of reliance on private tour operators to promote the country. This level of success was achieved when Croatian government realized its importance.

One of the most visited tourist destination in South-East Asia, which contributes 8.7% of total GDP. The number of tourists doubled from 1.025 million in 1990 to 2.2 million in 1997. However, with economic collapse of source market in South Korea, Japan, Taiwan along with Volcanic eruption in 1991, Typhoons, Political Instability from Fredinand Marcos to Mrs Aquino to Fidel Ramos, Spread of Epidemics such as AIDS, High Crime Rates, Guerrilla War raged by Muslim Insurgents, Philippines Tourism Industry was highly affected. During these periods, tourism development was on an ad hoc basis. With the mixture of pornography,

prostitution and gambling, organized crime and corruption also increased. Introduction Services also started with Filipino women marrying foreign men to secure citizenship of that particular country. Master Plan for tourism, which was more socially, environmentally and economically sustainable tourism, also developed during Ramos and Aquino presidency, which had a much stronger impact on the overall environment of Philippines. Major challenge the government had to deal with includes economic problems, internal political confusion, and personal disputes between government and private industry.

With the combination of crisis faced by Philippines, various strategic approaches adopted by Philippines Tourism Industry from 1991 – 2001 to overcome the situation and restore tourism industry are listed below:

- Adopted a broad marketing strategy for the promotion of Philippines
- They adopted 'Ostrich Approach'
- Tourists were discourage from visiting red-lights districts
- Marketing through websites, brochures and audiovisual presentation
- Familiarization trips was adjusted for travel professionals and media
- Philippines was perceived by low-cost, high-value destination, which increased its tourists flow.
- Strong actions against criminal activities and corruption was taken by government
- Diversity of resorts and destination made it highly marketable.
- Campaign 'best of the Islands' was focused on variety of tourism. Another campaign was 'bring home a friend' was focused on large number of Filipinos living abroad to bring a friend with them while returning.
- Marketing representatives were appointed in several 'potential markets'

The major challenges they faced during this period were they failed to address various crises in any of its official publication; failed to use their own media, brochures or websites to address travel concerns. Strong cooperation between private and public sectors was also lacking. Out of all these, they didn't had real contingency plan to restore Philippines tourism industry.

Salzburg University of Applied Sciences

Salzburg University of Applied Sciences and Technologies (FH Salzburg), is an accredited institution of Austrian higher education, recognized by the Austrian Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. It is one of the most modern universities for applied sciences in Europe. In its various levels of academic programs, it concentrates on current trends in tourism, product development and e-Business.

FH Salzburg is situated in Salzburg, Austria, one of the most vibrant tourist regions in the world. The city at the Salzach River is the world famous for its summer and winter tourism. Not only does it boast 22 million overnight stays, but its wide variety of tourist attractions and offerings draws guests who come to attend conventions or music festivals as well as those seeking adventure, culture or relaxation.

FH Salzburg aims to offer various programs tailored to the needs of current and future demand of the labor market combined with a sound theoretical underpinning. This is guaranteed by its qualified and highly committed staff from higher educational institutions as well as the industry. It has collaboration with more than 60 partner institutions in Europe, America, Asia, Australia and Nepal in international projects as well as faculty and student exchange.

International School of Tourism and Hotel Management

International School of Tourism and Hotel management (IST) was established in the year 2003 with an objective to produce world class human resources to cater to the overwhelming need of the hospitality industry by offering various academic degrees and training packages as per the international standard. It is a center for excellence in hospitality education providing an enterprising and stimulating environment in which students can learn and develop their full potential. Hence, IST is also a suffix, which means a person with deep knowledge, practical exposure and appropriate attitude in the particular discipline. IST aims to add "ist" to its students and prepare professionals to become leading managers in the various tourism and hospitality outlets.

Affiliated to Salzburg University of Applied Sciences (FHS), Austria, IST offers customized and fast track programs to provide students maximum flexibility and opportunity for progression. Various programs offered by IST is approved by Ministry of Education and Sports of Nepal Government.

Since its inception it has established cooperation with numerous universities in Nepal, Singapore, Austria, Australia, Thailand, United Kingdom and United States of America. Likewise, FHS and Tribhuvan University of Nepal have already entered into the bilateral agreement to promote faculty and student exchange, joint research program and accreditation to each other's degree.

Published by
International School of Tourism and Hotel Management

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