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THE IMPACT OF SOCIAL CAPITAL ON U.S.-BASED
DESTINATION MARKETING ORGANIZATION SUCCESS AND
INTER-ORGANIZATIONAL RELATIONSHIPS

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in the College of Hospitality Management
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ABSTRACT

Previous literature echoes the notion that destination marketing organizations (DMOs) play a critical role in ensuring a desired tourism development scenario. To date, the performance measurement of destination marketing organizations is paralleled to financial indicators or operations, ignoring the presence and quality of relationships among DMOs and tourism stakeholders. Based on the premise of social capital theory, it is argued that social capital and the inter-organizational relationships between DMOs and tourism stakeholders can influence the success of tourism efforts in a destination, which in return is a contributing factor to the DMOs success as an organization. Furthermore, broader literature indicates that inter-organizational relationships moderate the influence of social capital in the success of the organizations. Yet, there is no empirical evidence on how these factors influence the success of U. S. DMOs. Hence, this study aimed to investigate the role of social capital and inter-organizational relationships and their impact on the DMO and its success.

A quantitative approach was employed for this study. The targeted population was DMO stakeholders in the United States. A web-based survey was designed and administered, adapting established scales from prior literature. Social capital was measured by its cognitive, relational, and structural dimensions, while inter-organizational relationships were measured by their trust, power symmetry, and commitment dimensions. A previously validated measurement instrument of success was also utilized as stakeholder satisfaction for measuring DMOs' success. Data were cleaned with SPSS v 24.0 and analyzed with Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM).

The results of the study indicate that both cognitive social capital and relational social capital have a positive impact on the success of the DMO. Additionally, the study indicates that the structural aspect of social capital was found not to influence the success of the DMO. The study results also showed that inter-organizational relationships did not moderate the relationship between social capital and DMO success. However, two of the components of IOR indicated a positive impact on DMO success.

The results of the study offer practitioners and academicians valuable insights into the indicators that influence the mechanism of DMOs success. Furthermore, the study contributes to the advancement of tourism literature by broadening the understanding of the success of destination marketing organizations. Lastly, the study shed light on the prominence of stakeholder-oriented marketing approaches for DMOs, highlighting the synergy created by these relationships.

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My Siblings

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES	x
LIST OF TABLES	xi
LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS	xii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background	1
1.2 Problem Statement	3
1.3 Justification of the Study	4
1.4 Theoretical Background	6
1.5 Proposed Conceptual Model	10
1.6 Study Objectives & Research Questions.....	11
1.7 Significance of the Study	12
1.8 Summary	13
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	14
2.1 Evolution of the Destination Marketing Literature	14
2.1.1 Destination Marketing Organizations (DMOs)	19
2.1.2 Stakeholder Theory.....	25
2.1.3 Metrics for DMO Performance: Success.....	30

2.1.4	Organizational Success in Not-For-Profits.....	33
2.1.5	Interorganizational Relationships.....	35
2.1.6	Stakeholder Relationships in Tourism Marketing.....	38
2.1.7	Interorganizational Relationships in Tourism Marketing.....	42
2.2	Social Capital Theory.....	48
2.2.1	Structural Dimension.....	52
2.2.2	The Cognitive Dimension.....	54
2.2.3	The Relational Dimension.....	57
2.3	Inter-Organizational Relationships.....	59
2.3.1	Power Symmetry.....	59
2.3.2	Trust.....	60
2.3.3	Commitment.....	62
2.4	DMO Success.....	63
2.4.1	Stakeholder Interaction.....	63
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY.....		67
3.1.	Sampling and Data Collection.....	68
3.2	Questionnaire Development.....	71
3.3	Data Analysis.....	72
CHAPTER 4: ANALYSIS AND RESULTS.....		78

4.1	Data Collection.....	78
4.2	Data Screening and Preparation	79
4.3	Demographics.....	80
4.4	Covid-19 Statements Regarding Relationship with DMO	85
4.5	Statistical Analysis	87
4.6	Chapter Summary.....	100
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION		102
5.1	Chapter Introduction	102
5.2	Summary of Study Methods.....	102
5.3	Discussion	104
5.3.1	Theoretical Implications Discussion	106
5.3.2	Implications for Managers Discussion	110
5.5	Limitations & Future Research	116
5.6	Chapter Summary.....	118
APPENDIX A SAMPLE SURVEY		119
APPENDIX B IRB APPROVAL LETTER		126
REFERENCES		128

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Proposed Conceptual Model	11
Figure 2: The Original Stakeholder Model – Freeman (1984)	26
Figure 3: Convention and Visitor Bureaus Stakeholders (Sheehan & Ritchie, 2005 p. 728).....	40
Figure 4: Hypothesized Research Model	65
Figure 5: Tourism Stakeholder Map. Adapted from Freeman (1984:55).....	68
Figure 6: General Reporting Standards for PLS-SEM Analysis (Latan, 2018).....	73
Figure 7: PLS Structural Model Results	98

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Chronology of the Creation of CVB-Type Organizations.....	15
Table 2: The Destination Marketing Literature	16
Table 3: Social Capital Definitions.....	50
Table 4: Sample Demographics	83
Table 5: Ethnicity & State Profile.....	84
Table 6: Industry Demographics.....	85
Table 7: Covid-19 Statements.....	86
Table 8: Reliability & Convergent Validity for Constructs.....	89
Table 9: Fornell-Larcker criterion discriminant validity assessment	90
Table 10: Cross-Loadings	91
Table 11: Results of Predictive Accuracy (R^2) and Predictive Relevance (Q^2)	93
Table 12: Path Coefficients.....	93
Table 13: Results of Hypothesis Testing	94
Table 14: Summary of the results of the structural model path coefficients.	100

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ADR: Average Daily Rate
CVB: Convention & Visitor Bureau
DMAI: Destination Marketing Association International
DMO: Destination Marketing Organization
IOR: Inter-organizational Relationships
MICE: Meetings Incentives Conferences Exhibitions
MSMO: Multi-Stakeholder Market Orientation
NTO: National Tourism Office
RevPAR: Revenue Per Available Room
RTO: Regional Tourism Office
STO: State Tourism Office

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The following chapter sets the stage for the purpose and significance of this study.

Firstly, background information provides the context for this study and identifies the gaps in tourism literature. Next, the research objectives are presented, and the overall significance of the study is discussed.

1.1 Background

Tourism, by its very nature, is a complex system of interrelated parts that must work together to support the common goals of economic, socio-cultural, and environmental development. The Destination Marketing Organization (DMO) is a vital element of the tourism system as it ensures that all tourism stakeholders (hotels, venues, theme parks, restaurants, etc.) are strategically aligned to contribute to a destination's success. In other words, the DMO acts as a management and marketing entity best suited to provide overall leadership and coordination for the destination to manage this complex tourism system (Bornhorst et al., 2010). Therefore, previous literature has extensively studied DMOs' contribution to tourism development, including the interests of all tourism stakeholders (Abou-Shouk, 2018) and the influence that DMOs marketing endeavors (e.g., destination image, destination branding, the competitiveness of destination) create on tourists' behavioral intentions (Line & Wang, 2017; Saraniemi & Komppula, 2019). Although these areas of research are essential and contribute to a greater understanding of the marketing and management of destinations, less attention is dedicated to the study of DMOs from an organizational perspective (e.g., Bornhorst, Ritchie, and Sheehan, 2010).

Furthermore, most of these studies have emphasized the DMOs performance indicators to

investigate what constitutes a successful DMO (Line, 2013; Line & Runyan, 2014, Line & Wang, 2017). At present, some of the critical indicators for DMOs performance are RevPAR (Revenue Per Available Room), ADR (Average Daily Rate), occupancy, or tourist arrivals (Lee et al., 2015). The current DMO's success metrics of a financial nature must be interpreted with caution since they are severely affected by external market conditions, e.g., economic, political, natural, or even technological changes, which in a sense are not related to DMOs performance as an organization (Cantor & Rosentraub, 2012; Cellini & Cuccia, 2015; Fyall & Leask, 2006; Fragkogianni, 2016). Indeed, there are three major drawbacks to these indicators: first, they do not reflect the mission goals of a DMO. Second, they are not sufficiently comprehensive to be utilized as metrics for DMO's organizational success; third, they do not recognize the influencing factors on the DMOs success. In other words, although these metrics provide some insights into the success of tourism marketing efforts, they are limited in comprehensively representing the success of DMOs as an organization.

Most importantly, despite the recognized importance of the role of the stakeholders, the existing metrics do not account for it. Discussing the metrics of a DMO without reference to the relationships with tourism stakeholders does not speak for their fundamental nature properly. Ensuring cooperation and collaboration amongst all tourism stakeholders within the destination has yielded more desired outcomes (Wang, Hutchinson, Okumus & Naipul, 2013; Palmer & Bejou, 1995). Based on this premise, several scholars argued that it is critical to continually account for social capital when assessing the commitment of resources (Henry & Dickey, 1993; Vandermeij, 1984; Kozak, 2002; Maclaren, 1996; Pearce, 1993, 1997). In support of this argument, Line and Runyan (2014) emphasize that leveraging tourism stakeholders' social capital can support the DMO's success since tourism stakeholders are directly in control of the

destination's core and supporting resources. If the DMO is successful in this pursuit, Pike and Page (2014) suggest that the DMO is in a prime position to create a sustainable competitive advantage (Ford, Wang & Vestal, 2012, Wang & Xiang, 2007; Line & Runyan, 2014). Intuitively, exploring how to empirically examine the influence of such factors on the DMOs success is worthwhile. Despite the wealth of literature pointing out the presence and quality of the DMO-tourism stakeholder relationships, the coordinated effort of tourism development is valuable in defining DMO's success (Lee et al., 2015; Perkins, Khoo-Lattimore, & Arcodia, 2021). Yet, social capital literature has scarcely been applied to the success of DMOs, nor the value of the inter-organizational relationships. To the researcher's knowledge, no empirical research has examined these relationships in tourism.

1.2 Problem Statement

The current approaches to DMOs success reflect the conceptualization and association of tourism as an economic activity (Mariani, 2020). As a result, the success of DMOs has primarily been measured with financial indicators (Destinations International, 2015). However, while the business side of tourism can be accurately measured with economic indicators, it is essential to remember that the mission of DMOs as organizations is not for profit but as profit generators for the stakeholders within a destination and to ensure long-term profitability. The confusion created can be attributed partially to the variety of organizational setups for DMOs. As Pike (2004) argues, there is no universally accepted model for the DMO, and their goals and performance metrics can vary. For example, DMOs in different countries, or even within the same country, such as the case of U.S.-based DMOs, have significant differences in their organizational operations, funding structures, and the number and supporting institutions and organizations,

e.g., chambers of commerce, art co-ops, governmental institutions, nontraditional agency entity acting on behalf of a government structure.

Nevertheless, in all their forms, DMOs share a common purpose of their marketing goals and catalyzing the cooperation and collaboration amongst all tourism stakeholders in a destination (Wang, Hutchinson, Okumus & Naipul, 2013; Palmer & Bejou, 1995). Additionally, DMOs are not profit-driven organizations in their essence. Domestically within the United States, many DMOs are registered and operate as Not-For-Profit (NPO) organizations, considered 501(c)(6) entities. Hence, the measurement of the success of DMOs would more accurately be measured from the NPO's perspective rather than the traditional business approach. Furthermore, the perspective of the NPOs provides better theoretical support for the importance of the tourism stakeholders as members of the DMO. Yet, few scholars have approached the study of the DMO from this perspective.

Additionally, this approach opens opportunities for an integrated, holistic approach to discussing DMOs success in the light of more influencing factors. Social capital theory suggests that DMOs and tourism stakeholders' inter-organizational relationships can influence tourism efforts' success in a destination, which in return is a contributing factor to DMOs success as an organization. Yet, there is no empirical evidence within the literature on the impact of said factors on the DMOs success.

1.3 Justification of the Study

In Bornhorst, Ritchie, and Sheehan (2010), the authors undertook one of the few empirical studies to understand what stakeholders deem necessary when understanding organizational success versus the success of the destination on a larger scale. Three key findings from their study were

present: 1) Stakeholder confidence in the DMO will further improve the DMO's ability to attract secure sources of funding, partnerships, and collaboration that lead to more significant resources to fulfill its mandate, 2) The DMO is seen as a central organization in this system and must have the leadership necessary to manage these relationships effectively. DMOs in which leaders and managers have a stakeholder relationship orientation are much more likely to succeed, and 3) it is worthwhile to develop and test measurement tools that encapsulate these phenomena, as well as develop a benchmarking system that would evaluate the DMO based on specific criteria and enable a commitment of resources to ensure the measurement takes place continuously (Henry & Dickey, 1993; Vandermeij, 1984; Kozak, 2002; Maclaren, 1996; Pearce, 1993, 1997). The lack of empirical studies on the DMO as it relates to the organization would suggest that either researchers are unsure of what metrics are best suited to understand DMO organizational success further, or simply finding access to secondary data or study participants to survey is an issue.

Additionally, while the literature is rich regarding relationship-based theories and studies that look at the collaborative and cooperative nature of destination marketing, few approaches look to understand the strength of these inter-organizational relationships using social capital. Wang & Xiang (2007) echo this sentiment in their study by suggesting that such inter-organizational based marketing efforts in a destination provide specific outcomes for tourism organizations, and the results can be reflected in three major areas: 1) strategy realization, 2) organization learning, and 3) social capital building. Wang & Xiang (2007, p. 83) go on to further state that "Social capital built through collaborative destination marketing mainly lies in the benefits of relationships and trust established among the various sectors of the tourism industry as well as individual organizations in the destination, which may be harnessed as high-quality information, future project opportunities, and the spirit of collaboration within the destination."

Lastly, few studies look to understand the DMO from its status as an NPO (Not-For-Profit). Many DMOs within the United States operate as 501(c)(6) entities, making their structure from an operational and success perspective unique compared to many of the profit-driven stakeholders it serves. Due to the lack of understanding regarding the DMO at an organizational level and how a stakeholder's social capital impacts the success of the organization, research must be undertaken to examine the above and the role that social capital plays in successful or unsuccessful outcomes for the DMO.

1.4 Theoretical Background

As mentioned earlier, research examining destination marketing and management has traditionally centered around the marketing component and less so from an organizational perspective. Tourism organizations such as DMOs must constantly monitor the relationships with suppliers and similarly minded stakeholders within a community as they hope to create the most favorable outcomes for the destination and the organization itself (Palmer, 2002; Ring & Van De Ven, 1994). These inter-organizational relationships are the focus of the current study to understand how the quality of inter-organizational relationships may impact the success-related outcomes for the DMO.

Prior research on interorganizational relationships can range from a variety of units of analysis such as 1) the organizational level, 2) the interorganizational dyad, and 3) the interorganizational network (Ford, Wang & Vestal, 2012). The organizational level deals with how administrative areas deal with or influence relations with other entities, the dyad level deals with the nature of the relationship between two organizations, and finally, the inter-organizational relations at the network level look to understand the relationships within a system of numerous organizations (Granovetter,

1985; Gulati, 1998; Ford, Wang & Vestal, 2012). Timur & Getz (2008) suggest that this networked-based approach is vital in studying such a mix of interdependent actors amongst a diverse and heterogeneous mix of tourism-related products. The study of inter-organizational relations has been studied in the sociology and management science literature for years (Gray, 1985; Waddock, 1989). Additionally, there have been numerous theoretical approaches tied to the study of inter-organizational relationships, specifically, resource dependency theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978), transaction cost economics (Williamson, 1975), strategic management theory (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990), and networking theory (Granovetter, 1985; Gulati, 1998).

One of the more recent major research paradigms in destination marketing research is alliances and collaboration (Park et al., 2008; Khalilzadeh & Wang, 2018). Fyall et al. (2012) make the most comprehensive attempt to classify several interrelated theoretical perspectives by categorizing fifteen different theories down to five specific categories as they relate to the effort of collaboration between the DMO and the community: 1) resource-based theories, 2) relationship-based theories, 3) politics-based theories, 4) process-based theories and 5) chaos-based theories.

Resource-based theories are primarily derived from three theoretical perspectives: resource dependency theory, strategic management theory, and transaction cost theory. The original resource dependency perspective seeks a greater understanding of why both individuals and organizations rely upon each other (see Barney, 1991; O'Toole & Donaldson, 2002; Emerson, 1962; Faulkner & de Rond, 2000; Grant, 1991; Hamel & Prahalad, 1994; Ulrich & Barney, 1984). Resource dependency and its use here can explain how the DMO and its external resources affect the organization's behavior as it relates to its stakeholders. In short, the resource dependency theory supports the notion that organizations, specifically, DMOs, enter into a networked-based relationship when "they perceive a critical strategic interdependence with other organizations in their environment" (Oliver, 1988;

Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978; Ford, Wang & Vestal, 2012, p. 757). The transactions cost perspective deals with how inter-organizational relations may be used to understand collaboration from the perspective of how it enables the efficiency of inter-organizational strategies. According to Fyall et al. (2012), organizations that employ collaboration to make their transactions will achieve better performance than those that don't. These collaboration strategies within inter-organizational networks between DMOs and stakeholders can exist in the form of cooperative marketing and advertising programming, whereby financial resources are pulled together to boost marketing and advertising impact. The strategic management approach deals with how an organization establishes its long-term objectives from a strategic perspective and how it will use pre-attentional networks and collaborations to determine how to respond to threats from the environment, both internal and external (Iacobucci & Ostrom, 1996; Fyall, Oakley, & Weiss, 2000).

Relationship-based theories such as relational or social exchange theories, stakeholder theory, network theory, and game theories are driven by the mutual acknowledgment and acceptance of shared interests by the parties involved. A stakeholder is 'any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of an organization's objectives (Freeman, 1984, p. 6). In a tourism marketing scenario, stakeholders can exist in various formats such as residential community, political community, and the tourism community (suppliers). Jones and Wicks (1999) mention precisely four features of stakeholder theory in action: 1) focusing on executive action and decision making, 2) the organization has relationships with stakeholder groups such as the ones above, 3) the relationships determine outcomes for the organization and its stakeholders, and 4) the interests of one stakeholder does not supersede or dominate another. Stakeholder salience is one issue that can be problematic regarding the role of collaboration amongst stakeholders. One stakeholder group, such as suppliers like hotels, may retain higher levels of power and response from the DMO. The relational or social

exchange aspects deal with how organizations, specifically DMOs, create relationships with other organizations to address a specific problem domain and see that relationship building may be the best way to approach a solution suited for all involved. These inter-organizational relationships are often put in place of less social and interpersonal transactions. They are built upon trust between the two parties, and these trusts can mitigate any issues related to power or saliency.

Politics-based theories, including political structures, power relations theory, corporate social performance theory, and institutional theory, help understand the governance structure of organizations that enter into collaborations or relationships (Khalilzadeh & Wang, 2018). Politics-based theories in a DMO sense are relevant from the perspective that DMOs may need to leverage these theories to secure relationships and or, in many cases, resources that are needed to maintain operations such as funding, fundraising, and collaboration in general as it relates to the ability of the DMO to meet its goals.

The final theories discussed are chaos-based theories and process-based theories. Chaos-based theories such as complexity theory are often used to understand and describe complex systems such as tourism (McKercher, 1999). Chaos theory believes that systems such as tourism may operate in an environment that is non-linear, overly complex, unstable, and often subject to random or systematic disturbances (Fyall et al., 2012). According to Stacey (2000), complexity theory is closely aligned with chaos theory, focusing on how organizations adapt to their environment and cope with uncertainty. This is similar to strategic management theory on how organizations plan to respond to the uncertainty of external environments and how inter-organizational relationships can be used to mitigate specific adverse outcomes.

As a multidimensional concept, social capital has many definitions and operationalizations depending upon the context in which it is applied (Ryu, 2017). Coleman (1988, p. 598) defines social capital as “a variety of different entities, with two elements in common: they all consist of some aspect of social structure, and they facilitate certain actions of actors— whether personal or corporate actors—within the structure.” Bourdieu (1985, p. 248) defines social capital as the “aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition.” Putnam’s (2000, p. 19) definition of social capital as “connections among individuals— social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them.” Social capital has previously been studied in various disciplines and is a critical factor impacting organizational success. The concept has also been examined from a business strategy perspective to understand the inter-organizational relationships between organizations, such as external stakeholders, partners, and competitors (Kale et al., 2000; Uzzi, 1997; Coleman, 1990; Leana and Van Buren, 1999).

Of the previously mentioned theoretical perspectives that impact collaboration at the organizational level of destinations and their communities, the social capital-related components of trust and reciprocity are primary components that can provide insight as to the level of or quality of the inter-organizational relationships that exist between the DMO and its stakeholders. This is the gap this research effort hopes to address to understand the role social capital plays in the successful outcomes of destination marketing organizations.

1.5 Proposed Conceptual Model

Prior studies on social capital primarily concern using relationships as a resource for social action (Baker, 1990; Bourdieu, 1986; Burt, 1992; Coleman, 1988, 1990; Jacobs, 1965; Loury, 1987).

According to Coleman (1995), social capital is not a unidimensional concept. To date, Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) have made the most significant attempt to categorize social capital into three distinct dimensions: 1) the structural dimension, 2) the relational dimension, and 3) the cognitive dimension and the impact on the success of the destination marketing association. Additionally, the dimensions related to inter-organizational relationships for this study are 1) the trust dimension, 2) the commitment dimension, and 3) the power symmetry dimension (Zeng & Lu, 2020).

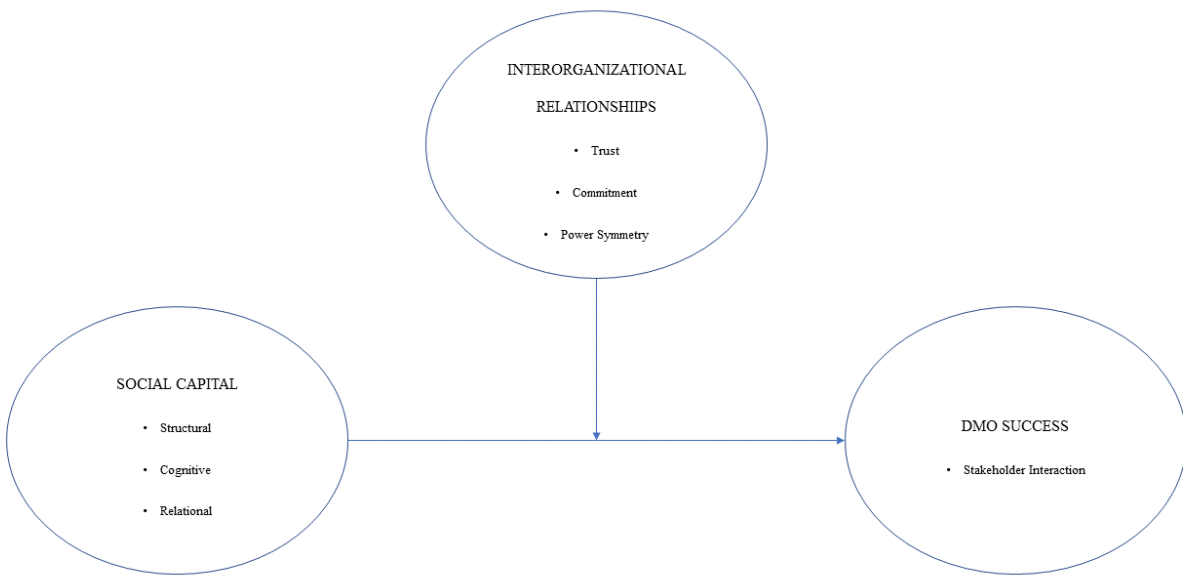


Figure 1: Proposed Conceptual Model

1.6 Study Objectives & Research Questions

To date, there has been little research at the organizational level to explore the factor(s) that contribute to the organization's success charged with the tourism destination's promotion and success. Additionally, while studies of a collaborative nature are abundant within the literature,

few studies look to understand the quality of those relationships and the impact on the performance of the destination marketing organization.

