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Examining the Impact of Crisis Management on Brand Performance of Upscale Hotels in the Post COVID-19 Crisis in Indonesia

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Abstract

This research investigates how crisis management and brand performance interact. Data from crisis management, such as signal detection, preparation and prevention, recovery and learning, and brand performance items, are used to evaluate the research model. Existing scales are used to measure all of the focal constructs. The Smart-PLS 3.0 software is used to check the psychometric properties of the rankings and test the hypotheses using partial least squares-based structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM). Building on literature from crisis management and brand performance. This study illustrates the role of signal detection, preparation, prevention, recovery, and learning in influencing brand performance. The perspective used in this study provides insight into how organizations can develop and manage brands from a process perspective. As a result, the endogenous variables crisis management and brand performance have adequate variance explained values, whereas brand performance has a medium conflict explaining the significance. To develop hotel managers, identify the factors that contribute to crisis management on the brand performance of up-scale hotels in Indonesia and may help hotel managers mitigate the effects of this crisis. This study draws on previous research on crisis management and brand performance to argue that organizations must not only maximize brand returns in the current market but also adapt to future changes.

Keywords: Crisis Management, Brand Performance, Upscale Hotel

Introduction

The global spread of the COVID-19 pandemic continues in major sectors, especially the travel, tourism, and hospitality industries (Dwiedienawati et al., 2021; Kaushal & Srivastava, 2021; Khraim & Afaishat, 2021; Lai & Wong, 2020; Purba et al., 2021; Setiati & Azwar, 2020; Webster et al., 2020). The COVID-19 pandemic and the subsequent lockdowns have caused substantial disruption for individuals, brands, and companies (Morris, 2020; Tien, 2022). The Indonesian economy entered a crisis in the second quarter of 2020 compared to the second quarter of 2019 (y-o-y), which experienced a growth contraction of 5.32 per cent but then returned to a positive correction in the third quarter (BPS-Statistics Indonesia, 2020). The

impact of the pandemic crises caused the occupancy rate of Indonesian star hotels to rise slightly from 34.28 per cent in 2020 to 36.21 per cent in 2021 (BPS-Statistics Indonesia, 2022), but if compared to the position in 2019, a significant 65.07 per cent decrease. However, conditions in the past were undoubtedly different than they are today when global changes are becoming more complex (Bhandari et al., 2021; Bundy et al., 2017; Deloitte, 2020a; Kraus et al., 2020). This is related to Morris (2020); Tien (2022), who state that the COVID-19 pandemic and the subsequent lockdowns have caused significant disruption for individuals, brands, and companies (Morris, 2020; Tien, 2022).

Several researchers revealed that a strong brand would help mitigate the effects of the crisis caused by the COVID-19 pandemic (Bodeklint et al., 2017; Fahmy et al., 2020; Knowles et al., 2020; Singh et al., 2020). However, a lack of findings specifies the role of brand performance in mitigating the effect. This is supported by Baghi & Gabrielli (2021), who assert that the framework for evaluating performance is crucial in crisis management. According to this study, no brand performance application can assess the impact of crisis management (Mikusova & Horvathova, 2019), and how research should be conducted in the area of crisis management are yet to be known (Baum et al., 2020; Deloitte, 2020b; Yan et al., 2022). Due to a lack of research, the internal dimension of crisis management in Indonesian hotels has remained largely unexplored. Previous studies also questioned how crises affect the hotel industry and how the industry adapts to change through innovative techniques (Baghi & Gabrielli, 2021).

According to Coombs's (2007) theory, how a brand responds to a specific crisis influences how consumers perceive that brand. A crisis would generate adverse publicity, which would be detrimental to the reputation and image of the brand (Claeys & Cauberghe, 2014). Brands experiencing a crisis must continue communicating with customers to preserve their brand value (Johar et al., 2010). In order to increase their market share, hotel practitioners need precise information about which hotel brand attributes are important to potential customers (Kim & Han, 2022; Spoerr, 2021). This leads to the importance of a brand in the survival and sustainability of a business. There is some evidence from the COVID-19 crisis that suggests hotel managers must build and maintain a strong brand, for which they must employ appropriate strategies and techniques and maintain a connection between the consumer and the brand (Hewett & Lemon, 2019; Lombardi et al., 2021; Nawaz et al., 2020).

