

**The Shifting Role of the Destination Marketing Organisation
(DMO) in Zambia: A Stakeholder Perspective**

By

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DECLARATION

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ABSTRACT

Tourism is rising as an important economic sector. In order to enhance and sustain the competitiveness, growth and profitability of the destinations and travel brands, tourism places and governments establish and fund Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs), among others. However, open questions on the definition of the purpose, leadership and legitimacy of the DMO in contemporary academic discourses, policy and practice have persisted. In Zambia, this discourse persists despite the several policy and legislation reforms from 2007. The aim of this study was to develop a technical account explaining the shifting expected role of the Destination Marketing Organisation (DMO) among the various tourism industry stakeholders and to use the account to develop a framework for a DMO business model. The study was approached from a pluralist theoretical frame of reference of complexity theory and social critical realism theory as competing theories, with 'mechanisms of emergence' as the common explanatory frame of reference. A qualitative single case study design was followed and conducted in three sites cross-sectionally in the southern tourism circuit of Zambia. The study sample was thirty (30) informants chosen through non-random theoretical sampling method from among licensed private sector operators based on their in-depth knowledge of the tourism industry from business organisations with not less than ten years in Zambia and also from among the government and its main agencies in the tourism sector. Data was collected through face-to-face semi structured in-depth interviews, archival unobstructed data and review of documents, and was analysed using grounded theory approach. It was found that the DMO phenomena under investigation was from both the evolutionary and non-linear novelty dynamism of the DMO and the destination. The study established that the shifting expected role of the DMO and the unchanging policy was from the underlying co-evolution and nested-system causally behaviour of the destination and that the challenge in policy propositions was primarily from the interactions, feedback and emergent order within the system components and also with influences exogenous to it. Macro-level influences (not causes) and path-dependence forces were found to be government and public policy directions; regional structures, collaborations and shared products with adjacent destinations within the region; international markets and travel trade directions; culture and history of the destination; international membership organisations; and unknown-unknowns. At Micro-level, the destination actors were found to co-evolve and regenerate differently, and that they had rivalries, their own collaborations and redefined destination boundaries as black boxes away from official policy propositions. This was mainly based on tourism spatial areas, shared tourism circuits, shared products with adjacent destinations and a multiplicity of international and local operators. These micro-level activities created blind spots for policy formulation. The study developed a relatively reliable and adequate technical account useful for practice and policy proposition of the DMO role and business model of this contemporary subject in Zambia. Using the doctrine of emergence as an explanatory reference, this study added a useful dimension of both the complexity theory and social critical realism theory to the contemporary discourses on the DMO role and how it will survive going forward, which still remains an open question in academic discussions.

Key words: DMO shifting role; Destination Marketing Organisation; DMO business model framework; DMO leadership role.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CITES	Convention on International Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora
CR	Critical Realism
DMO	Destination Marketing Organisation
GMA	Game Management Area
GMP	Game Management Plan
GRZ	Government of the Republic of Zambia
LTA	Livingstone Tourism Association
RETOSA	Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa
TCZ	Tourism Council of Zambia
TDF	Tourism Development Fund
TSA	Tourism Satellite Account
UNESCO	United Nations Education and Scientific Commission.
UNWTO	World Tourism Organisation
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America
WTTC	World Tourism and Travel Council
ZTA	Zambia Tourism Agency

CHAPTER ONE - INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This chapter is introductory and contextualises the study. It gives the background to the research problem and briefly shows why understanding the expected role and the nature of leadership of Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs) and other destination components from the view of the various tourism industry stakeholders are significant in contemporary destination systems modelling. A brief introduction shows the changes that have characterised the role of the DMO in recent years. Also, why the characterisation of tourism destinations and the problems they face should be viewed from the complexity view as opposed to the traditional reductionist approaches. The recent views on the role of DMOs and the open questions in both literature and practice are summarised, followed by the shifts in the case of Zambia and the gap in extant knowledge that present the problem this study is addressing. The need for developing a technical account of the expected role and the nature of destination leadership of the DMO and other destination components as perceived by the various tourism industry stakeholders in Zambia are outlined and justified. The research aim, research objectives, research questions, research assumptions, scope and significance of study are also outlined.

1.2. Background to the Study

Worldwide, tourism is rising as an important economic sector (Prideaux and Cooper, 2002) and is now a major category of international trade in services, representing not less than seven per cent of the world's exports in goods and services (World Tourism Organisation, 2014; World Travel and Tourism Council, 2018). For example, in 2018 international tourism (international tourism receipts and passenger transport) generated 1.7 trillion US Dollars, representing twenty-nine percent (29%) of the world's services exports. Between 2000 and 2018, international tourist arrivals increased from 697 million to 1.4 billion by 2018, and are estimated to reach 1.8 billion by 2030 (World Tourism Organisation, 2019). Additionally, tourism destinations have emerged as the largest travel brands in the world of marketing (Morgan *et al.*, 2002; Pike, 2016).

In order to enhance and sustain the competitiveness, growth and profitability of these destinations and travel brands, in recent decades, places and governments, establish and fund Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs), among others (Pike, 2004; Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016). Since the first DMO was established in 1901 in New Zealand, the DMOs have grown to be a regular and prominent feature in destination systems (Pike, 2004; World Tourism Organisation, 2011; Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016). The DMOs take different forms such as ‘Tourism Board’, ‘Tourism Agency’ and ‘Visitors Bureau’, and can be assigned to three different levels: at a national level (National Tourism Organisation or Authority or Agency), regional level (Regional Tourism Organisation) and on local level (World Tourism Organisation, 2002). In the case of Zambia, the DMO is the Zambia Tourism Agency (ZTA), which is operating as a quasi-government entity at national level (The Tourism and Hospitality Act Number 13 of 2015, 2015).

Traditionally, DMOs from their early establishment were oriented to destination promotion (Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016). Eventually they evolved into full-fledged marketing entities focusing on marketing. This became the germane of the current destination marketing paradigm that is distinct from its antecedent, tourism marketing (Wang and Pizam, 2011; Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016).

However, in both practice and literature, the purpose and legitimacy of this traditional monolithic and universal DMO archetype focused on marketing is now being questioned, and both practice and literature is calling for DMOs’ shift towards organisations that lead the way in destination ‘experiential systems’ (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; World Tourism Organisation, 2015; Pike, 2016). The World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) observes that “though DMOs have typically undertaken marketing activities, their remit is becoming far broader, to become a strategic leader in destination development” (World Tourism Organisation, 2015). In recent years the World Tourism Organisation (2019) has defined a DMO purpose as “the leading organizational entity which facilitates partnerships with various authorities, stakeholders, and professionals to achieve a unified mission towards a destination’s vision”. This is a departure from its earlier view of a DMO fixated on marketing and management during the late 1990s and first decade of 2000s,

defined then as “those organisations which are responsible for management and / or marketing of individual tourist destinations” (World Tourism Organisation, 2004). Similarly, several other authors such as Hristov and Petrova (2015) and Hristov *et al.* (2020) note that the contemporary role of DMOs is expanding beyond the traditional destination marketing “towards assuming greater management and even leadership role”. Also, in tourism policy discourses it is argued that there are shifts in the “function, responsibilities and structures of DMOs” (Hristov and Petrova, 2015). Policy discourses are calling for reconsideration of not only existing approaches to policy development in destinations but also the role of the DMO in the strategic agenda of policy (Hristov and Petrova, 2015). Others are questioning the very existence and future of DMOs (Nagai *et al.*, 2018). Relying on evidence from mature destinations, such as New Zealand and the United Kingdom where DMOs have been subsumed into broader economic development agencies (Pearce, 2015; Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Pike, 2016), some scholars have questioned whether DMOs are redundant (Dredge, 2016) or even dead (Hall and Veer, 2016). However, contrary to this notion of demise, there is also a growing body of literature which view these shifts as not the extinction of DMOs but rather as an opportunity for academics to innovatively think of how, going forward, the DMO will survive and to what end (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016; Hristov *et al.*, 2020). The argument is that these shifts provide opportunities for new DMO business models beyond the traditional management and marketing, which hitherto have been the only ones associated with the DMO rationale and policy agenda (Hristov *et al.*, 2020).

In view of the above discourses, going forward, it has become necessary to recognise the changes / evolutions taking place in destinations (Hristov *et al.*, 2020). This includes the organisation of destinations and role of DMOs if they are to survive and retain their relevancy in any current and / or future destination modelling (Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Hristov *et al.*, 2020). Second, the current and future agenda for academia, practice and policy regarding the afore-mentioned should include recognising and responding to emerging challenges documented in literature, including the following:

- (a) DMOs “will soon no longer exist in their current form” ... “so now is an opportune time for tourism academics to engage in innovative thinking about the future of these entities” (Pike, 2016).
- (b) National Tourism Organisations “are increasingly shifting to organizations with a broader mandate beyond the traditional boundaries of marketing and promotion boards” (World Tourism Organisation, 2019).
- (c) “Both academia and practice beyond the case of England are also signalling this major shift into the modus operandi of DMOs (Hristov and Zehrer, 2019).
- (d) “This shifting landscape questions the long-term sustainability of reshaped, yet financially-constrained DMOs facing severe challenges to deliver value to destinations, visitors and member organisations” (Hristov and Zehrer, 2019).
- (e) “Shifts in DMO governance and funding provide opportunities for the introduction of new models with a focus beyond traditional management and marketing to enable DMOs to flourish within this new landscape” (Hristov *et al.*, 2020).

However, despite the above-mentioned calls, suggested shifts and evolutions found in theory, literature notes that the general structure and core activities of many DMOs across the world have by and large remained the same for decades now, including Zambia (Pike, 2016; The Tourism and Hospitality Act Number 13 of 2015, 2015; The Zambia Tourism Policy, 2015). Secondly, literature has touted various and at times enigmatic views on the factors causing these changes in the role and / or expected role of the DMO and other components in the destination system (Pike and Page, 2014; Hristov and Petrova, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Hristov *et al.*, 2020). Third, “the extant literature in the tourism domain appears to provide little insight on how to deal with tourism-specific contingencies when developing new or managing existing business models” (Reinhold *et al.*, 2017). Fourth, literature that has argued for the shift in the role of the DMO has been enigmatic on both the direction and what the new role of the DMO is and / or will become. Others have argued for retention of the marketing rationale; others a radical change to another paradigm, such as destination management; and others for a combination but increased role towards new paradigms, such as destination leadership and destination governance (Wang and Pizam, 2011; Morrison, 2013; Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015;

Hristov and Petrova, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020).

Combined, the above four remain open questions in both literature and practice, and have become the four-fold problem in recent years for policy and practice in several destinations, including Zambia (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Petrova, 2015; The Zambia Tourism Policy, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Ministry of Tourism and Arts, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020).

The above-mentioned shifts in the rationale of the DMO and open questions have become more pronounced in an era from the early 2000s. What is prominent in discourses during this era associated with these shifts has been the entry into mainstream destination literature and practice of new afore-mentioned paradigmatic views, namely: destination marketing; destination management; and more recently destination leadership and destination governance (Morrison, 2012; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020).

The evolution of the DMO rationale vis-à-vis the above four paradigms, as traced in mainstream destination literature post-2000 could generally be categorised in three major, somewhat overlapping epochs. When delineated for elaboration purposes, these epochs are as shown in Figure 1.1.. These evolutions could be said to be manifesting as an overlap of paradigms and a matter of continuum rather than complete abandonment of earliest paradigm of destination marketing DMO. Second, although the future remains uncertain on how the DMO and destination paradigms will evolve, what is apparent from extant literature is that all the four paradigms are relevant to the competitiveness and success of destinations, and the DMO is still considered to have a role in their performance (Amore and Hall, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020).

Destination marketing is considered to have been the first paradigmatic view to rise to prominence during the early 2000s, evolving from germane area of tourism marketing (Pike, 2016). During the late 1990s and early 2000s as the destination marketing paradigm

entered mainstream literature, the DMO was considered to be a “marketing” organisation, focussed on destination marketing in policy and practice (Pike, 2004; World Tourism Organisation, 2007). Destination management, just like destination marketing also became prominent in scholarly discourses from the early 2000s but as a much later paradigm (Morrison, 2012). At this stage, literature begun showing a divide among that arguing for DMO to be either a “destination management” or “destination marketing” organisation, or indeed both, depending on the choice of policy (World Tourism Organisation, 2014; Dredge, 2016).

Perhaps a clear divide emerged during from about 2015 to the current era, mainly between literature arguing for the retention of the DMO as “marketing organisation” (Pike, 2016) and those arguing that its original traditional rationale has evolved. In this regard, it must, therefore, give way for “destination management” organisation and / or other new paradigms (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020). Academics such as Ritchie and Crouch (2003), Wang and Pizam (2011), Morrison (2012), Reinhold *et al.* (2015) and Fair (2017) from the early 2000s have been arguing that overtime the role of DMOs has evolved and going forward emphasis should be placed on destination management, and that both destination marketing and destination management are roles and functions of the DMO. The key argument in this view is that the environment has substantially changed from the first conceptualisation of DMOs and “the goals that DMOs have historically pursued now threaten their future relevance and even existence; as tourism continues to grow, DMOs must shift resources from marketing to management” (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Fair, 2017). In this view, literature advocates a transition of the nomenclature of the entity responsible for both from ‘Destination Marketing Organisation’ to ‘Destination Management Organisation’ (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003; Morrison, 2012) or to ‘Destination Marketing and Management Organisation’ (Wang and Pizam, 2011). The ‘Destination Management Organisation’ taxonomy has now found its way, entrenching itself in several academic discourses and normative prescriptions as a popular and regular feature.

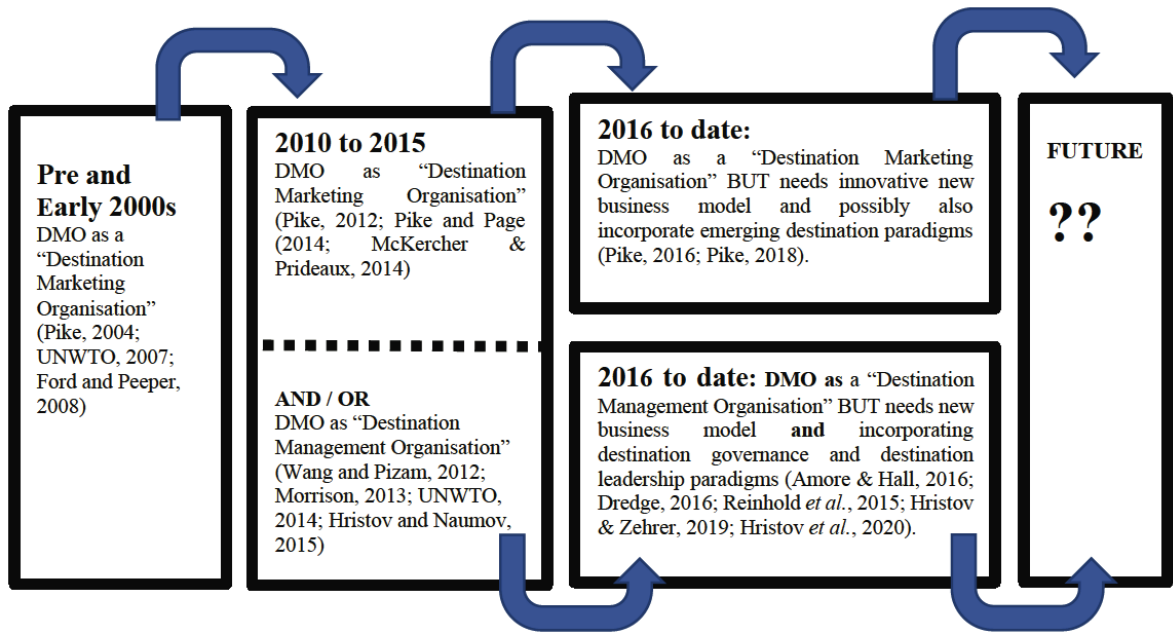


Figure 1.1. Evolution of DMO Rationale and Destination Paradigms.

Second is the view of scholars such as Pike and Page (2014) and Pike (2016; 2018) who view that the above notion of DMO becoming a “management organisation” is an anomaly. This strand of literature views that DMOs must continue to focus on the old established role, which has now evolved into destination marketing; while destination management should be left to government departments, government ministries, conservation groups, developers and private sector umbrella lobby organisations (Pike, 2016; Pike, 2018). In this view, its advocates argue against the taxonomy of ‘Destination Management Organisation’ which has lately entered academic discourses (Pike, 2012; Pike and Page, 2014). They argue that “using the term ‘Destination Management Organisation’ as a generic descriptor is unhelpful in adding clarity and purpose to the discussion of Destination Marketing Organisations’ role because it confuses perceived need for management with the largely marketing function they actually undertake”. Further that, it is argued that “whilst academics may create terms and offer an oversight of the problems facing destinations and the need for management, allocating their resolution to DMOs as management is clearly a different scope for a DMO” (Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016). Subsidiary to this strand is the suggestion by some of its advocates that there is also a fundamental challenge in the application of principles of marketing in destination marketing and that the functioning of the DMO “requires a

fundamental rethink and for us to focus on the underlying principles of marketing and how these are applied at a destination level” (Pike and Page, 2014). According to this view, the general marketing theories where destination marketing is rooted are evolving and simultaneously tourism marketing is also growing. It is argued that this may require re-invention of marketing theory for current and future relevancy to emerging marketing paradigms like destination marketing (Li and Petrick, 2007).

However, it is worth noting that while arguing for the retention of the “destination marketing’ rationale of DMOs, this strand of literature still acknowledges the need for an innovative way of charting the contemporary and future course for the DMO and its business model(s) (Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016). This strand of literature also acknowledges the changes that have occurred in both the operating environment and the conceptualisation of destinations and their organisation, especially post-2000. Pike (2012) and Pike (2016) stress that: “The travel industry operates in a macro environment, over which the DMO has no control, featuring continuous discontinuous change; where change is increasingly in the form of forced disruption rather than incremental improvements, and DMOs are not immune to the effects of this phenomena”.

Auxiliary to the above two views, are minor and diminished views which enthused from the academics’ debate on the changing role of DMOs. Such include the argument by some scholars that since the elements of the promotional mix in the marketing mix are the only ones that the DMOs can exert direct control (Pike, 2016), then in the course of the nomenclature debate, the DMO taxonomies adopted should reflect it. Such views include propositions that DMOs might suffice to be ‘Destination Communication Organisations’ (Laesser and Beritelli, 2015) or Destination Promotion Organisations (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003). However, these views have not grown substantially to gain prominence as recurring and prominent themes in contemporary published literature and professional practice.

The third and most recent view is that being espoused by scholars arguing for entry of the most recent paradigms of destination governance and destination leadership, and ascribing

these roles to DMOs. While in scholarly debates on what the “M” should stand for in the DMO rationale remains an open question (Pike and Page, 2014; Pearce, 2015; Reinhold *et al.*, 2019; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021), some recent discourses suggest that whatever the “M” is or will be in DMOs, their role should incorporate destination governance and / or destination leadership (Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Amore and Hall, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020). They argue that DMOs and the general conceptualisations of destinations must recognise that DMOs are better poised to extend their role to include destination governance and destination leadership (Zehrer, 2014; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Hristov *et al.*, 2020). This view appears to originate from scholars looking for solutions to the numerous problems facing destinations in contemporary tourism and the changes taking place (Pike, 2016). This view implies a continuous evolution of DMO, and if need be, redefining its role to suit the changes taking place in the world of tourism and the contemporary paradigms at play in destinations at a particular time. Currently, as already indicated, the four paradigms under discussion in destination organisation and management are the destination marketing, management, governance and leadership paradigms.

The above scenario notwithstanding, there appears congruency in destination discourses worldwide in acknowledging that since their early establishment, the DMOs’ expected role has to some extent changed among the various stakeholders, and that both the tourism industry itself and the literature on it have evolved substantially over years (Pike and Page, 2014; Wang, 2014; Pike, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020). It is argued that this is altering or ought to be altering the policy environment in destinations (Hristov and Zehrer, 2015). The various streams of the above discussions acknowledge the shift in the role and / or expected role of DMOs and on the need to reconsider the hitherto traditional archetypal DMO and its business model (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016; Hristov *et al.*, 2020).

Against the above backdrop, the discussions around the role of DMOs and their future have attracted three broad open questions in contemporary scholarly works, professional practice and policy, which form the base for the conceptualisation of this study, namely: (a) the purpose and legitimacy of DMOs among the various tourism industry stakeholders

in view of the changing environment and shifting paradigms in the conceptualisation of tourism destinations (Wang, 2011; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016; Hristov *et al.*, 2020); (b) the extent the DMOs typifies destination marketing, destination management or other paradigms in contemporary destination modelling (Wang and Pizam, 2011; Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019); and (c) the right destination organisation and governance approaches in view of the changing paradigms, disintegration of traditional approaches and rising polycentrism in destination governance systems and their modelling (Baggio, 2013; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016; Jakulin, 2016).

Although there have been several attempts by academia, professional practice and policy to respond to the above questions, the definition of the role and legitimacy of the traditional DMO and the general organisation and governance approaches of destinations in discourses have remained difficult and multifarious. In the course of debate, two extreme disparate views have emerged in academic thinking as central themes in several parts of the world regarding the role of DMOs in the changing environment vis-à-vis destination marketing and destination management paradigms, as aforementioned and shown in Figure 1.1. These in turn, have had influence on the DMO business models, destination organisation and destination governance structures being adopted in practice and policy by destination marketers and political decision-makers in many destinations, Zambia inclusive (World Tourism Organisation, 2019).

The above-mentioned shifts and destination behaviour have been accounted for and explained variously in academic discourses. Equally, practice and policy approaches have been varied and inconclusive. Some of the common discourses permeating in theory and practice are highlighted below.

Perhaps more common, and underlying the above-mentioned questionings and shifting are deeper philosophical questions about the organisation of tourism in destinations and the very ontological foundation for DMO theorising that dominated priori literature as suggested by some scholars (Dredge, 2016). Some literary discourses now argue that the discussion of DMOs ought to move away from the mid-level social theorisations based on the industrial organisation of tourism that have hitherto dominated theory, practice and

policy (Bevin, 2013; Dredge, 2016). It is argued that the role of the DMO and discussions around the organisation of tourism in destinations must move towards a meta-level theoretical debate (Dredge, 2016). Sociologists contextualise this post-1990 era as late or reflexive or liquid modernity (Beck *et al.*, 1994; Giddens, 1999). This view posits a post-structural, late modernity DMO, responsive to the issues emerging as a result of structural changes in tourism imposed by the broader post-structural liquid world under late modernity (Dredge, 2016). According to this view, going forward, the challenge is for professional practice and academics to look deeply into the broader structural and political shifts that are taking place in society and are impacting tourism and its organisation (Dredge, 2016). It is argued that under such circumstances, the traditional DMO business model cannot hold, and if anything, it only puts the DMO on a track to its redundancy in the face of a range of societal changes. Instead, it is suggested that any proposed business model should be an outcome of “deeper philosophical questions about the organisation of tourism” and confronting “the ontological blind-spots inherent in adopting DMOs as a solution to organise tourism” (Dredge, 2016).

Scholars such as Riley and Szivas (2006) as far back as early the 2000s brought an interesting slant to the discussion in relation to the above. Their view questioned the background of the philosophical orientations adopted in approaches that are used in the study of the tourism phenomenon. They argued that together with globalisation of tourism, has also been the rise in the globalisation of how tourism is studied at a theoretical level. Most of these studies have tended to ignore the fact that geography and language still influenced philosophical traditions, and this is materially important in the study of tourism. The crux of the argument is that Anglo-Saxon philosophical approaches to tourism studies have been somewhat different from that of the German- and Spanish-speaking countries. This strand of literary discussions posit that even if the globalisation of tourism knowledge is desirable and strengthens the credibility of tourism as a discipline, it has been hitherto a problem. This is because while the globalisation of knowledge should be preceded with bringing together the body of knowledge which adopts philosophies and ideas across the divide, it does not seem to have been the case in the study of tourism (Riley and Szivas, 2006).

From the early 2000s, similar debates have also permeated into and amplified the questioning of two parallel paradigms in destination academic and professional practice discourses, namely: destination management and destination governance. Historically, these two are rooted in the industrial tourism tradition. Consequently, in academic discourses they have been approached from the view of enhancing tourism industry outcomes. However, the argument now is that since there have been significant changes in both practice and theory regarding the DMO and the organisation of tourism in destinations over the last four decades, it has become necessary to re-look at their very theoretic and ontological foundations. As regards destination management, there are calls to reconsider the traditional views which posits the core problems of destination management as being situated within the domain of relationships “predominantly between government and industry” in pursuit of tourism industry organisation (Dredge, 2016). According to Dredge (2016), under the industrial paradigm, destination management is cast as a set of relationships considered under their pursuit of “industry organisation, development, productivity and profit”. The call now is for the realisation that the activities or elements of destination organisation are without solid organisational boundaries and hence in their consideration there is need to use a holistic approach. Such approach also recognises the social constructions of destination management actors or indeed the DMO as a policy tool. In this regard, it situates the problems “beyond industry coordination problem” (Dredge, 2016).

Side by side with the above discussions, and before the questions that surround the organisation of destinations and the roles and functions of the destination components in destination systems are fully resolved in practice and policy, recent academic discourses begun fronting and fueling debate on the other two destination paradigms. These are the destination governance and destination leadership paradigms (Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021). These two, especially destination leadership, have not been researched enough yet (Hristov and Zehrer, 2015). But some academics have tentatively concluded that these roles are important and that in terms of responsibility, the DMOs are better poised to undertake them as well. Alternatively it is

suggested that there is need for a complete redefinition of the role of the DMO to include a focus on these paradigms (Vlogger and Pechlaner, 2014; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Hristov *et al.*, 2020). In the case of destination leadership, while being acknowledged that it is still an emerging concept, it is nonetheless suggested that it could still fall within what a contemporary DMO should do or can possibly do (Blichfeldt *et al.*, 2014; Hristov *et al.*, 2020). This appears to be adding to the uncertainty in practice and at policy level on how, going forward, the organisation of destinations and the roles and functioning of DMOs and other components in the destination will look like (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015).

Juxtaposed within the above discussions of destination management and destination marketing paradigms vis-à-vis DMOs and the organisation of destinations is the growing interest in tourism studies on destination meta-governance in the governance of destinations and role of DMOs (Dredge, 2016; Amore and Hall, 2016; Hartman, 2020; Adie and Amore, 2020; Becken and Loehr, 2022). Writers on destination governance are now arguing that perceived failures of traditional governance approaches in destinations is reinforcing the relevancy of meta-governance as opposed to prior tourism studies that have tended to be a “study of the political dimension of tourism governance and the role of the state under the traditional parallelism between government and governance” (Amore and Hall, 2016). It is argued that “governance mechanisms are not value-neutral” and “how governance is itself governed enables a better understanding of the practices of planning and policy-making affecting tourism and destinations” (Amore and Hall, 2016). From the foregoing, the four paradigmatic views that have emerged in academic discourses post-2000, and that to some extent have found their way into professional practice and policy are: destination marketing; destination management; destination governance; and destination leadership. These paradigms are considered important for the growth, competitiveness, profitability and sustainability of destinations and summarised as in Figure 1.2.. However, they have posed a challenge in practice and policy environment regarding the organisation of destinations and the role of the DMOs and that of other stakeholders. In literature the traditionally held views on the role of the DMO and their business models that have been used for decades in destinations are now under question on their veracity to hold in the contemporary world of tourism. At the same time

literature has not been conclusive in resolving the enigma of how these paradigms fit into the business models of DMOs considering the changes taking place in destinations and the overall organisation of contemporary destinations. The debates in both practice and academics are ongoing without a clear-cut way forward (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Petrova, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Hristov *et al.*, 2020).

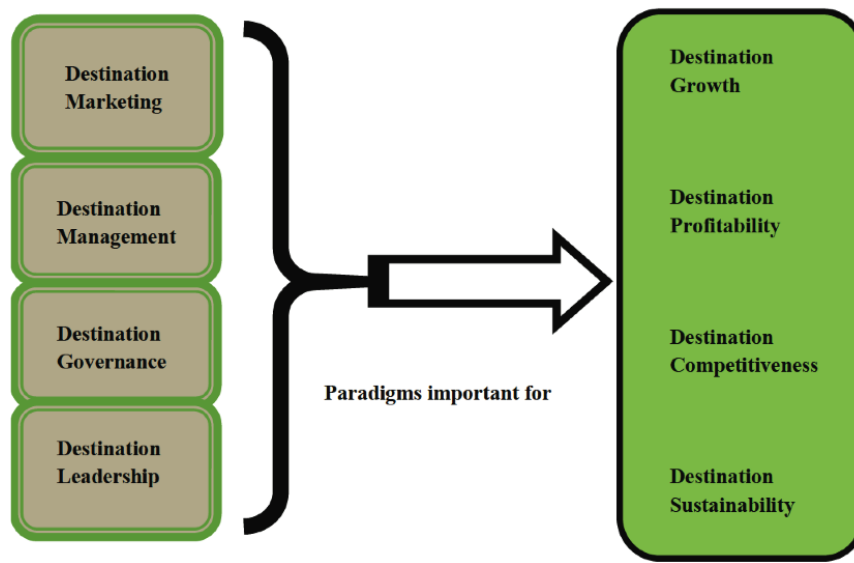


Figure 1.2. Four Destination Paradigms in Contemporary Tourism Systems (Wang and Pizam, 2011; Morrison, 2012; Pike and Page, 2014; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Reinhold et al, 2015; Amore and Hall, 2016; Pike, 2016; Hristov *et al.*, 2020)

As regards the causally linkages of the afore-mentioned emergence of new destination paradigms and destination challenges vis-à-vis shifting role of the DMO, some academics consider the locale for the above discussions to be the recent transcendental economic, political, technological and social developments at a broader level that are impacting on tourism, conceptualisation of destinations, locus of control and power in destinations (Dredge, 2016). Additionally, and incidental to this, from the academic perspectives, it is viewed that the ontological foundations that dominated research are also disintegrating under the late modernity paradigm. The propositions of research approached from these late modernity traditions are finding their way into tourism professional practice and policy. To contextualise, these external structural influences attributed to impacting the

DMOs, their organisation and the destinations as documented in general are as outlined below.

- (a) The last four decades have seen major realignment in the state – industry relations. There has been a general movement away from the “solid, hierarchical, command-and-control structures and actions of governments under modernity, towards a period of liquid or late modernity” (Bauman, 2000; Dredge, 2016). In tourism the shifts towards fluid structures and the processes of de-industrialization have, among others, challenged the framing of DMO that for years underlined the conceptualisation of the organisation of tourism destinations and the DMOs itself (Dredge, 2016).
- (b) The changing economic environment manifest as economic restructuring, with attendant economic, social and political impacts in countries. In tourism, at policy level these changes are pushing policy-makers into reconsidering the structure and funding models of DMOs. Such policy shifts include government budget cuts as governments refocus their priorities (Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold, Laesser and Beritelli, 2015; Pike, 2016). In addition, there is a growing trend in tourism towards neoliberal traditions that postulate a decline in state power and also arguments for public-private partnerships as prescription for successful and competitive destinations (Bornhorst *et al.*, 2010; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Dredge, 2016).
- (c) The technological advances and growth of information channels are redefining the market-failures the traditional DMOs once addressed, such as marketing communication and its mix (Pike, 2012; Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2018). The general industrial structure of tourism has substantially changed with advances in technology. The complexity arising from the disintegration of traditional supply chains and marketing communication tools and channels are said to be challenging the deeply embedded applied ontology of DMOs (Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016).
- (d) There have been changes in tourist tastes and also in the conceptualisation of tourism as a product. Over the years, there has been a shift in elements of social, economic and technological factors that have in turn influenced tourism consumer behaviour. Such change includes increased preference for environmentally sustainable tourism products (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015).

Perhaps more fundamental are shifts in the general conceptualisation of destination towards tourism destinations as ‘experiential systems’. Destinations can now be considered to be about both outputs for the consumer and at the same time act as input to other industries (other systems). The discourses on the tourism industry must now also account for the interactions and influences of many externalities inherent in these systems (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015).

The ontological foundations in the definition of tourism destinations that dominated research and practice are changing. Theory is arguing that a destination must be considered as a market-oriented productive and multifaceted system. This is a departure from *priori* views which considered destinations as an ‘amalgam’ of products and services as once postulated by Buhalis (2000). The ‘amalgam’ view took the institutional and supply perspective; neglecting the demand side in its consequences on processes and outcomes of service production (Beritelli *et al.*, 2015). It is now argued that in considering destination productivity, the industry and consumption domains cannot be separated because “productivity in the system is the ‘sum’ of both industry and consumption productivities resulting from co-creation” (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015).

- (e) Partly incidental to the above is the increase in heterogeneous stakeholders involved in the destinations. Destinations are now made up of “entities comprised of multiple products offering diverse experience” (Buhalis, 2000; Hristov and Naumov, 2015), as opposed to the earlier conceptualisation of destinations as packages of facilities and services (Hu and Ritchie, 1993). From the early 2000s, tourism has seen unprecedented global shifts towards being a global phenomenon, impacting destination management in so many ways, including increase in the variety of stakeholders.
- (f) Perceived failures of traditional governance systems, as demonstrated by the global financial crisis of the early 2000s that had spiral effects in several sectors, including travel and tourism (Amore and Hall, 2016). This is considered to be worsening by the increased disruptions and volatility of destinations in responding to externalities in the macro level operating environment (Pike, 2012; Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016).

As Pike (2018) argues “change is increasingly in the form of forced disruptions rather than incremental improvements” and that it is timely for academics “to consider how innovations will shape DMOs in an increasingly uncertain future”. The outbreak of the coronavirus (Covid-19) pandemic, starting with China during the first quarter of 2020 has laid bare such susceptibility and volatile disruption of destinations in the contemporary world of travel and tourism. The coronavirus pandemic has not just spread across the globe in a short space of time but also disrupted the travel and tourism industry globally and it is fundamentally challenging existing destination governance and organisational systems of destinations. The major strategic postures for many destinations are in disarray and going by these academic arguments, only robust and resilient destination systems will spur destinations to rebound, at least within the foreseeable horizon.

In terms of tourism public policy vis-à-vis the preceding DMO discussions, DMOs operate within a given regulatory and business environment driven by public tourism policy of a given destination (World Tourism Organisation, 2019). The definition of the DMO role is derived from such policy, and therefore the aforementioned open questions in destinations could be viewed in the context of policy environment of destinations. Additionally, the World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) through several recommendation and declarations acknowledges tourism policy as important for competitiveness of destinations. As an instrument of governance, tourism policy “provide the framework conditions for the tourism sector to thrive within a certain governance context” (World Tourism Organisation, 2019). It follows that the DMO rationale ascribed to it in a given destination is a subject of policy and legislation frameworks, plausibly incorporating a combination of three main policy categories as highlighted below.

The three important policy areas in the discussions of tourism and conceptualisations of destinations and their policy requirements, as shown in Figure 1.3., are: (a) tourism industry and destination organisation policies to maintain and enhance the destination; (b) marketing policies for market enhancement; and (c) product development and enhancement policies (Dredge, 2016). At destination level, policies considered to address market failures include those of the organisation of the tourism industry, stakeholder

relations, productivity and tourism resource management. The DMO, tourism industries and suppliers organisation in the tourism value chain operate in a given regulatory framework and a business environment falling under the first category of policies. This is the policy area forming the subject of the preceding discussion and the current study, namely the DMO and organisation of the destination with its stakeholders. This policy area can be contrasted with the other two clusters of policies that address marketing, which are the market enhancement policies and the product enhancement policies that address product development and investment attractions (Dredge, 2016; World Tourism Organisation, 2019).

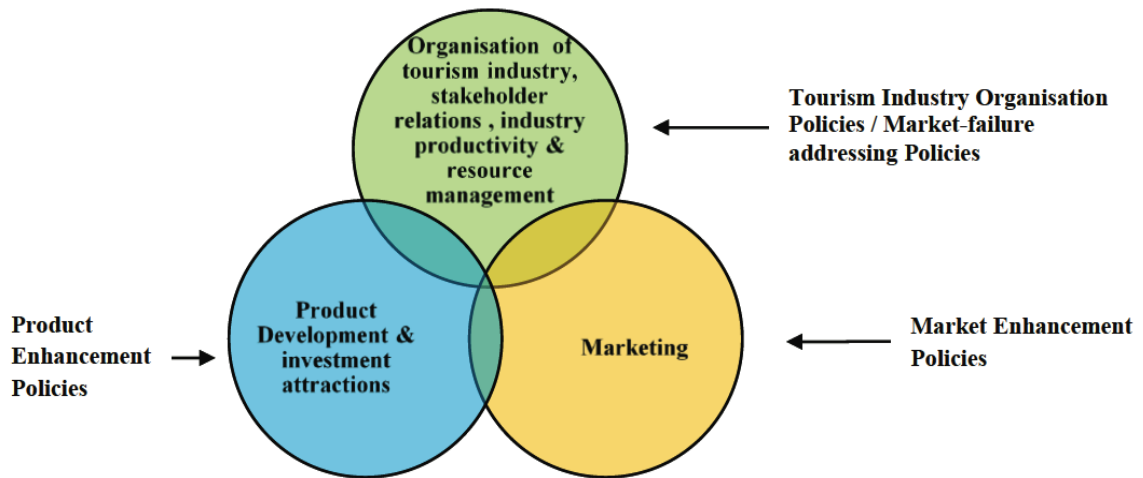


Figure 1.3: Destination Public Policy Category Clusters (Dredge, 2016; World Tourism Organisation, 2019).

In policy and professional practice vis-à-vis the afore-mentioned three policy areas, the response by some mature destinations of Europe and America has been varied and it still remains debatable. What is appearing to be the trend in their policy environment is: (a) redefining the role of DMOs to be that of stimulating broader economic and social benefits through the economic rationalization agenda. As a result, DMOs are being subsumed into broader economic agencies through legislation, like the recent case of the United Kingdom (UK) and Italy (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Pike, 2016; Hristov *et al.*, 2020); (b) policy changing towards more and more public sector withdrawal and “adopting more commercial, yet inclusive approach to destinations” which brings together the public sector, private sector and local communities (Kozak and Baloglu, 2011; Hristov

and Zehrer, 2015); and (c) adopting more fluid and market-driven DMOs, which are redefined in some destinations such as England as ‘Destination Management Organisations’ as the case in the 2011 Government Tourism Policy (Hristov and Naumov, 2015).

Some scholars consider the above to be partly driven by the broader changes in the dominant political ideologies underpinning public policy development and implementation (Hristov and Petrova, 2015). In the case of tourism, governments have traditionally been playing key roles in policy and its implementation (Dredge and Jenkins, 2007; Hall, 2011). According to some scholars, the renewed neo liberalism dominance is now driving policies towards corporatist philosophies, characterised by decreasing role of the state and reshaping the roles of the DMO and other stakeholders in destinations to suit this paradigm (Dredge, 2010; Hristov and Petrova, 2015).

In the case of emerging destinations of Sub Saharan African, the catch-up response to the debate has manifested itself in policy decisions through the expansion of mandates of hitherto marketing entities to include destination strategic management and destination development activities. These seem to be derived from one or a blend of literature from advanced destinations, normative prescriptions of the World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) and also from the “constant state of evolution as political decision-makers rethink their role” (Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2018). The influence of broader changes in the political ideologies for public policy development and implementation cannot be ruled out. Most of the emerging destinations have also been going through transformations in the economic and political agenda; including rationalisation of economies while at the same time recognising tourism as a key economic sector (Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018; World Tourism Organisation, 2019).

Zambia is an emerging tourism destination (Zambia Tourism Agency, 2007; World Bank, 2010; World Travel and Tourism Council, 2018; Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018) and tourism gained acceptance as a major social economic development and investment tool during the mid-1990s (The Zambia Tourism Policy, 2015; Zambia

Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018). Typical of emerging destinations, now both the government and tourism host communities in major tourism destinations within Zambia hope to leverage tourism for social economic benefits (Esu and Ebithu, 2010; The Zambia Tourism Policy, 2015; Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018).

However, Zambia as a destination is laden with persistent problems in the legislative and policy operating environment. The various tourism industry stakeholders have raised concerns on the non-responsive policy environment amidst changes in the expectations of the DMO rationale among them (Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018). In the recent past, several attempts have been made to define and streamline the organisation and the roles of the DMO and other stakeholders in the industry to match the changes in the destination. These policy / legislation changes have been too regular and at the same time do not seem to have fully responded to the core problem(s) around the role(s) of the DMO, roles of stakeholders, destination organisation and the general structure of the industry. This has not been helped by the persistent open questions that still exist in literature discourses and some normative prescriptions (Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018). Literary discourses have argued that it is “incumbent upon academics and practitioners to engage more deeply in the broader structure and policy shifts taking place in society in order to rethink the organisation of tourism” (Dredge, 2016). The view is been that the subsisting DMO situation is an opportunity for academics to innovatively chart the future course of the DMO (Pike, 2018).

At policy level, from 1996 when tourism was identified as a key economic sector in Zambia from a social one, the tourism sector has been approached from the industrial framework perspective, which views the worth of tourism as that of economic development, including acting as an employment and investment tool. In this view, the challenge of policy is to grow tourism markets, investments and other attendant benefits such as generation of jobs in the destination (Zambia Tourism Policy, 2015; Dredge, 2016; Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018). The DMO is, therefore, viewed as a policy tool or organisational instrument that is deployed to lead destination marketing and / or manage industry interests in a destination (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003; Morrison, 2003;

Pike and Page, 2014). Resultantly, in the case of Zambia, the DMO has been locked in this industrial policy paradigm through various policy thrusts, albeit pursued under different blends and outfits over the years. Under this paradigm, the DMO is considered as one of the policy tools for the wider tourism industry interests in the tourism industrial system at destination level; although at times fluctuated by policy shifts between leading destination marketing or coordinating and managing industry interests of the destination (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003; Wang and Pizam, 2011; Morrison, 2012; Page and Pike, 2014; The Tourism and Hospitality Act Number 13, 2015; Dredge, 2016). The above view is now being challenged by both practice and literature. It is considered as no longer tenable going forward, if not now, considering the various changes taking place in the operational environment (Dredge, 2016; Tourism Council of Zambia, 2019).

From 2006, a number of reforms have been put in place in response to, among others, the need to streamline and make clear the role of the DMO and that of other stakeholders in the destination system in the functions of destination marketing and destination management, and other emerging issues in destination system modelling. These changes include: (a) Repeal of The Zambia Tourism Board Act Number 24 of 2007 and The Tourism and Hospitality Act Number 23 of 2007 through The Tourism and Hospitality Act Number 13 of 2015; (b) Review of policy through the Zambia Tourism Policy, 2015; (c) Statutory Instrument Number 14 of 2018 to commence and assign the grading and standards function to the DMO; and (d) development of the Zambia Tourism Master Plan for the years 2018 to 2038 in 2018.

The Tourism and Hospitality Act Number 13 of 2015, among others, transfers the regulatory functions (licensing and grading) from the Department of Tourism in the Ministry of Tourism and Arts to ZTA. These functions are in addition to the marketing function already assigned to ZTA. Additionally, this Act provides for a tourism bed levy and establishment of a dedicated Tourism Development Fund (TDF) for managing the proceeds of the levy for tourism training, product development and destination marketing (Tourism and Hospitality Act Number 13 of 2015; Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 to

2038, 2018). Table 1.1 shows the highlights of the major policy and legislation changes from 1996 to date.

Table 1.1: Major Policy and Legislation Events 1996 to date.

Year / Period	Event	Effect on DMO and destination organisation
1996	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tourism reclassified as an economic sector from social 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • DMO converted into policy tool for industrial interests.
1997	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Development of the first tourism policy for the country, the Zambia Tourism Policy of 1997. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • DMO fixated on destination marketing. • Product development and regulation assigned to the ministry responsible for tourism
1998	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Zambia Wildlife Act Number 12 of 1998. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Product development side altered, with ramifications on DMO, stakeholders and tourism industry organisation (Zambia's tourism product is mainly wildlife and nature based).
2005	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2005 Zambia Tourism Policy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • DMO reinforced as destination marketing entity, fixated on marketing on behalf of the government.
2007	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review of legislation – Zambia National Tourist Board Act to two pieces of legislation, the Hospitality and Tourism Act Number 26 of 2007 and the Zambia Tourism Board Act Number 27 of 2007. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Functions of product development, licensing, standards and grading transferred to the ministry responsible for tourism • Function of DMO restricted to destination marketing through legislation. • Tourism Council of Zambia (a private voluntary membership organisation) recognised by legislation.

Table 1.1: Major Policy and Legislation Events 1996 to date continued.

Year / Period	Events	Effect on DMO and destination organisation
2011 to 2015	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Three realignments of ministry and transfer of tourism function to Ministries responsible for information, foreign affairs and tourism. • Some quasi government responsible for tourism products and assets entities hitherto under tourism moved to other ministries, such as to ministry responsible for chiefs and traditional affairs. • Zambia Wildlife Authority (ZAWA) abolished and functions transferred to the ministry responsible for tourism. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unstable policy and organisation environment for the DMO and tourism industry stakeholders. • Detachment and separation of key tourism product and assets affecting tourism industry stakeholder organisation and coordination.
2015	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review of the Zambia Tourism Policy. • Review of the Tourism and Hospitality Act and the Zambia Tourism Board Act to create the Zambia Tourism and Hospitality Act Number 13 of 2015. • Creation of Tourism Development Fund (levy) to fund destination marketing, development and training by legislation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reinforcing of DMO as destination marketing entity but undertaking other functions as delegated by the minister responsible for tourism. • Rising open questions on the role of the DMO. • Altered relationships and funding model in the destination among DMO, government and private sector operators because of the tourism levy introduced.
2018	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Development of the Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038. • Statutory instrument issued to commence implementation of the grading and standard system. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Product development outlined via master plan vis-à-vis marketing adjusted from one followed previously. • Redefinition of role in the destination system. • Different spatial areas identified. • Redefinition of destination vision and strategies for the destination, including DMO. • Altered relationships between the DMO and its stakeholders on the DMO assuming grading and standards function.

The above changes, among others, were intended to respond to the shifting expectations of the various tourism industry stakeholders. The need to respond to these ‘shifts’ have at times sprung up during policy discourses and reform processes, normatively (Ministry of Tourism, 2021). However, the above-mentioned changes have not resulted into change to the structure, core activities and even proportionately the budget of the DMO in Zambia. This is even during the successive reforms as afore-mentioned (Tourism Council of Zambia, 2020). Second, it has also not doused the debate among the various tourism industry stakeholders on the policy environment regarding: (a) the succinct definition of the role of the DMO in the contemporary destination system of Zambia; (b) the legitimacy or destination value to be derived from the DMO; (c) the definition of the contemporary and future role and nature of destination leadership of the Zambia Tourism Agency in the destination system; and (d) the suitability of the current DMO business model and organisational setup of the destination to respond to the changing environment and destination paradigms (Conservation Lower Zambezi, 2016; Zambia Tourism Agency, 2017; Tourism Council of Zambia, 2019). This scenario has made the legislative and policy environment to appear unstable and seem unpredictable among the various tourism industry stakeholders.

The afore-mentioned open questions on roles and nature of destination leadership among components and the regular policy changes now threaten the growth, competitiveness, profitability and sustainability of the tourism industrial destination system as a whole; at least from the industrial framework perspective. It should be noted that by and large, the destination governance system, organisation of the industry and role of components are derived from and driven by the policy environment in destinations. Therefore, a right destination governance system and clear role of organisations (components) through policy are imperatives in destinations (Pike and Page, 2014; Hristov and Naumov, 2015). Such ensuing policy environment must not suffer from ‘policy resistance’, which manifests itself as delayed, diluted or defeated policies from unanticipated reactions of the stakeholders and the destination system to the policy intervention itself (Sterman, 2000). Additionally, understanding the expected role of the DMO by the various tourism industry stakeholders has ramifications on the tourism destination system as a whole and is

important for both DMO business models and the general destination governance systems (Wang and Pizam, 2011; Pike, 2016). These ramifications stem from the following.

First, destinations are a multifaceted system of complimentary products that are specific to a destination (Faulkner, 1994; Castells, 2005; Beritelli *et al.*, 2014); destinations involve a large number of stakeholders with a shared brand image (Pike and Page, 2014) and there is a multiplicity of ventures in destinations offering heterogeneous products and services (Mazanec and Strasser, 2007). Therefore, destinations are jam-packed with different stakeholders and a variety of structures; each with varied interests and agenda. These varied interests manifest as social forces, including power and conflict. Within this fragmented whole are two fundamental components of the tourism industry, namely the structure and driving forces (Riley and Szivas, 2006). These social forces and heterogeneity of the supply side of destinations make them to exist in a state of flux. To conjure up a steady-state of a destination, especially on the supply side, is illusory. This amalgam of stakeholders creates persistent problems of relationships among components of the destination system on the supply side (Russel, 2009) and creating an optimal policy environment is a daunting task. However, in spite of the sub-optimal performance of policies, heterogeneity of destination structures and the social forces impacting on destinations, structured studies on the Destination Marketing Organisation and destination systems have not been regular in published literature (Riley and Szivas, 2006). Therefore, to understand the dynamics and problems of destinations, the perspective of the various stakeholders is important.

Second, though destinations compete against each other in markets, the DMOs as organisations are not the ones that compete per se; the actual delivery of the brand promise is done by its various stakeholders and therefore any DMO strategy would fail without them (Pike, 2005; Pike and Page, 2014). The DMO's success is dependent on the support of the various destination stakeholders (Wang and Pizam, 2011).

Third, within the destination, the role of the DMO and the performance of both destination marketing and destination management are considered necessary for growth, profitability,

competitiveness and sustainability of tourism destinations (Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016). In addition, the success of individual tourism ventures depends, to some extent, on the competitiveness of destinations as a whole (Pike and Page, 2014) and the leadership of the amalgam of stakeholders within the industry (Leiper, 2008). The roles and nature of leadership in destinations are to a large extent driven by policy environment.

Fourth, in the case of Zambia, the DMO relies on government funding and / or other stakeholder contribution through annual grants, tourism taxes and fees (Pike, 2016; The Tourism and Hospitality Act Number 13 of 2015; Zambia Tourism Policy, 2015; Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018; Tourism Council of Zambia, 2019). Scholars envisage that going forward DMOs will be under pressure to achieve more with fewer resources; governments will increasingly be under pressure to justify public funding of DMOs as they rationalise economies and possibly eventual reduction or withdrawal of government funding as already experienced in some mature destinations (Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold, Laesser and Beritelli, 2015; Pike, 2016; Pike 2018). Similarly, in the case of Zambia, there has been significant reductions in annual budgetary allocation over years from ZMK 26 million in 2013 to ZMK 15 million by 2017 (Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018).

In terms of conceptualisation of destinations and DMOs, and their problem situations, the above factors combined, make the interactions in the tourism destination among its components and with the external environment to be multiple and complex. It can be viewed as a multifaceted system (Baggio, 2008), and structurally is a complex system, with the DMO and its various stakeholders as components or sub-systems. This view has evolved through various traditions. For now, typologically tourism destination systems can be considered as social systems, which, as Bryne (1998) argues, in such systems “causation” and “outcomes of the interactions may be the result of multiple causes which when combined may not necessarily be the sum of the separate effects”. With this characterisation, one way of viewing tourism destinations and the problems they face could be from both the complexity views as opposed to the traditional reductionist approach (Fennel, 2002; Faulkner and Russell, 2007). However, although this view has

been growing in theory discourses, still a lot of research in the field of tourism continues to be from reductionist approaches (Faulkner and Russel, 1997; McKercher, 1999; Sharbrook, 1999; McDonald, 2016). A reductionist approach views the world from the notion of duality as separated between nature and humans with an impersonal reality, devoid of human values associated with that nature (Carley and Christie, 2000). But at the most basic level, destination systems comprise of various stakeholders with their own values and perceptions; this creates inherent complexity within destination systems where causation is complex and they display-far-from equilibrium characteristics (Faulkner and Russel, 2007; McDonald, 2009). In addition to the underlying behaviours of destination system components and their relationships that result in unpredictable outcomes, components of internal influences, all components of destination systems are also impacted by both external and internal influences.

The above view goes beyond focus on environmental influences by inclusion of notions of self-referential and self-organisation of systems. This is characteristically typical complexity of the destination system (Bieger, 2004; Ermen and Gnoth, 2006). This characterisations make destination systems to be complex soft organisational or social systems with various subsystems that are goal oriented and have interactions, behaviour and activities among themselves (Jakulin, 2017). Components of tourism destination systems are connected to each other; are constantly influencing each other; and have cyclically interconnections that make them conceptually to be self-referential (Berger, 2004). 'Self-referential' system as adopted and developed by Bieger (2004) focuses on the components of the system and their internal relationships. This is in addition to environmental factors exerting influence on them at the same time, as conceptually recognised by systems thinking (Kozak and Andreu, 2006).

The Figure 1.4 is the conceptual diagram of the complexity of destination systems and its complexity, depicting the realm and locale of the afore-mentioned phenomena under discussion in this study. This could be conjectured from various literature that have discussed the composition, organisation, components and problems in destination systems (Leiper, 1979; Kozak and Andreu, 2006; Baggio, 2008; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Dredge,

2016; Hall and Veer, 2016; Munar, 2016; Jakulin, 2017; Nagai, Doering and Yashima, 2018). The supply-side, transit and demand side with their elements are all impacted by external and internal forces. The external influences arise from the factors and other systems outside the system. Such include the influence of globalisation, technological, social cultural, economic, political and a host of other systems. Internal influences are the intra-system influences that impact on the systems itself and the various components in it. These include the relationships of the components in the system and other internally generated influences. All these interactions are nonlinear. In addition to the external and internal influences, because of their complexity, complex systems also display novelty, self-referential or emergent characteristics. These characteristics conceptually make the destination system to be self-organising and it displays far-from- equilibrium characteristics. This complicates destinations, its organisation and the problems they face, especially in contemporary times characterised by, among others, economic uncertainties, fluidities, “mobility and the rapid growth technologies and collaborative cultures” (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Dredge, 2016; Hall and Veer, 2016; Munar, 2016; Nagai *et al.*, 2018).

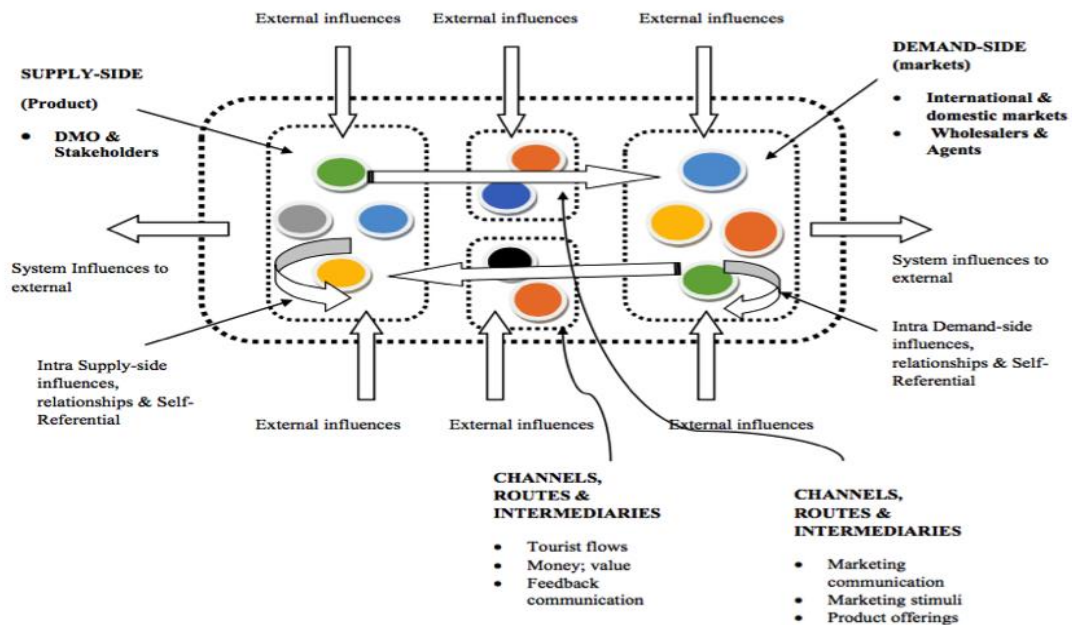


Figure 1.4: Conceptual Diagram of Destination as a Complex System (Leiper, 1979; Kozak and Andreu, 2006; Baggio, 2008; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Dredge, 2016; Hall and Veer, 2016; Munar, 2016; Jakulin, 2017; Nagai *et al.*, 2018).