Aiming to address the before-mentioned gap in the literature, the research questions of the study are:

- What role does social capital play in the success of a destination marketing organization?
- Are interorganizational relationships at the network level important to the DMO and its stakeholders?
- To what extent (if any) does the presence of interorganizational relationship(s) affect a DMO's social capital?

1.7 Significance of the Study

The findings of this study pave the way for more research on understanding the influence of social capital and interorganizational relationships on DMOs success from the perspective of NFP and theoretical lenses of social capital. The current study advances the tourism literature by providing empirical evidence about the influencing factors on the DMOs success and tests a comprehensive matrix for evaluating DMOs success, including destination operation and stakeholder interaction. The findings of this study will provide needed theoretical insight into the tourism literature and valuable practical implications to DMOs and tourism practitioners in understanding how stakeholders' relationships in a destination affect DMOs organizational success and future benchmarking of DMOs success. Further understanding of the above will help destination marketers better understand critical factors that lead to successful outcomes for DMOs and gain a deeper understanding of the DMO and the impact of stakeholder relationships on the organization.

1.8 Summary

This chapter discussed the study background and justification, and the objective and research questions were outlined. In addition, the conceptual framework that will be used to examine the research questions was introduced. The chapter closes by discussing the significance of the study and how it can impact the hospitality industry. The following chapter is an extensive review of the literature and a review of the constructs included in the present conceptual model.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will discuss the contextual and theoretical background utilized for the proposed study. First, a brief discussion on the history and evolution of the destination marketing literature is provided. Second, an overview of the issues related to the study of destination marketing is discussed—third, a review of the stakeholder theory literature within the tourism context. Fourth, the history of inter-organizational relationships in destination marketing is presented. Fifth is a review of the literature on social capital as a multidimensional construct. Sixth, a review of the literature regarding the organizational success of Non-for-Profit (NPO) and the DMO. The chapter will conclude with the proposed model and justification of the proposed constructs.

2.1. Evolution of the Destination Marketing Literature

Milton J. Carmichael is recognized for the first efforts to promote a destination in February 1896, when he penned an article promoting the City of Detroit for conventions. Carmichael is also credited with bringing together the local businesses and stakeholders who would benefit from the increased visitation to the destination, resulting in increased revenues for the local community (Ford & Peeper, 2008). The Detroit Convention and Businessmen's League set the stage for the first NTO (National Tourism Office), which was established in New Zealand in 1901 (McClure, 2004; NZTPD, 1976) and the first STO (State Tourism Office) in 1903 (Choy, 1993). Since then, the industrial revolution, the proliferation of the railroads in the United States, and the increasing use of airplanes allowed people to travel great distances across the Earth, thus bringing us into the age of destination marketing. Over time, DMOs have been established in many parts of the world, and it is estimated that there are more than 10,000 that exist globally (Pike, 2008).

Table 1: Chronology of the Creation of CVB-Type Organizations

Year	City & State	Organization Name (Founders)
1888	Milwaukee, WI	Association for Advancement of Milwaukee
1888	Des, Moines, IA	Association of Commerce
1896	Detroit, MI	Detroit Convention League
1902	Honolulu, HI	W.C. Weeden
1904	Cleveland, OH	Convention Board
1908	Atlantic City, NJ	Atlantic City Publicity Bureau
1908	Chicago, IL	Local Business Committee
1908	St. Paul, MN	Convention Bureau (Hotel & Restaurant Keepers Association of St. Paul)
1909	Denver, CO	Group of Businessmen
1909	San Francisco, CA	San Francisco Convention & Tourist League
1909	St. Louis, MO	Convention Bureau of St. Louis
1909	Louisville, KY	Louisville Convention and Publicity League
1910	Columbus, OH	(Robert H. Wolfe, a journalist, brought in Col. John Bassell as head)
1910	Boston, MA	Convention Promotion Committee
1910	Los Angeles, CA	Source: Gartrell (1994)
1911	Minneapolis, Mn	Convention and Publicity Committee
1913	Atlanta, GA	Wilmer Moor & J. Lee Barnes
1914	Omaha, NE	Source: Gartrell (1994)
1915	Baltimore, MD	Robert E. Lee
1916	Cincinnati, OH	Tom Quinlan
1918	Kansas City, MO	Bureau of Publicity, Conventions and Retail Activities (Chamber of Commerce)

While Carmichael’s work led to the first coordinated effort relating to destination marketing, the academic literature did not produce its first academic journal article until 1973, which was subsequently followed by additional journal articles from the likes of Gearing et al. (1974), Hunt (1975) and Riley & Palmer (1975) (Pike, 2015; Matejka, 1973). The first journal dedicated to the study of destination marketing, *The Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, was launched in 2012 (Pike & Page, 2014).

Table 2: The Destination Marketing Literature

Date	Reference
1973	The first journal article (Matejka, 1973)
1988	The first book (Gartrell, 1998)
1990	The first academic conference
1992	The first book on DMOs (Pearce, 1992)
1997	The first destination branding conference session (Gnoth, 1998)
1998	The first destination branding journal articles (Dosen et al., 1998; Pritchard and Morgan, 1998)
1999	The first special issue in the Journal of Vacation Marketing
2002	The first book on destination branding (Morgan et al., 2002)
2005	The first destination branding academic conference
2007	The first journal special issue on destination branding in <i>Tourism Analysis</i>
2009	The first review of the destination branding literature (Pike, 2009)
2014	The first review of the destination marketing literature (Pike and Page, 2014)
2016	The first dedicated journal towards destination marketing: The Journal of Destination Marketing & Management

(Source: Pike, 2015)

While the gap between the early days of Milton Carmichael’s early destination marketing efforts for the City of Detroit and the first literature regarding destination marketing is sizable, so is the gap relating to the academic study of destination marketing and the practical application of the research output by destination marketing organizations. One of the many contributing factors to the 76-year lull between the early days of the DMO is the persistent gap between practitioners within the field and the academicians wishing to study it. The lack of proliferation and overall dissemination of information in the early to mid-1900s contributed to the delay in advancing the field of destination marketing in an academic context. The first academic conference regarding the study of destinations was not held until 1990 by the Geographical Institutes of the University of Groningen and the University of Reading (Pike & Page, 2014). The World Tourism Organization’s Think-tank on destination competitiveness was the first occasion academics and practitioners met regarding a joint forum on destination management. According to Pike and Page (2014, p.206), “This is further evidence of the divide between destination marketers and academic researchers, which has been

raised many times since the destination marketing literature commenced” (Baker, Holzner & Rogers, 1994; Hall, 1998; Jafari, 1984; Jenkins, 1999; Pike & Schultz, 2009; Riley & Palmer, 1975; Ryan, 2008; Selby & Morgan, 1996; Taylor, Rogers & Stanton, 1994). An additional factor was the swift movement and advancement within the tourism macro-environment that have had vast implications on the study of the field. Jafari (1993) cites several technological and societal changes such as 1) the introduction of the aircraft, 2) the demise of communism, 3) the explosion in media channels, 4) globalization, 5) the industrial revolution, 6) disintermediation and 7) online information distribution and information communications technologies to name a few. Additional areas such as the advent of the cruise industry, adventure travel, ecotourism, dark tourism, medical tourism, and the rise of terrorism are all implicating factors that stimulated research on the implications for destinations and the subsequent study of the field.

A final look into the evolution of the destination marketing literature deals with the debate regarding using Destination Management versus Destination Marketing. Morrison (2018, p. 8) defines destination management as “a professional approach to guiding all the efforts in a place that has decided to pursue tourism as an economic activity. Destination management involves coordinated and integrated management of the destination product.” Visit England offers a second and slightly different version that defines destination management as “a process of leading, influencing and coordinating the management of all the aspects of a destination that contribute to a visitors experience, taking account of the needs of visitors, residents, businesses and the environment” (Visit England, 2012a, p.3).

Morrison defines destination marketing as “a continuous process through which a destination management organization plans, research, implements, controls and evaluates programming aimed at satisfying travelers’ needs and wants as well as the destination’s and the DMO’s visions, goals and

objectives” (Morrison, 2018, p.9). Wahab, Crampton and Rothfield (1976, p. 24) offer a different yet blended definition of destination marketing in which they propose that destination marketing is “the management process through which the National Tourist Organizations and/or tourist enterprises identify their selected tourists, actual and potential, communicate with them to ascertain and influence their wishes, needs, motivations, likes and dislikes, on local, regional, national and international levels, and to formulate and adapt their tourist products accordingly in view of achieving optimal tourist satisfaction thereby fulfilling their objectives.” Pike (2015), however, disputes the use of the term Destination Management as an “incorrect blanket descriptor.” Pike’s argument centers on the notion that DMOs do not have the mandate or possess the authority to manage all the resources a destination has to offer. Pike’s view limits the organization's role in that the DMO was never meant to be an organization that is in charge of controlling resources as much as it is an organization charged with managing the effort of coordinating tourism within a specific geographic area. Under the umbrella of destination management, the DMO is charged with many responsibilities towards the goal of bringing together all of the stakeholders within a destination to the extent that they perform services including but not limited to: 1) visitor management, 2) marketing and promotion, 3) product development, 4) planning and research, 5) community relationships and involvement, 6) partnerships and team building and finally 6) leadership and coordination (Morrison, 2018). It has been suggested by Fyall (2011, p. 345) that the DMO must own all elements to control and influence the direction, quality, and development of the tourism marketing effort. An effective effort by the DMO on behalf of the destination can still be successful without ownership of the supply-side components. The primary goal of the DMO is to bring together the entities within a destination to focus on a combined tourism marketing effort. Effectively, the DMO manages relationships among its stakeholders and coordinates this effort; when done successfully, it results in higher quality collaboration, benefiting all

entities involved. Destination marketing is one of many management and coordinating functions of the DMO and suggesting that marketing is the only component of its purview limits the organization. The dissonance regarding destination management versus destination marketing has contributed to the lack of research articles on destination management as the academic field has focused energies on more consumer market-oriented areas. Jenkins, Dredge, and Taplin (2011) have echoed this sentiment as they lament the lack of academic research focused on destination management.

Over time, the role of the DMO has evolved from its early roots as a marketing-focused entity concerned with selling the destination as a location for conventions and meetings to a multifaceted management organization for which marketing and sales are just one component. This is supported by Crouch and Ritchie (1999) and Ritchie and Crouch (2003). They offer that the DMO is a management organization best suited to provide leadership and coordination for the destination and manage this complex system. Further, this study aims to explore the evolution of the DMO and the role that stakeholder management plays in how the DMO is, or is not, operationally performing at optimal levels.

2.1.1 Destination Marketing Organizations (DMOs)

The destination marketing organization exists to provide and generate favorable outcomes for the communities it serves, be they residential communities, suppliers (tourism entities), or political (via the generation of tax revenues). Unlike many of the business entities that it serves, the DMO does not entirely seek a financial profit. While the DMO does not seek financial profit entirely, it is not fully relieved from obligations of financial diligence and integrity. To this end, the DMO should not be judged solely based on financial performance; its overall success should be more closely aligned with that of the traditional not-for-profit entity. Higgins-Desbiolles (2006, p.1193) argue that “tourism

has succumbed to the effects of marketization, which has been affected by the dominance of neoliberal values in much of the global community.” Tourism industry leaders, which often serve in board/committee capacities, are often only able to think in terms of what is in the best interest of their own (or the entity they represent) wealth accumulation. Given that these groups and individuals often serve in leadership and decision-making capacities, the DMO has gotten away from its roots in thinking about the more significant needs of the community it serves and driving more financially based metrics. This thinking is the opposite of what should be the thinking for a not-for-profit whose larger goals go beyond financial means.

Further, Sheehan and Ritchie (1997) argue that measuring the DMO with more traditional methods aligned with financial performance is inappropriate. Additionally, Pike and Page (2014) suggest that DMO success is challenging to measure and that more performance measures related to “non-financial performance” such as quality of service, education among members, and the image of that community should be taken into consideration.

Kotler et al. (2003) define marketing orientation as “a philosophy that recognizes the achievement of organizational goals, requires an understanding of the needs and wants of the target market, and the delivering of satisfaction more effectively than rivals.” In the destination marketing literature, it is evident that scholarship is dominated by a more “visitor-based” market-oriented approach. A primary rationale for this phenomenon is that the DMO must be mindful of the increased competition and sophistication of the modern-day consumer (traveler, meeting planner, tour operator, etc.). Hence, the scholar investigates evolving consumer needs, destination image, place marketing, and destination competitiveness. Medlik and Middleton (1973, p.34) acknowledge that “modern marketing is designed to achieve optimal consumer satisfaction and to do so at an appropriate return

to the producer.” Line and Runyan (2014, p.92) suggest that this customer orientation is characterized by “a commitment to generating and reacting to needs emanating from the visitor marketplace.”

The most notable contribution to the marketing literature derives from the early works of Kohli and Jaworski (1990) and Narver and Slater (1990). Kohli and Jaworski (1990, p. 6) define market orientation as “the organization-wide information generation and dissemination and appropriate response related to current and future customer needs and preferences.” The focus of Kohli and Jaworski’s study was to compare a comprehensive literature review to that of a field study of 60 managers within the United States to triangulate a consensus approach for the marketing orientation concept and find comparisons between the two methods. Three core areas of the literature review noted that a market-orientated organization contains three specific characteristics: 1) is customer-focused, 2) has a coordinated marketing effort, and 3) the concept of profitability, which the organization looks to possess these characteristics for profit generation (Kohli and Jaworski 1990). A customer-oriented marketing effort involves the organization taking action on not just customer opinions of the product or service but also a market intelligence focus based on the concepts of competition and regulation and how those aspects affect customer needs and preferences to address the needs of both current and future customers. This market-oriented approach is a primary characteristic of the modern-day DMO in that the effort to attract visitors to the destination by focusing on their needs is of primary concern. Furthermore, this responsibility is not only a function of the marketing department but of the entire organization -- and, to a greater extent, the function of the entire tourism community (Perkins, Khoo-Lattimore, & Arcodia, 2021).

Narver and Slater (1990) held a similar proposition, indicating that the content of a market-oriented organization is composed of three essential elements: a customer orientation, a competition orientation, and an inter-functional orientation. “Prior literature suggests that for businesses, the

overriding objective in a market-oriented state is for the firm to drive economic prosperity or economic wealth and perceive this area as an outcome of a market orientation” (Felton, 1959; McNamara, 1972; Kohli & Jaworski, 1990). A differentiating factor between the two studies is the role that profitability or economic prosperity plays. While Kohli and Jaworski (1990) suggest that profitability is an outcome of market orientation, Narver and Slater (1990, p.22) take the opposing position that “profitability, though conceptually closely related to market orientation, is appropriately received as an objective of a business.” Narver and Slater (1990) see the third component of market orientation as the “inter-functional coordination.” Customer orientation in this model sees the target buyer as the organization's focus, and its ongoing efforts are to satisfy the customer's needs and create superior value for them over time. A competitor orientation shifts its focus slightly to understand the strengths and weaknesses of its current and future competitors (Aaker, 1998; Day & Wensley, 1998; and Porter, 1980, 1985). The inter-functional coordination component encompasses the firm's combined efforts to create value for the buyer entity.

This combined effort does not relegate this task simply to the marketing department. Still, it suggests that any individual shares this third component within the seller firm with the potential to assist in creating value for buyers (Porter, 1985). For the DMO, the customer orientation and the competitive orientation are often the areas of the day-to-day function of the destination marketing organization as they relate to the luring of visitors to the destination and the process of ensuring that a competitive destination is not only built but sustained over time. The third inter-functional coordination component deals with the combined effort of those within the organization and its stakeholders to share and distribute this mission among the members of the tourism community.

Line and Wang (2017) suggest that destination marketing must go beyond the traditional customer and competitor-based approach as a practice and from an academic perspective (Kohli &

Jaworski, 1990; Narver & Slater, 1990). They additionally suggest that due to its highly networked marketing environment made up of various stakeholder entities within a destination, the DMO must shift to a strategy that considers all stakeholders to achieve superior levels of organizational performance and, ultimately, organizational success (Ford & Peeper, 2008; Park, Lehto & Morrison, 2008). Within the destination marketing context as it relates to a different type of market-oriented approach, Line and Wang (2014) develop what they refer to as the MSMO (Multi-Stakeholder Market Orientation) context-specific to the practice of destination marketing and management. This approach is the set of organizational behaviors reflective of an organization-wide commitment to total value creation by (1) understanding and reacting to the needs of salient stakeholder markets and (2) generating and communicating relevant information across markets (Line and Wang 2014). The results of the Line and Wang (2014) study indicate that the multi-stakeholder market-oriented approach allows for the DMO to maintain favorable stakeholder relationships and that these relationships, when managed accordingly over time, can contribute to a sustainable competitive advantage due to the imperfectly imitable nature and not being easily duplicated by competitive forces. This study is one of the few within the literature on destination marketing and management that speaks specifically to the impact that market-oriented approaches beyond that of customer and competitive have on the organizational outcomes and performance of destinations. Additionally, few studies, if any, look to understand the quality of the stakeholder relationships, and to look at this from the lens of social capital is long overdue.

The destination marketing organization is primarily charged with managing the collective efforts of all actors within a destination to create value for the visitor and create a sustainable competitive advantage amongst its competitive set (Kvasnová, Gajdošík, & Maráková, 2019). Thus, much of its efforts are designed primarily for creating and disseminating economic prosperity

amongst its many stakeholders. Narver and Slater's (1990) model indicates the first two components (customer and competitive) are justified.

At any given point, the successful marketing and promotion of the destination through tourism marketing are of immense importance, especially during a disaster/crisis (Beirman, 2006) such as a global pandemic, political/economic crisis, or natural disaster. Destination marketing organizations must respond to these changes in the internal or external environments as soon as they occur, as not doing so may put at risk the destination's image and as well as its relationship with visitors while affecting its ability to cultivate relations with tourism operators, distributors, and investors (Beirman & Van Walbeek, 2011). The Covid-19 pandemic has wreaked havoc on the hospitality and tourism industry and ultimately tested how the traditional destination marketing organization operates within the destination. Global pandemics such as this trigger public health-related problems and activate social, economic, and political turmoil within the areas they affect (Novelli et al., 2018). When there is a decrease in demand associated with the closure of borders, political unrest, and the economic turmoil associated with the lack of travel, global communities are affected, and the consequences are often devastating. This was especially the case for the hospitality & tourism communities globally, as according to the World Travel Trade Council (2020), the tourism sector at its peak may have lost one million jobs daily due to the aftereffects caused by the pandemic as a result of layoffs and furloughs. The Destination Marketing Organization's role within communities during a time of disaster to primarily related to two activities: 1) communicating the crisis with its primary stakeholders and 2) working with local governments to develop and put in place marketing strategies that will aid in the economic as well as social recovery for the destinations in which they serve (Blackman & Ritchie, 2008). This effort for many DMOs during the pandemic was made more complicated by the absence of funding available to the DMO due to the lack of bed/tourism tax dollars being generated. These tax

dollars comprise the majority of DMO budgets, which led to furloughs and, in many cases, turnaround strategy-based actions such as layoffs and termination of employees.

In the face of layoffs and similar actions, DMOs globally may have struggled to support the tourism stakeholders within their community.

2.1.2 Stakeholder Theory

For many organizations, the key to success is bringing together all parties who each have a stake in the organization's success. Before the literature on stakeholder theory, organizations heavily favored specific parties such as shareholders and stockholders as the primary entities with the most to gain and lose within an organizational structure. Stakeholder theory introduced the notion to businesses that an organization's most essential parties may exist outside of its traditional structure in that customers, governments, suppliers, and employees may have a stake in the organization's success and shifting the focus to these entities may prove beneficial overall. With this new definition, the responsibility of managers within the firm also changed in terms of who they are most indebted to. Freeman's (1984, p. 46) definition of a stakeholder is "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives." In understanding stakeholder theory, Freeman highlighted that those affected by the organization's success or failures were more than simply stock or shareholders, even though each group may view success differently. Of the many potential types of stakeholders: 1) customers have a stake in the success of organizations and companies as they provide goods and services that are important to customers, 2) governments are stakeholders in that they often levy taxes associated with the sale of goods and services, 3) suppliers provide materials to organizations and profit from the sale of these materials and lastly 4) employees benefit from organizations as they provide a source(s) of income. From an overarching perspective,

the role of management is to align the potentially competing goals of all stakeholders to make the organization successful (Stacy, 2013).

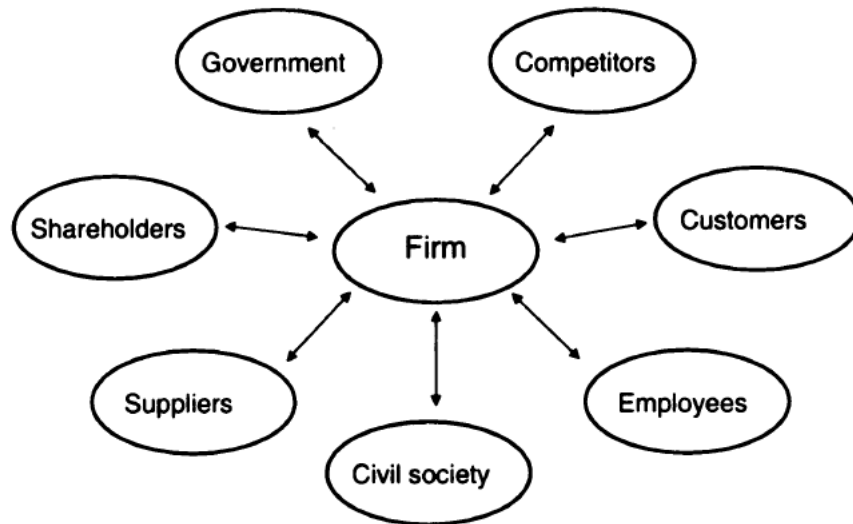


Figure 2: The Original Stakeholder Model – Freeman (1984)

While the concept of Freeman’s (1984) Stakeholder theory approach was a revelation within the business literature, from a descriptive perspective, it leaves lots to be desired when looking to understand the stakeholder from the perspective of whom managers of the firm should place their attention (Mitchell et al., 1997). Freeman’s definition is broad in the sense that it lacks a clear definition of who the stakeholder is. Other authors have echoed the vagueness regarding the literature on a stakeholder theory. Alkhafaji (1989, p. 36), for example, defines stakeholders as "groups to whom the corporation is responsible." Thompson, Wartick, and Smith (1991, p. 209) define stakeholders as groups "in relationship with an organization." Freeman and Reed’s (1983, p. 91) definition takes a similarly broad approach: "a stakeholder is an individual or group who can affect the achievement of an organization's objectives or who is affected by the achievement of an organization's objectives." The Stanford Research Institute (1963, p. 61) provides a narrower

perspective of stakeholders, defining stakeholders as “those groups on which the organization is dependent for its continued survival.”

Mitchell, Agile, and Wood (1997) looked to advance the literature on stakeholder theory in their study. He proposed that stakeholder theory can be broken down into classifications to better outline and understand the who and what of the management of stakeholders by the firm. Focusing more on the relationship between the stakeholders and the firm, the authors pose four classification types: stakeholder power, resiliency, urgency, and the idea of stakeholder saliency.