Unfortunately, hotel guests are increasingly becoming less loyal to brands during the COVID-19 pandemic than before (Jian et al., 2020; Lobaugh et al., 2019). However, hotels can enhance and maintain their brand performance during the COVID-19 pandemic by adopting ICT techniques and tools (Anser et al., 2020; Dimitrios et al., 2020; Jiang & Wen, 2020; Shin & Kang, 2020). This study examines the external effect of the four-star hotel industry players' crisis management initiatives. The multiple-item scales of internal crisis management initiatives will be classified and tested against the outcome variables. Thus, this study aims to investigate the effect of crisis management initiatives on the brand performance of up-scale hotels in the post-COVID-19 crisis. The initial idea for the study is based on the conceptual framework by Mitroff (1988); Bodeklint et al (2017), which proposed that the crisis management framework affects brand perceptions. Based on the impact of COVID-19 on the hotel industry, integrating potential instruments for crisis management will offer a new value proposition for the hotel players that can add value to the existing brand

performance. It also opens to a more structured and measurable technique in crisis management that contributes to the new body of knowledge in turning risk into opportunities.

This study makes several contributions to the literature. First, this distinction may explain why, if an involvement or motivation exists, hotel managers will choose a crisis brand management strategy during the COVID-19 pandemic that best satisfies that involvement/motivation based on their conscious preferences. Therefore, this study aims to assist hotel managers in developing crisis management and brand performance strategies that follow the image in the minds of customers and in taking appropriate steps in the post-pandemic period so that company performance will be maintained. Second, the study's findings will make it easier for researchers to understand the importance of internal resource management, addressing the hospitality industry's lack of a link between crisis management and brand performance. This study focuses on the crisis to the post-crisis period, which has received less attention despite its significance. During the global pandemic crisis, numerous businesses have adapted their operations to safeguard their employees and continue to serve their customers.

Nevertheless, some businesses have demonstrated greater resilience than others, rapidly adjusting their strategies to meet the challenges and take advantage of the opportunities presented by the crisis. This indicates that some executives' responses to the situation revealed weaknesses in their companies' strategic resilience. In business during the COVID-19 pandemic, employees have a more positive view of the brand than customers do.

Literature Review

Crisis Management: An Overview

Crisis management is a continuous and holistic endeavour efficiently carried out by organizations to understand and avoid a crisis and resolve those that occur, taking the needs of stakeholders into account (Alzoubi & Jaaffar, 2020). Crisis management is a process in which the crisis indicators are collected and evaluated, and the appropriate steps are taken and enforced to experience a minimal loss in a crisis (Fener & Cevik, 2015). Similarly, Pearson & Clair (1998) defined crisis management as "a systematic attempt by an organization and its stakeholders to manage or prevent crises from occurring, such that key partners believe the success outcomes outweigh the failure outcomes." They added that crisis management includes managing the industry from crises like terrorism, natural disaster, political instability, war, and epidemics. To accomplish this goal, long before signs of an imminent crisis, the company's senior executives must strongly support and engage in crisis management efforts (Aljuhmani & Emeagwali, 2017). The key to crisis management for a company is to act proactively and not to be reactive. A business is ready to face a crisis even though it is never 100 per cent possible to prepare for a situation because it is unpredictable (Hartmann, 2011).

