1 Introduction

2

3 DMOs currently face remarkable challenges in local, regional, national and international contexts (Pearce & Schänzel, 2013). DMOs were originally defined as 4 5 organisations closely associated with the promotion of destination amenities (Pike, 2007). However, in light of recent developments, it may be more appropriate to 6 7 define DMOs as management-focused organisations (Harrill, 2009) assuming greater resource management and leadership roles in destinations (Volgger & 8 9 Pechlaner, 2014). English destinations and DMOs were once heavily dependent on 10 the public purse, mainly through regional government support (Fyall, Fletcher, & 11 Spyriadis, 2009). The 2011 UK Government Tourism Policy proposed replacing existing tourism management and support structures on a regional level, namely 12 Regional Tourist Boards (RTBs) and Regional Development Agencies (RDAs), in 13 14 favour of more locally-positioned DMOs and Local Enterprise Partnerships (LEPs) (Kennell & Chaperon, 2013). These reshaped DMOs are expected to have sole 15 responsibility for ensuring long-term financial sustainability of their organisations 16 17 whilst also exercising strategic destination decision-making (Coles, Dinan, & 18 Hutchison, 2012).

19

20 Increasingly, DMOs are attempting to accomplish these tasks as part of a network involving businesses, government and civil society (Beritelli, Bieger, & Laesser, 21 22 2007). By linking these differing organizations, DMOs seek to establish a network 23 identity (Huemer, Becerra, & Lunnan, 2004), in which members adopt roles that 24 include responsibility for sharing information and encouraging collective action. The 25 resulting inter-organizational knowledge interactions (Hristov & Ramkissoon, 2016) can support development and implementation of collective activities that help 26 achieve an intended outcome of financial sustainability (Beritelli, Buffa, & Martini, 27 28 2015).

29

Tourism network literature has grown rapidly over the past decade (Williams, Inversini, Ferdinand, & Buhalis, 2017) and is increasingly applied to examine DMOs and destinations (Reinhold, Laesser, & Beritelli, 2015). Existing work, however, tends to use networks as a metaphor for understanding organisations and

organisational behaviour (Merinero-Rodríguez & Pulido-Fernández, 2016), including 1 2 relational dynamics (Tran, Jeeva, & Pourabedin, 2016). These studies were able to 3 identify individuals and organizations that may be influential, but were not able to 4 determine the extent of this influence. Whilst an emerging stream of tourism 5 research has begun to employ inferential techniques, such as the Quadratic Assignment Procedure (Liu, Huang, & Fu, 2017), most Social Network Analysis 6 7 (SNA) research relies on descriptions of networks to explain relationships among 8 entities (Shumate & Palazzolo, 2010). However, these approaches do not enable 9 researchers to determine if patterns identified in networks could have occurred by chance (Hunter & Handcock, 2006). Researchers have raised concerns when 10 attempting to infer network characteristics from descriptive metrics; for example, 11 clustering coefficient values, which indicate that entities or actors are important in 12 networks, can be observed in randomly created networks (Newman, Strogatz, & 13 Watts, 2001). This suggests these metrics will require additional qualitative or 14 15 quantitative data about network actors or characteristics in order to support robust research. 16

17

The aim of this paper is to examine the emergent network identity in a DMO network by identifying relational and node property influences on the structure of a communications network in a DMO. Using data collected from the Destination Milton Keynes initiative, the communication network of a DMO was modelled using an Exponential Random Graph approach. These models identified the extent to which node (organizational characteristics) and structure influence the distribution of communication ties in the network.

25

26 Literature Review

27 Network theory (Granovetter, 1973) and the analytical approach of SNA can be used to examine the arrangement of relationships between interacting entities, 28 29 such as individuals, groups and organisations (Wang & Xiang, 2007). In the tourism 30 and management domain, this perspective advocates that organisations no longer 31 act solely as individual entities but through relational networks where value is 32 created by initiating and nurturing collaboration (Fyall et al. 2009). SNA examines 33 structural and relational properties of networks, such as density (Table 1), to identify 34 patterns that can be used to explain social behaviour (Prell, 2012). SNA literature in

business and management (Borgatti & Foster, 2003) seeks to demonstrate how the
concept is able to visualise otherwise invisible social networks. Once depicted,
invisible social networks, such as communication structures, may be leveraged for
visible results in organisations (Conway, 2014).

5

However, to date, little research has been undertaken to examine communication
among destination organizations, particularly through the lens of SNA (Asero,
Gozzo, & Tomaselli, 2016). SNA has often been perceived as a network tool that
produces largely descriptive data without providing deeper insights (Prell 2012).
Within this context, scholars have argued that social network studies often overemphasise the quantity of network relationships and interactions rather than their
quality (Conway 2014).

13

14 Table 1: SNA Terms

Term	Description
Node	Entity in a network which can be human or non-human actors
Edge	A tie from one node to another which can be an interaction, relationship or shared property
Attribute	Node characteristic which is independent of ties to other nodes
Communication network	Network where ties are communications between entities
Degree centrality	Number of ties nodes have with other nodes in the network.
Density	The ratio of actual ties in the network to potential ties
Authority	This metric is an indicator of the extent to which information from the node is valued by other nodes in the actor
Closeness	This metric is an indicator of the relative distance information
centrality	from a given node will have to travel to reach others in the network
Betweeness	This metric identifies the extent to which a given node is a
centrality	member of the path information has to travel from one part in the network to another.
Transitivity	The tendency for a given node to be connected by edges if it shares a mutual partner
Exponential random graph model (ERGM)	A group of approaches to perform inferential statistical analysis of networks

1 Adapted from Krivitsky (2012)

2 3

Network Theory and SNA Adopted in DMO Research

DMOs often represent a number of key destination management and 4 5 leadership-interested actors in their respective destinations (Ness, Aarstad, Haugland, & Grønseth, 2014). Extant SNA literature in the DMO domain has focused 6 largely on how inter-organizational linkages can influence governance of these 7 including related domains, such as knowledge management, policy 8 institutions 9 formulation and cooperation (Czernek, 2013). Network theory has been used to 10 examine DMOs as complex systems (Pforr, 2006). Studies have examined network collaboration and knowledge-sharing practices in public, private (Longiit & Pearce, 11 2013)or mixed network clusters (Del Chiappa & Presenza, 2013) within specific 12 13 geographic boundaries (Baggio & Cooper 2008).

14

15 For DMOs, the shift from marketing to management implies the need to engage with 16 a network of stakeholders for an expanded range of activities. The extent to which 17 the DMO can influence network interactions, such as communication between 18 members, has not yet been identified (van der Zee & Vanneste, 2015). Researchers have determined previously that organizations can establish a collaborative "network" 19 20 identity" in which members are viewed by their relational roles and positions (Huemer et al., 2004). This emergent, jointly-held perception can indicate the ability 21 to contribute (Anderson, Håkansson, & Johanson, 1994), forming the basis for 22 interaction within the network and the benefits derived from membership (Astley & 23 24 Zammuto, 1992). Whilst individual organizations may adopt particular roles, the focal or initiating organization has an opportunity to shape overall interactions and, hence, 25 26 the nature of the collective network identity (Ellis, Rod, Beal, & Lindsay, 2012). The network identity framed by this organization helps define the nature and volume of 27 28 activities with which members are involved (Gadde, Huemer, & Håkansson, 2003).