Power. Power can be defined “as the probability that one actor within a social relationship would be in a position to carry out his own will despite resistance” (Weber, 1947). Pfeffer (1981) rephrases Dahl's (1957) definition of power as "a relationship among social actors in which one social actor, A, can get another social actor, B, to do something that B would not otherwise have done" (1981, p. 3). Lastly, Salancik and Pfeffer (1974, p. 3) define power as “the ability of those who possess power to bring about the outcomes they desire.” While there are many definitions of power, it is a concept that has proven challenging to define fully but easy to recognize in practice, specifically with organizations who may be using it or using it against them. Specifically, the multidirectional aspect of power is of significance as power can shift from one entity to the next. Power is unique in that it can be firm or stakeholder dependent, as well as in some cases where there is equal dependence. In their definition, Freeman and Reed (1983) support the role that power plays in relationship to the firm being dependent on the stakeholder, stating, “on which the organization is dependent for its continued survival.” Bowie (1998, p. 112) additionally states that “without whose support the organization would cease to exist.” The power shift can also be affected in that the organization may wield its power over the stakeholders, and is supported by Langtry (1994, p. 433), who states that “the firm is significantly responsible for their wellbeing, or they hold a moral or legal claim on the firm.” From

the perspective of a firm and stakeholders having a mutual reliance upon one another, Rhenman (1964) mentions that stakeholders depend upon the firm to achieve their personal goals and on whom the firm depends for its existence.” In short, the role that power plays within and among organizations can be tricky to navigate as different stakeholders may have different relationships with firms dependent on a variety of external factors, such as the size of the firm and the vast array of stakeholders who may have a stake in the firm’s success.

Legitimacy. Suchman (1995, p. 574) defines legitimacy as "a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and defamations." Hill and Jones (1992) refer to stakeholders as “constituents who have a legitimate claim on the firm and have established through the existence of an exchange relationship who supply the firm with critical resources and in exchange each expects its interests to be satisfied (by inducements).” Legitimacy is linked to power because a stakeholder may have legitimacy in its claims to be as such to the firm. However, without the power to enforce its will, the legitimacy may not be enough to force the firm's management into a decision. The concept of legitimacy as it relates to the firm and stakeholders, legitimacy helps us to understand and make a distinction between stakeholders who do warrant the attention of management and those who do not. While difficult to operationalize, the concept of legitimacy within a social system brings multiple levels of analysis, including the individual, operational, and societal (Wood, 1991).

Urgency. Jones (1993, p. 370) defines urgency” as the degree to which a stakeholder’s claim calls for immediate action.” In understanding the relationship between firms and the stakeholder, time may be of the utmost importance when dealing with managers needing to respond to claims or requests made by the firm's stakeholders. Mitchell et al. (1997, p.864) state that “whether dealing the prevention of losses, the pursuit of goals, or selection pressures, one constant in the stakeholder-

manager relationship is the attention capacity of the urgent claim. Power and legitimacy may both influence urgency as the power dynamic between the firm and stakeholders, as well as the legitimacy of those claims and the seriousness related to the management response, can impact the degree to which the firm responds to the urgency of a claim. The authors argue that urgency is based primarily on two attributes: 1) time-sensitive—which is the degree to which a managerial delay in attending to the claim or relationship is unacceptable to the stakeholder, and 2) critically – the importance of the claim or the relationship to the stakeholder. Prior literature in crisis management and issue management has indicated the importance of the time-sensitive nature of stakeholder relationships and highlighted the speed at which an issue may become essential to the firm (Wartick & Mahon, 1994).

Saliency. Firms must navigate the tricky landscape of dealing with stakeholders, and one final area of classification is that of the salient stakeholder. In understanding stakeholder salience, one must understand the degree to which managers prioritize competing stakeholder claims. In a sense, not all stakeholders are created equal, and to achieve certain ends, managers must understand and pay specific attention to specific stakeholders. Issues of stakeholder saliency are affected by many factors such as the type of organizational setup, size of the organization and its stakeholder base, and the extent to which the stakeholders may or may not have specific legal or institutional responsibilities to the firm. While understanding salience, it is crucial for the manager in response to stakeholders to understand power, resiliency, and urgency as they each are a part of the framework for understanding and acting on salience.

2.1.3 Metrics for DMO Performance: Success

Destination marketing research has traditionally been concerned with research-oriented applied research rather than research devoted to theory building (Malhotra, 1996). The destination marketing literature has also suffered from a similar problem as that of tourism study in that theory-based approaches to tourism study are often borrowed from that of psychology, management, economics, marketing, geography, and sociology, with few pure theory-building attempts having been made. There can be no one way to approach a research inquiry of this type to understand the overall complexity of how DMOs are operated. An open-mindedness to various research techniques is required to discover the true essence of what makes these organizations viable for tourism management success. The process of leading a successful DMO is one in which many relationships are intertwined, and to approach it from a financial success perspective would be limiting at best. Spyriadis (2015) attempts to address this issue by developing a framework for performance evaluations in DMOs. Bornhorst et al. (2010) also focused their study on the determinants of success for both DMOs and destinations.

Nonetheless, further study is still required to understand and expand upon the organization and how it can best achieve levels of organizational success. Destination marketing, in short, is often loosely defined as the marketing or place branding of a destination and the metrics surrounding it. It is thus understandable that this would create a lack of research opportunities within the academic field as it pertains to studies that focus on DMO operations. This is evidenced by the wide variety of DMOs in existence, such as authorities, commissions, boards, tourist organizations, bureaus, tourist offices, corporations, agencies, and similar entities who act on behalf of destinations as the official or non-official entity charged with the tourism marketing effort (Morrison et al., 1995). Pike and Page (2014) additionally comment those issues of access to the inner workings of the DMO and its

decision-making structure are additional impediments to the study of the DMO as an organization and that researchers should seek understanding from an emic (insider) approach than that of the traditional etic (external) research approach. Pike (2015) additionally notes that “best practice should inform theory, and theory should inform practice, in a symbiotic cycle. However, practitioners and academics acknowledge the broad divide between theory and practice. More collaboration and information dissemination forums are required for future benefit.”

Success metrics from one DMO to the next may vary due to the organizational setup. This is especially the case in U.S.-based DMOs as funding structures differ and the entity charged with promoting tourism may vary. Many destinations employ various organizational structure types, such as the chamber of commerce, government-operated, and an agency acting on behalf of a government structure in 501(c)(6) status. The most recent version of the DMAI Organizational and Financial Profile provides a clearer picture of the organizational structure. Still, it fails to understand deeper what should be the metrics that each DMO views as success (Destinations International, 2015). In understanding where the gaps may lie, we must look at issues regarding the methodology and lack of theory-based approaches employed by researchers of DMOs and how they are managed. Understanding the complex nature of the relationships amongst stakeholders as they relate to managing DMOs is a complex process. An example of this gap in approach was confirmed by Pike (2004) in stating that “there are a plethora of DMO structures across the world with no widely accepted model” in existence. This can present numerous problems in approaching the study of DMOs as the researcher must account for multiple scenarios that complicate the generalization of this population.

In Bornhorst, Ritchie, and Sheehan (2010), the authors undertook one of the few studies to focus the unit of analysis on the organization in their attempts to understand from stakeholders what

they deemed necessary when understanding organizational effectiveness versus the effectiveness of the destination. The study looked at perceptions of success from stakeholders for the destination and the organization. One of the outcomes of the study highlights that while marketing is a primary area of expectation for stakeholders from the DMO, the importance of relationship management within the destination by the DMO is equally essential. Bornhorst et al. (2010) argue that “stakeholders do see a relationship between the success of the destination and the DMO.” The authors suggest that successful DMO operations and organizational success may be a precursor to a competitive destination that has the potential to increase visitation and thus increase economic development.

Understanding working models of destination marketing & management of the organizational structure can provide insight into how these organizations operate. The case study method for DMO-related studies has often been used. In D’Angelo and Go (2009), the authors use a case study approach to understand the causal relationship using stakeholder theory to investigate collaboration between tourism stakeholders in the destination and that of the DMO. As per the authors,

“Such analysis is relevant, because to be effective, a DMO should assess its relationships and understand stakeholders to have insight that can help answer questions such as: What are their intentions and interactions within the network? How satisfied are they with the services rendered by the DMO?”

Despite the exciting insights, D’Angelo and Go (2009) study is limited to only two destinations, making it challenging to generalize. Bornhorst, Ritchie, and Sheehan (2010) include a sample of 25 Canadian DMOs as this was a crucial point of the study in that it allowed for the comparison of perceived success variables for both the DMO and destination. Gartrell (1994)

explains that coordination is one of the areas of activity in which the DMO is a vital component in the success of the destination.

2.1.4 Organizational Success in Not-For-Profits

Organizations and management have studied organizational success, dealing primarily with for-profit entities. Early studies examined why certain companies would perform better than their competitors. Additional studies would look to understand why some companies fail when others prosper (Duckles et al., 2005; Hager et al., 1996; Grunert & Ellegard, 1993; Grunert & Hildebrandt, 2004). The concept of organizational success is further complicated within the study of not-for-profit organizations. Unlike not-for-profit organizations, for-profit enterprises primarily exist to maximize profits for shareholders.

On the other hand, not-for-profits are characterized by their primary goal of successfully realizing their mission objectives (Sawhill & Williamson, 2001). Additionally, not-for-profits typically provide a service to the public, and they are supported partly by governments through favorable tax initiatives or public monies. Surplus revenues, as a result, are not redistributed as profits or dividends to shareholders but are typically reinvested into the organization in furtherance of its mission. NPOs are under great scrutiny due to the government and philanthropic funding mechanisms that put increased pressure on NPOs to demonstrate their impact on complex social or economic problems (Sowa et al., 2004; Winand et al., 2014).

Complicating the issue further is the lack of consistency from a conceptual standpoint (Balduck, 2009). For instance, there is the number and diverse types of organizations and how each defines success, which gives way to numerous different meanings from one organization, and even industry to the next. When misalignment is often the case, different definitions of success will

convolute the issue, and researchers are forced to investigate and measure it in diverse ways. To further that point, there is the issue of multiple constituencies, with each organization's stakeholder having individual views that may differ from how the organization itself may measure its effectiveness.

In understanding organizational performance, one must distinguish between two underlying factors often confused with success: organizational effectiveness and organizational efficiency. Organizational effectiveness and organizational efficiency, respectively defined by Winand et al. (2014, p. 123), refer to “the relationship between the initial goals set by an organization and the extent to which they have achieved their results. Efficiency, on the other hand, is the comparison between the available means of an organization and the results they achieve Winand et al. (2014). In combining the two, Madella et al., (2005, p. 209) defined it as “the ability to acquire and process properly human, financial and physical resources to achieve the goals of the organization.”

Three crucial areas of understanding organizational success and the degree to which an organization must perform to reach the necessary level of organizational success are 1) attracting the necessary inputs, 2) using and or transforming them efficiently and 3) achieving relevant and target outputs (Kasale, 2020). These phases are derived from multiple models associated with the measurement of organizational success, such as the 1) systems resources model, 2) the process model, 3) the goal model, 4) the multiple-stakeholder approach, and 5) the competing-values approach (Yuchtman & Seashore, 1967; Pfeffer, 1977; Price, 1968; Scott, 1977; Bayle & Madella, 2002; Cameron, 1986; Shilbury & Moore, 2006; Connolly et al., 1980; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983). For several reasons, many of these models are challenging to apply to NFP organizations, and researchers have concluded that no one framework is appropriate to measure. Winand et al. (2014, p. 123) define organizational performance as “the acquisition of necessary resources and their efficient use through

organization processes to achieve relevant and targeted goals, as well as a high satisfaction of the organization's stakeholders.”

2.1.5 Interorganizational Relationships

The study of interorganizational relationships dates to the early 1960s and is derived from the literature from the sociological and managerial disciplines (Gray, 1985; Aiken & Hage, 1968; Ford et al., 2012.) Interorganizational relationships are studied at various levels and units of analysis, specifically at three levels: 1) the organizational level, 2) the organizational dyad, and 3) the inter-organizational network (Ford et al., 2012; Gray, 1985). At the organizational level, the area of study centers on that of the organization and its internal properties, attributes, or sub-units that can work with and affect the organization’s relationships with external users (Gamm, 1981; Selin & Beason, 1991). Examples of this study would look to understand how departments or sub-units within one organization would work with an external organization to achieve a common shared goal. In the inter-organizational dyad unit of analysis, the emphasis is placed on the relationship between two specific organizations to understand how and to what extent these two organizations would or would not work well together (Gamm, 1981). Prior studies have used the dyad level of analysis to understand power asymmetries between two organizations to the extent that one entity has the power to exert force on the other entity. In a manufacturing context, the less dependent or more powerful entity can threaten to remove itself from the relationship if the other entity who is more dependent and far less powerful fails to meet its demands, for example, cutting the costs for a specific component in the manufacturing process. The less-dependent party can seek other options for the same component at more financially feasible rates. Lastly, interorganizational relationships are often studied at the network level of analysis. Here, the network is defined as a system composed of organizations and

interorganizational relationships (Gamm, 1981; Granovetter, 1985; Gulati, 1998). In these complex systems, organizations contribute to and share the total value generated from their aggregate efforts (Pforr, 2006).

Two additional frameworks have been used to study and understand interorganizational relationships. One theory views organization through the lens of interorganizational exchange. This concept, by Levine and White (1961), views organizations to the extent that they often or regularly seek collaborative relationships to be proactive and achieve mutual goals. Levine and White (1961, p. 588) define organizational exchange as “any voluntary activity between two organizations which has consequences, actual or anticipated, for the realization of their respected goals or objectives.” The voluntary activity is often an attempt to gain some degree of competitive advantage through exchanging resources, such as labor, equipment, funds, and even information (Selin & Beason, 1991). These organizational exchanges, by default, must involve a high degree of cooperation for all parties to be equally successful.

Interorganizational relationships, however, are also seen as relationships formed due to the external pressure of other external forces that motivate the interaction of organizations within the network to work together towards a common goal. These external forces can come from other organizations or the fight for scarce resources, thus the pooling of organization resources to attain sustainable competitive advantage. Interorganizational relationships also have been examined from several theoretical perspectives, including 1) resource dependency, 2) transaction cost, 3) strategic management, and 4) network analysis. The original resource dependency perspective seeks a greater understanding as to why in fact, both individuals and organizations rely upon each other (see Barney, 1991; Donaldson & O’Toole, 2002; Emerson, 1962; Faulkner & de Rond, 2000; Grant, 1991; Hamel & Prahalad, 1994; Ulrich & Barney, 1984). From a resource dependency perspective, the theory

suggests that organizations will enter partnerships when they perceive interdependence with one another (Oliver & Ebers, 1998; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). Interdependence amongst organizations is the most common reason for this form of interorganizational relationship due to the often-uncertain nature of the business environment that will require organizations who operate within the same network but offer assorted products to form alliances to cement their survival.

The transaction cost theoretical perspective developed by Williamson ((1975, 1987) has previously been applied to the understanding of interorganizational strategies from the perspective of efficiency and effectiveness of the partnerships. Williamson's perspective suggests that this efficiency is an underlying determinant of interorganizational relationships. Oliver (1990) states that these efficiencies are critical contingencies of forming relationships related to inter-organizational relationships. Oliver (1990, p. 245) further states that "as asset specificity (the existence of significant and durable non-redeploy able investments), uncertainty, and the number of recurring transactions between partners increase, transaction costs rise." The presence of intermediate structures (inter-organizational relationships) facilitates the transition from marketplace transactions to more formalized inter-organizational relationships. It is more likely to mitigate the costs of transactions between and amongst organizations.

From a strategic management perspective, the emphasis is placed on the ability of interorganizational relationships and partnerships to mitigate external environmental factors uncontrolled by any of the participating organizations as they plan for the future. Iacobucci and Ostrom (1996) define strategy as "how an organization establishes its long-term objectives, action programs, and plans for redistributing resources." Organizations may enter inter-organizational relationships from a strategic perspective to gain access to resources, achieve a particular set of goals, enter new markets, as well as contribute to the intellectual capital associated with the attainment of

skills as a group that they may not be able to create or maintain on their own. Once performed, the strategic management focus is also critical in the management and overall health of the inter-organizational relationships so that they may be sustained over time and create a set of competitive advantages that are imperfectly imitable and not easily duplicated by others (Barney, 1991).

From a network perspective, researchers have attempted to understand inter-organizational relationships from how agencies coordinate their activities by emphasizing governance and network structures (Gulati, 1998; Provan & Milward, 1995). Interorganizational relationships are built by the relational nature of networks between organizations and not individual actors. Granovetter (1985) notes that these actors are entangled in a series of social relationships and that understanding their behavior is impossible without understanding the relational context in which they function. As it relates to tourism, these relational components combine well with the systems-thinking approach often referred to in tourism-related studies (Leiper, 1979).

2.1.6 Stakeholder Relationships in Tourism Marketing

Destinations are complex systems to manage at any given point in time; the stakeholder landscape is full of entities who may be pursuing different interests while each possessing different resources and skillsets, which can result in a lack of cohesion towards an overall tourism marketing effort (Laws, Argusa, Scott & Richins, 2011). These stakeholders represent themselves in various groups of interrelated stakeholders, such as both public and private groups embedded in social networks (Baggio, Scott & Cooper, 2010; Scott, Cooper & Baggio, 2008). The central entity pivotal to bringing together these organizations is the DMO which is charged with bringing together the stakeholders so that the best, unique experience is provided to the tourist and the brand promise can be delivered (Spyriadis et al., 2011). With its unique positioning acting as both agent of the

community and principal of the network, the DMO represents an ideal example of a responsible manager whose job is to select activities to obtain benefits for all identified stakeholder groups without giving priority to one stakeholder over another. This, however, while in theory sounds optimal, is exceedingly difficult to accomplish in practice in a tourism setting. This is primarily due to the legal, governmental, and institutional commitments a DMO may have to governments, legal contracts, or institutions that govern how it is to allocate resources within the destination. Modern DMO relies on bed tax dollars for funding distributed by governmental agencies such as counties, cities, tourism development councils, and regional, state, and even federal authorities. These bed tax dollars are derived from taxes levied on overnight stays, which also means that in many destinations, the DMO must be able to understand and respond to the needs of the hoteliers with a legitimate and urgent claim on the managerial decisions made by DMOs. With this being said, managerial decisions should be considered by all stakeholder groups regardless of the power they may or may not yield within the destination. From the perspective of managing the stakeholders' interests within a destination, the theory dictates that various groups can and should directly influence the decision-making of the DMO (Jones, 1995). This is in line with Freeman (1984, p. 46), who states, "to be an effective strategist you must deal with those groups that can affect you, while to be responsive you must deal with those groups that you can effect." Failure by the DMO to monitor the participation of a single stakeholder may have disastrous effects (Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Clarkson, 1995).

DESTINATION STAKEHOLDERS

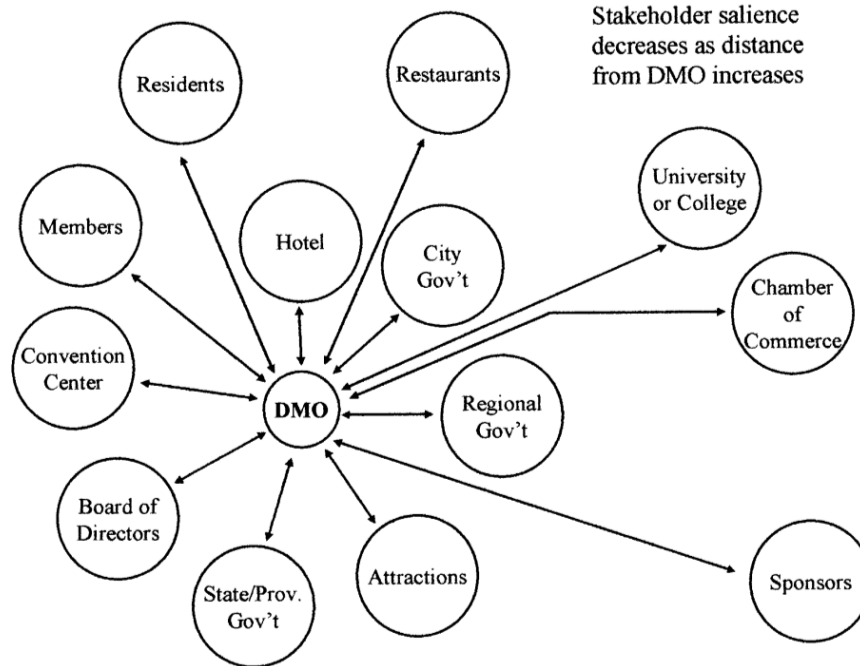


Figure 3: Convention and Visitor Bureaus Stakeholders (Sheehan & Ritchie, 2005 p. 728)

Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory believes that stakeholders should have the opportunity to gain a similar understanding of each issue as it pertains to the problem domain and that their opinion should be taken seriously by management in the tourism management process. This is supported by the notion that the DMO depends on its stakeholders from a product and service perspective, and the stakeholders are dependent upon the DMO to bring a broader awareness of the destination, which results in visitors or tourists potentially coming to the destination. Given that each entity has interdependence, it makes sense they will work with the DMO to be involved in the destination marketing process, given their legitimate claim within the network. As such, the stakeholder approach is critical to a sustainable tourism effort in that the perceptions and understanding of the stakeholders are critical to this effort.

Prior literature suggests that the relationship between the DMO and its stakeholders is affected by three vital relational factors: information asymmetry, goal conflict, and interdependence (Lee et al., 2015). Information asymmetry is defined as a principal's ability to observe an agent's decision and, as a result, generate uncertainty. Information asymmetry can also lead to agents' uncertainty, efficiency, and opportunistic behavior (Levinthal, 1988). These inefficiencies can lead to higher transaction costs for the DMO and the stakeholders, especially those with fewer resources than their counterparts. In a tourism setting, a general lack of knowledge related to understanding what the DMO does creates uncertainty and a general mistrust of the relationship between the two (Dahlstrom & Ingram, 2003). Information asymmetry in the relationship between the DMO and its stakeholders can lead to negative performance. This is supported by D'Angella and Go (2009) in their study, which looked to understand the performance of a DMO and its stakeholders. They found that the fair sharing of resources and knowledge and fair information sharing can affect performance (Medina-Munoz & Garcia-Falcon, 2000).

As previously mentioned, the tourism system is sometimes complicated by the individual needs of businesses and their lack of focus on the larger tourism-related picture. The DMO is primarily concerned with the development and competitiveness of a destination, whereas stakeholders pursue their interests, and these conflicts create different interests between the DMO and the stakeholder (Wang & Xiang, 2007; Beldona et al., 2003; Jamal & Stronza, 2009; Buhalis, 2000a). This type of goal conflict can occur when one party's activity or, in some cases, inactivity is incongruent with the goals of the DMO-led network. When tourism-related goals are not discussed or agreed to in the early planning phases, the differing goals of each can lead to conflict relationships which are likely to negatively impact the performance of both the DMO and the destination (Selin & Beason, 1991).

Interdependence is a party's need to sustain a relationship with the other party to attain its goals (Kumar, Scheer, & Steenkamp, 1995). Pfeffer and Salancik (2003, p. 40) additionally state that interdependence "exists whenever one actor does not entirely control all of the conditions necessary for the achievement of an action or for obtaining the outcome desired for action." A destination is a network comprised of many stakeholders with interdependencies that depend on one another within the network. The destination marketing effort occurs within these networks of different norms and values when multiple players interact and share norms and values with other network members. Most destinations depend partly on hotel bed taxes to power their marketing efforts to promote the destination. This is an example of interdependence whereby the hotel needs the DMO to promote the destination and bring visitors in on a large scale. The DMO benefits from a fiduciary and operational standpoint by the hotel's bed tax representing the typical dyadic relationship in tourism. Additionally, the DMO is served by the level of service provided to the guests, which are more likely to secure a future visit from the guests due to the joyous service level received from the hotel. Without this structure in place, the DMO and the hotel are less likely to reach their own goals as well as the goals of the destination.