As more reviews are conducted to understand the measurement of crisis management, the present recent researches show that there are five phases of a framework for crisis management that has been widely adopted and used by researchers: signal detection, preparation/prevention, damage containment, recovery, and learning (Alkhawlani et al., 2016). First signal detection. Generally, there are many studies considering the signal

detection phase. Mitroff (1994) notes that the sign detection phase entails looking for the cautious symptoms of a crisis and acting to save you as many as possible before the warnings result in a crisis. Signal detection is the first stage focusing on detecting potential crises that could impact the company (Alkhawlani et al., 2016). Second, preparation and prevention. Prevention consists of diverse ways to lessen the chance of a disaster. The selection of a prevention method is primarily based on the diagnosis focus. Even though the risk cannot be eliminated, prevention is used to reduce the potential impact of a crisis (Alkhawlani et al., 2016; McNeil et al., 2015; Mikusova & Horvathova, 2019). The third is damage containment. Damage containment is one of the emerging determinants in assessing crisis management in the service sector. As mentioned by Pearson & Mitroff (1993), damage containment is the activities undertaken to minimize the spread and impact of a crisis is referred to as damage containment. Four, recovery. Several review papers on crisis management and recovery are available. Organizations that are best organized in short- and long-term business recovery should have a program (Alkhawlani et al., 2016). The last learning. The final stage of crisis management is that the lessons learned from the previous crisis can be reflected in acceptable plans (Alkhawlani et al., 2016). This stage includes reflection activities where lessons are learned from the crisis (Crandall et al., 2013).

In the context of hospitality, crisis management refers to the planning and implementation of structured and deliberate processes to manage and overcome the adverse effects of crises and disasters on tourism stakeholders (Fink, 1986; Ghaderi et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2015). It also addresses the opportunities for advancement in hospitality systems and procedures. Hang et al (2020) argue that during the current COVID-19 pandemic, crisis management focusing on shared emotions is critical, as it can establish emotional attachment with tourists. Similarly, Wut et al (2021) suggest that most mainstream crisis management research focuses on crisis impact and recovery, risk management, risk perception, and disaster management. All prevention practices remain in the priority quadrant during the pandemic stage, such as marketing practices (lowering office service list prices and marketing to new segments), human resources practices (reducing the labour force by unpaid vacation), and governmental assistance should be at a low priority (Lai & Wong, 2020).

According to Tsao & Ni (2016), the pandemic crisis significantly impacted the tourism industry because it could take over a year to restore travel patterns to the pre-pandemic level (Pine & McKercher, 2004). In addition, the responses to the crises can also affect a destination's image and reputation of attractiveness, and thus its survival and prosperity (Santana, 2004). The COVID-19 pandemic has treated a significant blow to the hotel industry, given the increasing number of travel restrictions, and crisis management procedures supporting the industry's needs are changing as the pandemic continues (AlBattat & Mat Som, 2013; Andri, 2021; Coban & Ozel, 2022; Lai & Wong, 2020; Wut et al., 2021). Accordingly, Lai and Wong (2020) were the first to analyze the usage and significance of crisis management methods in the Israeli hotel industry in crisis management practices. The findings reveal which practices the managers deem essential and which rules they employ during an industry crisis. They discovered that importance-usage-performance analysis was used to categorize six categories of methods (i.e., pricing, marketing, maintenance, human resources, government assistance, and epidemic prevention) into four executable crisis

management strategies (i.e., priority, maintain, low stress, and possible overkill) for each stage.

Brand Performance

Recent studies evaluating brand-related concepts have chosen to focus on brand performance, although it provides a more accurate picture of the efficacy of an organization's brand-related activities (Chang et al., 2018; Cui et al., 2014; Wai Jin et al., 2016). Brand performance can be viewed as a factor in determining a brand's success; this can help brands reach their market objectives (Jennifer, 2022). Several strategies, broadly classified as financial and non-financial performance, can be used to measure the performance of a business (Ahmad & Jamil, 2020). Return on investment has been added to the metrics of brand performance models to measure the brand's financial performance (Badenhausen, 2017). According to Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001), brand performance results from a brand's desirability and profitability. Iyer et al (2019) define brand performance as a combination of financial performance measurements (such as market share and profitability) and non-financial performance measures focused on the medium- to long-term maintenance of brands.