To date, network identity has been explored by inductive examination of member discussions, most notably by the International Marketing and Purchasing group (Morlacchi, Wilkinson, & Young, 2005). Research has examined the influence of network identity on interactions in supplier, project and creative inter-organizational networks. Research has not yet examined the structure of relationships in these networks which may provide insight into the nature of and extent to which network
 identity can influence interactions such as communications between organizations.

Research has explored the influence of relational properties on communication 3 4 processes in the DMO network of bodies involved in strategic destination decision-5 making (Baggio, 2017). Network structure influences the rate or efficiency of communication and knowledge-sharing in destination networks (Argote & Ingram, 6 2000). High density networks can provide a large number of potential contacts to 7 members, supporting rapid knowledge diffusion (Gloor, Kidane, Grippa, Marmier, & 8 9 Von Arb, 2008). They can help in adaptation to a changing environment through 10 efficient information exchange of practices, techniques and market requirements among members. Network structure can also influence the pattern of diffusion of 11 12 knowledge, enabling innovation by exposing actors to differing perspectives (Chen & Hicks, 2004). Previous research on the destination of Elba suggests that DMO 13 14 communication networks are sparse with low levels of local collaboration and 15 cooperation (Baggio & Cooper, 2010). Since communication can underpin activities, 16 such as resource sharing and activity coordination in a DMO network, there is a need to understand the patterns of communication between members. An 17 18 examination of these interactions using SNA can provide an opportunity to 19 understand the nature and extent of identity in DMO networks.

20 Inferential Network Analysis with Exponential Random Graph Models (ERGM)

21

Statistical approaches to SNA in the form of Exponential Random Graph Models 22 23 (ERGM) (Wasserman & Pattison, 1996) have been developed to enable prediction of relationship patterns (van Duijn & Huisman, 2011). ERGM linkages or ties between 24 entities, along with entity attributes, are used to predict network characteristics 25 (Krivitsky, 2012). ERGMs take the perspective that relationship creation among 26 27 actors in a network is a temporal process. The goal of ERGM analysis is to identify a 28 specific model of relationships among a set of actors similar to the observed network 29 resulting from this temporal process (Broekel, Balland, Burger, & van Oort, 2014). The approach is model-based rather than sample-based and inferences based on 30 the analysis relate to the observed network only. Calculations are performed using 31 Markov Chain Monte Carlo Maximum Likelihood Estimation, which requires 32

creation of a distribution of random graphs from an initial set of network parameter
 values. These are then evaluated by comparison with the observed or real world
 graph in an interactive manner until the model converges; that is, the parameters
 stabilize.

5

ERGMs have particular strengths in determining how a real world network varies 6 7 from a random graph (Rivera, Soderstrom, & Uzzi, 2010). In real world networks, 8 actors or entities will not have the same ability to form ties. These networks may 9 exhibit homphily, which is the tendency of entities with similar attributes to form ties preferentially with each other (Cross, Laseter, Parker, & Velasquez, 2006). This 10 property suggests that differences among actors will result in clusters or subgroups 11 within networks. Communication in networks across different subgroups based on 12 actor types can be slower as there are fewer connections among them. 13

14

Early studies have identified homophily in social groups by utilising demographic 15 characteristics, such as age, background and gender (Loomis, 1946), using 16 17 qualitative techniques. Later work adopted quantitative research to analyse networks 18 in social institutions, such as schools (Shrum, Cheek & Hunter, 1988) which enabled examination of multiple dimensions of homophily at the same time. Subsequent in 19 20 this area has identified the influence of homophily on organizational development and innovation (Aldrich, Reese, & Dubini, 1989). Current research in this area 21 22 attempts to identify homophily by similarities in network position (Mitteness, DeJordy, Ahuja, & Sudek, 2016). This body of research proposes that actors with shared 23 24 characteristics, such as beliefs or behaviours, are more likely to interact with each 25 other and occupy similar network positions (Kwon, Stefanone, & Barnett, 2014). 26 Researchers have found organizations exhibit homophily by geography, industry and 27 capabilities (Cowan, 2005). At the organizational level, this property has been used to explain why firms with similar network positions are also more likely to engage in 28 joint activities, such as alliances (Brass, Galaskiewicz, Greve, & Tsai, 2004). Entities 29 not sharing these characteristics are "peripheral" and possess no influence 30 31 (Boschma, 2005).

32

Real world networks may also exhibit higher levels of transitivity than random networks (Louch, 2000). This tendency of nodes to cluster in these networks has

been found to be greater than expected when compared to a random network with a 1 2 similar degree distribution (Newman & Park, 2003). To capture these properties, 3 Hunter and Handcock (2006) proposed geometrically-weighted, edgewise, shared 4 partnerships (GWESP), which capture transitivity characteristics in real world 5 networks, such as clusters of nodes more highly connected to each other than the rest of the network. This measure assumes two actors share a partner if both have 6 7 edges connecting with the same partner. These shared partners form a triangle if the original two actors are connected to each other. The shared partner count is 8 9 measured by each edge in the network and the resulting distribution is used to 10 estimate transitivity in the network.

11

Interpreting the statistics of ERGMs is similar to binary logistics regression. Network linkages or ties are the outcome to be predicted and network structures help to explain the probability of these linkages (Hunter, Goodreau, & Handcock, 2008). ERGMs have been used in domains, such as politics, to examine alliances or conflicts (Cranmer, Desmarais, & Kirkland, 2012). However, little effort has been made thus far to apply these approaches to examine tourism-related phenomena, such as communication in destination networks.

19

20 **Research Propositions**

Communication and interconnections between tourism stakeholders is a 21 22 frequently examined phenomenon. Previous researches have analysed the linkages between websites of destination stakeholders, along with connections 23 between actors (Baggio, Scott, & Cooper, 2010). However, whilst empirical 24 research in other domains has examined how real world networks differ from 25 26 random networks (Shumate & Palazzolo, 2010), tourism research has not yet confirmed that connections in observed networks could not have arisen by chance. 27 28 Verification that networks are not random can support inferences made by 29 examination of network metrics, such as centrality. The first research proposition is 30 therefore:

31

Proposition 1: Communication relationships in a DMO network did not arise in arandom fashion.

1

Network structures have been found to influence the nature of collaboration and therefore the effectiveness of DMO networks (van der Zee & Vanneste, 2015). Research in economic geography has indicated that homophily, or the tendency to form connections preferentially, can be observed in members of a policy group (Hazir & Autant-Bernard, 2014). If a network identity was established, members of the DMK initiative should communicate preferentially with each other. Proposition 2 is therefore:

9

10

11

Past research has indicated that members of networks have exhibited homophily through shared attributes, such as age, race and gender (van Duijn & Huisman, 2011). However, it is not yet known if the same effect could be observed in tourism organizations operating in the same industry. Proposition 3 is therefore:

Proposition 2: Members exhibit homophily by membership in the DMK initiative.