2.1.7 Interorganizational Relationships in Tourism Marketing

Of the many prevailing issues in tourism management is the difficulty of bringing all tourism and similar related organizations together for the combined tourism-related effort. This is primarily due to the affinity for hospitality-oriented organizations (hotels, restaurants, theme parks, etc.) to be singularly interested in the outcomes of their specific bottom lines and not that of the destination. Alter, and Hage (1993) suggest that when interdependent groups of two or more organizations pull resources and effectively collaborate, they are exponentially more likely to be able to provide services

that benefit the communities in which they serve. These services may come from economic and social development for the organizations' communities. Similarly, game theory is the belief that cooperation from multiple parties is more likely to increase positive outcomes that are favorable to all parties as opposed to when they compete against one another (Axelrod & Hamilton, 1981). We see these issues prevalent in the hospitality and tourism industries, as the norms of competition amongst suppliers for the attention of tourists are so strong. As a result of these entities' profit-driven motives, often they fail to see the benefits of cooperative efforts, such as reduced autonomy, shared resources, and increased dependence, as threats to their survival. The role that destination marketing and management organizations play in creating and maintaining inter-organizational networks provides an overarching mechanism to bring these singularly focused organizations under the umbrella of one combined tourism effort to which it is assumed that all will see a benefit. This is especially the case during crisis or market uncertainty, as evidenced by events such as 9/11, the economic downturn of 2008/2009, and the effect of COVID-19.

During a crisis, the likelihood of interorganizational relationships increases (Putro, Furqon, & Brilliyanti, 2019). Amongst stakeholders, according to Aldrich (1976), these "indivisible problems" are characterized as problems that are bigger than any single organization can overcome on its own. In a non-crisis-related situation, tourism is a highly complex system due to the number of entities who must come together for the tourism effort to be successful. The reduction of these adversarial relationships amongst tourism organizations and the increased environmental turbulence may also be why firms enter these relationships. Turbulence, as mentioned above, can occur when competing organizations that often act independently in opposite directions create unanticipated consequences for themselves and others (Emery & Trist, 1965; Trist, 1977). The addition of a crisis can further complicate the tourism landscape and create unexpected environmental turbulence due to the reaction

of members of the tourism community to revert to their known affinity to act in their own best interest and not that of the destination at large.

To form and support the inter-organizational relationships amongst tourism communities in and outside of crisis, a network structure should exist for the relationships to thrive. Provan and Milward (2001) recommend that networks are created and assessed from the perspective of three levels of analysis 1) the community level, 2) the network level, and 3) the organization/participant levels.

At the community level, Provan and Milward (2001) suggest that networks must be thought of as service delivery networks that should serve as vehicles providing value to the communities to which they serve because, given their own devices, the networks' goals may not be achievable through the uncoordinated efforts by those organizations who have a singular focus on their bottom lines. The goal of the network at the community level should be stakeholder driven in that those participating within the network have a direct and indirect interest in seeing that their needs are met. Ensuring that the needs of the community are met does often prove problematic, especially within a tourism context, as there may exist conflicts amongst the members regarding how to meet the needs of the group. From a tourism perspective, the network may agree that for the destination to grow, more capital-intensive projects may need to be facilitated, such as more hotels and event spaces and general tourism product growth. However, they may disagree regarding how those projects will be funded and who will be responsible for paying for said expenditures.

An additional component of the community level of network effect is the ability of the members of the community to each contribute to the building of social capital (Putnam, 1993). Although disagreements amongst members of the network should be expected, much of the time,

these disagreements are preceded by a lack of trust amongst the community network members. Fountain (1998) believes that the building of social capital amongst members of the network is vital as it is an essential outcome concerning the cooperation amongst firms that reside within the network. Social capital is an important concept that builds trust amongst the network members at that moment and will do so as it relates to future projects and outcomes that the tourism community may pursue. For example, often, tourism communities work towards site selection for significant events (sporting events and meetings) that may come to their communities, providing economic development opportunities for the community at large. Despite the community working together on such an effort, other mitigating factors may result in the destination not being selected to hold such an event. However, the social capital amongst the community members built during the initial bid process can be leveraged later should the community be in line to host other similar large-scale events. As a result, given the goal of community-oriented networks of this type, the network, over time, may become a more effective and efficient delivery mechanism that benefits the community in myriad ways (Provan & Milward, 1995; Provan & Milward, 2001).

Provan and Millward (2001, p. 417) define a network as “a collection of programs and services that span a broad range of cooperating but legally autonomous organizations.” In acting within the bounds of a network, these autonomous organizations are likely to incur organizing and transaction costs from their network members. To mitigate these costs, it is necessary for these, at times, informally constructed networks to take the form of formally constructed networks, especially if, in the tourism sense, these networks are taxpayer (visitor tax) funded and led by an entity charged with the coordination of the network, or in this context, the tourism network of inter-organizational relationships. In concert with an agency theory approach, the DMO takes on the role of the community agent and the principal of the network participants. In these two scenarios, the DMO acts

as the agent of the community in making sure that the needed services to the community are provided, and the principal of the network in that they monitor, coordinate, and in many ways fund the activities of the tourism network (Provan & Milward, 2001). Over time, the network administrating organization (NAO) grows and matures. Additional members are added to the network as it expands, with heterogeneous and homogenous organizations added to provide a necessary mix. The growth of the network allows for mature networks to seamlessly facilitate the flow of information. During this process, the existing strength of the relationships between and among the members grows across the network. The role of the NAO is paramount in that it is responsible for coordinating the members of the network and ensuring the proper distribution of resources amongst the networks. If done correctly, the NAO is legitimized in its efforts. Simply put, the DMO in a tourism context is responsible for the makeup and organization of the network of interorganizational relationships as they each seek to push forward a tourism-focused agenda under which all can prosper.

At the organization/participant level, Provan and Milward (2001) focus on that of the individual organization in a sense that while part of the network, individual organizations must still concern themselves with and be partly motivated by their self-interests. For those looking to join the network, they must ask themselves how joining the network contribute to the goals of the organization. The success of the individual organization does, however, benefit the network as it legitimizes the network when its members are successful. A framework to measure the network's success and, subsequently, that of the NAO can be created from this perspective. Provan and Milward (2001) suggest that this success can be evaluated from four primary criteria: client outcomes, legitimacy, resource acquisition, and costs.

Individuals/organizations act in their best interest within the network by joining networks so that they may gain access to resources not just from a funding perspective but also for the sharing of

ideas and the contribution and gaining of intellectual capital from other members of the group. Additionally, they may join in legitimizing themselves by being part of the network and aligning themselves with the powerful NAO or the DMO in the case of a tourism marketing effort. The size of the agency within the network also plays a part: larger organizations with more resources and less to lose by joining the network may exert more power over the NAO as they may threaten to leave the network with little consequence, whereas a smaller organization with more to lose and thus more costs does not have such a freedom. An example would be the decision made by many large-scale DMOs to leave the membership network of Visit Florida as being a part of the network is something that is not necessary to their survival, unlike the plight of smaller destinations that depend on the co-op dollars and programming funding that comes from Visit Florida.

The effectiveness of interorganizational relationships in a tourism context is based on inputs from all three of the previously mentioned levels. Provan and Milward (2001, p.422) suggest that “for a network to work effectively, the needs and interests of the people who work for and support these programs and organizations must be satisfied while building a cooperative network of inter-organizational relationships that collectively provides services more effectively and efficiently than a system based on fragmented funding and services. This is especially the case when unique circumstances, such as crises, present themselves and further require more resources and collaboration from the members within the network. In an industry where service quality is the expectation and not the norm, these service delivery networks must be built and maintained at the organization and network levels. Still, overall, effectiveness will ultimately be judged by community-level stakeholders.

2.2 Social Capital Theory

Social capital is also informed by the research centered on economic sociology, which broadens our understanding of economic exchanges by exploring them in a larger social context. Here, we see the introduction of the concept of embeddedness as a critical area of social capital. Granovetter's (1973, 1985) work argues that economic action is socially situated and cannot be explained by individual motives or institutional arrangements. Nahapiet (2008, p. 6) states that Granovetter's (1992) work "distinguished between two important aspects of these social relations, the concrete personal relations that exist between specific people and the structure of these relations and analyzed the consequences of both for the product of trust in economic life."

Scholars evaluating social capital have considered it a valid form of capital when measured against other forms such as land, labor, and physical capital. Human capital as an additional form of capital was not introduced until Schultz (1961) and Becker (1964). Regarding human capital, it was argued that society would require an educated and trained workforce of healthy individuals. The term social capital was added to the lexicon of capitals to draw attention to the resources in social networks and the potential returns that could be seen regarding investments in social relations (Bourdieu 1986; Coleman, 1998). Social capital resembles other forms of capital in many ways in that it is 1) built over time, 2) appropriable and convertible, and 3) can act as a substitute or compliment to other forms of capital. Social capital sets itself apart from other forms as any single party does not own it but is owned by the group. Furthermore, social capital increases with use, unlike other forms of capital.

A basic premise in understanding social capital is the idea that when a good network can be created and maintained, this enhances the ability of individuals, as well as organizations within the network, to access and see benefit from the resources associated with the network ties (Hoskisson et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2011). These networks consist of tangible and intangible resources embedded in

the networks. As a result, social capital can be described as the combination of specific network structures and the resulting benefits that accrue from those network structures (Neergaard, 2005). Social capital, however, has proved challenging to define singularly and therefore has a wide variation of conceptualizations regarding its definition. Adler and Kwon (2002) and Turner (2011) attempt to list the known definitions of social capital through the year 2010 and are ordered from oldest to current. Table 1 below lists these definitions.

Table 3: Social Capital Definitions

Author(s)	Definition
Lawson, Tyler & Cousins	“a valuable asset that stems from access to resources made available through social relationships” (2008, p. 446)
Krause, Handfield & Tyler	“a valuable asset that stems from access to resources made available through social relationships” (2007, p. 531)
Maurer & Ebers	“signifies an asset available to individual or collective actors that draw on these actors’ “positions in a social network and/or the content of these actors’ ‘social relations” (2006, p. 262)
Inkpen & Tsang	“the aggregate of resources embedded within, available through, and derived from the network of relationships possessed by an individual or organization” (2005, p. 151)
Liao & Welsh	“more than just a structure or network [social capital] includes many aspects of social context such as social interaction, social ties, trusting relationships, and value systems that facilitate the actions of individuals in a particular context” (2005, p. 347)
Knoke	“the process by which social actors create and mobilize their network connections within and between organizations to gain access to other social actors’ resources” (1999, p. 18).
Nahapiet & Ghoshal	"the sum of the actual and potential resources embedded within, available through, and derived from the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit. Social capital thus comprises both the network and the assets that may be mobilized through that network" (1998, p. 243).
Portes	"the ability of actors to secure benefits by virtue of membership in social networks or other social structures" (1998, p. 6).
Inglehart	"a culture of trust and tolerance, in which extensive networks of voluntary associations emerge" (1997, p. 188).
Burt	"the brokerage opportunities in a network" (1997, p. 355).
Brehm & Rahn	"the web of cooperative relationships between citizens that facilitate resolution of collective action problems" (1997, p. 999).
Fukuyama	"Social capital can be defined simply as the existence of a certain set of informal values or norms shared among members of a group that permit cooperation among them." (1997). "the ability of people to work together for common purposes in groups and organizations" (1995, p. 10).
Putnam	"features of social organization such as networks, norms, and social trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit" (1995, p. 67).
Burt	"friends, colleagues, and more general contacts through whom you receive opportunities to use your financial and human capital" (1992, p. 9).

Author(s)	Definition
Bourdieu & Wacquant	"the sum of the resources, actual or virtual, that accrue to an individual or a group by virtue of possessing a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition" (1992, p. 119).
Baker	"a resource that actors derive from specific social structures and then use to pursue their interests; it is created by changes in the relationship among actors" (1990, p. 619).
Coleman	"Social capital is defined by its function. It is not a single entity, but a variety of different entities having two characteristics in common: They all consist of some aspect of social structure, and they facilitate certain actions of individuals within the structure." (1990, p. 302).
Bourdieu	"the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance or recognition" (1985, p. 248). "made up of social obligations ('connections'), which is convertible, in certain conditions, into economic capital and may be institutionalized in the form of a title of nobility" (1985, p. 243).

Source: Adler and Kwon (2002), Turner (2011)

Social capital is a “moral resource” that increases with use. Other forms of capital, such as human, physical, and economic capital, do not share the same trait and are depleted with usage (Hirschman, 1958). In settings highly reliant on any form of collaboration -- inter-organizational relationships and the reliance on stakeholders --social capital is vital as it makes certain ends achievable that would not be achievable in its absence (Coleman, 1998). Wang & Xiang (2007, p. 83) state that “Social capital built through collaborative destination marketing mainly lies in the benefits of relationships and trust established among the various sectors of the tourism industry as well as individual organizations in the destination, which may be harnessed as high-quality information, future project opportunities, and the spirit of collaboration within the destination.” This study will leverage the Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) framework to study social capital through its three forms structural, cognitive, and relational aspects. As it relates to DMOs and the relationships between them and their stakeholders across the community, the structural component deals primarily with the setup and structure of the entire system in which these entities must operate. When properly

structured, this component helps handle the linkages between those that make up the tourism system and specifically for the DMO at a local, statewide, regional, or national level. Burt (1992) also refers to the structure of the connections between the DMO and its members and how they communicate.

Collaborative destination marketing in a destination helps tourism organizations with strategy realization, organization learning, and social capital building. For example, the structural component of social capital indicates that a network is made of ties such as access, timing, and referrals. In the DMO sense, we see access as the destination marketing organization because it is responsible for attaining valuable information (incoming bids from associations, events rights holders, etc.) that may be relevant to the network and disseminating such information. In a meetings and conventions context, the *referral* can be the actual dissemination of information to those within the networks, with this information leading to the opportunity for the destination and DMO to bid on a large-scale event, such as a sporting event or city-wide meeting, or otherwise demand driving event. Via the referral, those who are within the network will have leverage on the information. When the DMO disseminates this information, the stakeholder members can combine and exchange information in deciding how they will combine forces to bid or compete for this event. In this scenario, *time* constraints may exist regarding acting on the information disseminated to the network. Hence, timing concerning acting on the information is of importance.

2.2.1 Structural Dimension

According to Granovetter (1992), the structural component of social capital deals with the structural integration of the social system and the network. Coleman (1998) refers to the nature of the structural component of social capital as being fundamental. If these networks can be created for one purpose, they may have applications for another purpose. The structural component of social capital

primarily deals with the linkages between people, units (or business units), and organizations of the problem domain. Burt (1992) further describes the structural aspect of social capital as forming connections between the actors within the network regarding how they are reached and who reaches them. Nahapiet and Ghoshal (2008) further mention that the existence and absence of the ties between actors and the configuration of networks and appropriable organization are crucial to understanding this aspect of social capital.

Burt (1992) suggests that network ties are made up of three forms: access, timing, and referrals. Access, in dealing with the attainment of valuable information by one network member and identifying the mode of distribution of that information, as well as who or whom in the network shall receive such information. This access improves the likelihood that parties can combine and exchange knowledge and information. According to Granovetter (1973), job seeking is one example of this. Those members of networks may have access to job information relevant to job seekers before this information may be available to the general public. Referrals of that information received from within the available networks can be transferred to others within the networks. Those referrals often include reputational endorsements for the involved actors, units, or organizations.

For example, the social capital built by an individual (incoming CEO, for instance) can be transferred from that CEO to the organization. This trust can extend outward from the organization to that of others within the network. As Burt (1992) suggests, organizations or relationships created for one purpose can be readily transferred to that of another (Nohria & Eccles, 2000; Putnam, 1993; 1995). The structural dimension is characterized by the social system's properties and network relations (Nahapiet, 2008; Turner, 2011). Although the structural aspect of social capital is essential, it cannot stand alone. The ties create adequate social capital when they work in conjunction with the cognitive and relational dimensions.

The structural component also lends to the importance of the network configuration from the perspective of dense versus less-dense networks. In dense networks, there are often redundancies that can get in the way of information flow and affect the efficiency of the information that flows within the network. Less-dense networks, also known as the strength of weak ties (Granovetter, 1973), tend to have a greater flow of information, overall efficiency, and less redundancy. The network setup for the DMO is essential so that information flows freely amongst the network members. When this does not happen, trust in the DMO and the network will likely erode. Lastly, the DMO, in its role as the administrator, must, to some degree, create trust amongst the network members because it must be an appropriate organization. This trust must be sustainable to maintain the relationship with the member network and use that trust to bring others into the network. When a foundational structure is in place to facilitate the work that the DMO must do to bring together the network, that structure is increasingly likely to contribute to favorable outcomes, specifically those related to the organization's success. Structural social capital consists of the existing network of relationships between actors. Therefore, the dimension of structural social capital is responsible for developing ties that give access to resources, which are vital to the formulation of the network. Without the dimension of structural ties, social capital cannot exist. As a result, structural capital will impact the success of the destination marketing organization. We, therefore, propose the following in the form of the alternative hypothesis:

H₁1: Relational Social Capital will have a positive impact on DMO Success

2.2.2 The Cognitive Dimension

The cognitive dimension of social capital presents the resources providing shared representations, interpretations, and systems of meaning among parties (Cicourel, 1973). While it has

been the least studied of the three dimensions of social capital, the cognitive dimension suggests that communities develop unique social and cognitive personalities that guide the view of their environment and influence their interactions with each other according to where they share these ideas. According to Nahapiet and Goshal (1998), the cognitive dimension is characterized by the idea of shared codes and language and shared narratives. This concept of a shared language between network members is that language has a direct function in relations from one person or organization to the next. It is how we communicate, understand, and conduct business through a common language that each person understands. When these languages are shared, the process of gaining access to people and information increases due to the commonalities. When these languages are different and not shared, this can be a barrier that keeps people at a distance and restricts their access. Beyond shared language, a system of shared narratives must also exist because narrative (in the form of storytelling, for example, amongst members of a community) facilitates the exchange of ideas amongst the members of a network. This can be like “industry talk” amongst group members or from one organization to the next as they share ideas on how to work together more effectively. The cognitive dimension, as a result, reflects the idea that specific networks and communities may develop their language, full of terms, acronyms, and interpretations of their environment that are not shared with or understood by others outside of it. Weick (1995) suggests that when this type of goal and values congruence exists and interpretations are shared across organizational or departmental systems, this cognitive influence becomes ongoing, sustainable, supportive, and self-reinforcing. To understand the cognitive aspect of social capital, one can use organizational partnerships or alliances as an example whereby all the alliance members buy into the concept and create a language of understanding between themselves that can additionally be communicated as a sort of brand initiative that everyone understands. According to Turner (2011, p. 14), “the cognitive dimension captures the

essence of the importance of truly sharing rich information with shared meanings across network actors and not just passing along data or bandying about fancy terms.”

The primary focus of the cognitive dimension is that it represents the idea of shared codes and languages through shared narratives amongst members of the network. From the perspective of the DMO, the cognitive dimension can be likened to the overall brand promise of the destination to the visitor. The DMO oversees formulating and disseminating the larger brand narrative, but the network and its members' responsibility is to deliver that brand narrative to the incoming visitor. For this to happen, all network members must understand this shared vision and be in sync regarding what it means and how it is to be executed. When this is done correctly, the potential increases for high-level brand awareness and visitation to the destination by customers across leisure and meeting segments. When the languages are different, and all parties are not in sync, the message can be weakened and thus not as effective to consumers who are more likely to remove the destination from their consideration set. Additionally, Reinhold et al. (2015, p.8) echo a similar sentiment at the 2014 St. Gallen Consensus on Destination Management when noting that those in attendance showed concern with the “congruence between destination marketing messages sent on the one hand and service delivery in the destination on the other.” These perceived incongruences between stakeholders and the DMO can impact service delivery if a product/service is delivered differently from what the visitor expects.

The cohesiveness related to these shared codes and languages through tourism communities can lead to a sustainable competitive advantage for the destination. Thus, the cognitive dimension is crucial to the DMO as it represents a job well done in getting the network members to see the identified goal emanating from the DMO and will lead to more positive organizational outcomes for

the destination marketing organization. We, therefore, propose the following in the form of the alternative hypothesis:

H₁₂: Cognitive Social Capital will have a positive impact on DMO Success

2.2.3 The Relational Dimension

The relational dimension of social capital is built upon the ideas of individual relationships and how those relationships have developed over time through a history of interactions built on trust, norms, obligations, expectations, and identification. In understanding trust, Misztal (1996, p. 9) defines trust as “the belief that the result of somebody’s intended action will be appropriate from our point of view.” Where relationships are high in trust, people are likelier to engage in exchange and cooperative-type actions in general (Fukuyama, 1996; Gambetta, 1998; Putnam, 1993; Ring & Van De Ven, 1992; Tyler & Kramer, 1996). Trust, be it from a personal or organizational perspective, requires a vulnerability to be present in both parties and arises from four aspects: 1) belief in the good intent and concern of exchange partners, 2) belief in their competence, 3) belief in their reliability and 4) belief in their perceived openness (Ouchi, 1981; Pascale, 1990; Ring & Van De Ven, 1994; Sako, 1992; Szulanski, 1996; Giddens, 1990). Trust additionally involves a two-way interaction between two parties. Collaborations, alliances, and inter-organizational relationships at their core must contain trust among the related parties.

Without this trust, the likelihood increases that individuals within the partnerships may act in their own best interest and not in the system's best interest. A norm exists when the social-defined right to control action is held not by the actor but by others (Nahapiet & Goshal, 1998; Coleman, 1990). This degree of consensus on the social system can become an expectation of what each group

member is expected to think. Kramer and Goldman (1995) refer to these as “expectations that bind” and influence exchange processes considerably. In the context of organizations, these norms represent almost behavioral actions taken, such as teamwork and cooperation, where the expectation among network members is unconscious. Obligations and expectations represent a commitment by the members of the group to be expected to take some action or claim in the future. According to Coleman (1990), these obligations and expectations act as a sort of credit slip in that one party does something for another party now with the expectation that the other party will return the act in the future. The concept goes back to the early underpinnings of social exchange theory, whereby exchanging a good or service brings the obligation for similar future exchange of a good or service amongst parties. This is important specifically within areas of the problem domain for interorganizational relationships as one organization begins to identify and see itself as a member of the group and acts accordingly. This is supported by Lewicki and Bunker (1996), who suggest that group identification increases the frequency of cooperation. In cases with contradictory identities amongst groups, this may create barriers to information sharing and resource attainment.

