TECHMIND RESEARCH
ISSN: 2291-2118
International Journal of Research in Business and Technology
Volume 12 No.2 April 2021

Self-Efficacy of Hotel Industry Personnel to Disaster in Dumaguete City, Philippines

Ryan Tayco
Negros Oriental State University
tycs.ryn415@gmail.com

Abstract - *Self-efficacy in terms of a person's belief in his capability to come up with courses of action which when implemented will result in the attainment of desired outcomes. This study tries to explore the self-efficacy of hotel personnel to disaster in Dumaguete City, Philippines using a descriptive survey. A total of 167 respondents answered the survey questionnaire; 27 respondents are the top management and 140 are rank and file personnel, they were chosen through systematic random sampling. The result shows that the respondents had no emergency management experience but apparently, there is an existence of an emergency management plan in their organization. It reveals that most of the respondent's self-efficacy belief in their preparedness for a disaster is very satisfactory. The respondents have confidence in their capabilities to act on their preparedness before, during, and after the disaster. That is, those respondents who have a higher level of self-efficacy are more likely to prepare for disasters and believe that they will respond effectively in a disaster situation.*

Keywords: *descriptive study; self-efficacy; disaster; hotel industry; Dumaguete City*

1. INTRODUCTION

According to the United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, businesses of all sizes need to ensure that resilience lies at the core of their decision-making process to help the authorities and the wider community reduce the risk of disasters (Wannous & Velasquez, 2017)[38]. Emergency management has existed a long time ago demonstrating how the earliest mankind dealt with disasters, and later how the next generations tried to cope with disasters preparing for them before they occurred. Haddow and Bullock (2006)[16] defined emergency management as dealing with hazards timely and taking action to avoid hazards. Fink (1986)[11] explained that efficient planning has a sufficient role in emergency management. He asserted that planning for emergencies is very important to control the existing event.

Hotels and resorts are predicted to face an increased risk of disaster, because of increased populations and further social diversity (AlBattat and MatSom, 2015)[1]. For this reason, governments strive to attract tourists through various strategies aimed at establishing an image of a desirable tourist destination for the country. It is well-established that an abundance of tourist sites and efficient services alone are not sufficient to guarantee a robust tourism industry. Other more important considerations such as the climate risks condition of the tourist's destination are paramount in a foreigner's list of preferred vacation places (Tayco and Sequiño, 2014)[35]. Thus, this study tries to explore the self-efficacy of hotel personnel to disasters in Dumaguete City as a tourist destination.

Tourism is one of the fastest-growing sectors in the Asia Pacific region and contributes 5% of the world's GDP. It accounts for 6% of the world's exports in services being the fourth largest export sector after fuels, chemicals, and automotive products. Tourism is responsible for 235 million jobs, or one in every 12 jobs worldwide (WTO, 2015). The tourism industry plays a significant role in the Philippine economy and labor market. In 2019, the contribution of Tourism Direct Gross Value Added (TDGVA) to the Philippine economy as measured by the Gross Domestic Product is estimated at 12.7%. The TDGVA amounted to PhP 2.48 trillion in 2019, higher by 10.8% compared to PhP 2.24 trillion in 2018. Employment in tourism characteristic industries was estimated at 5.71 million in 2019, higher by 6.5% compared to 5.36 million in 2018. The share of employment in tourism industries to total employment in the country was recorded at 13.5% (PSA, 2020). The development of the tourism industry, however, is determined not only by the quality of tourism destinations and the national strategies adopted for tourism promotion but also by external factors that are often beyond the control of the government such as the occurrence of natural and man-made calamities.

The hotel industry is one of the biggest of the tourism industry and is one of the most vulnerable to crisis and can be affected by internal and external hazards (Henderson & Ng, 2004[18]; Santana, 2004)[32]. More than before, crises are becoming more frequent and complex, affecting the hospitality industry. Faulkner (2001)[10] noticed a rising number of natural and man-made crises that harm the hospitality industry. The effects of disasters cannot be stopped, but they can be mitigated, and lives and property can be saved (Ritchie, 2004)[30].