16

17 Proposition 3: Members of the DMK network exhibit homophily by industry

18

19 Research Setting: The DMK Network of DMO Member Organisations

20 Destination Milton Keynes (DMK) was established in 2006 by 13 founding organisations representing local authorities, businesses, sustainability trusts and 21 22 community organisations acting as the official provider of tourist information services 23 for Milton Keynes; thus, exercising marketing functions predominantly (Hristov & 24 Zehrer, 2015). As the political and economic context changed (Coles, Dinan, & 25 Hutchison, 2014), DMK was expected to take on board a wider array of 26 responsibilities. Currently, DMK functions as an independent, not-for-profit company 27 and its funding structure includes a mixture of membership fees, grants from Milton Keynes Council and commissions from its members (Hristov & Zehrer, 2015). DMK 28 29 is an official DMO network of key destination businesses, the council and other public bodies, along with a diverse mix of not-for-profit and community organisations. 30 31 Having clear geographic boundaries, the DMK network covers 70 member 32 organisations located in central Milton Keynes and the surrounding market (Hristov 33 & Zehrer, 2015). Among the core objectives of DMK are to encourage inward investment, to promote Milton Keynes as a viable visitor destination and to explore 34

opportunities for developing further business, leisure, heritage and other types of
 urban and rural destination products.

3

Such activities are expected to be carried out under the guidance of Destination Management Plans (DMPs) and by involving key interested destination actors who serve businesses, local government and third sector organisations. DMPs are an expression of a government-mandated, current policy-driven approach to guiding the work of private-led DMOs in England.

9

DMK and the UK is not a unique case but its relevance and applicability spreads across a number of countries with tourism sectors. DMOs face an increasingly networked environment and significant changes in their funding and governance (Coles, Dinan and Hutchison 2014). Such disruptions to the operational environment for DMOs are evident in a number of countries, such as Switzerland (Beritelli, Bieger & Laesser 2014), Australia (Pforr, Pechlaner, Volgger, & Thompson, 2014) China (Wang & Ap 2013) and the UK (Hristov & Zehrer 2017).

17

18 In the case of Switzerland, Pietro, Thomas & Christian (2013) highlighted that many Swiss DMOs have to restructure into networks that engage a wider range of 19 20 stakeholders in order to demonstrate value for money and to diversify their funding streams. Similarly, in Australia, Pforr, Pechlaner, Volgger & Thompson (2014) 21 22 concluded DMOs are increasingly being confronted with limited funds and 23 organisations often need to incorporate input from the private sector in order to offer 24 a continued justification for their existence. In the case of China, DMOs or Tourism 25 Administrative Organizations (TAOs) restructured their operations to support similar 26 transformations to network tourism governance (Wang & Ap, 2013). Equally, in the 27 case of the UK, DMOs have been under increased scrutiny within a new funding and governance landscape, resulting in a focus on the distribution of leadership and the 28 29 pooling of knowledge and resources (Hristov & Zehrer, 2017).

30

31 Research Methods

32 The research method adopted a four-step process, as seen in Figure 1

1 Figure 1: Research Process



2 1) Define Network Boundaries

Network research aims to study whole populations, individuals, organisations or entities in a given cohort (Galaskiewicz & Wasserman, 1993). Researchers need to determine the extent or boundary of networks, which then shapes subsequent data collection (Laumann, Marsden, & Prensky, 1989). Collecting network data thus implies that network actors are not independent units of analysis (Scott, 1988), but rather embedded in a myriad of social relations, as in the case of this study, in which all target organisations are members of DMK.

10

When conducting studies investigating large networks, the collection and subsequent 11 12 analysis of network data often becomes unmanageable (Conway 2014). This study overcomes such complexities by applying a rule of inclusion (Murty, 1998) that limits 13 the data collection organizations involved with the DMK DMO post-2011 in a 14 15 Government Tourism Policy context. For this research, data was collected from a 16 network of 70 member organisations on board DMK. They included businesses representing a number of sectors of the economy related to Milton Keynes, as well 17 as local authorities, such as Milton Keynes Council, and a range of not-for-profit 18 19 organisations.

20

21 2) Data Collection

Network survey questionnaires facilitate the task to construct collectively and depict the investigated network subsequently (Moody, McFarland, & Bender-deMoll, 2005) by using binary network data. For the purpose of network data collection, the study used a web-based platform, Organisational Network Analysis (ONA) Surveys, which is available on <u>https://www.s2.onasurveys.com</u> on a subscription basis. The survey content and structure were initially developed in MS Word, which allowed the researcher the opportunity to visualise the full survey prior to embedding it in ONA Surveys. Once agreed, the content and structure of the DMO network survey was embedded in ONA Surveys and tested with the assistance of DMK management. Then, names and contact details of those testing the survey were replaced with Destination Milton Keynes's full network of member organisations. The full member list was collected from the DMK official website on 1 July 2014 and research was undertaken in order to identify senior prospects within DMK's member organisations.

7

8 To ensure ethical data collection and to minimize potential risk, it was made clear in 9 the survey introduction that the study was only interested in existing links within the complete network of DMK member organisations. As such, the study does not 10 extend beyond DMK's membership network to capture any private networks of 11 12 individual DMO member organisations. Respondents were required to provide data 13 concerning the nature of their relationships with other DMK member organisations, such as the frequency of information-sharing and the impact of developmental 14 15 resource-sharing between respondent organisations.

- 16
- 17

3) Descriptive Statistics of Network Characteristics

18 Gephi (Gephi.org) was employed to perform initial exploratory analysis and 19 visualisation of the communication network (Cherven, 2015). Gephi has a number of 20 network and actor-level measures that target structural and relational properties of 21 networks. Gephi also provides a range of network layout algorithms used for 22 transforming network data into network depictions.

23

24 4) Exponential Random Graph Modelling

25 Modelling was conducted using the statnet package in R. Four models were 26 developed:

27

1: Edges only model. The purpose of this model is to determine if the distribution of edges in the observed network differs significantly from a random network (Research proposition 1). This model is known as the the Bernoulli or Erdos-Reyni model and is useful as it helps determine if the patterns of relationships in the communication network identified by the descriptive statistics could have arisen by chance.

2: Edges and the actor property of membership in DMK. The purpose of this model is
 to identify homphily by DMK membership; that is, network members communicate
 with each other more than they do with non-members (Research proposition 2).

3: Edges, membership and the network property of GWESP. This model
incorporates a network statistic that identifies how the transitivity of the
communication network varies from random distribution of edges.

7

4: Edges, GWESP, actor properties of membership and industry background. The
purpose of this model is to identify homophily by Industry membership (Research
proposition 3).

11

The fit of all models will be assessed by the Akaike information criterion (AIC) and Bayesian information criterion (BIC) (Akaike, 1992). Whilst they have no direct interpretation, they serve as a means for comparing differing models and lower values are preferred.

16

17 Results

18 The membership portfolio of DMK consists of founding (corporate) and noncorporate members. Founding (corporate) members initially established the DMO in 19 20 2006 and member organisations joined later; i.e. post-2006 until January 2014 when 21 this study was conducted. Corporate members represented 18.5% of the overall 22 DMO membership network, whilst non-corporate members accounted for 81.5% of the DMO membership base. The investigated network itself is diverse; i.e. a number 23 24 of key sectors of the economy are represented on board (Table 2) and hospitality 25 establishments and not-for-profit organisations are dominant stakeholder groups 26 (sectors defined as per the above classification) at 24.7% and 18.5%, respectively.