The relationships between members of the network define the relational dimension of social capital. These relationships between the DMO and its stakeholders develop over time through interactions and are foundationally built upon trust, norms, and obligations. Within the tourism system, these relationships are essential, as members depend upon each other for the system to be at its most ideal. When these relationships have a high trust factor, network members are less likely to revert to their standard ways of acting in their best interest. Once trust is built, that trust develops into an almost expected normal mode of operation. When the relationships amongst group members are optimal, there is a sense of teamwork amongst the network members. They begin to work for each other instead of on their own as they have developed a sense of obligation to one another. This area of

social capital is vital in such an interconnected system as tourism and when practical, can act as the lubricant to ensure successful outcomes for the organization. We, therefore, propose the following in the form of the alternative hypothesis:

H₁₃: Relational Social Capital will have a positive impact on DMO Success

2.3 Inter-Organizational Relationships

2.3.1 Power Symmetry

When the relationship amongst/between partners is dependent, the power dynamic of parties engaged in inter-organizational relationships is not balanced (Cook & Emerson, 1978). When the relationships are based on a more symmetrical structure, there is more significant potential to create longer-term sustainable relationships, whereas we see the opposite in asymmetric relationships more associated with instability and conflict (Ganesan, 1994; Hingley, 2005; Rokkan & Haugland, 2002). When interdependence is more asymmetric, companies with equal power are less likely to have the necessary motivation to avoid conflict (Kumar & Van Dissel, 1996). Additionally, there is a greater possibility of conflict if the relationship between a more powerful firm and its less powerful partner is asymmetric. Less conflict will occur when the interdependence among partners increases (Cheng, 2011). This is because firms must depend on each other, and each party fears losing its power. In relationships characterized by symmetrical power, neither partner in the relationship will insist on or rebuke ideas shared by each other. In the case of the DMO, they are charged with ensuring that power amongst all parties within the network remains as close to symmetrical as possible, as when it does

not, conflict becomes present amongst partners, and the network will struggle to sustain its overall structure due to parties reverting to their ways where their interest is paramount. When the power dynamic is out of balance, it can impact the relationship between the DMO and the relationship(s) with its stakeholders. We, therefore, propose the following in the form of the alternative hypothesis:

H₁₄: The influence of Relational Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Power Symmetry

H₁₅: The influence of Cognitive Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Power Symmetry

H₁₆: The influence of Structural Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Power Symmetry

2.3.2 Trust

Huemer (1993) et al., p.3 states that “Trust creates benefits for all parties, e.g., by reducing complexity and the need for constant surveillance, by restraining opportunism and by producing positive attitudes (Barber 1983; Luhmann 1979; John 1984). Trust leads to committed relationships and decreases transaction costs (Ring and Van de Ven, 1994; Jarillo, 1990).” Interorganizational relationships within the network do not form overnight; they begin with small, often informal deals from one organization to the next. These deals, at an early stage, require little trust, as there is little risk involved for the participating organizations (Van De Ven, 1976). Over time, however, these small deals increase in number and trust, so the participating parties slowly begin to grow into more significant transactions as they feel more secure in the relationships and are willing to share additional resources. These increases in the trust grow more stable and efficient over time and lead to more

significant investments amongst network members. As previously mentioned, the greater the reliance on this type's trust leads to decreasing transaction costs. It increases managerial flexibility with the involved parties relying less on legal documentation and decreasing the likelihood of members resorting to their individualistic business practices (Friedman, 1991). Trust, in this sense, benefits all parties involved by reducing the need for constant surveillance among parties, creating greater efficiency in resource distribution, and increasing the likelihood of greater network cooperation, which can lead to positive organizational outcomes.

Trust, as a result, is a crucial factor by which members of the tourism network can collectively create increased levels of destination competitiveness. Successful organizational outcomes thrive on trust and are a driving factor of the destination achieving a sustainable competitive advantage and boosting the likelihood for success for the organization to the extent that it is a pre-condition to the DMO achieving successful, said organizational outcomes. We, therefore, propose the following in the form of the alternative hypothesis:

H₁₇: The influence of Relational Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Trust

H₁₈: The influence of Cognitive Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Trust

H₁₉: The influence of Structural Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Trust

2.3.3 Commitment

The complicated distribution system and its fragmented supply components mean that the tourism field depends on inter-organizational relations to achieve organizational and regional goals (Selin & Beason, 1991). A primary component of inter-organizational relations within the concept of a tourism network is that these interactions amongst members of the network result from interdependencies among the organizations. These interdependencies manifest themselves in the form of attractions' dependencies on hotels and hotels' dependencies on airlines as they provide mechanisms for tourists to travel to a destination via airplane to experience demand-driving attractions and sleep overnight at hotels. Trust and commitment to this cause are essential foundational elements upon which inter-organizational relationships must be built for those network members. Mesic et al. (2018) noted that trust and commitment among firms are rare, valuable, and irreplaceable assets. The cumulative power of each can increase information sharing amongst organizations and may also reduce the cost of transactions, leading to more robust organizational performance. The DMO and its stakeholders should strive to cooperate with other community members and build tighter relationships when mutual benefits can be achieved (Uddin, 2017). The strengths of these relationships usually depend on elevated levels of commitment from members of the network. The closer the firms are to an integrated relationship, the greater the overall performance related to the network and the greater the profit (Jain et al., 2014). The greater overall performance can also lead to a sustained competitive advantage for the DMO, which positions the destination to see greater performances in total economic output, which will benefit the local community, businesses, and government (through additional tax revenue). We, therefore, propose the following in the form of the alternative hypothesis:

H₁₀: The influence of Relational Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Commitment

H₁₁: The influence of Cognitive Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Commitment

H₁₂: The influence of Structural Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Commitment

2.4 DMO Success

2.4.1 Stakeholder Interaction

DMO stakeholders are routinely aware of what the CVB does for them or, in many cases, has accomplished on their behalf. Using adapted scales from Lee et al. (2015), this study proposes a measure of DMO success comprised of the underlying dimension of stakeholder interaction. According to Lee et al. (2015, p.41), “stakeholder interaction is the dimension relating to CVB management perspectives and involves four items to assess whether CVBs strive to build up to a system that facilitates interaction with MICE firms.” Critical to the success of the DMO is the role that it plays within the network as it is charged with creating economic value for its stakeholders through its role as destination planner, destination marketer, industry coordinator, and destination representative. As a result, the DMOs success should be assessed by its ability to create favorable outcomes for its stakeholder groups.

Social Capital and Success. Adler and Kwon (2002) suggest that the link between social capital and favorable organizational outcomes is a significant one, and the advantage arises from the fact that singular members of the group work more effectively and efficiently as they operate within

high-value networks where they are familiar with one another, know one another, and trust one another. In understanding the relationship between social capital and success in destination marketing organizations, the three components of social capital may have a direct impact on the success of the DMO. From a structural perspective, the network must exist and have structure so that connections among actors are possible and so the members within the network can share information with frequency. Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) agree that such information flows to create a competitive advantage, enhancing the organization's ability to create more favorable organizational outcomes. From the cognitive perspective, those members of the network must have some degree of shared understanding or meaning with which all members of the network are, to some degree, on the same page and, to a degree, speak the same language as to how they contribute to the collective goal at hand. This is more likely to lead to outcomes whereby individual organizations do not revert to their individualistic ways and genuinely buy in, cementing positive organizational outcomes for the organization, in this case, the DMO. Lastly, the relational component of social capital ensures that trust and reciprocity amongst the network members are paramount. When these relationships are commented on amongst its members, this reduces transactions cost and creates a free flow of information and is more likely to create favorable organizational outcomes for the DMO. In their study on the success and failure of not for profits, Helmig et al. (2014) suggested that prior studies are atheoretical and are more “problem-driven than theory-driven.” To overcome this problem, the authors suggest that researchers pursue this study from a more theory-based perspective. To this end, and from a success perspective, the study follows the strategic constituency model, which defines organizational success by the degree to which organizations such as the DMO can meet and exceed stakeholder demands (Cameron, 1980). Below you will find the hypothesized research model containing all of the paths and (alternative) hypotheses tested in this study:

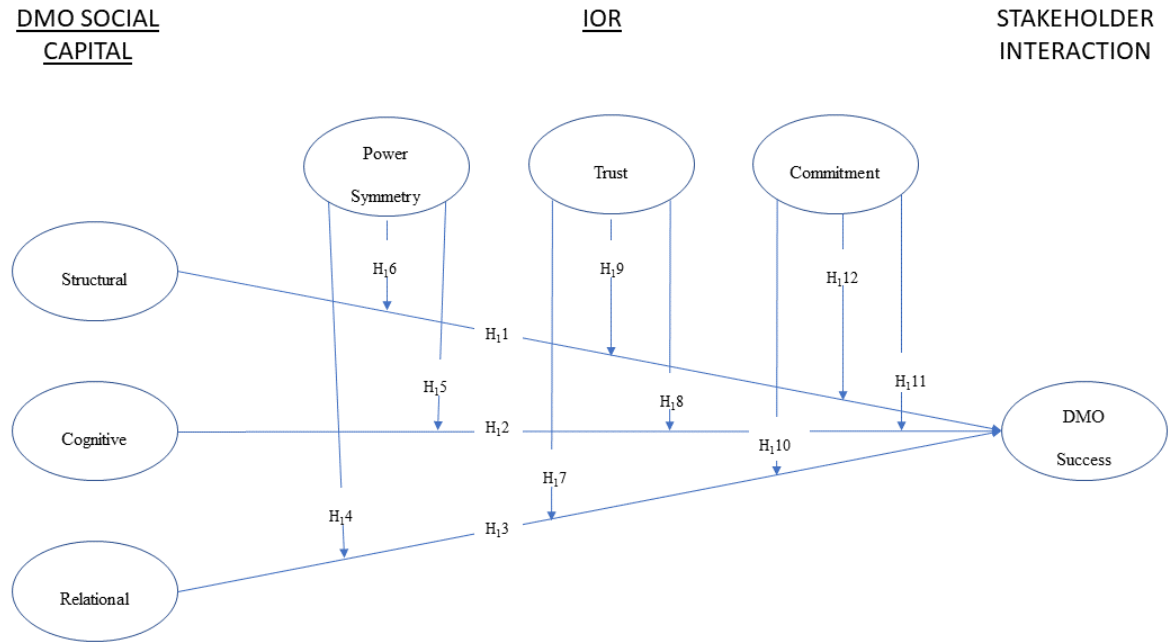


Figure 4: Hypothesized Research Model

H₁1: Structural Social Capital will have a positive impact on DMO Success

H₁2: Cognitive Social Capital will have a positive impact on DMO Success

H₁3: Relational Social Capital will have a positive impact on DMO Success

H₁4: The influence of Relational Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Power Symmetry

H₁5: The influence of Cognitive Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Power Symmetry

H₁₆: The influence of Structural Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Power Symmetry

H₁₇: The influence of Relational Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Trust

H₁₈: The influence of Cognitive Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Trust

H₁₉: The influence of Structural Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Trust

H₁₁₀: The influence of Relational Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Commitment

H₁₁₁: The influence of Cognitive Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Commitment

H₁₁₂: The influence of Structural Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Commitment

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

This chapter begins with a discussion of the target population and sample of the study. A discussion follows the survey instrument development and explanation of each measurement scale. Sampling and data collection, questionnaire development, pretest, pilot test, and the data collection procedure are discussed in the concluding section covering the proposed data analysis. This study employs a survey design. Primary data was collected via a web-based questionnaire. The IRB review and questionnaire approval were approved before data collection began.

This study employed a quantitative-based cross-sectional survey research design, as the authors believed there to be a need to establish an accurate and reliable understanding of the latent variables (social capital, IOR, Success) to build a solid understanding of the organizational aspects of Destination Marketing Organizations (Turner, 2011). A limitation of this research design is the cross-sectional nature of the use of this survey type as opposed to a longitudinal study. Additionally, due to the nature of this dissertation, survey research was appropriate and effective when researchers are facing limitations related to time constraints. Research subjects who will participate in the study will also have time limitations and cannot participate in longitudinal studies, nor do they have adequate time to participate in more qualitative-based interview settings. This will lead the study's authors to pursue a survey-based research design. Survey research gathers data from respondents representing the defined population (Cresswell and Cresswell, 2017). Two significant limitations of cross-sectional survey data are 1) the risks of incorrect responses associated with self-reported data as respondents may answer to what they believe is socially acceptable rather than being truthful, and 2) A significant limitation of cross-sectional studies is called temporality bias. Since risk factors and outcomes are measured simultaneously, it is impossible to know whether the factor preceded the occurrence of the outcome, which is a criterion for determining causality (Cresswell and Cresswell, 2017).

Lastly, the multi-dimensional nature of the latent variables to be studied requires a quantitative approach to ascertain the true nature of the relationships amongst the study variables.

3.1. Sampling and Data Collection

Data for this study was gathered using a non-probability purposeful sampling technique. The targeted population was comprised of various U.S.-based DMOs and their subsequent stakeholders. A stakeholder is "any person or group who has interests in the planning, process, delivery and outcomes of the tourism (Sauter and Leisen, 1999, p. 315)." For this study, the sample included current members of local CVB/DMOs such as local businesses (hotels, restaurants, theme parks, etc.), board members, advertising agencies, vendors, and government (elected officials). The recruitment policy involved reaching out to multiple respective destination marketing organizations and requesting that they distribute the survey to their local stakeholders. This was accomplished via the researcher's prior relationships with local destination marketing organizations around the domestic United States.

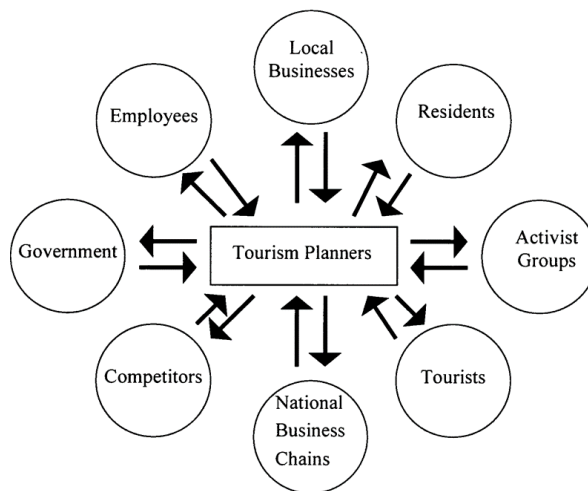


Figure 5: Tourism Stakeholder Map. Adapted from Freeman (1984:55).

Data were collected via a self-administered online survey (Dillman et al., 2009). Online

data collection has several advantages, such as reducing social desirability bias, promoting honest responses from participants, allowing access to a larger population, and reaching hard-to-find sample groups (Hung & Law, 2011; De Leeuw, 2008). The questionnaire was pre-tested with a sample of university professors, destination marketing, and hospitality industry experts, which allowed the researcher to identify and revise errors in the instructions and clarify wording. Next, a pilot test was conducted once data collection reached 50 respondents. Feedback from the pilot test helped the researcher to revise the questionnaire flow, clarify the wording of items such as construct questions and demographic questions and perform initial reliability and validity testing. Lastly, participants for this study were adults 18 years or older who local DMO stakeholders employed.

Rules regarding sample size estimates for PLS-SEM allow for reduced sample sizes and historically have achieved elevated statistical power (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014; Kock and Hadaya, 2018). However, as typical with regression-based studies, greater sample sizes boost the overall accuracy of PLS-SEM estimations. An often-employed technique of sample estimation in partial least squares studies is the '10-times rule' method (Hair et al., 2011). This rule suggests that sample sizes should be more than ten times the highest number of inner or outer model links directed at any latent variable contained within the model. This method has become popular in PLS-SEM studies partly due to its simplicity. Still, it has recently been proven to be less than adequate as it creates inaccurate estimates, specifically regarding power (Goodhue et al., 2012). The lowest sample size where a Partial Least Squares-SEM test reaches the appropriate level of power (usually .8) is dependent upon on the effect size linked to the magnitude of the path coefficient that is being considered (Cohen, 1988; 1992; Goodhue et al., 2012). Kock and Hadaya (2018, p.239), in their study of sample size estimations for PLS-SEM

studies, stated that “if used in an empirical study, the 10-times rule would lead to a sample size whose power would be approximately .65, which is well below the threshold of .8 for the .05 significance level.” As an substitute to the ten-times rule method, this study reviewed two methods, each having its roots in mathematical equations. The first method is referred to as the inverse square root method, which utilizes the inverse square root of a sample’s size for standard error estimation. The second method is the gamma-exponential method, which relies on gamma and exponential smoothing function corrections (Kock and Hadaya, 2018).

An additional contributing factor to the estimation of sample size is should the sample size be estimated before the collection of data or after? According to Kock and Hadaya (2018, p. 246), “minimum sample size estimation before data collection and analysis, or prospective estimation, is generally recommended over the retrospective approach of estimation after data collection and analysis (Gerard et al., 1998; Nakagawa & Foster, 2004).” In retrospective estimation, the researcher must decide after data collection what is the minimum acceptable magnitude of the path coefficient acceptable.

To determine the minimum acceptable magnitude of the path coefficient, we look to Cohen’s (1988; 1992) power assessment guidelines, where Cohen suggests that for a model consisting of two variables, an effect size of .02 would be acceptable. Cohen suggests that more complex models (such as the one discussed in this study) would lead to smaller effect sizes, as these models often include more linkages. Given this, we set an effect size twice Cohen’s (1988; 1992) minimum acceptable, namely an effect size of .04. Prior literature suggests that this rule applies to most models, including reasonably complex ones such as that proposed in this study, as long as they are free of vertical and lateral collinearity (Kock & Lynn, 2012). The corresponding inequality for this proposed rule of thumb would be .04, resulting in a minimum

acceptable path coefficient of .197.

The outcome of the Kock and Hadaya (2018) study recommends strongly that researchers employ either the inverse root method or the gamma exponential method. For this study, the researcher will employ the latter and a recommended sample size of 146, based on a minimum power level of .8, a significance level of .05 and a minimum path coefficient magnitude of .197. WarpPLS 8.0 (Kock, 2017) was used to calculate sample size estimation for the gamma exponential method, providing a more precise estimate than the inverse square root method.

An alternative to this method would be to adjust the minimum path coefficient magnitude upon completion of a pilot study or to simply rely on prior literature to determine an acceptable minimum level. Incorporating the latter, however, may prove difficult as minimum path coefficient magnitudes vary from one discipline to the next and may provide unreliable data for this study.

3.2 Questionnaire Development

The questionnaire will contain three sections, adopting established scales from previous literature. Specifically, Social Capital was adopted from Turner's (2011) study, DMO Success was adapted from Lee et al. (2016), and inter-organizational relationships were adopted from (Zeng and Lu, 2020). The success of DMO was measured via stakeholder satisfaction derived from (Lee et al., 2016).

The questionnaire consisted of questions related to the constructs and various demographic questions. The appendix section of this dissertation provides a list of all the items to be included in the questionnaire. All items in the second section of the survey were measured using a five-point Likert scale with a range of 1 as strongly disagree to 5 as strongly agree. To increase the validity of

the survey, nonsensical attention check questions were utilized. Nonsensical attention check questions are utilized to determine if respondents were disengaged while reading and responding to the survey questions, as a disengaged participant has the potential to affect the quality of the collected data (Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010). Disengaged participants were assessed using attention check questions. Two attention check questions were included in the survey but were not removed as prior literature has determined that removing such questions may create response bias. Lastly, the questionnaire was designed using Qualtrics.com.

3.3 Data Analysis

Once data was collected, it was cleaned and assessed for missing data in SPSS v.28.0. Demographic information will be utilized and examined to determine that the appropriate sample population was reached and to understand the sample demographics.

A variance-based structural equation model, PLS-SEM, was used to test the hypothesis for this study. The partial least squares (PLS) regression method was leveraged to analyze the data in a structural equation model (SEM). PLS-SEM is appropriate in studies focusing on prediction-oriented research, the testing of complex models, or exploratory research, as these characteristics accord better with PLS-SEM (Latan, 2018). Prior studies have indicated that this technique is more appropriate for studies with small sample sizes and have used this method within a tourism context (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982; Molinillo et al., 2018; Chin et al., 2020; Ali et al., 2018). This claim, however, has been recently refuted by Latan (2018), as well as the claim that PLS-SEM does not adhere to strict assumptions about data distributions and its ability to provide robust model estimations with normal and non-normal data (Hair, 2011, 2014). The author suggests that the small sample size and data distributions are based on outdated ideas regarding PLS-SEM and not that of logical reasoning when

deciding on using PLS-SEM. Figure 6 below by Latan (2018) provides a conceptual framework of best practices for using PLS-SEM, to which this study will adhere.

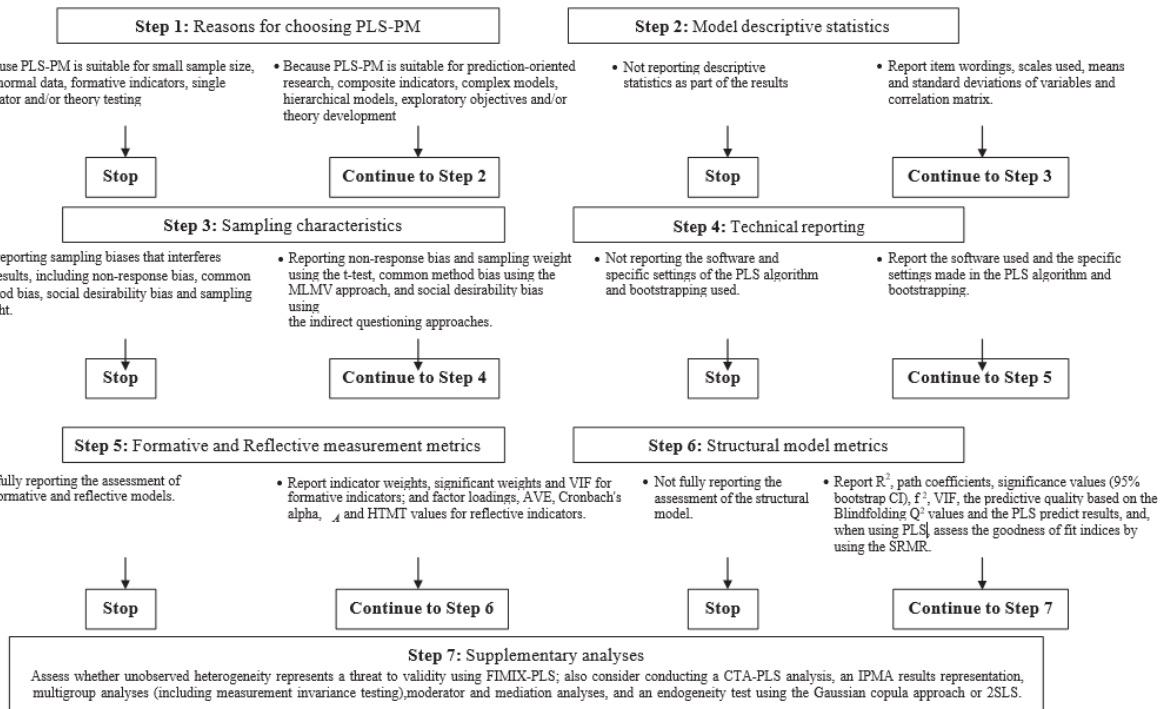


Fig. 2: General Reporting Standards for PLS-PM Analysis.

Figure 6: General Reporting Standards for PLS-SEM Analysis (Latan, 2018)

One of the many reasons that PLS-SEM is considered an appropriate multivariate data analysis method is its ability to achieve acceptable levels of power using various sample sizes (Hair et al., 2011; 2014). This is especially true for models with only strong path coefficients and equally strong effect sizes. It is not valid for models with path coefficients of more modest magnitudes and models with weak path coefficients.

PLS-SEM is helpful in social science research when theory is less developed. The study's primary objective is to apply structural modeling as a predictor and explanation of target constructs. PLS-SEM is a multivariate procedure that tests construct validity and theoretical relationships among a set of concepts represented by variables.

Variance-based SEM (PLS-SEM) was performed following a two-step process in which measurement and structural models are estimated separately. It has gained wide acceptance among researchers and scholars (Hair et al., 2014). The statistical analysis of the measurement and structural models will be performed using the SmartPLS 3 statistical program.

