

Scoping Review of Hospital Business Continuity Plans to Validate the Improvement after the 2011 Great East Japan Earthquake and Tsunami.

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journal or publication title	Tohoku Journal of Experimental Medicine
volume	251
number	3
page range	147-159
year	2020-07-09
URL	http://hdl.handle.net/10097/00130862

doi: 10.1620/tjem.251.147

1 *Review*

2 **Title:** Scoping review of hospital business continuity plans to validate the improvement
3 after the 2011 Great East Japan Earthquake and Tsunami

4

5 **Short title:** Improvement of Hospital BCP after GEJET

6

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35 **Abstract**

36 During a disaster, all hospitals are expected to function as “social critical institutions”
37 that protect the lives and health of people. In recent disasters, numerous hospitals were
38 damaged, and this hampered the recovery of the affected communities. Had these
39 hospitals business continuity plans (BCPs) to recover quickly after the disaster, most of
40 the damage could have been avoided. This study conducted a scoping review of the
41 historical trend and regional differences in hospital BCPs to validate the improvement of
42 the BCP concept based on our own experience at Tohoku University Hospital, which was
43 affected by the 2011 Great East Japan Earthquake and Tsunami (GEJET). We searched
44 PubMed by using keywords related to BCP and adapted 97 articles for our analysis. The
45 number of articles on hospital BCPs has increased in the 2000s, especially after Hurricane
46 Katrina in 2005. While there are regional specificity of hazards, there were many common
47 topics and visions for BCP implementation, education, and drills. From our 2011 GEJET
48 experience, we found that BCPs assuming region-specific disasters are applicable in
49 various types of disasters. Thus, we suggest the following integral and universal
50 components for hospital BCPs: (1) alternative methods and resources, (2) priority of
51 operation, and (3) resource management. Even if the type and extent of disasters vary, the
52 development of BCPs and business continuity management strategies that utilize the
53 abovementioned integral components can help a hospital survive disasters in the future.

54
55 **Key Words:**

56 Alternative methods and resource; business continuity plan (BCP); disaster medicine;
57 priority of operation; scoping review

Introduction

During a catastrophe, be it a natural or manmade disaster, all hospitals are expected to operate as “social critical institutions” that protect the lives and health of the affected people (World Health Organization 2015). The healthy status of the affected people leads to quick recovery of the affected community. But are hospitals currently strong enough to effectively withstand disaster? The answer is “No.” Current disaster countermeasures implemented by hospitals have not been enough.

In 2018, Japan experienced many natural disasters, and hospital business continuity (BC) began facing several new challenges. On June 18, 2018, a large earthquake during a morning commute in north Osaka stopped traffic, and this resulted in hospital dysfunction owing to the lack of hospital staff (Hirata and Kimura 2018). In July, some hospitals in west Japan lost power supply because of torrential rains that lasted for days, causing both a flood and landslides. Those hospitals had their emergency power generators on the first floor, which were inundated because of the unexpected flooding (Oda et al. 2019; Sato and Imamura 2019). On September 6, an earthquake of magnitude M6.7 in Hokkaido caused the shutdown of a thermal power plant and resulted in the blackout of the entire Hokkaido Island. The blackout ceased the functioning of many medical devices (e.g., mechanical ventilators, artificial dialyzers) and put several patients’ lives at risk. Although the hospital buildings did not collapse structurally, we experienced a paralysis of hospital functions, as though it were a “functional disease of a society.”

Modern hospitals need to be equipped with a wide range of structural, non-structural, and functional capacities. As a result of diverse specialties and functional advancements in medical fields, medical operations have been subdivided, and many kinds of specialists, including non-medical staff (e.g., maintenance, inspection, and cleaning staff, and security guards), are essential. Medical devices depend heavily on their lifelines, namely electricity, gas, and water supply. If these lifelines or commute systems in the area are shut down, the hospitals that have not prepared for this situation cannot function, as it was in Osaka and Hokkaido. No hospital can function alone in an area, especially during a disaster. For a hospital to function, it needs a strong network and the support of relevant organizations including medical, non-medical, and lifeline supply chains.