Type of organisation	Network share (%)
Hospitality Sector	24.7
Not-for-Profit	18.5
Conferences and Events	14.8
Retail and Services	13.6
Evening Economy	9.9
Attractions and Activities	8.6
Local Government	6.2
Higher Education	2.5
Transportation	1.2

1 Table 2: DMK Network by Sector (from January 2014)

2

Within the context of communication patterns and exchange of information, edge colours correspond to the colour of source nodes to depict the initiators of this communication; i.e. network actors who reported a link with other DMK member organisations. Edge (communication flows) corresponds to the colour of source; i.e. identifying key communicators. The thicker a link, the higher the frequency of communication and knowledge exchange between the source and target nodes.

9

Figure 2 provides a view of all interaction flows related to communication andexchange of information across the DMK network.

Figure 2: DMK Network Information Flows



2

An examination of the metrics for 5 firms with the highest scores in the network indicates they are service providers. Further, the highest score for degree and centrality belongs to a higher education firm. Firms with these scores will be more likely to be involved in communications across the entire network than other firms. The reason for this may be that service providers work with a large number of network entities as part of their operations. In this way, they become network "hubs" that connect otherwise isolated firms to each other.

Company Type	Dearee	Authority	Hub	Closeness	Harmonic	Retweenness
Company Type	Dogroo	rationty	1100	0100011000	<i>i laimoino</i>	Detweenness
				centrality	closeness	centrality
					centrality	
Higher	28	0.300301	0.300301	0.634409	0.728814	0.204854
Education						
Not-for-Profit	22	0.274315	0.274315	0.584158	0.672316	0.073002
Evening	21	0.278143	0.278143	0.578431	0.663842	0.062341
Economy						
(Entertainment)						
Conferences &	20	0.263588	0.263588	0.561905	0.649718	0.052777
Events						
Not-for-Profit	19	0.219769	0.219769	0.556604	0.641243	0.054806

1 Table 3: Network Metrics (all numbers except degree are normalized)

2

Furthermore, examination of the distribution of normalized network metrics indicates
they fall within a narrow range with a few outliers for harmonic centrality. Whilst large
networks may exhibit a power law or exponential distribution, smaller networks may
have a less extreme distribution of metrics. This finding indicates that no single firm
holds dispoportinate control over communication in the network.

8

9 Figure 3



- 1 After mapping and visualizing the network, exponential random graph modelling was
- 2 carried out to determine the network and node properties that infulenced3 communication ties. Four models were developed:
- 4 1: A simple edges only model
- 5 2: Edges and the actor property of membership in DMK
- 6 3: Edges, membership and the network property of GWESP
- 7 4: Edges, GWESP, actor properties of membership and industry background.
- 8
- 9 Model 1
- 10

11 The first model examines if the network's observed structure of ties could 12 have been produced from a random process. The section below presents the output 13 of R analysis for Model 1 in Table 4 below:

14

15 Table 4: Model 1 (Edges only)

	Estimate	Std. Error	MCMC %	p-value		
Edges	-1.99904	0.06981	0	<1e-04 ***		
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1						
Null Deviance: 2	Null Deviance: 2795 on 2016 degrees of freedom					
Residual Deviance: 1515 on 2015 degrees of freedom						
AIC: 1517 BIC	: 1523 (Smaller	is better.)				
Formula: y ~ eo	lges					
Iterations: 5 out	of 20					

16

Findings from the analysis indicated the network was not random at a significance level of .001. The probability of ties in the observed network can be determined as exp(-1.99904)/(1+exp(-1.99904)) = 0.1193, which corresponds to the density of the observed network. The model fit shows the result is significant at the 0.001 level, indicating that the edges in the network were not randomly distributed. This finding provides some support for the validity of the hubs and metric distributions identified by the previous analysis in Table 3 and Figure 3.

24 Model 2

In model 2, an actor property, membership in the DMK network, was added to identify its impact on the probability of ties in the network. This identifies if a network identity was established. The R output is presented below in Table 5: 1

2 Table 5: Model 2 (Edges and Membership)

	Estimate	Std. Error	MCMC %	p-value	
Edges	-1.94246	0.11736	0	<1e-04	***
Nodematch.Members	-0.08656	0.14600	0	0.553	
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1					
Null Deviance: 2795 on 2016 degrees of freedom					
Residual Deviance: 1515 on 2014 degrees of freedom					
AIC: 1519 BIC: 1530 (Smaller is better.)					
Formula: y ~ edges + nodematch ("Members")					
Iterations: 5 out of 20					

3

4 The findings suggest that the Association Membership property was not a significant

5 determinant of ties in the network. AIC and BIC are similar to Model 1, indicating this

6 model does not provide an improved basis for explaining the distribution of ties in the7 network.

8 Model 3

9 The third model adds the clustering tendency in the form of the Geometrically-10 Weighted Edgewise Shared Partner (GWESP) parameter to determine if the 11 transitivity patterns exhibited in the DMK communication network could have 12 occurred randomly.

13 Table 6: Model 3 (Edges, Membership and Transitivity)

	Estimate	Std. Error	MCMC %	p-value
Edges	-4.1177	0.2743	0	<1e-04 ***
Nodematch.Members	-0.0498	0.1168	0	0.67
GWESP.fixed.0.25	1.4988	0.1943	0	<1e-04 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1				
Null Deviance: 2795 on 2016 degrees of freedom				
Residual Deviance: 1403 on 2013 degrees of freedom				
AIC: 1409 BIC: 1426 (Smaller is better.)				
Formula: y ~ edges + nodematch("Members") + gwesp(0.25, fixed = TRUE)			TRUE)	
Iterations: 3 out of 20				

The findings indicate GWESP is significantly different from a random network and helps to predict the probability of ties in the DMK network. The GWESP figure suggests the network is robust with multiple redundant ties among members. Communication in this network will therefore be rapid as information can be shared quickly. This model is a stronger basis for explaining the distribution of ties in the network as AIC and BIC are lower than in Model 1 or 2.

7

8 Model 4

9 The final model adds the actor term of sector membership, which enables the 10 comparison of sector identity with network identity.

	iges, membersi	np, occior and	i ansitivity)	
	Estimate	Std. Error	MCMC %	p-value
Edges	-4.1244	0.2781	0	<1e-04 ***
Nodematch.Members	-0.1145	0.1197	0	0.3387
Nodematch.Sector	0.4147	0.1695	0	0.0145 *
GWESP.fixed.0.25	1.4878	0.1973	0	<1e-04 ***
Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1				
Null Deviance: 2795 on 2016 degrees of freedom				
Residual Deviance: 13	Residual Deviance: 1398 on 2012 degrees of freedom			
AIC: 1406 BIC: 1428 (Smaller is better.)				
Formula: y ~ edges +	 nodematch("Me 	embers") + node	match("Sector'	') +
gwesp(0.25,				
fixed = TRUE)				