Measurement Model

First, the measurement model was examined using the path model estimation. In this study, reflective measurement models for each construct were used, and each item/indicator used to measure the construct is a representative sample of all items available in the conceptual field of the construct (Hair et al., 2014). Since the same construct causes items/indicators, indicators are expected to be highly correlated, and items are interchangeable without changing the construct's meaning. Testing the measurement model provides empirical measures of the relationship between indicators and the constructs they represent. In this procedure, construct validation (convergent and discriminant) can be verified by assessing the extent to which the observed measures represent each latent construct. Evaluation of reflective measurement models includes internal consistency through composite reliability, individual indicator reliability, convergent validity by examining average variance extracted, and discriminant validity by reviewing the Fornell-Larcker (1981) criterion and cross-loadings (Hair et al., 2014). First, composite reliability was evaluated to determine internal consistency. Values must be between 0 and 1, and higher values indicate higher levels of reliability. Composite reliability values of .60 to .70 are considered acceptable for exploratory research, and for advanced research, values between .70 and .90 are satisfactory (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Nunally & Bernstein, 1994). On the other hand, values below .60 show a lack of internal consistency reliability, and values above .95 are not desirable because they suggest that all the indicator variables are measuring the same phenomenon and are unlikely to be a valid measure of the construct (Hair et al.,

2014). Second, measurement model evaluation entails indicator reliability and convergent validity, assessed through the indicators' outer loading and the average variance extracted (AVE). Indicator reliability is assessed through outer loading; higher outer loadings suggest that the indicators have much in common. All indicators must be statistically significant and be .708 or higher (Hair et al., 2014). To establish the convergent validity of the construct, AVE is assessed. It is recommended that an AVE value of .50 or higher indicates that the construct explains more than half of the variance (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988).

The last step in evaluating the measurement model includes assessing the discriminant validity, which can be done by evaluating the cross-loadings of the indicators or the Fornell-Larcker criterion. The outer loadings of an indicator should be greater than all its loadings on other constructs or cross-loadings (Chin, 1998; Grégoire & Fisher, 2006). A more conservative evaluation involves the Fornell-Larcker criterion, which compares the square root of the AVE values with the latent correlations, and to determine convergent validity, the “AVE should exceed the squared correlations with any other construct” (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2014, p. 105). The evaluation of the reflective measurement model allows the researcher to establish the reliability and validity of the construct measures. Once reliability and validity are established, the next step is evaluating the structural model.

Structural Model

The second phase of PLS-SEM was evaluating the structural model, which is a hypothetical model that proposes relationships among constructs (Hair et al., 2014). The structural model relates some variables to other variables in the model by providing path coefficients for each hypothesized relationship. This provides insight into the predictive validity of the latent constructs. The latent constructs included in the structural model for this study include social capital (structural social

capital, cognitive, social capital, relational social capital), IOR (trust, power symmetry commitment), and DMO Success (stakeholder satisfaction). The hypothesized structural model is evaluated and assessed in five steps: (1) collinearity assessment, 2) structural model path coefficients, 3) coefficient of determination, 4) effect size, and 5) blindfolding and predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2014).

In step 1, the structural model must be examined for collinearity issues by evaluating the tolerance levels in the predictor constructs. To show no collinearity issues, tolerance levels should be below .20 or VIF below 5.00 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). If no collinearity issues are found, an assessment of the model can be performed. In step 2, an assessment of structural path coefficients represents the hypothesized relationships among constructs. Standardized values for path coefficients are obtained using the bootstrapping method, which allows the researcher to evaluate the standard error and significance. The researcher must evaluate the p and t values and confidence intervals before examining the significance of the relationships. After significance is established, the relevance of the significant relationships must be assessed. This allows the researcher to determine the importance of each relationship, which is established by examining the path coefficients. This step is essential because PLS-SEM aims to identify significant path coefficients in the structural model and significant and relevant effects. The structural model assessment aims to identify the significant paths that exert the most impact. This assists the researcher in interpreting the results so that the researcher can draw meaningful conclusions.

In step 3, the coefficient of determination or R^2 value evaluates the structural model. The coefficient provides the model's predictive accuracy; R^2 values range from 0 to 1, and higher values indicate a higher level of predictive accuracy. Scholars state that values of 0.75, 0.50, and 0.25 for endogenous latent variables can be considered substantial, moderate, and weak, respectively (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011; Henseler et al., 2009).

Step 4 includes an evaluation of the effect size (f^2), which allows the researcher to evaluate the impact of an omitted exogenous construct and if the construct impacts the endogenous construct. The last step involves an evaluation of the predictive relevance or Q^2 obtained through a blindfolding procedure. When the model exhibits predictive relevance, it can accurately predict data points of indicators in reflective measurement models (Hair et al., 2014). Q^2 values greater than 0 suggest that the model has predictive relevance, and values of 0 and below shows a lack of predictive relevance (Chin, 1998; Henseler et al., 2009). Next, the q^2 effect size is manually calculated and provides a relative measure of predictive relevance for the evaluated endogenous construct (Chin, 1998; Henseler et al., 2009). Guidelines for assessing the f^2 and q^2 values state that 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 represent the exogenous latent variable's small, medium, and large effects on an endogenous construct (Cohen, 1988).

CHAPTER 4: ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This chapter presents the data collection, data screening, and statistical analysis. First, a summary of the data collection and preparation method is explained, and the study's sample results are provided with demographic and descriptive statistics. Next, the statistical analysis and a discussion of the hypotheses test results are provided. Finally, the chapter concludes with a synopsis of the findings of the hypothesis tests and the structural model with the significance of the path coefficients results.

4.1 Data Collection

Data for this study was collected online using a survey constructed in Qualtrics and administered via email. The questionnaire was pre-tested with a sample of university professors from a major university in central Florida and hospitality & tourism professionals in the Central and Southwest Florida regions. This allowed the researcher to identify and revise errors in the instructions and clarify the wording of items. The recruitment policy for this study involved the researcher contacting Destination Marketing Organizations within the United States and requesting each to send the survey to their stakeholder base. The target population for this study was stakeholders of the DMO from within the domestic United States. Participants had to be at least 18 years of age and currently employed by the stakeholders of DMOs from categories including but not limited to: advertising agency, amusement/theme park, arts/culture/museum, board/committee member, college/university, convention center/meeting facility, destination management company, government/elected official, hotel/accommodations, meeting planner, meeting services, online travel agency (OTA), shopping/retail, transportation, travel agent, vendor (digital, traditional) or other

within the United States to participate in the survey. Data collection began on May 11th, 2022, and was finalized on June 7, 2022.

A pilot survey was conducted on May 17th, 2022, and 44 completed samples were collected from Qualtrics. After initial screening and analysis of the survey pilot tests, there were no initial problems with the survey measurement items from a reliability standpoint (Cronbach Alpha's were all at acceptable levels). Additionally, initial validity and factor analysis revealed no further issues. At this point, data collection continued, and an additional 134 completed surveys were screened and inspected further for a total of 178 collected samples.

4.2 Data Screening and Preparation

Next, participant engagement was examined by determining if they were disengaged while reading and responding to the survey questions; a disengaged participant affects the data quality. Disengaged participants were assessed using attention check questions. Two attention check questions were included in the survey. The attention check questions did reveal that a small number of respondents failed the disengaged participants check. The respondents were not removed, as recent studies have shown that removing these types of participants may introduce response bias into the study (Vanette, 2016). Recent reviews of emerging research on attention checks found evidence against eliminating these respondents from most datasets (Anduiza and Galais 2016; Berinsky, Margolis, and Sances 2014; 2016). The thinking behind these recommendations is that the authors stated that respondents who “fail” the attention check “are not a random subset of the population” and that eliminating these respondents from the survey may introduce a bias into the results of the data if some demographic or psychographic groups are disproportionately likely to fail the attention check

(Vanette, 2016). Based on this evidence and the small number of respondents failing the attention checks, the responses were retained for additional checks.

Additionally, the survey was checked for missing data as missing data may adversely affect analysis through the Smart PLS program. Missing data analysis was performed and confirmed 23 cases with missing or incomplete data. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), missing data analysis assesses the number of missing responses from the questionnaires. The authors suggest that values should also be checked for randomness as a basic assumption. Therefore, a missing values analysis was run to identify if the values in the data set were missing completely at random to determine whether the data items missing were independent both of observable variables and unobservable parameters of interest and occurred at random (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The authors state that if any data has achieved the MCAR level whereby the p-value is larger than 0.05, then appropriate actions can be taken to handle missing data. A Little's MCAR test in SPSS revealed that the results were insignificant at .679. Next, a data imputation method was performed to account for the missing data. Imputation is the process of replacing data with substituted values. The data for this study were imputed using the expectation-maximization method commonly known as (EM). This method is commonly known as an iterative method to find the maximum likelihood estimates of parameters in statistical models (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Upon completing the data imputation utilizing the EM method, 178 samples were retained for final data analysis.

4.3 Demographics

The target population for this study was stakeholders of destination marketing organizations within the U.S. The participants were asked to provide basic demographic information, information about them regarding their employment at the aforementioned stakeholders, their experience working

with the destination marketing organization, and brief questions regarding their experience with the destination marketing organization during COVID-19. The demographic profile of participants in this study includes age, gender, education level, number of years working with the DMO, number of years working at their current firm, hospitality/tourism category in which they work, job title, ethnicity, and state in which they reside. The information regarding their category of hospitality/tourism covers a range of the industry, including but not limited to the advertising agency, amusement/theme park, arts/culture/museum, board/committee member, college/university, convention center/meeting facility, destination management company, government/elected official, hotel/accommodations, meeting planner, meeting services, online travel agency (OTA), shopping/retail, transportation, travel agent, vendor (digital, traditional) or other.

Table 4 shows that the sample was comprised of 36.5% male (65) 47.8% female (85), .12.9% other (23) and 2.8% preferred to not answer (5), and with a final 12.9% missing (23). All participants were at least 25 years of age, with 11.2% (20) aged 25-34. The largest group of respondents were aged 35-44 and represented 30.3% (54) of the participants. The 45–54-year-old age group representing 18.5% (33), was followed by the 55–64-year-old age group at 20.8% (37) of the participants. Three respondents chose not to answer, while the 65+-year-old group of participants rounds out the sample at 5.4% (8) and with a final 12.9% missing (23).

Most of the respondents were educated with a bachelor's degree respondents at 64.9% (98), along with a master's degree, 18.5% (28) associate degree, 5.3% (8), and .7% (1) of respondents with a Doctoral or Professional degree. High school graduates represented the smallest number of respondents at 1.3% (2) some college but no degree at 7.3% (11), and with final 12.9% missing (23).

Respondents were overwhelmingly white or Caucasian, with 65.2% (116) respondents belonging to this group, followed by Hispanic or Latino 6.2% (11), Asian 3.4% (6) and Black or African American 3.4% (6). American Indian/Native American/Alaskan .6% (1), Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander .6% (1) followed by preferred not to answer 1.7% (3), other 3.4% (6) and with final 13.5% missing (24).

Geographically respondents represented 20 states within the United States comprised of 17 destination marketing organizations. Florida represented the largest number of respondents with over 42.1% (75) followed by the state of Maryland 9.6% (17), Texas at 5.6% (10) representing the top three states and with final 13.5% missing (24). The respondents represented a variety of industry with the hotel/lodging/accommodations sector comprising 21.9% (39), Other 20.4% (36), Arts/Culture/Museum 9.6% (17), Agency 6.2% (11), Amusement Park/Theme Park/Attraction 8.4% (15), Meeting & Event Planner 5.6% (10), Vendor 5.6% (10), Convention Center/Meeting Facility 5.6% (10), Government/Elected Official 2.2% (4), Meeting Services 2.8% (5), Shopping/Retail 2.2% (4), Transportation 2.2% (4), Online Travel Agency (OTA) 1.7% (3), Board/Committee Member 1.7% (3), College/University 1.1% (2), Destination Management Company 1.1% (2), Travel Agent/Agency 1.1% (2), preferred not to answer at .6% (1) and with final 20.4% other (36).

Regarding the amount of time working closely with the DMO, the majority of the respondents reported more than ten years at 48.9% (87), followed by 5-10 years 23% (41), less than five years at 14% (25), prefer not to answer 1.2% (2) and missing 12.9% (23). Respondents also reported the time in which they have worked at their current firm, with 0-5 years representing 34.8% (62), more than ten at 32.6% (58), and 5-10 years at 19.7% (35), and missing 12.9% (23).

Table 4: Sample Demographics

Variable	Category	Frequency (N=178)	Percent (%)
Gender	Male	65	36.5
	Female	85	47.8
	Missing	23	12.9
	I prefer not to answer	5	2.8
Age	Age 25-34	20	11.2
	Age 35-44	54	30.3
	Age 45-54	33	18.5
	Age 55-64	37	20.8
	I prefer not to answer	3	1.7
	Missing	23	12.9
	65+ years old	8	5.4
Education	High school graduate or equivalent (inc. GED)	2	1.1
	Some college but no degree	12	6.7
	Associate degree in college (2-year)	9	5.1
	Bachelor's degree in college (4-year)	99	55.6
	Master's degree	29	16.3
	Doctoral or Professional degree (Ph.D., JD, MD)	1	0.6
	Missing	23	12.9
	I prefer not to answer	3	1.7

Table 5: Ethnicity & State Profile

Variable	Category	Frequency (N=178)	Percent (%)
Ethnicity	White or Caucasian	116	65.2
	American Indian/Native American or Alaska Native	1	.6
	Hispanic or Latino	11	6.2
	Asian	6	3.4
	Black or African American	6	3.4
	Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	1	.6
	I prefer not to answer	7	3.9
	Missing	24	13.5
	Other	6	3.4
State	Arizona	3	1.7
	California	7	3.9
	Colorado	1	.6
	District of Columbia	1	.6
	Florida	75	42.1
	Indiana	8	4.5
	Louisiana	9	5.1
	Maryland	17	9.6
	Massachusetts	1	.6
	Minnesota	4	2.2
	Mississippi	2	1.1
	New Jersey	1	.6
	Ohio	2	1.1
	Oklahoma	1	.6
	Texas	10	5.6
	Utah	2	1.1
	Vermont	1	.6
	Virginia	6	3.4
	Washington	2	1.1
	Missing	24	13.5
Wyoming	1	.6	

Table 6: Industry Demographics

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percent
Hospitality Sector	Agency (Traditional, Digital)	11	6.2
	Amusement Park/Theme Park/Attraction	15	8.4
	Arts/Culture/Museum	17	9.6
	Board/Committee Member	3	1.7
	College/University	2	1.1
	Convention Center/Meeting Facility	10	5.6
	Destination Management Company	2	1.1
	Government/Elected Official	4	2.2
	Hotel/Lodging/Accommodations	39	21.9
	Meeting/Event Planner	10	5.6
	Meetings Services	5	2.8
	Online Travel Agency (OTA)	3	1.7
	Shopping/Retail	4	2.2
	Transportation	4	2.2
	Travel Agent/Agency	2	1.1
	Vendor (Traditional, Digital)	10	5.6
	I prefer not to answer	1	.6
Other	36	20.4	
DMO Tenure	0 to 5 Years	25	14.0
	5 to 10 years	41	23.0
	More than ten years	87	48.9
	I prefer not to answer	2	1.2
	Missing	23	12.9
Firm Tenure	0 to 5 Years	62	34.8
	5 to 10 years	35	19.7
	More than ten years	58	32.6
	Missing	23	12.9

4.4 Covid-19 Statements Regarding Relationship with DMO

Respondents were asked to provide responses on experiences with the destination marketing organization during Covid-19. *When asked, “The CVB regularly communicated with our organization during the Covid-19 pandemic.”* Over 75% (136) of respondents reported having regular communications with the DMO during Covid-19. Respondents who reported Neither Agree nor

Disagree 15.3% (27), Disagree 5.6% (10), and Strongly Disagree 2.8% (5). When asked, “*The CVB implemented key marketing strategies/programming for recovery from the Covid-19 pandemic.*” 75% (133) of respondents reported the DMO had in place recovery strategies to assist in the rebound from Covid-19. Respondents who reported Neither Agree nor Disagree 18.1% (32), Disagree 5.1% (9), and Strongly Disagree 2.2% (4). When asked, “*My firm's business relationship with the CVB continues to be positive despite the impact of the pandemic.*” Over 92% (164) of respondents reported the DMO had in place recovery strategies to assist in the rebound from Covid-19. Respondents who reported Neither Agree nor Disagree 4.6% (8), Disagree 2.3% (4), and Strongly Disagree 1.1% (2).

Table 7: Covid-19 Statements

Variable	Category	Frequency (N=178)	Percent (%)
Covid-19 Regular Communications	Strongly Disagree	5	2.8
	Disagree	10	5.6
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	27	15.3
	Agree	89	50.3
	Strongly Agree	47	26.4
Covid-19 Key Strategies for Recovery	Strongly Disagree	4	2.2
	Disagree	9	5.1
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	32	18.1
	Agree	77	43.5
	Strongly Agree	56	31.5
Covid-19 Continued Business Relationship	Strongly Disagree	2	1.1
	Disagree	4	2.3
	Neither Agree nor Disagree	8	4.6
	Agree	76	42.9
	Strongly Agree	88	49.6

4.5 Statistical Analysis

PLS-SEM measurement involves two steps: the measurement model's assessment and the structural model's evaluation. To analyze the proposed framework and hypotheses in this study, SmartPLS was employed to test latent variables and their related observed items (measurement model) and the relationships between these latent variables (structural model) (Hair et al., 2017). PLS is a structural equation modeling technique that uses correlation and principal component methods to estimate relationships among constructs (Hair et al., 2014). The study utilized reflective measurement models so that the author may estimate the relationships between the reflective latent variables and subsequent indicators. The author can evaluate the reflective models by examining the internal consistency, indicator reliability, and convergent and discriminant validity.

Hair et al. (2014) used factor analysis to address internal consistency, indicator reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. Factor analysis was used to test the reliability and validity of the reflective measurement models. Hair et al. (2014) outline that measurement models verify internal consistency, indicator reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. First, indicator reliability was assessed by verifying the indicator's outer loadings, which should be higher than .70 of the reflective construct items to ensure they are above the recommended threshold values; outer loadings between .40 and .70 should be considered for removal if it improves the CR and AVE (Hair et al., 2014; Hulland, 1999). Analysis showed that three items (Sh_3, SH_5, and SH_6) showed values between .40 and .70 and were subsequently removed. Upon further review of the outer loadings (once items were removed), all indicators reached the recommended threshold value. The indicator for Power Symmetry (PS_3) had the smallest value at .726, while the indicator for Structural

Social Capital (SSC_3) had the highest value at .940. As a result, all indicators for the reflective constructs are above the recommended minimum levels for outer loadings.

Cronbach's alpha normally measures internal consistency. It is, however, sensitive to the number of items in the scale, underestimate's internal reliability, and prioritizes indicators according to internal reliability (Hair et al., 2014). As a result of these limitations, composite reliability (CR) was used to evaluate the internal consistency of reflective measurement models as it accounts for the outer loadings of the indicator variables. Composite reliability values of .60 to .70 are acceptable for exploratory research, while for more advanced research, values between .70 and .90 are acceptable (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Nunally & Bernstein, 1994). Values below .60 indicate a lack of internal consistency reliability, and values above .95 are less than desirable as they indicate that indicator variables are measuring the same thing and may not be a valid measure of the said construct (Hair et al., 2014). A review of the composite reliability for each construct shows that all composite reliabilities are within the recommended thresholds, with the lowest CR value reported for power symmetry at .832 and the highest value at .947 for structural social capital, demonstrating that internal consistency was confirmed.

Convergent validity is the extent to which a measure correlates to other measures of the same construct. To evaluate convergent validity, the researcher must examine the average variance extracted (AVE) at the construct level. AVE is recommended to be .50 or higher, indicating that the construct explains more than half of the variance (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). A review of the AVE values shows that all constructs met the recommended threshold, with the lowest AVE values reported for the power symmetry construct at .625, just above the recommended threshold, and .947 for structural social capital being the highest reported. Table 7 provides the indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, and convergent validity measures.

Table 8: Reliability & Convergent Validity for Constructs

Latent variable	Indicators	Standard Loadings	Alpha	Composite reliability (CR)	AVE
Structural Social Capital	SSC_1	0.900	0.917	0.947	0.857
	SSC_3	0.940			
	SSC_4	0.937			
Cognitive Social Capital	CSC_1	0.841	0.862	0.906	0.707
	CSC_2	0.847			
	CSC_4	0.801			
	CSC_5	0.873			
Relational Social Capital	RSC_1	0.865	0.903	0.932	0.775
	RSC_2	0.907			
	RSC_3	0.911			
	RSC_4	0.836			
Commitment	CMT_1	0.908	0.805	0.911	0.836
	CMT_2	0.920			
Power Symmetry	PS_1	0.767	0.709	0.832	0.625
	PS_2	0.871			
	PS_3	0.726			
Trust	TST_1	0.801	0.886	0.921	0.746
	TST_2	0.829			
	TST_3	0.906			
	TST_4	0.913			
Stakeholder Satisfaction	SHS_1	0.795	0.829	0.943	0.847
	SHS_2	0.804			
	SHS_4	0.875			
	SHS_7	0.774			

The last step in evaluating the measurement model is to confirm discriminant validity, which is evaluated using the Fornell-Larcker criterion and the cross-loadings.

The Fornell-Larcker criterion states that the square root of the AVE of each construct should be higher than the construct's highest correlation with any other construct in the model (Hair et al., 2014). A review of the Fornell-Larcker criterion shows that all square roots of AVEs for the reflective constructs are higher than the correlations of the constructs with other latent variables in the path model. In terms of cross-loadings, all the indicators for a construct should load higher for their respective construct than other constructs. A review of the cross-loadings shows that the highest value for each indicator corresponds to its construct, with cross-loadings with other constructs being lower. Table 8 shows the Fornell-Larcker criterion, and Table 9 shows cross-loadings.

Table 9: Fornell-Larcker criterion discriminant validity assessment

	CSC	RSC	SHS	SSC	PS	CMT	TST
CSC	0.841						
RSC	0.654	0.880					
SHS	0.720	0.634	0.814				
SSC	0.432	0.628	0.418	0.926			
PS	0.616	0.523	0.475	0.411	0.790		
CMT	0.658	0.557	0.625	0.415	0.562	0.915	
TST	0.724	0.626	0.651	0.367	0.539	0.553	0.864

Table 10: Cross-Loadings

	CSC	RSC	SHS	SSC	PS	CMT	TST
CSC_1	0.841	0.576	0.646	0.354	0.475	0.524	0.599
CSC_2	0.847	0.597	0.583	0.427	0.540	0.520	0.623
CSC_4	0.801	0.490	0.601	0.282	0.548	0.646	0.581
CSC_5	0.873	0.534	0.584	0.393	0.509	0.526	0.630
RSC_1	0.529	0.865	0.569	0.642	0.503	0.453	0.560
RSC_2	0.579	0.907	0.526	0.544	0.490	0.473	0.559
RSC_3	0.631	0.911	0.575	0.480	0.467	0.518	0.606
RSC_4	0.562	0.836	0.557	0.542	0.381	0.514	0.476
SHS_1	0.515	0.452	0.794	0.326	0.385	0.427	0.569
SHS_2	0.611	0.505	0.801	0.319	0.384	0.481	0.526
SHS_4	0.607	0.575	0.876	0.426	0.405	0.548	0.575
SHS_7	0.601	0.521	0.780	0.284	0.371	0.567	0.557
SSC_1	0.378	0.571	0.357	0.900	0.361	0.335	0.341
SSC_3	0.420	0.606	0.401	0.940	0.389	0.432	0.351
SSC_4	0.401	0.568	0.400	0.937	0.391	0.381	0.327
PS_1	0.393	0.318	0.246	0.294	0.767	0.767	0.243
PS_2	0.581	0.518	0.482	0.418	0.872	0.872	0.523
PS_3	0.440	0.352	0.334	0.229	0.726	0.726	0.441
CMT_1	0.569	0.456	0.552	0.367	0.478	0.909	0.472
CMT_2	0.632	0.560	0.590	0.391	0.549	0.921	0.537
TST_1	0.680	0.538	0.645	0.334	0.500	0.439	0.802
TST_2	0.512	0.475	0.522	0.288	0.373	0.400	0.829
TST_3	0.638	0.563	0.527	0.319	0.484	0.529	0.907
TST_4	0.670	0.576	0.524	0.315	0.488	0.539	0.914

We would assess the structural model for the last step in data analysis. The theoretical path model represents the structural model and assessing it allows the researcher to determine how well and to what extent the data supports the underlying theory and decide if the theory has been confirmed. After the measurement model is examined for reliability and validity, the structural model can be assessed. There are five steps to assess the structural model:

1) collinearity issues, 2) significance and relevance of the structural relationships, 3) level of R² values, 4) the f² effect size, and 5) predictive relevance of Q² and the q² effect size (Hair et al., 2014).