1.3. Statement of the Problem

There is a problem at policy and practice levels in the tourism industry of Zambia regarding the definition of the role of the DMO, the Zambia Tourism Agency (ZTA), and the nature of destination leadership it should provide among the various tourism industry stakeholders. The purpose, structure, focus, rationale and justification underpinning the Zambia Tourism Agency (ZTA) and its efficaciousness in the destination in its current form is under question by the various tourism industry stakeholders, including policy decision-makers and supply-side operators (Ministry of Tourism, 2015; Conservation Lower Zambezi, 2016; Zambia Tourism Agency, 2017; Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018; Tourism Council of Zambia, 2019). Despite undertaking several policy and legislation reforms from the 1990s, there are still open questions from the various tourism industry stakeholders regarding: (a) the actual definition of the purpose, leadership and legitimacy of the contemporary DMO and other destination components in the destination system; (b) the role of the contemporary DMO in destination marketing, destination management, destination governance and destination leadership in the destination system; and (c) the optimal policy proposition for the said destination marketing, management, governance, leadership and general organisation of the destination system (Ministry of Tourism, 2015; Conservation Lower Zambezi, 2016; Zambia Tourism Agency, 2017; Tourism Council of Zambia, 2019). Further, throughout the successive reforms in the tourism sector from 1996, the core structure and activities of the DMO have remained the same despite calls from among the various tourism industry stakeholders for changes due to changed expectations (The Zambia Tourism Policy, 2015; The Zambia Tourism and Hospitality Act Number 13 of 2015). In addition, a study undertaken by the government in 2018, show that “the private tourism industry has limited faith in Zambia’s destination marketing” and its organisation. Consequently, the government is seeking to review the roles of the department of tourism and ZTA during the implementation period of the current Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038 (Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018).

Worldwide, the role of the DMO has come under question from the early 2000s and scholars have been positing that this role has been shifting among the various tourism

industry stakeholders (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Dredge, 2016). However, from policy perspective the general structure and core activities of the DMO have remained the same for decades (Pike, 2016). The cause of this twofold occurrence in tourism destinations is not fully explained and resolved in theory, practice and policy propositions (Pike, 2016). Further, while literature acknowledges this shifting role of the DMO and is calling for its reconsideration in practice and policy, the mechanisms and structures causing these shifts remain unknown in destinations, including Zambia (World Tourism Organisation, 2015; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020). Similarly, the mechanisms and structures causing the core activities and structure of the DMO to remain the same is unexplained in literature, practice and policy.

The Zambia Tourism Master Plan for the period 2018 to 2038 (2018) has identified the tourism industry structure and governance, including policy, legislation, organisation and funding model of the destination as important drivers for competitiveness of Zambia as destination. However, the difficulties the above-mentioned phenomena have presented in Zambia is that it has created suboptimal and unstable policy environment in the destination system, and this threatens the growth, profitability, competitiveness and sustainability of Zambia as a tourism destination as a whole and the success of the individual tourism businesses. In addition, this situation also threatens the purpose and legitimacy of the DMO and its current business model in the destination system in the face of escalating developments putting the *raison-d'être* of the traditional DMO, its business model and the traditionally held theory into question (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015). This situation is worsened by the fact that “the extant literature in the tourism domain appears to provide little insight on how to deal with tourism-specific contingencies when developing new or managing existing business models” (Reinhold *et al.*, 2017).

1.4 Aim / Purpose of the Study

The aim of the study was to develop a technical account of the shifting expected role of the DMO in the destination system among the various tourism industry stakeholders in

Zambia and to use this technical account to develop a framework for a DMO business model.

1.5 Research Objectives

The objectives of the study were:

- 1) To describe the nature of shifting expected role of the DMO and that of other components in the destination system among the various tourism industry stakeholders in Zambia;
- 2) To explain the shifting expected role of the DMO and that of other components among the various tourism industry stakeholders in the tourism destination of Zambia;
- 3) To explain the unchanging general structure and core activities of the DMO in policy despite its expected role shifting among the various stakeholders in Zambia; and
- 4) To develop a framework for DMO business model(s) from the technical accounts of the shifting expected role of the DMO and that of unshifting policy of the DMO in Zambia.

1.6 Research Questions

This study was conducted in an attempt to answer the following questions:

- 1) What has shifted the expected role of the DMO and that of other components in the tourism destination system among the various tourism industry stakeholders in Zambia?
- 2) Why is the expected role of the DMO and that of other components in the tourism destination system shifting among the various tourism stakeholders in Zambia?
- 3) Why is the general structure and core activities of the DMO not changing in Zambia despite the expected role and the nature of destination leadership shifting among the various tourism stakeholders?
- 4) How can the technical accounts of the shifting expected role of the DMO and that of unshifting policy of the DMO in Zambia be used to develop a framework for DMO business model(s)?

1.7 Research Assumptions

The key assumptions of the study are set out below.

- (a) The problem being considered in the study is situated at the policy and strategic levels that address market failures of the destination, including organisation, stakeholder relations and interactions, productivity of the destination system and destination resource management. Therefore, the ultimate resolution of the problem is assumed to be at national policy and strategic levels, and not at the levels of individual operations and sub destinations.

- (b) The destination DMO business model is conveyed through public policy in tourism destinations. The study assumes that the same policy framework that provides for the general organisation of the destination will simultaneously provide the roles of the DMO and other stakeholders in the destination.

- (c) The goal of the supply-side of tourism destination system is growth, profitability, competitiveness and sustainability of the tourism destination. While destinations as a whole may serve other purposes, throughout this study, it is assumed that the supply-side is seeking the four as its final teleology or end purpose.

- (d) For the destination system to function optimally, it seeks the following: (i) Resilience; (ii) No Policy Resistance; (iii) Survival: and (iv) Order. The combination of a resilient, surviving, orderly destination system with no policy resistance will lead to a sound functioning destination system, which in turn is an imperative for growth, competitiveness, profitability and sustainability of a destination (Figure 1.5).

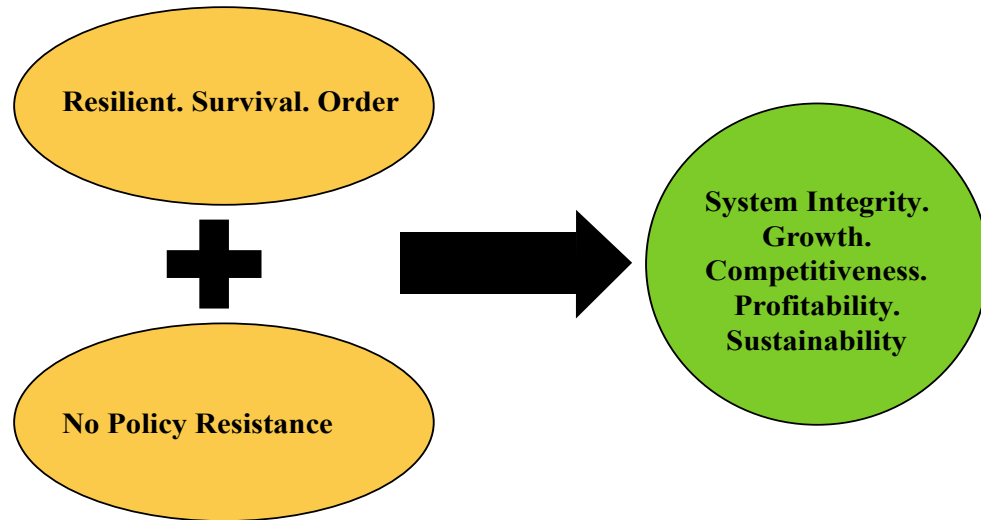


Figure 1.5: Resilience, Survival, Order and No policy resistance assumed prerequisites in destinations for growth, competitiveness, profitability and sustainability (Sterman, 2000).

- (e) The study views the role of tourism from the industrial framework perspective, whose worth is social economic development in a destination as is the current case in Zambia.
- (f) Regarding the nomenclature of the DMO, the study acknowledges and takes ‘judicial notice’ that the ‘Destination Management Organisation’ is nowadays widely used in literature alongside ‘Destination Marketing Organisation’ and in some cases these have also been adopted in practice. However, at this stage, the DMO is taken to be the destination marketing organisation, which is the adopted and current use in Zambia. However, due care is made that in literature where the terms have been used interchangeably, the key arguments are not lost at stages of literature review, conceptualisation and methodological considerations of the study. The two are taken together during these stages, while minding the contextual usage in theory.
- (g) From the above, the problem solution map for the destination vis-à-vis DMO role is assumed to be as in Figure 1.6 in terms of the system of interest, why the problem at hand should be resolved, the goals for the destination, policy environment as means available for the DMO business model and what makes the framework important.

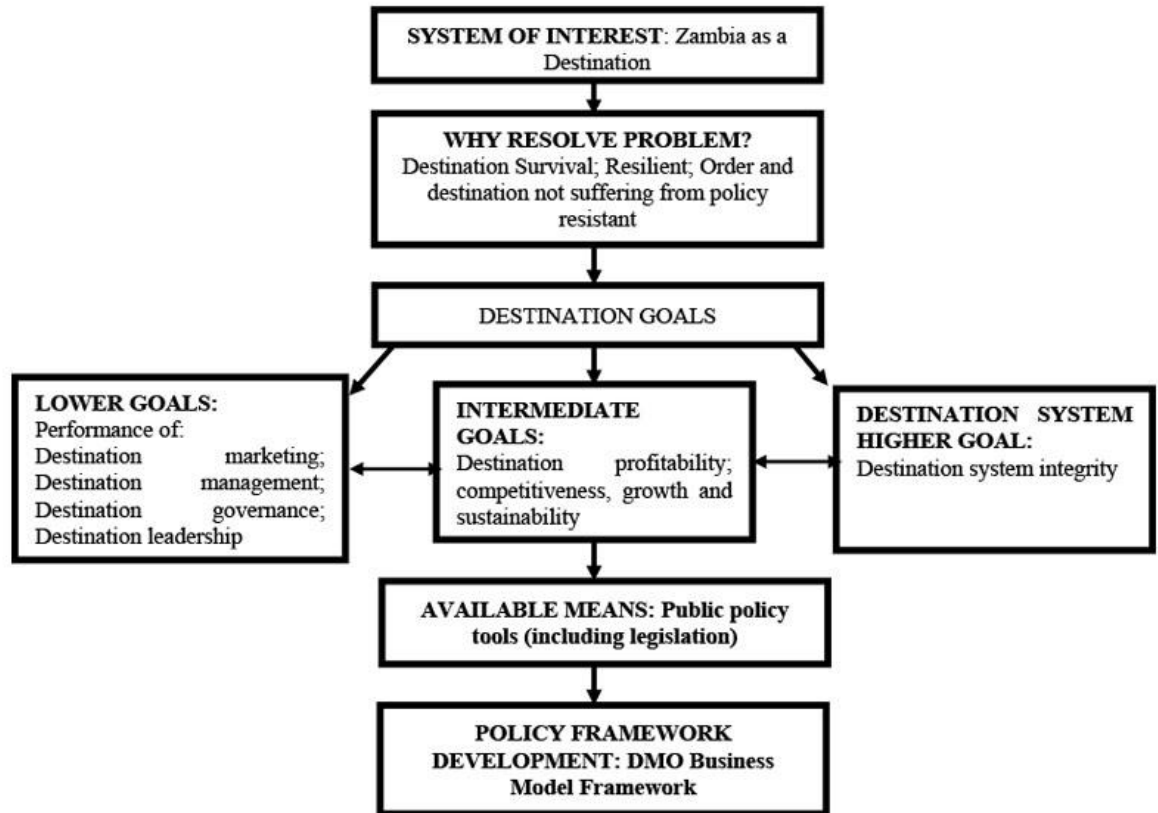


Figure 1.6: Problem Solution Map Assumptions.

1.8 Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is as follows:

- (a) The study seeks to provide an alternative framework for developing and structuring business models of Destination Marketing Organisations. Current DMO business models are derived from funding mechanisms or as policy decision-makers prescribe, without evidence informed by research propositions.
- (b) The study seeks to provide ways of structuring destination governance systems and organisational setup of destinations in view of the changing environment and destination conceptualisation paradigms; currently there is no governance model or framework. The study brings together the four paradigms of destination marketing, destination management, destination governance and destination leadership, and at the

same time is cognizance of the changes that have taken place to propose a framework in contemporary destination modelling.

- (c) The study will be relevant to the Ministry responsible for Tourism and other political policy-makers in government, such as the executive and legislative branches of government during policy and legislation development, formulation and implementation.
- (d) The study will be useful to both the DMO and its various tourism industry stakeholders in the organisation and general governance of the industry.

1.9 Scope of the Study

- (a) The study acknowledged that there might be stable correlations between or among elements that might be non-explanatory because of being non-causal; however, the focus of the study was on explanatory adequacy of the elements of the findings in the study.
- (b) The study was limited to the geopolitical boundaries of Zambia, where the Zambia Tourism Agency (ZTA) and its various supply-side stakeholders have mandates and the legislative jurisdictions and licenses in the case of private sector operators. However, within this destination limitation, three case study sites were identified in the southern tourism circuit as the focus of the inquiry, namely: (a) the Kafue ecological area; (b) Livingstone tourism area; and (c) Lusaka, Lower Zambezi and Siavonga tourism circuit.
- (c) The tourism industry stakeholders were limited to the strategic level stakeholders where the DMO is concerned with the active management of their interests. It excludes moral ones (where the primary focus could be maintaining a balance between stakeholder interests).
- (d) The study focused on the strategic and policy levels, including that of destination marketing, destination management and destination governance of the destination system.

- (e) Throughout the study conceptualisation, the focus was the growth of in-bound tourism.
- (f) The problem in the study of the strategic and policy levels in Zambia was assumed to be situated on the supply-side of the destination system. Therefore recursively, the study was the supply-side of Zambia as a tourism destination. The Figures 1.7 and 1.8, and Table 1.2 show the recursion of the destination system and level of the focus of this study. It excludes the demand-side (markets side) and transit routes, such as transportation.
- (g) The study set boundaries and irreducibility at the necessary component level of the destination system. It laminated the destination system at three levels of micro, meso and macro, and excludes other ontological levels, such as psycho-social levels of individuals' personalities or the mega levels of geo-history stretching several longer periods. For purposes of understanding and explanation of the phenomena, the study elements and therefore focus is on the three mentioned levels.

Therefore, the research questions were inquired at these levels, with the DMO business framework in research question four developed for the macro level of Zambia as a destination and unit of analysis.

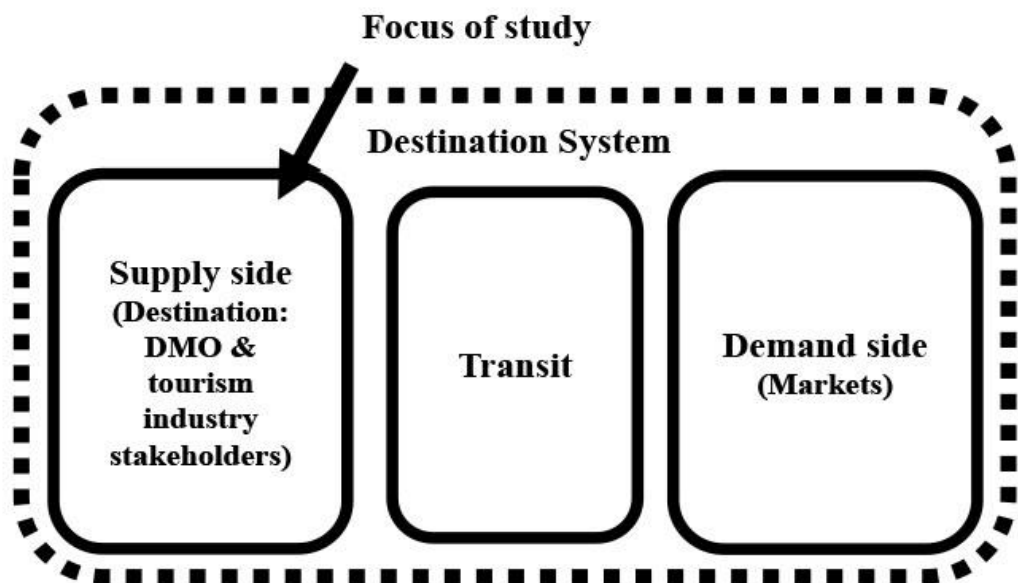


Figure 1.7: Destination System Focus of the Study.

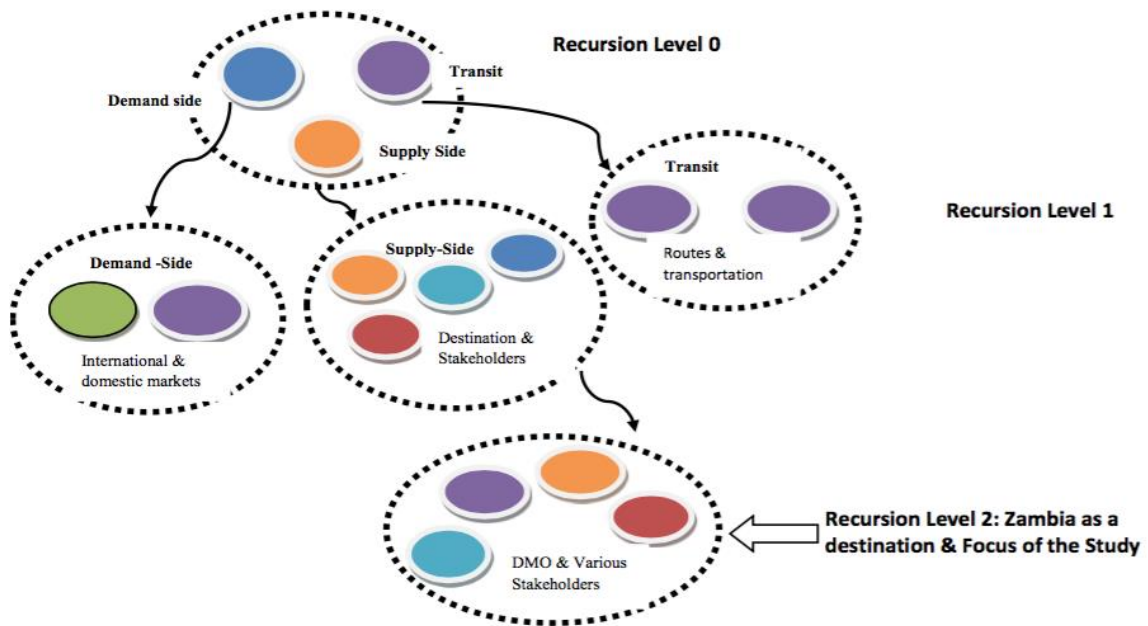


Figure 1.8: Destination System Recursion and Level of Focus of the Study.

Table 1.2: Scope levels of Studying of the Research Questions

Laminated Level	Description of Level	Research Question
Micro Level	Micro level of small-scale interactions in the destination at interpersonal levels.	Research Questions 1, 2 and 3.
Messo Level	Functional role and structural positions defined in relation to ongoing practices and restrictions, such as at corporate, institution, association and group levels	Research Questions 1, 2 and 3.
Macro	Properties of large whole of Zambia as a destination system and its interactions with other possible systems, such as the economy, laws and others.	All four Research Questions.

(h) While literature was drawn from several eras of tourism destination changes, the focus of the study was the period from the 2000s to date which have seen significant changes in the phenomena under consideration and the resultant destination paradigms and DMOs roles.

(i) The policy view in the study took the perspective of the industrial organisation of destinations and therefore policy framework consideration is from this view. The study argued for this posture and reified it throughout its conceptualisation of the study. Excluded were other views and value that have become associated with tourism, such as environmental, wildlife and climate change protection views of tourism. The Figure shows the focus policy area out of the three possible ones.

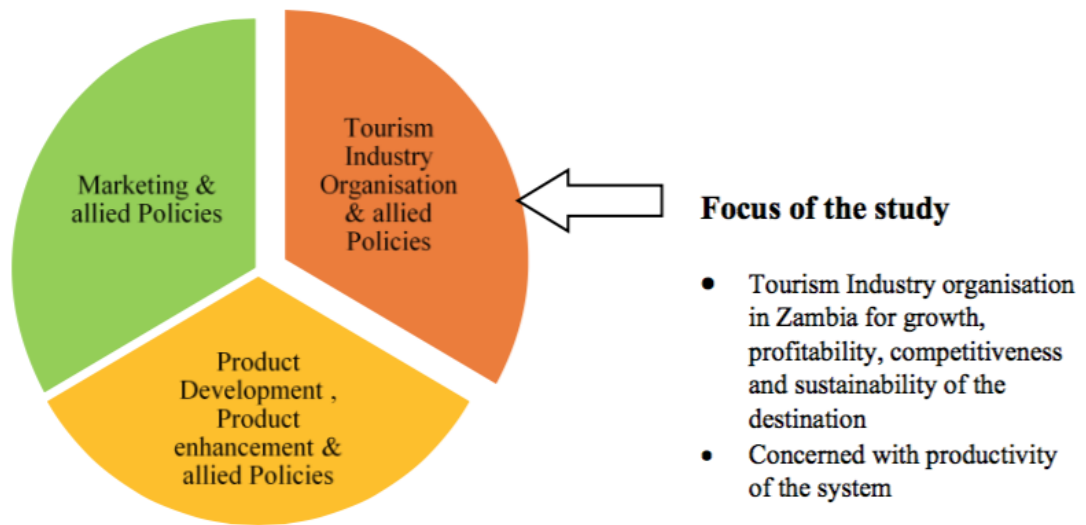


Figure 1.9: Policy area under focus in the study.

Within the scope of this study, the DMO and organisation of the tourism industry was viewed from the broader function of policies addressing market failures such as industry coordination and productivity; this is as opposed to the two other possible market-enhancing policies (marketing) and product-enhancing (product development) (Dredge, 2016).

1.10 Methodology

Philosophically, this study was approached from two competing theories of complexity theory and social realist theory, as theoretical frames of reference.

A common ontological paradigm of critical realism (CR) was used, with abduction and retroduction as descriptive and explanatory logics of scientific reasoning, respectively, and the philosophical view of pragmatism for the DMO business framework and model proposition.

On the overall the study was designed as a qualitative case study with a sample size of thirty (30) informants chosen through non-random theoretical sampling method from among licensed private sector operators based on their in-depth knowledge of the tourism industry from business organisations with not less than ten years in Zambia and also from among the government and its main agencies in the tourism sector. Primary data was collected through in-depth face-to-face semi-structured interviews, archival data, review of documentation and direct observation. Data analysis followed the grounded theory approach and thematic content analysis.

The four research questions were characterised as follows: One what-question; two why-questions and one how-question. In the study these questions were approached as follows:

(a) Research Question One

The what-question was intended to provide a reliable description and re-description of account from the lay accounts of the observable phenomena provided by the various tourism industry stakeholder informants on the shifting expected role of the DMO and on the core structure and activities of the DMO remaining the same for several years despite the shifting expectations. The study adopted abductive scientific reasoning to achieve this and served as the first step in the explanatory logics by re-describing the observable phenomena in a more general and abstracted manner, serving the purpose of describing the sequence of causation giving rise to the observed regularities in the pattern of events. This involved detailed interviews, observations and review of documentations to abductively produce the most plausible explanation the events that produced the patterns of events observed by the various tourism industry stakeholders. The data was viewed, analysed and fitted together into mechanisms from the view of each of the two competing theoretical frameworks.

(b) Research Questions Two and Three

The two why-questions were both seeking causal explanation, but from different ideas and consequently were approached differently. The first why-question on the shifting role of the DMO was a non-contrastive explanation-seeking question that was driven by pragmatic motivation to have information that would enable the development of a model of causally behaviour of the tourism destination phenomena in the study. This was necessary due to lack of reliable accounts in theory to act as frames of reference. However, the second why-question was contrastive and sought explanation and development of a model of why the destination system's policy environment was not changing despite the shifting expected role of the DMO among the various tourism industry stakeholders. To achieve this, the retroductive logic was used to fit together the theory and data by identifying patterns within the context to provide the most possible explanation and elimination of competing alternatives and identification of the causally efficaciousness of mechanisms and structures.

Retroduction logic was used for each of the two competing theories and data analysed and fitted together using tools unique to each of the two competing theories. Under complexity theory, the tool used was the causal loop diagram (CLD) and under social critical realism the affordances model was used.

(c) Research Question Four

The fourth question was the how-question, and was approached as pragmatic in nature in order to develop a framework from the answers to the three questions above. The most stable explanatory model that emerged from the comparison of the two competing theories was found to be that under the complexity theory assumptions and hence the framework was developed under these assumptions using the concept of effectuation.

1.11 Conceptual Definitions

These are definitions of terms as used in this study:

Adaptive tension: Contextual and / or environmental forces operating in a destination system that create stress affecting all or some of the elements and relationships in the system.

Affordance: An action possibility formed by the relationship between an agent and its environment.

Attributes: Relational and countervailing mechanisms operating in the system.

Causal powers: Liabilities inherent in a system or object that could be internal or external to the system or object.

Destination: Competitive units of inbound tourism (incoming tourists); in this study Zambia is the destination.

Destination Resilience: The ability of the destination system to absorb disturbances and to reorganize while going through change but retaining essentially the same functions, structure and characteristics.

Destination Sustainability: Ability of the tourism destination system's economic, environmental and social behaviour to be maintained at a certain level or rate indefinitely.

Destination competitiveness: Ability of a destination to optimize its attractiveness to deliver tourism products to consumers and to gain market shares in both the domestic and international markets, while ensuring that the available resources constituting the tourism product are used efficiently and in a sustainable way.

Destination Marketing: The marketing of an identifiable tourism destination with an explicit geopolitical boundary.

Destination Management: A strategic approach to the coordinated management of all the elements that make up a destination with the view to generate manageable flows of inbound tourism that is balanced, sustainable and sufficient to meet the economic needs of the local actors (both government and non-government actors) involved in the destination.

Destination Governance: The setting up and development of rules and mechanisms for business strategies by involving stakeholders.

Destination Leadership: The ability of a destination system component to influence those whom it has no direct control.

Dissipative structures: Organisation emerging through a spontaneous self-organisation process by virtual of the exchanges with the external environment, that generates a formation of both spatial and temporal ordered structures, in which interacting constitutes show long-range correlation.

Entities: Things which make a difference in their own right rather than mere sums of their parts.

Essences: A characteristic property of entities which make something that thing and not something else.

Events: Empirically observable events in the destination system.

Mechanism: A causal structure that explains a phenomenon or a social structure object with capacities for behaviour, which may or may not trigger events.

Moments: Path-shaping evolutionary inflection points that cause a DMO's path (trajectory) to shift and focus.

Opportunity tension: Combination of experiences, feasible opportunity and motivation to innovate.

Organisation configuration: Make up of an organisation, its form or defining characteristics.

Role: The position or purpose that an organisation has in a system and its relationships.

Structure: Structure is the cluster of causal factors or the configuration of the destination system.

System integrity: State of a destination system where it is performing its intended functions without being degraded or impaired by changes or disruptions in its internal or external environments.

1.12 Contribution to the Body of Knowledge

On the overall, this study contributed another perspective to the ongoing discussion on the role of the DMO in contemporary tourism destinations and on how it will survive and its

form. Going forward, the study has suggested that the flagship role of the DMO should be that of leading destination governance, and then the other paradigmatic roles of destination marketing and management could be shared among private sector, government and other non-government actors, depending on the uniqueness of each tourism destination. This emerged from the perspective of the complexity theory and the use of the concept of effectuation, which hitherto had been mainly associated with other study areas, such as entrepreneurship. It is worth noting that although literature argued for the conceptualisation of tourism destination studies to move towards the complexity theory in view of their characteristics, the debates around the subject of this study have, hitherto, tended to be from reductionist views. In addition to this, the study also brought in other various tools and theoretical view from various fields of study, including sociological realism.

Second, the addition of this study to the discussion is also useful at this juncture because policy, practice and even academia are all looking for ways of responding to the shift that have occurred and become more prominent in recent years to tourism destinations, accelerated by the various challenges already alluded to in the study that have been traced to the rapidly changing operating environment in as far as the role of the DMO and organisation of tourism destinations is concerned. The contemporary discussion of DMO role and its survival going forward as viewed from both the complexity theory and social critical realism theory in this study adds a discussion upon which future studies could build on. The study has made a number of interesting findings, such as efficacious mechanisms of the observed events that can be subjected to further studies using either one or both of the theoretical views.

Third, this study has also suggested a useful DMO business model framework. For practice and policy, this development of a DMO business model proposition is useful to decision making and serves as a starting point in the overall conceptualisation, organisation and modelling of destination systems under the contemporary and future environment. Hitherto, the frameworks used to develop DMO business models have remained open questions in literature, policy and practices.

1.13 Structure of the Thesis

Chapter 1- Introduction: Outlines the background and the research topic is introduced, the importance of the research is discussed and justified, and the research aim, objectives and the research questions are presented. Finally, it gives an overview of the thesis document.

Chapter 2 - Literature review: This chapter reviews literature and presents the current state of knowledge, starting from broad topics currently widely discussed in the tourism destination literature, narrowing down to more specific ideas such as complexity theory. Then, a special focus is given to empirical and conceptual studies conducted in the field around the research questions, and conclusions have been used to inform the conceptual and methodological chapters. Finally, a research gap revealing a lack of empirical evidence on the subject of study is presented and discussed.

Chapter 3 - Conceptual Framework and Theory: This chapter is devoted to the study's conceptual framework and theoretical foundations of the study to inform the research design, as documented in Chapter 4.

Chapter 4 - Methodology: In this chapter, the philosophical and methodological fundamentals for the main study are discussed and developed by outlining various alternative research purposes and strategies and justifying the choices made. The development of the research instruments and the data analysis process are also part of this chapter, as well as a discussion of specific quality criteria.

Chapter 5 - Findings: The results / findings presentation.

Chapter 6 - Discussion: Summary of the findings and the author's interpretation – bringing in own voice. The research questions are answered and contributions to knowledge and practice are presented and discussed. Conclusions are drawn from the findings and discussed. The limitations of the research are discussed, as well as a further research agenda.

Chapter 7 - Conclusion and Recommendations. Chapter seven concludes the study and makes recommendations, including making a framework proposition. The chapter closes with the author's personal reflection on the research journey.

CHAPTER TWO - LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter is a scholarly review of literature and presents the current state of knowledge on the subject of study. The chapter situates the study and the contemporary discussions on the shifting role of the DMO, arguing that while the role of the DMO has been found to be shifting, the causal mechanisms have not been fully explained in literature and this has presented an empirical gap worth investigating. Focus is also given to some empirical and conceptual ideas around the research questions, and the conclusions that inform the theoretical and methodology chapters. For context, the review also includes an overview of Zambia as a tourism destination and the problem situation.

2.2. The Shifting Role of DMOs in Destination Theory

The first organisation that evolved into the current DMOs is traced to New Zealand, founded in 1901 as the first government tourist bureaux (Pike and Page, 2014). During the early stages of tourism development, the organisations that eventually evolved into these DMOs could spring up, at times as polycentric structures or private sector-led or regional initiatives in countries to organise the booming tourism industry (Pike and Page, 2014). However, with rising of tourism as an important economic sector, increased competition and consolidation of tourism as a global phenomenon during the mass tourism booming years of the 1960s and 1970s, governments and places recognised the need for coming up and funding DMOs (Prideaux and Cooper, 2002; Pike, 2016). Nowadays DMOs are a common feature in the organisation of destinations. They have also become important tourism and travel brands in marketing across the world (Morgan *et al.*, 2002; Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016). However, from the early 2000s the rationale underpinning DMOs is questioned and considered to be shifting among various stakeholders (Pike, 2012; Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Reinhold *et al.*, 2017; Nagai *et al.*, 2018; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021). These changes, views and practices are raising questions and attracting scholarly discussions on the efficaciousness of the archetypal traditional DMO, especially in the post-2000 era (Pike and Page, 2014; World Tourism Organisation, 2015; Reinhold

et al., 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Reinhold *et al.*, 2017; Nagai *et al.*, 2018; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021).

The traditional DMO rationale during early stages and immediate years that followed was promotion-oriented (Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016). Eventually, with the evolution of the tourism and destination paradigms, which become more pronounced from the early 2000s, the purpose of this traditional DMOs evolved to be that of leading collective destination marketing on behalf of supplier constituents (Pike, 2012; Pike, 2016). This entails undertaking marketing activities in destinations; providing supply-side stakeholders with market intelligence and access to distribution channels; and providing support to visitors in destinations (Pollock, 2010).

However, the above traditional role based on the typical marketing paradigm in literature discourses is now considered to be shifting towards other paradigms (Pike and Page, 2014; World Tourism Organisation, 2015; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021). Scholars have predicted that DMOs “will soon no longer exist in their current form” and argue that “so now is an opportune time for tourism academics to engage in innovative thinking about the future of these entities” (Pike, 2016). Open questions are increasing in scholarly discourses on the traditionally held theory on DMO *raison-d’être*, its relevancy in the current contemporary world of tourism and also on the shape it will take if it is to survive going forward (Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Dredge, 2016; Pike, 2016; Hristov *et al.*, 2020).

Although DMOs are still a common feature in destination literature, the open questions regarding the purpose, structure and their functions in contemporary destinations now threaten their survival. This can no longer be ignored (Wang and Pizam, 2011; Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021). As scholars argue, there is convergence of powerful forces in practice and policy arguing for the reconsideration of the DMO rationale and structure (Dredge, 2016; Pike, 2016).

These open questions are significant because of the underlying backdrop, namely, that even with the various changes that have occurred in tourism and its environment, “the general structure and core activities of DMOs have remained uniformly constant around the world for several decades” (Pike, 2016).

From extant literature, the above-mentioned shifts appear to be related to the overall tourism and destination changes and their environment that have become accelerated during the post-2000 era (Wang and Pizam, 2011; Morrison, 2012; Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016). To contextualise, a highlight of the major developments that have defined this era to date as documented in literature and their connectedness to the DMO theory and tourism in general follow below.

2.2.1. Evolution of Tourism and DMOs

Tracing the origins of tourism to where it is today, it is apparent that it has tremendously evolved from its early conceptualisation (Buhalis, 2000; Gyr, 2010; World Tourism Organisation, 2014; Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016; World Tourism Organisation, 2015; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Dredge, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020). The major phases in the developments and evolution of tourism, the DMO and generally destinations as recorded in literature, especially that related to the shifting role of the DMO and allied developments are highlighted below.

2.2.1.1. Epochs of Tourism and DMOs Evolution

Epochally, modern tourism and organisation of destinations as we know them today could be traced to the following five phases (Table 2.1): (a) pre-second world war; (b) post-second world war to the 1950s; (c) 1960s to the 1970s; (d) 1980s to early 2000s; and (e) post-2000s to date. Although periodisation of modern tourism development usually differs in literature, significant expansion and globalisation is commonly considered to have emerged during the last three phases, namely, from post-second world war period to the present (Gyr, 2010).

The post-war period accelerated the growth of practice of tourism, consolidation of leisure tourism and eventually its importance as part of global economy and it became part of the defining characteristic of modern industrial economies (Gyr, 2010). Important in this study is the significant changes on the role of DMOs and the organisation of destinations in general that started clipping-in during the last sixty years or so. These changes became more pronounced from the early 2000s (Wang, 2011; Wang and Pizam, 2012; Morrison, 2012; Pike and Page, 2014; Dredge, 2016; Pike, 2018). These literature discussions follow below.

a) Post Second World War and Booming Mass Tourism Era of 1960 and 1970s

Significant changes in modern commercial tourism began after the Second World War and became prominent during the 1960s and 1970s era. Factors cited in academic discourses for this rapid change include: (a) post-war period economic growth and innovations of market economies; (b) technological advances; (c) increased competitive markets; (d) rapid infrastructural developments, including transportation and communication networks; (e) creation of new destinations; and (f) changes in travelling styles and socialisation (Gyr, 2010). These led to, among others, transformations of commercial tour operators and travel companies offering competitive tour packages and the development of new destinations and modes of holidaying (Gyr, 2010).

Table 2.1: Post-world War Tourism and Destination Organisation

Epoch / defining characteristic	Destination Organisations	Business System Organisation in destinations	Supply-side characteristics	Demand-side Characteristics
Post-war to the 1950s: Artisan Age in production systems	Poorly developed, uncoordinated, unsophisticated; usually private sector or regionally set.	Mostly trade associations, and private businesses.	-Local, fragmented, unimaginative and static travel trade; -basic technologies by tourism industry	-Individual, basic, limited and wary customers; Difficult social conditions for many soon after war; -Rural/industrial schism economies in source markets; -Uncertain consumers
1960s to 1980s: Fordian mode of production in production systems	-Emergence of coordinated and sophisticated organisation. - DMOs focused on marketing activities	-Vertical and horizontal integrations of private sector businesses and DMOs	-Homogenous, price-competitive and low-cost labour of tourism products; - Technologies for productivity increased.	-Mass, standard, price and not quality driven tourists; -Crumbling welfare society; Increasing disposable income; -Politically stable tourism regions; -increased awareness of emergent consumer society.
1980s to early 2000s: Modern age (metanarrative of consumption)	-Re-engineering of tourism destinations and organisation, airport infrastructural developments and smoothing cross border entries.	-Private sector increased competition; mergers and acquisitions; and diagonal cooperation, strategic alliances.	-Recognition of aging resorts and attractions.	-Growing demand for ethical and sustainable products.

Table 2.1: Post-world War Tourism and Destination Organisation continued.

Epoch / defining characteristic	Destination Organisations	Business System Organisation in destinations	Supply-side characteristics	Demand-side Characteristics
1980s to early 2000s: Modern age (metanarrative of consumption)	- DMOs funded by governments and focused on marketing	-Consolidated DMOs focused on marketing in most destinations.	-Mass tourism the dominant model -Zambia becomes as emerging destination and tourism reclassified from social an economic sector.	- Emerging eco-movements challenge existing order on environment, culture and some aspects of late-capitalism.
2000 to future: Postmodern tourism (metanarrative of mobility)	-Reflexive and shifting role of DMOs. -DMO uncertainties	-Complexity, fluidity and uncertainties of future structures and organisations.	-Hyper niche, super segmentation and quality driven. - aim of businesses is to build relations with consumers	-Experienced consumers, technophiles, price and quality driven; -Service economy, experience economy; -fragmented customer loyalty; -Postmodernism driving experience seeking consumers

(Adapted from Burn, 2006; other sources: Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Zambia Tourism Agency, 2020; Ministry of Tourism, 2020).

On the demand-side, large out-bound tourism markets of Europe and Americas under went through transformations and growth (World Tourism Organisation, 2019). Stimulated by flourishing market sector, department stores offering package holidays and replacement of bus and rail with air transport, European and the Americas' out-bound tourism grew and became attractive markets for long-haul destinations like Zambia (Gyr, 2010). On the supply-side, several destinations embarked on intensive infrastructure construction and most natural attractions increasingly mutated into holiday resorts and areas. During this

era in Zambia, Livingstone town and several national parks rapidly transformed into key tourism areas. Livingstone became a tourist capital of Zambia and most of the southern circuit destinations within Zambia, such as the Kafue National Park and South Luangwa became famous for safaris and nature tourism (Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018). Equally important for this study is that this era also brought about significant changes in the organisation of tourism. Tourism consolidated itself and its organisational structures and systems away from other industries. It was during this era that many tourism organisations and travel trade as we know them today emerged (Gyr, 2010). In Zambia, it was during this era that the precursor to the Zambia Tourism Agency (ZTA), the Zambia Tourism Bureau and eventually Zambia National Tourism Board (ZNTB) was set up as a government agency through legislation, The Tourism Act Number 29 of 1979.

b) Postmodern Tourism Era of Post-2000: Shifting Destination Paradigms

By all proportions, the 2000s have recorded the largest and rapidly changing tourism and destination landscape across the world (Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2018). This era is predominantly characterised by not just entry of destination paradigms in practice and mainstream literature but also rapidly changing tourism environment and DMO paradigm (Wang and Pizam, 2011; Morrison, 2012; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Reinhold *et al.*, 2017; Nagai *et al.*, 2018; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021). As noted in several tourism discussions, since the early 2000s the changes in tourism and destinations have become more rapid, disruptive and even unpredictable in practice and policy (Gyr, 2010; Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016). The theory and practice of tourism in general is also evolving as recorded variously in tourism and destination literature worldwide (Wang, 2011; Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Reinhold *et al.*, 2017). As Pike (2016) argues, as a result of the massive changes taking place in the world of tourism, DMOs as we know them today will no longer exist in their form, and sticking to their old paradigm in practice would only draw them to irrelevancy among the various tourism industry stakeholders.

Pike and Page (2014) and Pike (2016) cite some of the converging forces stimulating the above debate as arising from the macro environment of which the DMO and even the tourism and travel industry have no control. These are isolated and further discussed later in the review due to the profoundness in the study. At this stage, suffice to underline that it is estimated that these forced and disruptive rather than incremental changes will continue to impact tourism in the foreseeable future (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016). Further, literature discussions acknowledge that the developments taking place are challenging the traditionally held views on the organisation of the industry at destination levels, and on the role and functions of the DMO and other components in the tourism system (Pike, 2008; Wang, 2011; Morrison, 2012; Pike and Page, 2014; Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020). Therefore, as already alluded to, tourism academia are challenged to engage meaningfully and innovatively on the future of DMOs and similar entities (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016).

Highlights of some of the prominent developments that have generally become associated with the changes during this epoch are as follows:

(i) Growth of tourism as a socio-economic sector

Tourism has risen to prominence as an important socio-economic sector from policy perspectives in recent years. Due to its catalytic characteristic to spur economies and several sectors within economies, tourism is currently hailed as an important economic sector by several governments and policy-makers (World Tourism Organisation, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016; Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018-2038, 2018). It is considered important for foreign exchange earnings, creation of jobs, tax revenues and its support to so many other industries that rely on travel and tourism, such as air transport and food industries (Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018-2038, 2018; Ministry of Tourism, 2020).

In the case of Zambia, tourism was reclassified from a social to an economic sector in 1996 and is now considered one of the priority sectors for social economic development

(Frangialli, 1994; Zambia Tourism Policy, 2015; Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018-2038, 2018). Similarly, in mature destinations of European and United States of America (USA), tourism has been subsumed into broader economic sectors under their respective rationalisation agenda (Hristov and Naumov, 2015).

(ii) Globalisation of tourism

Tourism has grown to be a global phenomenon, with all the interconnectedness that are typical of globalisation. Worldwide, literature, professional practice and policy all acknowledge that tourism is now significantly a global phenomenon (Gyr, 2010; Mosedale and Albrecht, 2011; Hristov and Naumov, 2015). Its importance and influence now cut across several spheres of public discourses, in fields as varied as politics, economics, culture and society (Pike, 2008; Gyr, 2010).

The above developments are not just increasing questions in practice and policy on the traditional theoretical backgrounds long held about tourism and its practice but also attracting interest from academic discourses. As already alluded to, due to persistent problems and complexities, some presumed to be connected to globalisation, academics are calling for rethinking of the theory and operations of the DMOs and the general organisation of destinations (Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Pike, 2018).

(iii) Geopolitical situation of tourism

The latter part of the twentieth and the current centuries have created mixed fortunes for tourism because of unprecedented rapid and in some cases unexpected changes in the geopolitical elements of tourism (Burn, 2006). Some of the prominent natural disasters and political geopolitical factors and events that have defined travel and tourism during this epoch are as follows:

- Collapse of the Eastern bloc countries during the early 1990s and emergence of market and transitional economies in early 2000s enlarged the in-bound and out-bound European and a host of other tourism source markets for destinations within Europe and long-haul destinations like Zambia (Ibid);

- The collapse of apartheid in South Africa in the early 1990s, lifting of sanctions imposed on it during the apartheid era and subsequent inclusion in the world economy post-2000 created both opportunity and competition for regional tourism markets. On the supply side, in the case of Zambia developments include South African investments in, among others, air transport, South African hotel chains and safari lodges. On the demand-side it increased destination competition with South African safari destinations, such as the Kruger National Park. But it has also created opportunity for regional markets and promotion of tourism packages across geopolitical boundaries, such as trans-frontier conservation areas (Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018);
- Terrorism acts of 11th September 2001 (9 / 11) in the United States of America (USA) and the bombing of a prominent tourism destination of Bali in Indonesia in 2002. This not only temporarily shock international tourist arrivals and had telling effect in a significant way on the practice of tourism and travel industry but also demonstrated the resilience of tourism as a sector and its capacity to rebound in record time (Burn, 2006; World Tourism Organisation, 2014);
- Sudden outbreak and spread of SARS and in 2019 the coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemics, both starting with Asia and rapidly spreading across the globe, have disrupted travel and tourism. This is challenging the definition of the practice and policy of the tourism and travel industry in general associated with such volatile environment (Burn, 2006);
- Change in socialisation and consumer tastes that have become synonymous with postmodernism, including preference for both ‘experiential’ and environmentally sustainable products (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015);
- Global economic downturn of 2008 that largely disrupted Europe and America’s travel and tourism, in terms of both the in-bound and out-bound tourism markets (Hristov and Naumov, 2015);
- Rapid technological advances and redefinition of destination marketing communication tools and channels (Pike, 2012; Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016); and

- Supply-led expansion because of, among others, cheaper airlines and relatively improved interconnectivities to new destinations (sometimes obscure destinations) that provided opportunities for emerging destinations (Burn, 2010).

The above developments and incidents have brought questions in academic and practice discussions on the kind of market failures the DMOs were established to address and the suitability of the current DMO rationale to confront this kind of environment (Pike, 2012; Pike and Page, 2014). The 2014 St Gallen Consensus on Destination Management concluded that the archetypal DMO with its current core activities is losing its legitimacy in destinations. It went further to call for change in their organisational setup if they are to survive and remain relevant in contemporary destination systems (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015).

(iv) Growing academic interest in tourism and destinations

In recent years, the tourism industry in general and destination related subjects like destination marketing and destination management have become prominent features in tourism and destination academic discourses (Pollock, 2010; Morrison, 2012; Wang and Pizam, 2011; Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021). Literature indicates that tourism has been attracting substantial interest in research and is growing and attracting studies from a diversity of backgrounds and approaches (Morrison, 2012; Pike, 2012; Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016).

The above notwithstanding, even with its long life as a practice and activity, the study of tourism and tourism research is still considered to be a relatively recent discipline in literature. Additionally, several debates from the academic perspective have remained inconclusive to date (Pike, 2008; Morrison, 2012; Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021).

(v) **Entry of destination paradigms in mainstream tourism and destination literature**

Destination paradigms in relation to the role of DMOs begun entering mainstream literature from the early 2000s (Morrison, 2012). Tracing the history of destination literature in academic discourses, Morrison (2012) found that destination management, destination marketing and destination branding became mainstream topics in academic discourses from 2000, and since then it has grown exponentially, as demonstrated in the Table 2.2 showing increase from the early 1970s to 2012.

In the course of discussions, four prominent paradigms have emerged to date, namely: destination marketing; destination management; destination governance; and destination leadership paradigms. These appear to be regular and are quickly entrenching themselves in destination literature. Additionally, when discussed on the DMO role they have all been variously touted as important for destination growth, profitability, competitiveness and sustainability of destinations and businesses (Morrison, 2012; Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021).

Table 2.2: Literature on Destination Management, Destination Marketing and Destination Branding from 1970 to 2012.

Time Period	Destination Management	Destination Marketing	Destination Branding
1970 – 1979	1	4	0
1980 – 1989	7	23	1
1990 – 1999	217	357	15
2000 – 2009	3,470	4,310	1,210
2010 – 2012*	6,235	3,260	1,300

*to November 2012. (Source: Morrison, 2012).

Consequently, in contemporary literature discussions there has been a divide in approach to the DMO purpose, principally along these four perspectives. Prominent scholarly approaches have been as follows:

- (i) DMO as a destination marketing organisation (Pearce (1992); Pike (2004; 2009); Ford and Peeper (2008); Hassan *et al.* (2010); Zach (2012); Pike and Page (2014); McKercher and Prideaux (2014); Pike (2016); Pike (2018);
- (ii) The DMO as destination management organisation (Ritchie and Ritchie (1998); Buhalis (2000); Ritchie and Crouch (2003); Brain *et al.*, (2005); Presenza *et al.*, (2005); World Tourism Organisation (2007); Morgan (2012); Muller and Berger (2012); Wang and Pizam (2013); Morrison (2013); Reinhold *et al.*, (2015); Hristov and Naumov (2015); Dredge (2016);
- (iii) The view that DMO could be either a destination marketing organisation or indeed a destination management organisation, depending on the choice of policy and how it allocates DMO responsibilities (Dredge, 2016); and
- (iv) Increasingly there is also literature which argues for the expansion of the DMO role to incorporate destination governance (Ruhanen *et al.*, 2010; Zhang and Zhu, 2014; Amore and Hall, 2016) and destination leadership (Zehrer *et al.*, 2014; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020).

Even though partly the intention of some of the above approaches and views have been to resolve destination problems and diminish the open and persistent questions in contemporary destinations, the unintended consequence in practice and policy has been to a large extent that of yielding multiple questions. The above theoretical approach divide is fueling uncertainty and heightening the persistent questions in both practice and theory on the changes taking place, and their ramifications on the definition of the role and functions of DMOs and other components in contemporary destination systems (Leiper, 2008; Pike, 2008; Wang and Pizam, 2011; Morrison, 2012; Pike and Page, 2014; Hristov and Petrova, 2015; Dredge, 2016; Tourism Council of Zambia, 2018).

In addition, as the above-mentioned relatively new destination paradigms keep making their way into practice and policy environments in destinations, they are adding to challenges facing policy regarding the organisation of destinations and the roles of the various components in the system. Therefore, these tourism industry paradigms are considered to be changing the landscape of destination marketing, management, governance and leadership at destination levels in relation to DMOs and the general

organisation of destinations (Leiper, 2000; Morrison, 2012; Pike and Page, 2014). However, perhaps more fundamental, they are also making the role of the DMO to be theoretically a moving target by continuously expanding the DMO responsibilities, albeit, under the same DMO structure as observed by Pike (2016).

2.2.1.2. DMO Challenges that define the Post-2000 Destination Landscape

The prominent challenges that have defined the shifting DMO paradigm post-2000 era, and appear to be the rallying points in practice, policy and literature for the reconsideration of the DMO rationale, and the organisation and structure of destinations in contemporary destinations can be highlighted as follows:

(a) Politics around DMO Funding

With rising austerity and economic rationalisation agenda by governments in recent years, the question of DMOs that are reliant on government funding has become a matter of serious debate in literature (Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016). Political decision-makers are faced with a challenging economic environment. For example, the economic downturn of 2008 triggered a spiral of economic rationalisation agenda by governments. This has in turn triggered debate in destinations on the funding options for the hitherto DMOs solely reliant on government funding through annual grants and / or tourism taxes (Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Pike, 2016).

The above has already become visible in some mature destinations of United Kingdom (UK), New Zealand and United States of America (USA). Pike (2016) cites the case of the USA where the Brand USA which until now received federal funding is only guaranteed federal support up to the end of 2020 and thereafter the Travel and Tourism Act might was to be re-enacted or not. However, it was re-enacted in 2022 to encompass a broader mandate to include developing and implementing a travel and tourism COVID-19 recovery strategy of the industry (www.congress.gov, 2022). In the case of New Zealand and United Kingdom, DMOs have been subsumed into broader economic agencies through legislation and policy (Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Pike, 2016).

It is expected that even in emerging destinations, this trend may continue because of the economic pressure and public perception about tourism funding. In some cases, it has been viewed as amounting to ‘corporate welfare’ (Pike, 2016). Similarly, economic uncertainties and challenges of emerging destinations like Zambia are forcing similar changes. For example, the government funding through annual grants to the Zambia Tourism Agency has been recording reduced marketing and operational budget Figures in recent years (Zambia Tourism Agency, 2020; Ministry of Tourism, 2020). This has been attributed to competition to fund other sectors, such as infrastructure, education and health (Ministry of Tourism, 2020).

(b) DMO Pressure for Efficient Use of Resources

Incidental to the above is increased demand and pressure from policy and other stakeholders for DMOs to use organisational resources efficiently. What appears to be supporting these arguments are what has been noted in literature, namely that despite destination literature starting to appear in 1973, the question of the extent the DMOs are responsible for “increases in visitor arrivals, length of stay, spending and other performance metrics” has not fully answered empirically (Pike, 2016). The difficulty associated with performance metrics of DMOs has been attributed to the isolation of cause-and-effect relationships among these metrics. Additionally, isolating the effect of other extraneous factors such as “user-generated content on social media, economic factors in source markets, travel intermediaries’ activities, other stakeholders’ activities, the media, the weather and so forth” has also proven difficult (Pike, 2016).

As a part response to the difficulties of empirical evidence, in 2000 the United Nations Statistical Commission approved the conceptual framework of Tourism Satellite Account (TSA) as a tool for measuring the economic significance of tourism. This was done amidst waning political and popular support for tourism funding in many countries due to aforesaid measurement difficulties (Massieu, 2010). However, although Zambia has adopted the Tourism Satellite Account (TSA) framework as part of its measurement tool, to date it has not been implemented fully. Therefore, the question of tourism’s overall contribution to the economy has continued to be a recurring theme in public policy

discourses (Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018; Ministry of Tourism, 2020). Consequently, in the case of Zambia, as is the case in many destinations, the government is increasingly under pressure to defend public spending for a sector that has had little empirical evidence to support policy and strategic propositions. Academics are being challenged to engage and find ways of innovatively configuring and offer funding options for current and future DMOs (Pike, 2016; Zambia Statistical Agency, 2020).

(c) Open Questions on Traditional DMO Paradigm

Discussions on the suitability of the current DMO paradigm in contemporary destination system modelling are increasing. Some scholars are arguing for a complete reconsideration of the philosophical essence of the traditional DMO (Dredge, 2016). It is argued that the problems facing DMOs in relation to their rationale lie deeply at the very foundational ontology of DMOs. The solution is proposed to be that of unearthing the deep shifts that have occurred on the role of the DMO vis-à-vis the changed environment under the post-modernity or reflexive era (Reinhold *et al*, 2015; Dredge, 2016).

Dredge (2016) calls for a deeper academic engagement in the “broader structural and political shifts taking place in society in order to rethink the organisation of tourism”. The argument is that despite the massive structural and political evolutions facing DMOs, ontologically they have been locked within the old paradigm based on the industrial policy view of DMOs. It is argued that this paradigmatic view is no longer holding under postmodernity (Dredge, 2016).

Other discourses, such as discussions from the 2014 St Gallen Consensus on Destination Management note the impact of technology advances as increasingly challenging to the traditional DMO paradigm of structure due to technology-based disruptions and collapse of the traditional marketing communication and promotional roles. This, consequently brings open questions on the traditional archetypal DMO, its purpose and legitimacy in destination systems (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016).

What seem to be complicating the above debate is what Pike (2016) notes, namely, that the first DMO came over 100 years earlier than tourism academic literature and so in academic discourses the role of the DMO has been located from practice. So far there is no consensus on how to shift the DMO paradigm in relation to practice, going forward. However, while the DMO operating paradigm is said to have largely remained static for over a century, as predicted by Pike (2016), there is consensus from various key stakeholders and a convergence of forces that seem to be leading a revolutionary change of the DMO paradigm. These include what has already been experienced in practice and identified in literature, such as funding cuts from government sources of DMO income and demand for increased DMO transparency in decision-making by the various tourism industry stakeholders (Pike, 2016).

(d) Changes in the Conceptualisation of Tourism and Destinations

The 2014 St Gallen Consensus on Destination Management concluded that a tourism destination is a “market-oriented productive system” (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015). This is a departure from the earlier views of a destination based on the World Tourism Organisation (2002) that took an institutional and supply-side perspective and neglected the “demand side in its impact processes and outcomes of tourism service production (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015). It is also a departure from Buhalis’ “amalgam-of-products” conceptualisation of destinations and the ‘institutional’ framework model (Buhalis, 2000).

The changing conceptualisation of destinations towards a ‘systems’ offers a challenge to the archetype traditional DMO, which has hitherto been based on the above two traditional conceptualisations. The conceptualisation of a destination as a ‘system’ increases and redefines stakeholders, changes the transactional costs associated with the destination collaborations and makes measurement of productivity hard in the ‘system’. But perhaps more profoundly at this stage is also that there is a limited and to a larger extent lack of research of destinations systems *visa-a-vis* the role of the DMO and other allied issues around these systems (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015).

Tracing the conceptualisation view of tourism in general, as noted above, historically 'tourist' as a concept came earlier, and the definition of 'tourism' emerged from the academics, using 'tourist' as the fundamental reference (Gunha, 2010). It was only in later years that it began to be looked at in its own right as a concept. Traditionally, in literature the definition of 'tourism' has been approached mainly from two view-points, namely: the technical, statistical view-point and the conceptual perspective. The statistical and technical view historically arose during the 19th century as tourism gained importance as an economic activity, mainly for the purposes of statistics and comparable measurements by governmental organisations (Gunha, 2010). On the other hand, the conceptual view is for framing its scope so as to understand its behaviour and working. Within the conceptual view, historically emphasis has been varied, with some emphasizing economic elements, social and cultural aspects, anthropological features or geographical aspects (Tribe, 1997; Gunha, 2010). These variations notwithstanding, the issue of definitions is important because of the conceptual implications, as Theobald (2001) argues, for the reason that they "supply the theoretical stronghold to identify the essential characteristics of tourism". The interest of this study is the conceptual definition, taking the view of Medik (1974) that a distinction should be made between the technical and the concept definition because it is the conceptual one that "allows us to identify the essential characteristics and distinguishes tourism from similar phenomena, which is often related but which are different". But the challenge is that even within discussions on the conceptual definitions, the approach and perspectives have been diverse. According to Cunha (2010) and Papadopoulos (1986), this is attributed to the close relationship of tourism with several disciplines, such as economics, politics, sociology, psychology, cultural and anthropology and even statistics.