11 Table 7: Model 4 (Edges, Membership, Sector and Transitivity)

12

13 The findings indicate sector or industry membership is a significant property influencing the distribution of network ties and, hence, the structure of the 14 communications network in a DMO. This indicates that network members display 15 16 homophily by sector, meaning actors in the DMK network have a higher tendency to 17 form ties with the same sector than those from other sectors. Communication will therefore be higher between same sector members than with members representing 18 19 other sectors in the network. A goodness-of-fit (GOF) test was performed to identify 20 the extent to which the estimates reproduce the terms in the model. A significant 21 difference would indicate errors in the estimation process. The model below and the 22 boxplot indicate the estimates were an accurate reproduction of the terms in the model. The mean figures of the simulated model closely match the observed 23

- 1 statistics for the properties of edges, members, sector and GWESP, indicating the
- 2 models proposed in this study were a good fit.
- 3

Table 4: Goodness-of-Fit for Model Statistics

4 5

	obs	min	mean	max MC	p-value
Edges	233.0000	178.0000	235.2300	296.0000	0.98
Nodematch. Members	150.0000	104.0000	149.8400	205.0000	1.00
Nodematch. Sector	44.0000	25.0000	44.4700	64.0000	1.00
GWESP.fixed. 0.25	254.8915	181.4986	258.4607	340.1921	0.92

6 7

Figure 5: Goodness-of-Fit for Model Statistics

8



9 10

Discussion 11

12 DMOs have recognised the need to adopt a more inclusive approach to destination management (Morgan, 2012) y linking government, businesses and civil 13 14 society. Whilst the focus of destination marketing has been considered outward (e.g. establishing links with different markets with the purpose to attract visitors), 15 destination management, requires incorporation of a more inward focus - it is 16 interested in the operations and experience of the destination (Scott & Marzano, 17 2015). DMOs are now expected to be at the forefront of destination management 18

and leadership activities with little or no support from the public sector (Coles et al.
 2014). Cooperation between member organizations is therefore critical for
 destination governance (Laesser & Beritelli, 2013).

4

5 Earlier literature on destination governance in the marketing paradigm focuses on 6 the steering and controlling destinations by norms, structures and processes (Bieger, 7 & Laesser 2007). DMOs are increasingly expected to manage the complex system 8 of relationships at a destination (Volgger & Pechlaner, 2014) In this new scenario, 9 DMOs are expected to create structures that define the boundaries of the network and articulate a vision for empowering members to participate as well as facilitate the 10 pooling of resources and sharing of expertise to continuously develop a tourism 11 12 product (Beritelli et al. 2015).

13

However, while DMOs may have a degree of formal authority, governance of a 14 15 network requires engaging with members to negotiate outcomes jointly (Pechlaner & Volgger, 2013). Communication forms a key part of the process for engaging 16 17 network members to ensure there is a mix of destination actors in terms of sectorial 18 diversity and organisation size and scope. The development of a collaborative network identity can support this engagement process, enabling members to 19 20 determine the potential benefits of collaborating with an exchange partner within a 21 network (Anderson et al. 1994).

22

23 The focal organization, DMK, engaged in the process of establishing a collective 24 network identity that could have influenced perceptions at the individual member, 25 intra member and non-members. This collective network identity could then facilitate 26 communication and alignment of activities (Öberg, 2016). The development of these 27 identities is not a deterministic, lifecycle process (Beech & Huxham, 2003). When a focal organization attempts to create a collaborative network, potential tendencies 28 29 towards homophily and existing relationships (Newman & Dale, 2007) will need to be adjusted. The reshaped relationships introduce new activities, resources and 30 31 relationships that change practices of members mutually (Brown & Starkey, 2000). 32 Existing network identity studies have used inductive or quantitative survey-based 33 approaches to examine the benefits and challenges of a collaborative network identity. However, these studies are based on the implicit assumption that a network 34

exists and exerts influence on member organizations. Unlike existing network identity
research, a combined descriptive and inferential network analysis approach was able
to verify that the distribution of ties in the network was not random and therefore a
network exists (Research Proposition 1). Subsequent analyses (Research
propositions 2-4) were able to examine the extent to which this identity influenced
communication within members.

7

Transitivity has been extensively examined as a network characteristic in social 8 9 networks as it can indicate the influence of a node. Nodes having a high degree of 10 transitivity have multiple links to other nodes and can be more influential than nodes 11 with fewer connections. GWESP findings suggest the transitivity differs from random 12 networks and is a significant property of the DMK communication network. 13 Communication connections within this network are "strong" where members have redundant connections with each other (Granovetter, 1973). The outcome is typical 14 15 of networks in which members meet frequently with each other and have established multiple points of contact (Beritelli & Laesser, 2011). Actors in the DMK network are 16 17 in closely linked clusters (Guzman, Deckro, Robbins, Morris, & Ballester, 2014), indicating that the DMK project established a robust communication network that is 18 19 difficult to disrupt and may persist over time. This communication network can underpin future activities and initiatives, contributing to the development of the 20 21 region.

22

23 The findings indicate that while the DMK network is robust, distribution of ties in the DMK network are significantly influenced by industry membership. These nodes 24 demonstrate homophily by industry type, which is a powerful network property that 25 26 influences decision-making, leadership, activity and, now, communication. Prominent 27 organizations in industry clusters can act as bridges within their immediate network communities, facilitating communication in the group. This distribution of 28 29 relationships may act as an enabler of consensus because communication is rapid within industry groups in the network (Louch, 2000). However, it can constrain 30 innovation as there are fewer inter-industry ties in the network bringing in new ideas 31 and bridging differing social worlds and industry contexts. 32

Network membership was not found to be a significant influence on the formation of 1 2 ties in the DMC communication network. The findings of this research are similar to 3 Volgger and Pechlaner (2014), who suggested DMOs face difficulty in implementing 4 the above strategies successfully. Communication was not influenced by operating 5 under the common brand of DMK and homophily (shared properties) by membership is not present. Organizations may be members of the DMO network but that does 6 7 not influence communication interactions, suggesting a network identity was not 8 established. The creation of a joint brand in the form of DMK may be useful as an 9 administrative construct for external stakeholders but this did not influence the 10 creation of ties among members.

11

The relatively poor linkages across industries within the examined DMO may be of concern as ties between dissimilar actors help information flow across the network. New ideas may not enter since there are few weak ties (Granovetter, 1973) connecting different types of members. Homophily and clustering by industry suggests that members are focused more on activities in their own sub-groups than the network as a whole (Beimborn, Jentsch, & Lüders, 2015).