In addition, the literature analysis reveals that brand performance is evaluated by enterprises and consumers (Unurlu & Uca, 2017). While evaluations based on consumers are frequently referred to as "brand performance," assessments based on businesses are referred to as "financial or profitability performance." Among the fundamental factors used to evaluate brand performance are pricing flexibility, price bonuses, brand market share, cost structure, profitability, and category success (Calik et al., 2013). According to Iyer et al. (2019), brand performance is defined as a combination of financial performance measures (such as market share and profitability) and non-financial performance measures that are oriented toward the medium to long-term maintenance of brands (brand equity elements such as brand image and brand awareness). Indeed, recent studies assessing brand-related constructs have chosen to focus on brand performance because it provides a more accurate indication of an organization's brand-related activities' efficacy (Chang et al., 2018; Cui et al., 2014)

Conceptual Framework of Crisis Management and Brand Performance Relationship

Ulmer & Sellnow (2000) have conceptualized the corporate crisis rising as an essential issue. They observed that crisis issues indicate that corporate communication during a crisis assumes strategic significance. The brand crisis is a source of uncertainty and organizational change (Hewett & Lemon, 2019) because it occurs unexpectedly (Bundy et al., 2017; Coombs, 2007). Apart from that, a lack of frameworks combined with a lockdown situation in which communication between external stakeholders and decision-makers was limited resulted in a lack of creative innovation, indicating that the absence of foundations during a crisis can have significant consequences (Breier et al., 2021; Pinzaru et al., 2020; Saraceno, 2021; Vasickova, 2020). There is, however, a scarcity of literature that can elaborate on the processes firms use to identify and manage events of this magnitude. Following identifying the relevant literature reviews, the criterion variable of interest in this study is "brand performance," and the predictor variable is "crisis management." If a brand's brand performance is strong, it will affect and supports the business stability of a brand (Bhandari et al., 2021; Breier et al., 2021; Hariyanto, 2018; Iyer et al., 2019; Li & Wei, 2016; Maulani,

2021; Wai Jin et al., 2016; Yao-Chin Wang & Yeasun Chung, 2015). However, the limitation is that the new crisis management and brand crisis keywords that appeared during COVID-19 are hard to obtain (Breier et al., 2021; Knowles et al., 2020; Tongare, 2021).

Hence:

H₁: Crisis management has a significant effect on the up-scale hotel brand's performance during the post-COVID-19 pandemic

Methodology

This research on hotel managers in Indonesia was conducted for numerous reasons. First, few studies have been conducted on the effect of health crises on hospitality and tourism in developing nations (Novelli et al., 2018). Second, Indonesia is the largest economy in Southeast Asia (The World Bank, 2022), and crises' effect on this industry is frequently devastating for developing nations (Vo-Thanh et al., 2022). Lastly, Indonesia, like other nations, has been severely economically impacted by COVID-19. This study aims to enhance the hotel managers' understanding of the brand performance and its effect on the four-star and five-star hotel segment during the COVID-19 pandemic. The research design phase follows the phases in which the research problem and objectives are identified.

Measures

According to Alkhawani et al (2016), the majority of crisis management researchers used the dimensions and items proposed by Mitroff et al (1987) and Fink (1986). On the other hand, the related items were also used by Alkhawani et al (2016), who introduced five more related items, while Faulkner (2001) utilized five related items and Liu et al (2015) used three items. Finally, Coombs (2007) utilized only two items. To investigate the Brand performance, we used the well-established scale of average daily rate (ADR), rooms revenue per available room (RevPAR) based on Carvell et al (2016); O'Neill & Carlback (2011), and market share by (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; Iyer et al., 2019). Whereas all statements of the questionnaire in this study were measured with a seven-point Likert-type scoring system applied to a scale anchored by "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (7) were found in the past for branding topics as found (Carlson et al., 2019; Foroudi, 2018; Hair et al., 2021; Kandapa, 2015).