Self-efficacy is an individual's belief that they can do something to control the outcome of a disaster. Bandura (1989)[3], the social cognitive theory proposes that the individual's thoughts and behaviors will be guided by self-

efficacy or one's beliefs in his or her ability to overcome obstacles and achieve a positive outcome when facing a particular threat. Self-efficacy is linked closely with outcome expectancy (Paton, 2003[24]; Paton, Smith, & Johnston, 2005)[25]. Lee, Dallaire, & Lemyre (2009)[19], found that self-efficacy was a significant moderator of intentions to prepare. It also links with community participation, as it has been found that those involved in general community activities have higher levels of self-efficacy indicating that participation helps build self-efficacy (Bishop, Paton, Syme, & Nancarrow, 2000[5]; Lindell & Whitney, 2000[20]; Paton, Smith, & Johnston, 2000)[26].

The Philippines are part of the area exposed to a wide range of natural disasters. Aside from being an archipelagic country, the location is near the western edge of the Pacific Ocean. It is the direct path of seasonal typhoons and monsoon rains which brings flood, storms, storm surges, and their attendant landslides and other forms of devastation. The Philippines also sits on the "ring of fire" where the continental plates collide and thus experience periodic earthquakes and volcanic eruptions. The Philippines ' exposure to natural disaster is frequently characterized, varied, and severe; a combination that has made the country particularly attentive to disaster reduction (World Bank, 2013)[39]. According to WB (2013), the Philippines are one of the most hazard-prone countries in the world. Thus, disaster preparedness and management for natural and human-induced hazards should be an essential part of any business management plan.

It is visible that the hotel industry in Dumaguete City is growing. However, there are still some challenges that are being faced especially in disaster risk preparedness of the accommodation facilities. The purpose of this study is to explore the self-efficacy of personnel to disasters affecting the hotel industry, and how they can mitigate the effects of such hazards.

The study is anchors on Albert Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy theory. Bandura (1997)[2] defines self-efficacy in terms of a person's belief in his capability to come up with courses of action which when implemented will result in the attainment of desired outcomes. Self-efficacy beliefs, according to Bandura (1997)[2], determine the kind of choice people take given certain alternatives. It also influences how much effort they put in or how long they persevere in the face of obstacles or challenges. It can be reasonably assumed that hotel industry personnel with high levels of self-efficacy will also more likely to prepare for disasters. In other words, the stronger the person's intention to perform a behavior, the higher is his/her level of self-efficacy. Thus, self-efficacy is believed to be an important factor contributing to the hotel industry personnel preparedness for disaster

Bandura (1997)[2] explains that people's beliefs about their efficacy can be developed by four main sources of influence. According to Bandura, the most effective way of creating a strong sense of efficacy is through mastery experiences. Then the second way of creating and strengthening self-beliefs of efficacy is through the vicarious experiences provided by social models. Followed by social persuasion is a third way of strengthening people's beliefs that they have what it takes to succeed. Lastly, the fourth way of modifying self-beliefs of efficacy is to reduce people's stress reactions and alter their negative emotional proclivities and misinterpretations of their physical states.

According to Bandura (1997)[2], once efficacy beliefs are formed, they are not stable. They can vary in strength because the individual is constantly evaluating new information. However, once efficacy beliefs have been established over long periods and based on a large amount of information, they are unlikely to be changed. Because self-efficacy beliefs are specific in nature, it is impossible to discuss general or global self-efficacy.

This study can be used as a basis for implementing effective measures to improve the level of disaster risk preparedness of the hotel industry to disaster in Dumaguete City.

The specific objectives that this study sought to determine are as follows:

1. To assess the socio-demographic and institutional profile of the personnel of the different hotel industries in Dumaguete City.
2. To assess the emergency management profile of the different hotel industries.
3. To assess the hotel industry personnel's self-efficacy before, during, and after a disaster.

2. PROCEDURE/METHODOLOGY

This is descriptive research used the following methods of gathering data: survey questionnaire and informal interview, and analysis of secondary data gathered from the select hotel industry. A total of 167 respondents answer the survey questionnaire; 27 respondents are the top management and 140 are personnel of the different accommodation facilities, they were chosen as respondents through systematic random sampling, a technique for selecting the samples by picking out every specific order from the population.