18

Focal organizations may invest in network level processes, such as member 19 20 associations that establish to encourage adoption of network level communication 21 mechanisms to create an identity based on group-sharing (Dyer & Nobeoka, 2000). 22 Once established, the benefits from identity can be enhanced by creating group-level 23 routines that identify, filter and integrate knowledge. By establishing these routines, 24 the lead firm creates a net benefit to network membership that differentiates it from 25 non-members and encourages a shift from current groups (Kogut & Zander, 1992). 26 If successful, these routines are self-reinforcing and create a collective network 27 identity in which members' alignment of activities and sharing of knowledge continue to provide benefits to members and attract new members. This collective identity 28 29 helps define membership, create joint strategies, cooperation and learning. Research on network identity in supplier networks indicate that routines for collective 30 31 learning are particularly valuable for the development of network norms (Dyer & 32 Hatch, 2004). These are routines for the development and dissemination of explicit 33 knowledge that is either network-specific, such as coordination within the network, or resides in several member firms, such as activity improvement. 34

2 However, formal mechanisms identified for establishing a network identity in 3 manufacturing supply chains may need to be adapted to the characteristics of DMO 4 members. Tourism organizations can be service SMEs who may not have a high 5 level of explicit knowledge to share within the network (Durst & Runar Edvardsson, 2012). These organisations also experience seasonal variations in demand, unlike 6 7 manufacturing/supply chain organizations that experience consistent levels of 8 demand. These conditions do not support the development of significant levels of 9 codifed, explicit knowledge that can be transferred via formal knowledge-exchange mechanisms. Sharing tacit knowledge requires strong ties that may exist within the 10 industry groups identified in this study but not across them. 11

12 In these conditions, the lead organization may need to leverage existing intra-group 13 ties held by service and educational firms to facilitate tacit knowledge exchange. When joining a network, each member brings their history or accumulated 14 15 experience of not just internal work practices but also collaboration. Organizations who may have contracted relationships as a main mode of operation, such as the 16 17 service organizations in this study, can have a higher accumulated experience of 18 collaboration and are used to adapting their activities to the requirements of other 19 organizations (Hietajärvi & Aaltonen, 2018). These firms therefore establish and 20 maintain a number of linkages with organizations in the network, resulting in their 21 central position in the network, a finding from the descriptive statistics. Research has suggested these organizations can create temporary flexible groups by selectively 22 23 activating and terminating ties (Ibarra, Kilduff, & Tsai, 2005), enabling a higher level of collaboration than other firms. The ties managed by these firms can support the 24 development of integrating routines by the lead firm which can deliver the benefits of 25 26 a collaborative network identity.

27

1 Implications

This paper makes an early contribution as it identifies homophily in destination networks by using an inferential statistical approach. An ERGM approach is valuable as it can advance analysis of tourism network research from descriptive to prescriptive. Specifically, ERGM analysis was able to identify network and node properties that influence communication ties in organizations in this research.

7

The findings indicate a network identity may not be established by the formation of an initiative as communication was not influenced by membership in the DMK. Instead, industry sector membership was an influence on communication, possibly because it is a historical attribute that would have built a range of inter- and intraorganizational connections over time (Moody et al., 2005). Whilst organizations may join the initiative, it may take some time before historical patterns of communication within industry group sectors change to reflect membership in the initiative.

15

This suggests that future research seeking to understand the impact of interventions, 16 17 such as the formation of DMKs, should examine the link formation processes in 18 networks, either by using longitudinal or multiple repeated observations of ties between organizations. Research can also identify the processes leading to the 19 20 emergence nodes that link differing groups (Clauset, Newman, & Moore, 2004). In 21 this network, these nodes were non-profit and service organizations that held 22 multiple connections across industry boundaries. DMO managers may seek to work 23 with the intra-industry relationships already established by these organizations to 24 encourage members to change historical patterns of communication and to establish 25 a network identity.

26

27 Inferential network analysis works alongside descriptive statistics to enhance DMO research. Descriptive statistics identify key actors and inferential statistics can verify 28 29 the validity of these findings. These metrics can be used to measure the health of network initiatives beyond membership figures. Destination development capacity-30 31 building policy instruments can propose initiating a network or association as an 32 explicit goal (Lynch, Holden, & O'Toole, 2009). Inferential network analysis can be a 33 useful tool for evaluating the effectiveness of these policies. This approach enhances existing DMO research to go beyond the identification of important entities to 34

examine the combined influence of relationships. It suggests that organizations
seeking to support these networks need to incorporate network measures as an
evaluation tool. Particularly in the area of policy evaluation (DeLeon & Varda, 2009),
these metrics may indicate the health of the network and can support the design of
interventions to ensure planned benefits are realised.

The concept of network identity can be useful for DMOs in the new funding 6 7 landscape where they are required to be hubs that coordinate activities rather than disburse state funding. Future work could examine temporal or situational influences 8 on network identity. Events and festivals have been viewed as experience-9 production systems (Ferdinand & Williams, 2013) where loosely connected firms 10 align activities at particular times to deliver an annual experience. This suggests that 11 12 network identities may be dynamic and situational and can shift as circumstances 13 dictate.

14

1	REFERENCES
2	
3	Akaike, H. (1992). Information theory and an extension of the maximum likelihood principle.
4 5	Aldrich H. Reese, P. R. & Dubini, P. (1989). Women on the verse of a breaktbrough:
5	Networking among entrepreneurs in the United States and Italy. <i>Entrepreneurshin &</i>
7	Regional Development 1(4) 339-356
8	Anderson, J. C., Håkansson, H., & Johanson, J. (1994). Dvadic business relationships within a
9	business network context. <i>The Journal of Marketing</i> , 1-15.
10	Argote, L., & Ingram, P. (2000). Knowledge transfer: A basis for competitive advantage in
11	firms. Organizational behavior and human decision processes, 82(1), 150-169.
12	Asero, V., Gozzo, S., & Tomaselli, V. (2016). Shaping and Re-Shaping Tourism Areas: A
13	Network Approach. Handbook of Research on Holistic Optimization Techniques in the
14	Hospitality, Tourism, and Travel Industry, 305.
15	Astley, W. G., & Zammuto, R. F. (1992). Organization science, managers, and language
16	games. Organization science, 3(4), 443-460.
17	Baggio, R. (2017). Network science and tourism—the state of the art. <i>Tourism Review</i> , 72(1),
18 10	120-131. Descie D. & Cooper C. (2010). Knowledge transfer in a tourism destination, the effects of a
20 19	Baggio, R., & Cooper, C. (2010). Knowledge transfer in a tourism destination: the effects of a
20 21	doi:10.1080/02642060903580649
22	Baggio, R., Scott, N., & Cooper, C. (2010). Network science: A Review Focused on Tourism.
23	Annals of Tourism Research, 37(3), 802-827.
24	doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2010.02.008
25	Beech, N., & Huxham, C. (2003). Cycles of identity formation in interorganizational
26	collaborations. International studies of management & organization, 33(3), 28-52.
27	Beimborn, D., Jentsch, C., & Lüders, P. (2015). Measuring Outsourcing Relationship Quality:
28	Towards a Social Network Analysis Approach.
29	Beritelli, P., Bieger, T., & Laesser, C. (2007). Destination governance: Using corporate
30	governance theories as a foundation for effective destination management. <i>Journal</i>
31	of Travel Research, 46(1), 96-107.
32	Beritelli, P., Buffa, F., & Martini, U. (2015). The coordinating DMO or coordinators in the
55 24	$Z_{0(1)} = A A A$
24 25	Policy, 24-42. Beritelli P. & Laesser C (2011) Power dimensions and influence reputation in tourist
36	destinations: Empirical evidence from a network of actors and stakeholders. <i>Tourism</i>
37	Management, 32(6), 1299-1309, doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/i.tourman.2010.12.010
38	Borgatti, S. P., & Foster, P. C. (2003). The network paradigm in organizational research: A
39	review and typology. Journal of management, 29(6), 991-1013.
40	Boschma, R. (2005). Proximity and innovation: a critical assessment. Regional studies, 39(1),
41	61-74.
42	Brass, D. J., Galaskiewicz, J., Greve, H. R., & Tsai, W. (2004). Taking stock of networks and
43	organizations: A multilevel perspective. Academy of management journal, 47(6),
44	795-817.
45	Broekel, T., Balland, PA., Burger, M., & van Oort, F. (2014). Modeling knowledge networks
46	in economic geography: a discussion of four methods. The annals of regional science,
4/	<i>53(2),</i> 423-452.