The concept of BC is different from conventional disaster prevention. We have to ask “by what time,” “by which alternative means,” and “to what extent” we should recover our business from the perspective of organizational functions and processes including input and output. In Japan, business continuity plans (BCPs) were introduced as countermeasures in the fields of information security, earthquakes, and pandemics such as the influenza in the 2000s (Ministry of Economy 2005; Inter-ministerial Avian

96 Influenza Committee 2007). After the 2011 Great East Japan Earthquake and Tsunami
97 (GEJET) that affected all of the east of Japan and either destroyed or functionally
98 impaired a number of hospitals (Ishigaki et al. 2013; Egawa et al. 2018), a momentum
99 toward developing hospital BCPs grew, drawing influence from the prevalence of BCPs
100 in other business fields including factories, supply chains, social lifeline utility,
101 communication, and transport (Cabinet Office 2013). In the medical field, health care
102 workers started to consider how and when we should strive to recover our businesses and
103 to what extent it would be possible with restricted human and material resources.
104 Yamanouchi et al. advocated that all hospitals, including small and psychiatric ones,
105 should have BCPs to survive on their own for several days, in order to reduce
106 “preventable disaster death (PDD)” after the investigation of the affected hospitals caused
107 by the 2011 GEJET (Yamanouchi et al. 2015; Yamanouchi et al. 2017). PDD refers to
108 death during a disaster that can be prevented under a normal hospital situation and with
109 appropriate systems. They identified 125 PDD cases in the hospitals in Miyagi prefecture
110 that had been devastated by the 2011 GEJET. Currently in Japan, every disaster base
111 hospital (DBH), which plays a key role in disaster case management, is expected to
112 establish its own BCP and training in addition to ensuring a seismic structure and
113 sufficient equipment to meet certification requirements (Ministry of Health 2018).

114 The state of hospital BCPs has been evolving rapidly both in Japan and world over.
115 This article aims to perform a scoping review of historical trends, regional differences,
116 and commonalities in hospital BCPs to validate the improvement of the hospital BCP
117 concept based on our experience at the Tohoku University Hospital after the 2011 GEJET.

118

119

Scoping review of past hospital BCPs

120 As of April 15, 2020, we searched PubMed using the terms “hospital business continuity,”
121 “business continuity plan,” “safe hospital in disaster,” and “business continuity in
122 disaster.” We identified 1452 articles, including some that overlapped. We excluded
123 articles that have no valid abstract and that are not related to the themes of health,
124 medicine, hospitals, and BCPs (Fig. 1). Finally, we analyzed 97 articles in this study. As
125 hospital BCP is a local-context dependent emerging field of research that is diverse, and
126 that there are a wide range of hazard-contexts, a scoping review is more appropriate than
127 a systematic review to identify gaps in the existing literature (Arksey and O'Malley 2005).
128 Such a scoping study takes the process of dissemination one step further by drawing
129 conclusions from the existing literature on the overall state of research activity. We
130 designed this study to identify the trend and gaps in the evidence base where no research
131 has been conducted, and summarized the research findings to validate our experience and

132 the implementation of BCPs in our institution. This is not a systematic literature review
133 based on the PRISMA statement (Moher et al. 2009). We followed Arksey and
134 O'Malley's framework as far as possible, that is: identifying the research question,
135 identifying relevant studies, selecting the studies, charting the data, and collating,
136 summarizing, and reporting the results. Our research questions were: "What is the trend
137 in hospital BCPs according to the type of hazard and local specificity? What is the most
138 relevant function of hospital BCPs in validating our own experience?"

139

140 *Historical trend*

141 There are a few articles on hospital BCPs in disaster management that were written before
142 1990. Some articles definitively titled "business continuity plans" in the public health and
143 medical fields have been published since 1993 (Luecke and Hoopingartner 1993; Norcross
144 et al. 1993). Since the late 2000s, BCP articles in the public health and medical fields
145 have been published constantly, and the number increased in the 2010s (Fig. 2). As
146 mentioned above, in Japan, the concept of BCP in other businesses began in the middle
147 of the 2000s, but BCPs in the public health and medical fields were delayed. The articles
148 on hospital BCP from Japan were published only after the 2011 GEJET caused significant
149 damages to hospitals (Kudo et al. 2013; Kuroda et al. 2013a; Kuroda et al. 2013b;
150 Tomizuka et al. 2013; Suginaka et al. 2014; Matsumura et al. 2015; Yamanouchi et al.
151 2015; Yamanouchi et al. 2017; Sugishita et al. 2019; Takeuchi et al. 2019). Some authors
152 have suggested that organizations that have experienced major disasters in the past can
153 take stronger countermeasures in comparison with other organizations that did not
154 experience such disasters (Seyedin et al. 2011). Fig. 2 shows that BCP articles were
155 published constantly after Hurricane Katrina in 2005 (Perce 2007; Lowe 2009), and their
156 number increased after the 2011 GEJET. Taking the increase in the number of instances
157 of large-scale natural disaster in recent years and the establishment of the Sendai
158 Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 (UN-DRR 2015) into account, it is
159 understandable that the number of hospital BCP articles doubled in the 2010s when
160 compared with the 2000s. The Sendai Framework has framed one of its seven global
161 targets to "substantially reduce disaster damage to critical infrastructure and disruption of
162 basic services, among them health and educational facilities, including through
163 developing their resilience by 2030." This, it intends to strengthen hospitals during
164 disaster.