The World Tourism Organisation (2019) defines tourism as "a social, cultural and economic phenomenon which entails the movement of people to countries or places outside their usual environment for personal or business / professional purposes". This is a revision from the earlier definition that was commonly used hitherto and emphasised the 'activities' as opposed to the view of tourism as a 'phenomenon'. The earlier one defined tourism as follows: "tourism comprises the activities of persons traveling to and staying

in places outside their usual environment, for not more than one consecutive year, for leisure, business and other purposes” (World Tourism Organisation, 1994).

One of the oldest holistic approaches to the concept of tourism was by Leiper (1979), who based it on the identification of the elements of the ‘tourism system’, and proposed that “It is a system involving discretionary travel and temporal stay of persons ways from their usual place of residence for one or more nights, excepting for the primary purpose of earning remuneration from points en route. The elements of the system are tourists, generating regions, transit routes, destination regions and a tourism industry”. Leiper (1979) adopted the view of early systems approach in understanding tourism, and relying on the general systems thinking argued that the five elements “are arranged in spatial and functional connections” and that have the “characters of an open system, the organisation of five elements operates within broader environment: physical, cultural, social, economic, political, technological with which its interacts”. The conceptualisation of tourism and the underlying issues of its management by Leiper (1979) have proven influential in tourism thinking (Hall and Page, 2010). However, McIntosh *et al.*, (1995), went beyond Leiper (1979) and defined tourism as “the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the interaction of tourists, business suppliers, host governments and host communities in the process of attracting and hosting these tourists and other visitors”. Tribe (1997), building on the definition of McIntosh *et al.*, (1995) proposes that it is “the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the interaction, in generating and host regions, of tourists, business suppliers, government, communities and environments”. Tribe (1997) argues that this definition carries the essential elements of tourism, as follows: (a) motivations, choice, satisfaction and interaction elements related to tourists; (b) elements related to business, such as marketing and management; (c) elements related to host community; (d) related to host environment; (e) related to host governments such as policies; and (f) those related to generating countries, such as economic and cultural effects.

None of the above definitions have all the elements in a holistic manner, at least conceptually. This study takes the broad view and picks the commonalities in identifying

aspects or elements as constituting tourism. In this regard, the study adopts the elements as proposed by Cunha (2010) as the conceptual view of tourism, as follows:

“Temporal displacement outside the usual environment of residence, leading to the notion of generating and receiving areas or countries; absence of remuneration in the place or places visited presupposing the transfer of wealth from the places where it is obtained to places visited; purpose of travel provided by leisure, business or other which may be the result of professional, social or individual reasons of a compulsory nature; generating of phenomena and relations resulting from the temporal displacement and which arise from the interaction in generating and receiving regions between visitors, goods and service suppliers, government, communities and environment; interdependence of the generated phenomena; activities carried out by those who travel as visitors, and facilities created to satisfy their needs”.

The implication of the above conceptually when considered in tourism studies, especially of DMOs, is its possible characterisation; which among others, is that tourism has multiple players and elements for it to take place and it also has multiple interconnections. These elements are conceptually arranged for a purpose or purposes. These ingredients constitute what Arnold and Wade (2015) refers to as ‘system fidelity’ and implies that tourism as an ‘activity’ can be considered to take place in a ‘system’. However, if the focus of the study is from the perspective of it as a ‘phenomenon’, it implies that tourism itself is a ‘system’ (Leiper, 1979). Second, is the inclusion of human elements in tourism as a phenomenon, including motivations or purposes of travel and satisfaction. Third, it also allows viewing tourism as phenomena that can conceptually be delineated and studied within its bounds. Within this delineation included are the multiple relationships, multilayer stakeholders and human relationships. This study takes these ingredients in its conceptual view of tourism; namely: a complex social system view. Fourth, the interactions of the operating environment, including the policy environment of the host government are important. Fifth, the various elements of the tourism system are open for study, either in isolation or combination. In this study, the focus is the supply-side elements and their interactions. The social complex-view of destinations as suggested in a number of contemporary academic discourses creates another dimension on the DMO rational and efficaciousness of the current core activities and structure (Reinhold, Laesser and Beritelli, 2015). In

addition, all of the above implications of changing views of the concept of tourism and destinations make contemporary tourism modelling a challenge.

(e) Changing Consumer Tastes and Buyer Behaviour

Scholars have predicted that the future of tourism practice is likely to be even fuzzier with the changing tastes of tourists that have become more pronounced post-2000 and associated with postmodernity. One of the key characteristic features of tourists in postmodernity has been defined by the dominance of the experience economy, which tourism has found itself in (Pine and Gilmore, 1999; Burns, 2010). Globalisation of tourism, among others, entails that tourism is affected by the mega trends in the macro environment (OECD, 2018). One such has been evolving tourists' trend towards 'experiential' products. In contemporary tourism, experiences are important in understanding tourist behaviour and the underlying reasons destinations attract certain spatial behaviours and also the heterogeneity of destinations. Destination experiences are considered to motivate and drive tourist behaviour (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015).

The second notable development among tourists has been increased awareness and preference for products falling in the 'green economy'. There is a growing number of tourists attracted and willing to pay a premium for environmentally sustainable tourism products. This has become a key factor in purchasing decisions (OECD, 2018). Therefore, conservation and preservation of biodiversity are increasingly becoming a factor in any tourism modelling. This is likely to be more now with international community, governments and non-government-actors emphasis on climate change and its legislation. For example, in Zambia the Paris Accords on climate change were ratified by the Zambian parliament in 2016. With most of the major tourism products located in eco-sensitive areas, such as the Kafue eco-basin in the south and the Bangweulu wetlands up north, the environmental sustainability of tourism products is likely to play an even growing role in conceptualisation of the destination. Thirdly, there has also been a number socio-cultural changes among tourists since the Second World War. All the aforesaid changes challenge the traditional role of DMOs and destination brands.

2.2.1.3. Open Questions in Literature, Practice and Policy

Despite the fundamental and acknowledged changes said to be occurring in the operating environment and destination systems and consequently the numerous questions, literature has recorded that the underlying purpose, structure and form of DMOs and other destination components appear to have by and large remained the same in a number of theory and professional practices (Pollock, 2010; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016). This view of reality is considered faulty and out of date, and is a presumed explanation by some scholars for the failure of policy in destinations' attempts to develop competitive and sustainable destinations (Pollock, 2010; Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016). The changes as already identified in literature have become a challenge for policy and practice, and are threatening the growth, competitiveness, profitability and sustainability of the destination as a whole. Incidental to this, the DMO as a policy tool to stimulate tourism is threatened with losing its legitimacy and relevancy in destinations (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, as Pike (2016) and others have argued, there is need for academics to engage meaningfully and find innovative ways in which the future DMO will survive, in what form and to what end, given the tirade of disruptions and the changes taking place in the tourism industry and destinations. These discussions are becoming louder with increased importance attached to tourism by countries and places (Pike, 2016).

To summarise, the post-2000 era has seen the entry of four prominent destination paradigms in academic discourses of destination marketing, management, governance and leadership. These are considered important for growth, competitiveness, profitability and sustainability of tourism destinations, especially in the current era of highly globalised and competitive markets for tourists (World Tourism Organisation, 2011; Wang and Pizam, 2011; Morrison, 2013; Pike and Page, 2014; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Pike, 2016).

Published literature also acknowledges that destinations have emerged as the biggest brands among the travel brands in the tourism industry (Morgan *et al.*, 2002; Pike and Page, 2014). These developments have made the DMO to be an important and regular feature, not only in destinations but also in literature (Wang and Pizam 2011; Fyall *et al.*,

2012). Most of prior research on the role of DMOs and nature of its leadership has been from the background of firm-centred view, where understanding is explicated from the perspective of a DMO and focused on its performance outcomes of that firm in the role of the destination management and / or marketing (Pike and Page, 2014). In the case of tourism marketing literature, it has been found that mostly the focus has been on destination image, market segmentation and application of the elements of the marketing mix (Li and Petrick, 2008).

However, the debate on the changes taking place in destinations, especially on the role of DMOs is now telling, and requires empirical discussions around the underlying organisation, governance and leadership of destinations in relation to framing the contemporary and future DMO and its purpose in policy frameworks. One of the key debates and of interest to this study is on the deep underlying ontological foundations of the DMO and its policy frameworks and business models in destinations.

Perhaps these open discussions, as alluded to by several scholars, are a clarion call for academics to pay attention to this global complex phenomenon of tourism and the attendant problems in the highly competitive contemporary tourism world; and to exploit its scholarly potential and to innovatively respond to the open persistent questions in practice and policy witnessed in recent years (Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015). This study is around these discussions.

2.2.2. Academic Discourse on Paradigmatic Shifts and Expanding Role of DMOs

Although tourism literature has been found to be fragmented and also the study of tourism still considered to be in its infancy (Pike and Page, 2014), when considered together, the shifting role of the DMO and other destination components have brought out an array of discussions on the DMO business model and also on the organisation of tourism and destinations in specific (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015). The changes taking place have been explained differently and / or at times remain unexplained in theory. Consequently, even the propositions of the shape in which the DMO will survive and to what end have been varied, including in practice and policy propositions. This can be said also of the overall

organisation, management and governance of destinations. For example, one of the enduring questions in contemporary DMO literature and practice is whether DMOs typify destination marketing or destination management or indeed any of the other paradigms, such as destination governance and destination leadership or a combination of these paradigms. Second, there are also questions arising from the arguments of some of the scholars that the DMO role is a matter of mandate assigned to it by policy and the eventual focus of its activities, without a deeper reflection on the underlying changes taking place (Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Dredge, 2016).

Even though these discussions are inconclusive, they have nonetheless attracted attention in practice and policy in relation to the organisation of tourism destinations. Second, they are also a challenge to the traditionally held views on the organisation and apportionment of roles and functions in destination systems. Highlights of these paradigms and the difficulties associated with them in practice and policy as outlined in the extant literature are isolated and highlighted below.

2.2.2.1. DMO and Destination Marketing

From its emergence during the late 1990s, destination marketing has been widely accepted as important and necessary for the growth and sustainability of destinations under the current highly competitive market for tourists (World Tourism Organisation, 2011; Wang, 2011; Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016; Pike, 2018). Tracing its origins, destination marketing is considered to have emerged from the general area of tourism marketing to become a distinct specialized area and paradigm. This paradigm became popular in academic discourse from the early 2000s (Morrison, 2012). Its literature appears to have also followed this trend.

The entry of the destination marketing paradigm has stirred up debate in destinations. One of the contested subjects in literature has been the meaning of ‘destination marketing’ itself vis-à-vis the nomenclature and role of DMOs. Destination marketing is considered to derive its meaning from marketing. Pike and Page (2014) conclude that destination marketing is “the marketing of an identifiable tourism destination with an explicit

geopolitical boundary”; where marketing is defined as “a social and managerial process by which individuals and groups obtain what they need through creating and exchanging products and value with others” (Kotler *et al.*, 1999). In this case, the role of the DMO is that of marketing an identifiable tourism destination (Pike and Page, 2014).

Perhaps more fundamental for this study is the differences in literature on the role of the DMO under the destination marketing paradigm. When it comes to the rationale of DMOs, there has been a varied approach to the similarities and / or dissimilarities of the two terms of ‘Destination Marketing Organisation’ and ‘Destination Management Organisation’ in relations to the entity responsible (Pike and Page, 2014; World Tourism Organisation, 2015; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Reinhold *et al.*, 2017; Nagai *et al.*, 2018; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021). There are those who insist on retaining the role of DMO to be that of destination marketing, and therefore according to them the DMO remains a ‘Destination Marketing Organisation’ (Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016; Pike, 2018). They argue that considering the use of any other role and nomenclature is akin to unrealistically assigning a different role to the DMO (Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016).

Leading the arguments of the DMO as a destination marketing organisation are Pike and Page (2014) and the various works of Pike (2008; 2016). They argue that the recent trends by some academics to refer to DMOs as ‘destination management organisation’ is “inappropriate and potentially misleading when used as a blanket descriptor” (Pike, 2016). It is argued that by configuration, the DMOs have neither the mandate nor resources, except probably a few, to effectively manage destinations. It is observed that assuming the DMO to be a destination management organisation could be arising from the confusing of the perceived need for ‘management’ in destinations as opposed to the predominantly marketing function DMOs currently perform (Pike, 2016). Seemingly, implied in the support of this view are the arguments of Jenkins *et al.* (2011) who raised concern on the lack of research in academics in the area of destination management. Limited research in the area of destination management has created a void in correctly ascribing responsibilities within destination systems. This reinforces the argument of Pike and Page (2014) that “whilst academics may create terms and offer an oversight of the problems

facing destinations and the need for management, allocating their resolution to DMOs as management function is clearly a different scope for a DMO”.

Destination management by the DMO would imply that they have some level of control of the major elements in the destination; in the absence of such control, it is not possible. In the words of Fyall (2011) “unless all elements are owned by the same body, then the ability to control and influence the direction, quality and the development of the destination” may not be possible. This has become the rallying argument by those opposed to changing to the definition of the DMO role to include or to completely be that of destination management (Pike, 2016). The limitations for DMOs to assume destination management as identified by Pike and Page (2014) in the policy environment, including that: (a) they have no authority to change the official name or geopolitical boundary of the place they represent; (b) they have little control, if any, over the quality of the actual visitor experience relative to the promises in marketing communication; (c) they have no control over stakeholders’ product development, pricing or their marketing communication apart from joint promotions undertaken, like fairs and road shows; (d) their funding / budget is decided by politicians and other stakeholders, not solely by DMO managers; and (e) DMOs have little influence over the environment, management of resources and development of infrastructure and superstructure.

The above arguments notwithstanding, literature acknowledges that DMOs are one of the major stakeholders in destinations and the broader tourism industry (Leiper, 2008; Pike and Page, 2014). Therefore, according Pike and Page (2014), this could be the source of confusion in that there is a presumption of ‘managing’ when problems arise in destinations and stakeholders are looking for destination leadership. As to whether this is possible even during such crisis, proponents of this view argue that it is dependent on the dominant political discourse and the legislative or political environment under which the DMO is operating (Pike and Page, 2014; Dredge, 2016). In their view there are distinct domains for destination marketing and destination management, and the latter cannot be ascribed to DMOs. However, this strand of literature acknowledges that there is need to rethink the functions of the DMO fundamentally. However, such rethinking, should be from, among

others, the perspective of “underlying principles of marketing and how these are applied at a destination level” and other changes taking place in the destination environment (Pike and Page, 2014).

What this blend of literature and its arguments appear not to respond to are the contemporary questions of the plausible deeper underlying reasons as suggested by Dredge (2016). Also, the possible unexplained factors that are driving the DMO and destinations to be on this continuous evolutionary path, to a point of threatening its survival and future as suggested by literary discourses have not been fully explained (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Reinhold *et al.*, 2017; Nagai *et al.*, 2018; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020). Thirdly, also what the underlying causality associated with policy-makers rethinking the roles of these DMOs when at the same time DMOs are acknowledged as being necessary contemporary destinations remains unclear in destination discourses (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015). Thirdly, equally important is the question of what is holding the core activities and generic structure of the DMO to remain primarily the same across the world despite rising arguments against this archetypal DMO (Pike, 2016).

2.2.2.2. DMO and Destination Management

There is a growing body of literature whose view is that the ‘Destination Marketing Organisation’ has given way to the ‘Destination Management Organisation’, with a focused role of destination management (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003; Wang and Pizam, 2011; Morrison, 2012; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Hristov and Petrova, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; and Hristov *et al.*, 2020). This body of literature posits that the contemporary DMO is no longer a destination marketing organisation but has evolved to be a destination management organisation in response to the developments in tourism and destinations in the contemporary world. In this view, the contemporary DMO is considered important for a broader management and leadership role in a destination. Its voice in destinations is considered to go beyond the traditional role of marketing. This view is increasingly being adopted in practice in several destinations (Wang and Pizam, 2011; Morrison, 2013; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and

Naumov, 2015; Hristov and Petrova, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; and Hristov *et al.*, 2020).

Destination management as a concept and distinct paradigm, just like destination marketing, begun entering scholarly discussions during the 1980s, and it only gained prominence in mainstream literature during the early 2000s (Morrison, 2012). Since then, it has been a subject of debate from various perspectives (Merilainen and Lemmetyinen, 2011; Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Hristov and Zeher, 2015). But despite these open debates, it is widely gaining acceptance in both academics and practice as being important in destinations (Fyall *et al.*, 2012).

Destination management, similar to destination marketing, is also considered to be important for the growth, competitiveness, profitability and sustainability of destinations, especially in the face of globalisation and increased competitive tourism market (World Tourism Organisation, 2011; Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016). However, as already alluded to, literature indicates that generally there is limited research specifically relating to destination management even though it is nowadays a regular theme in literature (Wang, 2011; Jenkins, *et al.*, 2012).

In comparison to destination marketing, it is widely accepted that as a concept, destination management is more inward looking in destinations by focusing on activities within the supply-side of the destination, such activities include: destination competitiveness, resource management, seamless visitor experience (Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015). On the other hand, the focus of destination marketing is considered to be outward by focusing on activities targeted at the demand-side of the destination system. One of the prominent scholarly works in the definition of the role of the DMO in the context of the changes taking place in destinations is that of Presenza *et al.* (2005) whose work made distinction of ‘destination marketing’ and ‘destination management’ as aforesaid. Arising from their work, Presenza *et al.* (2005) suggested a framework that categorised the activities of DMO into two, as that of ‘External Destination Marketing’ and ‘Internal Destination Development’. The external function is typically considered as that of marketing activities; and internal activities according to them encompasses “all

other form of activities apart from marketing undertaken by the DMO to develop and maintain tourism in destination”. The internal function of destination development is considered to fall in the ambit of destination management. However, while being useful in elucidating the distinctions in practice and applications, the framework is not so useful in resolving the fundamental problem of DMO rationale. In their own discussion, Presenza *et al.* (2005) emphasise that it is intended to be used as a tool for analysing a single ‘Destination Management Organisation’ and its activities over time or to benchmark activities of one DMO against another.

Another prominent definitional view on destination management is that of Morrison (2013) who viewed destination management as “the coordination and integration of all the elements of the destination mix in a particular geographic area based upon a defined strategy and plan” and also “for marketing”. In this view, the destination management mix elements are identified as attractions and events, facilities, transportation, infrastructure and hospitality and marketing elements such as communication and branding (Mill and Morrison, 2012; Morrison, 2013). The shortcoming in this definition is the rather limiting view of the marketing function and its activities. Marketing as a concept and philosophical view has been growing, and even when considered in the context of destinations, it is too limiting to consider it as one of the elements of the destination management mix. It is a distinct paradigm and should be developed and discussed along its own theoretical base. Scholars argue that the landscape of destination management is also changing in destinations, especially as it relates to DMOs. The questions are around the component or components responsible for destination management in destination systems and also on the role of the public sector entities in destination management (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003; Kozak and Baloglu, 2011; Pike and Page, 2014). Secondly is the extent of the role of destination management (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015). Hristov and Zehrer (2015) and others argue that these questions are indicative of the need to pay attention on DMO and destination system fundamentals, including rethinking existing governance structures in destinations (Fyall *et al.*, 2009; Coles *et al.*, 2012; Laesser and Beritelli, 2013; Morgan, 2012).

Morrison *et al.* (1998), picking the destination management and DMOs discussions from the United States of America (USA) perspective, posits that a DMO as a ‘destination management organisation’ has roles that include an element of destination marketing, more or less as a one of the functions for DMOs in the course of destination management. The proposition is five main functions of DMOs are that of (a) economic driver; (b) community marketer; (c) industry coordinator; (d) quasi-government representative; and (e) builder of community pride. Those with similar arguments, such as Heath and Wall (1992), suggest the role to include destination strategy formulation, representing interests of stakeholders and coordination of destination activities.

Generally, it appears a number of recent literatures from North America is putting more emphasis on ‘destination management’ as opposed to marketing that is still emphasised in the Oceania countries, such as New Zealand and Australia. In discussing the role of DMOs, for example relying on the Destination Consulting Group (2012), Morrison (2013), itemises the role of the DMO as a ‘destination management organisation’ and ‘destination management’ includes “leadership and coordination; planning and research; product development; marketing and promotion; partnerships and team building; and community relations”. In this view, marketing is considered to be a subset of the overall destination management function of the DMO that is viewed as a destination management organisation”.

The above view seems supported empirically by a study of Wang (2008) that used a case study approach and was undertaken in a small destination of Indiana, USA. The study interviewed a combination of thirty-seven tourism businesses and local staff members of a local DMO. The expanded role of the DMO of a ‘destination management organisation’ were found to include: network management organisation; organiser of destination management campaigns; partner and team builder in a destination; funding agent for collaborative marketing; advocate of tourism industry; brand builder; and catalyst of the collaborative initiative.

However, studies such as the ones above have not responded to the core question of this study: what mechanisms are causing the role of the DMO to shift, and parallel to this, what is holding the core structure and activities of DMOs to remain the same despite literature and practice arguing that the underlying DMO rationale is changing. Perhaps more fundamental is the hanging question of the underlying DMO paradigm and rationale, going forward, that was not attempted to be answered.

Interestingly, in recent years the ambit considered to be falling under destination management in relation to DMOs is also said to be shifting (Hristov and Petrova, 2015). Destination management is now seen as playing a bigger role that includes managing economic, environmental and social resources in destinations, and harmonising the interests of various stakeholders in destinations (Beritelli and Laesser, 2014; Hristov and Petrova, 2015; Beritelli *et al.*, 2015). Under these arguments, the various stakeholders expect the DMO to play a broader and critical role that goes beyond meeting tourist needs and increasing visitors to destinations towards a more holistic approach, encompassing a broader economic and local community agenda (Morgan, 2012; Hristov and Petrova, 2015). In the case of some destinations such as England, this has translated into reorientation of policy to provide for DMOs to take up a broader economic role (Hristov and Naumov, 2015).

One of the common examples in literature of the changing role of the DMO over the years to become a destination management organisation is the case of England. Like in most destinations, the DMO started off as a destination marketing organisation and subsequently it evolved and is now “expected to facilitate a more holistic and inclusive approach to destination management and provide core leadership functions, rather than being solely responsible for the marketing and development of destinations” (Hristov and Petrova, 2015). In this view the DMO has taken up greater economic activities in destinations.

So even if the DMO were to be a ‘destination management organisation’ as suggested by some strands of destination literature, still the question of the changing DMO rationale

remains valid. As in the case of those who argue for the retention of the Destination Marketing Organisation taxonomy, the literature under this theoretical base has also not been fully unified in accounting for forces driving the changes taking place in destinations. To the contrary, it still raises the consequential argument of this study, namely, that the role or expected role of the DMO has substantially shifted over years and this change has not been fully explained in academic discourses.

Second, and very important for this study, is that even if authors such as Dredge (2016) suggest that the configuration of DMOs in destinations to be either be a ‘destination management’ or a ‘destination marketing’ organisation. This, according to Dredge (2016), is dependent on policy decision-makers. However, worth noting is that there is no framework proposition in theory for such business model decision(s).

2.2.2.3. DMO and Destination Governance

Tourism destination governance has become regular in published literature from the mid-2000s, and since then there has been a growing view by some scholars of changing emphasis from destination management to destination governance of destinations (Zhang and Zhu, 2014). The concept of destination governance is traced to the work of Greenwood (1993) and is rooted in established literature of disciplines, such as business studies, political science, public policy and other social sciences (Amore and Hall, 2016). The argument is that destination governance recognises stakeholders and their influence on the competitiveness of destinations (Svensson *et al.*, 2005). This view appears to be a departure from prior research which focused on the government managing public-led destination management to governance of relationships between multiple stakeholders and how they interact with one another (Baggio *et al.*, 2010).

As a concept, governance is widely used and has been explored in the field of public administration for the last three decades (Yani, 2018). However, its definition is still varied. Enroth (2014) summarises the perspective of governance as viewed in recent years as a change from “an art of governing premised on producing policy for a society or a population to an art of governing premised on solving problems with no necessary

reference to any kind of society or population”. In some tourism literature discussions, governance has been considered to be a “process by which society or organisation decides who takes the responsibility to make the choice and who pays the cost” (Eagles, 2009). The concept focuses on three main aspects, namely, public-private relationships, complexity and interdependence on resources. Differences in tourism destination governance arrangements are now said to be potentially creating variations in the effectiveness of joint stakeholder interactions and the resulting improvements in destination competitiveness (Baggio *et al.*, 2010). Prior research from this view has been limited and mostly are predisposed with focus on network analysis (mostly from the quantitative approaches) and the corporate governance and public governance approaches (Baggio *et al.*, 2010; Zhang and Zhu, 2014).

Despite rise in interest and discourses on destination governance, tourism studies are still scanty on governance (Amore and Hall, 2016). This notwithstanding, several tourism literature perspectives acknowledge that there are changes in the expectations of various stakeholders on government institutions (such as DMOs) in recent years. According to Yani (2018), this is driven by social changes in the global world due to “rapid development of technology information, democratisation wave, and various global challenges – such as global warming or global financial crises”. These developments are said to be increasing citizens’ expectations and the role and practice based on traditional theories of public administration is under question. This has become a fertile ground for some of the contemporary discussions on the role of the DMO and view destination governance as a plausible domain of DMOs in contemporary destination systems (Ruhanen *et al.*, 2010; Zhang and Zhu, 2014; Amore and Hall, 2016).

According to literature, because of the complexity of problems (that have come to be referred to as ‘wicked problems’ by some) encountered in contemporary environment, dominant traditional governance approaches are under question (la Cour and Højlund, 2017). The problem situations are characterised by, among others, uncertainties and controversial definition of problems and solutions. Meta governance is now viewed as an alternative to the traditional governance perspective. According to literature, meta

governance “focuses explicitly on the practices and procedures that secure governmental influence, command and control within governance regimes with its originality derived from its emphasis on relationality and negotiated links between government and governance, whereas governance draws attention to the processes that dislocate political organisation from government and the state” (Whitehead, 2003; Amore and Hall, 2016). Meta governance is assumed to be altering the role of the DMO from the two perspectives, which Robichau (2011) splits as state-centric and society-centric perspectives. State centric view considers the state to be central as chief actor and centre of society in terms of retention of power. On the other hand, society-centric views a diminishing state power and is considered to become more and more reliant on non-state actors in fulfilling its duty. In terms of tourism destinations, in a state-centric approach, meta-governance redefines the role of the state as changing in maintaining its regulatory powers in response to the changing context. In society-centric view, meta-governance is viewed as the state diminishing its role rather than changing it (Fawcett and Daugbjerg, 2012; la Cour and Højlund, 2017).

In general governance discourse, meta governance has been conceived from the reflexive paradigm as a response to “economic inefficiency, excessive managerialism, and policy ineffectiveness, fragmented communication and mistrusted behaviours of key actors” (Amore and Hall, 2016). In this regard, meta governance as a concept could be said have risen with postmodernism. That is why in policy environment contexts, for example, of the United Kingdom (UK), meta governance is associated with policy-making under the ‘third way’ that are traced to the views of postmodernism sociology theorists like Anthony Giddens. Anthony Giddens’s views are a subject of review later within this chapter, serve to say at this stage that it tallies with the postmodernism or post-structural paradigm of governance.

Recent tourism literature has recognised the concept of meta governance and argue that “there is a wide range of tourism meta governance practice in operation” although there has been a tendency to ignore for reasons Amore and Hall (2016) argue to be “partly due to the predominant governance paradigm in tourism planning and policy”. Scholars, such

as Dredge and Jenkins (2011), Dredge and Jamal (2015) and Cole *et al.* (2016), embraced meta governance views in tourism and are argue for ‘post-structural and / or post-disciplinary paradigms in the consideration of tourism phenomena (Amore and Hall, 2016). These views, again are associated with the postmodernism paradigm.

As regards, the role of DMOs in governance, Spyriads *et al.* (2011) suggest as follows: “DMOs have an important role to play as vehicles of meta governance.... the role of the DMO is central in coordinating and integrating the development and implementation of policies and strategies at intersectoral (across sectors) and intergovernmental (across the levels of government) levels”. Amore and Hall (2016) retort the views of Spyriads *et al.* (2011) and conclude these views as inadequate when it comes to meta governance in destinations reliant on the claim of Spyriads *et al.* (2011) that “essentially, destination meta governance relates to the need of the destination actively to form governance structures and manage their mechanisms, conflict and tension” (Spyriads *et al.*, 2011). Amore and Hall (2016) argue that this view is flawed because it fails to acknowledge “that DMOs are themselves embedded within hierarchies of governance; and that their role and decisions not only favour certain interests over others but also certain values”. In their view, the notion of meta governance in tourism destinations is still a potential subject of empirical tourism studies.

In addition to the above, presuming the role of DMOs even under the concept of meta governance without a fundamental rethink of the very foundations of DMO role is still futile in resolving the open questions that are vexing practice and policy. These include the suitability of DMO framework in contemporary destination system modelling.

2.2.2.4. DMOs and Destination Leadership

Destination leadership both as a concept and subject of research is still in its infancy (Zehrer *et al.*, 2014; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015). Hristov and Zehrer (2014) argue that the changes in the operating environment and the tourism itself are introducing new challenges for both practitioners and academics. In view of this, it is considered important to rethink how destinations are led.

In terms of the DMO, Hristov and Zehrer (2015) argue that “destination leadership is an emerging concept that might be better able to capture what it is that DMOs actually do or conversely fail to address in the course of leading destinations”. Relying on mainstream literature, the definition of leadership is considered as “the ability to influence a group toward the achievement of goals” (Robbins, 2000). Hristov and Zehrer (2015) argue that “such definition captures core functions of contemporary DMO”. According to them this entails leading and shaping the direction of destination management and development in destinations along with diverse destination organisation members.

Literature acknowledges that studies and generally literature discussions based on the perspective of destination leadership of DMO are still scant compared to other paradigms, such as management and governance (Hristov and Zehrer, 2015). However, it is conceptually viewed that DMOs could serve as destination leadership network, especially when destinations are viewed from the concept of public goods (Zehrer and Siller, 2007). In this concept, tourism activities are recognised as taking place in spatial settings and use both built environment and natural resources. Therefore, it is argued that leadership network would play the role of bringing stakeholders together in decision making and destination leadership (Hristov and Zehrer, 2015).

The above notwithstanding, Hristov and Zehrer (2015) conclude that the limitation this far of the DMOs serving as leadership network is that the propositions are purely based on literature synthesis and only conceptual, thereby still subject to modification and / or validation empirically. In this regard, the future direction of DMOs as leadership networks is still open and subject to testing in the ‘real world’ research. But still, literature is suggestive of DMOs as possible destination leadership networks in destination systems, going forward (Hristov and Zehrer, 2015).

2.3. Discourses on Causality of the Shifting Expected Role of DMOs

No specific published studies were found to have been undertaken on the underlying causal mechanisms and structures on the shifting role of the DMO and other components

in destinations. However, literature has variously discussed this subject, at times normatively or arising in the course of discussing the role of DMOs generally (Wang and Pizam, 2011; Morrison, 2012; Pike and Page, 2014; Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Dredge, 2016; Pike, 2016; Pike, 2018; Morrison *et al.*, 2020). What is apparent from the various strands of literature is that academic discourses have accounted for and attributed the changes, disruptions and reorganisations that are taking place at various levels in tourism destinations in different ways (Wang and Pizam, 2011; Morrison, 2012; Pike and Page, 2014; Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Dredge, 2016; Pike, 2016; Pike, 2018; Morrison *et al.*, 2020). Consequently, the propositions of resolving the problems facing the tourism industry, DMOs, destination components on the organisation of destinations have also been varied, and at sometimes even contradictory. Even where there has been consensus, the blends of propositions on the future of DMOs in destinations have been multifarious (Dredge, 2016; Pike, 2016).

The above notwithstanding, it appears uncontested in both academic and professional practice discourses that there are shifts taking place in the tourism industry in general and destinations in specific that are challenging the traditionally held views on the role of the DMO, organisation of destinations, roles of components and the required policy environment (Pike and Page, 2014; World Tourism Organisation, 2015; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020).

Secondly, it is also widely acknowledged in discourses that DMOs and the definition of their roles have over the years evolved substantially in policy, practice and theory from the traditional role and the nature of leadership they provided in earlier destination modelling to the current varied approaches suggested in some literature discussions (Pike and Page, 2014; Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Dredge, 2016).

Thirdly, it is also generally acknowledged from the early 2000s that the tourism industry in general and specifically the destinations vi-a-vis the DMO are somewhat reorganising

in terms of its structure, governance and leadership somehow (Gyr, 2010; Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Dredge, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020). What has been witnessed in the case of Zambia is that at times these have appeared through polycentricism and ahead of policy. In some case they have forced public policy enablement; tended to be continuously evolving also; and even compete with the DMO for resources and politics of DMO decision-making (Pike, 2016; Tourism Council of Zambia, 2020).

Those who have commented or discussed the subject of causality in academics have predominantly associated these changes to be mainly falling under two domains, namely: (a) changing tourism operating environment and resulting structural changes and social transformations; (b) changes in the environment and conceptualisation of destinations as complex social systems. The main argument by the former can be inferred from literature as that of the interactions of the environment, structural changes and social transformation in a late modernity or reflexive era translating into “changes in character and behaviour of organisations and in public expectations about the role and responsibility within society” (Saffic *et al.*, 2010). The latter cluster of literature base the arguments on the growing literature which acknowledges the changes in the conceptualisation of tourism destinations from being viewed as amalgam of products as once conceptualised by Buhalis (2000), to complex systems as espoused by growing number of recent literature (Baggio, 2013; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Jakulin, 2016). These changes are considered to have had ramifications on the organisation of tourism in destinations in general and also on the role of the components in these systems.

The above factors draw us to plausible explanation as mainly falling into two parallel theoretical foundations, which tend to have some intersection with the changing environment, of external and internal influences, namely: (a) Social transformations under postmodernism or late modernity and / or other structural changes; and (b) the destination system complexity behaviour. In these two, what is appearing common to both is the external and internal environmental influences. However, it is worth noting that literature from both the system complexity and social transformation strands have not identified the

causally efficaciousness of these cited plausible factors and the actual generating mechanism, and to possibly also eliminate the competing factors that have no causality efficacy in destination systems. Additionally, how these are activated in specified contexts of destinations remains unexplained in literature. Literature on the two main views is discussed as Figure 2.1.

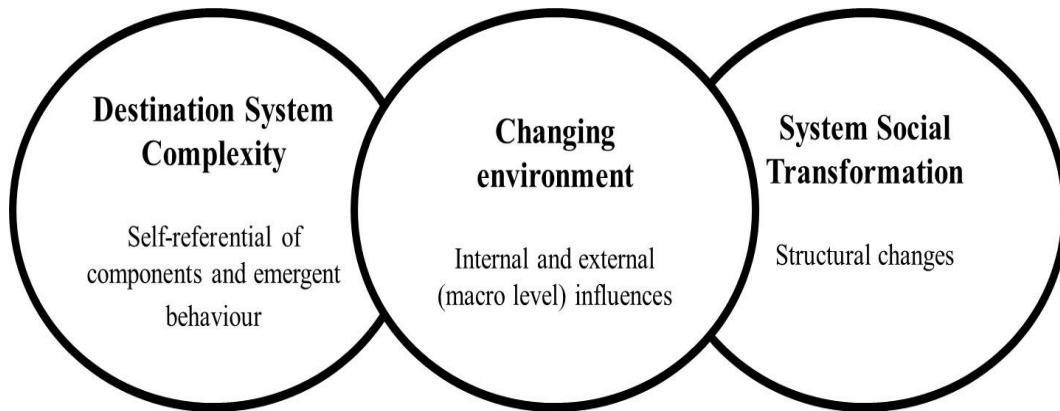


Figure 2.1: Causality Factors in Literature: The Intersection of System Complexity and Social Transformation (Castells, 2004; Ermen and Gnoth, 2006; Beritelli *et al.*, 2014; Baggio, 2013; Capra and Lusi, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Hristov and Petrova, 2016).

2.3.1. Changing Environment

It is no doubt that the environment under which the DMO and tourism generally is operating has tremendously evolved from its first conceptualisation (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016). However, when it comes to causality, discussions on these changes have had variations; and are being reified by scholars such as Hristov and Petrova (2015), Reinhold *et al.*, 2015 and Dredge (2016). The dominant views can be categorized into two, as: (a) those that have taken the structural changes in political, economic, cultural and technological systems wholesomely, and view the problem to lie somewhere in the mesh and mix of these factors and / or some of their elements (Wang and Pizam, 2011; Morrison, 2012; Wang, 2012; Dredge, 2016; Pike, 2018); and (b) those that have isolated some specific aspects of structural and external environmental changes taking place, such as turbulences in economic and political environments as the driving forces of the changes

taking place or predicted to occur in destinations (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Petrova, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020).

2.3.1.1. Environmental Factors

As already discussed in the preceding sections, some of the operational environment factors have been isolated from among the changes shaping tourism in recent years. These are attributed and considered to have defined the shifting role of the DMO and their presumed effects from various strands of literature, as follows.

First, rapid growth and shifts of tourism as a global phenomenon (Mosedale and Albrecht, 2011; Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Pike, 2016). It is acknowledged that today tourism has grown to be a global phenomenon and it is predicted to continue growing at exponential rates (World Tourism Organisation, 2020). However, in the course of its life, its operational environment has evolved and new phenomena have emerged, such as globalisation and the now highly competitive international and domestic markets (Wang and Pizam, 2013; Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015). Some of these challenges were not envisaged in the infancy and early booming years of tourism during the 1960 and 1970s. This is even worse for early rationale of DMOs. This shifting environment is considered to be ridden with its own complexities and problems now manifesting in practice, policy and theory of tourism and destinations (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2018). It is argued that in contemporary tourism, the theory and views on operations of DMOs and destinations in general that have traditionally held in both practice and academic discourses appear not to be holding anymore under this environment (Pike, 2008; Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016).

Second, structural and political shifts. According to literature, over the last forty years or so, there have been broader structural and political shifts taking place in society that are impacting destinations, DMOs and other destination components (Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016). It is argued that these changes are now challenging the very *raison-d'être* of Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs) and that the market failures the DMOs were conceptualized to address continue to crumble

(Reinhold, Laesser and Beritelli, 2015). Some of the noticeable effects of these shifts in destinations include the fact that they are: (a) challenging the contemporary purpose and legitimacy of the DMO in its current configuration and environment; (b) impacting on the tourism stakeholders' expected role of the DMO and other destination components; and (c) also impacting on the organisation of destination systems and their components.

Third, changing tourist behaviour and changes in conceptualisation of tourism products and destinations. Destinations are no longer “a package of facilities and services” but are rather emerging as a total tourist experience with multiple products (Hu and Ritchie, 1993; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015). It is acknowledged that tourist behaviour and experiences are now important in understanding the concept of ‘destination’. Destination experiences motivate and drive tourist buyer behaviour. These have been shifting, creating a heterogeneous and multifaceted concept of ‘destination’ (Larsen, 2007; Rickly-Boyd, 2009; Beritelli *et al.*, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015). These changes have in turn challenged traditionally held views of destination marketing and management. This includes increasing multipliers in both supply and demand domains.

According to the 2016 St. Gallen Consensus on Advances in Destination Management, the changes in the conceptualisation of destinations has had an effect on destination strategies and their resilience (Reinhold *et al.*, 2017) on account of four arguments: (a) because contemporary destinations are defined by multiple production and business systems, single grand strategy for different demand and supply-sides are unlikely to hold; (b) theoretical assumptions based on “complete information and a competitive environment” being ‘out there’ to be discovered and interpreted can no longer hold (Reinhold *et al.*, 2017); (c) whereas traditional strategic planning prescribed “game changing strategic plans” (Reinhold *et al.*, 2017), this reality of strategy is no longer holding in the current environment characterised by more “messy, emergent, opportunistic and incremental” nature of nature of reality (Beritelli and Reinhold, 2010; Reinhold *et al.*, 2017); and (d) in the current environment tourism destinations might “completely lack a purposeful strategic development trajectory” because of the need to run business models based on co-creation of value with tourists (Reinhold *et al.*, 2017).

Fourth, turbulent political and economic contexts. The last few years have seen continuous turbulence in the political environment; these coupled with quick development of tourism as an economic sector and mass globalisation of tourism products, are shifting the traditional functions, responsibilities and structures of destination marketing and / or management organisations (Laesser and Beritelli, 2013; Cole *et al.*, 2014; Mariani *et al.*, 2014; Hristov and Petrova, 2015). Ultimately, this is forcing a reconsideration of the “*modus operandi* of DMOs when leading on strategic agenda” (Hristov, 2014).

Fifth, technological advances. The rapid and disruptive technological changes are said to be challenging the traditional promotion role of DMOs, primarily in two ways. DMOs have lost control of traditional role of destination communication due to increase in communication multipliers and also increase in user generated content through social media (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016). These changes, offering both opportunities and threats, have been driving a new DMO paradigm and structure (Pike, 2016).

2.3.1.2. Point of Departure between Two Views

Both the structural and social transformation and the destination complexity theorists recognise the environmental influences on the destination system. However, when it comes to destination causally behaviour, the point of inflexion is on how each of the theorists consider the effects of these influences and plausible response of the destination system. Structural and social transformation discussions argue for the plausibility of the interactions of the environment, structural changes and social transformation translating into changing the character and behaviour of destination system. This includes its organisations and in public expectations about the role and responsibility within the destination system (Saffic *et al.*, 2010; Dredge, 2016). On the other hand, literature arguing for causality based on complexity of tourism destination system draws its causally efficaciousness from complexity theory. This centres causality on two plausible behaviour of complex systems, namely (a) display of emergence behaviour; and (b) self-referential characteristic of complex systems (Baggio, 2013; Jakulin, 2016). Literature on each of these two views and their variations is explored further below.

2.3.2. Structural and Social Transformations

Some scholars have attributed the shifting role of DMO to broader structural changes, political environment and resultant social transformations (Dredge (2016). The main structural changes associated with causality as discussed in destination literature and highlighted by different strands under different parlance within the structural and social transformations categorisation is follows:

- (a) Changing environment in general and its effects on the DMO rationale (Abram and Pizam, 2011; Morrison, 2012; Wang, 2012; Pike and Page 2014; Hristov and Petrova, 2015; Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Pike 2016; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Dredge, 2016);
- (b) Structural changes taking place in destinations (Pike and Page 2014; Dredge, 2016; Hristov and Petrova, 2015; Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Pike 2016; Reinhold *et al.*, 201; Dredge, 2016);
- (c) Social transformation – change in the theory of society (Dredge, 2016);
- (d) Resurgence of the neo liberal traditions (Hristov and Petrova, 2015; Hristov and Petrova, 2016);
- (e) Transcendental shifts – mid level to meta level theorisations (Dredge, 2016);
- (f) Transition to meta governance paradigm (Amore and Hall, 2016);
- (g) Late modernity / liquid modernity (Dredge, 2016); and
- (h) Collapse of industrial policy paradigm of DMOs (Dredge, 2016).

The highlights of the above discourses as discussed in literature in regard to the phenomena of the study are as below.

2.3.2.1. Changes in the Theory of Society

There is a body of knowledge which posits that the changes being witnessed in the reorganisation of tourism destinations and the associated redefinition of the role of the DMO, especially at policy level, are as a result of structural changes in the theory of society (Hristov and Petrova, 2015; Dredge, 2016). This strand of literature argues that the changes and problems witnessed in the organisational structures and governance of tourism destinations is reflective of the broader structural and underlying political shifts taking place in society. This includes the changing role of the DMO and associated

questions. Therefore, relying on these arguments, the posture of what the future of the DMO will look like, if it survives, rests on the philosophical disposition the theorisation of DMOs will take. The role of practice and academics under these arguments is to look more deeply into the broader and structural shifts taking place in society, destinations and DMOs accordingly.

It is argued that, going forward, there is need to rethink the DMO and generally the theorizations of destinations that have hitherto dominated academic and practice discourses. Unless this is done, then the DMOs as we know them today are on a track to redundancy, complete extinction or at best becoming uncontrollable run-away trains (Hristov and Petrova, 2015; Dredge, 2016; Hall and Veer, 2016). In the case of Dredge (2016), three issues that underlie the changes or ought to guide the changes in theorisation of contemporary DMOs under the current structural and political changes are: (a) the change from modernity to late modernity; (b) reconsidering the dominant industrial policy paradigm in the theorisations of DMOs; and (c) transcendental changes taking place at structural levels, which it would appear literature has not fully accounted for appropriately.

a) Structural Changes - Transition to Late or Liquid Modernity

The crux of the argument under this family of literature is that there have been massive structural societal changes, which can be explained to be a result of transitioning from modernity to late modernity witnessed at society level. It is argued that it is these changes that are dictating shifts in ontological underpinnings for theorizations of destination organisation and the purpose of the DMO and other structures (Dredge, 2016). Under late or reflexive modernity paradigm there are shifts in the relationship of industry and the state, with the collapse of solid hierarchical structures that hitherto dominated tourism industry structures and organisation. The shifts in state-industry relations over the last four decades entails, among others, moving away from the dominant “hierarchical, solid and command-and-control structures and actions of government” to liquid paradigm (Buaman, 2000; Dredge, 2016).

This literature has categorised recent tourism developments into two eras that correspond with modernity and late modernity. The mass tourism era of the 1960s and 1970s is said to be corresponding with the modernity era; and beginning with the 1980s to date. This era is also associated rising of the new tourism paradigms of destination marketing, destination management, destination meta governance and destination leadership are associated with the late modernity era (Beck *et al.*, 1999; Hristov and Petrova, 2015; Dredge, 2016). It is further argued that under this kind of environment, the challenge for academics, practice and policy is for deeper reflection on the ontological foundations that traditionally have dominated DMO and destination organisation theorisations and thinking Dredge (2016). Dredge (2016) further argues that attempts to assign or ascribe a new purpose to the DMO under this paradigm as proposed by some scholars (Morgan, 2012; Morrison, 2013) is misplaced and not supported by the current reality under which destinations and DMOs exist. Unless such moves are preceded with re-theorizing destinations and their organisation. Further, it is also not supported by evidence that destinations and DMOs can readily realign themselves with new paradigms and mandates without making changes to the traditional industrial ontology that for decades underpinned their theorisations. Dredge (2016) dismisses proposals by some scholars, such as Morgan, Pritchard and Pride (2011) and Morgan (2012) who have proposed that, going forward DMOs can realign themselves to building coalitions with their stakeholders and take up “social responsibility, stewardship and sustainability”. It follows, therefore, that under this theoretical framework, attempts to assign the role of destination governance and destination leaderships as being suggested by some scholars would not be tenable before a deeper ontological reflection of the theoretical underpinnings of the current configuration of tourism in destinations.

b) Collapse of the Industrial Policy Paradigm

One of the other prominent arguments advanced literature on changes in tourism which is incidental to the late modernity paradigm is the collapse of the traditional industrial policy paradigm (Dredge, 2016). The argument is that hitherto, literature has been littered with scholarly works predisposed with the industrial paradigm of tourism. Consequently, there is now need to rethink of the alternative framing of the organisation of tourism and role

of DMOs in post-structural liquid world. It is also argued that the consideration of DMOs from the industrial policy framework or assumption of it as a tool for industrial policy has collapsed and cannot hold under late modernity.

What to note, as argued by Dredge (2016) is that in practice and policy, many DMOs, Zambia inclusive, have remained in the industrial policy paradigm. Under the industrial framework, tourism is recognised for its broad economic, employment, investment and development in policy. Under such a paradigm, the DMO is considered as a tool to achieve this end (Dredge, 2016). DMOs framed under the industrial policy paradigm can take the role of a policy tool for any of the functions or combination of destination marketing, product development, building industry capacity and even attracting investment. This is dependent on the orientation and thrust of policy. Consequently, DMOs under the industrial paradigm are funded by governments and/or combination of other funding instruments, such as levies and taxes through budget appropriations and policy.

Dredge (2016) draws attention to the limitations of tourism destinations being considered from the perspective of industrial policy, where the DMO is a policy tool. Going by these arguments, it can be extended that the current problem experienced in the organisation of tourism and roles of the components is as a result of the system failing to hold because it is sitting on a wrong design and framework. The operating paradigm of the destination is out of date and only held thinly by policy and practice, and therefore susceptible to collapsing (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015). Examples cited for forced changes are the cases of mature destinations such as the United Kingdom and the United States of America where DMOs have been structurally changed and funding models altered in response to mega changes taking place. In the case of the United Kingdom, tourism has been incorporated under a wider economic rationalisation agenda and roles of DMO taken as partnerships between businesses and public entities or local authorities (Hristov and Naumov, 2015).

It is worth emphasising that the conceptualisation of tourism and its policy has, for most of the twentieth century, been framed around the industrial perspective, where its value is considered to be that of being a broader policy tool for economic development,

employment and investment in destinations (Dredge, 2016). In this view, the DMO is viewed as an artifact for this policy end. However, according to literature, the DMO as an artifact and policy tool for industrial organisation of tourism in destinations and its fitness in its current form is now under question (Dredge, 2016). Its leitmotif as hitherto conceptualised is considered to be losing its ground and is in disarray. These discussions are prominent and ongoing in academic, practice and policy discourses. According to scholars, the changes taking place in the tourism industry and destinations have put the DMO on a track to redundancy as long as DMOs and destination organisations are not innovatively reconfigured. This reconfiguration should be to respond to changes, which are now considered to characterize contemporary tourism and destinations (Pike, 2016). Literary discourses have observed that even though it is apparent that there have been massive structural and political changes, the DMO has remained trapped in the industrial policy paradigm (Dredge, 2016). Under this paradigm, the DMO is considered important as a policy tool or organisational instrument to “lead destination marketing or to coordinate and manage industry interest in a destination” (Dredge, 2016). However, it is now argued that this view is increasingly becoming obsolete in the face of changes taking place in the environment, including funding and business models for DMOs (Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015). The argument, among others, is that the role of a DMO as a policy tool to organise tourism interests is undermined by changes in tourism and the current context of DMOs in destinations (Dredge, 2016). Tourism is now characterised by exigent and at times highly rapid and disruptive shifts in the environment, and also are subject to policy swings, as witnessed in several destinations (Pike, 2008; Pike and Page, 2014; Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Dredge, 2016; Pike, 2018). These are challenging the efficacy of the traditional archetypal DMO under the industrial framework view in destination policy environment and modelling (Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015).

c) Resurgence of Industrial Policy

The above discussions notwithstanding, there is still literature that argues to the contrary regarding shifting industrial policy paradigm. The crux of the argument under the above view is that there a re-birth of the industrial policy paradigm and that it was premature to

have predicted its downfall (Aiginger and Rodrik, 2020). In its contemporary form, industrial policy is said to be approached from a broader sense and in some cases under the parlance of ‘industrial strategy’.

Some tourism studies argue that there is a resurgence of the industrial policy and also deployment of policy instruments that can be considered to fall in the category of industrial policy discourses (Hristov and Petrova, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019). It is becoming apparent that in recent years, there is a renewal of the interest of industrial policies at policy level, especially in emerging destinations like Zambia. This is in direct contrast to the arguments of Dredge (2016) that it was no longer tenable to approach the framing of DMO and their theorisation from the industrial perspective contemporary tourism remains an open question in tourism research. The view contrary to that of Dredge (2016) is that this argument omits to recognise that just as there has been realignment in DMO and destination organisation modelling, industrial policy has also been evolving. It can no longer be considered under the purview of the traditional model of ‘infant industry’ protection through interventionist tools. According to Warwick (2013), there has been a reconnaissance of interest in industry policy but this has been in its new variation. This can be demonstrated by its increase in literature and number of countries that are renewing their interest in industrial policy, especially after the economic turbulences of 2008 (Warwick, 2013) and the current Coronavirus (Covid-19) pandemic. The purpose for industrial policy interventions has shifted over the years from the traditional approach based on product market interventions of production subsidies and state ownership, market-failures taxes during mid-years to the current focus on interventions that “help build systems, create networks, develop institutions and aligning strategic priorities” (Warwick, 2013). Taking this perspective of industrial policy, it is likely that DMOs could still be framed within the policy tool view as has been demonstrated in policy frameworks of some mature destinations, such as England (Hristov and Naumov, 2015).

Second, to argue for a complete withdrawal of government interest in policy dispositions under in contemporary tourism policy could be more idealistic than real, unless studies prove otherwise. Several governments, including Zambia, still recognise and base its

support to DMOs based on the tourism political economy (Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038). The common genealogy and heritage of all DMOs regardless of the nomenclature adopted is that of the commercial and industrialisation of tourism. Governments consider the importance of tourism as a tool for economic, social and lately nature and cultural heritage protection. In this view, governments will continue being a major stakeholder and influence in destination systems. Therefore, to conjure up tourism phenomena at national level without government policy stewardship is still idealistic and not supported by evidence but literature notes that in recent years tourism has also witnessed a rise in polycentric structures focused on policy in destinations, such as policy networks (Hristov and Petrova, 2016). However, even with such polycentricism, the rallying point for any policy consideration and/or support has been justified by the value of tourism to economies, job creation, social development in host communities and protection of natural and artificial heritages. In practice and policy, governments are still drivers of public policy formulation and implementation, and the justification even in funding options is from the industrial perspectives.

Third, the arguments of Dredge (2016) can be retorted by making a connection to policy thrusts with the life cycle of destinations. Butler (1980)'s destination life cycle concept will be considered under conceptualization of destinations later in the discussions. Suffice at this stage to note that Butler (1980) argues that destinations have a life cycle, suggestive of the various stages of development from inception to its decline or rejuvenation, depending on the interventions. Whilst the destination life cycle as suggested by Butler (1980) has not been popularized in academic studies, its conceptual suggestion is helpful and has been referred to by a number of academic discourses. Most importantly at this stage it is that while it has been criticised, it has also not been outrightly dismissed in academic discourses.

According to the above view, destinations are at different stages of life. In the case of Zambia, it is still an emerging destination. There are a host of such emerging destinations, especially in Sub Saharan Africa. If the contemporary industrial policy views are anything to go by in relations to Butler (1980)'s model, then emerging destinations still stand to

benefit from the view of DMOs as policy tools for wider benefits of tourism to economies. As argued by Warwick (2013), the industrial policy paradigm has evolved, and, therefore, it can still be considered to be important in the contemporary world for organisation of tourism destinations, through policy environment permissive of organisational structures, development of institutions and driving strategic alignment of sectors.

d) Transcendental Changes and Mid-level to Meta-level Theorisations

Some tourism theorists are touting an argument that there is an evolution in destinations that can only be explained and accounted for in literature and studies as being 'transcendental'. The argument is that there appears change in the locus of control and power relations within destination systems, whose origin has tentatively been explained as being 'transcendental' by Dredge (2016). These large-scale changes are being witnessed in the broader social, political and economic changes as well as at the levels of organisation of the tourism industry, relations among destination components and the locus of power. Therefore, according to Dredge (2016), to fully understand and subsequently theorise of the DMO and destinations, the debate now ought to move from the mid-level theorisation of the organisation of the tourism industry to the meta-level theoretic level. However, Dredge (2016) does not go further into investigations of this phenomenon. But prescribes as follows: "it is incumbent upon academics and practitioners to engage more deeply into the broader structural and political shifts taking place in society in order to rethink the organisation of tourism".

e) Economic and Political Shifts: Resurgence of Neo liberalism Traditions

While Hristov and Petrova (2015) generally agree with the notion of mega changes taking place in society, they move a step further by singling out the renaissance of the neo liberal tradition in public policy and allied developments. Their view is that in the case of destination reorganisation and role of DMOs, this is due to rising neo liberalism as the dominant political ideology in public policy discourses. This is causing changes in the traditional role of governments in tourism across the world. Under this new paradigm, public policy is driven by corporatist philosophies (Dredge, 2010; Hristov and Petrova, 2015), where the role of state is decreasing and that of other stakeholders in destinations,

with their diverse interests, is increasing at a strategic level (Cooper and Hall, 2008; Timur and Getz, 2008). The effect of this in destinations has been the increase in policy networks of stakeholders and in turn affecting the policy domain of destinations (Hristov and Petrova, 2015).

One characteristic outcome of the neo liberalism is increase in destination dynamism and the rising of polycentric structures representing diverse stakeholders in destinations, including some even policy-driven communities / networks as has been witnessed in a number of destinations (Hristov and Petrova, 2016). This phenomenon is encouraging springing up of a nexus of government-industry-community; and this affects the development and implementation of public policy. Under this paradigmatic environment, the efficacy of the DMO in its traditional becomes questionable (Thompson and Pforr, 2005; Dredge, 2006).

f) Transition to Meta governance Paradigm

While tourism studies have “generally remained stuck in examining the traditional models of governing and governance” (Jenkins *et al.*, 2014), the theories of the role of the state and those of social interactions and change in social systems are arguing for the need to recognise the transition from mere governance to meta-governance (Amore and Hall, 2016). Literature is arguing that there is a “dominance of new public management thinking” (Amore and Hall, 2016), which entails, among others, change in the conceptualisation of the appropriate role of the state and non-government actors. This view, as already alluded to, which is popular from the ‘German school’ of thought, is that meta-governance is an appropriate response to the failing traditional governance approaches (Amore and Hall, 2016). Recent global challenges, such as global financial crisis of 2008 and climate change, are amplifying the voice on the need for meta-governance.