Brown, A. D., & Starkey, K. (2000). Organizational identity and learning: A psychodynamic 1 2 perspective. Academy of management review, 25(1), 102-120. 3 Chen, C., & Hicks, D. (2004). Tracing knowledge diffusion. *Scientometrics*, 59(2), 199-211. 4 Cherven, K. (2015). Mastering Gephi network visualization: Packt Publishing Ltd. 5 Christof, P., Harald, P., Michael, V., & Graham, T. (2014). Overcoming the Limits to Change 6 and Adapting to Future Challenges: Governing the Transformation of Destination 7 Networks in Western Australia. Journal of Travel Research, 53(6), 760-777. 8 doi:10.1177/0047287514538837 9 Clauset, A., Newman, M. E. J., & Moore, C. (2004). Finding community structure in very large 10 networks. Physical Review E, 70(6), 066111. 11 Coles, T., Dinan, C., & Hutchison, F. (2012). May we live in less interesting times? Changing 12 public sector support for tourism in England during the sovereign debt crisis. Journal 13 of Destination Marketing & Management, 1(1), 4-7. 14 Coles, T., Dinan, C., & Hutchison, F. C. (2014). Tourism and the public sector in England since 15 2010: a disorderly transition? Current Issues in Tourism, 17(3), 247-279. 16 Conway, S. (2014). A cautionary note on data inputs and visual outputs in social network 17 analysis. British Journal of Management, 25(1), 102-117. 18 Cowan, R. (2005). Network models of innovation and knowledge diffusion. Clusters, 19 networks and innovation, 29-53. 20 Cranmer, S. J., Desmarais, B. A., & Kirkland, J. H. (2012). Toward a network theory of alliance 21 formation. International Interactions, 38(3), 295-324. 22 Cross, R., Laseter, T., Parker, A., & Velasquez, G. (2006). Using social network analysis to 23 improve communities of practice. California Management Review, 49(1), 32-60. 24 Czernek, K. (2013). Determinants of cooperation in a tourist region. Annals of Tourism 25 Research, 40, 83-104. 26 Del Chiappa, G., & Presenza, A. (2013). The use of network analysis to assess relationships 27 among stakeholders within a tourism destination: An empirical investigation on 28 Costa Smeralda-Gallura, Italy. Tourism Analysis, 18(1), 1-13. 29 DeLeon, P., & Varda, D. M. (2009). Toward a theory of collaborative policy networks: 30 Identifying structural tendencies. Policy Studies Journal, 37(1), 59-74. 31 Durst, S., & Runar Edvardsson, I. (2012). Knowledge management in SMEs: a literature 32 review. Journal of Knowledge Management, 16(6), 879-903. 33 Dyer, J. H., & Hatch, N. W. (2004). Using supplier networks to learn faster. MIT Sloan 34 Management Review, 45(3), 57. 35 Dyer, J. H., & Nobeoka, K. (2000). Creating and managing a high-performance knowledge-36 sharing network: the Toyota case. *Strategic management journal*, 345-367. 37 Ellis, N., Rod, M., Beal, T., & Lindsay, V. (2012). Constructing identities in Indian networks: 38 Discourses of marketing management in inter-organizational relationships. Industrial 39 *Marketing Management, 41*(3), 402-412. 40 Ferdinand, N., & Williams, N. L. (2013). International festivals as experience production 41 systems. Tourism Management, 34, 202-210. 42 Fyall, A., Fletcher, J., & Spyriadis, T. (2009). 2 Diversity, devolution and disorder. Advances in 43 tourism destination marketing: Managing networks, 15. 44 Gadde, L.-E., Huemer, L., & Håkansson, H. (2003). Strategizing in industrial networks. 45 Industrial marketing management, 32(5), 357-364. 46 Galaskiewicz, J., & Wasserman, S. (1993). Social network analysis: Concepts, methodology, 47 and directions for the 1990s. Sociological Methods & Research, 22(1), 3-22.

1 Gloor, P. A., Kidane, Y. H., Grippa, F., Marmier, P., & Von Arb, C. (2008). Location matters? 2 Measuring the efficiency of business social networking. International Journal of 3 Foresight and Innovation Policy, 4(3-4), 230-245. 4 Granovetter, M. (1973). The Strength of Weak Ties. American Journal of Sociology, 78(6), 5 1360-1380. doi:citeulike-article-id:99857 6 doi: 10.2307/2776392 7 Guzman, J. D., Deckro, R. F., Robbins, M. J., Morris, J. F., & Ballester, N. A. (2014). An 8 Analytical Comparison of Social Network Measures. IEEE Transactions on 9 Computational Social Systems, 1(1), 35-45. 10 Harrill, R. (2009). Destination management: New challenges, new needs. The Sage handbook 11 of tourism studies, 448-464. 12 Hazir, C. S., & Autant-Bernard, C. (2014). Determinants of cross-regional R&D collaboration: 13 some empirical evidence from Europe in biotechnology. The Annals of Regional 14 Science, 53(2), 369-393. 15 Hietajärvi, A.-M., & Aaltonen, K. (2018). The formation of a collaborative project identity in 16 an infrastructure alliance project. Construction Management and Economics, 36(1), 17 1-21. 18 Hristov, D., & Ramkissoon, H. (2016). Leadership in destination management organisations. Annals of Tourism Research. doi:10.1016/j.annals.2016.08.005 19 20 Hristov, D., & Zehrer, A. (2015). The destination paradigm continuum revisited: DMOs 21 serving as leadership networks. Tourism Review, 70(2), 116-131. 22 Hristov, D., & Zehrer, A. (2017). Does distributed leadership have a place in destination 23 management organisations? A policy-makers perspective. Current Issues in Tourism, 24 1-21. doi:10.1080/13683500.2017.1364715 25 Huemer, L., Becerra, M., & Lunnan, R. (2004). Organizational identity and network 26 identification: relating within and beyond imaginary boundaries. Scandinavian 27 Journal of Management, 20(1), 53-73. 28 Hunter, D. R., Goodreau, S. M., & Handcock, M. S. (2008). Goodness of fit of social network 29 models. Journal of the American Statistical Association, 103(481), 248-258. 30 Hunter, D. R., & Handcock, M. S. (2006). Inference in curved exponential family models for 31 networks. Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics, 15(3), 565-583. 32 Ibarra, H., Kilduff, M., & Tsai, W. (2005). Zooming in and out: Connecting individuals and 33 collectivities at the frontiers of organizational network research. Organization 34 science, 16(4), 359-371. 35 Kennell, J., & Chaperon, S. (2013). Analysis of the UK Government's 2011 tourism policy. 36 Cultural Trends, 22(3-4), 278-284. 37 Kogut, B., & Zander, U. (1992). Knowledge of the firm, combinative capabilities, and the 38 replication of technology. Organization science, 3(3), 383-397. 39 Krivitsky, P. N. (2012). Exponential-family random graph models for valued networks. 40 Electronic journal of statistics, 6, 1100. 41 Kwon, K. H., Stefanone, M. A., & Barnett, G. A. (2014). Social network influence on online 42 behavioral choices: exploring group formation on social network sites. American 43 Behavioral Scientist, 58(10), 1345-1360. 44 Laesser, C., & Beritelli, P. (2013). St. Gallen consensus on destination management. Journal 45 of Destination Marketing & Management, 2(1), 46-49. 46 Laumann, E. O., Marsden, P. V., & Prensky, D. (1989). The boundary specification problem in 47 network analysis. Research methods in social network analysis, 61, 87.