165 There is continuous research output on BCPs against infectious diseases (Tomizuka et
166 al. 2013; Kandel 2015; Sugishita et al. 2019). The end of 2019 marked the spread of
167 Coronavirus disease 19 (COVID-19). Though COVID-19 has spread to all parts of the

168 world, few papers have specifically addressed the relationship between COVID-19
169 response and hospital BCPs. On April 7, 2020, only one paper mentioned that the
170 COVID-19 outbreak is an opportunity to review existing BCPs in order to address the
171 pandemic (Koonin 2020). Many previous papers referring to infectious outbreaks (i.e.,
172 pandemic influenza) and hospital BCPs dealt with the stockpile of personal protective
173 equipment and relocation plans for hospital staff when there were fewer staff members
174 (Tomizuka et al. 2013; Abramovich et al. 2017).

175

176 *Main topics of BCP*

177 Focusing on the main topics of medical BCP articles after 2006, articles were
178 consistently published on pandemics/infectious diseases (Horvath et al. 2006; Itzwerth et
179 al. 2006) (Table 1.). After the pandemic influenza outbreak in 2009, 4 articles were
180 published in 2010 (Roberts and Molyneux 2010; Sprung et al. 2010a; Sprung et al. 2010b;
181 Zimmerman et al. 2010). In line with the development of electronic health and medical
182 records, articles on cyber security and information technology (IT) have been on the rise
183 (Gamble 2008; Gomes and Lapao 2008; Khorasani 2008) (Table 1. and 2.). Some articles
184 focused on the functional aspect, such as electronic records, picture archiving and
185 communication systems (PACS), or other technical equipment that depend heavily on
186 lifelines according to the development of the hospital information system (Langer et al.
187 2012; Hoffman et al. 2018; Takeuchi et al. 2019).

188 In 2015, the World Health Organization (WHO) revised the Hospital Safety Index Guide
189 for evaluators (World Health Organization 2015). Before and after this revision, the
190 articles on hospital safety applying the WHO hospital safety index increased (Djalali et
191 al. 2014; Heidarlanlu et al. 2015; Asefzadeh et al. 2016) (Table 2.).

192 The enhancement of recoverability measures and collaboration with the community and
193 other businesses are also suggested. Several authors have advocated the establishment of
194 community-wide planning that utilizes robust hospital buildings as the core of local
195 disaster measures, with the aim of strengthening the connection with affiliated businesses
196 and supply chains (Buehler et al. 2006; Graham and Connolly 2007; Paturas et al. 2010;
197 Tosh et al. 2014; Landman et al. 2015; Morgan et al. 2015).

198

199 *Regional differences*

200 Table 3. shows the difference in the number of articles on hospital BCPs in each region.
201 The largest number (44) of articles comes from North America followed by Asia (16),
202 and next by articles that have a multinational focus (11).

203 In North America, articles on hurricanes, tornados, and typhoons and on the

204 establishment of BCPs were published more consistently (Norcross et al. 1993; Eastman
205 et al. 2007; Carlton and Bringle 2012; Christian et al. 2014; Hoffman et al. 2018;
206 Seltenrich 2018; Newman and Gallion 2019) (Table 3. and 4.). In Asia, a larger number
207 of articles focused on earthquakes (Kudo et al. 2013; Suginaka et al. 2014; Matsumura et
208 al. 2015; Yamanouchi et al. 2015; Yamanouchi et al. 2017), and the establishment of
209 BCPs. In the Middle East, articles focused on Safe Hospitals, and on the Hospital Safety
210 Index from the WHO (Park et al. 2010; Apisarnthanarak et al. 2013; Djalali et al. 2014;
211 Ardalan et al. 2016; Asefzadeh et al. 2016).