Sample Profile

Questionnaires are commonly used to collect large amounts of quantitative data (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). According to the Indonesia Hotel General Manager Association (HGMA), there seem to be 1,400 IHGMA members across 34 provinces in Indonesia, with nearly 95 per cent of general hotel managers in Indonesia being Indonesian citizens (Gunawan, 2021). Furthermore, expecting large targeted populations of IHGMA members before the data collection, the decision to translate the questions from English to Indonesia was inevitable. Brace (2013) emphasized the importance of proper selection to ensure respondents understand the meaning, shades of meaning, and nuances.

In developing the questionnaire for this research, a second opinion will assist the researcher in having better instruments for the data collection. The present study will interview a group expert panel of ten senior hotel managers and five senior academicians. Also used to measure the questionnaire's reliability was Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was more significant than 0.7 for all variables and 93% for the entire

questionnaire, which is an adequate coefficient and suggests that the reliability of this research instrument is adequate. After the pre-test, a pilot study with a 50-respondent convenience sample was conducted (Fraser et al., 2018; Su et al., 2016). A small sample of hotel managers who are IHGMA members were randomly selected for a pilot test. After receiving approval from the ERC, 50 questionnaires will be sent between September 21, 2022, and October 31, 2022, to senior hotel managers at four-star and five-star hotels in Jakarta, Bandung, and Yogyakarta.

The sample size appropriate for this study was determined to be the minimum sample size of 333 people among unlimited population based on the Conroy sampling formula at a 95% confidence level and 5% sampling error (Conroy, 2016). This is in line as shown by Hair et al. (2017), the 10-times rule stipulates that the minimum “sample size should be equal to the greater of 10 times the largest number of formative indicators used to measure one construct or ten times the largest number of structural paths directed at a specific latent construct in the structural model”. It was heavily criticized by subsequent studies, which argued that it is not a valid criterion for determining sample size for PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2017; Cepeda, et al., 2016; Richter, Sinkovics, et al., 2016). The present study adopted the sample size suggestion by (Peng & Lai, 2012; Hair et al., 2017; Memon et al., 2020). For this study, the researchers adopted cluster samples, a technique under probability sampling. Cluster samples are samples collected in groups or chunks of elements that are, ideally, natural aggregates of elements within the population (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). The researcher mainly uses cluster sampling because IHGMA has representatives through its chapters in every province in Indonesia, which will be distributed to the 14 provinces in Indonesia with the most four and five-star hotels, as determined by BPS-Indonesia Statistics (BPS-Statistics Indonesia, 2021). The author assumes that, of Indonesia’s 34 provinces, 14 can be considered representative of the population, or more than fifty per cent. The following are the provinces’ names: Jakarta, Banten, West Java, Central Java, East Java, Yogyakarta, Bali, West of Nusa Tenggara, North of Sumatera, Riau Island, Lampung, West of Kalimantan, East of Kalimantan, and South Sulawesi.

Findings

The Smart-PLS 3.0 software was used to examine the psychometric properties of the scales and test the hypotheses via partial least squares-based structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM). The partial least squares (PLS) technique is a component-based method for testing structural equation models (Iyer et al., 2021; Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010). PLS-SEM is appropriate for testing the model because research on the performance of organizations and brands is still in its exploratory phase. In such situations, researchers recommend PLS-SEM as the preferred method of analysis (Hair et al., 2011; Sarstedt et al., 2022). In addition, PLS-SEM does not impose SEM constraints based on regression or covariance, such as normal distribution, minimum sample size, or model complexity (Hair et al., 2011). After collecting their views, the final questionnaire was developed.