The survey instrument asks socio-demographic questions such as age, sex, marital status, position, employment status, and emergency management experience of the respondents. The institutional profile also asked such as the type of institution, the number of years of the establishment, size of the organization (no. of employees), type of building, institution disaster emergency plan, and potential hazards.

Self-efficacy assessment of the respondents before, during, and after the disaster was evaluated using a survey on prepare for emergencies for specific disaster checklists and tips adapted from U.S. Small Business Administration (*www.sba.gov*). Slight modifications were made to reflect the exact situation of the study.

Descriptive statistics were used to describe the basic features of the data in a study. Weighted mean and standard deviation was also used to simple summaries about the sample and the measures. Upon retrieval of the questionnaires from the respective respondents, the results were tabulated and appropriate statistical tools are applied. Then, the data were presented using tables and graphs.

The main instrument for data gathering was a survey questionnaire. Part I provides background information through personal and institutional profiles. The data indicates some potential risks faced by the institutions based on the characteristics of their manpower and the institutions in general. Part II focuses on the emergency management profile of the hotel industry to disaster. The data determines the existing preparedness activities in their respective institutions. Part III shows the extent of respondents' disaster preparedness. The study gathers data on the respondents' self-efficacy before, during, and after a disaster.

Data in Table 1 presents the profile of the participants of this study. The select variables include age, type of institution, sex, civil status, position, and employment status.

Table 1. Socio-demographic profile of the respondents

Variables	N	Mean/%	SD	Min-Max
Age	167	31.08	9.302	20-66
Sex				
Male	77	46.10%		
Female	90	53.9&		
Civil Status				
Single	92	55.10%		
Married	72	43.10%		
Annulled/Separated	2	1.20%		
Widowed	1	0.60%		
Position				
Gen. Manager	4	2.40%		
Operation Manager	1	0.60%		
HR Officer	8	4.80%		
Supervisor	14	8.40%		
Chef	2	1.20%		
Baker	1	0.60%		
Cook	7	4.20%		
Maintenance Worker	3	1.80%		
Driver	1	0.60%		
Asst. Cook	1	0.60%		
Accounting Personnel	5	3.00%		
Banquet Waiter	2	1.20%		
Company Secretary	1	0.60%		
Cashier	5	3.00%		
Coffee Shop Personnel	1	0.60%		
Lifeguard	1	0.60%		
Front Desk Clerk	16	9.60%		
Receptionists	18	10.80%		
Bellman	3	1.80%		
Room Attendant	28	16.80%		
Food Attendant	43	25.70%		
Kitchen Helper	2	1.20%		

Employment Status				
Regular	132	79.00%		
Contractual	18	10.80%		
Part-time/On-Call	17	10.20%		

The table manifest that majority of the respondents are female. The data presented indicate that most of the respondents are single, who are mature enough to work in the hotel industry and most of them work as food attendants, room attendants, and front office personnel and with a number having supervisory positions. The majority of the respondents are holding permanent positions; the rest are contractual and part-time.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Below presents the findings of the study conducted on the self-efficacy of hotel personnel to the natural disaster in Dumaguete City. Table 2 displays the institutional profile of the hotel industry.

Table 2. Institutional Profile of the hotel industry

Variables	N	Mean/%	SD	Min-Max
Years of Establishment	167	7.08%	5.75%	1-27
Type of Institution				
Public	3	1.80%		
Private	164	98.20%		
Number of Employees				
Regular	132	79.00%		
Contractual	18	10.80%		
Part-time/On-Call	17	10.20%		
Type of Building				
Concrete	132	79.00%		
Wood & Concrete	33	19.80%		
Woods	1	0.60%		
Light Materials	1	0.60%		
Potential Hazard				
Fire	47	28.10%		
Typhoon	8	4.80%		
Earthquake	5	3.00%		
Slippery Floor	12	7.20%		
Gas Tank	18	10.80%		
Sharp Objects	4	2.40%		
Burner	24	14.40%		
Electrical Outlet	49	29.30%		

Responses from the accommodation facility indicated that most of the accommodation facilities in Dumaguete City are new; some have been in operation for quite a time, and most of them are private institutions. The majority of the personnel are holding permanent positions; the rest are contractual and part-time. It is also revealed that the majority of the accommodation facilities are concrete built. Lastly, most of the respondents considered fire and electrical outlets are a potential hazard that causes disaster in a certain edifice.