212 There were a few articles from Europe, Oceania, and Central and South America (Table
213 3.), as the types of hazards and medical and public health systems vary in local and
214 regional contexts, and articles tend to deal with region-specific hazards, as well as the
215 local and regional contexts of vulnerability and coping capacity.

216

217 *Commonality*

218 Much of the literature, however, has followed an all-hazards approach or has operated
219 without specific assumptions of hazards because it is not possible to predict the type and
220 extent of a particular hazard beforehand, and further, the unexpected damage and
221 cascading events can change the outcome, such as the nuclear power plant accident in the
222 2011 GEJET (Shibahara 2011).

223 Based on the change in hazards, hospital evacuation that constitutes a major burden for
224 hospitals is a constant focus in the literature. Most articles on tropical cyclone disasters
225 and hospital evacuations were published in North America, which focused on Hurricanes
226 Katrina, Sandy, Harvey, and Irma, and are region-specific in relation to hospital BCPs
227 (Icenogle et al. 2016; Hoffman et al. 2018; Seltenrich 2018; Newman and Gallion 2019).
228 The American College of Chest Physicians (CHEST) statement focuses on the evacuation
229 of critically ill patients in intensive care units (ICU) during a pandemic event or disaster;
230 it also acknowledged that critical care providers receive little to no training on how to
231 perform safe and effective ICU evacuations (King et al. 2014). King and the panel
232 developed expert opinion-based suggestions using a modified Delphi process reaching 13
233 key suggestions including regional planning, evacuation drills, patient transport
234 preparation and equipment, patient prioritization and distribution for evacuation, patient
235 information and tracking, and federal and international evacuation assistance systems.
236 There is a systematic literature review on the selection of hospital location (King et al.
237 2014; Moradian et al. 2017). Compared to the main determinants of cost and demand, the
238 disaster risk fell down to the fifth frequent reason to decide the hospital site suggesting
239 the need of advocacy of disaster risk reduction to health decision-makers.

240 The establishment of a BCP, together with training and drills, are common topics in the
241 literature regardless of region. To make hospital BCPs more practical in case of disasters,
242 it is essential to educate and train the hospital staff that carry it out. Some articles have
243 pointed out the importance of pre-disaster education and training, such as the attachment
244 and detachment skills of personal protective equipment during the outbreak of infectious
245 diseases, and the flow of staff while receiving many injured patients in mass casualty
246 incidents (Daugherty 2008; Kearns et al. 2014; Newman and Gallion 2019).

247 From the results of the scoping review, we found that even though the topics of BCP
248 articles in the world differ according to region, type of hazard, as well as the local and
249 regional contexts, there may be universal and common features of hospital BCPs.

250 Japan is located in “the ring of fire” that is an earthquake-prone area around the Pacific
251 Ocean. The results of this scoping review validate our own practice of implementing
252 hospital BCPs after the 2011 GEJET for more realistic preparedness, and BCM treating
253 earthquakes as a most possible but not the only hazards.

254

255 **Implementation of hospital BCPs at the Tohoku University Hospital after the 2011** 256 **GEJET**

257 *A Process to develop Tohoku University Hospital BCP*

258 Tohoku University Hospital (TUH) located in Sendai City, Miyagi Prefecture, has 1,225
259 beds and approximately 3,000 staff and 120 departments. It is one of the largest hospitals
260 in Japan. TUH was not inundated by the tsunami, but encountered the quake during the
261 2011 GEJET and lost gas and power supply. The emergency power generator immediately
262 replaced the electricity for critical hospital functions. TUH had an aseismic structure and,
263 fortunately, had no casualties among inpatients and staff. TUH dispatched medical staff
264 to inland and coastal hospitals affected by the 2011 GEJET, and accepted a large number
265 of patients from coastal hospitals (Satomi 2011). However, unforeseen problems arose.
266 Long-term disruption of social utility systems and the elevator impelled us to recognize
267 that it is critical to establish countermeasures for human and material resources to inspect,
268 maintain, and recover hospital functions in addition to an aseismic structure (Kudo et al.
269 2013; Nakagawa et al. 2013; Furukawa et al. 2014; Kudo et al. 2014; Matsumura et al.
270 2015).

271 Based on this experience of the 2011 GEJET, TUH decided to establish an original
272 hospital BCP in 2014. After carrying out investigations and other procedures, we
273 established the first TUH BCP in 2017 (Tohoku University Hospital 2019). Herein, we
274 describe the key steps in the development and improvement of our hospital BCP after the
275 2011 GEJET (Fig. 3).