As a result of the above, the role of the DMO is considered to have shifted towards being important means for destination meta-governance (Spyriadis *et al.*, 2011). In this view, meta-governance is “conceived as a reflexive reframing response to economic

inefficiency, excessive managerialism and policy ineffectiveness, fragmented communication and mistrusted behaviours of key actors” (Jessop, 2011).

2.3.2.2. Empirical and Theoretical Frameworks from Structural and Social Transformation Perspectives

Empirical works that subsist from the structural and social transformation perspectives on the subject have considered tourism development as a socially constructed process (Brouder *et al.*, 2017). The focus of this literature has been mainly on the evolution of destinations. The general argument for this posture is that “seen as a dynamic, on-going socially constructed and negotiated process that involves many social actors (individuals, groups and institutions) who continuously reshape and transform it to fit it to their perceptions, needs, values and agendas” (Verbole, 2003). These empirical and theoretical frameworks have mainly focused on the following:

- (a) Understanding the role of social, economic, cultural and technological factors in enabling and / or constraining destination changes (Butler, 2004; Agarwal, 2005; Haywood, 2006. This is unlike earlier frameworks that mostly focused on the role of demand, which is discussed below (Brouder *et al.*, 2017). Such discourses include the works of Agarwal (2002) whose analysis of the evolution of a destination was framed under the concept of its restructuring, and Gill (2000) who examined social and political dynamics in the evolution of a new small destination.
- (b) Evolution of destinations as highly dependent on human agency (Clavé, 2012; Clivaz *et al.*, 2014). Such works include discussions on how collective human agency could generate a dynamics conversion of resorts (Brouder *et al.*, 2017).
- (c) Various research works on destination evolution that analyse the impact on stakeholders vis-à-vis their response to either external or internal influences (Haywood, 2006; Anton Clavé 2012; Pavlovich 2014; Clivaz *et al.* 2014).

Extant literature under the structural and social transformation frameworks, do not offer adequate explanation of the phenomena and respond to the interest of the current study, causal mechanisms. First, most models and frameworks under this literary discussions focus on the evolution of tourism activities and destinations in general. Secondly, even

within analyses of the evolution of destinations, there is need for further conceptual developments of the interface of the local and global contextual forces leading to the phenomena inducing changes as in the current study (Butler 2004; Agarwal 2005; Dodds, 2007). Thirdly, to respond to the problem situation in the current study, research must encompass the notion of destinations as complex social systems with residential, productive and social functions extending beyond tourism with co-evolving trajectories (Equipe MIT 2002; Brouder *et al.*, 2017). The foregoing notwithstanding, most current analyses acknowledge that the study of evolution of destinations without inclusion of human agency, social, cultural, economic, and environmental changes and challenges is not possible (Amin 2002; Brouder *et al.*, 2017; Pike, 2018).

2.3.3. Destination Systems as Complex Social Systems – A Rising Theoretical Framework for Destination Theorising

The conceptualisation of tourism destinations has been evolving (Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016; Pike, 2018). The ‘complexity social system view’ is one of the most recent view of destinations. Traditionally, destinations were mainly approached from three views, namely geography- economic view, market management and customer-oriented view and socio-cultural oriented view. However, it is now acknowledged by scholars that conceptualisations of destinations from traditional approaches fall short of providing a meaningful conceptualisation when considered in the context of developments in destination literature and even practice (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015). Traditional approaches, based on Buhalis (2000)’s amalgam of products view is considered to underplay the multiple interconnections and myriad of stakeholders and social relations of destination components (Baggio *et al.*, 2010; Baggio, 2013; Sainaghi and Baggio, 2017; Sainaghi, 2021). The reviews below looks at relevant extant literature under both the traditional and the complexity approaches in regard to the current study.

2.3.3.1. Traditional Approaches to Destination Conceptualization

a) Economic-Geography Approach

In its basic form, this view holds that conceptually tourists with their various motives and needs will move temporary from their everyday environment to an area with spatial

resources, attractions and service; this area with spatial resources, attractions and services is what constitutes a destination. Building on the tourism work of planners and geographers, Leiper (1995) considered the destination to be “places toward which people travel and where they choose to stay for a while to experience certain perceived attractions”. Leiper’s conceptualisation of a destination was an early advocate for systems thinking view, albeit from a geography view, as follows: “The elements of the system are tourists, generating regions, transit routes, destination regions and functional connections. These five elements are arranged in spatial and functional connections” (Leiper, 1979). This model in its simplistic form identifies these four elements that are important in understanding a destination, as in Figure 2.2.. These elements are: (a) the tourism destination; (b) tourist generating regions or markets; (c) transit routes for travellers and transactions; and (d) transit routes for returning tourists and marketing communication.

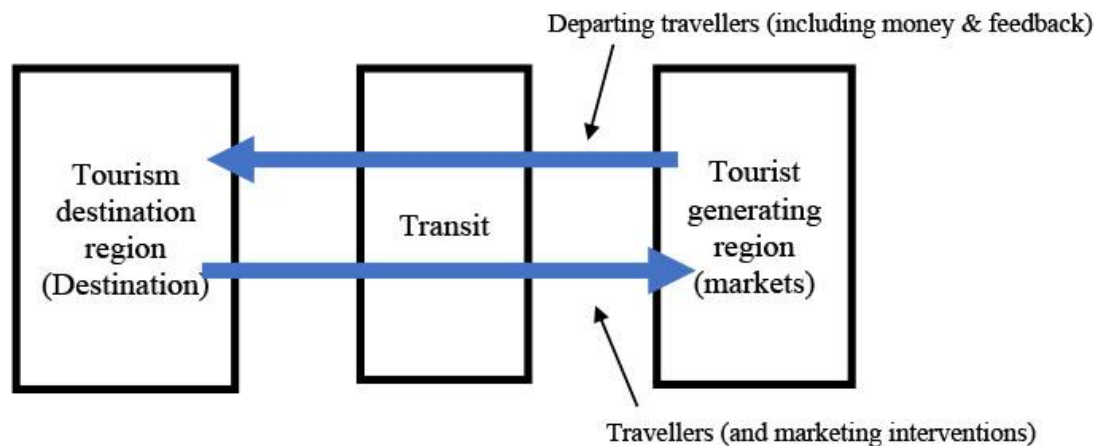


Figure 2.2: Leiper Destination System Model (Leiper, 1979; 1995)

Leiper’s approach and model is significant and has been influential in tourism research and in general tourism issues and management (Hall and Pike, 2010). Perhaps the second most cited after the Leiper model in the economic geography view is the Butler’s tourist area life cycle model, as shown in Figure 2.3. (Butler, 1980, 2006). This is taken to be akin to the product life cycle (Figure 2.4). The Butler model observes that tourism areas are dynamic, evolving and change over time but the destinations are objective and neutral

entities (Saraniemi and Kyilanen 2011). A destination is considered to pass through these stages.

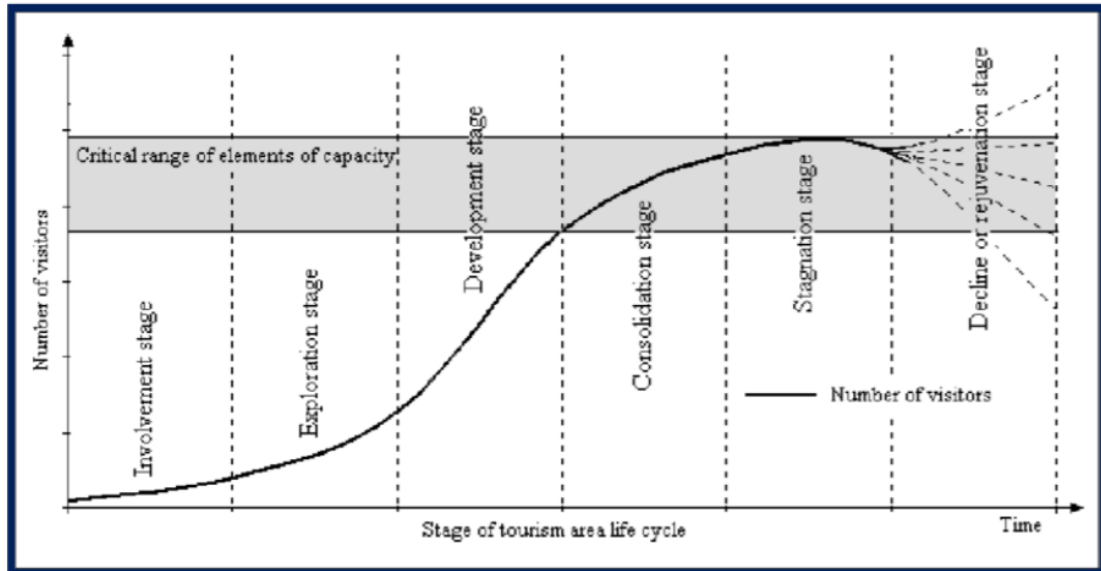


Figure 2.3: Butler’s Tourism Area Life Cycle, 1980 (Source: Researchgate.net, 2020)

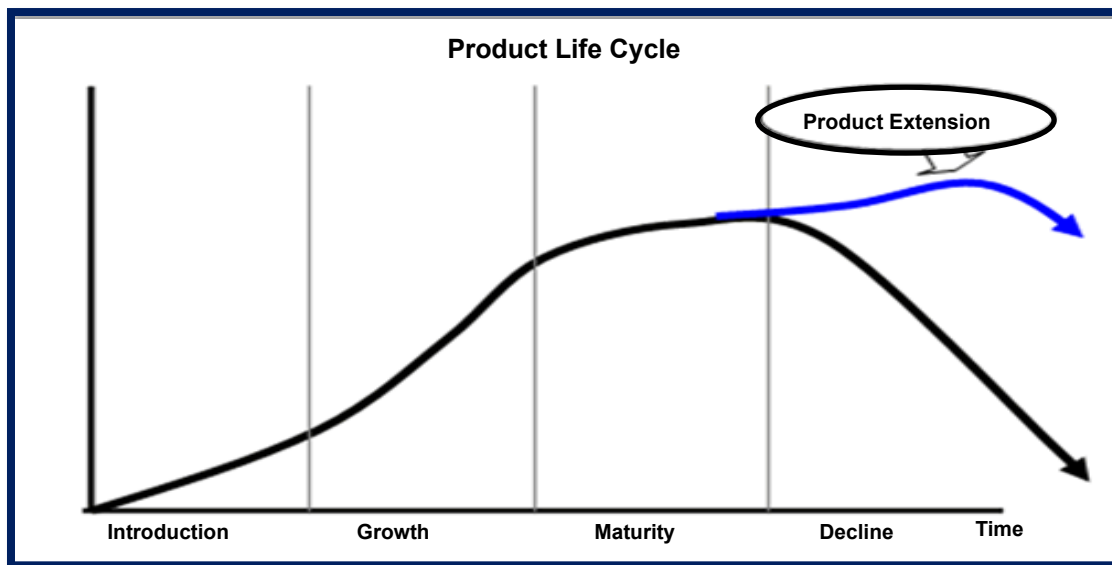


Figure 2.4: Kotler’s Product Life Cycle Model (Source: Researchgate.net, 2020).

Looking at the growing literature adopting other approaches, the economic geography-oriented approach is becoming inadequate to respond to the complexities associated with the tourism industry and its problems in today’s environment. One of the criticisms has

been its consideration of destinations to be “taken-for-granted resources and fixed territorial entities where faceless tourist masses come and go via different routes” (Saraniemi and Kylanen 2011). Today’s tourism is characterised by, among others, rapid adoption of the various technology-based enjoying of tourism products like virtual tourism.

b) Market Management and Customer Oriented Approaches

The Marketing Management-oriented studies are generally approached from the marketing management paradigm, and it is no surprise that they have been championed by marketing gurus such as Kotler *et al.* (1999). These approaches have considered tourism from the various marketing management perspectives along the developments of tourism marketing thinking. In its simplest terms, this view considers the tourism product from the ‘augmented product’ concept where destinations are considered to be a combination of facilities and services to meet the needs of tourists with different layers (Kotler, 1988; Cooper *et al.*, 2005; Saraniemi and Kylanen 2011).

In summary, the five-level product model is based on the marketing philosophy, which is constructed on the primacy of customers, as shown in Figure 2.5. The five levels of the product are based on the argument that customers choose products relative to their perceived value for the product, and consequently their satisfaction is relative to the perceived value of the product (Kotler, 2000). The Kotler Model (2000) considers a product in five levels as follows: (a) core product, which is the principle need the customers are trying to satisfy by consuming the product; (b) generic product, the product attributes or characteristics necessary for the function of the product; (c) expected product, the set of attributes or characteristics customers expect and agree to when buying the product; (d) augmented product, principally comprise of the marketing efforts by inclusion of additional features to the generic product to differentiate it from competitors, such as warranty, after-sale services; and (e) potential product is all perceived augmentations and transformations a product is likely to undergo in future from the perception of the customers.

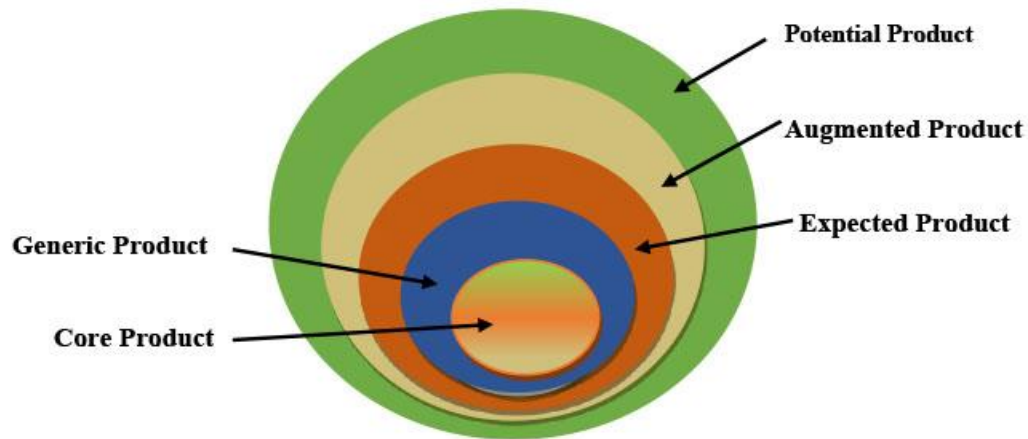


Figure 2.5: Philip Kotler’s Five Level Augmented Product Concept (Kotler, 2000).

The prominent variations of the market management approach in tourism include the works of Buhalis (2000), who considered tourism destinations to be an “amalgams of tourism products”. Conceptually it was viewed as geographical regions interpreted subjectively by tourists depending on the purpose of visit, past experience, travel itinerary and attributes of the individual tourist like educational background and cultural. This variation combines the economic geography with the marketing management views. In effect, in this view a destination is not a political boundary or map but rather the delineation of the boundary is in the mind of the tourist. The emphasis placed in this view is the marketing and planning taking place in DMOs. Other similar discussed models and approaches include the generic tourism model like that of Smith (1994) who takes the whole destination as a tourism product and that of Ritchie and Crouch (2000) who extend the concept to the role of experience in a tourism product to include destination experience.

Regardless of the emphasis, this stream of literature shares the commonality of discussing a destination from any of the marketing management paradigms. The customer-oriented research is one of the variations in this view. This is similar to the marketing paradigm, except the emphasis of a destination is from the services marketing perspective, with intangible psychological benefits and also with some tangible elements (Gummerrson, 1992; Lumsdon, 1997; Morgan and Pilchard, 2001).

The limitations of the approaches taking this view in DMO in practice and policy studies, especially the ‘amalgam’ view, is the likely definition of the destinations to cut across political boundaries where the DMO has no jurisdiction and legal mandate. Buhalis (2000) views a destination as a conceptual concept defined by consumers subjectively, which could be dependent upon “travel itinerary, cultural and educational background, purpose of visit and past experience” (Saraniemi and Kylanen, 2016). While a destination is defined by a geographical region, such description is considered from the consumer’s perspective as opposed to maps and / or political boundaries. Second, this view also lacks the role of human experience and focuses on the destination from management view in terms of research outcomes. This would be ignoring the complex processes associated with the supply-demand systems as viewed in the contemporary world of tourism (Komppula, 2005; Saraniemi and Kylanen, 2016).

c) Socio Cultural Oriented Approach

In response to the perceived weaknesses of all the above approaches, especially the marketing paradigm, Saraniemi and Kylanen (2011) proposed to go beyond any of the above views and argued for a socio-cultural construction of tourism theoretical approach. In this approach, a tourism destination is considered to be “a set of institutions and actors located in a physical or virtual space where marketing-related transactions and activities take place”. This approach combines tourism, marketing and organisation traditions to come up with a cultural approach to marketing and in an interdisciplinary way. According to Saraniemi and Kylanen (2011), this approach is more holistic and grounded. The approach is premised on the argument that “destinations have become understood as socio-culturally constructed spaces that shape their own future” (Pritchard and Morgan, 2001; Saraniemi and Kylanen (2011).

2.3.3.2. Empirical and Theoretical Frameworks from Traditional Conceptualisation Perspectives

The most prominent empirical and theoretical consideration on the subject have focused on the evolution of destinations from one or a combination of the above traditional approaches. In addition to the individual value of each of these constructs, the important

contribution is their ability to introduce new perspectives to the issue of the evolution of destinations. In addition, they extend the debate about the usefulness, the limitations and various findings from the individual studies of the Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC) model (Brouder *et al.*, 2017).

The economic geography view in its variations is by far the widely used one. It takes the 'travelling-oriented' approach with its elements identified to include destination attractions, destination facilities, accessibility, images and price (Medlink, 1974; Saraniemi and Kylanen (2011). Extant literature under the economic-geography approaches have mainly been around a range of the study of tourism as an activity that creates and develops productive spaces (Brouder *et al.*, 2017). However, in regard to the subject of this study, most prominent empirical and theoretical have been around consideration of destinations from the evolution perspective. Such prominent studies have included the following perspectives:

- (i) The role of tourism demand as driver of economic and spatial changes (Prideaux, 2004; Papatheodorou, 2004); and
- (ii) Concept work and validation of the Butler's tourism area life cycle (TALC) (Cooper 1992; Getz 1992; Ioannides 1992; Benedetto and Bojanic 1992; Meyer-Arendt 1993; Agarwal 1997; Baum 1998; Priestley and Mundet 1998; Faulkner 2002; Russell and Faulkner 2004; Haywood, 2006).

Similar to the economic-geographic approaches, market management perspectives have focused on evolution of destinations in general. For example, Prideaux (2004) related the evolution of destination resorts to long-term changes in demand of a resort and Papatheodorou (2004) theoretically explored the evolutionary patterns of destinations linking markets and spatial evolution (Brouder *et al.*, 2017).

2.3.2.3. Contemporary Conceptualisation of Destinations - Social System

Complexity View

Recent literature acknowledges that destinations comprise a multiplicity of interconnected product and service providers, and is open to high levels of external influences from both political and societal dynamics (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Quinlan et al, 2015). In addition,

several literary discourses acknowledge that destinations and problems faced are complex in nature due to their inherent complex characteristics. Therefore, deciphering causality, understanding the problems and resolving them requires a holistic and systemic approach (Wang and Pizam, 2011; Baggio, 2013; Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Jakulin, 2016).

The focal argument in these discourses is that a tourism destination is “a complex system, which deals with many subsystems and softly defined problems (Jakulin, 2016); and that “the only way to fully understand why a problem or element occurs and persists is to understand the part in relation to the whole” (Capra and Lusi, 2014; Jakulin, 2016). Generally destinations characteristically display complexity arising from, among others: (a) tourism destinations have many elements of a variety of people, institutions and organisations that include government and non-government actors with varied interests; (b) these elements are interconnected and influence each other; (c) destination elements have a common history and enjoy feedback information within the system; (d) destinations are open systems, interacting with so many other systems; and (e) their problem situations are multifarious and far from being linear.

In regard to changes taking place in destinations in general and role of DMOs in specific, some argue that this lies in unveiling the changes in the conceptualisation of destinations and the problems they face (Beritelli *et al.*, 2014; Pike and Page, 2014; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015). As the 2014 St Gallen Consensus on Destination Management argue that, going forward, a tourism destination must be viewed as “a market-oriented productive system” where tourists activate this productive system and “together, tourists and supply-side actors co-produce an experience – from origin to destination(s) and back” (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015). This view is a departure from the amalgam conceptualisation of destinations once espoused by Buhalis (2000). It rather moves destinations to be conceptually viewed as multifaceted systems and spaces of flow (Castells, 2004; Baggio, 2013; Beritelli *et al.*, 2014; Jakulin, 2016).

The above shift in the conceptualisation of destinations presents complicatedness, especially when considered in terms of understanding the DMO, its stakeholders and problematisation of destination of their challenges. First, this shift implies increase in the role of stakeholders in any destination modelling and also brings the challenge of realigning how the DMO and the various stakeholders coordinate tasks in the ‘production entities’, from the practice and policy perspective. Second, it alters the long-held theory on location of the problems of destinations from discrete components as in analytic thinking to the systems or ‘whole’, and yet there is a gap in tourism literature and practice because of “a profound lack of research on the productivity of destinations” (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015). Third, while it reifies recent literature that views tourism and its problems from the system complexity views. However, this view has not taken root in destination and tourism research, especially that of DMOs. Most studies continue to take reductionist approaches (McDonald, 2016). Most importantly for the last two points is that there are still limited theoretical positions and tools within tourism and destination literature at the disposal of researchers.

To underline the above argument, ship and iceberg metaphor is used to denote this argument on causality discourse, as shown in Figure 2.6. The argument is that what makes a ship sink is precisely what makes a strategy or indeed a policy proposition to sink, namely the invisible elements below the surface (Jakulin, 2016). According to Haines (2006), eighty-seven per cent of an iceberg is below the water surface, and this can be said of causality in system complexity.

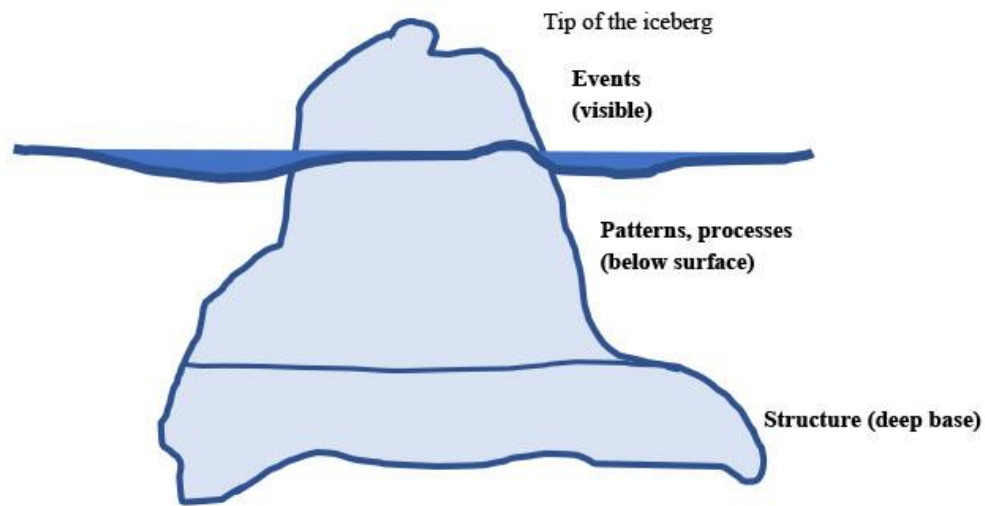


Figure 2.6: Tip of the Iceberg Metaphor (Haines, 2006; Jakulin, 2016)

The implication of the above argument is that policy or strategic decision makers must pay attention to the two levels below the surface because that is the likely locale of what sinks their effort. Doing the contrary would be taking an analytic thinking approach which has no picture of wholeness that would represent “one’s understanding the depth of a challenge and taking into account all the points of view” (Jakulin, 2016). Some of the literature that has discussed destinations from this view could be summarised as follows:

- (a) Changing environment and complexity of destinations (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015);
- (b) Tourism destinations as complex systems (Castells, 2004; Beritelli *et al.*, 2014; Baggio, 2013; Capra and Lusi, 2014; Jakulin, 2016);
- (c) Destinations self-referential and emergent behaviour (Ermen and Gnoth, 2006);
- (d) External and internal influences (Kozak and Andreu, 2006; Quinlan et al, 2015; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015).

Although, contemporary literature is arguing that in contemporary destinations studies, the complex system view ought to be central in the conceptualisation and methodological approaches of destinations. The limitation hitherto is that this has yet to take root. Generally, most tourism and destination studies still continue to take reductionist approaches, consciously or impliedly (McDonald, 2009). Where systems approaches have

been taken, it has mostly been from the perspective of destination development as products and / or and sustainability of development.

One of the reasons that has been cited in literature for this slow assimilation of the systems thinking and / or complexity approaches in studies is the Anglo-Saxon vis-à-vis Continental traditions divide in tourism studies (Heylighen *et al.*, 2006; Riley and Szivas, 2006). For years, tourism studies have ignored the influences of language and geography in research traditions. The Anglo-Saxon traditions have tended to take an “analytic” philosophical disposition, where problems are analysed “into their logical components” as opposed to holism, uncertainty and subjectivism entailed by complexity (Heylighen *et al.*, 2006). On the other hand, philosophical traditions that have hitherto directly addressed complexity have been from the Continental Europe backgrounds, such as Luhmann (1995). Riley and Szivas (2006) extend this debate by further arguing that in the face of globalisation, there has been a tendency to ‘internationalise’ tourism studies without bringing together these two traditions. They argue that certain ideas and philosophies have tended to remain inaccessible to scholars across the divide. Consequently, there is still some level of fuzziness in tourism complexity as a body of knowledge.

2.3.3.3. Empirical and Theoretical Frameworks from Complexity Theory Perspectives

Consideration and depiction of destinations as complex systems is now common (Baggio *et al.*, 2010). Prominent empirical and theoretical frameworks under complexity theory have been around the evolution of destinations and relationships of component in destination systems. In the case of the latter, it has been approached from quantitative paradigms, mostly around network theory. On the other hand, empirical studies on evolution of destinations has combined qualitative approaches. But even within these qualitative approaches the emphasis has been on destination. The main focuses of this theoretical and framework considerations have been around the following:

(a) Network Analysis

These theoretical and framework considerations have mainly been around quantitative and simulations on destination components and roles, including on destination governance (Baggio *et al.* 2009; da Fontoura Costa and Baggio, 2009). In recent years, there has been increasing interest on destination governance and complexity (Farsari, 2021). Mostly the network methods have been used to analyse stakeholders, important members and virtual website networks of members (Baggio *et al.*, 2010). Within network frameworks, complexity theory and complex adaptive systems have been found to be useful frameworks in the study of destination governance (Dredge, 2019). Some of the prominent research has also looked at shifts in public policy, tourism governance, role of networks and the changing role of the Destination Management Organisations (dos Anjos and Kennell, 2019; Farsari, 2021). These studies have emphasised the usefulness of network approaches in understanding destinations as complex systems. In terms of governance, it considered to be based on high interactivity and limited hierarchy between stakeholders (van der Zee and Vanneste, 2015; Farsari, 2021).

(b) Evolution of Destinations

This strand of literature has focused on long term changes of destinations from evolution economic geography (EEG) frameworks that incorporate complexity theory approaches (Brouder *et al.*, 2017; Saarinen and Gill, 2019; Farsari, 2021). For example, Dredge (2019) views evolutionary economics as framework for analysing and understanding destinations as complex adaptive systems which are open to continuous changes and disruptions. Similarly, Hartman (2016) argued for integration of complexity theory with resilience and evolutionary approaches. It is viewed that because evolutionary approaches incorporate dimensions of time and adaptations to change, are well suited for to capture evolving characteristics of tourism systems (Farsari, 2021). However, complexity approaches to destination evolution tend not follow the determinism implied by several initial demand or non-linear economic geography-oriented evolution models (Farsari, 2021). Studies have included consideration of tourism as complex systems constantly adapting to sustain their development paths, has adaptive cycles and presence of multiple equilibria but from socio-economic and socio ecological systems perspectives (Robinson

and Carson, 2015; Baggio, 2018; Saarinen and Gill, 2019; Farsi, 2021). There has also been studies distinguishing of complex adaptive system from human complex systems. Complex adaptive systems characteristically have ability to adapt and change their internal structure and self-organise to environment without conscious or control. On the other hand, human complex systems have “capacity for foresight, intentional action, communication and technology” (Hollin, 2001). Institution lock-in of tourism destinations from a long-term perspective by breaking from existing paths and creating new paths is another domain that been regular within the EEG approaches (Brouder *et al.*, 2017). In general, studies using the EEG frameworks has acknowledged the long-term process of change of destinations, including novelty through human activity (Brouder *et al.*, 2017); historicity and coevolution of destination multiple paths and variously coevolution and multiple paths of destinations (Brouder *et al.*, 2017).

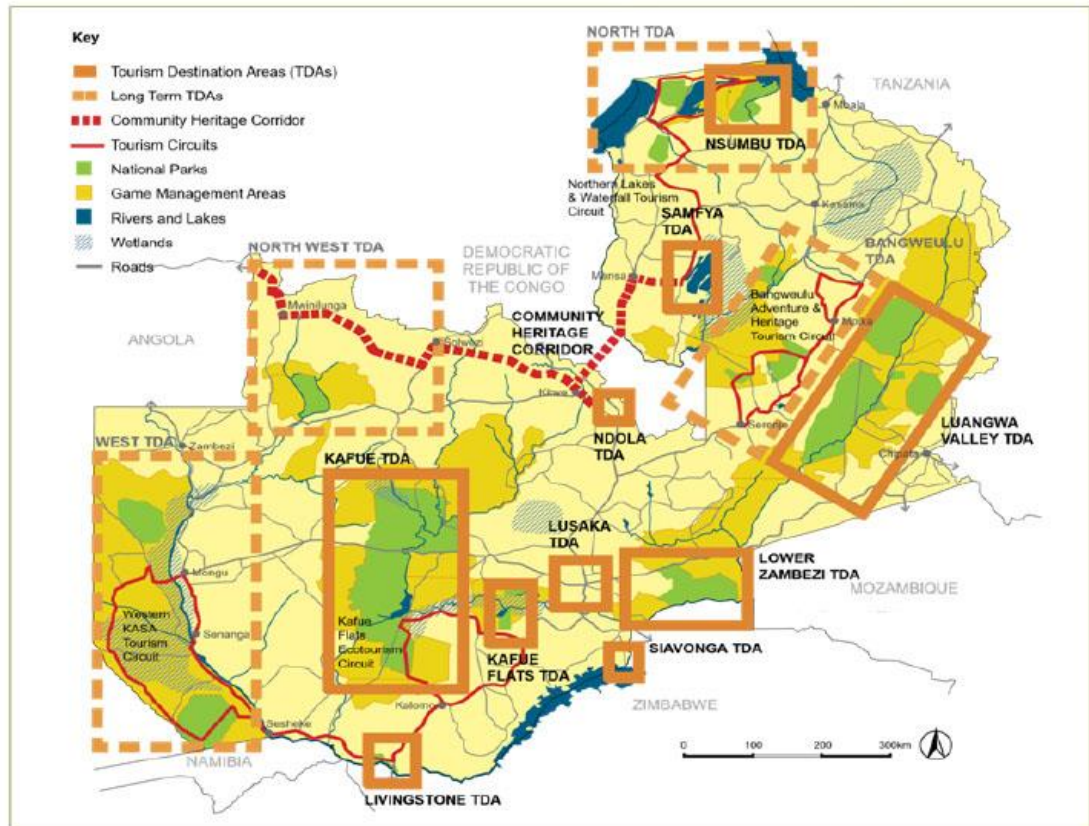
In general, the use of complexity theory and its frameworks within the EEG have been useful in theorisation of the problems of destinations but from the economic-geography views, emphasising evolution of destinations. This has created a limit when it comes to the current problem and persistent open questions when it comes to the shifting role of the DMO. Extant literature still fall short in unearthing the structures and mechanisms explaining the shifting expected role of the DMO and the definition its rationale, going forward.

2.4. Zambia as a Tourism Destination and Problematisation of the Current Study

In Zambia, tourism has been prioritised and profiled by the government as one of the key economic sectors, together with mining and agriculture, especially post-2000. This public policy agenda has been followed by the various government administrations from the 1990s and has been emphasised through various national planning and policy documents, such as; (a) National Development Plans from the fifth to the current eighth National Development Plan; (b) The Zambia Tourism Policy of 2015; (c) Zambia Tourism Master Plan of 2018 to 2038; (d) The Tourism and Hospitality Act Number 13 of 2015; (e) annual national budgets; and (f) various policy discussions.

In terms of product, Zambia's tourism product is mainly nature based and could be divided into two main tourism circuits – the southern and northern circuits. The southern circuit covers the Livingstone area, Kafue ecosystem, the Lower Zambezi, Siavonga, Lusaka and part of the Luangwa Valley. This circuit also has the relatively older and developed tourism products in Zambia. On the other hand, the northern circuit is the growth tourism area, including the various tourism products and assets in the Luapula area, Bangweulu wetlands, Kasaba Bay area, Lake Tanganyika, Nsumbu National Park, Mpika and part of the Northern Luangwa and the various waterfalls and water bodies up the north.

According to policy, the country has identified fourteen zones as potential tourism development areas (Map 2.1), based on an analysis of potential tourism attributes (Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018). The following ten are considered priority areas: (a) Lusaka – core area and Lusaka National Park; (b) Siavonga – town and waterfront; (c) Kafue Flats – Lochnivar National Park, Blue Lagoon National Park and surrounds; (d) Livingstone – town, Victoria Falls and Mosi-o-Tunya National Park; (e) Kafue – Kafue National Park and surrounding area; (f) Lower Zambezi – Lower Zambezi National Park and surrounding area; (g) Luangwa Valley – South Luangwa National Park, North Luangwa National Park and surrounding area; (h) Samfya - waterfront and peninsula; (i) Kasaba Bay – the bay and Tanganyika lake shore; and (j) Ndola/Copperbelt – town and surrounds. The further four priority tourism development areas are: (a) North Tourism Development Area: expansion of Kasaba Bay Tourism Development Area, Nsumbu National Park, Mweru Wantipa National Park, Lusenga National Park, lakes and waterfalls; (b) Bangweulu Tourism Development Area: Kasanka National Park, Lavushi-Manda National Park, Isangano National Park, heritage sites; (c) North West Tourism Development Area: West Lunga National Park and surrounding forest areas; and (d) The West Tourism Development Area: Sioma Ngwezi National Park, Liuwa National Park, West Zambezi Game Management Area.



Map 2.1: Future Tourism Development Zones (Source: Zambia Tourism Master Plan)

By international classification, Zambia is classified as one of the emerging destinations within the Sub-Saharan Africa Region. The tourism sector was reclassified from being a social to an economic sector in 1996. Since then, it has been prioritized as one of the major economic sectors; others are mining and agriculture (Zambia Development Agency, 2019; The Zambia Tourism Policy, 2015).

Worldwide, the tourism economy has been growing and the tourism and travel industry is considered to one of the fastest growing sectors. According to the World Tourism Organisation (2017), international tourist arrivals globally have grown from 25 million in 1950 to 1,235 million in 2016 and international tourism receipts earned worldwide have expanded from USD 2 billion in 1950 to USD 1.9 trillion in 2021 (World Tourism Organisation, 2022). In Zambia, though still difficult to measure and accounting for, it is reported that direct tourism earnings grew from ZMK 2.27 billion in 2012 to ZMK 4.41 billion in 2015. Similarly, tourism’s contribution to the gross domestic product (GDP) in

Zambia is growing and it is estimated to have grown from 2.4 per cent in 2012 to 3.1 per cent in 2015. It is also considered as a major category of international trade in services, estimated at seven per cent (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2016; Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018).

For Sub-Sahara Africa in general, tourism is considered as one of the key growth economic sectors, and the industry is rising as a socio-economic development tool. Policy commentators view tourism as providing an economic development option for economic growth and job creation for the region due to its catalytic and multi-sectoral effects (World Bank, 2010). Because of the highly rich natural resources and cultural endowments inherent in most Sub-Saharan Africa destinations, tourism provides a social economic development option for their often-ailing economies. However, for tourism to succeed, it draws-in numerous actors such as domestic and international, and government and non-government actors. These actors have different and at times rival interests in the tourism sector. Resultantly, the catalytic effects of tourism on other sectors in an economy and its multi-sector by nature increase its complexity and challenges for policy, as evident in a number of Sub Saharan Africa destinations (World Bank, 2010).

Sub-Saharan Africa destinations can be categorised into four groups as pre-emergent, potential, emerging; and consolidating destinations, as shown in Table 2.3. (Christie *et al.*, 2006). Pre-emergent destinations are considered to be those that are yet to develop their tourism sectors; they have little or no governance modes for the sector and have shown low importance and growth prospects in the short to medium term. According to Christie *et al.* (2006), such countries include Liberia, Equatorial Guinea and Somalia. Second, potential or initiating destinations that include Ethiopia, Madagascar and Burundi are characterised by showing some interest in tourism but lack adequate governance arrangements for the sector. They also have some basic infrastructure but still have high occurrences of market, regulatory, institutional and resource failures. Third is the emerging or scaling up destinations that have solid institutional arrangements, and have prioritised tourism and are relatively competitiveness and have high quality tourism products. However, market failures are still common in emerging destinations, such as

high costs of accessing tourism products, high costs of product development, and legislation and policy failures. Zambia, together with other destinations like Malawi, Mozambique, Rwanda, Zimbabwe and Seychelles fall in this category of the Sub-Saharan Africa destinations. The fourth is the mature, deeper and ultimate level of consolidating, maintaining and deepening success. These destinations are relatively mature, show commitment to tourism and have higher tourism performance, economically. In this category, management of the sector and private sector capabilities is high. Destinations in this category include Kenya, Tanzania, Botswana, Mauritius, Namibia and South Africa.

Table 2.3: Selected Sub-Saharan Africa Tourism Destinations

	Tourism Categorization	Destination / Country
1.	Pre-emerging	Democratic Republic of Congo, Liberia, Equatorial Guinea & Sudan
2.	Potential / Initiating	Angola, Lesotho, Swaziland, Ethiopia, Madagascar & Burundi
3.	Emerging / Scaling Up	Zambia, Malawi, Mozambique, Rwanda, Zimbabwe & Seychelles
4.	Consolidating	Kenya, Tanzania, Botswana, Mauritius, Namibia & South Africa

Source: World Bank, 2010; World Tourism Organisation, 2018.

Emerging destinations, such as Zambia, compared to mature or declining destinations have unique characteristics that include: (a) increased acceptance of tourism on the supply-side by the government and communities as a major economic sector; (b) introduction of policies, strategies and legislation to actualise the afore-mentioned; (c) destination still working towards having an identity and distinct brand image; (c) increasing awareness on the demand-side, with major wholesalers and retailers packaging the destination in the source markets; (d) low but growing arrival rates and tourism receipts; (e) euphoria on the tourism sector in the destination; (g) policy and market failures are still common; and (f) still open to organisational structures, policies and legislative environment development (Christie *et al.* 2006; Esu and Ebithu, 2010).

Zambia is manifesting the above characteristics, including market and policy failures as experienced in recent years. Policy and market disruptions have been common and so have been attempts by policy decision-makers and their various stakeholders to find a viable-fit for policy. One such has been the definition of the role of the Destination Marketing Organisation (DMO), the Zambia Tourism Agency (ZTA) in policy frameworks.

In Zambia tourism is recognised as an important economic sector through various policy documents and propositions, including Vision 2030, Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, Zambia Tourism Policy 2015, Seventh Zambia National Development Plan (2017-2021) (7th NDP) and the Tourism and Hospitality Act of 2015. It is considered as an important economic sector for economic diversification and as a potential major source of foreign exchange and employment creation (Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018; Zambia Tourism Policy 2015).

Soon after independence in 1964, Zambia came up with various industrial policy measures. One of the key features was public sector-led industrial development (Robinson, 2009). The genealogy of the current DMO (regardless of the nomenclature adopted in between) is traced to this commercial and industrialisation paradigm of tourism. Over the years, the government has considered the importance of tourism as that of an economic, social and lately a nature and cultural heritage protection tool. In this view, the government has continued to be a major stakeholder and influence in the destination system. Although in recent years tourism has witnessed a rise in polycentric structures, even with such polycentricism, the rallying point for any policy consideration and / or support has been justified mainly by the value of tourism to the economy, job creation, social development in host communities, and protection of natural and artificial heritages. To date the government continues to drive policy and to place the value for tourism from the industry perspective.

2.4.1. Debate in the Destination of Zambia and Problematisation of the Research Questions

Zambia is currently going through debate on the role of the DMO. The purpose, structure and focus underpinning the DMO (ZTA) and its efficaciousness in the destination in its current form are being questioned (Tourism Council of Zambia, 2019). The rationale and justification for the traditional archetypal DMO and generally the traditional organization of the tourism industry and destination is nowadays being questioned in contemporary tourism by the various stakeholders, including policy-decision makers and supply-side operators (Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018; Tourism Council of Zambia, 2019).

The above has manifested as a double occurrence visible in Zambia as a destination. While literature, practice and policy all acknowledge that the expected role of the DMO has been shifting in the destination system among the various stakeholders, interestingly the structure and core activities of the DMO have principally remained the same for decades. The mechanism and structures causing the change in the expected role of the DMO remain unearthed and unexplained. Similarly, the mechanism and structures holding the role of the DMO to remain the same in policy remain unearthed and unexplained in literature, practice and policy propositions.

Putting the above differently, the open questions that remain in literature, practice and policy propositions include the actual interactions, the nature of these interactions and the efficaciousness of the various factors and elements, some of which have been cited in literature to be causing the dual occurrences visible regarding the role or expected role of the DMO. Literature has also not discovered and / or identified the actual causal mechanisms and structures and their activation in the current contexts of the Zambian case and other destinations.

The focus of the study is on two domains: (a) mechanism operating under the surface that is responsible for the occurrences visible in the destinations; and (b) the structures that sit deep at the base of the phenomenon. The rallying point for the above focus is the

congruence in literature around causation and explanation of changes plausibly from two parallel views of complex systems and social and structural transformation arising from late modernity or reflexive and other environmental influences.

2.4.2. Summary of State of knowledge on the Subject of Study from Germane Extant Literature

Several scholars acknowledge that the purpose and legitimacy of the DMOs as historically conceived and later evolved over years under various destination paradigms is now under question (Pike, 2012; Wang, 2012; Morrison, 2013; Morrison, 2013; Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Dredge, 2016; Reinhold *et al.*, 2017; Nagai *et al.*, 2018; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021). Regarding this, there is yet to be consensus on the way forward in practice and policy propositions (Pike, 2008; Pike and Page, 2014; Dredge, 2016; Nagai *et al.*, 2018; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021). Consequently, today the DMO is threatened with redundancy, or alternatively likely to go into a spiral as a runaway train headed for its own destruction and that of the very destinations they were originally conceived to serve.

Destination and DMO operating environment have been evolving and literature also acknowledges that parallel to this has been growing appearing in literature and even importance of four destination paradigms in relation to the role of DMOs, namely, destination marketing, destination management, destination governance and destination leadership (Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Dredge, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021). These changes are now beginning to be visible in practice and policy (Pike, 2008; Wang, 2011; Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov, 2015; Pike 2016; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021). As a result, questions on how the DMO will survive, and in what form and to what end, have become persisted in recent years in practice, policy and academic discourse (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Dredge, 2016; Pike, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021).

There are two main causally domains that have been touted in theory as the plausible explanation for the above-mentioned shifting. Some argue that the problems that have beset the tourism industry arise from social transformations and changes in the theory of society (Dredge, 2016; Brouder *et al.*, 2017; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020). Second, literature from several backgrounds and traditions acknowledge that tourism destinations can be considered as social complex systems with multiple interactions with the environment and also among the constitute components (Castells, 2004; Beritelli *et al.*, 2014; Baggio, 2013; Capra and Lusi, 2014; Jakulin, 2016). Some authors have presumed that the various interactions of the components, inherent complexity characteristics of destinations and the changing behaviour of the system components have translated into dual phenomena of “changes in character and behaviour of organisations and in public expectations about the role and responsibility within society” (Saffic *et al.*, 2010). Further, destinations in general are acknowledged as evolving over time and in this regard various theoretical considerations and frameworks from human agency, social interactions, complexity theory, complex adaptive systems and various evolutionary economic geography views have been used in research (Robinson and Carson, 2015; Brouder *et al.*, 2017; Baggio, 2018; Saarinen and Gill, 2019; Farsi, 2021). However, when it comes to the shifting role of the DMO, it still remains an open question from these theoretical and framework considerations.

2.4.3. The Gaps Addressed by the Study

While literature acknowledges the shifting role of DMOs in destinations and is calling for their reconsideration in practice and policy, there is a gap in understanding the deep underlying mechanisms and structures causing these shifts as observed in several discourses. The factors ascribed to the shifting expected role of the DMO and other destination components in literature are at macro-level discussions in literature, without specifying their connectedness to the meso and / or the micro levels. How these macro, meso and micro levels interact and/or connect to shifts in the expected role of the DMO and other components in the destination system remains an open question (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Dredge, 2016; Pike, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020;

Demiroglu and Muller, 2021). This is the basis of this study *vis-a-vis* existing literature. The gaps this study seeks to respond to in the case of Zambia are follows:

- (a) The shifts in the tourism destination system has not been fully described and explained in regard to the shifts in the roles of the DMO and other components in the system;
- (b) Secondly, extant literature has not identified the causal mechanisms, their causally efficaciousness and the interactions of the plausible factors that have been identified as belonging to two theoretical foundations of structural changes and social transformation, and the complexity of destinations; and
- (c) Thirdly, even among macro-level entities, neither have an elimination of the competing ones been done to single out those consequential to practice and policy framework propositions in the case of Zambia. Additionally, how these are activated in the specified context of Zambia also remains unexplained.

The 2016 St Gallen Consensus on Destination Management Conference observed that organisations in charge of destination marketing and management are reported to have started adapting and evolving their “processes, structures and activities in response to their challenging business context” by dissolving their organisational boundaries. Also that these changes “imply that DMO morph into new form of tourism service provider, which enables and facilitates co-creation of tourist experiences with a changing portfolio of activities” (Reinhold *et al.*, 2017). It also reported some progress regarding bricolage and experiments on how the DMOs are adapting and evolving (Reinhold *et al.*, 2017). However, these morphs and the underlying deeper causes necessitating them are yet to be fully explained from the perspective of the various tourism industry stakeholders.

Pike (2016), Pike and Page (2014) and Dredge (2016) put it succinctly when they summarise and conclude the proposition of the way forward regarding the shifting role of the DMO, as follows:

- (a) “Given the magnitude of change occurring as late modernity unfolds, it is incumbent upon academics and practitioners to engage more deeply in the broader structural and political shifts taking place in society in order to rethink the organisation of tourism” (Dredge, 2016); and

- (b) “Destination marketing organisations (DMOs) will soon no longer exist in their current form, and so now is an opportune time for tourism academics to engage in innovative thinking about the future of these entities. While the general structure and core activities of DMOs have remained uniformly constant around the world for several decades, powerful forces are converging in a manner that is stimulating debate about the future relevance of the traditional DMO” (Pike 2016).

2.4.4. Other Distinctions of the Study

- (a) This study is distinctively underlined by philosophical, theoretical and conceptual conjectures based on pluralism of: (i) system complexity; and (ii) critical social realism.
- (b) Causation and Explanation: This study focuses on the domains of causation and the explanation of what is causing the shifts in the expected role of the tourism destination system, DMO and other components within the supply-side of the system. Simultaneously also what is holding the core structure and activities of the DMO to remain the same in the policy environment.
- (c) Combination of theoretical and conceptual Traditions: This study seeks to bring in the multiple theoretical and conceptual approaches in understanding the phenomena of the complex problems of destinations. Attempts have been made to cut across the Anglo-Saxon and Continental traditions divide. While some aspects take an “analytic” philosophical disposition, where necessary this study has taken to holism to understand the uncertainty and subjectivism entailed by complexity of the phenomena under study.
- (d) Interdisciplinary Approach: This study takes the view that tourism is multi-discipline by character, and therefore the study draws heavily from other disciplines by bringing in ideas, concepts and methodologies that enrich tourism destination knowledge in somewhat multi-discipline approaches.
- (e) Destination paradigms: Four destination paradigms of marketing, management, governance and leadership are being touted among academics, and mostly each one is mostly considered in isolation of the others in discussing the role of the DMO and organisation of destinations. Although these four paradigms have been widely

- discussed and have been a subject of several studies in literature, they have not been brought together in the context of understanding their interactions and ramifications of these interactions on the role of the DMO. Additionally, there is still debate on the nomenclature and assignment of roles to the main components of destination systems.
- (f) Emerging destination: Zambia as a destination and generally emerging destinations has been scant in policy level literature. Most of the practices and policies adopted are traced to literature based on studies in mature or declining destinations. This study is based on an emerging destination.

2.5. Chapter Conclusion

This chapter looked at the extant literature and developed an argument for the study arising from the gaps in literature, practice and policy. Two main theoretical bases from literature on plausible causes of the phenomena were identified through review of literature. These are: (a) structural changes from social transformations; and (b) emergent behaviour of the destination system and its components. The next Chapter seeks to provide the theoretical and conceptual frameworks, from which this study is undertaken, based on the above two theoretical propositions.

CHAPTER THREE - THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF EXPLANATORY FRAMEWORKS

3.1 Introduction

This chapter is an overview of the two main foundational theoretic and conceptual underpinnings, namely, the complexity theory and realist social theory, used in the study. It highlights the theoretical and conceptual pluralism based on the foundations of these two theories and their combination through a critical realist philosophy. The commonality of these two by focusing on the concept of ‘mechanisms of emergence’ and assumptions in the two theoretical frameworks is contextualised to create the methodological approach discussed in the next chapter.

3.2. Complexity Theory, Critical Realist Theory and Mechanisms of Emergence as Explanatory Frames of Reference

This study consisted of one what-question, two why-questions and one how-question. The what-question sought to give a reliable technical account of the description of the phenomena of the shifting role of the DMO being considered in the study. The two why-questions were both seeking causal explanation but from different ideas, and consequently approaches. The first why-question on the shifting role of the DMO was a non-contrastive explanation-seeking question driven by pragmatic motivation to have information that enables the development of a model of the shifting expected role of the DMO, and to lead us to the second why-question, which was contrastive. The second why-question was contrastive and sought explanation and development a model of why the destination system’s policy environment was not changing as expected because of the destination displaying a shifting expected role of the DMO among various stakeholders. In the absence of prior DMO theory to base contrastive in the why-question, the model in the first why-question formed the frame of reference. Put differently, the two why-questions can be generalised, respectively as follows: (a) the first why-question was ‘Is the fact that the destination is displaying shifting expected role of the DMO among various tourism industry stakeholders caused by a pattern or causal mechanism?’; and (b) the second why-

question was ‘why does the destination system display unshifting policy environment rather than the expected shift in response to the shifting expectations as explained in the first why-question model of causality?’ (Ylikoski, 2016). The third question was pragmatic and develops a framework from the answers to the three questions above.

From extant theory that has discussed causality and the research problem at hand, the key considerations in the choice of theoretical frameworks for the study included:

- (a) **Gap is in understanding the deep underlying mechanisms and structures causing shifts:** The gap this study was interested in was the deep underlying mechanisms and structures causing the shifts. These mechanisms are unobservable and their descriptions could contain concepts that do not necessarily occur in the empirical data (Bunge, 2004);
- (b) **Dynamism of DMO and context:** As indicated in the preceding chapters, the study assumed ever-changing DMO activities and social context that situated these activities in the destination. This made the problem situation to be characteristically dynamic, and the study viewed it from this perspective (Pike and Page, 2014; World Tourism Organisation, 2015; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Reinhold *et al.*, 2017; Nagai *et al.*, 2018; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021);
- (c) **Open and dynamic system:** The DMO problem situation was assumed to be that of an open and dynamic system, where the “social context that structures all social activities and relationships is a continually produced outcome of human agency” (Yan and Hyman, 2018). Therefore, the human agency and context formed the raw materials for analysis (Bhaskar, 1989; Collier, 1994; Sherry and Kozinets, 2001; Yan and Hyman, 2018);
- (d) **Historical / ahistorical problem situation:** The problem situation was viewed that it could be historical and / or ahistorical (Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018);
- (e) **Environment influences:** The DMO activities and destination generally was viewed as experiencing environmental influences and submitting to shifts in the

environment (Pike and Page, 2014; World Tourism Organisation, 2015; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Reinhold *et al.*, 2017; Nagai *et al.*, 2018; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov et al, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021); and

- (f) **Explanation and less or nil prediction:** The study was interested in explanatory conjectures and not necessarily prediction as the scientific inquiry (Popper, 2003).

To answer the research questions as aforementioned, and taking into account the above considerations, two clusters of theories competed as plausible explanatory frames of reference in this study, both based on the notion of the ‘doctrine of emergence’. These were: (a) complexity emergentism and (b) sociological emergentism (styled under the banner of critical realism). The investigation of the phenomena of interest was approached from use of common explanatory frames of reference, which both theories acknowledge. These are mechanisms of emergence. But despite both being approached from mechanisms of emergence, the two were used as competing and not complimentary frames of reference, as shown in Figure 3.1.. However, both used mechanisms of emergence from the respective theoretical assumptions unique to each theory. In view of this, the study could also be said to have been approached from complexity emergence mechanisms and mechanisms of sociological emergence as competing explanatory frames of reference.

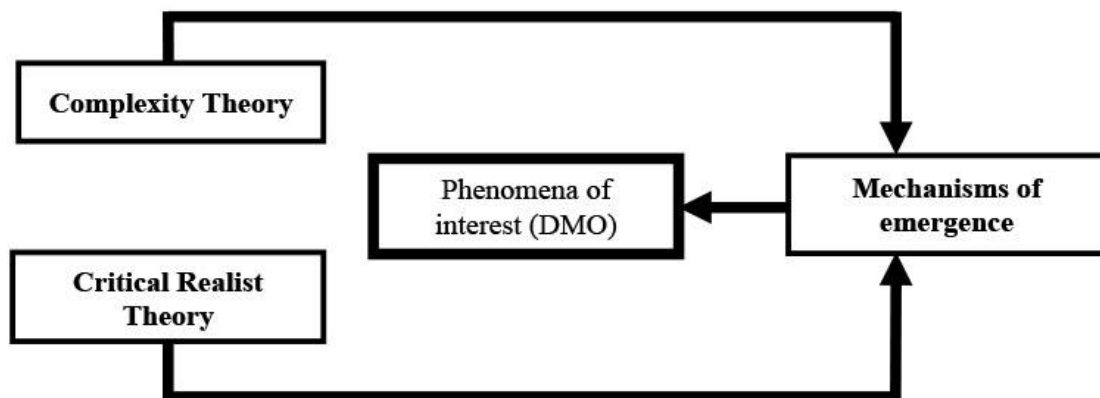


Figure 3.1: Complexity Theory and Critical Realist Theory use of Mechanisms of Emergence to Study Phenomena

In the approach of a competing pluralist perspective, both theoretical views were applied on the assumptions of the referred to 'mechanisms of emergence' for the phenomena in order to primarily retroduct causal mechanisms and develop model explanation that answered both of the why-questions. This allowed for deeper understanding of the dynamics occurring within the destination systems. In terms of modelling the technical account, the choice in this competing theoretical approach was to use the most stable theoretical assumptions of each of them as the frames of reference. Research question four was approached pragmatically from the modelled technical account, using functional pragmatism.

The two philosophical views mentioned above despite commonality in the main ontological and epistemological assumptions, in application they approached the phenomena from different standpoints and used different tools. These different stances were worth pursuing in a pluralistic way in the current study to illuminate more insights on this rather complex and relatively new subject of study in academic discourses. As highlighted in literary discourses, the subject of shifting role of the DMO still has a lot of open questions in discourses, and this is considered to be challenging to practice and policy (Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Reinhold *et al.*, 2017; Nagai *et al.*, 2018; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021). Important also is that within these philosophical views, several variants have been proposed and in most cases the tools under each of them could be said to be in their infancy. Further, tourism is yet to reach paradigmatic and disciplinary autonomy (Tribe, 1997; Darbellay *et al.*, 2012), and therefore the fallback is on tools developed in other disciplines and in multi-disciplinary approaches. Various claims have also been made in literature on causal factors of the phenomena this study was seeking to address but without empirical consensus on a number of them (Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Reinhold, Zach and Krizaj, 2017; Nagai *et al.*, 2018; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021). Consequently, the subject of this study and plausible ways of approaching it in studies are yet to have grounded theory; therefore, a pluralism approach of competing theories potentially enriches its conclusions.