Respondents identified fire and electrical outlets as a potential hazard in accommodation facilities. This is supported by the study of Hassanain (2009) [17]which revealed that hotels have been categorized as high-risk buildings, especially for fires, because of the presence of highly flammable materials and the chance of pervasion of smoke and fire to the rest of the building or even to neighboring buildings. This is described by Fink (1986)[11] which emphasized that efficient planning has a sufficient role in emergency management and it is a technique or way to avoid hazards such as hotel fires and demonstrates the intention to recognize the crisis warning signals. Table 3 gives the status of the emergency

management profile of the accommodation facilities as reported by the respondents

Table 3. Emergency management profile of the accommodation facilities as reported by the respondents

Variables	N	%
Emergency disaster management experience		
Yes	5	3.00%
No	162	97.00%
Emergency disaster management plan		
Yes	158	94.60%
No	9	5.40%

From the data reflected in Table 3, it shows that most of the accommodation facilities in Dumaguete City were not able to provide their personnel with emergency management experience since only 5 or three percent (3%) out of 167 respondents answered positively when asked about this information. This is supported by the study of Galindo, Villanueva, & Enguito (2014)[12] in Ozamiz City which revealed that most respondents expressed that they lacked training and knowledge on disaster preparedness. McCool (2012)[22] recommends the need for hotels to better prepare and plan for disasters. His recommendations for employee training include incorporating multiple aspects into the disaster management plan. A training program should further include disaster preparedness skills such as closing or barricading doors and windows or shutting down critical equipment. The knowledge of hazards as well as developing mitigation and preparedness strategies are also recommended and advised for training by Sutton and Tierney (2006)[34].

However, 158 or 94.6% out of 167 respondents gave a higher number of responses indicated the "high" existence of emergency management in their organization. This finding illustrates that the accommodation facilities in Dumaguete City have an existing preparedness plan. According to Fink (1986)[11], efficient planning has a sufficient role in emergency management. He asserted that planning for emergencies is very important to control the existing event. Planning has to be employed as an ongoing process (AlBattat and MatSom, 2015)[1] to plan better emergencies – that is, the hotel industry can respond to such events, can mitigate damages, and recover quickly to a normal situation. The basis for any institution to have an existing preparedness plan is the National Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Plan (NDRRMP) 2011-2028 which granted local government units (LGUs) greater flexibility towards disaster mitigation, preparation, response, rehabilitation, and recovery.

The findings show that despite the presence of an emergency disaster management plan, the participants reveal that they did not experience sustainable activities related to the actual implementation of these preparedness strategies. It appears the two criteria are made in compliance with the requirements required by law but the problem is the lack of ongoing activities to assure preparedness among the personnel. It can also be inferred that the context of the study does not belong to the areas in the Philippines frequently visited by devastating natural disasters as reflected by the seemingly complacent attitude of the administration. Table 4 illustrate the respondents' self-efficacy beliefs on their preparedness before, during, and after the disaster.

Table 4. Respondents' self-efficacy beliefs on their preparedness before, during, and after the disaster

Items	Mean	SD
Self-efficacy before a disaster	3.9741	0.9305
1. Determine safe evacuation routes inland as well as alternative routes.	4.01	1.167
2. Make sure the Disaster Kit is fully stocked and fresh batteries & supplies are included.	3.93	1.154
3. Ensure that the emergency communication plan is in place prior to the storm, evacuation, or threat.	3.87	1.117
4. Backup all data on servers and personal computers.	3.83	1.09
5. Turn off all non-critical devices such as server monitors and workstations and other non-essential electrical equipment.	3.9	1.11
6. Alert a third party about your company's relocation plan in the event the storm makes your location inaccessible	4.17	1.098
7. Protect/relocate vital records including your insurance policies. Be sure your risks are protected.	4.14	1.099
8. Ensure that any employee who volunteers to stay on site has proper supplies and equipment (drinkable water, nonperishable food, medical, flashlights, walkie-talkies, radio).	3.84	1.285
9. Establish emergency communication method (Alert Notification System, phone tree, etc.); identify meeting place and time for all key employees in Crisis Management Team; create voicemail for when evacuated, or out of office, etc.	4.06	1.16