276

277 *1) Establishment of the BCP Committee*

278 First, addressing BCP development and business continuity management (BCM) is an
279 indispensable official task of the hospital. We established the permanent BCP Committee
280 (Fig. 3, Step 1). It is critical to obtain a consensus and a budget from the hospital
281 executives for the activities of the committee. Thus, the vice hospital director in charge
282 of disaster countermeasures took on the task of committee chairperson. Over 20
283 representatives from the departments that play key roles in disaster response (i.e.,
284 emergency room, operation room, ICU, laboratories, radiology department, medical
285 engineers, nurse directors, dieticians, administrators, and so on) were chosen as
286 committee members. Several members including administrative officers also served as
287 secretaries to assist in the execution of the tasks of each department.

288 A brief committee meeting for confirmation and approval of the activity was held once
289 a month. In this monthly meeting, task provision and summary of investigations were
290 discussed (detailed later). Each committee member provided the aggregated results of the
291 investigations conducted by each department based on their real experiences and official
292 records of the 2011 GEJET.

293

294 *2) Review of critical operations/estimated recovery time objective (RTO)*

295 We first defined the fundamental role of TUH in disaster as a DBH and the largest
296 academic and educational tertiary hospital in the area to: (1) protect the security and life
297 of patients, family members, students, and staffs in disaster, (2) contribute to the
298 community by medical and public health response, (3) cooperate with and support the
299 community, (4) protect the community by preventing the contamination of hazardous
300 materials from the hospital, and (5) quickly recover clinical, research, and educational
301 activities.

302 Each committee member concretely listed department-specific critical operations by
303 classifying their operations into “Routine operations that cannot be halted even during a
304 disaster” and “New operations that are necessary after the onset of a disaster.” Each
305 committee member was asked to estimate the type of influence on the patient’s health and
306 life according to the downtime of critical operations. It was acceptable if the restoration
307 or continuity of critical operations, to some extent using alternative ways or things, before
308 the patient’s situation became irreversible (Fig. 3, Step 2). We decided RTO based on
309 these estimations and finalized the “list of total reviews of critical operations.” Thereby,
310 in-hospital department-specific critical operations that have to be performed
311 preferentially were visualized (Fig. 4).

312

313 3) *Investigation of human and material resources*

314 Next, we investigated the kinds and quantity of human and material resources needed to
315 implement critical operations in each department (Fig. 3, Step 3). We took a longer time
316 (two months) for this step, in order to ensure a careful investigation. Considering the
317 availability of current and new resources in view of the BCM, we arrived at the “essential
318 minimum” of human and material resources that are indispensable for the implementation
319 of critical operations.

320

321 4) *Risk analysis, assessment, and measures*

322 For risk analysis, assessment, and measures, each department was asked to conduct self-
323 assessment on the achievement of human and material resources (i.e., staff, electricity,
324 water, gas, medical gas, and so on) that was listed in the previous step (Fig. 3, Step 4). If
325 any resource was found insufficient, we asked each department to give concrete solutions.
326 As a result, the integrated list of risk assessment and measures in each department was
327 prepared. It revealed the actual situation of preparedness for each resource. We took two
328 months for this step because business continuity is no less than resource management and
329 proactive measures to implement critical operations.

330

331 5) *Development of proactive measures list/assessment of damage*

332 On the basis of the above process, we developed a list of proactive measures that we
333 could work on preferentially (Fig. 3, Step 5). These proactive measures were classified
334 into (1) those involving several departments and (2) those that can be solved in each
335 department. The crisis event we assumed in this BCP was defined as an inland earthquake
336 (of seismic intensity 6+ on the Japan Meteorological Agency scale, the highest being 7)
337 in Sendai where the TUH is located. To assume damage by the earthquake, we referred
338 to the “Sendai City earthquake hazard map” published by the Sendai City Office (Sendai
339 City Office 2002; Sendai City Office 2007).

340

341 6) *Re-examination of the Action Plan, report of BCP documents and development of the*
342 *first edition*

343 Each department polished their action plan originally generated in 2014 as the specific
344 action protocol (SAP) in this BCP reflecting the experiences during the 2011 GEJET (Fig.
345 3, Step 6). SAP defines the concrete actions to be taken for the restoration or
346 implementation of critical operations before the RTO at levels from immediately after the
347 onset, up to 3 m (Fig. 4). We added the concept and general rules for the BCP, resource

348 information of institutional lifelines, and arranged the document architecture. Final
349 approval was obtained from the administration council comprising hospital executives
350 and representatives of all departments. The first edition of TUH BCP was established on
351 November 1, 2017 (Tohoku University Hospital 2019).