In applying the two frameworks as aforesaid, the study made the following theoretical standpoints:

- (a) This study argues that complexity emergence-based explanations and social realism mechanisms-based explanations are not one and same thing in terms of their accounts, and should therefore be approached differently; preferably from the stronger philosophical assumptions of available tools of each of the two. However, the caveat is that the choice of the applicable theoretical framework should be based on the stability of the underlying theoretical assumptions and the phenomena under consideration.
- (b) This study also posits that attempts by proponents of analytical sociology to use complexity to underwrite emergence in a complex social phenomenon by using analytical sociological tools is unstable. While analytical sociology in comparison with critical realism may eschew towards emergentism based on ‘supervenience’, as will be discussed below, this study shares the view of Gorski (2013; 2018) that this is a fundamental misunderstanding. This is because in essence it is actually ‘compositional’ version of emergence, which lacks theoretical tools (Gorski, 2013; 2018). Complex emergent behaviour could be studied under the complexity approaches whereas social mechanisms are within the realm of what critical realism and its existing tools can sufficiently achieve. For example, critical realist epistemological views are covered in the hierarchical entities-based ontology and dualistic macro-micro-macro methodologies.
- (c) A pluralist approach stands to benefit a study such as the current one, which has emergent behaviour at its core; and at the same there is need to respond to ‘why’ something happened beyond mere description. In responding to ‘why’ something happened, we are inevitably led to bring in the notion of ‘mechanisms’ of emergence, based on the power of the theory of causality (Gorski, 2013; 2018). The notion of mechanism in a study corresponds “to an evaluation of the proper role of the causal linkages in social sciences”, of which critical realism has fairly acceptable tools that could be deployed, the barrage of criticisms they have received in academic discourses notwithstanding (Demeulenaere, 2011).

(d) In destination systems, heterogeneous and autonomous human or organisational actors could use interactions to allow adaptation to each other and their external environment (Henfridsson and Bygstad, 2013).

3.3. The Doctrine of Emergence in the Two Theoretical Frameworks

The doctrine of emergence usage in this study was as proposed in the 1990s by Mihata (1997) that provided a summary of sociology and management conceptual definition, as follows: “The concept of emergence is most often used today to refer to the process by which patterns or global-level structures arise from interactive local-level processes. This ‘structure’ or ‘pattern’ cannot be understood or predicted from the behaviour or properties of the component unit alone.... In the doctrine of emergence, the combination of elements with one another brings with it something that was not there before”. Bringing ‘something that was not there before’ is ‘emergentism’ and the structure of the emergent entity or entities to infer how it came about is a ‘causal mechanism’ in this case.

In regard to complexity of systems, discourses view emergent systems as “complex dynamical systems that display behaviour that cannot be predicted from a full and complete description of the component units of the system” (Sawyer, 2001). Lichtenstein (2014), summarises emergence as follows: “the creation of order, the formation of new properties and structures in complex systems” and that “when emergence happens, something new and unexpected arises, with aspects that can’t be predicted even from knowing everything about the parts of the system”.

The approach to emergence in the two aforementioned competing theories differ. Complexity theory focuses on the actual emergence behaviour while critical realism tools are used to highlight the internal structures of the emergent entities themselves. Hence the latter can be referred to as sociological emergentism. However, the two could be stabilised within the tools of their underlying assumptions and when combined in a study can potentially arrive at a richer picture of phenomena. In regard to complexity theory, it can potentially by-pass the micro-macro-micro debate without compromising the

conclusions. Most importantly, is that the two potentially could mirror each other and can reach a shared conclusion in a study, as shall be discussed below under mechanisms.

3.3.1. Degrees of Emergence

In this study, emergence was taken to be in any of the three degrees, as follows:

(a) First-degree Emergence (maintains same level of order)

A system is said to display first-degree emergence when it is showing persistent pattern or structure within the system. In this case the unit of analysis remains constant, which in the current study is the destination (Lichtenstein and Kurjanowicz, 2010). What is changing is the internal ordering of the system and it is relatively stable over time. According to theory, in such problem situations, the system and its components may not be aware that something is emerging in the system although the emergent patterns influence the system as a whole (Crutchfield, 1994; Lichtenstein and Kurjanowicz, 2010).

(b) Second-degree Systemic Emergence (creation of new level of order)

In the second-degree emergence, the system displays qualitative novelty that creates a coherent and yet qualitatively different system from the components that make it up (Crutchfield, 1994; Lichtenstein and Kurjanowicz, 2010). This type of emergent behaviour is characteristically an exhibition of emergence of semi-autonomous entity or entities at a higher level of analysis than the components, though constituted by the pre-existing components themselves and their interactions. In this case the components become agents or sub-systems of this higher level of analysis.

Examples of second-degree emergent behaviour is polycentrism (semi-structures) in destinations as patterns of: (i) organising the destination components; (ii) configurations of destination activity or activities; and (iii) communication.

(c) Third-degree Radical Emergence (creation of a new level with supervenience)

The strongest emergence behaviour possible in a complex system is that of radical emergence, whose property includes supervenience (Lichtenstein and Kurjanowicz, 2010). The emergent component exerts felt influence on its agents that constituted it and they are “governed by the newly emergent properties of the higher-level system” (Lichtenstein and Kurjanowicz, 2010). It is important to note that conceptually, this is ‘downward causation’ because of higher-level processes able to exert causally influence on their lower constituents (Blitz, 1992), such as institutional or social properties limiting and governing the behaviour of its component organisations. Sperry (1986) expresses this emergent situation as follows: “the fate of the parts from that time onward, once a new whole is formed, are thereafter governed by entirely new macro-properties and laws that previously did not exist, because they are properties of the new configuration”.

3.4. Social Realist Theory as a Theoretical Framework

The destination literature discussions that base the phenomena on structural changes and social transformations lead to look at destinations, their organisation and problems they face in the contemporary world from the view of the connection of organisations and society. This essentially draws us to the lenses of sociology. This is from the presupposition that organisations are by and large reliant on human capacity to construct or reconstruct social institutions – the self-consciously and rationality of construction. Some of the post-2000 literature has increasingly recognised this relationship between social institutions and social agency in destination developments (Dredge 2006; Bramwell and Meyer 2007; Henriksen and Halkier, 2009; Gill and Williams 2011; Anton Clavé, 2012). Two theoretical views were considered to offer the most plausible frameworks to approach the subject of the current study. These were:

- (a) Giddens’s Structuration Theory; and
- (b) Various blends of Social Critical Theory.

3.4.1. Anthony Giddens's Theory - Structure, Duality, Agency and Transformation

One of the most influential theorists to discuss the issues of postmodernism and social transformation in general during contemporary times is Anthony Giddens. In its simple form, Giddens's theory of structuration argues that society is interplay of the duality of human agency (micro) and social structure (macro); and these two fuses in accounting for theory of society. Through his various discourses, Giddens suggests that the 'human agency' and 'social structure' share a relationship with each other; and that the repetitions of acts of individual agents will ultimately reproduce the structure (Giddens, 1990; 1992). In essence, the social structure can be changed as people ignore them continuously and replace them or reproduce them differently. Characteristic of this view, Giddens (1990) acknowledges that both the 'micro' and 'macro' levels of social life have value and that they feed into each other. This theory considers social life as not mere random individual acts and at the same time it is not merely determined by social forces.

a) Giddens's Major Discourses (Giddens, 1984; 1985; 1990; 1992)

The prominent discussions of Giddens over years relevant to the current subject could be highlighted as follows:

(i) Giddens on Social Order and Social Reproduction

Regarding social order and social reproduction, Giddens argues as follows. The human agency is inclined to have social expectations based on social order 'rules', which are usually not written and are without formal force but still nonetheless expected to be adhered to. The regular actions of people will reinforce and reproduce a set of expectations. These sets of people's expectations are what translate into 'social forces' and 'social structures'. In the argument of Giddens, this shared framework of reality in any society is important because it defines people's 'faith' in the coherence of everyday life and is sustained by interactions with others. When this taken-for-granted consensus in any given society is challenged, it may 'shock' some people. At policy level, the implication is that policy must be aware of this learnt reality, constantly worked on and policed.

(ii) Giddens's Structuration Theory on Late Modernity

The late modernity paradigm is now widely acknowledged in literature and is credited for changes at structural level or used as a backdrop for various phenomena in studies involving social life (Dredge, 2016). This paradigm has somewhat taken a new twist considering the postmodernist theorists' argument, who made premature announcement of a transition from modernity to post-modernity era. Giddens and others argue that 'post-modernity' is not a new era per se and has not replaced modernity but rather we are in an era of modernity in its 'fully developed' form. This is the late modernity or can be defined by its signature characteristics as 'liquid' or 'reflexive' paradigm. Alternatively, according to Giddens, we are in a post-traditional society.

Giddens views on a connection between most aspects of the 'micro' level of individuals' internal sense of self and identity on one hand and the big 'macro' picture such as of the state, organisations and globalisation. According to Giddens, these two although traditionally they have been treated as separate in sociology; they have influence upon each other and cannot be fully understood if considered in isolation. Conceptually, this means change in a system or organisation can stem from a mesh of micro and macro forces; therefore, full explanations of change lie somewhere within the network of macro and micro forces. Second, there is no spontaneity in changes taking place at either of the two levels; they arise from influences of each other.

Giddens and other sociologists characterise this era also as an era where society is 'reflexive' and: (a) precedents set by preceding generations do not worry in deciding options as long as the law and public opinion allows it; (b) reflexive is at all levels, including at formal governments, institutions and individuals; and (c) increased self-identity. It is worth noting at this stage that the concept of meta governance (Amore and Hall, 2016) and causal discussions on post-structural DMO as espoused by Dredge (2016) discussed in the previous chapter are built around this sociological view.

b) Limitations of Giddens's Structuration Theory in the Current Discourse

To recap, from the mid-1970s, Giddens has argued that structures must be regarded as 'dual' in that they are "both the medium and the outcome of the practices which constitute social systems" (1976; 1979; 1981; 1984). The argument is that people's practices are shaped by structures and at the same time people's practices constitute or reproduce structures. Therefore, human agency and structure are not opposed but presuppose each other, and in essence structure is considered as a process and not steady state. Undoubtedly these views of Giddens have shaped most of the theoretical strategies in social systems for the decades now (Sewell, 1992).

However, while the contemporary sociology lenses like that of Giddens bring a number of contextual issues in perspective regarding social transformation and environmental influences on the phenomena under discussion in this study, and has value, it nonetheless has limitations for solely relying on it in the current study. Some of these have been documented in literature, and could be highlighted as follows.

In discussing causality under these theories, the notion of 'structure', which seem to form the bedrock of the key arguments of Giddens, is important but from its metaphorical usage. From a social scientific perspective, 'structure' is used to conjure social reality in identifying and explaining some complex reality of the whole. It is nonetheless still elusive in discourses (Sewell, 1992). In structural discussions of sociologists, change is mostly considered to be located outside of structures, according to Sewell (1992), this is "either in telos of history, in notions of breakdown, or in influences exogenous to the system in question". It follows therefore that in studies involving questions of stability and change of systems, the study has to make these epistemological shifts, rather awkwardly (Sewell, 1992).

In addition to the above awkwardness, the other three limitations in the current study of solely relying on the sociology lens as postulated by Giddens are as follows:

- (i) Destination systems according a number of scholarly works are generally agreed to be displaying spontaneity, and some of the occurrences cannot be explained

with certainty as being exogenous to the system itself (Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016). The notion of emergent behaviour and self-organisation of the system from complexity views as shall be discussed later is also a viable alternative explanation of stability and change for a complex social system. As Sewell (1992) argues, “structural or structuralist arguments tend to assume a far too rigid causal determinism” and in the course the plausible efficaciousness of the system and components, including human action, are lost.

- (ii) When structure is reified as in Giddens’ arguments, stability is implied and explanation focusses on how consistent patterns are shaped in social life and “not how these patterns change over time” (Sewell, 1992). Of course, as indicated to above, in the case of studies unless there is a fundamental shift in epistemology (awkwardly). This study is not just interested on the explanation of how patterns are shaped but also most importantly how they change. This is important for the purposes of policy propositions.
- (iii) The term ‘structure’ remains open to varied and at times contradictory usage in social science disciplines, such as in a comparison of sociology and anthropology (Sewell, 1992). In sociological usage, structure is considered as ‘material’ and primary and determining. But in anthropology, it is ‘mental’ and secondary or derived.

The above limitations draw us to another plausible theoretical framework within sociology, namely, the social realist theory in its variations. This study mainly approached social critical realism from two of these theorists’ views, namely, Bhaskar’s stratified ontology and Archer’s morphogenetic model.

3.4.2. Social Realist Theory

Social realist theory as espoused in present day is associated with modern philosophical tradition in explanation of the social world that is traced to a British philosopher, Roy Bhaskar’s critical realism (CR) thinking (Bhaskar, 1995). It arose from dissatisfaction to both empiricism and phenomenal appearance of realities (Fletcher, 2017). CR as a philosophy goes beyond phenomenal appearance of reality and at the same time contends against empiricism. The basic assumption of CR is that there is existence of a real world

independent of our knowledge of it (Bhaskar, 1998). It delves deeper into the layers of reality in seeking to know the true existence of a social reality. To have a better understanding of social reality, a researcher must be ready “for inspection, analysis, arrangement and criticism of previous experiences of the aforementioned realities” (Banifatemeh *et al.*, 2018).

Bhaskar (1995) argues for a layered ontology of reality into two main dimensions, namely: (a) intransitive reality that involves the world existing outside human mind, will and action considered to be social entity; and (b) transitive dimension is for mental and imagination process of theorising, hypothesising, conceptualisation and modulation of reality used by social actors for knowing the social world (Banifatemeh *et al.*, 2018).

Other sociologists, such as Archer (1995) and Sayer (1992) use the philosophical school of critical realism to explain the social world (Banifatemeh *et al.*, 2018). Sayer (1992) recognises the complexities associated with social reality, and introduces a model with an ontology based on linguistic and dialectic as among mechanism giving rise to the complexities of the social world (Banifatemeh *et al.*, 2018).

Archer (1995) introduces a social realist view based on notions of morphostasis and morphogenesis. Morphogenesis is a dynamic and transformation of a social reality; while morphostasis implies stability and continuation of society (Archer, 1995; Banifatemeh *et al.*, 2018). This view is further expanded later below, serve to indicate at this stage that a perusal of the arguments under the structural and social transformation in explanation of the phenomena in this study, social realism view was considered the most plausible alternative to Giddens’s theories.

(a) Bhaskar on Emergence - Theory of Ontological Stratification

CR as a philosophical approach developed as an alternative to the traditional positivism and interpretivism approaches, especially in social science, from the 1970s (Bhaskar, 1978; 1978, 1993). But it uses components of both paradigms of positivist and constructivist in the provision of accounts of ontology and epistemology. It combines a

realist ontology with an interpretivist epistemology (Archer, 1995; Sayer, 2004). CR argues for studying of social realities from deeper layers of reality (Banifatemeh *et al.*, 2018). According to Bhaskar, social reality is in multi-layered and multileveled realities as shown in Figure 3.2 that consist of three levels and layers as follows: (a) real layer; (b) determined and actual layer; and (c) empirical layer (Craib and Benton, 2015; Banifatemeh *et al.*, 2018).

Domain of the real includes the structures and causal powers inherent in them at this level of reality that exist independently. This consists of underlying generative causal mechanisms or structure co-producing flux of phenomena and these too are layered. The domain of the actual is a subset of the real and includes the events or occurrences arising from enactment of the causal powers of structures and entities, whether they are observed by humans or not, for example human action or revolution. Lastly, the empirical is a subset of the actual and is made up of events that we are able to experience through perception or measurement. This includes experiences or empirical observations of what is seen for example through historical documents (Bhaskar, 1995; Wynn and William, 2012; Hedlund-de Witt, 2013).

The real layer is considered to be the host for structures, mechanisms and processes, which are not observable but represent the real causal mechanisms of the observable occurrences of phenomena and events. The actual layer consists of observable phenomena and events while the empirical layer is made up of the tangible and observable phenomena, which Bhaskar (2010) describes as follows: “This layer of reality is related to closed systems and is not generally available in open systems because the course of action is different in the latter as compared to closed systems. We can use this empirical layer as a basis for simulation that help us to know the causal rules and mechanism that might be available for direct observation”.

The real layer is important in causally explanations because it provides the basis for causal explanation as well as being the critical structure and mechanism upon which the empirical layers are realised.

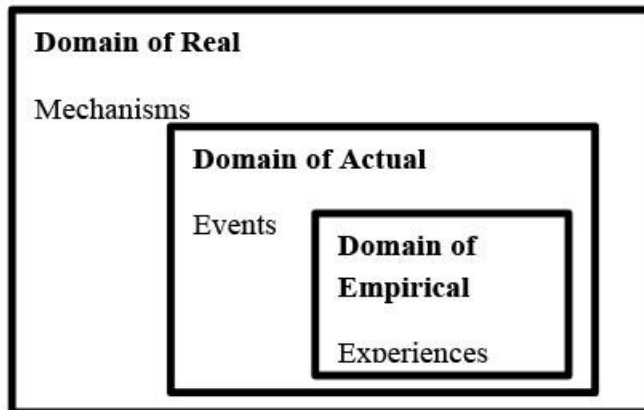


Figure 3.2: Bhaskar’s Stratified Ontology of CR (adapted from Bhaskar, 1975).

In policy and strategy discussions, the above has been compared and elucidated by the iceberg metaphor (Figure 3.3.), popular among complexity theorists that was referred to in the last chapter. The metaphor aligns the various layers of reality to the layers of the iceberg in a sinking ship, and it is argued that what makes a ship sink is what is hidden beneath the water; the same can be said about strategy and policy. The argument is that ‘what makes a ship sink is what makes strategy or policy to sink’ (Jakulin, 2016). What is readily visible is just the tip of the iceberg and is comparable to the empirical level of reality; and down the visible surface are the ‘actual’ and ‘real’ levels. The causal mechanisms are considered to be deeper than what is visible at the empirical level and even at what can be unearthed at the level of ‘real’.

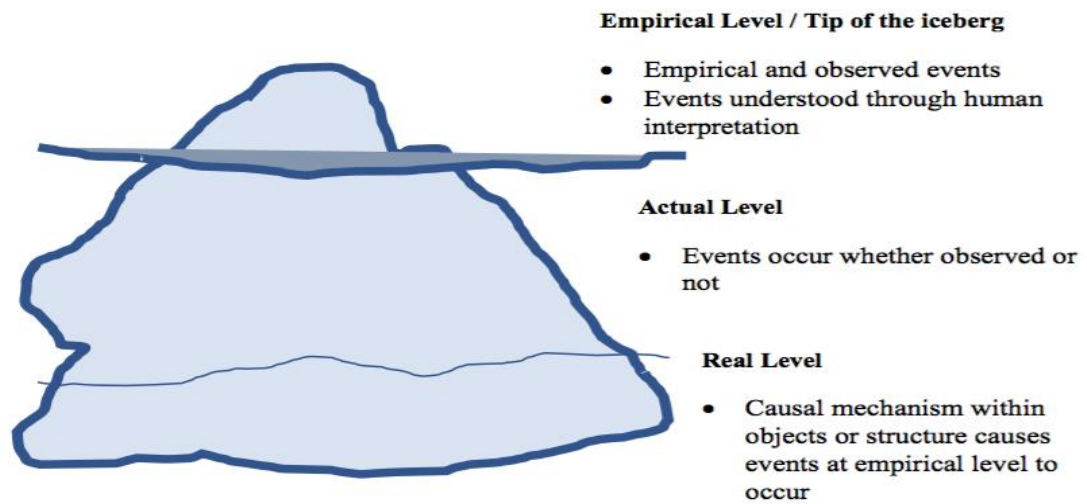


Figure 3.3: Iceberg Metaphor and Stratified Ontology (Bhaskar, 1979; 1993; Kim, 1999; Haine, 2006; Jakulin, 2016).

Bhaskar introduced and modelled the theory of stratification of emergence, based on the theory of Michael Polanyi's theory of emergence, which argued for the hierarchical ordered natural world in such a way that "higher-order processes often set 'boundary conditions' on lower-order ones" (Gorski, 2018). Bhaskar (1979) while arguing for "individual actions, often drew on 'social forms' or 'roles' that 'pre-existed' the individuals in question", still nonetheless rejected the notions of: (i) all forms of 'social holism', which considered society as existing human agents; and (ii) social constructionism which considers "the 'individual' and the 'social' as two moments in a process" (Gorski, 2018). In espousing this view, Bhaskar argued that the individual and society levels ought to be understood as existing 'levels' or 'strata' of reality as opposed to being analytical categories (Gorski, 2018).

Bhaskar's notion of downward causation or supervenience based on the 'layer-cake' ontology, seem to have become the safe-haven for sociological emergentists. However, it has been criticised as unstable, especially by analytical philosophers of mind, such as Kim. Kim's argument as recorded by Gorski (2018) is summed up as follows: "Assume higher level H with property P_h and lower-level L with property P_l , for example the mind and its thoughts, on one hand and the brain and its states, on the other. Then for any change in P_h there will be corresponding changes in P_l , for example as thoughts flow through your

mind, electricity will flow through our neurons, which philosophers call supervenience... However, if any changes in P_h can be described in terms of changes in P_l , then any reference to H is redundant, and also the idea that H could exert downward causation over L ultimately threaten the fundamental law of physics". Kim argues that if the above scenario be the case, then the only way of saving the autonomy of the mind may be to accept some version of substance dualism.

To summarise, the shortfall of the Bhaskarian quasi-geological metaphorical view of 'level', 'strata' and 'hierarchies' as rightly observed by Gorski (2018) is as follows: descriptively the assumption or notion of 'downward causation' where entities of a higher strata are assumed to be compositionally separate from lower strata and exert "their effects on them by means of efficient causation" is fallacious, inadequate and potentially misleading (Gorski, 2018).

The above weakness notwithstanding, Bhaskar's notion of hidden levels in problem situations appear to correspond with contemporary views of complex systems. It also provides a useful framework of comparison between critical realism and complexity theory. The convergence with complexity theory has been acknowledged in recent critical realist discourses (Mingers, 2006). Although original critical realist theorists, such as Bhaskar (1978; 1978, 1993), tend not to explicitly make reference to the systems literature, their work is systemic in a fundamental way. The essential conceptual views of critical realism can be translated into systemic language and at the same time realist social theories (Mingers, 2006). Most importantly, both theories enjoy commonality in that they focus on underlying processes and mechanisms, as elucidated using the iceberg metaphor and the sinking ship above. Both the complexity and social theories focus on what is below the surface, the processes and deep structures of causality.

(b) A Historical Approach to Emergence - Archer on Emergence

Margaret Archer is one of the influential social realist theorists to embrace emergentism, and does so from both the critical and constructive ways (Gorski, 2018). Although social reality can be viewed from critical realism point of view, generally its introduction in

sociology has led to various schools of thought, and consequently realist social theory is now a mix of various realist social views through embracing ideas, such as those of John Urry, Margaret Archer, Andrew Sawyer and Russell Keith (Banifatemeh *et al.*, 2018).

Both Bhaskar and Archer share with Giddens on the assumptions of action and structure being mutually constituted. However, social realist theory as approached from Archer's morphogenetic approach to causality is somewhat different from Giddens's structuration theory (Archer, 1995; 2000). In social realist theory, social structure is considered to exist independently of the current human activity. According to this social transformation tradition, structuring of a social system goes through morphogenesis, which Archer (1989) defines as "the complex interchanges that produce change in a system's form, structure or state". The reverse of morphogenesis is 'morphostasis', which is non-change. Morphogenesis analysis is considered to be in three phases. First is what Archer (1995) calls structural conditioning, which are the pre-existing structures that condition but do not determine change. Second is the production of change through social interactions, which is as a result of actions from current agents toward realization of interests and needs. Third, there is change in relations between the components of the social system (Archer, 2000; Carter and New, 2005).

Important in studies using this theory is the need for recognising that structure and agency operate at different time periods because the structure predates the actions which transform it, and eventually this transformed structure will post-date these actions (Carter and New, 2005). This makes history of phenomena important in determining causality. Picking this as the theoretical and conceptual foundation of the current study, the changes in the expected role of the DMO and the resistant of policy to change the structure and activities of the DMO despite change in the expected role can be explained by studying the system from the following theoretical and conceptual proposition:

The exogenous factors in the environment led to structural conditioning of the destination system and set the agents (various stakeholders) to act towards realization of their interest and needs. The interplay of the structural changes and the actions of agents could be what

is producing the occurrences as witnessed in the destination system of the shifting expected role of the DMO and other components among the tourism industry stakeholders. This transforms the destination system through dynamic aspect of society (morphogenesis) as opposed to reproducing it through stability and continuation of society (morphostasis). Figures 3.4 and 3.5 show the adapted model of Archer (1989) on causality under this social realist view.

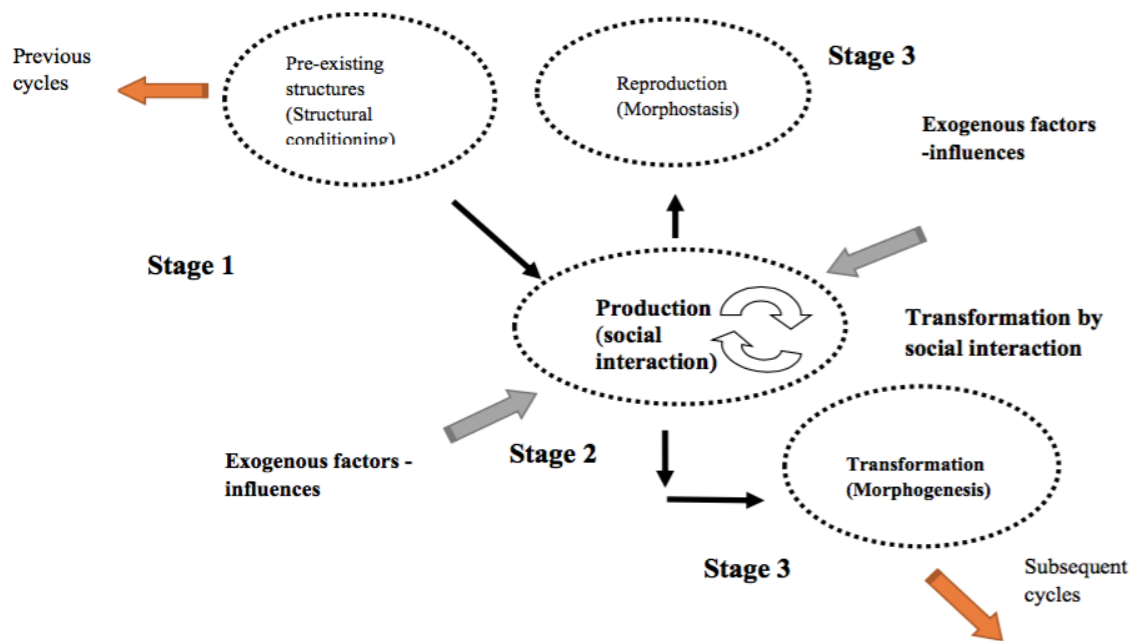


Figure 3.4: Social Transformation Causality: Morphogenetic-Morphostasis Model (Adapted from Archer, 2000).

When compared to Giddens’s structuration theory and other structural approaches, Archer (1995) is one of the prominent critics, notwithstanding that both Giddens’s and her approach are conflationary. Archer (1995) argues against both methodological individualism and structuration theory (Banifatemeh *et al.*, 2018). According to Archer (1995), structuration theory suffers from limitations associated with methodological individualism. Contrary to methodological individualism, people act within social-cultural and structural contexts and human actions is not only restricted to human relations and social systems (Porpora, 2013). The gist of Archer (1995)’s argument is that “there is no difference between the individual and society rather there is a continuous and ubiquitous interaction and symbiosis between these two” (Banifatemeh *et al.*, 2018).

Equally important for this study is Archer (1995)'s emphasis of ontology, methodology, and practical theory of social reality by arguing for the importance of preceding the understanding of any social phenomenon by a "well-grounded knowledge of social reality and the relevant methods that have to be used for acquiring this knowledge" (Archer, 1995; Banifatemeh *et al.*, 2018).

Assuming the conceptual focus of the study is structurally emergent properties of the system as the basis for explaining the causal relationships and factors, according to literature suggesting social transformation, the changes in the expected role of the DMO and other components in the destination system could be ascribed to structural changes in the destination. Therefore, the assumption and focus of the study was on the display of structurally emergent properties in the destination system. The other possible emergent properties are culturally emergent properties or emergent properties of people. This study pursued the route of the former – structurally emergent properties, by lamination discussed later.

The stages of change and transformation using morphogenetic model would be as in Figure 3.5.

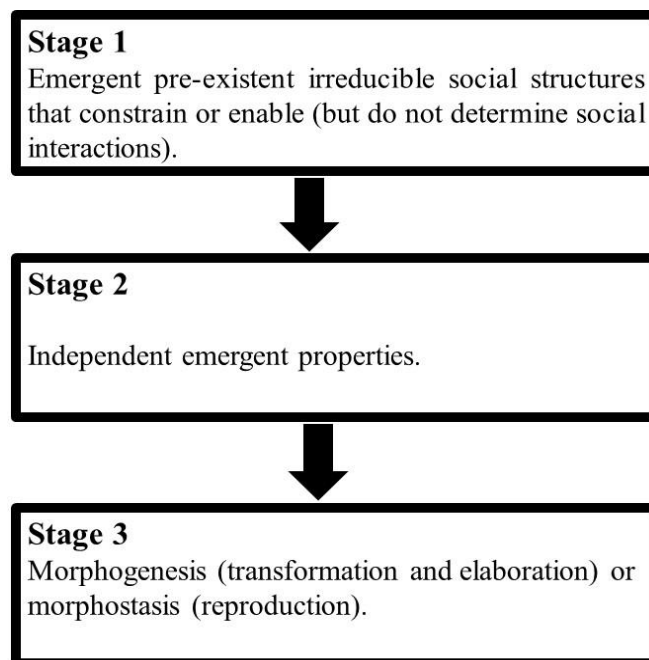


Figure 3.5: Morphogenesis-Morphostasis Process (based on Archer, 1995).

Archer's approach when considered as an emergentist theory of social structures suffers the following limitations as a form of social critical realism, and there is still more to be done before it attains ontological stability: (i) it does not demonstrate the realist criteria for 'mind-independent', which is important in critical realism thinking but highly elusive for social structures compared to physical or biological structures as admitted by several social realists (Gorski, 2018); (ii) Gorski (2018) argues that Archer uses a diachronic argument to sustain the synchronic emergence argument and yet the typical diachronic argument does not demonstrate "the social structure are mind-independent"; and (iii) as Gorski (2018) argues, "while roles and institutions do have histories, they exist only in and through the interpretations and interactions of living individuals". However, in this study it was considered important in providing a theoretical foundation to approach the study phenomena.

(c) A Composition Theory of Emergence - Elder-Vass on Emergence

The other theoretical view under the social realist view that was considered was that of Elder-Vass. Elder-Vass is one of the second generation of critical realists (Gorski, 2018). The discourses of Elder-Vass argue are for a composition theory of social emergence and tends to respond to the weaknesses of the emergentist metaphors of ontological level, strata or hierarchies based on the quasi-geological notion as in the Bhaskarian view. Elder-Vass invokes the rarely used metaphorical concepts based on 'composition', 'scale' and 'domains' (Gorski, 2018). The view is that descriptions using 'strata' or 'levels' based on the notions of quasi-geology are misleading and tend to suggest 'downward causation' by means of efficient causation. In this kind of downward causation, higher entities would be compositionally separate from lower hierarchies (Gorski, 2018).

The compositional theory of emergence argues that the basic building blocks of social structure are persons and their relations in their relatively stable and enduring relations sufficient enough to exhibit emergent properties and powers of one kind or another (Gorski, 2018). However, the compositional account of emergentism does not demonstrate that "social structure is mind independent" in a meaningful way. Second, it

is yet to develop theoretical tools to deal with studies centred on emergentism (Gorski, 2018).

3.4.2. Stratified Ontology and Morphogenetic Model Together

Bringing together the main strands of sociological thinking in summary, the difficulties likely to be encountered in attempts to approach emergentism from any of the strands of sociological views of analytical sociology and social realism in a study, is the limit of theoretical tools. Second, accentuating this has also been the changes in views among the major theorists. A perusal of literature indicates that most of the theorists, ranging from Giddens, Bhaskar, Archer and others have had to revise their views. However, the bottom line is that the CR worldview remains influential and is growing in social theory discourses.

In addition to usefulness into delving deeper into a phenomenon, one of the main advantages of CR in the current study is its potential benefit for both explanatory and practical policy recommendation purposes. This is one of the reasons that make CR to be popular in studies looking at policy related subjects (Fletcher, 2017). However, as alluded to above, researchers encounter one difficult in applying CR in studies, namely that there is inadequate methodological development of CR in empirical research (Yeung, 1997). Theory indicates that there is limited demonstration of the ontological and epistemological usage in data collection and analysis, and how CR contribute to findings. As a result, in studies using CR, there is need to note that methodological guidelines are not available to help reliability (Morse *et al.*, 2008).

The above limitation opens a way for studies to be designed from a broad range of theoretical foundations and methodologies. As for the social realist assumption, perhaps the major question when applying a realist philosophical view in a study is the choice of the blend of critical realism view, based on ontological and epistemological assumptions inherent in the various blends. In this study causally mechanism were approached mainly from some of Archer's morphogenesis model of realist social reality and Bhaskar's stratified ontology. One of the advantages of Archer's model is its recognition of epochs,

which is important in studies whose approach could include historicity of phenomena. Bhaskar (1979)'s model of strata cannot easily be dismissed in studies. It still remains as one of the safe-havens for critical realism thinking.

Elder-Vass's compositional theory while being attractive, it suffers from lack of tools and makes comparison in a pluralist approach of competing theories difficult. Therefore, throughout the research process, including data analysis, the two theoretical foundations and assumptions of Archer and Bhaskar are kept in view, together with the later CR developments in contemporary discourses in various blends of sociologists like Sawyer.

3.5. Complexity Theory as a Theoretical Framework

The second theoretical foundation for the current problem situation was the complexity theory. Bringing together the various strands of destination literature in the current study, the tourism industry in general and destinations in specific is considered to have be going through changes that are raising open questions (Pike and Page, 2014; World Tourism Organisation, 2015; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Reinhold *et al.*, 2017; Nagai *et al.*, 2018; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021). As Gyr (2010) argues, tourism “is breaking down boundaries by mutating and is thus moving towards a globalised system with specific, increasingly interchangeable forms and modes of experience; only time will tell what structures will emerge from this innovative potential”. Similarly, several scholars argue that changes witnessed in destinations in recent years, especially related to the role of the DMO, are becoming more and more disruptive and unpredictable in nature (Pike and Page, 2014; Pike, 2016; Pike, 2018).

Complexity theory views causality from the system's capacity for spontaneous novelty or self-organisation (Stacey *et al.*, 2000). The argument is that in complex systems changes can arise also from self-organisation from within the system and therefore to understand the pattern of behaviour of a system the focus should be on the “connection between diversity, conflict and creativity from within the system which allows the capacity for spontaneous novelty or self-organisation” (Stacey *et al.*, 2000).

3.5.1. Emergentism in Complexity Theory: Self-Organisation or Novelty

The central question in any study under the complexity view is that of causality – what causes the destination organisation to display patterns of stability when they do; what causes them to change when they change; and what makes them take the form they take (Stacey *et al.*, 2000). Complexity theory provides a new framing for inquiries involving change and complex social phenomena by, among others, offering new ways of re-thinking old assumptions of equilibrium in favour of far-from-equilibrium and rectifying the relationship between a system and its environment (Walby, 2003).

In regard to change, two pathways have sprung out of complexity theory, namely: (a) the conceptualisation of change from the point of co-evolution of complexity adaptive systems; and (b) the notion of novelty, sudden, critical turning points where complex systems give rise to “bifurcation and new paths of development that are self-sustaining” (Walby, 2003). These two and the respective frames are briefly discussed below.

(a) Co-evolution of complex adaptive system

The key conceptual tool of causality under the complexity approaches is the multi-agent system or the complex adaptive system, whose basic premise is that: a system has a collection of autonomous components or agents that try to achieve individual goals by acting upon the environment, which has other agents. Local interactions of these agents give rise to a global order. Agents on their own are inherently subjective and uncertain about their actions “yet they generally manage to self-organise into an emergent, adaptive system” (Walby, 2003).

However, agents are ‘black boxes’ and therefore we could know the rules that govern their individual behaviour but not so much pay attention to their internal structure. This a departure point with sociological emergentism theoretical assumptions. In critical realism, individuals are not treated as ‘black boxes’ and as a matter of necessity cannot be bypassed in the study of emergent behaviour under critical realism assumptions. Emergence is at the centre of complexity theory and therefore sits at the core of research in complex systems, especially those leaning on the assumption of re-organisation (Lichtenstein,

2014). In theory, the centrality of emergence has been used by management scholars at both micro and macro levels. For example, at micro levels for decision-making (Minniti, 2004), leadership (Plowman *et al.*, 2007), organisational design (Brown and Eisenhardt, 1997) and processes of organisational adaptation and strategic change (MacIntosh and MacLean, 1999) studies; and at macro level for governance processes (O'Mahony and Ferraro, 2007), emergence of new markets (Sarasvathy and Dew, 2005), creation of new industry forms (Perretti *et al.*, 2008) and agglomeration studies (Chiles *et al.*, 2004). The capacity to be useable at both micro and macro levels without losing 'holism' of phenomena is one of the reasons that make the complexity theory approaches compete with sociological emergentism as explanatory frameworks.

As alluded to above, complexity theory re-frames the debate about the micro-macro relationship in causality and is assumed to be linked through emergence in complexity theory (Walby, 2003). In sociological views the challenge has been how different levels of patterns are linked, and the variations of response has included 'macro-micro' linkage, 'individual and society', and structure, action and structuration (Giddens, 1984). Complexity theory assumes that "each level contains the objects that are present in the other levels" but these can be analysed differently, and emergence can be studied from either the bottom-up or bottom-down approaches (Walby, 2003).

In terms of social mechanisms, under complexity theory 'holism' is implied when compared with critical realism. Social mechanisms as a concept has passed through various paradigms from the traditional nineteenth century notion of 'atomistic' reduction common to the science of the day that time (Bunge, 1977) to the contemporary usage based on the form of realist explanation perspective in contrast to empiricism. The recent usage has also included in complex systems (Sawyer, 2004). However, the underlying assumptions and implications when used in social scientific explanation are different between social theory and the complexity view. 'Mechanisms' shift causality explanation from macro to micro level, and this contradicts the notion of 'holism', which is assumed in complexity theory.

Another important view within complex adaptive system is the notion of edge-of-chaos behaviour. Complex adaptive systems display behaviour between states of stability and that of chaos. Stability is considered to be a temporal state due to regular perturbations and constant chaos catalysts. Edge-of-chaos arises from the fact that complex systems display dynamism, with stable equilibrium and random chaos on the extremes. In between these distinctive dynamics, they may be at the edge-of-chaos, which is a state of readiness for radical change (Stacey *et al.*, 2000; Russell, 2006). Contemporary literature describes destination stability as ‘transitional’ and change is considered to be imminent at any time because of the heightened sensitivity to disruptive internal and external influences and the constant barrage of a multiplicity of chaos catalysts (Burns, 2006; Russell, 2006; Pike, 2016). This essentially is a display of edge-of-chaos characteristic.

Social systems are open to their environment they import inputs, export output and interpret feedback from the environment (Faulkner and Russell, 1997; McKercher, 1999; Yolles, 1999; Stacey *et al.*, 2000; Russell, 2006; Baggio, 2008; McDonald, 2009). It is important to note is that complex systems are open to their environment and because of this permeability they import inputs, export outputs and interpret the feedback they receive from the environment (Figure 3.6). Consequently, they are affected by the environment and its changes. Perturbations cause the system to go into self-amplification. Self-amplification of the fluctuations generated within the system from the perturbations is taken to be the self-organisation of the system (Yolles, 1999).

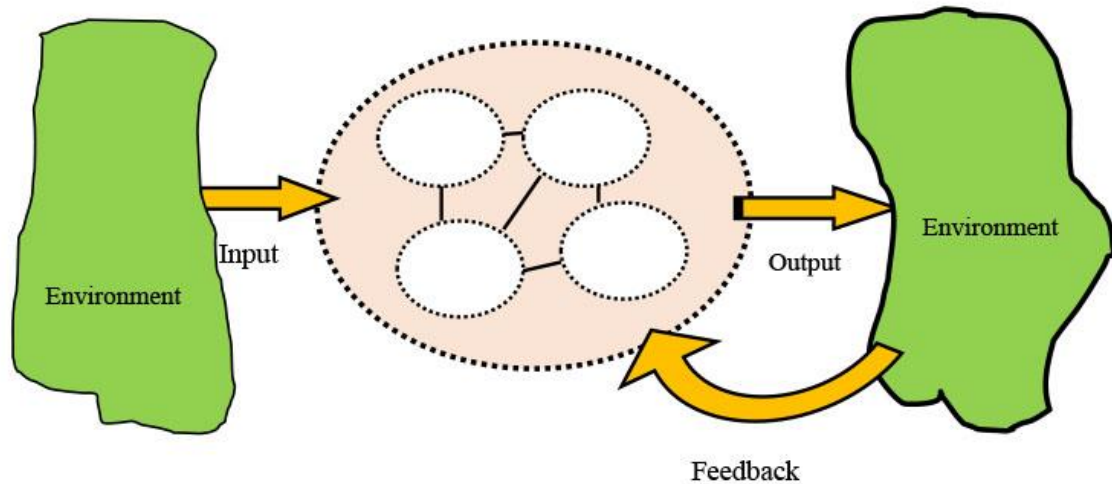


Figure 3.6: Input-Output-Feedback in Open Systems. (Faulkner and Russell, 1997; McKercher, 1999; Yolles, 1999; Stacey *et al.*, 2000; Russell, 2006; Baggio, 2008; McDonald, 2009; Pike and Page, 2014; World Tourism Organisation, 2015; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Reinhold *et al.*, 2017; Nagai *et al.*, 2018; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021).

Going by the edge-of-chaos assumptions in destination as complex adaptive systems, edge-of-chaos is to be expected and could actually be desirable because it drives a destination system and its components towards more competitiveness, resilient and robustness if the system is harnessed to be a learning tourism destination. A learning destination system is achieved by a DMO, government agencies and tourism industry associations acting as “intermediaries, to facilitate the generation, sharing, storage and processing of a myriad of interconnected businesses which exhibit the characteristics associated with creativity and robustness” (Senge, 1990; Speakman, 2017). This is important to keep in policy propositions. Complexity theory approaches under self-organisation are suited for investigating phenomena that does not fall in the extremes of the spectrum of order-disorder but rather those on the edge-of-chaos (Langton, 1990).

Various scholars acknowledge complexity theory, including self-organisation model, as a plausible alternative theoretical framework for studying tourism phenomena (Faulkner and Russell, 1997; McKercher, 1999; Baggio, 2008; McDonald, 2009). The components or agents of a destination system in Zambia are the businesses in the industry, and other government and non-government actors. Tourism systems have components that are

seeking their individual goals, such as profit or conservation interests, and at the same time their actions have consequences for the entire destination. In the current study, their actions can fairly be studied and not the real internal structures of the operators, environmental groups, trade association and other various product owners in the sector. Figure 3.7 is a conceptual view of complex adaptation through self-organisation. At stage one, the destination is displaying temporal stability and soon perturbations trigger the system to go into self-organisation at stage two. Three rules governing behaviour at stage two that can be studied are: (a) interconnections of the components; (b) self-referential behaviour of components; and (c) emergent behaviour of the components at their level. At stage three, the system as a whole displays emergent behaviour and is in temporal equilibrium again.

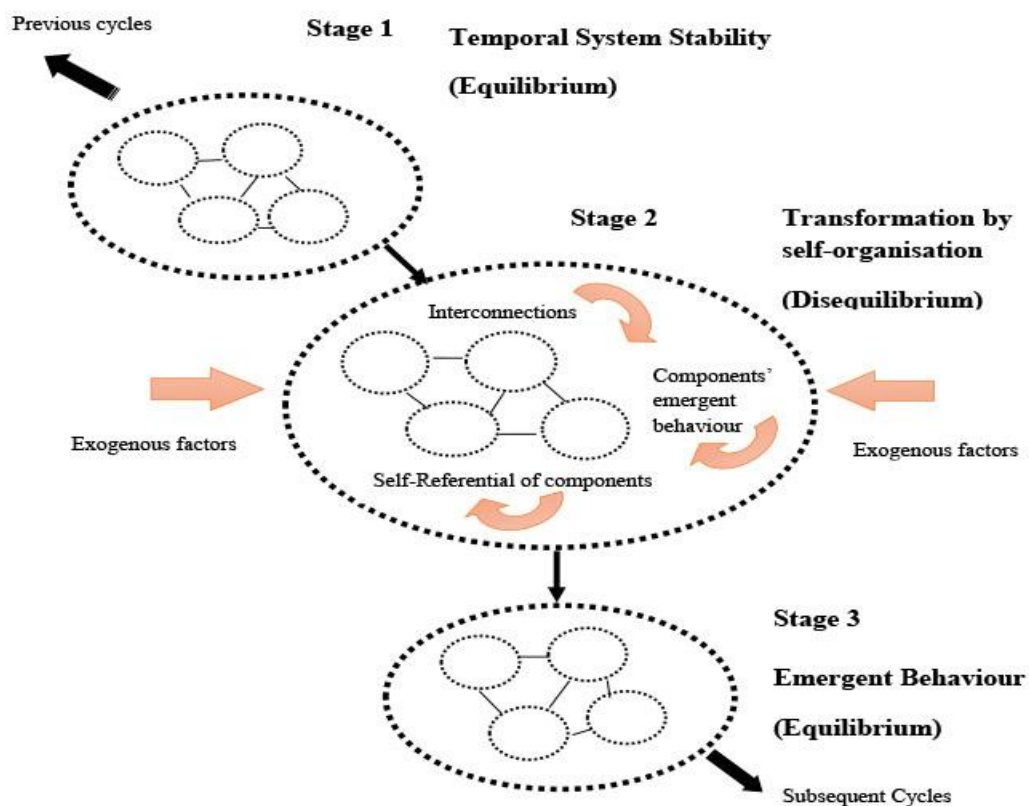


Figure 3.7: Destination Complex System – Causality by Self-Organisation (display of emergent behaviour) (Faulkner and Russell, 1997; McKercher, 1999; Yolles, 1999; Stacey *et al.*, 2000; Russell, 2006; Baggio, 2008; McDonald, 2009; Pike and Page, 2014; World Tourism Organisation, 2015; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Reinhold *et al.*, 2017; Nagai *et al.*, 2018; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020; Demiroglu and Muller, 2021).

(b) Path Dependency and Bifurcation

The other way of analysing change in complexity theory apart from complex adaptive systems is the display of novelty or sudden changes, which can lead to different paths of development rather than one universal route (Walby, 2003). This is somewhat different from the concept of co-evolution, which implies gradualism. In studies, the point of interest under path dependency assumptions is the point at which paths diverge, comparable to crystallisation and taken to be the critical turning point or ‘bifurcation’.

Bifurcation is taken to be the point at which the system changes. Crises in destinations are considered to be points of these changes, and could send the destination system into disarray or complete destruction (Speakman, 2017). Using this argument, the shifts in the expected role of the DMO and its components, and the loss of efficacy of the archetype traditional DMO as recorded in literature (Reinhold, Laesser and Beritelli, 2015) could be ascribed to system bifurcation if it arises from the ‘butterfly effect’. ‘Butter fly effect’ as discussed in the last chapter is a notion of small changes that have large effects on unstable systems. At this stage of bifurcation, policy should provide for avoidance of cosmology. In destinations, cosmology is considered to be the panic of components, visible in the system’s agents. A destination able to cultivate an inherent ability to respond to crises is more “adept at adapting to bifurcation and minimizing episodes of cosmology” (Speakman, 2017).

The capacity of a system to emerge from bifurcation is dependent on its capacity for self-organisation. As already indicated above, self-organisation arises from the system’s agents or components undertaking self-organising and exhibiting novelty to enable the system to adapt to its new environment. This results in new improved configurations which develop without outside interference (Speakman, 2017). Important to note in studies under complexity view is the notion of ‘strange attractors’. These are forces that enable the system to go through order-within-chaos by pulling the components in a particular direction away from chaos to a new state of emergent behaviour.

3.5.2. Complexity Emergentism: Co-evolution or Bifurcation in Path Dependent Developments

Bringing the above together, the mechanisms by which change and emergence take place in complexity theory could be approached from three perspectives. These are based on the versions of complexity theory from the two schools discussed above, of either change stimulus lying in the endogenous learning and developments or the sudden transformation of the environment (Walby, 2003). The three are:

- (a) Co-evolution and complex adaptive system based on the Santa Fe Institute version;
- (b) Sudden transformation or chaos theory version influenced by Prigogine; and
- (c) Eldredge's punctuated equilibria theory, where periods of little change are followed by periods of rapid change (Eldredge, 1985; 1986; Walby, 2003).

In this study, the three were left as plausible at this stage. While being significant, the approach was to allow the type of change phenomena be an outcome of the inquiry. It formed part of the descriptive research question on the nature of changing taking place in the destination.

3.5.3. Complex Systems as Nested Systems

Complexity emergentism gives a system property of a nested system, where a system is considered to enclose and simultaneously enclosed by other systems (Walloth, 2015). Enclosing is systems emerge diachronically from the systems they enclose. In terms causality, the basic argument is that enclosed system's activities or frequencies of change will always be faster than those of enclosing systems. According to this doctrine, eventually enclosing systems emerge from the generative activities of the system they enclose. Walloth (2015) found that enclosed system's activities or frequencies are always faster than those of enclosing systems. Secondly, because of emergent behaviour, there is no way of predicting the quality of emergence until it is there. This study views the destination system to be a nested system.

3.6. Foundational Differences and Similarities of Complexity Theory and Realist Social Theory in a ‘shifting’ Causally Investigation

The two theories enjoy commonality in causally inquiries in that both seek to explain why relationships come about and processes that go on in the system to link its various inputs and outputs (Dalkin *et al.*, 2015). However, there is a fundamental difference in the foundational assumptions of the two theories when used as explanatory frameworks as used in the current study.

3.6.1. Foundational Differences in Theoretical Assumptions

Complexity theory when used to inquire into a causality problem situation based on emergence relies on the concepts of path dependence and non-linear dynamism, which could manifest as self-organisation, co-evolution, sudden transformation and / or punctuated equilibria. Any of these is considered to essentially lead to display of emergence behaviour by a system (doctrine of emergence). On the other hand, realist social theory is based on two plausible related concepts of change and transformation as processes reflecting possible shifts visible in the destination system (Lichtenstein, 2014), which are taken as emergent behaviour.

The distinction between the two theoretical views as approached in this study is as follows:

(a) Mechanisms Reliant on Change and Transformation in Social Realism

Although the two views of emergence and mechanisms mentioned above somewhat look similar, especially in lay discourses, they are fundamentally different and built on different foundations. In CR mechanism based explanatory frameworks, change and transformation assume two but different processes as explanation of the visible shifting in a phenomenon. Relying on Archer and other theorists, ‘change’ is considered to be adaptation of the system by learning and incrementally improving their situation, based on their history and experience. On the other hand, ‘transformation’ is the modification of the existing elements and alters the design structures, internal processes or activity routine in the system (Lichtenstein, 2014). Transformation, just like change is path-dependent and therefore history is important; just as important as the trigger for change or the transformation of the elements, structures and internal processes. Two factors determine

the outcome of shifting – the existing state and what initiates the process of change or transformation (Lichtenstein, 2014).

It is also worth noting that change and / or transformation of a system presumes a crisis strong enough to create a gap and dislodge the system from its initial state. In this regard, change or transformation of a system is a response to changing environment aimed at bringing back the system into ‘system integrity’ status, where ‘system integrity’ is defined as the ‘state of a destination system where it is performing its intended functions without being degraded or impaired by changes or disruptions in its internal or external environments’. However, as will be noted below, ‘transformation’ is also assumed to produce ‘emergent’ behaviour in a system, just like under complexity assumptions except the assumption on the source of emergence differs.

Although transformation can lead to an emergent behaviour, the critical realism tools focus on the transformation process and not the resultant emergent behaviour. In this case, the individual who is considered to be a ‘black box’ under complexity theory is opened up. Most important in the approach of this study is that both ‘change’ and ‘transformation’ are reliant on similar mechanisms, unlike self-organisation under emergence theory reliant on a different doctrinal view.

(b) Emergence Behaviour and Re-emergence in Complexity Theory

Emergence under complexity theory is different from the above twofold causally plausible behaviour. Emergence in a system under the complexity theory denotes creation and not mere change. In emergence, the system components and their interactions create something new from within the system. This creation of an emergent entity amounts to origination of a “distinct system and / or the structures within it” (Lichtenstein, 2014). The other distinguishing characteristics of emergence under complexity theory are that:

- (i) the trigger for emergence under complexity could be aspirational and a system can be triggered even when there is no problem or something wrong; it is more about potentiality of the destination in the market and / or economy;
- (ii) in a crisis-driven change or transformation, shifting is more of a ‘reactive creativity’ in desperation to a crisis whereas in complexity emergence it is possibly ‘proactive creativity’ (Heinzen, 1994; Lichtenstein, 2014); and

(iii) emergence and re-emergence under complexity theory increases the system's capability, such as efficiency, adaptability and performance, to accomplish its goals, which may not necessarily be the case in change and transformations (Lichtenstein, 2014).

However, as indicated above, emergence here is also transformational in nature. It is not just about creation but also about continuous re-creation over time, which essentially is transformational (Chiles *et al.*, 2004). In this study, display of emergent behaviour is taken as a form of transformation, but approached from different theoretical assumptions when used in explanatory studies under complexity theory.

Bringing these two distinctions, the domains or elements of focus in the study under each of the theoretical foundations as treated and delineated in this study are as in Table 3.1 and Table 3.2.

(a) Table 3.1: Comparison of Complexity Theory and Social Realist Theory

Complexity Theory	Realist Social Theory
1. Path dependent, non-linear, displays dynamism and history may not always be important in explanation.	1. Path dependent and historicity important in behaviour.
2. Open systems, subject to external, internal, self-referential of components and emergent behaviour of components that cause emergent behaviour of the whole system.	2. Open system, subject to external and internal influences that dislodge system from its initial state, resulting in emergent behaviour
3. Shift is proactive, aspirational and adaptation is intended for increased capability of the system.	3. Shift is reactive, response to a crisis arising from the environment and is intended to bring back the system on track (system integrity and improve situation).
4. Emergent behaviour leads to creation of emergent entities, and possibly the dissipative structures created.	4. Emergent behaviour leads to adaptation and transformation; modifies existing elements and alters the design structures, internal processes or activity routine in the system.

Sources: Horgan, 1995; Levin, 1998; Pavard and Dugdale, 2000; Adami, 2002; McGlade and Garnsey, 2006; Chiles *et al.*, 2004; Lichtenstein, 2014.

Table 3.2: Complexity Theory and Social Realist Theory Focuses

Complexity Theory	Realist Social Theory
1. Presence or none of emergence structures in the destination (dissipative structures).	1. Adaptation of the destination system (in case of change of the system).
2. Level of emergence of the destination system.	2. Modification of elements (in case of transformation of system and elements).
3. System shifts during the last ten years or so and / or emergence of novel and coherent structures, patterns or properties.	3. Alteration of design, structures, internal processes and / or alteration of activity routine of the destination system (in case of transformation of system) during last ten years or so.

Sources: Horgan, 1995; Levin, 1998; Pavard and Dugdale, 2000; Adami, 2002; McGlade and Garnsey, 2006; Chiles *et al.*, 2004; Lichtenstein, 2014.

3.6.2. Two Theoretical Frameworks Unite under Common Philosophical Paradigm of Critical Realism (CR)

As indicated above, the commonality of complexity and social realist theories in causally inquiries is that both seek to explain why relationships come about and processes that go on in the system to link with its various inputs and outputs (Dalkin *et al.*, 2015). In the current study, these two theoretical frameworks of complexity theory and realist social theory are used as competing explanatory frameworks; evidence of each is presented on a head-to-head comparison to determine which one of the two is stronger both as an explanatory theory and also in the development of a public policy proposition framework for DMO business model and destination organisation.

However, even though they are used as competing theoretical conjectures, the methodological approach of inquiry is reliant on a common research philosophy of critical realism (CR). The basis of commonality in studying causal phenomena is that when used as causally theories in studies, such as in the current one focused on shifting in organisations or systems, these two theories intersect in both presupposing unearthing hidden patterns, processes, how parts are organised (mechanisms) and also from the view of the emergent behaviour exhibited, different assumptions notwithstanding. Therefore,

in the current study a critical realist philosophy offers an inquiry paradigm for the mechanisms in both complexity theory and critical realist accounts of emergent behaviour. The point of departure in the inquiry process under the two competing theories is at the point of analysis. The analysis and interpretation of data take the assumptions and tools unique to each of the theoretical foundations for the study to benefit from the epistemological peculiarities in each of the two. Details of the relevant discussions on this approach is done in the methodology chapter that follow.

3.7. Causal Mechanisms in the Two Theoretical Frameworks

According to Kaidesoja (2016), there are three different possible concepts of causal mechanism that could apply in in social research, namely (a) causal mechanisms as intervening variables; (b) causal mechanisms as objective relations underlying the counterfactual dependence between variables in structural equation models; and (c) causal mechanisms as interaction structures of generative social process.