Self-efficacy during a disaster	3.9934	0.92809
1. Look for a colleague who can lead you to a high-level ground/floor during a life-threatening flood.	3.89	1.199
2. Remain in place until someone could lead you to a safe place.	4.17	1.175
3. Constantly monitor the weather condition through radio, cellphone contacts, and other electronic gadgets.	4.15	1.117
4. During a power failure, turn off electrical switches to prevent reactivation before necessary checks are completed.	4.21	1.102
5. Dare to leave the workplace to go home to the family.	4.13	1.131
6. Look for an emergency exit route in case there is a need to evacuate the workplace.	3.86	1.11
7. Connect with relevant people to inform them of your location and condition.	3.89	1.038
8. Take cell phones, chargers, critical hardware, and emergency kits with you as you look for a safe place.	3.92	1.07
9. Unplug electrical items before leaving	3.82	1.083
10. If the backup site is within the area that may be affected by the disaster, take backup files with you in the evacuation.	3.91	1.113
Self-efficacy after a disaster	3.8283	0.87724
1. Check for injuries among fellow workers and render first aid.	3.86	1.222
2. Not to move seriously injured persons unless they are in danger of further injury.	4.01	1.103
3. Check for fire hazards, gas leaks, or damaged electrical wiring.	3.98	1.097
4. Prepare for aftershocks - these can come for several days after the main quake and can frequently topple already weakened structures.	3.88	1.102
5. Consider relocation during recovery, depending upon the damage to the structure.	3.65	0.964
6. Bring all vital records with you to your recovery site: data, employee lists, and other pertinent records kept in your workplace, etc.	3.59	0.964

Table 4 reveals that the respondents' self-efficacy belief on their preparedness before, during, and after the disaster is identical. Self-efficacy before the disaster has a weighted mean of 3.99, which reflects that the respondents have confidence in their capabilities to act on their preparedness before the disaster. On the other hand, the respondents' self-efficacy during a disaster is higher with a weighted mean of 3.99. The respondents' priorities are turning off electrical switches in case of power failure, remaining in a safe place until someone can lead, constant monitoring of the weather condition, leave the workplace to check their family, take communication gadgets and emergency kits and take backup files in the evacuation. Likewise with the respondents' self-efficacy after the disaster with a weighted mean of 3.82, they show a high capability to take care of injured persons, checking for hazards caused by the disaster, and handle aftershocks.

This conforms to the study of Lee, Dallaire, & Lemyre (2009)[19], which found out self-efficacy was a significant moderator of intentions to prepare. It also agrees with the social cognitive theory of Bandura's (1977)[4], that the individual's thoughts and behaviors will be guided by self-efficacy or one's beliefs in his or her ability to overcome obstacles and achieve a positive outcome when facing a particular threat. And this is in line with the findings of the study of Duval & Mulilis (1999)[8] and Lindell & Whitney (2000)[20], which explains self-efficacy is an individual's belief that they can do something to control the outcome of a disaster. Thus, people with a higher level of self-efficacy are more likely to prepare for disasters and believe that they will be able to respond effectively in a disaster situation.

While the study offers significant results, particularly on the self-efficacy of the hotel industry, there are some limitations in this study that can be improved and guide future research works. This study used data based on the perceptions of the respondents and not on the actual and objective measures of respondents' self-efficacy. And also, this study did not dig deeper into the extent of disaster preparedness in the hotel industry in Dumaguete City. The study understood that the results were based on the responses of the respondents. Future research works can investigate extensively the disaster preparedness policies that were established, on what the responsibilities of the employees are, and what their assigned tasks are if disasters happen. By doing so could provide some sense of responsibility into how employees' participation and their level of engagement on the disaster management plan by the organization.