352

353 7) *Maintenance and management of BCP (BCM)*

354 BCP should be periodically updated as untreated BCPs become worthless. It is necessary
355 to enhance the effectiveness of BCPs through training. TUH has addressed the following
356 items for BCM: (1) the solution of problems using the list of proactive measures through
357 small group meetings involving relevant departments, (2) BCP development for new
358 departments including the obstetrics and perinatal care units, psychiatry wards, infectious
359 disease wards, and some specific inpatient wards as a step toward implementing
360 department-specific BCPs throughout the hospital, (3) BCP exercise and training
361 including tabletop exercises, emergency facility inspection training with external
362 maintenance suppliers, and educational lectures. We will renew our TUH BCP annually.
363 The third edition is under development (Fig. 3, Step 7).

364

365

Discussion

366 If a disaster occurs, the public health and medical needs increase rapidly. The surge in
367 needs usually far exceeds the daily level of the capacity to respond to it. The provision
368 and capacity of public health and medical service will decrease for a while because of the
369 impact of the disaster. This is a specific feature of social safety organizations such as
370 public health, medical, police, fire department, and governmental administrations while
371 framing a BCP. The reasons for such business level fluctuations are: (1) there are special
372 operations that should not have any downtime even during routine operations (i.e., patient
373 care with mechanical ventilators), (2) new operations should be able to cope with surge
374 needs after a disaster (i.e., accepting mass casualty, dispatching staff), and (3) additional
375 operations for restoration of damaged facilities and systems. Every public health and
376 medical organization should recover as quickly as possible after a catastrophe by relying
377 on its BCP and BCM to reduce the operational burden at the peak and to shorten the
378 restoration time. Quick recovery of the health sector leads to quick recovery of the
379 affected community, and trust is gained from society. Every public health and medical
380 organization has to establish a BCP and BCM.

381 During the 2011 GEJET, we felt a terrible shake that we had never experienced before,
382 but hospital buildings did not collapse and neither the staff nor patients were injured.
383 Nevertheless, we suffered from the long-term stoppage of lifelines and lack of human and

384 material resources. We realized that countermeasures against an earthquake needs not
385 only to build an aseismic building structurally but also to take functional measures for the
386 long-term stoppage of lifelines and human and material resource that occur as a result of
387 any kind of disaster. There should be a common concept in place as hospital and health
388 care staff prepare to respond to health crises regardless of the type of hazards they face.
389 Hospital BCPs and BCM form the structured tool that can strengthen hospital resilience
390 during a disaster.

391 The component that should be included in a hospital BCP may change according to the
392 frequency and type of hazard, geographical and historical background, and hospital
393 systems. Combining the results of the scoping review and our own experience of the 2011
394 GEJET, we suggest that the following points are integral, universal components that must
395 be considered for inclusion in hospital BCPs:

- 396 i. Alternative methods and resources
- 397 ii. Priority of operations
- 398 iii. Resource management.

399 While considering alternatives, hospital evacuation is among the most difficult choices
400 to make, as many authors have mentioned (Bagaria et al. 2009; Adini et al. 2012; Petinaux
401 and Yadav 2013). Many problems pertaining to hospital evacuation, such as evacuation
402 criteria, how to transport a patient on life support, and where to transport inpatients,
403 remain unsolved and are repeatedly faced during disasters. Even though hospital
404 evacuation can be planned before a disaster, it is very difficult if it is necessary suddenly.
405 Hospital BCPs should contain the assumption of hospital evacuation needs.

406 It is impossible to carry out quick and effective disaster response and restoration
407 processes without a process of “selection and concentration” in handling limited human
408 and material resources. During the 2018 torrential rains in west Japan, a hospital in which
409 the director had decided on the priority of business restorations and RTO got an earlier
410 restart when compared to a hospital that had a plan without an RTO (Yuasa et al. 2019).
411 It is important to decide on critical operations and hospital policies based on how the
412 hospital should contribute to the community during a disaster. This decision needs the
413 understanding and determination of hospital executives.