- (a) **Causal mechanism as intervening variables:** From the lens of sociology, according to Mahoney (2001) in Kaidesoja (2016), a causal mechanism is considered as an intervening variable or set of intervening variables in the conceptual usage of explaining “why a correlation exists between independent and dependent variable”. This conceptual view of causal mechanisms is useful in studies looking to build and evaluate statistical models in a data set of the population of interest. This view is associated with probabilistic Humean regularity theory of causation because of reducing causal relations to observable relations between variables or indeed successive events (Kaidesoja, 2016).
- (b) **Causal mechanisms as objective relations underlying the counterfactual dependencies between variables in structural equation models:** This causal mechanisms use structural equation models and “manipulationist account of causation” (Kaidesoja, 2016) that is somewhat different because it rejects the Humean regularity theory of causation and also does not consider causal mechanism to be merely intervening variables.
- (c) **Causal mechanisms as interaction structures of generative mechanisms:** In contrast to the two above, this conceptual view of causal mechanism applies in social

phenomena focusing on the social interactions of social actors rather than on the dependencies between variables. Equally important is that this concept is associated with generative mechanisms as viewed in realist view of causation (Kaidesoja, 2016). In this view causal relations are analysed through causal powers, capacities and tendencies of entities and structures (Bhaskar, 1979; Sayer, 1984; Kaidesoja, 2016).

The first two base their casual analysis on the traditional use of statistical methods and models. In this regard, these conceptual views will not be suited for this study. However, this study is not looking for regularities in the data set, but rather explanation based on understanding the social meaning of the phenomena. This study focused on causal mechanisms, which in the study was based on the third variant, as “interaction structures of generative social processes” (Kaidesoja, 2016).

3.8. Explanation in the Two Theoretical Frameworks

Historically and in many traditions, the concept of explanation was considered to revolve around the idea of universal laws. However, in recent years, the approach has been tilting towards “mechanisms that causally generate the phenomena of interest to the scientist” (Mingers, 2011). As already indicated above, in the course of this, the two philosophical traditions of complexity theory and realist social theory have become popular. Both are based on an idea of complex social systems where a variety of components interact with each other to create a mechanism that then display changed behavioural and / or emergent properties. From strategy and policy, the argument is that what makes these two to sink is what makes ships sink in the iceberg metaphor (Haine, 2007; Jakulin, 2016).

The core idea of the critical realist paradigm intersects with systemic traditions. Its core thought is that of generative causality through causal structures or mechanisms which have powers or tendencies to behaviour in particular manners and the actual and empirical events, which are considered to be as a result of the interactions and interplay of these structures and mechanisms (Mingers, 2011). At the core of system complexity is the display of emergent behaviour because processes provide the system with novelty and are responsible for transformation in order and complexity. In the complexity worldview, the phenomena are considered to be part of an entangled fabric of relations, such that the

whole is more than the sum of interconnected parts. This is in tandem with critical realist philosophical assumptions.

As for the realist social theory, the connection with realist traditions is apparent. Entities, powers and mechanisms can be explained from the application of critical realism in realist social theory conjectures. As indicated above, since the central theme of the study is causation of change and the explanation of what is producing the change, it therefore follows that the interest is not on the regularities or patterns of events in the domains but rather on the structures and mechanisms. Putting it another way (in the language of Bhaskarian critical realism), the study is about the domains of the real and not the actual or empirical (Bhaskar, 2008; Edwards *et al.*, 2014). The theory of explanation seeks to make sense of explanation and answer the question of “what constitutes explanation” which according to Ylikoski (2011) this leads to the question of explanatory relevance. Relevance could be taken as either “informal starting point for discussion or as a basis for building theories of explanation” (Hempel, 1965; Van Fraassen, 1980; Ylikoski, 2011). The approach of this study to explanation is the latter (which is also called erotetic explanation) and is taken broadly to also capture the notion of understanding. This approach from the two standpoints could be said to complete the goal of explanation because it also includes knowledge about dependencies governing the phenomena (Ylikoski, 2011). In essence this dual approach makes the goal to be that of understanding the dependencies, with a broader view of explanation.

3.9. Chapter Conclusion

This chapter looked at the main theoretical underpinnings of the study. The approach to description and explanation of causality is from the mechanism of emergence theoretical view. Emergentism is invoked by two philosophical traditions of complexity theory and social realist theory. The next chapter is the methodology chapter that details how the research was conducted to answer the research questions and objectives within the view of the above theoretical frameworks.

CHAPTER FOUR - METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

This chapter outlines the methodology and methods used in the study. In this chapter, the philosophical and methodological fundamentals for the study are discussed and developed by outlining alternative research approaches and strategies and justifying the choices made. The development of the research instruments and the data analysis process are also part of this chapter, as well as a discussion of specific quality criteria. This chapter justifies the philosophical approach and the tools of critical realism, system complexity theory and realist social theory in the inquiry, analysis and interpretation. The use of functional pragmatism philosophy for the development of frameworks is also explained and justified. This chapter contextualises and justifies the methodological approach used, including: (a) the design of the study as a qualitatively driven case study and as approached from two competing theories, namely complexity theory and social realist theory; (b) use of common ontological paradigm of critical realism (CR) , and the departure to some extent at epistemological views unique to each theoretical framework; (c) the DMO frameworks and models based on the philosophy of pragmatism; (d) analysis use of grounded theory, which within a critical realist research framework can be used as a methodological theory for analysing problems in complex systems in a rather holistic manner (Bergene, 2007); and (e) the use of the other analysis approach of thematic content analysis.

A synopsis of the whole methodological approach that is discussed in the chapter is as shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Methodology Synopsis

1.	Theoretical frameworks	Complexity Theory and Social Realist Theory as competing theories for emergentism
2.	Research Philosophies (mixed epistemology, with CR as the dominant epistemology)	(a) Critical Realism; (b) complexity philosophy; and (c) Functional Pragmatism
3.	Type	Qualitatively driven research
4.	Logics	(a) Abduction; (b) Retroduction; and (c) Pragmatism
5.	Approach	Abduction explanatory
6.	Strategy	Single Case Study done in three sites
7.	Choice	Multi-method
8.	Time Horizon	Cross Sectional
9.	Sampling	Theoretical Purposeful Sampling
10.	Data Techniques	(a) In-depth semi structured interviews; (b) Document review and unobtrusive data within industry
11.	Analysis theoretical framework	Grounded theory
12.	Data Analysis Approaches	(a) Grounded theory; and (b) Thematic analysis
13.	Data Analysis Tools	(a) Complexity theoretical assumptions: (i) Causal Loops Diagrams; (ii) Policy Structure Boundary; and (b) Critical realism theoretical assumptions: (various critical realism tools

4.2. Main Research Philosophical Foundation - Critical Realist (CR) Philosophy

To achieve its purpose, this study was anchored on a mixed epistemological view of critical realism and complexity philosophical traditions. The scientificity of this approach was viewed from characteristics of critical realism philosophy and the abductive reasoning (which is discussed later in the chapter). CR provided analytical toolbox for understanding and scrutinising the mechanisms, structures and driving forces embedded in social contexts that led to the phenomena under investigation. Since the study was also interested in the plausibility of ahistorical or anachronistic factors, a mix with complexity epistemology was found useful for such ahistorical realities. This philosophical approach

allowed for scrutiny of the ontological entities and combined scientific realism and epistemological relativism in the study (Yan and Hyman, 2018). This approach was found suitable in the current study because of the following:

- (a) At the core of critical realism philosophical tradition is the idea of explanatory mechanisms, and as a paradigm it also bridges the methodological gap in sociological studies of complex systems. CR is now acknowledged in social science studies as a viable philosophical paradigm for holistic investigation of complex systems as in the current phenomena of destinations and the DMO (Mingers, 2011; Wynn and Williams, 2012);
- (b) In addition to the above methodological congruency with the complex social system investigations, CR supports interpretive approaches for acquiring knowledge by highlighting “contextual effects, relations among participants and meanings” (Yan and Hyman, 2018). In this study as highlighted in the preceding chapters, context and relationships were considered important.
- (c) Social realism relies on pursuit of historical understanding of research objects by observers and “pluralist methods for approximating historical truth” (Yan and Hyman, 2018). CR embraces this “ontological historical reality (what actually occurred) and epistemological historical interpretation (tracing historical events or changes within a context or social tableau)” (Yan and Hyman, 2018; Ankersmit, 2012; Schiffman, 2011).
- (d) Because the phenomena under investigation is subject to change, CR allows for testing of social reality by connection of epistemological relativism and ontological realism through judgmental rationalism (i.e., identifying the best among alternative explanations) (Yan and Hyman, 2018). A CR philosophical view maintains a realist ontology, epistemological relativity and judgmental rationality. It seeks to understand the world from the view that the world is separate from the world itself but we as humans may undertake the process of discovery and are able to learn about it though not all attempts will be equally valid (Bhaskar, 1975). These were considered important and sat at the core of the study.

Within the above views, explanation has two possible tasks, depending on the problem situation under consideration. First, if the starting point is a known pattern of events, then explanation serves to “explain the occurrence of particular events in terms of conjectures of the causal properties of various interacting mechanisms – i.e., to retroduce the effective mechanism” (Porpora, 1998; Carter and New, 2004). As shall be discussed in detail later, retroduction according to realist tradition is a form of inference which is characteristically, a “move from knowledge of some phenomenon existing at any level of reality, to knowledge of mechanism, at a deeper level or stratum of reality, which contributed to the generation of the original phenomenon of interest” (Lawson, 1997; Carter and New, 2004). On the other hand, if the starting point is an already made out causal property of the structured constituent of the social world, such as a social practice or a set of rules, then explanation serves to “explain these powers in terms of the internal structure of the thing in question” (Carter and New, 2004).

In the current study, the scenario was somewhat different from the above. Theory has not fully identified a known pattern of events and the subject at hand remained ambivalent in several scholarly works (Reinhold, Laesser and Beritelli, 2015; Pike, 2016). Therefore, a broad view that started with exploration and included a technical description of the pattern of events, and then moving from this standpoint to explanation of the plausible properties of the interactions of the mechanisms was preferred. This study was approached from exploratory at the beginning and had a broad-based starting point, which moved towards theory generation.

4.2.1. Ontology and Mixed Epistemology of Critical Realism and System Complexity

The core idea of the critical realist paradigm is that of generative causality through causal structures or mechanisms which have powers or tendencies to behaviour in particular manners and the actual and empirical events seen are considered to be as a result of the interactions and interplay of these structures and mechanisms (Mingers, 2011). This is the intersection of critical realism and systemic traditions. These were considered as being at the core of the current study.

Literary discussions have argued that the discussions around the role of the DMO in studies must move away from mid-level social theorisations to a meta theory level (Dredge, 2016), and CR offers this paradigmatic platform. This departure is in comparison to the hitherto meta theoretical orthodoxies of positivism and social constructionism (Hoddy, 2018). CR combines a realist ontology and interpretive epistemology (Bygstad, *et al.*, 2016; Hoddy, 2018). As already indicated, the CR view maintains the positivist idea of the world viewed as real in existing independent of our perceptions and beliefs, and at the same time an interpretivist view that our understanding of this world is socially constructed (Hoddy, 2018). The novelty of CR's ontological approach is fronting realist as structured, differentiated and changing (Hoddy, 2015; Bhaskar *et al.*, 2018) and approaching the notion of causation from the view of generative mechanisms. This makes it distinct from earlier successionist approach to causation in open systems which considered it as a matter of regularities between empirical events as cause-and-effect (Hoddy, 2015).

At the core of system complexity is the display of emergent behaviour because processes provide the system with novelty, and are responsible for transformation in both order and complexity. In the complexity worldview, the phenomena are considered to be part of an entangled fabric of relations, such that the whole is more than the sum of interconnected parts. This is in tandem with the broad CR philosophical assumptions although the theoretical and conceptual views of causality are somewhat different, as highlighted in the previous chapter.

4.2.2. Ontologies - Critical Realism and Complexity

Critical realism (CR) and complexity science share common ontological foundations that were considered important in responding to the research questions of the current study. The fundamental ontological assumptions in CR that are also common in systemic complexity thinking and relevant in the current study are as set hereunder.

4.2.2.1. Open System Perspective

The current problem situation of the DMO and tourism destination systems are considered as open systems that exhibit both complexity and emergence behaviour. In critical realism reality is viewed from the perspective of an open system where boundaries are considered to be typically fluid and permeable (Bhaskar, 1998). This is unlike in a closed system where external influences and contextual conditions could be controlled for investigations or replicated investigations to ensure a common environment for the phenomenon. In open systems, such as social or complex systems, each event is dependent on continuously changing contextual conditions, evolving properties of components within the structure and powers endogenous to the system (Wynn and William, 2012).

In the current study, tourism destinations were viewed from the social complexity view, characterized, by among others, as open social systems where causation is more “plausibly treated as based on causal powers or liabilities (susceptibilities) possessed by objects, whose existence and exercise are not dependent on regularities among events” (Fleetwood and Ackroyd, 2004). Unlike in closed systems, the focus of study in open destination systems is identifying mechanisms and their tendency to act in a certain manner within a specific contextual environment at a specified time (Sayer, 1992; Wynn and William, 2012). Hence in the current study, the intention was not to display regularities but rather look at underlying the explanation of changes taking place in the expected role of the DMO and other components, and generally in the organisation of destination system.

In the empirical, events or patterns, it is acknowledged in literature that in recent years the expected role of the DMO and the other components within destination systems, and their respective nature of leadership have been shifting and are still considered to be evolving. Additionally, it is also acknowledged that there are still open questions regarding its contemporary and future definition of role, to the extent of threatening the purpose and legitimacy of the DMO in the destination system in the face of escalating developments putting the *raison-d'être* of the traditional DMO and its traditionally held theory into question (Pollock, 2010; Morrison, 2012; Wang and Pizam, 2011; Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Dredge, 2016; Pike, 2016).

4.2.2.2. Independent Reality

CR as a form of realism acknowledges reality as existing “out there”, independent of human knowledge or our ability to perceive that reality and that independence is not dependent on any knowledge or subjective belief regarding the existing of reality (Bhaskar, 1975). Consequently, CR posits that the world is not easily reduced to our perceptions and experiences (Wynn and William, 2012).

The implication of the above is that in studies, investigation of reality is concerned with two dimensions and sets, both sitting at the core of CR, namely (a) intransitive; and (b) transitive realities. Entities that comprise the world, independent of humans and their ability to understand or perceive them are said to be in the intransitive dimension; while our knowledge of these entities as generated by reason and scientific research are part of the transitive dimension. Transitive dimension is subject to constant revision and re-interpretation. In this regard, CR holds that our beliefs, theories and concepts about entities that constitute reality to be ontologically real though constantly subject to revision or re-interpretation and distinct from entities themselves (Wynn and William, 2012).

4.2.2.3. Stratified Ontology

According to CR traditions, reality is stratified into three domains, namely (a) domain of the real; (b) domain of the actual; and (c) domain of the empirical. This could be compared to the complexity view of the ‘sinking ship’ metaphor, where some levels reality is hidden, and could only be unearthed through a rigorous inquiry.

The stratified ontology of reality fundamentally differs with the ontological assumptions of both the positivists and interpretivists. In positivism, it is assumed that reality can be reduced to cause-and-effect with little regard for the mechanisms that link the two (Humean conjuncture). Interpretivists typically assume reality that is constructed either individually or socially (Walsham, 1995; Wynn and William, 2012) and is understood through analysis of actors’ meanings and actions.

In contrast to the above, CR views existence of elements of independent reality, such as structures and mechanisms, but our knowledge of this reality is limited due to difficulties of accessing them directly through the levels of stratification (Wynn and William, 2012). CR seeks to use inference to analyse what the world would be like in terms of structures and mechanisms if it were real for some accepted outcome to have occurred (Mingers, 2004; Wynn and William, 2012). In this regard, CR accepts socially constructed view of reality of given actor or actors and these maybe incorporated with intransitive domain of an independent reality (Wynn and William, 2012). This has implications of the epistemological and consequently methodological approaches in designing studies as shall be elaborated later in the chapter.

4.2.2.4. Emergence

CR ontology posits that entities are independent and irreducible to the components which comprise them (Archer, 1995; Wynn and William, 2012) and argue for synergistic characteristics of the patterns arising from properties, capabilities and powers of entities and structures. According to CR ontology, the properties of structures emerge from interactions between the structures and their causal powers (Wynn and William, 2012). The implication of this in studies are twofold; (a) explanation of social realities is dependent on a technical account of how properties and causal powers causally intertwine (Archer, 1995); and (b) combining this view with Archer's Morphogenetic model, mechanisms could also be assumed to be identified as emerging from "structural components at lower levels than the focus of analysis" (Archer, 1995). In this regard, there is "need to maintain clarity in specifying the structure and the connectedness of elements within and between levels" (Easton, 2010; Wynn and William, 2012). Similarly, the hallmark of complexity theory is the doctrine of emergence, which acknowledges emergent behaviour of a system and its components although the assumptions of how this happens differ as indicated in the previous chapter.

4.2.3. Epistemology - Critical Realism and Complexity

Epistemologically, CR description of reality is based on analysing the experiences observed and interpreted by the participants together with other forms of data. Knowledge

claims are focused on “specifying and describing” elements of reality “which must exist in order for the events and experiences under examination to have occurred” (Wynn and William, 2012). The epistemological assumptions of the above that made it suitable in the current study are as below.

4.2.3.1. Mediated Knowledge

In CR knowledge is considered to be both transitive and intransitive (Bhaskar, 1995). Intransitive dimension of knowledge is about the elements we seek to explain and are independent of our senses and experiences. On the other hand, the transitive dimension comprises, among others, the researcher’s observation and theories about the independent world that are as a result of scientific inquiry (Collier, 1994; Wynn and William, 2012). However, CR also acknowledges that theory and reality may not match perfectly.

In studies, CR knowledge is value aware and theoretically informed, “derived from multiple value-aware perceptions of single independent reality” (Healy and Perry, 2000), and the “knowledge of underlying structures and mechanisms is not created *ex nihilo* but formed in conjunction with existing social interactions and beliefs along with our own sensory and conceptual interpretations” (Wynn and William, 2012).

4.2.3.2. Explanation and less or nil Prediction

The current study is focused on explanation rather than prediction. CR is ideal for such a study. CR study, such as in the current one, is about explanation of the mechanisms that generate a certain event to understand the social or cultural meanings behind the events and possibly or minimally prediction about the future event (Wynn and William, 2012).

4.2.3.3. Unobservability of Mechanisms

In the study, the focus was on the manifestation of the effects of interactions of structure and causal mechanisms. While CR recognises mechanisms, the limit is that these mechanisms are in most cases not directly observable or measurable. In this regard, our knowledge of reality in CR views is not always based on what can be perceived but rather on ability to do (Bhaskar, 1998). Therefore, existence of a mechanism is based on two

possibilities, ability to directly observe it or ability to observe the effects (Wynn and William, 2012).

4.2.3.4. Multiple Explanation Possibilities

In view of recognising permeability of systems under CR ontology, it is possible for multiple sets of mechanisms to have produced the observable outcome. Tourism destination systems and their components are open to influence from both exogenous and endogenous factors and their effects. In addition, the effect of these influences may vary depending on the context and time periods. Therefore, it is impossible to precisely identify the exact cause responsible for a specified outcome and also to eliminate other factors that may also equally have causal powers (Wynn and William, 2012). According to Bhaskar (1993), it is therefore important to take care in identifying the effects of hypothesized mechanisms and eliminating “what will always constitute a plurality of possible causes in open system.

4.2.4. Systemic Epistemology

In addition to the above, complex systems epistemology enjoys additional features and is now recognised as one that seeks to derive knowledge from a strategic vantage point and view causality from various and possibly conflicting perspectives (Houghton, 2009; Haynes, 2001). Epistemologically, complexity view is predicated on the following principles: Variegation; Perspectivalism; and Pluralism and Synthesis. The epistemology of systems concept originated from various philosophical traditions, and consequently some writers consider it as an epistemological framework on its own (Houghton, 2009). The concepts that distinguish it and are important throughout the research process.

4.2.4.1. Variegation

Systemic epistemology relies on the concept of variegation. This concept denotes changing appearance of the same reality by looking through different perspectives. Systemic epistemology recognises possible conflicting versions of social events as pluralist and interconnected (Houghton, 2009). It follows that in studies based on the systemic complexity epistemology, there is need to recognise conflicting realities as

pluralist and their interconnectedness. Therefore, the best way to understand the interactions is by applying different lenses simultaneously and accepting at times conflicting and unrelated points of view (Mitroff, 2004; Houghton, 2009).

4.2.4.2. Pluralism

Systems epistemology acknowledges open systems and multiple interactions of components and realities that make it impossible to understand by breaking parts into analytical units. This leaves synthesis as the most plausible approach in order to take the multiple inputs, compare and contrast in a complex way. Systemic epistemology is a form of pluralism on its own that is open to use of a combination of methods or methodologies in a research setting (Houghton, 2009).

4.2.4.3. Perspectivalism and Perspective Shifting

Systems view epistemologically seeks to draw knowledge from a strategic vantage point and sense-making from various and maybe even conflicting perspectives (Haynes, 2001; Houghton, 2009). A systems study is viewed from different accounts, various view-points and competing descriptions of reality (Grint, 2003; Houghton, 2009).

4.2.5. Functional Pragmatism - Approach to Research Question Four

In this study, research question four was approached from functional pragmatism epistemology. This is as opposed to referential and methodological pragmatism. Referential pragmatism has notion of problem solving through process theories used as models, such as participatory action research. Methodological pragmatism develops knowledge to solve a problem and relies on corporate knowledge. On the other hand, functional pragmatism is used in applied research by using generated evidence in a study to improve the system and / or maintain order in a system if that is what is desirable (Rorty, 1999; Feilzer, 2010). This was the cornerstone of the study (research question four).

Pragmatism as a philosophical view is concerned with “action and change and the interplay between knowledge and action” (Goldkuhl, 2012). This philosophical view is therefore appropriate for research seeking intervention in a contemporary situation. In this study, pragmatism was used for the development of the framework, as in research question four. The causally technical account in the study was intended to provide frameworks for

designing DMO business models and the organisation of destination system in general. To achieve this research goal, at this stage the study was approached from functional pragmatism perspective.

Pragmatism as an alternative paradigm focusses on solving practical problems in the real world without mental and practical constraints imposed by choice of either positivism or constructivism. Philosophically, pragmatism accepts possibilities of singular and multiple realities that are open to inquiry and focuses on practical problem solving (Creswell and Clark, 2007). Pragmatists' view of reality is that of layers of "completeness, order, recurrences which make possible prediction and control, and singularities, ambiguities, uncertain possibilities, processes going on to consequence as yet indeterminate" (Dewey, 1925 in Kadlec, 2006). The key notion of pragmatism tradition is 'utility'. Pragmatists argue that research should be not just aim at accurate representation of reality by providing an account of how things are but rather be useful by aiming for utility (Rorty, 1999; Feilzer, 2010).

4.2.6. Logics - Abduction and Retroduction

The logics of inquiry were abduction and retroduction as the main philosophical assumptions. Abduction re-describes the observable phenomena in a more general and abstracted manner for the purposes of describing the sequence of causation giving rise to the observed regularities in the pattern of events (Edwards *et al.*, 2014). Once mechanisms were successfully explained, then theory and data were "consistently and effectively fitted together in such a way as to render the nature of mechanism clearer" (Edwards *et al.*, 2014). The retroduction logic ascertained what the broader context or world would be like in order for the observed mechanisms to be "as they are and not otherwise" (Edwards *et al.*, 2014). This involves creatively asking 'what if' in order to provide the "possible explanatory mechanisms or structures, given a disjunctive plurality of alternatives, elimination of competing alternatives and identification of the causally efficacious generative mechanisms or structure" (Edwards *et al.*, 2014).

In terms of process, broadly the study followed the four-stage schema of description, retroduction, elimination, identification and correction (DREIC), using the above logics, as shown in Figure 4.1.

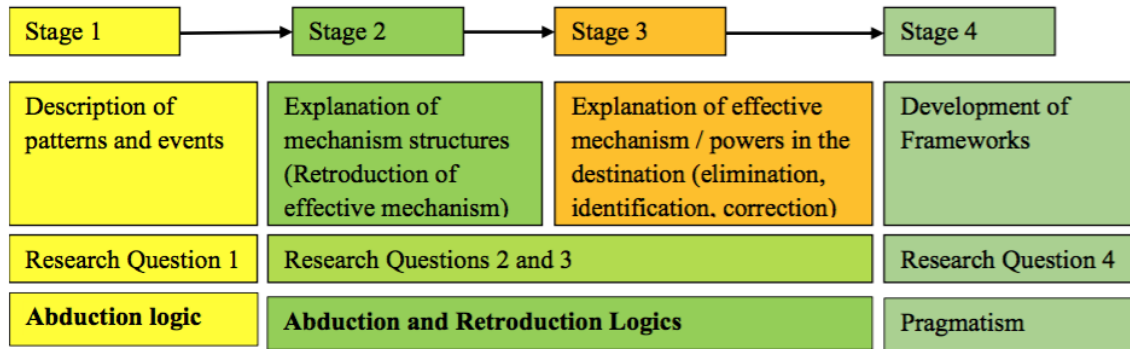


Figure 4.1: Research Questions and Logics Flow.

4.3. Methods

The focal interest of the study was mechanisms and structures operating in the context of Zambia, and the study followed a case study method in three spatial tourism sites found in the southern tourism circuit of Zambia, namely: (a) Livingstone and Mosi-O-Tunya National Park area; (b) Lusaka, Lower Zambezi National Park and Siavonga area; (c) Kafue Ecosystem tourism area. The phenomena was approached from both an empirical and theoretical views. Empirically, archival data from secondary sources was triangulated with primary data obtained from in-depth interviews with tourism industry stakeholders. Theoretically, the approach was to conduct an in-depth critical realist analysis to reveal the underlying forces shaping the destination system phenomena being investigated. Sampling was by purposeful theoretical sampling. Each of these elements of methods are outlined as below.

4.3.1. Case Study Design - Single Case Study Design

This study was designed as a single case study, done in three tourism spatial areas. This preference was decided from the goal of the methodology of the study, which was “abductive explanatory” as opposed to “exploratory inductive methods” (Avenier and Thomas, 2015). Single case studies in CR are mainly preferred for the purposes of theory building as compared to multiple cases studies that turnout to be beneficial towards their use in theory refinement. For example, comparative case studies could use exploratory inductive to enrich the existing view of generative mechanisms and the manners they are activated through a comparative analysis of different contextual conditions. In this usage,

a comparative case study enlightens the specific contingent conditions under which the postulated generative mechanisms combine and operate (Eisenhardt, 1989; Tsoukas, 1989; Avenier and Thomas, 2015).

The current study was “abductive explanatory”. It sought to build theory and started from the premise of not having any empirical theory available to ‘refine’ in the phenomena being considered. In this regard, the single case design was preferred. The three spatial sites assisted in data triangulation and also ensured inclusion of all the key targeted stakeholders in the industry.

The three sites chosen are found in the southern tourism circuit, namely (a) Livingstone; (b) Kafue Ecosystem; and (c) Lusaka, Siavonga and Lower Zambezi tourism area (Map 4.1.). Zambia’s tourism product is segmented closely with the geographical spatial areas, and each of these offers a unique product offering and stakeholder constitution in the destination. The southern circuit offered the advantage of being the most developed tourism area and having operators and entities of the most key stakeholders in the tourism industry. Due to the importance of historicity in the study, the southern circuit offered the most participants in who have been long in the tourism industry in Zambia. In addition, the selected sites offered the advantage of providing a variety of informant views and comparisons in the construction of theory under the grounded theory approach.

Broadly, Zambia is divided into two main tourism circuits, the southern and northern circuits. The northern circuit is a tourism growth area that include the Bangweulu wetlands; Northern Lakes and Waterfall Tourism Circuit - linking Samfya, National Parks, lakes and Kasaba Bay; and the Bangweulu Adventure and Heritage Tourism Circuit - linking Lavushi-Manda National Park, Kasanka National Park, Bangweulu GMA and surrounding heritage sites. This circuit is in remote and undeveloped region of the country, far from source markets, with limited air access and poor road access.

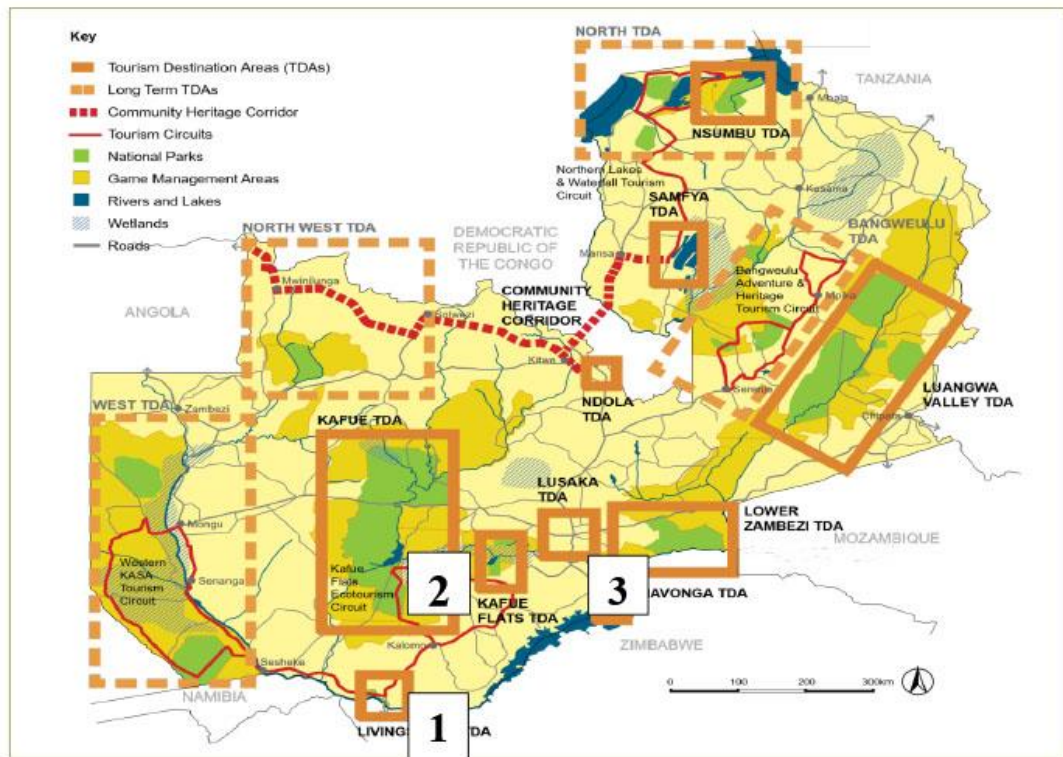
On the other hand, the southern circuit is the more developed and has older destinations, including: the Kafue Flats Ecotourism Circuit - linking Livingstone, Kafue National Park and Lochnivar National Park; Lusaka area; and the Lower Zambezi National Park /

Siavonga circuit. Both Livingstone and the Kafue Ecosystem fall in the greater Livingstone tourism area, and are part of the Kavango-Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area (KAZA TFCA).

Livingstone is the tourist capital of Zambia, and has some of the major tourism assets and products. It is home to the Victoria Falls and is part of the Kavango-Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area (KAZA), which comprises of joint conservation areas in Zambia, Zimbabwe, Botswana, Namibia and Angola. Livingstone is also one of the oldest destinations with developed tourism products that include adventure activities and seasoned tourism industry operators in Zambia. Livingstone is the primary entry point for international leisure tourism visitors to Zambia and is a significant tourism destination due to its immediate proximity to the Victoria Falls, one of the world's largest waterfalls and most well-known natural wonders.

The Kafue ecosystem tourism area has the largest national park in Zambia, the Kafue National Park. Like Livingstone, it has developed products and variety of stakeholders that include tour operators, safari accommodation facilities and a host of non-government actors active in conservation.

The combination of Lusaka, Siavonga and Lower Zambezi National Park offers a somewhat different product line to Kafue National Park and Livingstone. Lusaka is the national headquarters for government and a number of quasi-government organisations in the tourism sector. Additionally, it is promoted as a meetings, incentive, events and conferencing (MICE) destination just like Siavonga. Lower Zambezi National Park is a safari destination with a number of international brands of tourism products.



Map 4.1: Three Case Study Sites (1) Livingstone Tourism Area; (2) Kafue Tourism Area; and (3) Lusaka, Siavonga and Lower Zambezi Tourism Areas (Map Source: Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038).

In seeking to develop a technical account in the current study, both theoretical frameworks of social realist and complexity theory were fundamentally taken from a case study approach. Case study research is suited for complex phenomenon, especially those focused on the ‘why’ and ‘how’ research questions. This study was anchored around the ‘why’ question, which is explanatory in nature and then moved to a ‘how’ question. According to Yin (2009), ‘distinctive need for case studies arises out of the desire to understand complex social phenomena’. Second, case studies are also useful as methods for theory generation which (Eisenhardt, 1989) describe as “highly iterative and tightly linked to data”.

The cornerstone of CR as a scientific research method is to “develop explanations of the way things act and how they are capable of doing so” (Wynn and William, 2012). This is similar to systemic view. Bhaskar (1995) did not specifically recommend methodical

approaches, most recent critical realist researchers have adopted case study method as an ideal approach in explanation.

Characteristically, a case study research is an “empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (Yin, 2003). Second, case study involves “investigating one or a small number of social entities or situations about which data are collected using multiple sources of data” (Easton, 2010). Thirdly, case study research focuses on “sustained consideration of activities and behaviour in a particular location” (Ackroyd, 2010) and “there will be many variables of interest than data points, and relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion” (Yin, 2003).

The research case steps followed the guide of Wynn and Williams (2012) for critical realism case studies research structure, as in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Critical Realist Case Study Research Steps

Step	Logic	Main Research Task
Step 1: Explication of events	Abduction	To identify the key events of the case, building on experience and abstraction. These events denote the outcomes the study seeks to explain.
Step 2: Explication of structure and context	Abduction	(a) To identify the human, social and physical entities of the case (destination system) and relationships between them. (b) Identification and description of emergent properties, if any.
Step 3: Retroduction	Retroduction	To identify the mechanisms (powers and tendencies) that explain the outcomes. The analysis should be logical and analytical support for the existence of the proposed mechanisms linking the structure to events.

Table 4.2: Critical Realist Case Study Research Steps continued

Step	Logic	Main Research Task
Step 4: Empirical corroboration	Retroduction and pragmatism	To ensure that proposed mechanisms have causal power and that they have better explanatory power than alternatives (Assessing the explanatory power of each proposed mechanism with the empirical evidence).
Step 5: Triangulation and multiple methods	Social Realist and complexity logics	Using a variety of approaches to identify causal relationships, and build on different sources and data types in order to explore the diversity of underlying structures and to control for bias.

Source: Wynn and Williams, 2012; Bygstad, 2015

4.3.2. Qualitative Case Study Design

This study was designed as a qualitative case study. A precise definition of qualitative research remains difficult, but it can generally be taken from the view of Denzin and Lincoln (2000), who define it as “a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that makes the world visible” and involves “an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of meanings people assign to them”. In this regard, qualitative research methods are suited for research questions that require explanation and understanding of social phenomena and their contexts (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). This was the interest of the current study.

Qualitative methods reliant on the CR tradition was preferred in the study for the following arguments:

- (a) **Importance of stakeholder perspectives:** In the study, the perspectives of the various tourism industry stakeholders and the penetration of their frames of meaning in the phenomena was considered important.
- (b) **Holistic Perspective:** The study was based on the philosophical view of CR and complexity, which are both based on holistic perspectives of phenomena. Qualitative research offers this holistic view and also explanation of contexts (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003).

- (c) **Theorising CR hallmark:** One of the cornerstones of CR as a philosophical view is theorising. There was plausibility of identifying emergent categories and theories from data as opposed to imposing a priori categories and ideas. This made the personal insight of researcher to be important as possible through qualitative methods.
- (d) **Real world naturalistic:** The study was a naturalistic real-world inquiry, devoid of a manipulated or an experimental setting (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003).

4.3.3. Multimethod Choice

The choice for this study was multimethod. In the current study the actual policy, practice and research outcomes must be as far as possible be bridged. For reasons already highlighted in preceding paragraphs, CR offers the best alternative. In this study, the view was to start from an exploratory stance. Additionally, as alluded to in preceding chapters, this study was premised on complex social questions. This can be offered by multimethod and a CR paradigm.

However, it should be noted that both mixed method and multimethod have suffered “identity crises’ or divergent views, which according to Anguera et al (2018), are to the extent that some scholars view the two as synonymous and others make strong distinctions. Historically, multimethod came earlier than the mixed-methods movement that only became prominent over the last 30 years or so (Tashakkori and Teddie, 1998; 2003; Creswell, 2015). In this study the distinction was made based on the idea of Mark (2015), who distinguished the two as follows: “Mixed methods is generally used to refer to the combining of qualitative and quantitative methods in a single study or linked series of studies” and “multimethod refers more broadly to the combining of two or more methods, with no suggestion that both qualitative and quantitative methods are involved”. Philosophically, CR offers a foundational and consistent unified view for methods and theories in business and management studies (Syed *et al.*, 2009). According to scholars, until recently, business and management studies have tended to focus on “producing work that is too abstract, jargon-filled and theoretical to interest practitioners (Skapinker, 2008; Syed *et al.*, 2009). Closing the gap between research and practice has been a challenge (Syed *et al.*, 2009). This has been partly attributed to the structure of dominant business

and management schools that have hitherto been structured along relatively rigid disciplinary lines (Knights and Willmott, 1997; Syed *et al.*, 2009). In tourism, the issue of academia-practice divide has been a subject of concern in several recent scholarly discussions. Despite its rising economic and scholarly importance, there still appears questions on the relevancy of academic discourses to policy and practice in tourism (Pechlaner and Volgger, 2015). Therefore, research philosophy and choice that give a unified method view and make outcomes relevant to policy and industry are important in this study. Hence the choice of multimethod used in a CR paradigm in the current study. In recent years it has been acknowledged in academia that the complexity of real-world problems requires some degree of interdisciplinary and different research methods (Tashakkori and Teddie, 2003) or indeed multi-methodology (Mingers and Gills, 1997). In the case of multimethod, the limitation of the battle of paradigm incommensurability as suggested by Mingers (2004) can also be resolved through combining methods and theories offered by CR. Predominant reliance on positivism or interpretivism may just serve to contribute to research-practice inconsistencies, and this is could be avoided by reconsidering the underlying ontological premise of research and practice (Syed *et al.*, 2009).

4.3.3. Sampling - Theoretical Sampling, Sampling Frame and Sample Size

The sample for the study was selected by non-random technique of purposeful or purposive theoretical sampling of the knowledgeable informants in the tourism industry in Zambia. They had targeted a total of thirty (25) to thirty-five (35) informants for all the three case study sites. However, the actual number of respondents achieved was thirty (30).

The goal in sample selection was to target informants with in-depth knowledge and history of not less than ten years in the tourism industry in Zambia. This was to be adjusted, depending on the point of theoretical saturation, as the study followed grounded theory approach.

Theoretical sampling is anchored around the idea of theoretical saturation and is a feature that thrives in grounded theory. It involves purposive sampling for further data in the course of constructing theoretical framework to gain deeper understanding of constructs

involved in the phenomena (Hoddy, 2018). The choice of new samples for the researcher could be new sites, new cases, new data sources or collect data at a different time. The current study was designed to be a cross sectional and mono case study, and therefore the choices open were new sites and new data sources. In the end, the study focused on new data sources within the three sites. The idea was to pursue or further data on emerging patterns or concepts within the case and same contextual environment because of the importance of context in both social realist and complexity theory views. As noted above, this study was designed as a mono case study because the focus is more of abductive explanatory and theory building than theory refinement that is better achieved through multiple cases (Avenier and Thomas, 2015).

In general, while the idea of saturation is useful at the conceptual stage, in practice it has little guidance for estimating “sample sizes for robust research prior to data collection” (Guest *et al.* (2006). According to Creswell (1998), the range for a study based on grounded theory is twenty to thirty interviews and five to twenty-five interviews for phenomenological studies. Generally, purposive sampling techniques and the underlying decision-making processes have been rarely explored in literature, and are usually driven by ‘tradition’ and ‘best practice’ (Mason, 2010). Sample size in theoretical sampling based on grounded theory is even harder to predict. The priori sample size of thirty to thirty-five in the current study has been decided based on the various categories of strategic stakeholders in the tourism industry and it falls within the ‘tradition’ as suggested by Creswell (1998). It is likely to change in the course of constructing theory.

The sampling frame was based on the stakeholders drawn from the supply-side of the destination system. Zambia has twelve category of tourism businesses, according to the licensing regime. Tourism business stakeholders were picked from these categories of businesses. However, weight was given to tour operators because of comprising of both wholesalers and retailers in the sector, and they market products in some of the sub destinations within Zambia, such as North and South Luangwa not included in the case study. The businesses as per licensing regime are: (a) accommodation businesses; (b) tour operators; (c) travel agencies; (d) car hire businesses; (e) adventure / activity businesses; (f) restaurant businesses; (g) night club businesses; (h) night club businesses; (i) air

charters; (j) events management businesses; (k) hunting safari operators; (l) convention and conference businesses; and (m) theme parks.

The targeted sample size was as in the Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Sample Size and Targeted Informants

	Informant Organisation / Institution Source	n
1.	Zambia Tourism Agency (ZTA)	01
2.	Department of Tourism (Ministry of Tourism and Arts)	01
3.	Department of National Parks and Wildlife	01
4.	National Heritage and Conservation Commission	01
5.	National Museums Board	01
6.	Ministry of Tourism and Arts (Policy level)	01
7.	Tourism businesses and operators	12
8.	Extra tour operators (3) and accommodation businesses (2)	05
9.	Trade Associations and Operator Associations (Tourism Council of Zambia, Livingstone Tourism Association, Conservation Lower Zambezi, Tour Operator Association of Zambia, Hotel and Catering Association of Zambia and Siavonga Business and Tourism Association)	06
10.	Conservation Organisations (Bird Watch, African Parks, Crane Foundation and ICCF)	04
12.	Tourism Training institutions – Hotel and Tourism Training Institute (HTTI)	01
13.	Others – TNC	01
	Total	35

The actual achieved informants were as follows in Table 4.4. The total number of respondents interviewed were thirty (30) in the three sites, distributed as follows: Livingstone – fourteen (14), Kafue Ecosystem – six (06) and Lusaka – ten (10).

The target and interviewed respondents were those in top management of the respective organisations or institutions. Among private sector and non-government actors, the interviewees were the owners, board members, executive directors or managers of the companies / organisations / institutions. In government and quasi / public entities, it was

the heads of departments and regional directors / managers for the entities. This was to enrich the data collected and since the research questions were at the strategic levels, only staff involved with policy and strategic management of entities were interviewed.

Table 4.4: Actual Informants Interviewed

	Category	Livingstone	Kafue Ecosystem	Lusaka	Total
1.	Tour Operators	04	-	01	05
2.	Accommodation Providers	03	01	02	06
3.	Tourism Industry Association and membership organisations	03	-	-	03
4.	Quasi government entities / institutions (ZTA, Museums Board and National Commission for Conservation)	03	01	03	07
5.	Government (Department of Tourism)	01	-	-	01
6.	Government (Wildlife and National Parks Department)	-	01	01	02
7.	Conservation Organisations (Non-government actors)	-	03	01	04
8.	Others – Funding agency	-	-	01	01
9.	Others – Events Organisation	-	-	01	01
10.	Total	14	06	10	30

4.3.4. Data Collection

4.3.4.1. In-depth (intensive) and Semi structured interviews

Data collection took techniques mainly in the following categories:

(a) Semi structured deep face-to-face interviews; and (b) archival data and documentation review from targeted informants / organisations.

The primary data for the study was collected through detailed interviews with respondents in the three aforementioned sites of Livingstone, Kafue Ecosystem and Lusaka. The review of various documents included strategic plans, reports, websites and various communications available from some of the respondents variously and others other industry documents necessarily from interviewed respondents.

The field interviews were conducted during the months of January and February 2021. However, the desk reviews of documents and general observation notes were made from the design of the study throughout the review of various literature during the research process. Additionally, repeat visits, one to each, were made to Livingstone and Kafue Ecosystem in March 2021 to validate and fill gaps in some of the findings.

The primary data collection technique in this study was a combination of two of the three types of qualitative interviews categorised by Mason (2002) as in-depth, detailed semi structured and loosely structured interviews. These allow for more detailed data and flexibility in unearthing contextual issues as well. However, the current study did not start from a nil position but had theoretical frameworks within which the phenomena was being considered. So, the idea was to guide within the two theoretical frameworks but still allow for emergence of new patterns or ideas. Each of these two interviewing techniques allow for relatively informal style, interactions of exchange, can be used thematically and operate from the premise of knowledge taken to be situated and contextual (Mason, 2002). The interviews used interviewing guidelines and broad open-ended questions for in-depth responses. The semi structured questions and interviewing guides (for loose structured interviews) were formatted to allow for pursuing of related and relevant lines of inquiry that have arisen in the course of the interviews and also modified over the course of data collection to take into account for what become more or less interesting and what the study was seeking to know (Hoddy, 2018). The field face-to-face interviews generally followed the following procedure:

- Introductions (interviewer, purpose of interview, subject of study, procedures to follow, interviewee details);
- Obtaining and signing of consent protocols by interviewees after their full understanding and consent to the interview and the consent protocol;
- Open-ended questions and follow-up to the participants (electronic recorded and written notes);
- Question (from participants) and answer session from the participants;

- Closing and general discussions; tour the facility / product of the participants, with open discussion on the product and tourism industry; and obtaining written documents such as brochures, strategic and annual plan, where available.
- Closing and end of visit and interview.

In-depth interviews were preferred, compared to focus groups, because the focus of inquiry was on the individual actors heard within personal context, history and experiences to abstract complex issues at detailed levels. Focus groups are ideal for inquiries more inclined towards seeking abstract, intangible and conceptual topics, such as attitude, where the group can work together to tackle the subject. For complex systems where detailed understanding and explanation is required, in-depth interviews become more useful (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003).

In addition to the above, the focus of the inquiry under the social critical realist assumptions was the individual actors and as far as possible group dynamics that come with focus groups were to be avoided. The basic conceptualisation of the argument for the development of social actors in a destination system as a basis for data collection and abstraction from social actors (as informants) is as shown in Figure 4.2, and as follows:

- (a) First, society will impinge upon human self to develop primary agents. These agents are the unorganized people yet with common interests.
- (b) Second, primary agents collectively transform (or not) themselves in seeking to transform society to develop corporate agents. Corporate Agents represent organised groups in pursuit of common interests in a destination.
- (c) Thirdly, social reproduction or transformation affects the extant role array in society and develops social actors. These social actors are the role incumbents, such as managers and workers, in different institutions of society (in this case the various stakeholders in the tourism industry) that reflect the practical order of life.



Figure 4.2: Development of Social Actors (Bygstad *et al.*, 2015)

4.3.4.2. Archival Data and Documents

Archival data and various latest documents from the stakeholders were gathered and reviewed. This included strategic plans for the previous ten years of organisations, policy documents and open access documentations. This was important to fill the gaps and cross-validate data obtained from interviews. But most importantly, because of the plausibility of historicity of phenomena and to capture the static, dynamic, holistic social contexts and activities that have shaped the current phenomena under investigation which could also be traced through archival documents. Second, understanding the social contexts and context dependent differences to abduct social objects, related constructs and models that shaped the phenomena from various perspectives.

The documents reviewed were: (a) various government planning and policy documents; (b) strategic and operational plans for the Zambia Tourism Agency (ZTA); (c) strategic and operational plans for the targeted informants' institutions or companies; (d) annual reports of stakeholder institutions; (e) performance audit reports, where available; (f) various documents and promotional materials of stakeholder entities that were available; and (g) websites of stakeholder institutions.

4.3.4.3. Data Collection Venues, Data Capture and Transcription

As indicated above, the interviews were conducted on the premises or offices of the informants by the researcher personally on a cross sectional frame. All the interviews dates and consents were obtained from the informants prior to the actual date of the interviews. The interview appointments and arrangements were made about a month prior to the dates, mostly between December 2021 and January 2022. The interviews were face-to-face in sitting at the convenience of the informants and only in two interviews included walking

around the product premises of the informant. However, the interviews and visits to informants were done within the coronavirus guidelines and regulations imposed by the government. Though interviews were conducted during the Coronavirus era, it was nonetheless important to conduct face-to-face interviews and sit with the respondents to obtain detailed data. This also allowed for understanding of the social phenomena within the setting and deepen the understanding of the phenomena based on the actual experience and within actual experience (Dudwick *et al.*, 2006; Creswell, 2009). Understanding the whole context and the natural setting was extremely important for the study. This made it necessary to conduct face-to-face interviews as opposed to other options, such as telephone and virtual platforms.

Data will be recorded, labelled and stored in form of written notes and where applicable in audio and video formats. The interviews were conducted and data captured in English language. Informants were asked for consent to electronic recording of the interview. The data captured was stored in electronic format and written notes were made during the interviews. Data recorded and transcribed by the researcher in English in a safe and secure storage, only accessible by the supervisors and researchers.

4.3.4.4. Data Coding: Open and Axial Coding

Data coding process in this study took two coding techniques of grounded theory, namely: (a) open coding and (b) axial coding; starting with open coding and later applying an axial coding strategy. These are done with CR (Hoddy, 2018).

The study was not approached from naïve empiricism, but rather open coding technique was used to take into account all possible emerging patterns and theoretical possibilities (Dey, 2006; Hoddy, 2018). Data coding at this stage was in verbatim form and prepared for analysis. In this instant, open coding is coding data in segments and these segments compared to identify similarities and differences (Hoddy, 2018). The three phases at the stage of open coding used were as follows.

- (a) Phase one: Initial coding to produce numerous codes that needed synthesising. At this stage of open coding the codes are tentative and stick to the data before synthesising (Charmaz, 2006).
- (b) Phase two: The second phase involved focused coding fitting data with codes and recoding the transcripts. Codes not fitting data were either modified or omitted. At this stage codes show patterns for crystallising meanings and actions (Charmaz, 2006).
- (c) Third three: This phase involved creating theoretical codes and the series of family coding included causes, contexts, contingencies, covariances and conditions Glaser (1978).

Axial coding as proposed by Strauss and Corbin (1990) enables bringing initial open coding to form the basis of theory. According to Charmaz (2006), axial coding at best “helps clarify and to extend the analytic power of your emerging ideas” and at worst “it casts a technological overlay on data – and perhaps your final analysis”. In this study axial coding was used for both clarifying emerging patterns and eventual analysis of the data.

4.3.5. Data Analysis: Grounded Theory and Thematic Content Analysis

Data analysis in this study was anchored on grounded theory and thematic content analysis. As already indicated, this study was designed on two competing theoretical frameworks, which both have not been discounted and weighted. Also, there was possibilities of unearthing other causal hypotheses in the course of the inquiry. The study started from exploratory to description and explanation. For this reason, the study was found suited to be executed from the grounded theory view.

4.3.5.1. Grounded Theory

Grounded theory as a research framework aims at simultaneously developing theory with collection of data. Grounded theory is traced to Strauss and Corbin (1994) as a response to criticisms against social science research methods. Strauss is considered to have brought the Chicago School of pragmatism, ‘symbolic interactionism’ and filled research to grounded theory as a scientific method and set of procedures for analysing qualitative data and constructing theories from the data. As a framework it is about a rigorous and critical exercise of data collection and analysis, and it requires the researcher to reflect and

compare hypotheses that develop against the opinions of informants to validate evolving realities of theory through data analysis (Di Russo, 2016).

The crux of Strauss and Corbin (1994)'s argument is that hitherto science had been preoccupied with verifying theory rather than creating it. Characteristically, grounded theory is an inductive comparative methodology that uses a systematic guideline for gathering, synthesising, analysing and conceptualising qualitative data to construct theory (Haig, 2010). Grounded theory works harmoniously with both critical realist and complexity frameworks. In the case of critical realism, contemporary researchers, such as Easton (2010) and Kempster and Parry (2011), have promoted grounded theory. In application both CR and complexity theory thrive on the strength of hypothesising, theorising and concept building.

The key steps and process of grounded theory study shown in Figure 4.3.

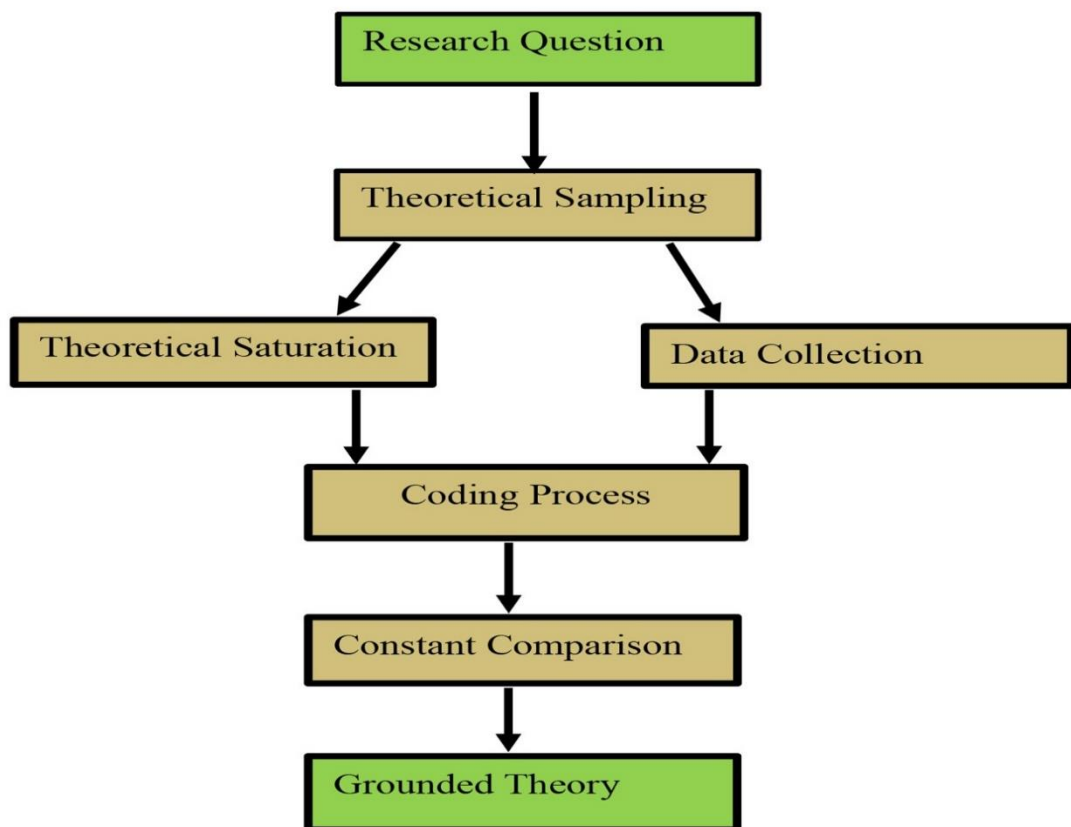


Figure 4.3: Grounded Theory Key Steps (Source: Spinks, 2014).

In general, the above steps are applied as four stages as suggested by Hoddy (2018), summarised as in the Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Grounded Theory Techniques and Theoretical Sampling Stages

Stage	Main task	Sub-Tasks	Grounded theory technique
Stage 1: Description Stage	Describing the situation, drawing on stakeholders' interpretations and reasons	Initial exploration of the literature for identifying (a) existing concepts and arguments; (b) related empirical studies; (c) historical evidence	Literature review in advance of data collection
		Initial exploration of empirical data for identifying (a) tourism stakeholders' understanding of phenomena; (b) possible objects of interest; (c) tentative relationships and connections, concepts and categories.	Theoretical sampling and open coding.
Stage 2: Analytical Resolution	Identifying core components of phenomena	(a) Identifying and specification of demi-regularities in the data; (b) specifying the core components and begin laying out their properties and connections.	Theoretical sampling; early stages of axial coding.
Stage 3: Abduction and Retroduction	Description of the components in terms of theories about relations and structures and suggest mechanism that might be at play	(a) Generate concepts and categories at increasingly higher levels of abstraction and lay out their properties and connections; (b) Confront data with theory, identification of areas of the literature and theoretical knowledge that are significant to emerging data, concepts and categories; (c) Assess the explanatory power of these theories and / or the manner in which theories deal with different dimensions of reality.	Axial coding alongside on-going review of the literature.

Table 4.5: Grounded Theory Techniques and Theoretical Sampling Stages continued

Stage	Main task	Sub-Tasks	Grounded theory technique
Stage 4: Concretization and Contextualisation	Examining the combined effect of abstract components in concrete situation	Confront theory with data, testing against the two competing theories and emerging data.	

Source: Hoddy, 2018

4.3.5.2. Thematic Analysis

Thematic analysis was found ideal in the current study, which was characteristically pluralistic. Thematic analysis aims at identifying themes or patterns in data that are important and / or interesting to the study and then use them to address the research questions. Data analysis is cardinal in the credibility of qualitative research, and therefore thematic analysis is not just about summarizing and organising data but rather includes interpretation and making sense of data (Maguire and Delahunt, 2017).