4. CONCLUSION

The study intends to draw baseline data on the self-efficacy of hotel personnel to the natural disaster in

Dumaguete City. Responses from the hotel industry indicated that most of the hotel industry in Dumaguete City is new in the business and some have been in operation for quite a time and most of them are in private institutions. It is also revealed that the majority of the hotel industry is concrete built and most of them considered fire and electrical outlets as potential hazards that can cause disaster in certain edifices.

It is evident that the respondents had no emergency management experience but apparently, there is an existence of an emergency management plan in their organization. It also presents evidence on the relationship of the respondents' self-efficacy belief on their preparedness. It reveals that respondent's self-efficacy belief on their preparedness for a disaster is very satisfactory. The respondents have confidence in their capabilities to act on their preparedness before, during, and after the disaster. That is, those respondents who have a higher level of self-efficacy are more likely to prepare for disasters and believe that they will respond effectively in a disaster situation.

Acknowledgment

The author acknowledges the assistance of the Research, Innovation, Development, and Extension (RIDE) Office of Negros Oriental State University to finish this study.

5. REFERENCES

[1] AlBattat, A. R., & Som, A. P. M. (2015). Emergency preparedness of the hotel industry: the case of Jordan. Advances in Environmental Biology, 9(3), 19-22.

[2] Bandura, A. (1997). Self-efficacy: insights. Harvard mental health letter. Soc Behav Personal, 13, 4-8.

[3] Bandura, A. (1989). Human agency in social cognitive theory. American psychologist, 44(9), 1175.

[4] Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. Psychological Review, 84(2), 191.

[5] Bishop, B., Paton, D., Syme, G., & Nancarrow, B. (2000). Coping with environmental degradation: Salination as a community stressor. Network, 12, 1-15.

[6] Bohdanowicz, P. (2005). European hoteliers' environmental attitudes greening the business. Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 46(2), 188-204.

[7] Dodds, R., & Joppe, M. (2005).CSR in the tourism industry?The status of and potential for certification, codes of conduct, and guidelines. IFC/World Bank, Washington.

[8] Duval, T. S., & Mulilis, J. P. (1999). A Person-Relative-to-Event (PrE) approach to negative threat appeals and earthquake preparedness: A field study. Journal of applied social psychology, 29(3), 495-516.

[9] Enz, C. A. (2009). Human resource management: A troubling issue for the global hotel industry. Cornell Hospitality Quarterly, 50(4), 578-583.

[10] Faulkner, B. (2001). Towards a framework for tourism disaster management. Tourism Management, 22(2), 135-147.

[11] Fink, S. (1986). Crisis management: Planning for the inevitable. New York, NY: American Management Association.

[12] Galindo, R. P., Villanueva, G. V., & Enguito, M. R. C. (2014). Organizational Preparedness for Natural Disasters in Ozamiz City, Philippines. Journal of Multidisciplinary Studies, 3(1).

[13] Garschagen, M., Hagenlocher, M., Comes, M., Dubbert, M., Sabelfeld, R., Lee, Y. J., ... & Pott, S. (2016). World risk report 2016.

[14] Graci, S. (2009). Can Hotels Accommodate Green?: Examining what Influences Environmental Commitment to the Hotel Industry. VDM Publishing.

[15] Gregorio, E., and Kobayashi, J. (2013). Case study of the Emergency and Disaster Preparedness, Response and Rehabilitation Capacities of Government Schools in the Philippines, and development of Asian statement. Accessed on April 30, 2018. Retrieved from http://www.the-easia.org/jrp/pdf/w05/kobayashi_Gregorio.pdf

[16] Haddow, G., & Bullock, J. (2006). Introduction to emergency management. Burlington, MA:Butterworth-Heinemann.

[17] Hassanain, M. A. (2009). Approaches to qualitative fire safety risk assessment in hotel facilities. Structural Survey, 27(4), 287-300.

[18] Henderson, J. C., & Ng, A. (2004). Responding to crisis: severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) and hotels in Singapore. International Journal of Tourism Research, 6(6), 411-419.