Using item reliability, composite reliability (CR), and average variance to evaluate construct reliability (AVE). Item reliability was evaluated based on the observed variable’s loading on the latent variable. Minimum loading of 0.6 is recommended (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Table I reveals that every item had a loading of 0.70 or higher. In addition, the associated t-statistics indicate that all loadings were statistically significant (Hair et al., 2021). As suggested by Hair

et al (2014); Pallant (2002), the indicator loading (factor loading) value and composite reliability (to measure internal consistency reliability) must be evaluated when determining the reliability. In general, the cut-off points for the factor loading values should be greater than 0.70 (>0.70) for confirmatory research data to ensure that the model is statistically significant and fits the data (Hair et al., 2017). In addition, one indicator in recovery needed to be removed since it had fulfilled the requirement of the threshold value, namely an item about the hotel performing a damage audit/monitoring system for the recovery process below 0.70 (0.66). However, this demonstrated that the indicators were valid for measuring the study's constructs.

Table 1
Cross-Loadings CR

	Construct	Items	Loadings Factor
1	Signal detection	The hotel formulates and assesses potential disaster origin and probability scenarios	0.843
2		The hotel must appoint a crisis management team (i.e., a coordination and communication system)	0.889
3		The hotel identifies external organizations that can assist the hotel during a crisis	0.859
1	Preparation and prevention	The hotel establishes a crisis call center for hotel operations	0.802
2		The hotel provides health risk education and training for hotel employees.	0.874
3		The hotel has scheduled meetings to conduct a sham crisis management drill	0.884
4		The hotel maintains cleanliness and hygiene in and around the property	0.746
1	Recovery	The hotel allocates funds for technological development to detect factors and harmful effects of crises	0.810
2		The hotel actively seeks financial incentives from the government	0.770
3		The hotel applies media communication strategies (e.g., apologies, corrective actions, mortification) in both online and traditional communication methods to identify the safety of the hotel	0.885
1	Learning	The hotel's top management is responsible for evaluating crisis management and planning for future improvements	0.882
2		The hotel's top management is responsible for providing training from other agencies in dealing with crises	0.915
3		The hotel's top management believes rapid action during the crisis will reduce the negative impacts	0.904
4		The hotel provides the resources needed (i.e., materials, people, technology, and information) to prepare for anticipated crises	0.864
1	Brand Performance	The hotel's Average Daily Rate (ADR) is a crucial determinant of brand performance	0.817
2		The hotel's Revenue Per Available Room (RevPAR) is a crucial determinant of brand performance	0.910
3		The hotel's market share is vital in understanding brand performance.	0.893
4		The shareholder's value is vital for the hotel to assess the hotel's performance	0.825

The average variance extracted (AVE) was calculated for each latent construct to analyze convergent validity. AVEs for constructs ranged from 0.62 (recovery, preparation and prevention) to 0.74 (signal detection, learning and brand performance). In addition, the AVE, which represents the total amount of latent constructs, must exceed the recommended threshold of >0.50 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Table 2 shows CR and AVE which are above 0.7 and 0.5, respectively. The item loadings, Cronbach's alpha, and average variance extracted values suggest that the reliability of the constructs was adequately supported (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 1998). Cronbach's alpha coefficient was also used to measure the reliability of the questionnaire. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was higher than 0.7 for all variables and 93% for the whole questionnaire, which suggests that the reliability of this tool of study is at a suitable level (Pallant, 2002).

Table 2

Cronbach Alpha, CR and AVE Alpha

	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Brand Performance	0.884	0.920	0.744
Learning	0.914	0.939	0.795
Preparation and prevention	0.846	0.897	0.686
Recovery	0.762	0.863	0.678
Signal detection	0.830	0.898	0.746

Moreover, Fornell and Larcker's (1981) analysis is also utilized in discriminant validity. Table 3 displays the Fornell-Larcker criterion analysis for determining the discriminant validity of the model. Each bold figure showing the AVE's square root in the diagonal is greater than the off-diagonal figures in its corresponding row and column. If discriminant validity is met, it is indicated in the final column of the table. All variables possess discriminant validity, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Fornell-Larcker Criterion

	Brand Performance	Learning	Preparation and prevention	Recovery	Signal detection
Brand Performance	0.862				
Learning	0.718	0.891			
Preparation and prevention	0.630	0.827	0.828		
Recovery	0.684	0.837	0.817	0.823	
Signal detection	0.621	0.689	0.740	0.717	0.864

For discriminant validity, a cross-loading table was also used. **Table 4** displays the cross-loadings of each individual indicator. As shown in the table, the loadings of the indicators in bold are significantly higher than those of the other indicators. These outcomes also validate the discriminant validity of the study's scales.