- 1 Liu, B., Huang, S., & Fu, H. (2017). An application of network analysis on tourist attractions: 2 The case of Xinjiang, China. Tourism Management, 58(Supplement C), 132-141. 3 doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2016.10.009 4 Longjit, C., & Pearce, D. G. (2013). Managing a mature coastal destination: Pattaya, Thailand. 5 Journal of Destination Marketing & Management, 2(3), 165-175. 6 Loomis, C. P. (1946). Political and occupational cleavages in a Hanoverian village, Germany: 7 A sociometric study. Sociometry, 9(4), 316-333. 8 Louch, H. (2000). Personal network integration: transitivity and homophily in strong-tie 9 relations. Social networks, 22(1), 45-64. 10 Lynch, P., Holden, M. T., & O'Toole, T. (2009). Developing a rural innovation network in the 11 Irish tourism sector (RIKON Group). 12 Merinero-Rodríguez, R., & Pulido-Fernández, J. I. (2016). Analysing relationships in tourism: 13 A review. *Tourism Management, 54*(Supplement C), 122-135. 14 doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2015.10.010 15 Mitteness, C. R., DeJordy, R., Ahuja, M. K., & Sudek, R. (2016). Extending the role of 16 similarity attraction in friendship and advice networks in angel groups. 17 Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 40(3), 627-655. 18 Moody, J., McFarland, D., & Bender-deMoll, S. (2005). Dynamic network visualization. 19 American journal of sociology, 110(4), 1206-1241. 20 Morgan, N. (2012). Time for 'mindful'destination management and marketing. Journal of 21 Destination Marketing & Management, 1(1), 8-9. 22 Morlacchi, P., Wilkinson, I. F., & Young, L. C. (2005). Social networks of researchers in B2B 23 marketing: A case study of the IMP Group 1984–1999. Journal of Business-to-24 Business Marketing, 12(1), 3-34. 25 Murty, S. A. (1998). Setting the boundary of an interorganizational network: An application. 26 Journal of social service research, 24(3-4), 67-82. 27 Ness, H., Aarstad, J., Haugland, S. A., & Grønseth, B. O. (2014). Destination development: 28 The role of interdestination bridge ties. Journal of Travel Research, 53(2), 183-195. 29 Newman, L., & Dale, A. (2007). Homophily and agency: creating effective sustainable 30 development networks. Environment, Development and Sustainability, 9(1), 79-90. 31 Newman, M. E. J., & Park, J. (2003). Why social networks are different from other types of 32 networks. Physical Review E, 68(3), 036122. 33 Newman, M. E. J., Strogatz, S. H., & Watts, D. J. (2001). Random graphs with arbitrary 34 degree distributions and their applications. *Physical review E, 64*(2), 026118. 35 Pearce, D. G., & Schänzel, H. A. (2013). Destination management: The tourists' perspective. 36 Journal of Destination Marketing & Management, 2(3), 137-145. 37 Pechlaner, H., & Volgger, M. (2013). Towards a comprehensive view of tourism governance: 38 Relationships between the corporate governance of tourism service firms and 39 territorial governance. International journal of globalisation and small business, 5(1-40 2), 3-19. 41 Pforr, C. (2006). Tourism policy in the making: An Australian network study. Annals of 42 Tourism Research, 33(1), 87-108. 43 Pforr, C., Pechlaner, H., Volgger, M., & Thompson, G. (2014). Overcoming the Limits to 44 Change and Adapting to Future Challenges: Governing the Transformation of 45 Destination Networks in Western Australia. Journal of Travel Research, 53(6), 760-
- 46 777. doi:10.1177/0047287514538837

1 Pietro, B., Thomas, B., & Christian, L. (2013). The New Frontiers of Destination Management: 2 Applying Variable Geometry as a Function-Based Approach. Journal of Travel 3 Research, 53(4), 403-417. doi:10.1177/0047287513506298 4 Pike, S. (2007). *Destination marketing organisations*: Routledge. 5 Prell, C. (2012). Social network analysis: History, theory and methodology: Sage. 6 Reinhold, S., Laesser, C., & Beritelli, P. (2015). 2014 St. Gallen Consensus on destination 7 management. Journal of Destination Marketing & Management, 4(2), 137-142. 8 Rivera, M. T., Soderstrom, S. B., & Uzzi, B. (2010). Dynamics of dyads in social networks: 9 Assortative, relational, and proximity mechanisms. annual Review of Sociology, 36, 10 91-115. 11 Scott, J. (1988). Social Network Analysis. Sociology, 22(1), 109-127. 12 doi:10.1177/0038038588022001007 13 Scott, N., & Marzano, G. (2015). Governance of tourism in OECD countries. Tourism 14 *Recreation Research, 40*(2), 181-193. 15 Shrum, W., Cheek, N. H., & Hunter, S. (1988). Friendship in school: Gender and racial homophily. Sociology of Education, 227-239. 16 17 Shumate, M., & Palazzolo, E. T. (2010). Exponential random graph (p*) models as a method 18 for social network analysis in communication research. Communication Methods and 19 Measures, 4(4), 341-371. 20 Tran, M. T. T., Jeeva, A. S., & Pourabedin, Z. (2016). Social network analysis in tourism 21 services distribution channels. Tourism Management Perspectives, 18(Supplement 22 C), 59-67. doi:<u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2016.01.003</u> 23 van der Zee, E., & Vanneste, D. (2015). Tourism networks unravelled; a review of the 24 literature on networks in tourism management studies. Tourism Management 25 Perspectives, 15, 46-56. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2015.03.006 26 van Duijn, M., & Huisman, M. (2011). Statistical models for ties and actors. The SAGE 27 handbook of social network analysis, 459-483. 28 Volgger, M., & Pechlaner, H. (2014). Requirements for destination management 29 organizations in destination governance: Understanding DMO success. Tourism 30 Management, 41, 64-75. 31 Wang, D., & Ap, J. (2013). Factors affecting tourism policy implementation: A conceptual 32 framework and a case study in China. Tourism Management, 36, 221-233. 33 Wang, Y., & Xiang, Z. (2007). Toward a theoretical framework of collaborative destination 34 marketing. Journal of Travel Research, 46(1), 75-85. 35 Wasserman, S., & Pattison, P. (1996). Logit models and logistic regressions for social 36 networks: I. An introduction to Markov graphs and p. *Psychometrika*, 61(3), 401-425. 37 Williams, N. L., Inversini, A., Ferdinand, N., & Buhalis, D. (2017). Destination eWOM: A 38 macro and meso network approach? Annals of Tourism Research, 64, 87-101. 39 Öberg, C. (2016). What creates a collaboration-level identity? Journal of Business Research, 40 69(9), 3220-3230. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2016.02.027 41