[19] Lee, J. E., Dallaire, C., & Lemyre, L. (2009). Qualitative analysis of cognitive and contextual determinants of Canadians' individual response to terrorism. Health, Risk & Society, 11(5), 431-450.

[20] Lindell, M. K., & Whitney, D. J. (2000). Correlates of household seismic hazard adjustment adoption. Risk analysis, 20(1), 13-26.

[21] Malhotra, R., & Venkatesh, U. (2009). Pre-crisis period planning: Lessons for hospitality and tourism. Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes, 1(1), 66-74.

[22] McCool, B. N. (2012). The need to be prepared: Disaster management in the hospitality industry. Journal of Business & Hotel Management, 1(2), 1-5.

[23] Mendoza, C. A., Brida, J. G., & Garrido, N. (2012). The impact of earthquakes on Chile's international tourism demand. Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events, 4(1), 48-60.

[24] Paton, D. (2003). Disaster preparedness: a social-cognitive perspective. Disaster Prevention and Management: An International Journal, 12(3), 210-216.

[25] Paton, D., Smith, L., & Johnston, D. (2005). When good intentions turn bad: promoting natural hazard

preparedness. Australian Journal of Emergency Management, The, 20(1), 25.
[26] Paton, D., Smith, L., & Johnston, D. M. (2000). Volcanic hazards: risk perception and preparedness. New Zealand Journal of Psychology, 29(2), 86.
[27] Philippine Statistics Authority. (September 3rd, 2020). Employment Situation in July 2020.Retrieved from https://psa.gov.ph/content/employment-situation-july-2020.
[28] Pizam, A., Tarlow, P. E., & Bloom, J. (1997). Making tourists feel safe: Whose responsibility is it?. Journal of travel research, 36(1), 23-28.
[29] Prepare for emergencies. For specific disaster checklists and tips. Accessed on April 7, 2016. Retrieved from https://www.sba.gov/business-guide/manage-your-business/prepare- emergencies.
[30] Ritchie, B. W. (2004). Chaos, crises, and disasters: a strategic approach to crisis management in the tourism industry. Tourism Management, 25(6), 669-683.
[31] Rittichainuwat, B. N. (2005). Understanding perceived travel risk differences between first time and repeat travelers. In FORUM PROCEEDINGS (p. 108).
[32] Santana, G. (2004). Crisis management and tourism. Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 15, 299-321. doi:10.1300/J073v15n04_05
[33] Sönmez, S. F., & Graefe, A. R. (1998). Determining future travel behavior from past travel experience and perceptions of risk and safety. Journal of travel research, 37(2), 171-177.
[34] Sutton, J., & Tierney, K. (2006, November). Disaster preparedness: concepts, guidance. and Research. Report prepared for the Fritz Institute Assessing Disaster Preparedness Conference, Sebastopol, California.
[35] Tayco, R. O., & Sequiño, A. C. (2014). A Correlational Analysis of Global Climate Risk Indices and Tourism Industry Indicators Using Fractal Statistics. Recoletos Multidisciplinary Research Journal, 2(1).
[36] The Joint Memorandum Circular No. 2013-1 (2013, March 25). Accessed on January 06, 2016. Retrieved from http://www.ndrrmc.gov.ph/attachments/article/1320/JMC_No_20131_re_Allocation_and_Utilization_of_LDRRMF.pdf
[37] United Nation International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (UNISDR) 2013, Business resilience top agenda for future disaster risk reduction. Accessed on January 05, 2016. Retrieved from http://www.thejakartapost.com/news/2013/05/28/business-resilience-top-agenda-future-disaster-risk-reduction.html
[38] Wannous, C., & Velasquez, G. (2017, May). United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction (UNISDR)—UNISDR's Contribution to Science and Technology for Disaster Risk Reduction and the Role of the International Consortium on Landslides (ICL). In Workshop on World Landslide Forum (pp. 109-115). Springer, Cham.
[39] World Bank Group. (2013). Doing business 2014: Understanding regulations for small and medium-sized enterprises (Vol. 11). World Bank Publications.
[40] World Tourism Organization. Accessed on January 05, 2016. Retrieved from http://www.wto.org/english/res_e/booksp_e/anrep_e /