One of the advantages of thematic analysis is its flexibility because it is not tied to a specific epistemological and / or theoretical view (Braun and Clark, 2006). Thematic analysis works on the basis of identifying themes or patterns in qualitative data. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), themes are potentially at two levels, semantic and latent levels. Semantic themes are defined as “within the explicit or surface meanings of the data and the analyst is not looking for anything beyond what a participant has said or what has been written”, while latent themes are distinguished as identifying or examining “the underlying ideas, assumptions, conceptualisations and ideologies that are theorised as shaping or informing the semantic content of the data”. This study is interested in the latent level. Critical realism as a tradition thrives on, among others, theorising and creation of models or metaphors in its approach and processes. Therefore, the latent level falls within this idea.

Braun and Clarke (2006) have provided a six-phase guide framework for conducting thematic analysis, which is adopted and adapted in this study.

Table 4.6: Thematic Analysis Steps

Step	Core Activities
Step 1: Become familiar with the data	Reading and re-reading the transcripts, making notes and get impressions of data.
Step 2: Generate initial codes	Organise data in meaningful and systematic manner. Code data into chunks of meaning, depending on perspective and research questions. Theoretical thematic analysis is preferred in the current study.
Step 3: Search for themes	Fitting together the codes into broad themes, at this stage in a descriptive way.
Step 4: Review themes	Modifying and developing preliminary themes identified in step 3.
Step 5: Define themes	Final refinement of themes and identification of the essence of each theme and what it says and relationship to the main theme of the study.
Step 6: Write up	Endpoint of analysis into report format.

4.4. Analytical Tools for Conceptualisation and Modelling under Complexity Theory

As already indicated in this and preceding chapter, data analysis was done within the use tools unique to each of the two competing theoretical frameworks. Both critical realism and complexity views thrive on conceptualisation and modelling. The study of phenomena is generally approached from three cyclical phases of describing phenomena, empirical modelling of the phenomena and then identifying the mechanisms at work (Edwards *et al.*, 2014).

The basis of causal explanation in complexity theory is endogenous or ‘rising from within’ explanations of phenomena and the exogenous influences (Sterman, 2000), and structure is important in the course of analysis and modelling. The analytical tools and stages under the complexity theoretical assumptions were (i) model boundary chart; (ii) causal loop diagram; and (iii) policy structure diagrams. Once the themes and grounded theory has been developed, the tools to link causation of themes and theory to the phenomena under the complexity theory arguments in the study will be these three analytical tools and models, which hail from the complex systemic traditions (Sterman, 2002).

(a) Model Boundary Chart

The model boundary chart shows the scope of the model of the phenomena by identifying and summarising the key variables included as arising endogenously and exogenously, and also which are excluded from the model. The model boundary chart is presented as a listing in Table form of key variables, based on the above-mentioned categories of endogenous, exogenous and excluded variable.

The model helps to make clear the boundary and key assumptions so that the users of the constructed frameworks and models in policy do not use them for purposes ill-suited for them (Sterman, 2000). Although model boundary charts have high useability as tools of inquiry, they have been rarely used as such. They have more often been used in advocacy, with high likelihood of weaknesses of hiding some assumptions. In such cases, it undercuts the utility of the models (Sterman, 2000). But in this study, in addition to being other phases of analysis, the other tools were also be used as complimentary to minimize error.

(b) Causal Loop Diagrams (CLD)

In simplified form, causal loop diagrams are a map representation of the causal link among variables with arrows linking from the cause to an effect (Sterman, 2002). Causal loop diagrams are based on the concept of 'feedback structure' in a system, and are useful in the following academic situations:

- (i) Capturing hypotheses about causality;
- (ii) Developing and capturing mental models of individuals or groups; and
- (iii) Communicating feedbacks that the study takes to be responsible for the problem under considerations (Sterman, 2000).

In this study, the CLDs were used in all the three areas.

Causal diagrams consist of variables and links that are assigned a polarity of either positive (+) or negative (-) indicating the relationship of changes between dependent and independent variables, where a positive loop denotes reinforcing feedback and negative loop is a balancing feedback (Sterman, 2000). In this regard, a positive link means if the

cause increases, the effect increases above what it would have otherwise have been, and if the effect decreases the effect is a decrease below what it would otherwise have been. On the other hand, a negative link represents a causal relationship which “if the cause increases, the effect decreases below what it would otherwise have been and if the cause decreases, the effect increases above what it would otherwise have been” (Sterman, 2000). Table 4.7 shows the link polarity.

Table 4.7: Link Polarity

Symbol	Interpretation	Mathematics
$ \begin{array}{ccc} & + & \\ & \curvearrowright & \\ X & & Y \end{array} $	<p>All else equal, if X increases (or decrease as the case maybe), then Y increases (or decreases in case of decrease) above (below) what it would have been.</p> <p>In the case of accumulations, X adds to Y.</p>	$\partial Y / \partial X > 0$ <p>In the case of accumulations,</p> $Y = \int_{t_0}^t (X + \dots) ds + Y_{t_0}$
$ \begin{array}{ccc} & - & \\ & \curvearrowright & \\ X & & Y \end{array} $	<p>All else equal, if X increases (decreases, then Y decreases (increases) below (above) what it would have been.</p> <p>In case of accumulations, X subtracts from Y</p>	$\partial Y / \partial X < 0$ <p>In the case of accumulations,</p> $Y = \int_{t_0}^t (-X + \dots) ds + Y_{t_0}$

Source: Sterman (2000)

It should be noted that:

- (i) Assessing the polarity of individual links assumes all other variables are constant (*ceteris paribus* assumption). However, the actual behaviour of a system variables are considered to interact simultaneously, and therefore all else is not equal (Sterman, 2000).
- (ii) Causal loops do not distinguish the accumulations of phenomena in a system and the rates of change that alter those phenomena (Sterman, 2000).
- (iii) Behaviour of a system displayed through a model “must mimic the structure of the real system well enough that the model behaves the same of the same was the real system would” (Sterman, 2000). In this regard, correlation does not represent the structure of the system under consideration because correlation among variables

indicates past behaviour of a system. In tandem with CR tradition, this means the causal models and diagrams developed ought to only include those relationships the researcher believes capture the underlying causal structure of the system. Correlation among variables, if required can be inferred from the behaviour of the model through simulation (Sterman, 2000).

(c) Policy Structure Diagrams

In the construction of the frameworks considered under pragmatism view, the analytical tool used was the policy structure diagrams. This is a causal diagram that focuses on information inputs to a particular decision rule that assumes decision-makers use to govern its rate of flow in the system. These diagrams depict the causal structure and time delays in decisions as opposed to the feedback structure of the overall system (Sterman, 2000).

4.5. Data Analytical Tools for Conceptualisation and Modelling under Social Realist Theoretical Framework: Affordances Model

In the causal conceptualisation and modelling phase, the analytical tool of the realities under the social realist theoretical framework was the affordances model, suggested by Bygstad *et al.* (2015). The model is applied as below.

4.5.1. Affordances

Social realist analysis of causation in this study focused on identification of causal social mechanisms and their interactions using a data analysis approach based on the concept of ‘affordances’, which originate from evolutionary psychology (Gibson, 1986) and developed for CR analysis by Bygstad *et al.* (2015).

Roy Bhaskar laid the philosophical foundations of critical realism in the 1970s but for much of the intervening period till the early 1990s CR lacked methodological principles (Bhaskar, 1978; Sayer, 1992; Bygstad *et al.*, 2015). This created a challenge for critical realist data analysis, especially identification of causal mechanisms (Bygstad *et al.*, 2015). At the core of critical realist studies is the search for generative mechanisms, which is the “causal structure that explains an empirical outcome” or a “causal structure that explains a phenomenon” (Bhaskar, 1998; Bygstad *et al.*, 2015). As already indicated in the

preceding sections, in open systems such outcomes are not deterministic but probabilistic and contingent on a host of other mechanisms. However, in view of the fact that mechanisms are taken to arise from a reality external to the observer, a degree of generalization in comparable contexts is possible (Bygstad *et al.*, 2015).

The origin of social mechanisms in studies is associated with the work of Merton (1967), who argued for mid-range theorisation focusing on social mechanisms (Bygstad *et al.*, 2015). Later on, Hedstrøm and Swedberg (1996) posited a view that explanation of phenomena is more than correlation between two observed phenomena but rather that “the essential aim of sociological theorising should be to develop fine-grained middle-range theories that clearly explicate the social mechanisms that produce observed relationships between explanans and explanandum” (Hedstrøm and Swedberg, 1996). To achieve this Bygstad *et al.* (2015) fall back on the concept of affordances. This study uses this concept and adopts its framework.

From the background of ecological psychology, Gibson (1986) defined ‘affordances’ as ‘action possibilities’ arising from the interaction between an animal and its environment (Bygstad *et al.*, 2015). However, for useability in CR studies, Bygstad *et al.* (2015) focus on “what an actor would do with the object” and downplays “specific characteristics or features of objects in the environment”. The debate on whether Gibson (1986) attributed affordances to only the environment or used it as a relational term between the animal and the environment remains open (Bygstad *et al.*, 2015). However, in the current study the approach is to apply the concept of affordance as suggested by (Bygstad *et al.*, 2015); namely, to treat the causal explanation of shifting role of the DMO and other components not to be solely based on the specific features of the environment but rather use affordance as a relational between the environment and the destination system.

(a) Affordance Concept

The affordance structure in the current phenomena could be illustrated in Figure 4.4.

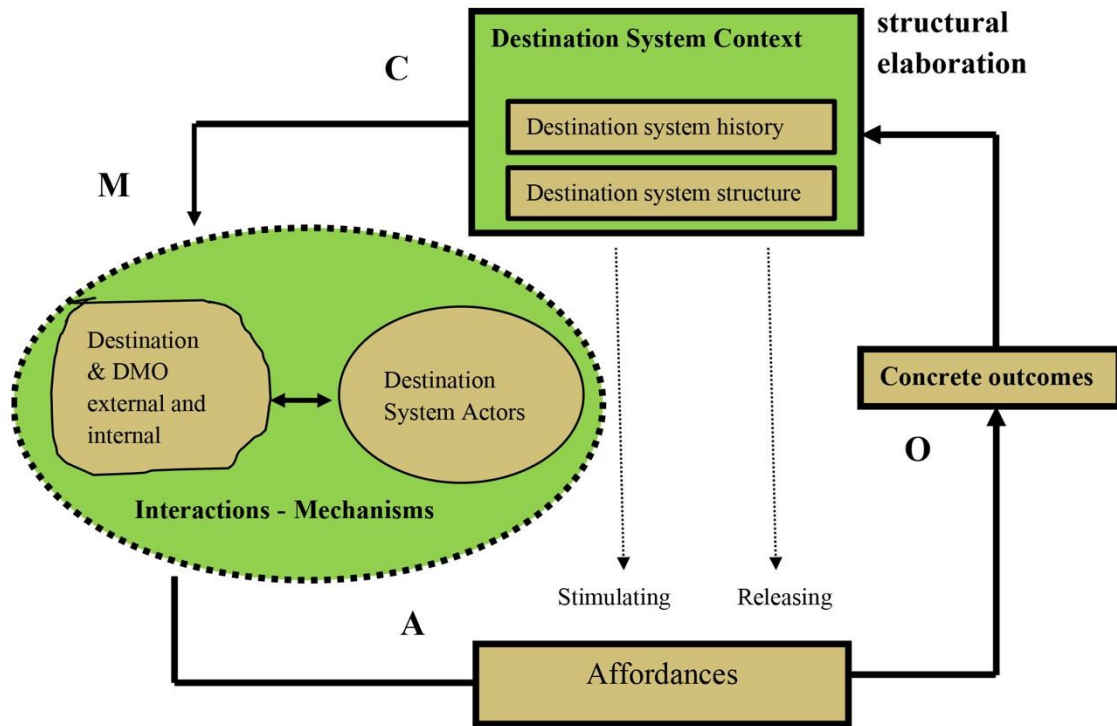


Figure 4.4: Affordance Feedback Structure Conceptual Diagram (Adapted from Archer, 1995; Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Bygstad *et al.*, 2015).

According to the concept, affordance is the “potential for behaviours associated with achieving an immediate concrete outcome arising from the relationship between an object and a goal-oriented actor or actors” (Volkoff and Strong, 2013). In this study, affordance emerges from the relationship between the destination environment and destination actors. Four arguments are implied from the aforementioned definition. First, affordance is not solely related to the various features of the destination environment but rather the relationship between that environment and actors; secondly, it is also implied that the specific actor or actors do not matter, what matters is just that some actor who could actualise it does exist; thirdly, relevant actors themselves may not perceive the affordance at all; and fourth, while an affordance is a potential present for action, its actualisation is contingent to the context (Hutchby, 2001; Bygstad *et al.*, 2015).

According to this framework, the stages of the affordance feedback structure showing the interactions of structure and action (for mere illustration) are as follows:

- (i) Context (C): The destination context in various combinations consisting of networks of human, social and physical objects, and history enable action or create potential for affordances (Bygstad *et al.*, 2015).
- (ii) Mechanism (M): Action consisting of two main elements, the destination system environment and actors, interact with the context or structure (Bygstad *et al.*, 2015).
- (iii) Affordance (A): Affordance enabled by interactions give rise to outcomes at stage four (Bygstad *et al.*, 2015).
- (iv) Outcomes (O): If the results of action are actualised, the result of this action is fed back to the structure as outcomes (Bygstad *et al.*, 2015).

Relating the above to Archer (1995)'s morphogenetic model, structural conditioning takes place at context level before associated social interaction at which leads to structural elaboration of the context.

The realist explanation in applying the above could apply the Pawson and Tilley's Context-Mechanism-Outcome (CMO) configuration (Figure 4.5.). The realist explanation based on this model and as used in this study was premised on the following: "causal outcomes follow from mechanisms acting in context" (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). For something to be explained it ought to be placed in a causal sequence and there must be an identification of the causes of the event. In this regard, explanation is not understood based on the regularities of the event, and neither can it be considered complete and definitive (Fleetwood and Ackroyd, 2004). Based on Pawson and Tilley (1997)'s configuration, therefore, Destination Context (C) + Mechanisms (M) = Outcomes (O).

A realist view is that attention should be paid to the causal mechanism and context in which these mechanisms work themselves out (Fleetwood and Ackroyd, 2004).

Important to critical realist study are two things: (a) appropriate specification of the context; and (b) establishing causal mechanisms at play in the context. Explanation therefore involves accounting for causal mechanisms at play in a given context. These mechanisms are inferred from outcomes connected to them in a specific context.

In adopting the C-M-O model, the following should be noted:

(i) It is not possible to reach completion of all permutations of mechanisms and contexts responsible for outcomes (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). For example, different configurations of context and mechanisms may produce the same outcome:

$C_1 + M_1 = O_1$ and $C_2 + M_2 = O_1$. Conversely, same context and mechanism configuration may produce different outcomes, i.e., $C_1 + M_1 = O_1$ and $C_1 + M_1 = O_2$ (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Fleetwood and Ackroyd, 2004).

(ii) Central to this model is data analysis method and has little reference to ontology (Fleetwood and Ackroyd, 2004). Therefore, ontology and interpretations remain that of the researcher.

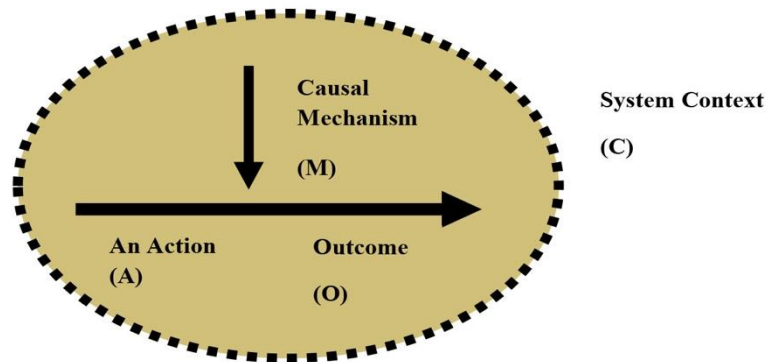


Figure 4.5: Realist Explanation Diagram (Pawson and Tilley, 2000).

(b) Steps of Affordance Framework of Analysis

The outline of the framework and principles for conducting critical realist data analysis using the affordance concept, based on Wynn and Williams (2012) and incorporating ideas of CR from Archer (1995), Bhaskar (1998), Danermark et al (2002) and various pragmatic views indicated in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Affordance Framework Steps

Step	Description
Step 1: Description of events and issues	In CR inquiry context events are clusters of observations made by the researchers and / or informants on any of the levels of stratification domains (domains of real, actual and empirical) (Sayer, 1992; Volkoff <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Bygstad <i>et al.</i> , 2015)
Step 2: Identification of key entities	Key entities are the objects of the case and may comprise of individuals, organisational units, physical entities and the relationships among them. Together, these constitute structures. In this study these are identified from data using grounded theory approach (Strauss and Corbin, 1994; Danermark <i>et al.</i> 2002)
Step 3: Theoretical Re-description (abduction)	Before identifying mechanisms, we need to abstract the case, exploring different theoretical perspectives and explanations. The researcher at this stage should identify relevant theories to “observe, describe, interpret and explain the events within the frame of a new context” (Danermark <i>et al.</i> 2002; Bygstad <i>et al.</i> , 2015).
Step 4: Identification of candidate affordances (retroduction).	Retroduction is the mode of inference in which events are explained by postulating mechanisms which are capable of producing them (Sayer, 1992; Bygstad <i>et al.</i> , 2015).
(i) Identification of immediate concrete outcomes	An immediate concrete outcome is something that is directly achieved or could be achieved through interactions of the environment and actors’ goals (Volkoff and Strong, 2013).
(iii) Analysis of the interplay of entities and destination actors (human)	Interactions of the components in the destination system, without emergent behaviour irreducible to components.
(iii) Identification of candidate affordance	An affordance arises from the relation between social (actors) and the destination environment and reflect the potential for behaviour that may produce the immediate concrete outcome. The affordance exists, is real and endures as long as the actors and objects exist, while possible outcome may never be produced, meaning in this case the affordance may never be actualised (Volkoff and Strong, 2013; Bygstad <i>et al.</i> , 2015).

Table 4.8: Affordance Framework Steps continued

Step	Description
(iv) Identification of stimulating and releasing conditions	Actualisation and the extent its actualisation of the affordance depends on the contextual conditions. Stimulating conditions are destination conditions that make it easier to act and releasing conditions are often specific destination policy decisions (Volkoff and Strong, 2013; Bygstad <i>et al.</i> , 2015).
Step 5: Analysis of the set of affordances and associated mechanisms	First, we need to analyse the interaction of affordances, and the dependencies between them. Some have temporal dependencies while others have structural or complimentary dependencies. Second, we try to understand how affordances are part of higher-level mechanisms: macro-micro and micro-macro mechanisms (DeLanda, 2006; Bygstad <i>et al.</i> , 2015).
Step 6: Assessment of explanatory power	A proposed mechanism should be treated as a candidate explanation, and data collection and data analysis should be repeated until closure is reached. We search for the mechanisms with the strongest explanatory power related to the empirical evidence – the actual structure that best explains the events observed (Sayer, 1992; Wynn and Williams, 2012; Bygstad <i>et al.</i> , 2015).

Source: Archer (1995); Bhaskar (1998); Danermark *et al.* (2002); Bygstad *et al.* (2015).

4.6. Reliability and Validity

Reliability and validity are rooted in positivists' epistemology and until recently have been rare in qualitative paradigms. Because of this, they require redefinition when applied in qualitative approaches, as in this case of this study (Golafshani, 2003). In positivists paradigms emphasis is on facts and causes of behaviour, mathematical norms of analysing numeric data, information is quantified and results are expressed statistically (Charles, 1995; Bogdan and Biklen, 1998).

Relying on the above theoretical assumptions of positivism, Joppe (2000) defines reliability as “the extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable”. This view underlines the notion of replicability or repeatability of results and / or observations, which Kirk and Miller (1986) categorises into three, as: (a) extent to which a measurement remains the same repeatedly; (b) how

stable the measurement is over time; and (c) “similarity of measurements within a given period” (Joppe, 2000).

Validity when approached from its traditional positivist paradigm is considered to be based on empirical conceptions, such as universal laws, evidence, objectivity, truth, actuality, deduction, reason, fact and mathematical data (Winter, 2000; Golafshani, 2003). According to Joppe (2000), “validity determines whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are”. Two notions are brought out when considering the two terms under positivism, namely: (a) regarding reliability whether the result is replicable; and (b) as regards validity “whether the means of measurement are accurate and whether they are actually measuring what they are intended to measure” (Golafshani, 2003).

The background of the two terms notwithstanding, researchers acknowledge that validity and reliability are important factors to consider in in design a study, analysis of results and judging the quality of studies in the qualitative paradigm (Patton, 2001; Golafshani, 2003). However, the judgment of the quality of the study must be within the terms of the paradigm used (Healy and Perry, 2000).

Golafshani (2003) argues that in qualitative studies, validity and reliability should be conceptualised as “trustworthiness, rigor and quality”. When applied in the realism paradigm the notion of relying on multiple perceptions of a single reality is an important element of validity and reliability (Healy and Perry, 2000). This brings the notion of triangulation of several data sources and ‘their interpretations with those multiple perceptions in the realism paradigm” (Healy and Perry, 2000). In this study, the notion of trustworthiness, rigor and quality was enhanced by the following:

- (a) Design of the study, based on critical realism whose foundational elements include triangulation of data collection techniques. In this study, data was collected through in-depth interviews and review of documents. This increased validation of data.

- (b) In this study, the design was a case study in three sites. This allowed for getting back to informants to countercheck data. Additionally, multimethod and grounded theory approach to data analysis allowed for rigor in the study.
- (c) Data analysis was done with the tools unique to each of the two theoretical frameworks used as competing theories in the study. Use of two theories and tools unique to each of them enhanced reliability of the findings of the study.

4.7. Presenting the Findings

The findings of the study were presented based on the theoretical frameworks and research questions. Each research question was considered under the respective theoretical framework and thereafter the findings based on each of the two theoretical frameworks will be compared, and the most possible or plausible explanatory theoretical framework will be used to develop the DMO business model framework. Consistent with both complexity theory and CR assumptions, each research question was followed with a model and conceptual view that allows for explanatory analysis.

At each of the stages of presenting the findings, the format took models and frameworks diagrams with the requisite narratives and Tables to support them.

4.8. Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues are common in any kind of research. However, the nature of ethical issues in qualitative research is likely to be different and more difficult compared to quantitative inquiries (Orb *et al.*, 2000). According to Ramos (1989), three ethical problems likely to affect a qualitative study are: (a) researcher / participant relationship; (b) researcher's subjective interpretations of data; and (c) the design of the inquiry itself. These ethical issues can be alleviated by applying three established ethical principles of autonomy, beneficence and justice (Orb *et al.*, 2000).

In general, the study was conducted with the standards, ethical approval and use of ethical principles and regulations of the University of Zambia's Natural and Applied Sciences Ethics Committee (Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies).

(a) **Autonomy:** Ethically autonomy relates to protection of informants and respect of their rights, including right to be “informed about the study, right to freely decide to participate in a study and right to withdraw at any time without penalty” (Capron, 1989; Orb *et al.*, 2000). In this study, prior written consent of informants were obtained freely after due provision of relevant information, including the purpose of the study and bringing the rights of the informants as above to them.

(b) **Beneficence:** Beneficence in research ethics refers preventing informants from harm and also doing good for others (Orb *et al.*, 2000). Some of the targeted informants wished to protect their identities and views from the government, Zambia Tourism Agency or indeed even among other category of stakeholders in view of the unique industry relations characterised by knit ties, standards and licensing enforcement and marketing arrangements. High levels of confidentiality were maintained throughout data collection, analysis and presentation. Where it became necessary to quoted and cite directly, consent for such will be obtained from informants and used the coded identities as opposed to names or actual identities.

Data collection also targeted informants in eco-sensitive areas in national parks or naturalistic tourism products. The study adhered to environmental protection of both the natural resources and artefacts in these areas.

(c) **Justice:** The principle of justice relates to fairness and avoidance of exploitation and abuse of participants. The study should be weary of vulnerability of participants. The study will allow for accessing of the findings of the study and any publications based on the study on request from informants. In addition, no under-age informant was targeted throughout the study.

4.9. Limitations of the Study

(a) **Coincidence of Coronavirus Crisis:** The study was undertaken during the coronavirus pandemic that has created crises for worldwide travel, tourism and allied industries. A crisis in tourism could potentially shift the views of stakeholders on the

expected role and leadership of the DMO, and it may not be possible to understand with certainty the temporal and long-term shifts. Temporal shifts may render the DMO frameworks invalid for long term use because once the crisis is over or in its aftermath the expected role may shift again. Care was made in data collection through the interviews and also triangulation of interview data with various archival documents, where available.

(b) Limitations of Complexity and CR: Both complexity and CR as research frameworks have limitations of arising from broad ranges of traditions but which have limited methodological frameworks. The problems associated with complexity as a theory have been well documented in literature, and include: (a) the lack of a unifying ‘Theory of complexity’ because of originating from diverse disciplines and traditions within the disciplines (Chu *et al.*, 2003); and (b) the notion of ‘complexity’ itself is still a subject of diverse usage conceptually. CR as a framework is yet to have fully developed tools, and consequently is subject to a diverse set of tools and even frameworks, such that comparison of measurements and studies is elusive.

The study included an exploratory inquiry phase to build theory, concepts and / or hypotheses for the current study. Also the mixed epistemological and research approaches provided the requisite triangulation for better results.

(c) Case Study Sites: The sites for the case study were limited to three sites. The other major tourism spatial areas of the Luangwa Valley and the growth areas in the tourism northern circuit were not been included. It is important to note that the unit of analysis is the destination. However, in the sample, some of the tour operators, especially wholesalers, and other stakeholders such as government and non-governments have, as far as possible, included those that have operations in these and other parts of Zambia.

4.10 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter identified the methodological and methods approach adopted for this study. The study is anchored on three philosophical views, namely: (a) complexity theory; (b) critical realism theory; and (c) functional pragmatism. The main theory for analysis was identified and justified as the grounded theory approach. The study was designed as a qualitative case study conducted in three sites. The main tools for data collection were the in-depth interviews and review of documents for the last ten years. The next chapter, chapter five, presents the findings of this investigation and sets the platform for the discussion and conclusions in chapter six and chapter seven, respectively.

CHAPTER FIVE – RESULTS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study. It serves to present the results and also the theoretical re-descriptions and retrodution of the mechanisms and outcomes under each of the two theoretical frameworks used, namely complexity theory and social realist theory. Because of the primacy and commonality of emergentism and the overlap of some of the elements, the actual findings of description of events, identification of components and re-description of phenomena are presented first and then followed by the retrodution of mechanisms and outcomes that explain the phenomena under investigation. The latter is done under each of the two competing theoretical frameworks. These findings were categorised and presented under six main domains, namely: (a) Description of events and identified components of a general nature (category one); (b) Description and identified components of category two (path dependence findings); (c) Description and identified components of category three (other destination complexity findings); (d) Theoretical re-descriptions of the researched phenomena; (e) Retrodution of mechanisms and outcomes under social realist theory; and (f) Retrodution of mechanisms and outcomes under complexity theory. This chapter also highlights the complexity theoretical framework as the more stable for the DMO business model framework proposition between the two competing theoretical frameworks.

5.2. Description of Events and Identified Components Category One: General Findings

The study found five themes that were categorised as of a general nature that are closely connected to the research questions. As summarised in Table 5.1. and presented in detail below, these findings were that: (a) the role of the DMO was still considered vital in the destination; (b) the expected role of the DMO has shown some shifts over years; (c) in policy the DMO was still considered under the industrial-tool paradigm; (d) there were some emergentism falling somewhere between second- and third-degree emergences; and (e) there was rising polycentric structures in the destination.

Table 5.1: General Events and Components Findings.

	CATEGORY ONE FINDINGS – GENERAL EVENTS AND COMPONENTS
Finding 1	Role of the DMO still considered relevant in the destination by stakeholders.
Finding 2	The expected role of the DMO has shown some shifts among stakeholders.
Finding 3	DMO in the destination is still considered under the industrial paradigm in policy.
Finding 4	Destination has shown some degree of emergentism over years.
Finding 5	Rising polycentricism – while DMO structure and core activities appear to have remained the same over years, the destination manifested a rise in polycentric structures.

(a) Events and Components Category One Finding One (1): Role of DMO still vital in the Destination

The study found that the role of the DMO was still considered vital in the destination and DMO role in the destination was not considered as extinct but it needed reconsideration on the modus operandi. Interviewee Number 1.1 stated this view as follows:

“ZTA is important for the destination but there is need to look at its operations and funding”, and further “there is definitely a change from the way it operated during around 2005 and 2006, and as a result, it is failing to lead destination marketing in growth markets of Asia and Baltics... yet these markets are important to the private sector and the destination as whole because that is the direction of new growth markets”.

Interviewee 1.3. stated that: “The Zambia Tourism Agency is necessary and important for Zambia as a whole except there was need to realign the ZTA strategy and vision with that of the private sector”.

Respondent 2.3. viewed that: “Definitely ZTA as a wing of government to undertake destination activities is still necessary but there was need to find out and attend to the reasons why the private sector and some funding agencies were bypassing it and forming their own structures for marketing activities and other activities”

Similarly, policy documents reviewed also showed that the DMO was still considered relevant by policy and the government, at least during the foreseeable future. For example, the Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038 (2018), during its period of implementation showed that was aiming to, among others, “strengthening and expanding ZTA’s marketing capacity” and also to “review roles of the department of tourism (at the Ministry of Tourism and Arts) and ZTA”.

The Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038 (2018) also state as follows:

“Section 5.4. addresses the actions that should be taken to strengthen ZTA’s marketing mandate. Another area that needs to be strengthened under ZTA’s current mandate is that of implementing the grading and classification system in a professional manner”.

(b) Events and Components Category One Finding Two (2): The expected role of the DMO has shown some shifts

Respondents viewed that the role of the DMO had shifted and therefore ought to be changing its operations to meet the current and future demand of stakeholder interests and current market environment. Similarly, reviewed policy documents and some of the private sector initiatives of polycentricism indicated shifts, especially post-2007. Due to its primacy to a number of findings, this finding is further elaborated recursively in the other findings on path-dependence below. For example, Interviewee Number 2.3. in Livingstone viewed that:

“Tourism is not static and there has been a lot changes in tourism. The role of ZTA should be reviewed because from the informal groupings being created to play the original role of ZTA, there is an indication that there is a gap that needs to be addressed; otherwise, the informal groupings will harm the destination”
“there is need to look for the reasons for the formation of these informal groupings and what is missing in the current role of ZTA and harness them”.

Similarly, Interviewee 1.6. and the Zambia Master Plan 2018 – 2038 brought out this as follows: (i) “ Ministry of Tourism (and Arts) and ZTA need to align its operations with

the current needs and expectations of the private sector in the destination; tourism is not static and we need to keep reviewing the role of ZTA from time to time because expectations from it change over time”; and (ii) while the The Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038 seeks to “review roles of the department of tourism (at the Ministry of Tourism and Arts) and ZTA” within the implementation period.

The Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038 acknowledges the shifts in expectations and the need to adjust, stating as follows:

“The allocation of law enforcement as a function of ZTA while retaining product development and investment promotion in the Department is questionable and is expected to result in role and industry conflicts. The roles should be revised to ensure ZTA fulfils its marketing mandate (including promotion, product development and information distribution) while the Department should take care of regulatory enforcement” (Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038).

(c) Events and Components Category One finding Three (3): DMO still an industrial tool for policy

The DMO was found to be still considered as important for industrial purposes by the government and other stakeholders. All the major public policy documents reviewed considered the DMO as important in championing the government and policy’s economics agenda. The Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 - 2038, Vision 2030, Seventh National Development Plan and the Zambia Tourism Policy of 2015 all recognised tourism as “an important economic sector for economic diversification and as a principal source of foreign exchange and employment creation” (Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 - 2038, 2018). To fulfil the industrial role of the DMO, the government’s strategy was “streamlining and strengthening public sector tourism capacity” through, among others, “strengthen and structure ZTA to fulfil its mandate” (Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018-2038, 2018).

(d) Events and Components finding Four (4): Degree of Emergence Behaviour

From the findings, including the ones above, the shift in terms of emergence and degrees could be said to be an exhibition of emergence behaviour characteristically of what is common between first- and second-degree levels of emergence, as indicated by the following:

- (i) While the DMO was still considered to be still vital in the destination, although this role was considered open as shown in the above accounts of interviewees. Second, the destination system components were found to be still dependent on each other and the DMO, and still expected the DMO to undertake some coordinating and promotional roles within the destination. Regarding the DMO, during the period 2018 to 2038, the Zambia Tourism Master Plan, among others, sought to “Strengthening and expanding ZTA’s marketing capacity”. Third, the interactions between the DMO and other components in the system were still high through: grading and standards under the DMO; licensing of tourism businesses under the DMO; joint destination marketing activities through tourism fairs, event, media activities and promotional materials; and DMO staff positioned in international source markets of South Africa, United Kingdom and USA assisting the travel trade and other private sector operators marketing Zambia. However, there was growing macro-patterns and structures springing up and promoted by private sector operators and international influences, as shall be shown later below.

- (ii) The emergence of polycentric structures, especially Destination Livingstone Initiative and the Victoria Falls Regional Tourism Association, which are presented below, suggested a stronger qualitative novelty and are coherent, high level systems different from the individual operators and their individual expectations in the destination and from the DMO. Both Destination Livingstone and the Victoria Falls Regional Tourism Association could be indicating emergence lying between first-degree to second-degree emergent structures. There was a new creation of the level of order and the interdependent forms are now firm, that transcend and yet include the properties of the general tourism destination. Figure 5.1. shows the key milestones and estimated level of emergentism as found.

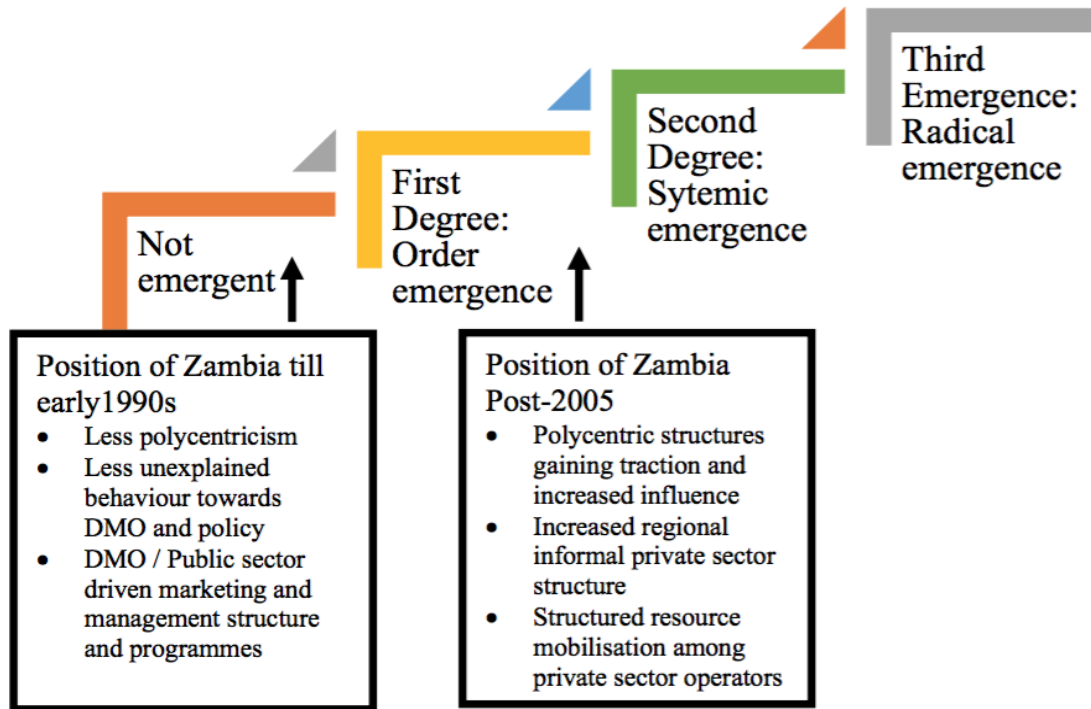


Figure 5.1: Stage Display of Emergence Properties in the Destination

(e) Events and Components finding Five (5): Emergentism - Rising Polycentricism

While the structure and core activities of the DMO have remained the same, the study found that generally there was a rise in polycentric structures doing activities which hitherto were those of the DMO. This phenomenon became visible in the destination from the late 1990s but more prominently from the early 2000s. The documents reviewed showed that this phenomenon was in all the three sites of Livingstone, Kafue ecosystem area and Lusaka. However, from 2005 these were more prominent in the Livingstone area. It should be noted that polycentricism in this study is taken as a new reality within an existing organisation and / or a completely new different structure.

The polycentric structures found were of two types, new ones and the existing modified one, as shown in Figure 5.2.. At micro-level, the findings that relate to polycentricism include redefinition of roles and functions; intra-destination system competition and rivalries; alternative networks of private sector collaborations, including those cutting

across geopolitical boundaries; some policy resistance phenomena; and redefinition of destination boundaries.

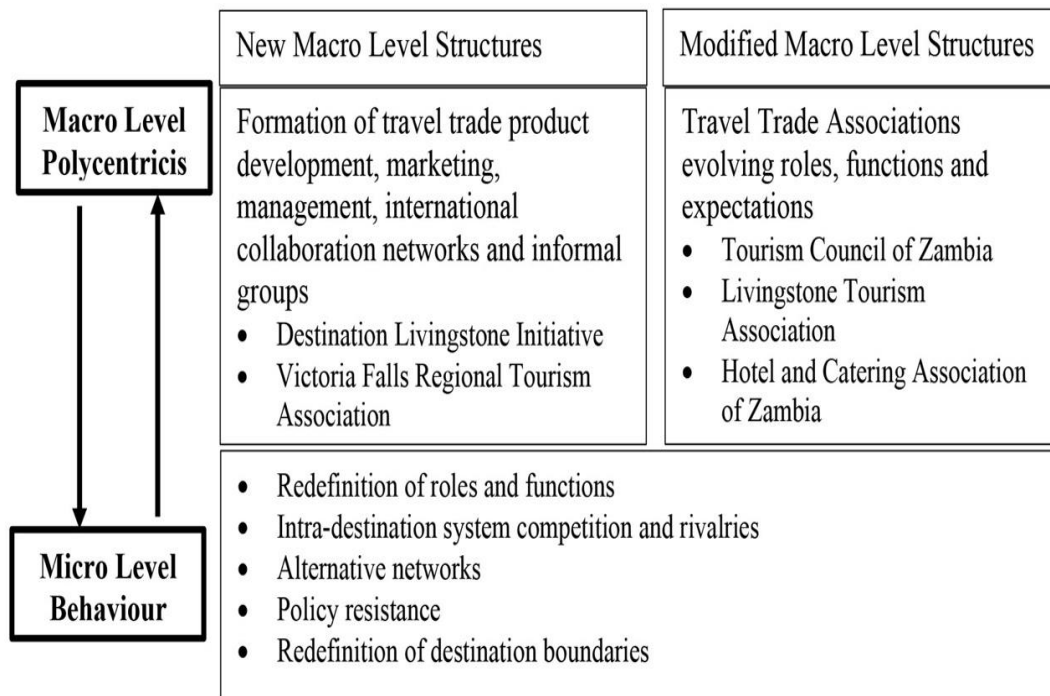


Figure 5.2: Macro level Display and Micro level Behaviour in the Destination.

At national level, the Tourism Council of Zambia (TCZ) started off as a membership organisation for the private sector in the 1990s. Interestingly, it was found that it had evolved from the origin modus operandi unlike the other tourism industry membership organisations. By 2005 the national tourism policy had recognised it. Eventually in both the Tourism and Hospitality Act of 2015 and the Zambia Tourism Policy of 2015, the TCZ was recognised by name. With this, the TCZ had consolidated itself and became a stronger voice in the tourism industry in Zambia. This was unlike in prior epochs when each of the sub-sectors had its own association with minimal link to each other. The TCZ became the umbrella private sector membership organisation.

Recognition of TCZ in the policy and legislation was found to spur other structures. The prominent one was found to be the Hotel and Catering Association of Zambia (HCAZ), which had submitted proposals to the government for it to be constituted and regulated by its own specific legislation as well. The argument by the HCAZ was that its membership

of professionals serves the tourism industry and it was the right one to represent the industry on various issues affecting the industry, including training, standards and grading and various policy-related matters. The HCAZ views that some of the gaps in policy is a result of its voice being subdued by other groups and associations.

In tourism regional areas, specifically the Livingstone tourism area, the Livingstone Tourism Association (LTA) was formed in the 1990s. From the time of its creation, the association evolved in the performance of its mandate. As the LTA was transforming between 2019 and 2020, the other two polycentric structures with interesting features emerged, namely Destination Livingstone Initiative and Victoria Falls Regional Tourism Association. Regarding LTA, one respondent viewed that:

“LTA has almost become another marketing entity in addition to ZTA and now private sector operators are no longer sure of who to approach for what in the destination”.

The Livingstone Tourism Association (LTA) was formally created in 1995 to champion various causes for operators, including representing various interests of the private sector in tourism that are based in the Livingstone area. The LTA initially played the role of lobbying government and coordinating the private sector operators in various engagements with the government and its agencies. While it continued to represent the tourism industry private stakeholders in various engagements, by the early 2000s it had begun transforming itself to include undertaking some promotional and destination coordination activities on behalf of its members. Its activities started including more of promotional and coordination of tourism industry activities. Its promotional materials, both printed and electronic are now more focused on marketing and to some extent destination management elements. By 2002, the LTA started considering the Tourism Council of Zambia (TCZ) to be focused on Lusaka-based issues and “too close to the government” and driven by government policy as opposed to private-sector interests. Additionally, by this time, the LTA “assumed large roles as a lobbying group and in spearheading marketing activity for the industry in Livingstone” beyond its initial purpose

(ZAMTIE, 2002). However, the TCZ viewed that for it to represent the interests of the private-sector at national level, it had to work closely with the government.

As an example, in 2020, the LTA was leading private sector institutions in responding to the COVID-19 issues the tourism industry in Livingstone. During the early 2000s such would have been undertaken by the Zambia Tourism Agency (ZTA) and / or Ministry of Tourism and Arts. Respondents viewed that the LTA was more involved in such activities because of the sluggishness of the ZTA as a public entity and is constrained by limited resource to respond to crises. Similarly, some LTA members viewed that the government also not moved at a faster pace in response to the requirements of the industry. This is compared to the adjacent destination of Zimbabwe, where the government had put up measures that made it easier and cheaper to get covid-19 testing and clearances for tourists. The LTA cited survival of the destination and businesses as one of the main reasons for expanding its roles. While the nearest destination of Victoria Falls town in Zimbabwe had put sufficient measures in response to covid-19, including cheaper and accelerated testing facilities for tourist, respondents viewed that on the Zambian side it was difficult to get tests for travellers and the cost was high, information was scanty and there was no designated quarantine facility. In response the LTA coordinated information sharing and improvement of a hospital room. Other private-sector initiatives included assisting tourists obtain COVID-19 certificates by arranging for collection of samples and results to the nearest test centre inland.

Some of the visible effects of the above polycentric structure at micro and meso industry levels were found to be that:

- The private sector industry stakeholders are at times by-passed the DMO in marketing activities and resource mobilising for it;
- Private sector operators found other partnerships with regional operators but without a policy framework and DMO involvement;
- Private sector operators desired more say on the tourism development fund and other resources accruing to the DMO;

- Private sector operators desired more say on the functioning and plans of the DMO;
- Private sector operators were more engagement in destination marketing and some destination management activities, compared to the early 2000s; and
- The DMO was highly reliant on the South African grading and standards system and training of Zambian grades and standards assessors.

The above showed another form of polycentricism, namely, redefinition of roles and functions of components in the destination; intra-destination system competition and rivalries structures; alternative networks and communication structures; and redefinition of destination boundaries.

5.3. Description of Events and Components Identified Category Two: Path Dependence (History matters)

When data was analysed with critical realist view, the study found that there were some historical events that set the current trajectory of the both the DMO and destination, which mattered in the shifts of the DMO role. Some of the events and decisions made in the past, including in policy, were found to have assisted create a trajectory of where the DMO finds itself today. Additionally, some of these path-dependent factors reinforced the existing roles and have created inertia and resistance to policy changes. The four findings shown in Table 5.2. and detailed below also show both the historicity and triggering events of the phenomena. These were the path dependence forces, path creation incidents, lock-in forces, triggers and the evolutions among the components in the destination and some adjacent destinations.

Table 5.2: Category Two Findings - Path Dependence.

	CATEGORY TWO FINDINGS – PATH DEPENDENCE
FINDING 1	Phenomena under investigation showed path dependence (historicity) with the following path dependence forces (exogenous): (a) government and policy directions; (b) Tourism regional structures and shared product directions; (c) Markets and travel trade directions; (d) Culture and history of the destination; (e) International membership organisations influences; and (e) other sporadic forces.
FINDING 2	Path creation - the destination was found to have created new pathways from interactions of destination agents with path dependence forces and endogenous factors influencing regeneration activities. Regeneration influences were found to be: (a) destination components rivalries; (b) product and spatial heterogeneity; (c) connectedness and shared products with adjacent destinations; (d) sizes and types of ownerships of the products; and (e) origins of ownerships for international operators.
FINDING 3	Policy resistance: Destination was found to have exhibited some policy resistance, with self-reinforcing structural, cognitive and political lock-ins.
FINDING 4	The destination and DMO phenomena under investigation was found to have 4 epochs, and moments and triggers.

5.3.1. Events and Components Category Two Finding One (1): Path-Dependence Forces

The study found that the most efficacious path-dependence forces were in five clusters, namely: (a) Government and public policy directions; (b) regional structures and shared products with other destinations; (c) market and travel trade; (d) culture and history; and (e) other isolated influences. These findings are highlighted below.

(a) Government and Public Policy Directions (Figure 5.5.)

The study found the role of government policy and its direction has had a telling effect in shifting the expected role of the DMO among the various tourism industry stakeholders. Some of the decisions in the immediate past that had affected how the DMO was viewed and expectations from stakeholders were:

(i) Budget and funding models to the DMO

- Historically, funding for the DMO in Zambia had been primarily through the annual budgetary allocations in the national budget and also private sector contributions for agreed marketing activities like trade shows. However, from about 2013, there had been significant reduction in the annual budgetary allocations in the national budget and actual releases for tourism marketing and product development, especially funds released to the institution responsible for marketing, the Zambia Tourism Agency (ZTA). Documentary review indicated that “the available budget for promoting Zambia has severely declined over the past few years. The Figure presents index values of ZTA funding over the past five years, with a base value of one (1) for 2013, the first measurement year. As can be seen ZTA’s total revenue (grant allocations) has almost halved since 2013, from around ZMK26 million in 2013 to less than ZMK15 million in 2017” (Ministry of Tourism and Arts, 2018; Zambia Tourism Agency, 2018). This is shown in Figure 5.3..

Similarly, a number of respondents, both from the private and public sectors, observed the reduction and considered it as threatening the future of destination marketing and the DMO, and also driving both the private sector and ZTA to re-look at their relationships between themselves and with government. In some cases, the private sector had to organise themselves to undertake and fund what they viewed to be international destination marketing activities in major source markets without the ZTA.

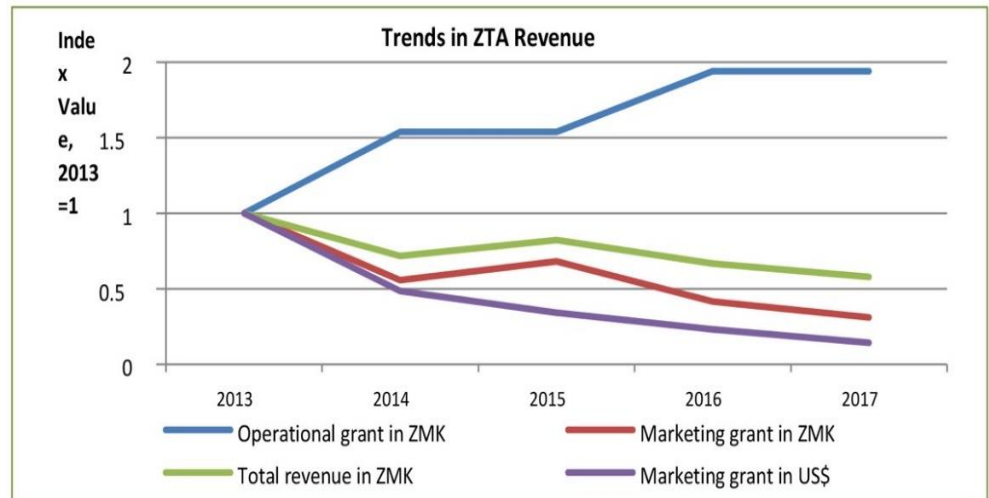


Figure 5.3: DMO Funding Between 2013 and 2017 (Source: Ministry of Tourism and Arts, 2018).

In 2018, the Ministry of Tourism and Arts reported that “Research conducted among private operators indicated that the private tourism industry has limited faith in Zambia’s destination marketing. Few respondents rated any of the marketing activities as “largely effective”. While the survey results represent industry perceptions at a time when ZTA’s marketing resources have been severely reduced and perceptions are no doubt heavily influenced by ZTA’s chronic funding shortages, it is nevertheless a cause for concern and points to a lack of a collective marketing vision and confidence between ZTA and private sector” (Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018).

- The Tourism and Hospitality Act Number 13 of 2015 provided for the creation of the Tourism Development Fund (TDF) that led to a tourism levy collected by the Zambia Revenue Authority (ZRA). The collections from this levy was found to be deposited in a central government account at the central bank, the Bank of Zambia (famously referred to as Account Control 99). Regarding this TDF, respondents from both private and public sectors viewed that accessing funds for marketing and other two possible uses in the destination as provided for in the Act (destination marketing, product development and tourism training) from the centrally deposited funds in government accounts was

cumbersome and made prior planning of activities difficult (Respondents Numbers 1.3. ; 2.2. ; and 3.1.). Also accessing this fund on a project-to-project basis made planning of programs or projects for use by the DMO and others difficult. This had led to operators viewing their role and that of the DMO to be redundant in this funding option. However, although the committee that approvals projects to be funded under TDF was chaired by a private sector representative, the modalities were viewed to be prohibitive. According to interviewee number 1.9. in Livingstone “while the private sector supported the introduction of the levy of 1.5 per cent for marketing and product development, it did not anticipate that it would be kept in a government centrally controlled account” and attributed the initiatives by the private sector to raise marketing resources from other sources to the difficulties of making these funds readily available and without a cumbersome application process.

- There has also been various funding for some destination marketing and management activities from external agencies, such as funding options from international agencies, such as DFID (now called Foreign Commonwealth Development Office) of Britain and CBI of Netherlands. In the case of the funding from DFID, there was reluctance by funders to channels it through direct government arrangements in preference for registered associations or quasi-government agencies like the National Museums Board. According to reviewed documentations, funding conditions from international agencies and also opportunity for more support was cited as the partial reason for the creation of a polycentric structure in Livingstone, ‘Destination Livingstone’, to receive funding for product development and also promotional activities.

Putting together the above factors, a significant number of stakeholders interviewed (twelve) viewed that funding to the DMO and generally destination marketing activities through the DMO was making the future of the traditional DMO to be uncertain. In the meantime, as the destination required promotion, the private sector were: (a) beginning to fund and organise international destination marketing activities; (b) some viewed that the private sector operators needed

more say on the DMO and its destination marketing strategy and activities; (c) some respondents viewed that inadequate and guaranteed funding of the DMO was changing its traditional role; (d) the DMO was viewed that it still had a role to play in the destination, except to required funding support; and (e) other cited role that the DMO could play was that of a supportive nature to industry in lobbying for the industry for tax consideration due to increasing private sector-driven destination marketing activities. Included also was lobbying for cooperative marketing with private sector engaged in the promotion of the whole destination.

(ii) Destination Strategy and Vision

Some respondents emphasised the importance of a shared strategy and vision for the destination. However, at the time of the study, the Zambia Tourism Agency (ZTA) did not have a formally adopted marketing strategy but had developed a basic guiding document it termed as “Strategic Thrusts 2017 – 2021” (Zambia Tourism Agency, 2021; Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 - 2038. In the case study areas, some of the respondents viewed the issue of a shared strategy and vision or lack thereof from two different views, as follows:

- Some respondents (Interviewee 1.3; 1.2; 1.4) viewed that they had the firsthand information on market developments and therefore there was need for a shared strategy and annual marketing plans, with more private sector voice. The view from private sector respondents was that currently in some cases the strategy implemented by the DMO was at variance with the private sector and market directions, especially on which growth markets to pursue. An example was given of the seemingly DMO reluctance or inability to pursue the Asian markets of India and China, and the Baltics in Europe, which were viewed as the growth markets for Zambia. Respondents viewed that the DMO should have been leading the way in destination promotions and bringing together the private sector in a shared strategy, which had their input. Additionally, some private sector respondents viewed that the annual plans for the destination were not shared and appeared non-existent, hence private sector were unable to plan with the whole destination strategy and annual plans in purview.

- Some respondents reported that the departure of the government from the Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038 in terms of product development was one other major concern. From the 2020, national budget, the government began to depart from the master plan and prioritised expenditure to the northern circuit, contrary to the plan as shown in Figure 5.4.. The 2020 national budget confirmed the said budgetary allocation towards the northern circuit.

Connected to the above, some respondents viewed that because of the heterogeneity of the tourism industry, it was difficult to pull the private as a whole towards a shared strategy and vision for the destination.

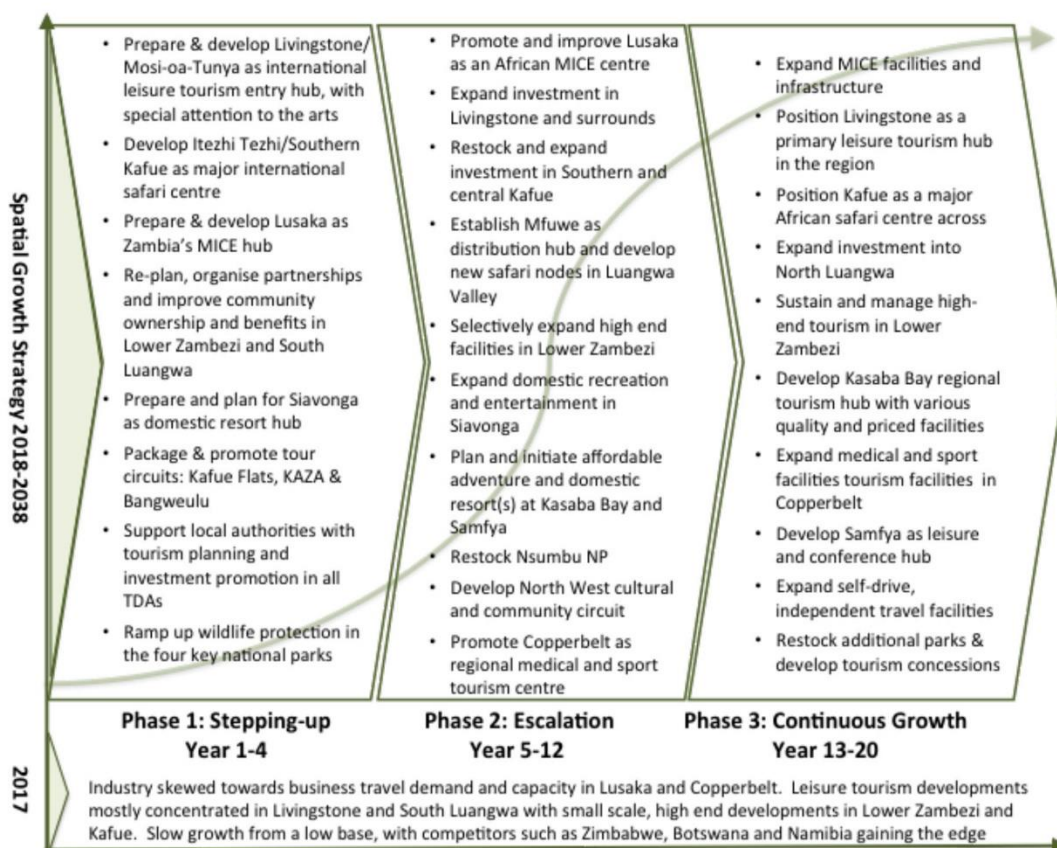


Figure 5.4: Phased Tourism Development (Source: Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, 2018).

(iii) Political and Policy Environment

A significant number of respondents (fifteen) cited various policy decision from government as having far reaching consequences in the destination and its organisation. One of the other recent triggers, in addition to funding, for the formation of private sector-led destination organisation and management structures like ‘Destination Livingstone Initiative’ was found to be the decision of the government to move away for the Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, which had indicated the sequence of development and management, starting with the southern circuit. However, from 2020 the government had re-prioritised the development of infrastructure and more budgetary allocation towards the northern circuit. Tied to rivalries between circuits, this had made operators in Livingstone to look for alternative product development and promotional organisation away from the DMO, which was viewed as being tied to government policy position.