Table 4
Cross loadings

	Brand Performance	Learning	Preparation and prevention	Recovery	Signal Detection
Brand Performance 1	0.817	0.532	0.461	0.524	0.476
Brand Performance 2	0.910	0.626	0.549	0.610	0.545
Brand Performance 3	0.894	0.653	0.557	0.611	0.531
Brand Performance 4	0.824	0.652	0.592	0.606	0.582
Signal detection 1	0.503	0.587	0.597	0.580	0.843
Signal detection 2	0.521	0.650	0.743	0.677	0.889
Signal detection 3	0.579	0.552	0.580	0.603	0.859
Preparation and prevention 1	0.534	0.650	0.802	0.711	0.699
Preparation and prevention 2	0.512	0.717	0.874	0.654	0.586
Preparation and prevention 3	0.585	0.811	0.884	0.738	0.673
Preparation and prevention 4	0.440	0.557	0.746	0.590	0.467
Recovery 1	0.556	0.734	0.696	0.810	0.520
Recovery 2	0.471	0.607	0.621	0.770	0.529
Recovery 3	0.644	0.721	0.699	0.885	0.705
Learning 1	0.636	0.882	0.736	0.766	0.616
Learning 2	0.671	0.915	0.755	0.787	0.671
Learning 3	0.658	0.904	0.741	0.734	0.605
Learning 4	0.590	0.864	0.716	0.695	0.559

Discussion

Result of Hypotheses

The hypothesized relationship between research structural model constructs was evaluated using PLS-SEM bootstrapping. The results of the structural model are provided in Table 5. Table 5 provides a summary of T statistics along with standard values for each path coefficient. The following effects were discovered based on T statistics test results. The study's results showed that all variables significantly positively influence brand performance. Brand performance significantly influences signal detection ($= 10.996$, $p = 0.000$). Brand performance significantly influences recovery ($= 16,548$, $p = 0.000$). Brand performance significantly influences preparation and prevention ($= 13,965$, $p = 0.000$). The correlation between brand performance and learning is statistically significant ($= 0.462$, $p = 0.000$). This result suggests that crisis management is vital in all market conditions, not just stable ones. In particular, brands must evolve when market factors constantly change (instead of focusing solely on consistency). R^2 represents the extent to which exogenous latent variables explain the variation in endogenous variables (Hair et al., 2014). Falk and Miller (1992) proposed that the R^2 value for endogenous variables must not be less than 0.10, whereas Chin (1998) categorized R^2 values as substantial explanation (value $=0.67$), moderate explanation (value $=0.33$) and weak explanation (value $=0.19$). Therefore, the endogenous variables crisis management and brand performance have sufficient variance explained values, whereas the endogenous variable brand performance has a moderate variance explained value. The results of the current study supported the findings of Mitroff's model also proposes using an integrated crisis management method comprising proactive and reactive measures aimed at the management plan before, during, and after the crisis (Ritchie & Jiang, 2019). This study results from the evidence that a lack of frameworks combined with a lockdown situation in which communication between external stakeholders and decision-makers was limited resulted in a lack of creative innovation, indicating that the absence of foundations during a crisis can have significant consequences (Breier et al., 2021; Pinzaru et al., 2020; Saraceno, 2021; Vasickova, 2020).