First, collinearity must be assessed since the structural model's estimation of the path coefficients is based on ordinary least square regressions of each endogenous latent variable on its corresponding predecessor constructs (Hair et al., 2014). The assessment of the structural model for collinearity issues shows that there are no collinearity issues as all VIF values are below the recommended threshold of 5 (Hair et al., 2014). Since there are no collinearity issues, the researcher can proceed to assess the structural model. First, the R^2 was evaluated; this coefficient measures the model's predictive accuracy. Scholars note that values of 0.75, 0.50, and 0.25 for endogenous latent variables are considered substantial, moderate, and weak, respectively (Hair et al., 2011; Henseler et al., 2009). A review of the R^2 value shows that the coefficient for the model is moderate: SHS R^2 (.565) and the adjusted R^2 (.557). Bootstrapping was performed with 300 iterations and 5,000 subsamples to evaluate the path coefficients of the hypothesized relationships among constructs. The results show that two of the three path coefficients were significant at the 5% significance level ($\alpha = .05$).

The relationship between structural social capital ($t = .181$; $\alpha > .05$) and stakeholder satisfaction was found to be not significant. The relationship between cognitive social capital ($t = 4.241$; $\alpha > .05$) and stakeholder satisfaction as well as the relationship between relational social capital ($t = 2.542$; $\alpha > .05$) and stakeholder satisfaction were both found to be significant.

Next, effect size f^2 allows the researcher to assess an exogenous construct's (i.e., cognitive, social capital, relational social capital, and structural social capital) contribution to an endogenous latent variable's R^2 value (i.e., stakeholder satisfaction). The f^2 effect size measures the change in the R^2 value when an exogenous variable is excluded from the model. Therefore, the f^2 effect size is used to determine if the excluded construct substantially impacts R^2 values on the endogenous constructs. Recommended guidelines to assess f^2 values are 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 to indicate small, medium, and

significant effects, respectively (Cohen, 1988; Hair et al., 2014). A review of the f^2 effect size values shows that cognitive and social capital has a large effect on producing the R^2 for stakeholder satisfaction (0.373). In contrast, relational social capital has a negligible effect on stakeholder satisfaction (.075).

Next, a blindfolding procedure was performed to assess the predictive relevance of the structural model. It was performed with omission distance ($D=7$) for all endogenous constructs. The blindfolding report shows that construct cross-validated redundancy provides the Stone- Geisser’s Q^2 values, which provides the predictive relevance; all values are above zero, which supports the model’s predictive relevance regarding endogenous latent variables (Hair et al., 2014). Table 9 shows the Q^2 values.

Table 11: Results of Predictive Accuracy (R^2) and Predictive Relevance (Q^2)

Endogenous latent variable	R^2 Value	Q^2 Value
SHS	0.565	0.360

The final assessment included a review of the q^2 effect size; this value provides a relative measure of predictive relevance for the evaluated endogenous construct. Values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 indicate a small, medium, or large predictive relevance for an endogenous variable (Hair et al., 2014). In this instance, the q^2 effect size shows a large predictive relevance for stakeholder satisfaction. Table 11 below shows a summary of path coefficients f^2 and q^2 .

Table 12: Path Coefficients

Stakeholder Satisfaction	Path coefficients	f^2 effect size	q^2 effect size
Structural Social Capital	0.014	0.000	0.000
Cognitive Social Capital	0.533	0.373	0.147
Relational Social Capital	0.276	0.075	0.000

The final evaluation included a review of the q^2 effect size; this value provides a relative measure of predictive relevance for the evaluated endogenous construct. Values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 indicate a small, medium, or large predictive relevance for an endogenous variable (Hair et al., 2014). In this instance, a review of the q^2 effect size shows that only cognitive and social capital on stakeholder satisfaction strongly affects Q^2 or predictive relevance for stakeholder satisfaction. The remaining q^2 effect sizes were deemed to have a small effect on the predictive relevance of the endogenous variables. Table 11 shows a summary of path coefficients f^2 and q^2 .

The results for each hypothesis are discussed below. Table 12 provides a summary of hypotheses and results.

Table 13: Results of Hypothesis Testing

Hypotheses	Results
<i>H₁₁: Structural Social Capital will have a positive impact on DMO Success</i>	Not supported
<i>H₁₂: Cognitive Social Capital will have a positive impact on DMO Success</i>	Supported
<i>H₁₃: Relational Social Capital will have a positive impact on DMO Success</i>	Supported
<i>H₁₄: The influence of Relational Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Power Symmetry</i>	Not supported
<i>H₁₅: The influence of Cognitive Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Power Symmetry</i>	Not supported
<i>H₁₆: The influence of Structural Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Power Symmetry</i>	Not supported
<i>H₁₇: The influence of Relational Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Trust</i>	Not supported
<i>H₁₈: The influence of Cognitive Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Trust</i>	Not supported
<i>H₁₉: The influence of Structural Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Trust</i>	Not supported
<i>H₁₁₀: The influence of Relational Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Commitment</i>	Not supported
<i>H₁₁₁: The influence of Cognitive Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Commitment</i>	Not supported

<i>H₁₂: The influence of Structural Social Capital on DMO Success will differ according to the degree of Commitment</i>	Not supported
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Hypothesis 1 stated that structural social would positively influence stakeholder satisfaction (DMO Success). The test results, however, show that this relationship was not statistically significant, finding that structural social capital does not influence stakeholder satisfaction (t-value= 0.181, $p > .05$). The results do not support Hypothesis 1. This study finding was most interesting given that prior studies state that the structural component of social capital is the most vital component. We discuss these findings at length in the final discussion section of this dissertation.

Hypothesis 2 stated that cognitive social would positively influence stakeholder satisfaction (DMO Success). The results show that the path between cognitive, social capital, and stakeholder satisfaction is statistically significant (t-value= 4.241, $p < 0.05$). The findings support Hypothesis 2. While this finding was not wholly unexpected, the researcher was not expecting this to be the most relevant aspect of social capital in this study. We discuss these findings at length in the final discussion section of this dissertation.

Hypothesis 3 stated that relational social would positively influence stakeholder satisfaction (DMO Success). The results show that the path between cognitive, social capital, and stakeholder satisfaction is statistically significant (t-value= 2.542, $p < 0.05$). The findings support Hypothesis 3. We discuss these findings at length in the final discussion section of this dissertation.

Hypothesis 4 stated that power symmetry would influence the relationship between relational social capital and stakeholder satisfaction (DMO Success). According to the results,

there is no significant relationship between the variables ($t\text{-value} = 0.286, p < 0.05$), providing a lack of support for hypothesis 4. The results are in line with previous studies in the IS context, providing additional proof that this proposed relationship is essential in post-adoptive behavior research. We discuss these findings at length in the final discussion section of this dissertation.

Hypothesis 5 states that power symmetry will influence the relationship between cognitive, social capital, and stakeholder satisfaction (DMO Success). The results show no significant relationship between the variables ($t\text{-value} = 0.726, p < 0.05$), providing a lack of support for hypothesis 5. We discuss these findings at length in the final discussion section of this dissertation.

Hypothesis 6 stated that power symmetry would influence the relationship between structural social capital and stakeholder satisfaction (DMO Success). According to the results, there is no significant relationship between the variables ($t\text{-value} = 0.515, p < 0.05$), providing a lack of support for hypothesis 6. We discuss these findings at length in the final discussion section of this dissertation.

Hypothesis 7 stated that trust would influence the relationship between relational social capital and stakeholder satisfaction (DMO Success). According to the results, there is no significant relationship between the variables ($t\text{-value} = 0.231, p < 0.05$), providing a lack of support for hypothesis 7. We discuss these findings at length in the final discussion section of this dissertation.

Hypothesis 8 stated that trust would influence the relationship between cognitive, social capital, and stakeholder satisfaction (DMO Success). According to the results, there is no significant relationship between the variables ($t\text{-value} = 0.524, p < 0.05$), providing a lack of support for hypothesis 8. We discuss these findings at length in the final discussion section of

this dissertation.

Hypothesis 9 stated that trust would influence the relationship between structural social capital and stakeholder satisfaction (DMO Success). According to the results, there is no significant relationship between the variables ($t\text{-value} = 0.533$, $p < 0.05$), providing a lack of support for hypothesis 9. We discuss these findings at length in the final discussion section of this dissertation.

Hypothesis 10 stated that commitment would influence the relationship between relational social capital and stakeholder satisfaction (DMO Success). According to the results, there is no significant relationship between the variables ($t\text{-value} = 0.519$, $p < 0.05$), providing a lack of support for hypothesis 10. We discuss these findings at length in the final discussion section of this dissertation.

Hypothesis 11 stated that commitment would influence the relationship between cognitive, social capital, and stakeholder satisfaction (DMO Success). According to the results, there is no significant relationship between the variables ($t\text{-value} = 0.175$, $p < 0.05$), providing a lack of support for hypothesis 11. We discuss these findings at length in the final discussion section of this dissertation.

Hypothesis 12 stated that commitment would influence the relationship between structural social capital and stakeholder satisfaction (DMO Success). According to the results, there is no significant relationship between the variables ($t\text{-value} = 0.974$, $p < 0.05$), providing a lack of support for hypothesis 11. We discuss these findings at length in the final discussion section of this dissertation.

According to the study's results, inter-organizational relationships do not impact the relationship between the aspects of social capital and stakeholder satisfaction (DMO Success).

Additional tests did conclude; however, commitment and trust directly impact stakeholder success, and we discuss those findings at length in the discussion section of the dissertation.

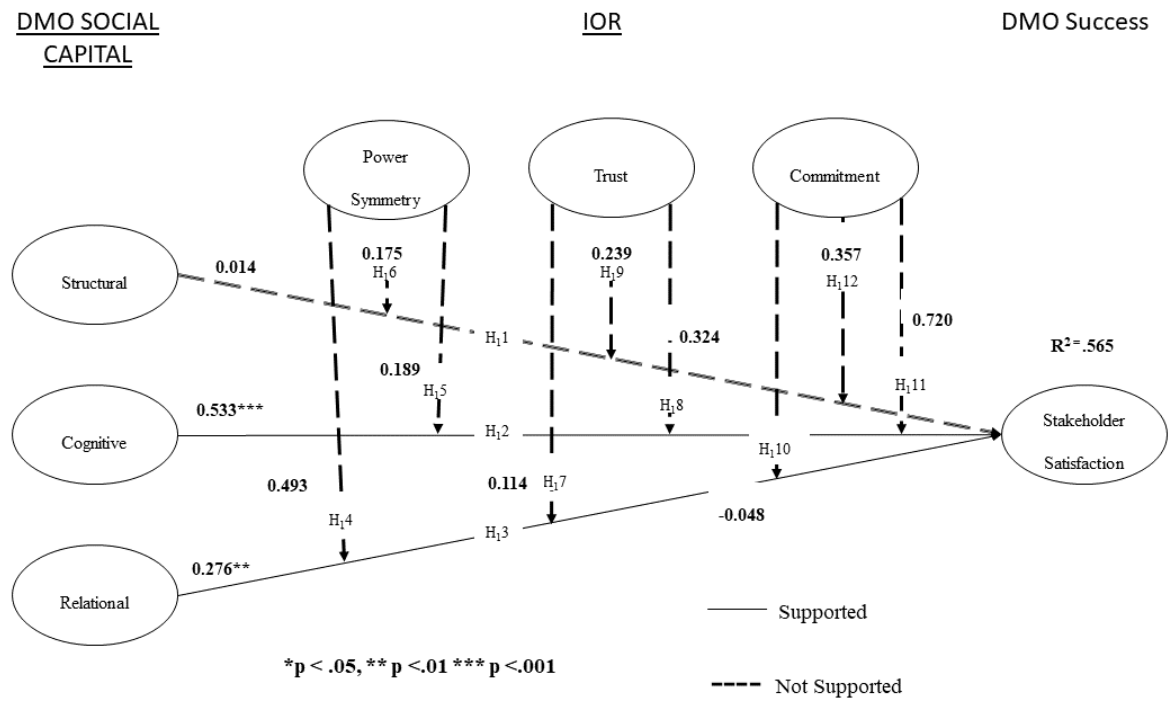


Figure 7: PLS Structural Model Results

In summary, the results show that relational social capital and cognitive social capital impact stakeholder satisfaction (DMO Success). However, structural social capital does not impact stakeholder satisfaction, which is the study's most surprising finding, so while hypothesis 1 was not supported, hypotheses 2 and 3 were both strongly supported. The study also concludes that inter-organizational relationships do not impact (moderate) the relationship between social capital and DMO Success. It was noteworthy to find however that trust (t-value= 3.925, $p < 0.05$), and commitment (t-value= 4.195, $p < 0.05$), components of interorganizational relationships did have a direct impact on stakeholder satisfaction (DMO Success). Power symmetry (t-value= 0.860, $p < 0.05$): While there is no moderating relationship, further study would be required to explore the direct relationship between these variables.

Table 14: Summary of the results of the structural model path coefficients.

Relationships	Path coefficient	t-values	Significance levels	p-values
H1: Structural Social Capital → Stakeholder Satisfaction	0.014	0.181	NS	0.857
H2: Cognitive Social Capital → Stakeholder Satisfaction	0.533	4.241	***	0.000
H3: Relational Social Capital → Stakeholder Satisfaction	0.276	2.542	**	0.011
H4: Relational Social Capital → Power Symmetry → Stakeholder Satisfaction	-0.103	0.967	NS	0.333
H5: Cognitive Social Capital → Power Symmetry → Stakeholder Satisfaction	0.023	0.302	NS	0.762
H6: Structural Social Capital → Power Symmetry → Stakeholder Satisfaction	-0.051	0.485	NS	0.628
H7: Relational Social Capital → Trust → Stakeholder Satisfaction	0.017	0.178	NS	0.858
H8: Cognitive Social Capital → Trust → Stakeholder Satisfaction	-0.008	0.101	NS	0.919
H9: Structural Social Capital → Trust → Stakeholder Satisfaction	-0.037	0.437	NS	0.662
H10: Relational Social Capital → Commitment → Stakeholder Satisfaction	-0.049	0.413	NS	0.680
H11: Cognitive Social Capital → Commitment → Stakeholder Satisfaction	-0.071	0.836	NS	0.403
H12: Structural Social Capital → Commitment → Stakeholder Satisfaction	0.061	0.750	NS	0.453

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001, NS= Not Significant

4.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the quantitative research results, including a discussion of the data screening, descriptive statistics, and measurement and structural model analysis. A total of 178 surveys were collected after data was screened and utilized for the data analysis.

Statistically significant two aspects of social capital were found, while no moderating relationships of any significance were found. Only two of the proposed hypotheses were supported. The most peculiar of the findings was the structural aspect of social capital not impacting success. At the same time, the direct relationship(s) of trust and commitment were both interesting findings related to DMO Success.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Chapter Introduction

This study aimed to understand the impact relationships with stakeholders have on the destination marketing organization. The proposed theoretical model looked to understand social capital's influence on the relationship between the DMO and its subsequent stakeholders. Social capital was conceptualized within the study in its three dimensions: structural social capital, cognitive, social capital, and relational social capital. DMO Success was measured via a multiple-item scale in the form of stakeholder satisfaction. Additionally, inter-organizational relationships in the form of power symmetry, trust, and commitment were also studied to discover what/if any impact that IOR has on the relationship between social capital and DMO success.

This chapter includes a discussion of the significant findings from this study. First, a summary of the research methods is provided, followed by a discussion of the results and major conclusions. Second, the theoretical and practical implications are discussed. Lastly, the study limitations and suggestions for future research are provided.

5.2 Summary of Study Methods

The overarching research question driving this study was: How do relationships at the network level impact the success of the DMO? From this more critical question, the researcher derived several research questions to guide this study:

R1. What role does social capital play in the success of a destination marketing organization?

R2. Are inter-organizational relationships at the network level important to the DMO and its stakeholders?

R3. To what extent (if any) does the presence of interorganizational relationship(s) affect the relationship between social capital and the DMO?

To address the above research questions, 12 hypotheses were developed after an exhaustive review of the literature and creating the conceptual model. Finally, the research model proposed the paths for the primary constructs of the study that were deemed to be the most important. This study employed a quantitative methodology to study the proposed relationships from the researcher's conceptual model. A questionnaire was developed, utilizing items from previously established scales to collect data on the constructs of importance. The online questionnaire was developed in Qualtrics and distributed to destination marketing organizations, who then distributed the survey to their stakeholders. Data were collected for three weeks during May in the year 2022, which garnered a total of 178 questionnaires that were retained for data analysis.

After data collection was finalized, the data were entered in SPSS v 24.0, which screened for missing information. Descriptive statistics and frequencies were developed, and quantitative analysis was performed to test the measurement and structural models through PLS-SEM. Data analysis to test the proposed hypotheses was performed using SmartPLS3. A two-step process was followed in which the measurement model was tested first to evaluate the reliability and validity of the construct measures. Assessing the measurement model is

necessary because it allows the researcher to empirically test the relationships between the indicators and constructs. Each dimension of social capital that was measured in this study exhibited reliability scores above $\alpha > 0.86$ and validity AVE scores above 0.66, demonstrating the unidimensional aspect within the measurement model and the strength of the measurement items. The measures and use of these scales as the measurement instrument(s) should serve as a solid foundation for future researchers investigating social capital. The measurement model revealed no issues with validity and reliability, which allowed the researcher to examine the structural model; this examines the relationships between constructs.

The hypothesis testing involved testing the potential moderating effect of inter-organizational relationships to see if there was an impact on the relationship between Social Capital and DMO Success. Although not hypothesized in this study, the mediating effect of inter-organizational relationships was also assessed in a brief post hoc analysis. The following section includes a discussion of the results.

5.3 Discussion

To conduct the analysis in SmartPLS, a bootstrapping procedure was performed using 300 iterations and 5,000 sub-samples to examine the path coefficients. The theoretical model was tested through SMART PLS-SEM. PLS-SEM is the appropriate analysis for the study because the focus is on the prediction and explanation of target constructs (Hair et al., 2014). PLS-SEM is a two-step process, with an assessment of the theoretical model conducted by examining the measurement model followed by an assessment of the structural model. Assessment of the theoretical model allows the researcher to determine how well the data fit

the previously mentioned theory and if said theory has been empirically confirmed. An analysis of the data and results showed no validity or reliability issues (Hair et al., 2014). The results of the hypothesis test showed that only two of the hypotheses were supported and statistically significant. The relationship between the Cognitive aspect of Social Capital and DMO Success was statistically significant ($\beta = 0.533$, t-value = 4.241, $p = 0.000$) indicating that respondents feel that cognitive social capital to be a determining factor in the success of the DMO as an organization. The relationship between the Relational aspect of Social Capital and DMO Success was also statistically significant ($\beta = 0.276$, t-value = 2.542, $p = 0.011$), indicating that respondents feel that relational social capital to be a determining factor in the success of the DMO as an organization. The most surprising finding of the initial hypothesis showed that the relationship between the Structural Aspect of Social Capital and DMO Success was statistically insignificant ($\beta = 0.014$, t-value = 0.181, $p = 0.857$). Regarding the moderating effect of Inter-Organizational Relationships on the relationship between Social Capital and DMO Success, hypotheses H₁₄ - H₁₂ were all statistically insignificant indicating there was no moderation present within the research model. The results show that Power Symmetry ($\beta = 0.023$, t-value = 0.302, $p = 0.762$), Trust ($\beta = -0.008$, t-value = 0.101, $p = 0.919$) and Commitment ($\beta = -0.071$, t-value = 0.836, $p = 0.403$) had no impact on the relationship between Cognitive Social Capital and DMO Success. Second, the study results show that Power Symmetry ($\beta = -0.103$, t-value = 0.967, $p = 0.333$), Trust ($\beta = -0.017$, t-value = 0.178, $p = 0.858$) and Commitment ($\beta = -0.049$, t-value = 0.413, $p = 0.680$) had no impact on the relationship between Relational Social Capital and DMO Success. Lastly, the study results show that Power Symmetry ($\beta = -0.051$, t-value = 0.485, $p = 0.628$), Trust ($\beta = -0.037$, t-value

= 0.437, $p = 0.662$). and Commitment ($\beta = 0.061$, $t\text{-value} = 0.750$, $p = 0.453$). had no impact on the relationship between Relational Social Capital and DMO Success. A higher order model was also run to confirm the lack of moderation for Inter-organizational relationships ($\beta = -0.074$, $t\text{-value} = 0.982$, $p = 0.326$, $r^2 = .569$) and the test results confirmed the lack of moderation within the model.

5.3.1 Theoretical Implications Discussion

Prior literature has suggested that the structural dimension of social capital is an essential aspect of social capital as it lays the foundation for the network linkages and exchanges upon which communications amongst members of the network take place (Granovetter, 1992; Burt, 1992; Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998). Podolny and Stuart (1995) and Ahuja (2000a) reaffirm this position in their belief that network position has a fair amount of influence on firm performance. However, the findings of this study are contrary to other studies in that respondents do not believe that the network structure is of any consequence related to the success of the destination marketing organization. The study, therefore, expands the knowledge regarding the impact of the structural aspect of social capital on organizational performance and new information regarding the impact of network structures within a tourism management context. The study's findings also support prior literature showing that social capital's relational dimension positively impacts organizational performance. Larson (1992) highlights the importance of aspects of the relational dimension such as norms of trust and reciprocity as necessary devices that enable learning among different successful types of networks. Villena et al. (2011) even go so far as to suggest that relational social capital is more critical to firm performance than cognitive or structural

social capital. Given the results of this study regarding the impact of cognitive social capital, the findings of this study refute such a claim. The study results also refute previous evidence from studies relating to the cognitive aspect of social capital being the least influential Nahaphiet, (2008). Respondents believed this dimension was the most important as related to the success of the DMO, which is in contrast to prior literature in organizational studies that speak to the lack of importance of this dimension. The study also adds to the literature surrounding the study of the cognitive aspect of social capital, which has been the least studied. Future studies should study the efficacy of the cognitive dimension more closely in tourism-related studies.