414 The capacity and planning necessary to receive support should be considered an
415 important component of resource management. A hospital can survive and restore the
416 affected area by receiving and utilizing support from outside efficiently. At the time of
417 the 2011 GEJET, we found that the support received largely depended on how or to whom
418 the support would be ordered, and who would manage it (Sasaki et al. 2015). As the
419 opportunity to receive support (becoming a hospital affected by disaster) is very rare,

420 capacity building through education is critical. Potential recipients cannot build up their
421 capability of receiving support without appropriate imagination, education, and training.

422 In Japan, the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare (MHLW) made it mandatory for
423 every DBH to establish its own BCP and to conduct training (Ministry of Health 2018).
424 However, non-DBH, which accounts for 90% of Japanese hospitals, are not mandated to
425 do so. A hospital must play the role of a community safety structure in collaboration with
426 other medical and relevant organizations during a disaster. As a disaster can strike
427 anywhere, at any time, and target anybody, DBH, non-DBH, and other relevant
428 organizations should develop their own BCPs and BCM. Developing a BCP and BCM
429 itself takes a lot of time and effort but leads to fruitful results and future.

430

431

Limitations

432 In this scoping review, we searched the literature listed on PubMed extensively. However,
433 we did not look up other databases. Thus, there may be some relevant articles that were
434 not selected. It was not possible to directly compare the diversity in the type of hazards,
435 loco-regional contexts of vulnerability, and coping capacity including the difference in
436 health insurance, public health and medical systems, and cultural differences, in the
437 literature. However, the existence of such a difference itself suggests the necessity for
438 BCPs and BCM in each context in any hospital in the world.

439

440

Conclusion

441 Through this scoping review, we found a universal and common feature of hospital
442 BCPs with a diverse range of variabilities based on the era, region, types of hazards,
443 regional and local contexts of vulnerability, and coping capacities. Considering such
444 characteristics and our unforeseen experiences of the 2011 GEJET, we suggest the
445 following point as universal components for hospital BCPs with fewer assumptions of
446 specific hazards so that our hospital can be resilient in dealing with various situations
447 during a disaster: alternative methods and resources, priority of operations, and resource
448 management. Regardless of the type of hazard and loco-regional context, the
449 development of BCPs and BCM adopting integral components while considering various
450 types of disaster damage can help build hospital resilience to address disasters in the
451 future.

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453

Acknowledgment

454 The authors would like to thank administrative members, Makoto Abe, Chikara Sakurai,
455 Ikunori Yamazaki, Toru Okada, and Kentaro Ujiie from the Division of Structure Design

456 and Yasuo Yoshida and Ichiro Sasaki from the Division of Administration at the Tohoku
457 University Hospital for their tireless cooperation in the development of TUH BCP. This
458 work was supported by JSPS KAKENHI Grant Number JP19K10478. We would like to
459 thank Editage (www.editage.com) for English language editing.

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Conflict of interest

463 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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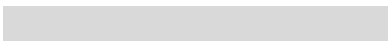
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734 **Figure legends**

735 **Fig. 1. Related articles identifying the process followed in this study.**

736 We searched PubMed using BCP-related terms and identified 1452 articles, including
737 overlapping ones. We excluded duplicates, articles with no valid abstract, articles that
738 were not related to health, medical, or BCP fields. We included 97 articles in this study.
739

740 **Fig. 2. Trends in the number of BCP articles in public health and medical fields.**

741 The dark bar indicates the annual number of BCP articles in the public health and
742 medical fields, and the light bar indicates the cumulative number of BCP articles in public
743 health and medical fields.
744

745 **Fig. 3. Process to develop the TUH BCP**

746 A brief committee meeting was held once a month, where various kinds of
747 investigations were carried out. Each investigation (each step) took one month except
748 for Steps 3 and 4, which took two months each. The results of this investigation were
749 reported at the next committee meeting to arrive at a consensus.
750

751 **Fig. 4. The list of critical operations and estimated RTO**

752 This is a representative table of entire hospital. Every department should have a similar
753 individual table.

754 Each row contains department name, critical operations and estimated RTO (colored
755 column). Green means there is no impact on patient's health condition or social trust to
756 the hospital; yellow means there is a possibility that some patient's condition may be
757 aggravated or partial loss of social trust; Red means there is a possibility that some
758 patient may die, and the loss of social trust.

759 Before the column turns into red from yellow, each department must resume the critical
760 operations by alternative methods or resources. By introducing the idea of RTO, we can
761 prioritize the critical operations.
762