Table 5

Path Coefficients

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (O/STDEV)	P Values	F-Squared	Supported
Learning-> Brand Performance	0.718	0.719	0.038	18.912	0.000	0.064	Yes
Preparation and prevention -> Brand Performance	0.630	0.633	0.045	13.965	0.000	0.657	Yes
Recovery -> Brand Performance	0.684	0.686	0.041	16.548	0.000	0.880	Yes
Signal Detection -> Brand Performance	0.621	0.621	0.057	10.996	0.000	0.629	Yes
R-squared to brand performance (adjusted R-Square)	0.057 (0.551)						

Implication

This research has implications for hotel administrators, proprietors, and policymakers. This study has four ramifications that may help hotel managers mitigate the effects of this crisis. First, hotel managers should continue to develop innovative practices for all enterprise/partner activities in order to adapt to the challenges posed by the pandemic. Second, hotel managers should stay abreast of relevant business information solutions (through networking with other entrepreneurs, hotel partners, consultations, and training) to make logical decisions to overcome the challenge. Thirdly, hotel managers must continually revise their plans and strategies to achieve the adaptability required to respond to COVID-19's effects. Lastly, to ensure business continuity and survival in the aftermath of the pandemic, hotel managers should develop a strategic business plan to address the negative effects of the crisis on their businesses.

Additionally, by conducting this study, it is hoped that a better way to understand hotel managers is to identify the factors that contribute to the crisis management of the brand performance of the up-scale hotel in Indonesia. The COVID-19 pandemic has substantially impacted the brand performance of hotels. During this crisis, Indonesian hotels struggled to carry out their operational duties and were exposed to significant financial risks. Unlike the normal environment where the brand pulls the customers, and the customers pay a premium for their preferred brands, the case was not so similar during the Covid19 pandemic (Gogoi, 2021). The COVID-19 pandemic has accelerated the shift in the hotel business (Arabadzhyan et al., 2021; Deloitte, 2020a; Musadad, 2020). However, competitive pressures worsened some businesses' situations due to a shift in comparative and competitive advantages (Wut et al., 2021). Subsequently, crises are sequences of events that can have significant negative consequences for an organization if they are not managed effectively (Coombs, 2007, 2015). In addition, during the current COVID-19 pandemic, many businesses suddenly need substantial business model adaptation (Ritter & Pedersen, 2020).

Conclusion

The study was based on four fundamental hypotheses regarding the relationship between these variables. The study's key findings indicate that innovations in the crisis management practices of the hotel industry in Indonesia significantly impact the performance and survival of four- and five-star hotels. In addition, this study has significant theoretical implications. Understanding the potential effects of crisis management factors on the development and impact of brand performance processes is the primary contribution of this study. Using the literature on crisis management and brand performance as a foundation, we explain the role of crisis management in influencing different strategic brand management and internal branding and, in turn, brand performance. The results of this study add literacy about how hospitality organizations are responding to and recovering from brand crises during the pandemic (Paraskevas & Quek, 2019; Piga et al., 2021; Shen et al., 2020). However, Wu et al (2020); Polemis (2021) argued that brand performance fluctuated during the COVID-19 pandemic based on the tendency of room rates to decline significantly.

Although the study's findings have implications for researchers and practitioners, they must be interpreted cautiously. Considering that brand performance can be influenced by signal detection, preparation and prevention, recovery and learning, the R-square on brand performance indicates that organizational culture, structure, or other capabilities can also impact brand performance. Future researchers must identify these additional variables to

develop a more comprehensive brand management model in the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic. This study would have also benefited from a deeper comprehension of the context in which these decision-makers viewed the various market orientation types and brand management capabilities. In addition, this study would have benefited more from a field interview approach. A field interview method would have allowed hotel managers and owners to delve deeper into identifying “tacit knowledge” sources, which a survey would not have allowed. A third limitation of this study was that the data were cross-sectional. Because the impact of crisis management on organizational performance is frequently delayed, a more longitudinal approach to drawing a more accurate picture of the relationships identified in this study may be preferable. Furthermore, we use one key respondent from each organization, the hotel manager, which can result in some bias in traditional methods. Future research may collect customer data for brand performance.

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