As mentioned previously, studies of the destination vs. that of the destination marketing organization are found in greater quantities within the academic literature. Ritchie et al. (2009) provide support to this belief in their study and classification of destination studies vs. studies of the actual destination marketing organization, “in this regard; we found that, based on our sample of studies, just over half of the research studies we included have examined topics that focused on the destination.” This study adds to the literature and understanding of the actual organization from three primary perspectives: 1) how destination marketing organizations have traditionally measured success as well as how they are encouraged to measure organizational success moving forward, 2) the impact that the external relationships with its stakeholders can have on the success of the organization and 3) the importance of inter-organizational relationships on the DMO. Future studies should employ methods aimed at understanding all aspects of the organization that is the DMO related to its structure and the role that a successful DMO has on the performance of the destination. The authors suggest that a successful destination marketing

organization is a prerequisite for a thriving destination in terms of increased economic development, more effective brand presence, and increased destination competitiveness.

The study also provides the literature with a multi-stakeholder market-oriented approach to destination marketing, whereby studies in the literature are more focused on broader-based visitor market-oriented studies. This study builds upon the paltry literature within a tourism context related to the use of social capital in understanding the relationships between stakeholders and destination marketing organizations. This study expands upon Line (2014), in which the author suggests that future research should consider the relationships between the DMO and its broader stakeholder networks. More stakeholder market-oriented studies may provide greater insight into the importance of goal congruences between the DMO and its stakeholders.

Additionally, the study supports Freeman's (1984, p. 46) work in stakeholder theory and the overly broad definition of the term in that a stakeholder is “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization's objectives.” In a tourism setting, many stakeholders are likely to see the benefit as a result of tourism marketing expenditure overseen by destination marketing organizations, and the use of the broad definition of stakeholder from Freeman is justified. Future studies can employ this methodology from a sample perspective, as the sample for this study was expanded to include other stakeholder groups (beyond traditional restaurants, hoteliers, venues, etc.) not previously studied in a tourism marketing context, such as agencies, vendors, OTAs, elected officials, and board members.

This study provides insight from a methodological perspective on the impact that managerial, organizational, and individual social capital has on non-probability sample methods such as purposive, snowball, and convenience samples. These methods are characterized by selecting participants based on the convenience or experience of the researcher and their ability to choose participants best suited to participate in the study. At present, there exist few studies that look into how social capital can inform sample methodology on these grounds regarding gaining access to hard-to-reach populations through non-probability sampling techniques. The methods employed in this study leveraged organizational social capital in terms of the perceived higher response level from respondents when receiving a message from the DMO to take the desired action. Additionally, the managerial social capital related to the survey distribution via CEO, VP, and Executive director employed within the CVB and the higher response rate from familiar entities at the CEO such as those at the c-suite level. Lastly, the individual social capital of the researcher to locate willing leadership and organizations to assist with the distribution of the survey instrument were also of note in reaching this difficult-to-reach population.

The study results provide clarification and inform the literature as to the nature of the relationship between social capital, inter-organizational relationships and DMO success in that the relationship between social capital and DMO success is more than likely to be that of a mediated relationship regarding IOR in that it sits between and is a necessary component of the relationship of the independent and dependent variables which is supported by prior literature (Nahphiet, 2008).

Lastly, validating the scales utilized within the study provides a foundational layer for researchers regarding the future study of the DMO success construct. Focus on success metrics

more closely related to that of the not-for-profit literature, which focuses less on financial indicators of success and more on metrics that demonstrate the value of the DMO to its stakeholders and shared mission. Future studies should inform the literature more from this perspective and add dimensions to the DMO success component combined with stakeholder success in the form of mission accomplishment, resource efficiency, and resource acquisition. Studies related to DMOs and financial metrics are better suited for the study of the success of the destination and not so much on the actual destination marketing organization, given its structure and status as a not-for-profit. ADR, RevPAR, Occupancy, and overall metrics related to visitor expenditure relate more closely to the measurement of the success of the destination.

5.3.2 Implications for Managers Discussion

There are several implications for managers as a result of this study. Of utmost importance is the concept of destination alliance. The 2021 Destinations Future Study commissioned (Destinations International, 2021, p. 27) states that “Destinations of all sizes are more competitive in the global visitor economy when government, community and industry priorities are aligned as much as possible. A whole-of-destination approach, where the public, private and civic sectors are all speaking to each other, creates stronger communities that elevate the visitor experience, support sustainable and economic development across all sectors, and improve the quality of life for residents.” This was evident during the recent Covid-19 crisis, where many destinations worldwide were caught off-guard by the disaster to the tune of furloughs, layoffs and cost-cutting measures due to the lack of travel and its impact on bed tax revenues and tourism expenditure in general. With fewer resources at their disposal, the

importance of social capital and inter-organizational relationship exchanges were of paramount importance. Existing structures and networks allow the DMO to distribute messages to its stakeholders regarding recovery strategies. The relational trust and high levels of commitment between the organizations in times of need provide for quick action and communication regarding the necessary marketing messages, an understanding of shared language, and a cohesive destination brand message that would need to be distributed by the DMO in the form of advertising. In and out of crisis/disaster situations, Destination Marketing Organization managers are encouraged to leverage all three forms of social capital when seeking alignment once working with government, community and industry. From a structural perspective, ensuring that networks and mechanisms are in place upon which information can be exchanged amongst people and business units. From the cognitive perspective, the communications amongst members of these networks should grow over time to the extent that shared languages and codes exist that are unique to those within the destination. From a relational aspect, the trust and norms of reciprocity amongst the network members must be apparent so that costs of transactions are minimal, and the network can create greater efficiencies that produce positive organizational and network outcomes. Similarly, using social capital can facilitate the creation and growth of inter-organizational relationship exchanges (trust, commitment, and power symmetry) amongst industry, communities and governments, which may lead to positive outcomes for both the destination and the organization.

The study results also show that the unified destination brand message is essential to stakeholders through the cognitive, social capital lens. As previously mentioned, cognitive social capital can be essential in creating a unified brand message (shared language, coding) throughout

the destination. Respondents felt this was a determining factor in the organization's success. The creation and sustainment of cognitive capital can create intellectual capital across the network, which has also shown in prior studies by Nahphiet and Ghoshal (1998) to assist in the positive performance outcomes of organizations. Managers of destination marketing organizations would be well advised to either implement programming that reinforces this finding for its stakeholders or, where lacking, create programs that reinforce larger-scale destination branding initiatives, such as training and certification programs for front-line employees of stakeholders. Programs such as this were extremely valuable during the recent Covid-19 recovery stage for many destinations, as various destinations were charged with putting out cohesive messaging to potential travelers regarding the safety of traveling to specific destinations.

Additionally, the relational aspect of social capital indicates that when strong relationships exist between the destination marketing organization and its stakeholders, respondents believe this can contribute to successful outcomes for the DMO. This is supported by Ritchie et al. (2009), who, in their study, noted several responses emphasizing the importance of relationship management by the DMO. Suppose DMO leadership fails to manage relationships within the destination effectively? In this case, resources (specifically funding) from both the private and public sectors may become strained and bring the existence of the organization and its mission into question. The buy-in and resources from these DMO's stakeholders, in the form of the support of marketing or similar services, may be nullified, and the DMO fails to exist. Managers and leaders should additionally monitor the relationships with stakeholders to ensure that levels of trust and reciprocity remain acceptable to prevent stakeholders from resorting to their prior individualistic actions that may create strategic

incongruencies with the DMO and harm both opportunities for success for the destination as well as the organization.

5.4 Conclusions

The study's findings reveal four significant conclusions regarding the impact of Social Capital on DMO Success. The first significant finding was that, according to the study results, respondents do not believe the structural dimension of social capital to be influential in the success of the DMO. This finding is curious in that the structural aspect of social capital has been considered by many in organizational and network research to be an essential component (Turner, 2011). Respondents expressed that the makeup and structure of the network in terms of the linkages between organizations and their ability to exchange and disseminate information across a network were of little consequence in the determination of the success of the DMO as an organization (Granovetter, 1992). One conclusion regarding these results could suggest that respondents are unaware of a specific structure or that the network exists in terms of the mechanisms that facilitate communication and exchange across the network. An additional consideration would be that the sample for the study was derived from all levels of stakeholders for the DMO, from executives down to the coordinator level. The less senior members of the network may not be as aware of the network as senior members who operate within the network at a different level than their manager and coordinator counterparts.

The second significant finding of the study was that cognitive social capital, which has traditionally been the least explored and least popular of the dimensions of social capital, was positive and highly significant. Respondents believed that communities develop unique social

and cognitive personalities that guide views of their environment and influence their interactions with each other. Network members' unique social and cognitive personalities will lead to greater positive organizational outcomes (Nahapiet and Goshal, 1998). The cognitive aspect of social capital, demonstrated by communities of knowledge and communities of practice, can provide great insight into the ease or difficulty of communications between specialist and user groups, such as systems users and designers (Boland and Tenkasi 1995). Study participants believe that a shared understanding through shared language and codes was a highly influential factor in DMO success. This finding suggests that the stakeholders believe that the DMO is likely to be more successful if there exists a common, shared understanding of how the destination is to be promoted and that shared understanding can lead to congruence in terms of the brand message that is to be sold by the DMO and executed by the stakeholder base. Failure to do so may have unintended negative consequences.

The third major finding of the study revealed that respondents believed that relationships and inherent trust developed over time are crucial to a successful DMO. Respondents believe that where relationships are high in trust, people and organizations that are part of a network are more likely to engage in exchange, and cooperative actions, in general, which prior studies have shown can lead to positive organizational outcomes (Fukuyama, 1996; Gambetta, 1998; Putnam, 1993; Ring & Van De Ven, 1992; Tyler & Kramer, 1996). Borgatti and Foster (2003) suggest that the relational aspect of social capital reflects a connectionist perspective instead of a structural one in that trust, norms, obligations, expectations, and identification are the connective tissue that keeps networks tightly knit more so than traditional structural based networks. This results in stronger collaborations and ties and suggests laying a proper foundation for fluid

transactions and exchanges amongst network members (Coleman, 1998). For study respondents, this aspect of social capital scoring higher than the structural is telling in those stakeholders of the DMO are more focused on the relationships and day-to-day exchanges with the DMO that are built upon foundational levels of trust and norms of reciprocity, less so on formal structural mechanisms.

The final finding of the study showed that there was no support for inter-organizational relationships as a moderator as IOR did not significantly influence the relationship in terms of strength or direction between Social Capital and DMO Success. This finding was not surprising given that prior literature from Nahapiet (2008) suggests a more direct causal relationship between social capital and inter-organizational relationships and their potential impact on performance-related outcomes. Nahapiet even goes so far as to suggest that social capital can assist in forming inter-organizational relationships.

Given the lack of support for the hypothesis related to the moderating variables for inter-organizational relationships, the researcher did conduct additional analysis to confirm the existence of a mediated relationship. The results of the tests indicated that the mediated paths of inter-organizational relationships ($\beta = 0.386$, $t\text{-value} = 3.404$, $p < 0.000$, $r^2 = .565$; $\beta = 0.774$, $t\text{-value} = 14.266$, $p < 0.000$, $r^2 = .599$) between Social Capital and DMO Success were confirmed indicating the presence of mediation. This finding tells us that the effect of social capital on DMO Success operates through inter-organizational relationships. This finding is not surprising given that prior literature has suggested the existence of causal relationship(s) between that of social capital and inter-organizational relationships as well as the relationship between inter-organizational relationships on organizational performance, or as conceptualized in this study,

DMO Success (Nahaphiet, 2008; Li, 2005). In further support of the finds regarding the presence of mediation, early literature regarding organizational studies suggests that interorganizational relationships can be better understood by applying insights from sociological theory such as social capital (Bachmann and Van Witteloostuijn 2003) and that these theoretical perspectives may aid in the creation of inter-organizational relationships. Additionally, trust, through the relational aspect of social capital, has the potential to positively influence the shaping of interaction patterns between organizations by motivating them to contribute and combine resources (McEvily, Perrone, and Zaheer 2003). The combination and collaboration of resources by the DMO and its members are one of the primary components of both a successful DMO as well as a successful destination. Similarly, the trust dimension of inter-organizational relationships, is conceptualized as an organizing principle whereby stakeholders organize and coordinate their activities and the trust layer impacts organizational performance (Li, 2005).

5.5 Limitations & Future Research

All empirical studies have limitations, and this study is no different from others. This section will include but is not limited to several limitations. The defined population of stakeholders of destination marketing organizations can be a complex group to reach; therefore, the researcher chose to leverage a sampling technique that relied upon the researcher's prior knowledge of the subject area of specific types of participants that would need to be chosen for a study of this type.

A non-probability sampling technique (purposive sampling) was used to collect data, which does not allow for the random selection of participants; therefore, caution may be used

when generalizing the study results. Data collection was limited to participants in the United States, and the sample did not include stakeholders of DMOs from outer territories, commonwealths, Canada, or similar international populations, so generalization of the results for other countries should be taken with caution. The study also utilized cross-sectional data, and this method does not allow for the respondents over a period of time. The data were collected for three weeks, and the maximization of the number of respondents in numbers may have been inhibited.

Additionally, this study utilized previously adapted scales from prior studies that may or may not have truly captured the depth of responses. Future studies may require a more qualitative-focused approach to understand the results in-depth, specifically regarding the hypotheses that were not supported. The study also focused on stakeholders within a tourism/hospitality context. It did not consider other stakeholders, such as non-tourism-based and those living and working in the community (residents), who also have a stake in whether or not the destination marketing organization is successful in its efforts. The researcher also acknowledges that several aspects make up a successful DMO, and the study acknowledges only one dimension of said construct. Other dimensions such as mission accomplishment, the efficiency of use of resources and resource acquisition, etc., were additional areas considered for the dependent variable. Future studies should look to further develop a more comprehensive metric for DMO success with a more qualitative-focused approach.

While the present study does not expand on the topic, future research should also look to understand the topic of social capital and its relationship to the resourced-based view, as social capital acts both as a resource and can assist with the acquisition and measurement of the

efficient use of resources. Understanding the extent to which social capital does the above can provide insight into the ability of social capital to become a strategic competitive advantage. Competitive advantages such as this can set the destination apart from its competitive set and may impact organizational performance.

5.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter summarized the study methods and discussed the findings and major conclusions. In addition, the theoretical and practical implications were examined to identify the significance of the findings to destination marketing research in the tourism field. The theoretical implications include a more robust understanding of social capital, inter-organizational relationships, and organizational success in studying destination marketing organizations. The practical implications allowed managers to take the study findings and include them in the day-to-day management of destination marketing organizations. Management should focus on strengthening relationships with stakeholders and solidifying unifying brand messages to increase the likelihood of organizational success.

When implementing strategy across the organization for how they would be successful, destination marketing organizations would be well advised to focus more on successful relationships with stakeholders and take a stakeholder market-oriented approach to ensure higher levels of organizational success.

APPENDIX A
SAMPLE SURVEY

Consent Form Block

Dear Participant,

You are being invited to take part in a research study. The study is being conducted by a UCF Rosen College of Hospitality Management Faculty member (aka principal investigator). Your participation in this study is voluntary.

The purpose of this study is to investigate and understand how relationships between stakeholders and Convention & Visitor Bureaus (CVB) affect organizational success. **We are looking to survey stakeholders of destination marketing organizations within the United States. You must be 18 years of age or older and employed by a stakeholder/member (vendor, hotel, restaurant, etc. of the local CVB to participate in this study).** The survey should take about 8 minutes to complete.

The survey will not ask you for any identifiable information and only the principal investigator will have access to the survey data. The data will be kept by the principal investigator for a minimum of 5 years after study closure per Florida law on a University of Central Florida network Microsoft OneDrive. Please submit your response no later than 5/30/2022.

For questions about the study or to report a problem: If you have questions, concerns, or complaints, please contact Jeremy Fairley, (Assistant Professor, Rosen College of Hospitality & Tourism Management, University of Central Florida, (407) 903-8000 or Jeremy.Fairley@ucf.edu); or Kevin Murphy, (Assistant Professor, Faculty Supervisor, Rosen College of Hospitality & Tourism Management at (407) 903-8035 or by email at Kevin.Murphy@ucf.edu.

Your rights in this study or to report a complaint: If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, or have concerns about the conduct of this study, please contact Institutional Review Board (IRB), University of Central Florida, Office of Research, 12201 Research Fwy, Orlando, FL 32826-3246 or by telephone at (407) 823-2901, or email irb@ucf.edu.

I agree to participate in this survey

Survey Question Block

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

- Note:
 - CVB (Convention & Visitors Bureau) = A convention and visitor bureau (CVB) is a local tourism marketing organization that specializes in developing convention, meeting and group business as well as leisure travel for a city, county, state, or region.
 - Firm = The company or organization that you represent.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree
My firm knows who to contact at the CVB to get things accomplished.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My firm knows how to reach the right people at the CVB.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My firm works at making sure we know who to contact at the CVB when problems arise.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My firm has clearly identified people to contact at the CVB.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

- Note:
 - CVB (Convention & Visitors Bureau) = A convention and visitor bureau (CVB) is a local tourism marketing organization that specializes in developing convention, meeting and group business as well as leisure travel for a city, county, state, or region.

- Firm = The company or organization that you represent.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree
The relationship with the CVB is characterized by close, personal interaction.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The relationship with the CVB is characterized by a history of respect.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The relationship with the CVB is characterized by a history of trust.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My firm values our relationships with the CVB.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

- Note:
 - CVB (Convention & Visitors Bureau) = A convention and visitor bureau (CVB) is a local tourism marketing organization that specializes in developing convention, meeting and group business as well as leisure t or region.
 - Firm = The company or organization that you represent.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree
My firm and the CVB share similar business values.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My firm and the CVB often agree on what is in the best interest of our mutual relationship.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Attention check question: Please select Strongly Disagree.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My firm and the CVB share similar goals for the business of tourism.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My firm and with the CVB agree on how we should do business together.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

- Note:
 - CVB (Convention & Visitors Bureau) = A convention and visitor bureau (CVB) is a local tourism marketing organization that specializes in developing convention, meeting and group business as well as leisure t or region.
 - Firm = The company or organization that you represent.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree
My firm believes that the CVB takes our interests into account when making important decisions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My firm believes that the CVB would not disclose our trade secrets.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My firm believes that the CVB would abide by any and all agreements made with one another.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My firm believes that the CVB would abide by any and all commitments made with one another.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

- Note:
 - CVB (Convention & Visitors Bureau) = A convention and visitor bureau (CVB) is a local tourism marketing organization that specializes in developing convention, meeting and group business as well as leisure t or region.
 - Firm = The company or organization that you represent.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree
My firm encourages and assists the CVB in the marketing of the destination.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My firm's shared interests with the CVB are fair and reasonable.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree
My firm has equal negotiation power with the CVB regarding decisions about marketing the destination.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

- Note:
 - CVB (Convention & Visitors Bureau) = A convention and visitor bureau (CVB) is a local tourism marketing organization that specializes in developing convention, meeting and group business as well as leisure travel or region.
 - Firm = The company or organization that you represent.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree
My firm is unlikely to break off our relationships with the CVB in the future.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My firm is willing to work together with the CVB to maintain a long-term relationship.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Attention check question: Please select Strongly Disagree.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My firm chose to work with the CVB because they comply with relevant laws, regulations, and standards.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

- Note:
 - CVB (Convention & Visitors Bureau) = A convention and visitor bureau (CVB) is a local tourism marketing organization that specializes in developing convention, meeting and group business as well as leisure travel or region.
 - Firm = The company or organization that you represent.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree
The CVB has an effective system in place to obtain information about local MICE (Meetings, Incentives, Conferences, Exhibitions) industry related firm.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The CVB has a comprehensive system to manage and communicate with the local stakeholders.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A large proportion of my firm's overall business generated through the CVB during the past year was high.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The CVB successfully brings business into the destination in the form of MICE (Meetings, Incentives, Conferences, Exhibitions) industry.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My firm's overall business generated through the CVB during the past year was average.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The CVB contributed to the profitability of my firm during the past year.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
During the past year, the CVB efficiently contributed to the success of the destination.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

- Note:
 - CVB (Convention & Visitors Bureau) = A convention and visitor bureau (CVB) is a local tourism marketing organization that specializes in developing convention, meeting and group business as well as leisure travel or region.
 - Firm = The company or organization that you represent.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree
The Covid-19 pandemic has had no impact on our business relationship with the CVB.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The CVB regularly communicated with our organization during the Covid-19 pandemic.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

The CVB implemented key marketing strategies/programming for recovery from the Covid-19 pandemic.
My firm's business relationship with the CVB continues to be positive despite the impact of the pandemic.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Block 3

Please describe what constitutes a successful CVB in your opinion?

Demographic Questions Block

Please indicate your age:

- Under 18
- 18-24 years old
- 25-34 years old
- 35-44 years old
- 45-54 years old
- 55-64 years old
- 65+ years old
- Prefer not to answer

Please indicate your gender:

- Male
- Female
- Other

Prefer not to answer

What is the highest level of school you have completed or the highest degree you have received?

- Less Than High School
- High School Graduate (high school diploma or equivalent including GED)
- Some College but no Degree
- Associates Degree in College (2 year)
- Bachelor's Degree in College (4-year)
- Master's Degree
- Doctor or Professional degree (PhD, JD, MD)
- Prefer not to answer

How long have you worked directly with the CVB?

- 0 to 5 years
- 5 to 10 years
- More than 10 years
- Prefer not to answer

How long have you worked at your current firm/organization?

- 0 to 5 years
- 5 to 10 years
- More than 10 years
- Prefer not to answer

Choose the answer that best describes the tourism/hospitality sector in which you work?

- Agency (Digital, Traditional)
- Amusement/Theme Park/Attraction
- Arts/Culture/Museum
- Board/Committee Member
- College/University
- Convention Center/Meeting Facility
- Destination Management Company
- Government/Elected Official
- Hotel/Lodging/Accommodations
- Meeting/Event Planner
- Meetings Services
- Online Travel Agency (OTA)
- Shopping/Retail
- Transportation
- Travel Agent/Agency
- Vendor (Digital, Traditional)
- Prefer not to answer
- Other (Please Type)

What is your job title within your firm/organization? (Please type)

Please specify your ethnicity.

- White or Cacaasian
- American Indian/Native American or Alaska Native
- Hispanic or Latino

Asian

Black or African American

Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander

Other

Prefer not to answer

In which state do you currently reside?

Comments/suggestions about the study:

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APPENDIX B
IRB APPROVAL LETTER



UNIVERSITY OF CENTRAL FLORIDA

Institutional Review Board

FWA00000351
IRB00001138, IRB00012110
Office of Research
12201 Research Parkway
Orlando, FL 32826-3246

EXEMPTION DETERMINATION

April 6, 2022

Dear Jeremy Fairley:

On 4/6/2022, the IRB determined the following submission to be human subjects research that is exempt from regulation:

Type of Review:	Initial Study, Initial Study
Title:	The Impact of Social Capital on Destination Marketing Organization Success and Interorganizational Relationships
Investigator:	Jeremy Fairley
IRB ID:	STUDY00003934
Funding:	None
Grant ID:	None
Documents Reviewed:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • HRP-251- FORM, Category: Faculty Research Approval; • Form 254 Explanation of Research, Category: Consent Form; • Form 255 Request for Exemption, Category: IRB Protocol; • Recruitment Letter, Category: Recruitment Materials; • Survey Draft Questionnaire, Category: Survey / Questionnaire

This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made, and there are questions about whether these changes affect the exempt status of the human research, please submit a modification request to the IRB. Guidance on submitting Modifications and Administrative Check-in are detailed in the Investigator Manual (HRP-103), which can be found by navigating to the IRB Library within the IRB system. When you have completed your research, please submit a Study Closure request so that IRB records will be accurate.

If you have any questions, please contact the UCF IRB at 407-823-2901 or irb@ucf.edu. Please include your project title and IRB number in all correspondence with this office.

Sincerely,

Gillian Bernal
Designated Reviewer

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