Other recent government and policy issues raised by both private and public sector interviews and documentary review were:

- Regular turnover of senior officials in the ministry responsible for tourism, such as directors, permanent secretaries and ministers since 2011;
- Regular realignment of the ministry, its departments and quasi-government entities falling under tourism from 2011;
- Regular legislation changes from 2007, and even at the time of data there was a process leading to review of legislation affecting the tourism sector;
- Government decisions to change the priorities of infrastructure development;
- Reduced government funding in favour of self-sustaining activities for quasi-government institutions in the ministry responsible for tourism. One of the effects of this had been that some of the entities are driven by resource mobilisation in setting up fees motives and also tailoring their programmes and activities to suit their funders as opposed to the long-term interest of developing the destination; and
- Other related policy decisions, for example of taxation and entry requirements for tourists based on reciprocity is affecting the marketing and management of the destination in comparison with regional competitors.

Regarding the policy and legislation reforms, one interviewee responded as follows:

- “First what is required is to remove conflict when creating these public agencies and have clear mandates, which do not seem to be there now”.
- “The 2015 legislation change was more of a personal agenda; the problems that were attempted to be resolved by the change of the law could have been resolved without changing the Act because it had to do with the organisational structure at the ministry, removal or change of functions without resolving the issue of the structure will not solve the problem”.
- “At times we change the law and before implementation, it is changed again”
- “Even the idea of creating a Presidential Council as proposed in the Tourism Master Plan 2018-2038 does not change anything much because that is exactly what the Ministry of Tourism and Arts ought to be doing, except it has not been capacitated; why not increase the capacity of the ministry”.

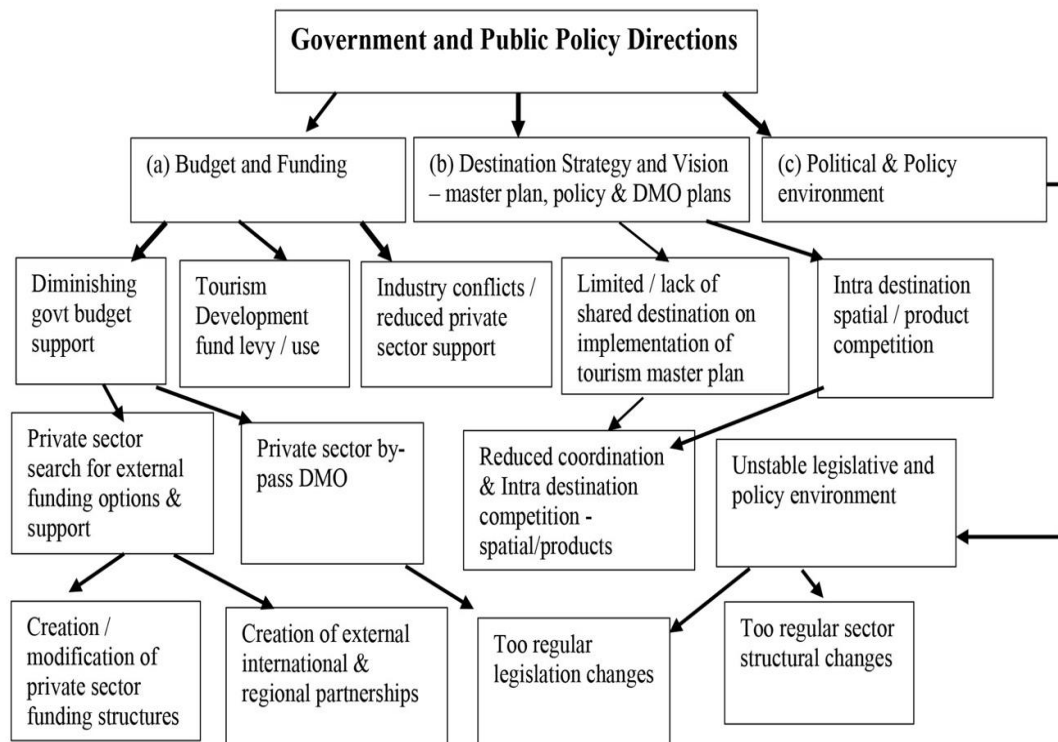


Figure 5.5: Coding Tree - Government and Public Policy Directions

**(b) Regional Structures, Collaborations and Shared Product Directions
(Figure 5.6)**

It was found that Zambia as a destination had highly active entities and mechanisms arising from proximity and shared products in major tourism areas, especially in the southern circuit. Zambia is part of the Kavango-Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area (KAZA TFCA). Second, it shares one of the major tourism attractions, the Victoria Falls, with Zimbabwe. Within the region there are both opportunities and threats of competition according to respondents.

Respondents viewed that the DMO had limitations in making decisions regarding regional competition because of the sluggishness of following centralized decision-making processes (interviewee Number 1.8). Some respondents viewed that the DMO should play a role of coordinating with other regional equivalents so as Zambia to benefit from the transfrontier. However, it was found that the private sector had started their own initiatives as already indicated above.

An interesting finding was that while Livingstone town on the Zambian side and Victoria Falls town on the Zimbabwean side at policy and government level each operated on rules and regulations unique to each side, private sector operators on the two sides had made their own localized boundaries and regulations for areas and activities viewed to be of common interest to tourism businesses. These included in some cases collaborating across geopolitical boundaries. However, ZTA as a public entity was driven by government policy and positions, and could not enter into such localised arrangements in transfrontier tourism areas. This had caused private sector operators on both sides of the Victoria Falls to create an informal structure of collaboration among themselves. This had also included undertaking destination promotion activities in long-haul markets as opposed to seeing themselves as competitors. This was different with what was found in most of the literature and government narratives.

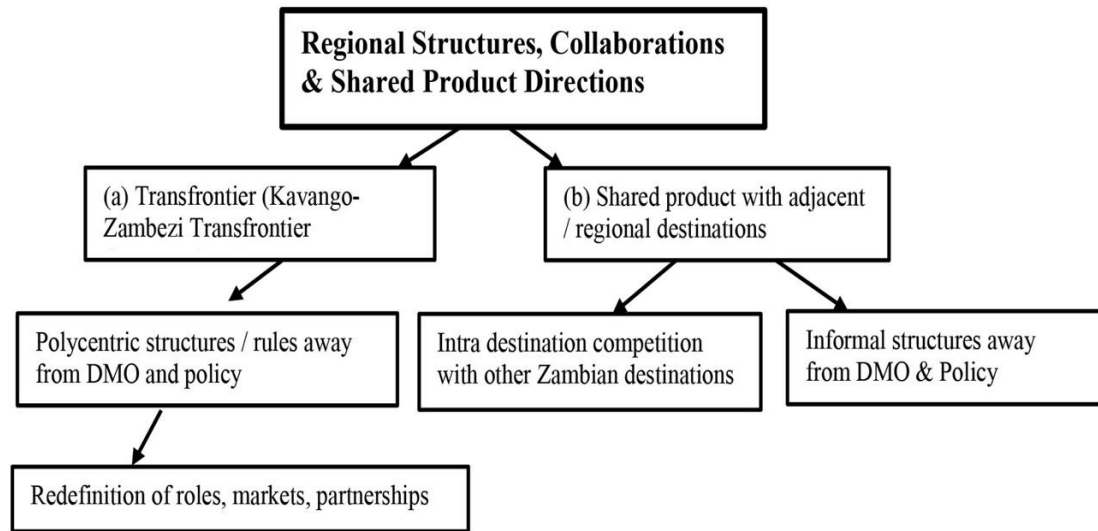


Figure 5.6: Coding Tree – Regional Structures, Collaborations and Shared Product Directions

(c) Markets and Travel Trade (Figure 5.7)

The key market and trade forces were found to be as follows.

(i) Realignment, Influences and Directions of markets

A number of private sector operators interviewed viewed that there was heightened competition for international markets, and the DMO was not moving in tandem with the private desire to remain competitive and profitable in these markets. Secondly, a more prominent view in Livingstone was the generally declining regional market for tourism in the Kavango-Zambezi Trans-frontier Area (KAZA) during the last few years. Private sector operators viewed the need for immediate action to regain and grow the regional market. This was also attributed as one of the reasons for the formation of a regional marketing association to promote the area.

Additionally, a number of respondents, including from quasi-government entities viewed that there had been a lot of changes in the major source markets that called for various changes in the DMO role. These changes include destination promotion channels and product preferences. The private sector respondents viewed that they were ahead of the

DMO in responding to eco-friendly products, which the DMO should lead in championing. These entailed, among others, for the DMO to support private sector in the delivery of the brand promise based updated market requirements. The view of respondents was that the DMO was sluggish in responding to changes pull-factors in the market place, and there was need to make it a bit more versatile in responding to markets. This has made the private sector to take up their own initiatives.

Other respondents (Interviewee number 1.3) viewed that they were targeting different markets while the DMO had remained with traditional markets. An example of marketing in markets with political historical ties with some destinations, such as Israel and India. Some of the operators had taken initiative to target these market segments, and develop products suited to these markets. This had included coming up an informal organisation structure that promotes the Livingstone destination to them because of the early settlement of these ‘communities’.

(ii) Absence of the DMO in Major Source and Growth Markets

Tied to the two above, respondents viewed that the absence of destination marketing in major source markets was a major concern because of competition from regional competition which other destinations dominated. DMO was viewed as being absent in some of the potential growth markets for Zambia, such as India and Baltics, and not promoting the destination in readiness for post-covid 19 era or indeed to continue with market visibility worsened it. One interviewee, already quoted above, noted that:

“there is definitely a change from the way it operated during around 2005 and 2006, and as a result, it is failing to lead destination marketing in growth markets of Asia and Baltics... yet these markets are important to the private sector and the destination as whole because that is the direction of new growth markets”.

(iii) Product Development / Marketing Fragmentations

Historically, product development in Zambia had been assigned to the ministry responsible for tourism while destination marketing to the Zambia Tourism Agency (including its predecessor). Some respondents and documentary evidence viewed that at

times this apportionment of roles had not moved at the same pace within the public sector, and also with private sector operators. It was viewed that this divide was now affecting market responses, and some private and public sector operators are trying to pull ahead of the destination.

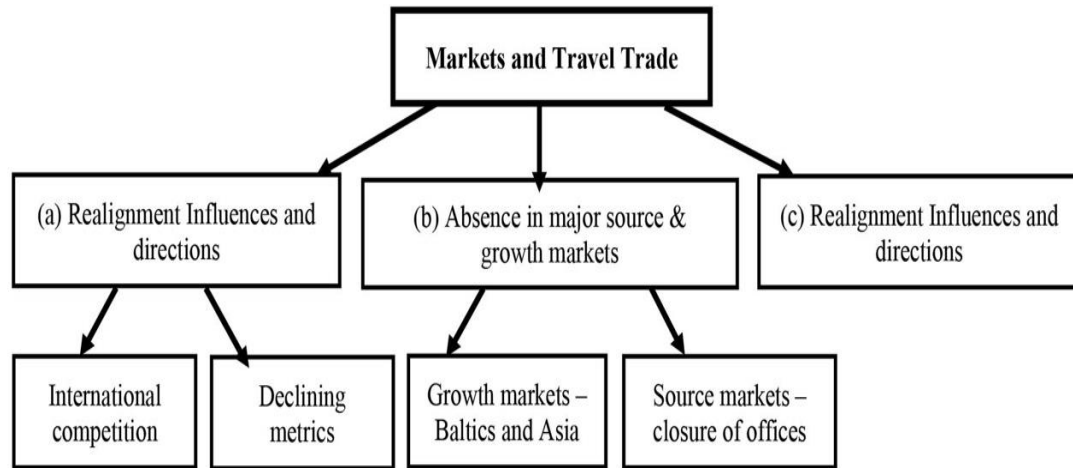


Figure 5.7: Coding Tree – Markets and Travel Trade

(d) Culture and history (Figure 5.8)

It was found that the destination exhibited a high level of diverse historical backgrounds and ties among individual investments, circuits and markets; and a high heterogeneity, and diverse interests, displaying, among others, the following:

(ii) Competition and Rivalry within the Industry and Sub Destinations

Some of the respondents from among private operators raised the issue of rivalries within the industry, mostly arising from among others, the history of ownership between the typically indigenous, international brands, country of origin for international brands, regions within Zambia, and also category of businesses, such as between accommodation providers and hunting groups. This created varied views of on their DMO expectations.

(ii) Southern Circuit and Northern Circuit Product Development Rivalries

As already highlighted, some respondents in the southern circuit also referred to the anticipated competition within the destination, with government focus on infrastructure in

the northern circuit. They viewed that this would refocus the DMO towards other circuits, away from the traditional tourism areas in the south and eastern parts of the country.

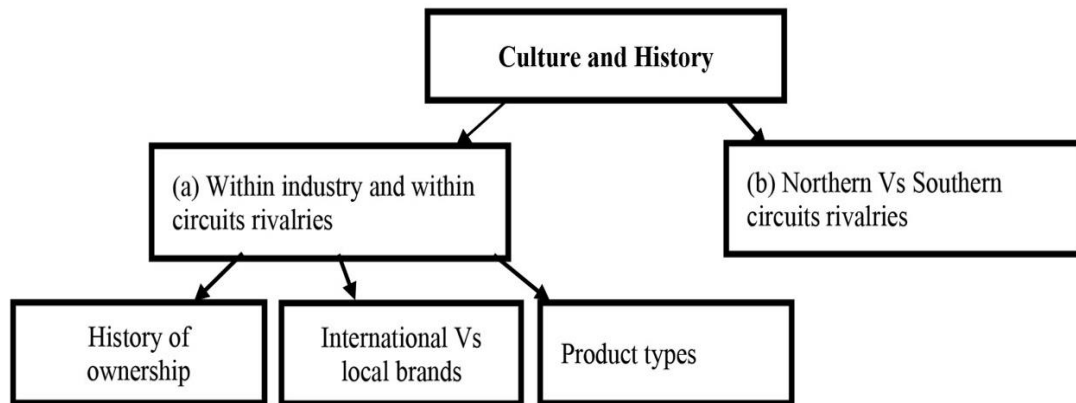


Figure 5.8: Coding Tree – Culture and History

(e) International Organisations’ influences - World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) and other international membership associations of Zambia (Figure 5.9)

Documentary review showed that Zambia was a member of the World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa (RETOSA), United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) and a party to the Conventional on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES). These three featured in responses from a number of conservation groups, ZTA, operators and some government agencies.

(i) World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO)

The World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) is an inter-governmental body and became a specialized agency of the United Nations (UN) in 2003 under UN resolution A/RES/58/233. It started off as International Union of Official Travel Organisations (IUOTO) in 1947 and over years it transformed, to ultimately become one of the specialised organisations of the UN. Currently the UNWTO promotes tourism as a driver of economic growth, inclusive development and environmental sustainability, and offers

leadership and support to the tourism sector in advancing knowledge and tourism policies worldwide (World Tourism Organisation, 2020).

In Zambia, the influence of the various programmes and activities have had influence on the destination. These were found to include through its global ethics for tourism, adoption of the Tourism Satellite Account (TSA) as a tourism economic measurement tool, tourism statistics and information, tourism training and research and policy recommendations and assistance to the country. In 2014 Zambia and Zimbabwe co-hosted the General Assembly of the UNWTO. Some of its influences and recommendations to policy included in the development of the Zambia Tourism Master Plan; some product development activities in Zambia; trainings; and various information shared to member countries including on the marketing, management and general organisation of destinations.

In addition to the above, the UNWTO also has four commissions, for Africa, Americas, Asia and Pacific and Europe. Through the commission for Africa, Zambia had been an active member.

(ii) Conventional on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES)

Zambia's tourism product is largely nature and wildlife based. Although there are attempts to diversify to other products away from nature and wildlife like culture, it is likely that for a long time to come, Zambia's tourism product will still be centred on nature and wildlife. The most developed tourism areas of Livingstone, Kafue, Lower Zambezi, North and South Luangwa and the northern circuit are all by and large around wildlife and nature.

Because of the above-mentioned dependency on wildlife, it became inevitable that Zambia became a party to the Conventional on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES). The current total number of parties to the CITES is 183. The CITES is for members of the World Conservation Union (IUCN), and has been running a project on legislation for assisting parties to the convention on efforts to legislate for

wildlife. Its role purpose is regulating international trade of specified species of animals and plants, including elephant tusk. In the case of Zambia, among the respondents from the wildlife estate-related organisations and organisations in sport hunting noted its influence, including in 2015 allowing 1000 tusks quotas for elephant trophy hunting in the next destination of Zimbabwe and compared to 160 tusks in Zambia. This created variations among different stakeholders on the destination products and role public institutions.

(iii) United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO)

One of Zambia’s tourism assets shared with Zimbabwe, the Victoria Falls, is recognised by UNESCO as one of the natural heritage sites. This makes UNESCO to be interested and from time-to-time influenced product development decision in the Livingstone area. Ultimately this affected the management of the destination.

(iv) Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa (RETOSA)

RETOSA was formed as a tourism organisation for the Southern African Development Community (SADC) responsible for promotion and marketing of tourism in the region. RETOSA is managed by a board drawn from tourism boards / authorities / agencies and some private sector umbrella bodies. Review of documents indicate that RETOSA has had influence on the destination through policy recommendations, joint marketing activities with the DMO and various product development and tourism management concepts and activities.

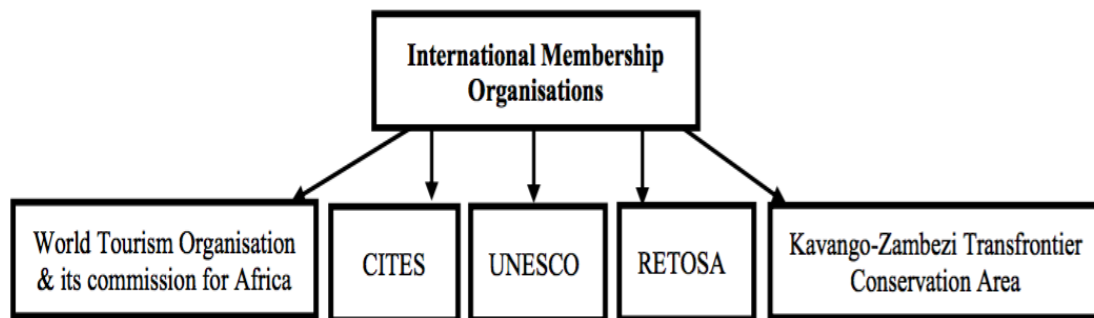


Figure 5.9: Coding Tree – International Membership Organisations

(f) Other cluster of influences - Responses to Crisis

Respondents from both the private and public sector viewed that the destination through various government entities was slow to respond to crises. An example of response to the covid-19 pandemic was referred to. It was observed that despite some of the accommodation providers taking measures that assure international tourists, the DMO and government not increased budgetary allocation to target markets looking for safer destinations. Within the African destinations, an example of Morocco for taking advantage of the covid-19 situation in Europe to promote itself as an alternative destination (interviewee number 2.8).

Second issue related to crises was the lack of industry coordination in the various responses to covid-19, including promotional activities and health facilities friendly to tourism. In comparison to Zimbabwe, the covid-19 tests for travellers were readily available supported by the government and the DMO and far much cheaper than on the Zambian side. In the case of Zambia, there was no organ or government agency coordinating any of the crisis responses. Figure 5.10 summarise the clusters of external influences operating the case study areas of Zambia as a destination. Interesting to note is that there is a possibility of sporadic influences and other unknow-unknowns, such as influence of crises.

During the study, the most active sporadic influence was the outbreak of the Covid-19 pandemic which had affected the travel and tourism industry heavily as other sectors.

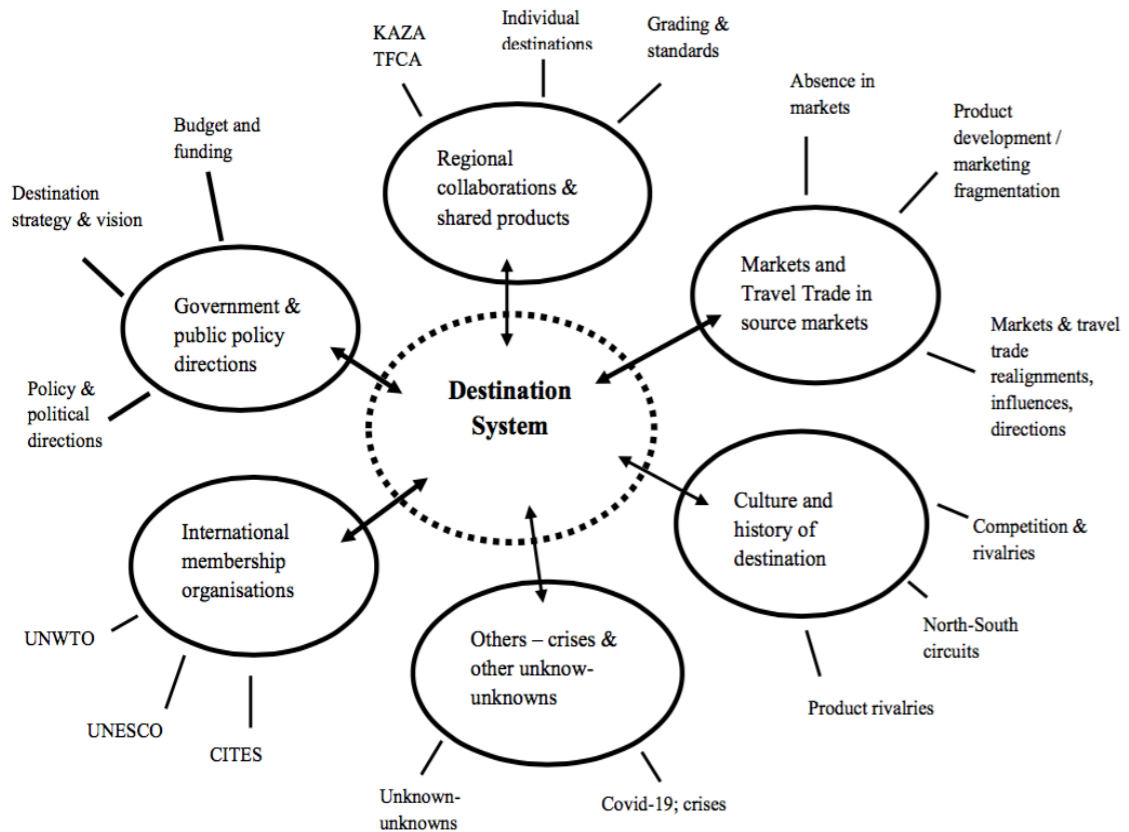


Figure 5.10: Clusters of the most active external complexity influences in the Destination.

5.3.2. Events and Components Category Two Finding Two (2): Path Creation

The destination was found to have created new pathways on the role of destination components and interrelationships with the DMO away from the established institutional and structural arrangements of the destination through policy. Both the DMO and the destination in general were found to exhibit path creation tendencies from the interactions of the human agency and a range of exogenous and endogenous forces. This had made the destination components to break away from established institutional structure and practices to new paths in the role of components. In some cases, this led to the creation of polycentric structures presented later below.

(a) Exogenous and endogenous factors

The active exogenous factors are as presented above. These interacted with the endogenous forces / entities. The endogenous forces that enabled path creation were found to be: (i) rivalries within the destination; (ii) heterogeneity of operators; (iii) localised rules and practices within the industry; (iv) trade associations; and (v) funding models for development and marketing.

The interactions of the above endogenous structures and the exogenous path dependence forces already presented above are summarised in Figure 5.11.

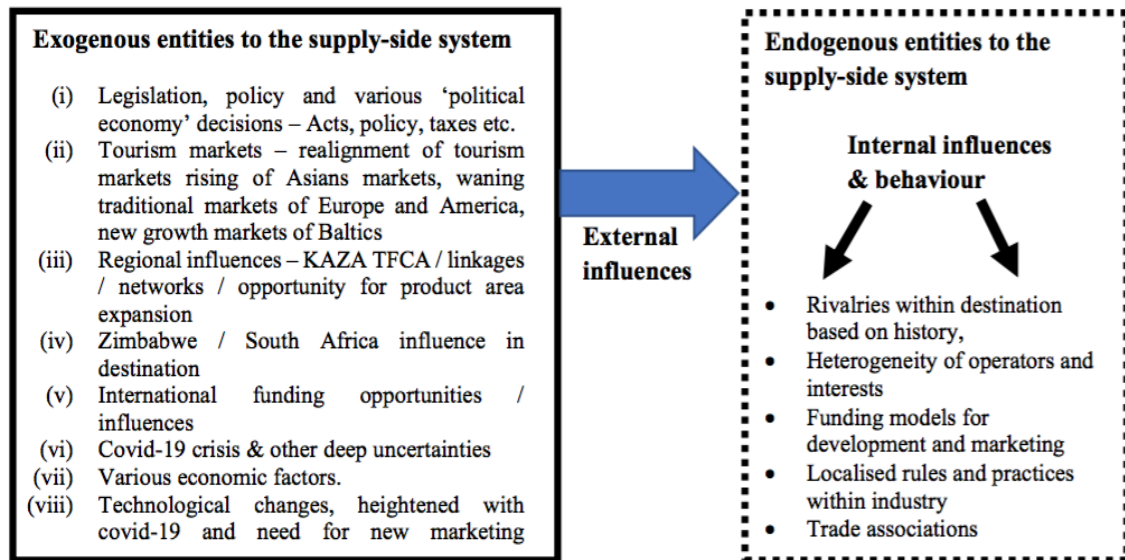


Figure 5.11: Exogenous and Endogenous Influences Associated with Shifting Role of DMO.

(b) Human Agency – Social Structures (Catalysts for change)

The study found that there were a number of social structures active in the destinations (through various interviewees and documents). These social interactions are assumed to be shifting the composition of social structures by modifying internal structures, structured relationships and introduced new ones as witnessed during last ten years (transformation and elaboration) and / or reproduction of destination

existing and necessary structured relationships (morphostasis). The structures found were as follows:

(i) Cultural networks

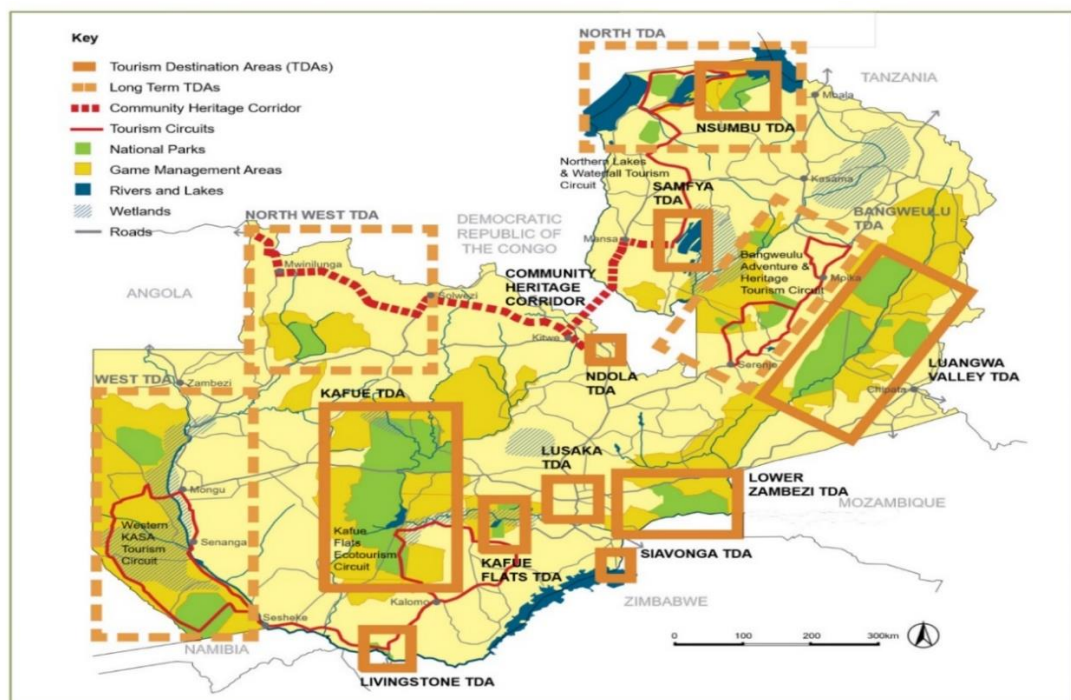
- **Size of businesses:** The active cultural network structures include those based on the ownership among the various tourism industry private-sector operators. The findings were that the small operators, largely locally owned, viewed that the focus of marketing, especially international was skewed in favour of big operations. This tends to create rivalries in the industry, including during policy proposal consultations.
- **Adjacent regional destinations operators:** The other network structure was based on the operators that had high links and collaborations with their counterparts in the neighbouring destinations of Zimbabwe, Namibia, Botswana and South Africa. The interactions were considered to influence the various views in the industry on the Zambian side. Some of the operators ran activities on the other side of the Zambezi River on stand alone or in partnership with operators in Zimbabwe.
- **History and origin of business:** The other regularly found network was based on the countries of origin of the owners or managers of the businesses in the sector. Added to this are the existing strong ties with Britain as former coloniser and the British associated travel trade and businesses.
- **Early settler communities and ties:** The other network found was based on the historical ties of Indian community and Israelis who were among the settlers in the Livingstone area.
- **Shared tourism resources:** The study found close links among tourism industry stakeholders in areas with shared tourism resources and interests. Zambia shares the Victoria Falls with Zimbabwe and the Lower Zambezi National Park borders with a Park across the Zambezi, which also has a UNESCO heritage site, the Mana Pools. Zambia is also part of the Kavango-Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area. Through these shared resources the interactions and influences among the stakeholders is regular.

(ii) Heterogeneity of the Destination and Informal Structures

The findings were that the destination had high levels of heterogeneity of operators, and also regional linkages at meso and micro levels with operators in neighbouring destinations. Heterogeneity was found to be mainly arising from the following:

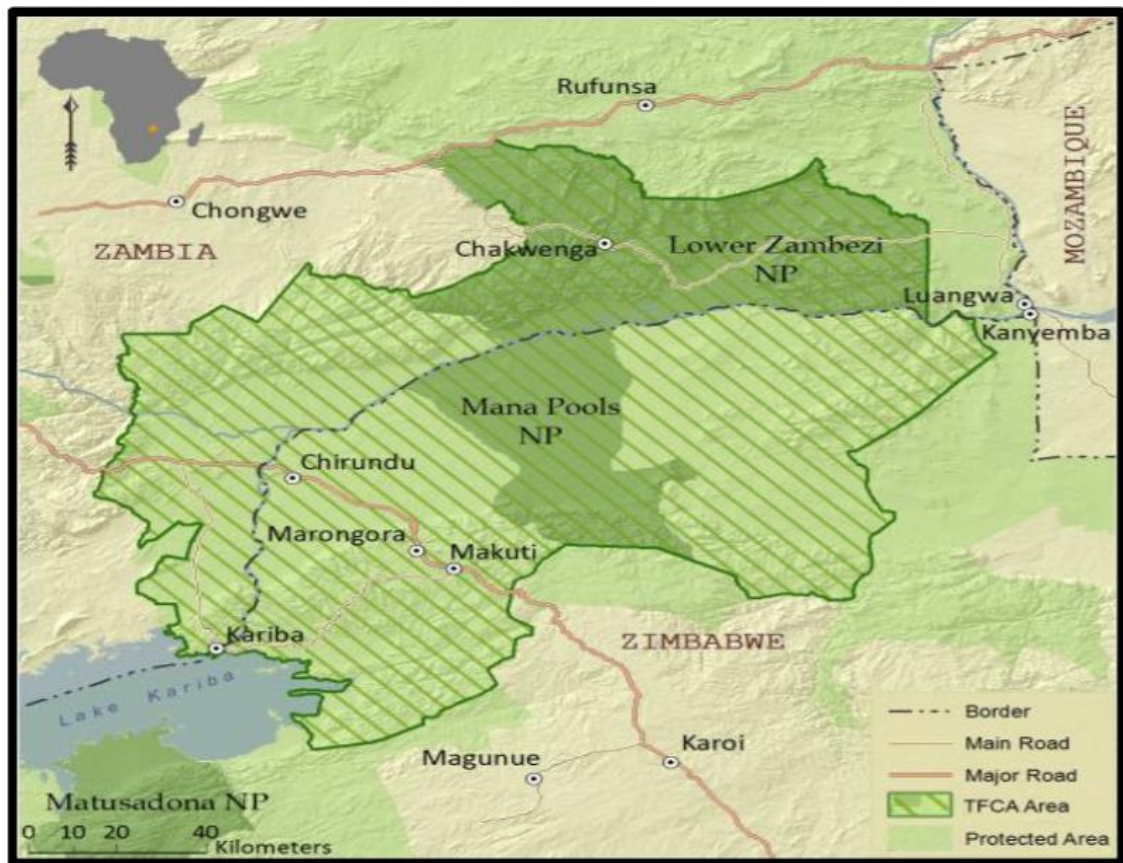
- **Spatial and tourism product circuits and development areas:** The tourism industry is made up highly heterogeneous structures, some of which arise from the geographical / spatial areas of Zambia's tourism product and destination (Map 5.1.). The country has been divided into thirteen tourism development areas, namely Western, North-western, Kafue flats, Livingstone, Siavonga, Lusaka, Lower Zambezi, Luangwa Valley, Ndola, Samfya, Bangweulu, Nsumbu and Northern tourism development areas.

Of the above tourism development areas, the developed ones with relatively older and developed tourism products are the Livingstone, Lusaka, Kafue flats, Luangwa Valley, Lower Zambezi, Nsumbu, Siavonga, some parts of Western like the Liuwa National Park.

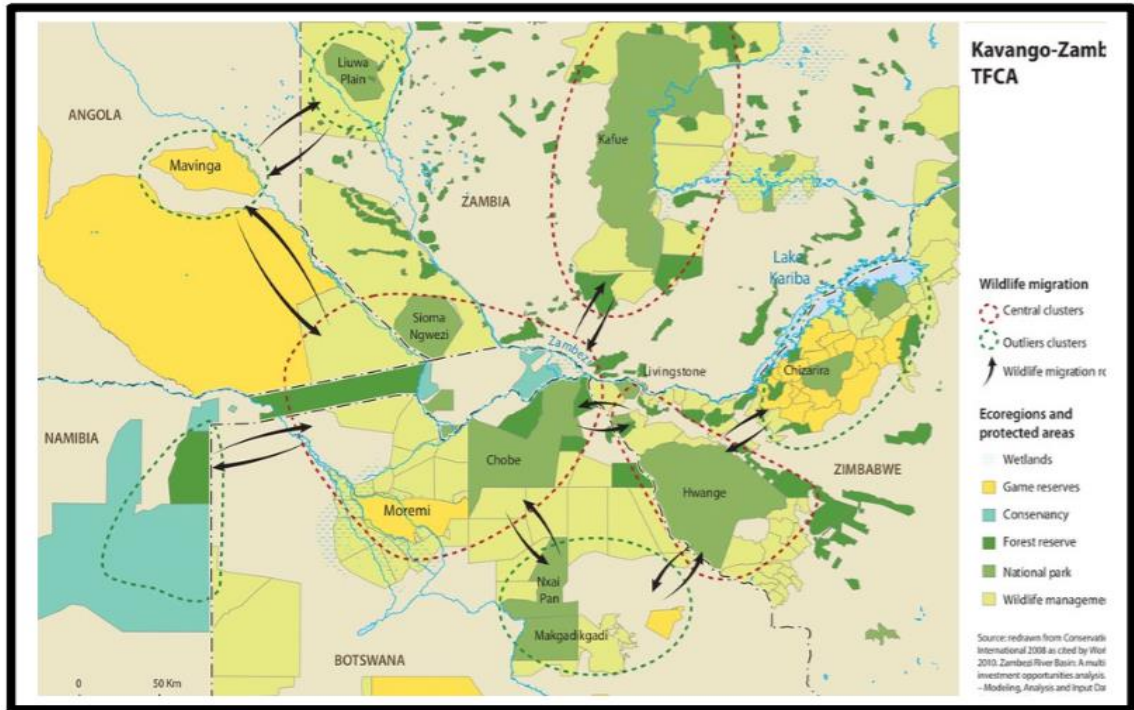


Map 5.1: Destination Tourism Development Areas (Source: Ministry of Tourism and Arts, 2018).

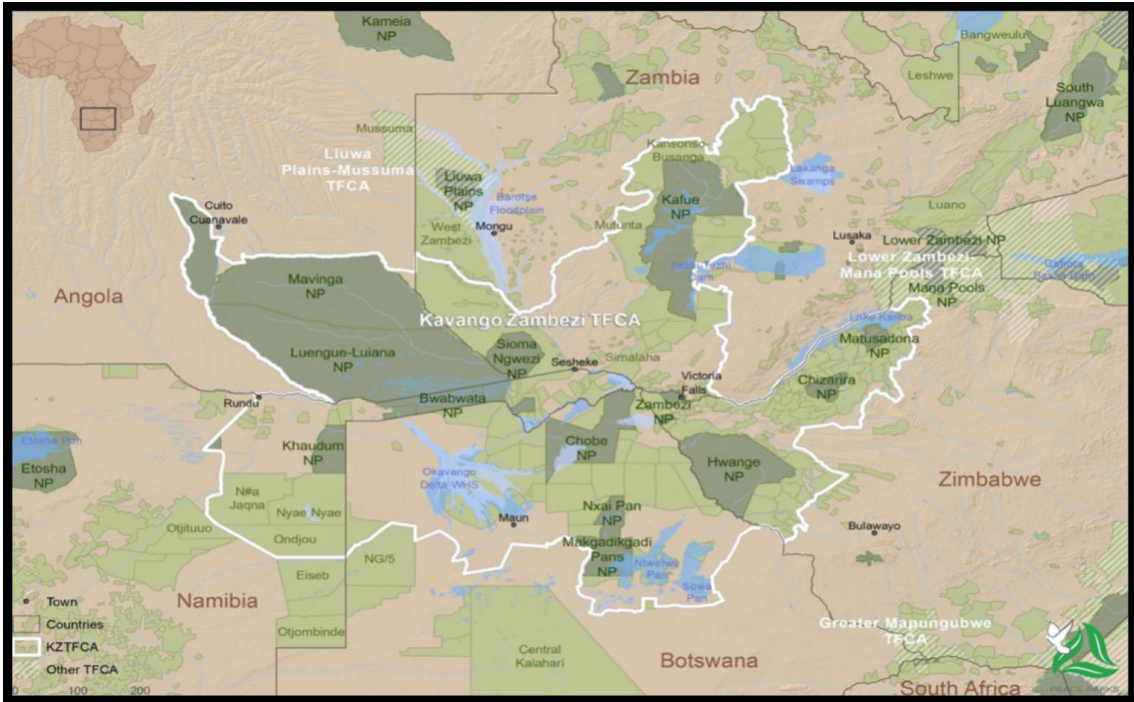
In addition, some of these areas were also part of the transfrontier conservation areas, cutting across geopolitical boundaries of Zambia (Maps 5.2 and 5.3). These are (i) the Western, Livingstone and Kafue flats which are part of the Kavango-Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area (KAZA TFCA) shared with Angola, Botswana, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe; (ii) Lower Zambezi National Park, which is part of the Lower Zambezi-Mana Pools Transfrontier Conservation Area shared between Zambia and Zimbabwe; and (iii) the Luangwa valley in the Malawi-Zambia Transfrontier Conservation Area. The above spatial areas, shared resources and the influences, some of which cuts across geopolitical boundaries has increased heterogeneity of the destination system components.



Map 5.2: Lower Zambezi – Mana Pools Transfrontier Conservation Area (Source: SADC Portal).



Map 5.3: Kavango-Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area (Source: Peace Parks Foundation).



Map 5.4: Kavango-Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area (KAZA TFCA) (Source: Peace Parks Foundation).

- **Various destination attributes, links and diversity:** In addition to heterogeneity based on spatial areas and shared resources through transfrontier conservation areas, the destination was also found to have the following sources of heterogeneity: (a) Regional networks and reliance of destination for marketing, products and transportation; (b) Historical links with markets of United Kingdom and other commonwealth countries; (c) Rules and practices in some cases where there is variance with interests of operators, based on shared resources and common product areas like Livingstone, operators create informal rules with neighbouring destinations for their common benefits; (d) Local networks of operators with neighbouring destinations; (e) Networks based on origin of brands, ownership and history; (f) Sub sector competition; (g) History of ownership / management of businesses and countries of origin; and (h) in some cases unwritten rules and localised arrangements with Zimbabwean operators.

(iii) Positioned practices in the destination and Relations in the tourism sector / destination

The destination was found to have a number of positioned practices and relations mainly arising from the following: (i) Culture and history of ownership and / or management of businesses and countries of origin of some international investments in the tourism sector, most notable was found to be South Africa; (ii) Individual networks with operators in neighbouring destinations and influences that some of the private sector operators enjoyed; (iii) Industry rivalries among the different sub-sectors; (iv) Industry networks; (v) Years of operating in the industry; and (vi) tourism assets and resources sharing within the destination and across geopolitical boundaries.

(c) New Pathways – other destination components

From the interactions of exogenous forces, endogenous factors and human agency, both the DMO and other destination components showed new path ways. This happens when “entrepreneurs deliberately seek to break away from established

institutional structures and practice, and reframe their thinking and approach along new pathways” (Brouder *et al.*, 2017). According to Garud and Karnøe (2001) this entails “to dissembled from existing structures defining relevance and also the ability to mobilize a collective despite resistance and inertia that path creation efforts will likely encounter”. The new path ways for the destination system components, other than the DMO were found be of two types, as follows:

- Regional, informal alliances and collaborations by operators within the KAZA TFCA and other destinations; and
- Collaboration / product linkages with Zimbabwean operators.

The two polycentric structures formed as alternative pathways to the DMO found in the southern circuit case area were as below.

(i) Destination Livingstone Initiative (DLI)

Destination Livingstone Initiative was formed in 2019 as a private sector-led initiative. Initially it focused on raising resources and coordinating some development activities of Livingstone as a destination. This included facelift of the town of Livingstone in terms of infrastructure and general image of the destination. The underlying motivation the formation of the DLI was found to be twofold. First, the refocus of tourism public infrastructure investment and promotion by policy, including annual budgets towards the northern circuit. This was viewed by respondents as not adhering to the Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018-2038, which had prioritised the southern and eastern tourism development areas ahead of the northern circuit, and it therefore, threatened the development of the southern circuit. Destination Livingstone Initiative was formed to continue with development of the Livingstone tourism area for “fear of the government neglecting Livingstone and creating an intra-destination competitor, not likely to collaborate with the Livingstone destination within Zambia”. These ‘fears’ were worsened by the Auditors General’s Performance Audit of 2020 which reported decreasing length-of-stay of international tourist in Zambia as a destination from an average of six in 2013 to four by 2019. It was viewed that there was likelihood that tourists extended their visits in other destinations within the region, especially the

neighbouring destination of Victoria Falls Town in Zimbabwe, and therefore skewing policy more towards the northern circuit was viewed as likely to shift tourists without necessarily increasing the length-of-stay metric in Zambia. This was because, among others, the cost structure of the tourism in Zambia, including Jet A1 fuel, visa fees and various taxes, and limited bed space on the Zambian side were viewed as pushing the cost of the destination higher.

The study found an interesting feature in the destination's reaction. While policy viewed the investments in the northern circuit as good for the overall destination to improve the tourism metrics of length-of-stay that are going down, and tourism-spend and international tourist arrivals, some operators in sub destinations reacted differently from policy expectations. The northern circuit despite being important in policy to increase length-of-stay in the destinations, some sub destinations viewed it as a potential competitor with established destinations, and opted to collaborate with other regional destinations to offset likely market share loss through intra-destination competition. Because of the historical ties and closely shared tourism resources, Livingstone operators found it easier to collaborate and partner with Zimbabwean operators in the Victoria Falls town area. This could be used as an illustration of some of the nonlinear and policy resistance phenomena within the destination. While policy assumed that by public investment and policy emphasis through budgets on the northern circuit, other circuits in the south view the northern circuit as a potential competitor and unlikely to increase length-of-stay and arrivals in Zambia. Some respondents in Livingstone and Kafue Eco system viewed that because of shared resources and proximity and connectivity by air and road of the southern circuit with other highly developed destinations in Zimbabwe, Botswana and Namibia it was more beneficial for businesses to collaborate with these destinations. These neighbouring destinations also had higher Figures from the major international source markets of Europe and Americas.

The second underlying motivation was that within its infancy, Destination Livingstone Initiative begun changing course towards the need to both coordinate and promote the

destination as a top agenda. Partly, this shift was ‘accidental’ because of an international funding agency, Prospero (supported by UK aid of the United Kingdom) that extended funds to marketing and management related support under its collaborative management partnership model for tourism. This was in addition to supporting product development activities it started with. Destination Livingstone Initiative seized this opportunity, and included marketing and management activities in its plans and proposals to Prospero.

Destination Livingstone Initiative, as a structure was found to have grown to include the following features:

- Development of its own strategic plan in 2019, the Destination Management Plan for Livingstone, Zambia, with support from Prospero, which had a large component of destination marketing on behalf of the members;
- Employing fulltime member of staff;
- It had gotten its own board, with slots for the government and other quasi-government institutions, among others;
- It was receiving government support, including in undertaking promotional activities;
- Is engaged in financial mobilisation for the implementation of its strategic plan activities, and is already receiving support part support from Prospero and members; and
- It was also forging links with operators in the adjacent destination of Zimbabwe.

Documentary review showed that Destination Livingstone Initiative also viewed its role to, among others, respond to competition and in its strategic plans, “to champion the wonder of our nature (Victoria Falls and others)” and “be the hub and host for Zambia and beyond” (Acorn Tourism Development Consultants, 2021). But the underlying purpose was to make Livingstone competitive among Zambian sub destinations. Learning and knowledge creation within the initiative has been

emphasised as an important component of moving towards sustainability of the destination.

(ii) Victoria Falls Regional Tourism Association (‘Africa’s Eden’) – Path to sustainability of the destination market

The Victoria Falls Regional Tourism Association (TVFRTA) (dubbed ‘Africa’s Eden’) on the Zambian side included the Livingstone area and had membership from Botswana, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe in an area in the Kavango-Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area (KAZA TFCA). The KAZA TFCA is one of the eighteen Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region. KAZA TFCA was initiated in 2006 and formally created in 2011 and was owned and led by the governments of the five participating countries that converge into the Okavango and Zambezi river basins, namely Angola, Botswana, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Its aim was “to establish a world class transfrontier conservation area and tourism destination area in the Okavango and Zambezi river-basin regions of Angola, Botswana, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe within the context of sustainable development” (Ministry of Tourism and Arts, 2011).

The KAZA TFCA is the world’s largest conservation area, at approximately 520,000 square kilometres that include thirty-six national parks, a host of game reserves and natural resources. These included the Chobe National Park, Kafue National Park, the Makgadikgadi pans, the Okavango Delta and Victoria Falls.

The Victoria Falls Regional Tourism Association (TVFRTA) was created by the private sector operators in 2020 in the four of the five the KAZA TFCA partner states, partly in response to “stories in the international and local press that were affecting the perceptions of our travellers (and) that some private sector occupancies were declining” (TVFRTA, 2020). The TVFRTA was funded by the private sector and focuses on the region rather than individual country destinations like DMOs do, so as to provide “cohesive marketing for this region to attract the tourism economy that

supports an estimated 2 million people” and viewed that “it was important to look at the country as part of the region” and “the private sector wanted controlled and guiding mechanisms for the destination marketing” (TVFRTA, 2020). TVFRTA aimed at promoting the “World wonder, the Victoria Falls, and the KAZA TFCA wildlife estate that surrounds it” as a private sector multi-country destination marketing association. Membership included large tourism companies in the region, small tour operators, activities companies and suppliers to the tourism industry.

At government level, one of the initiatives within KAZA TFCA was the implementation of the KAZA uni-visa between Zambia and Zimbabwe that enabled international tourists to use one visa for entry into both Zambia and Zimbabwe.

On the Zambian side, the path to move beyond the constraints of a diminishing market and threat of the northern circuit towards a regional partnership marketing and management arrangement in the Livingstone destination’s long-term sustainability goals were consolidated by one of the old and charismatic operators. The engagement with other stakeholders, especially operators in both Zambia and Zimbabwe, had led to several private sector operators subscribing to the initiative and its approach. Collectively, they are championing the “idea of creating an innovative, comprehensive integrated sustainability plan – the first of its kind for a resort destination” (Brouder *et al.*, 2017).

(iii) Informal Partnerships

The other destination sustainability and growth initiative found was the informal rules and delineation of the Livingstone area with operators in the adjacent destination of Victoria Falls in Zimbabwe. These informal partnerships included creation of own destination boundaries away from the geopolitical boundary and setting up rules, and guidelines on how to operate and market some shared products within the Victoria Falls area away from the formal rules and policy.

5.3.3. Events and Components Category Two Finding Three (3): Policy Resistant, Self-reinforcing Structural, Cognitive and Political Lock-in

The destination system components were also found to have what could be considered as active self-reinforcing forces that constrained or accelerated changes in the path dependence trajectory that operated at the micro, meso and macro levels of the destination as shown in Figure 5.12. Through various interviews and documentary review these entities were found to include:

- Rivalries within destination based on history and origin of brands;
- Rivalries based on circuits, notably between the north and south circuits;
- Heterogeneity of operators and their diverse interests;
- Localised rules and practices within industry in shared products areas with neighbours Heterogeneity of operators and regional linkages at meso and micro levels with operators in neighbouring destinations;
- Regional networks and reliance of destination for marketing, products, transportation and so on;
- Rules and practices at variance in common product areas like Livingstone, where operators enjoyed informal rules with neighbours;
- Local networks created of operators with neighbouring destinations;
- Networks created based on origin of brands, ownership and history;
- Sub sector competitions;
- Culture prominence of history of ownership / management of businesses and countries of origin surface; and
- Development of unwritten rules and localised arrangements with Zimbabwean operators.

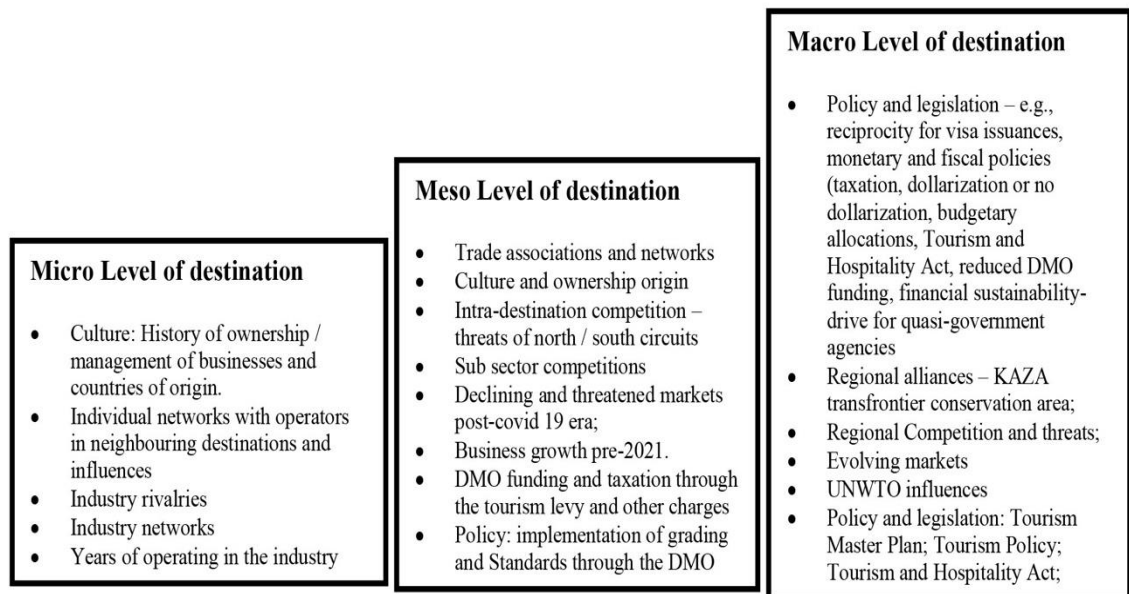


Figure 5.12: Active Lock-in Entities at Micro, Meso and Macro Levels.

5.3.4. Events and Components Category Two Finding Four (4): Moments and Major Epochs - Triggers

(a) Major Epochs in History of the Destination

Through various documentary reviews and interviews, the study found that Zambia as destination in relation to its history could be described in four major epochs, and have possible relevance to the description of the current behaviour. These epochs and major incidences are as follows:

- (a) **Pre-1996:** During this era tourism was primarily considered as a social sector and most of the investments in the sector were government-led under the huge quasi-government entities and companies. It was considered as a support social industry to the then booming economic sectors, mainly mining industries and quasi government entities in commercial businesses. During this era the DMO was under the ministry responsible for information and broadcasting, and played a promotional role, with minimal international marketing activities. Activities were mostly of coordinating and it owned some of the actual tourism products, such as Kalala lodge and Chunga Safari Camp in the Kafue National Park.

During this era, tourism was not viewed from the industrial perspective and potential for socioeconomic development. It follows that the DMO was not used as a tool for driving public policy for economic and development benefits to the country. Secondly, it is worth noting that in the case of Zambia, the DMO came earlier than a dedicated ministry that was created in the early 1990s. Among others, this entailed that tourism was hitherto not a major public policy issue. The creation of a ministry also meant reconsideration of roles among public institutions, including the DMO.

(b) **1996 to 2004 Era:** The highlights of this era include the reclassification of tourism from being a social to an economic sector; collapse of public sector business investment companies, followed by massive privatisation in tourism; entry of a number of international investments in the sector; and conversion of the DMO to be a government tool for socioeconomic interests of the tourism. By 2004, Zambia became classified as an emerging destination and tourism had been prioritised as a key alternative economic diversification sector from the largely mining dependence. The other two sectors that were prioritised by policy were agriculture and manufacturing. This created an aura around tourism and interest from various stakeholder begun rising. In terms of policy view of the DMO, it became a policy tool for the tourism industry to achieve various socioeconomic development objectives, such as job creation and increased foreign exchange earnings from tourism industry. Its role at this stage included some regulatory and licensing functions, in addition to marketing.

At regional level, Zambia became a member of the Regional Tourism Organisation (RETOSA) formed by the Southern African Development Community (SADC). The World Tourism Organisation also began to exert more influence on destinations in policy guidance and various definition of roles, including that of DMOs.

Other highlights during this era include:

- Sub region African safari destinations expanded, with the inclusion of South African destinations, such as the Kruger National Park. This entailed increased competition but also opportunity for regional safari circuits.
- International tourism preferences begin to change to include rising concern of the environment and conservation, and Zambia as a destination begun incorporating it in various marketing and regulatory function;
- Wildlife and national parks function moved from being a government department to newly created quasi-government entity, Zambia Wildlife Authority, with the goal of making the wildlife sub sector more to tourism and growing conservation requirements; and
- With the stand-alone ministry responsible for tourism, a number of reforms were done to realign the functions between the ministry and other bodies under it, including the DMO. Additionally, other quasi government entities created and brought under the same ministry, such as the Hotel and Tourism Training Institute (HTTI) (being transformed into a university at the time of the current study).

(c) **2005 to 2007 Era:** By all means, the 1996 to 2004 and the 2005 and to 2007 eras saw massive changes in the tourism industry in general and realignment of functions in the destination, including roles of the DMO. Changes included developing a national tourism policy, review of legislation, policy prioritisation of tourism as an economic sector. Tourism international arrival Figures also grew massively from average 400,000 in 2004 to over 800, 000 by 2007. The highlights of this era include:

- Approval of the first official national tourism policy for the tourism industry;
- Review of legislation in 2007 to restrict DMO to the marketing function and transferring the licensing, policy and destination management functions to the ministry responsible for tourism;
- Increased private ownership of businesses, including international brands, mainly from South Africa;
- Tourism Council of Zambia (TCZ) is recognised by legislation;

- Rapid changes in consumer tastes, including preference for ‘green’ destinations;
- Various technological, economical changes in destination and tourists, including marketing channels of communication; and
- Increased call for review of DMO role begun immediately after the review of legislation through the two Acts, the Zambia Tourism Board Act Number 24 of 2007 and the Tourism and Hospitality Act Number 23 of 2007.

(d) **2007 to date:** This was era had been defining in the DMO role and expectations of stakeholders. Some of the key milestones are shown below, including legislation, policy reviews, development of the first master plan for the destination and heightened changes in the conceptualisation of tourism destinations. Included has also been the increased calls for review of the role of the DMO and other stakeholders in the destination, and focus to open new tourism development areas and products, especially the northern circuit. the major developments during this era include:

- Another review of both the tourism legislation and policy in 2015. Legislation on tourism included creation of Tourism Development Fund (TDF), that is entailed levying accommodation facilities; providing for standards and grading system that Zambia did not have hitherto, and providing for its implementation through a statutory instrument in 2018;
- 2018 development of second tourism master plan for the country;
- Between 2011 and 2014, several movement of the DMO and other government agencies to different ministries;
- In 2014 the government through an Act of parliament dissolved the Zambia Wildlife Authority (ZAWA) and transferred its functions to the ministry as a department of wildlife;
- There was also regular board turnover of the DMO, increased calls for review of its role yet again; and
- Zambia becoming part of the five countries to create the Kavango-Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area (KAZA TFCA) in 2006 and making it operational in 2011.

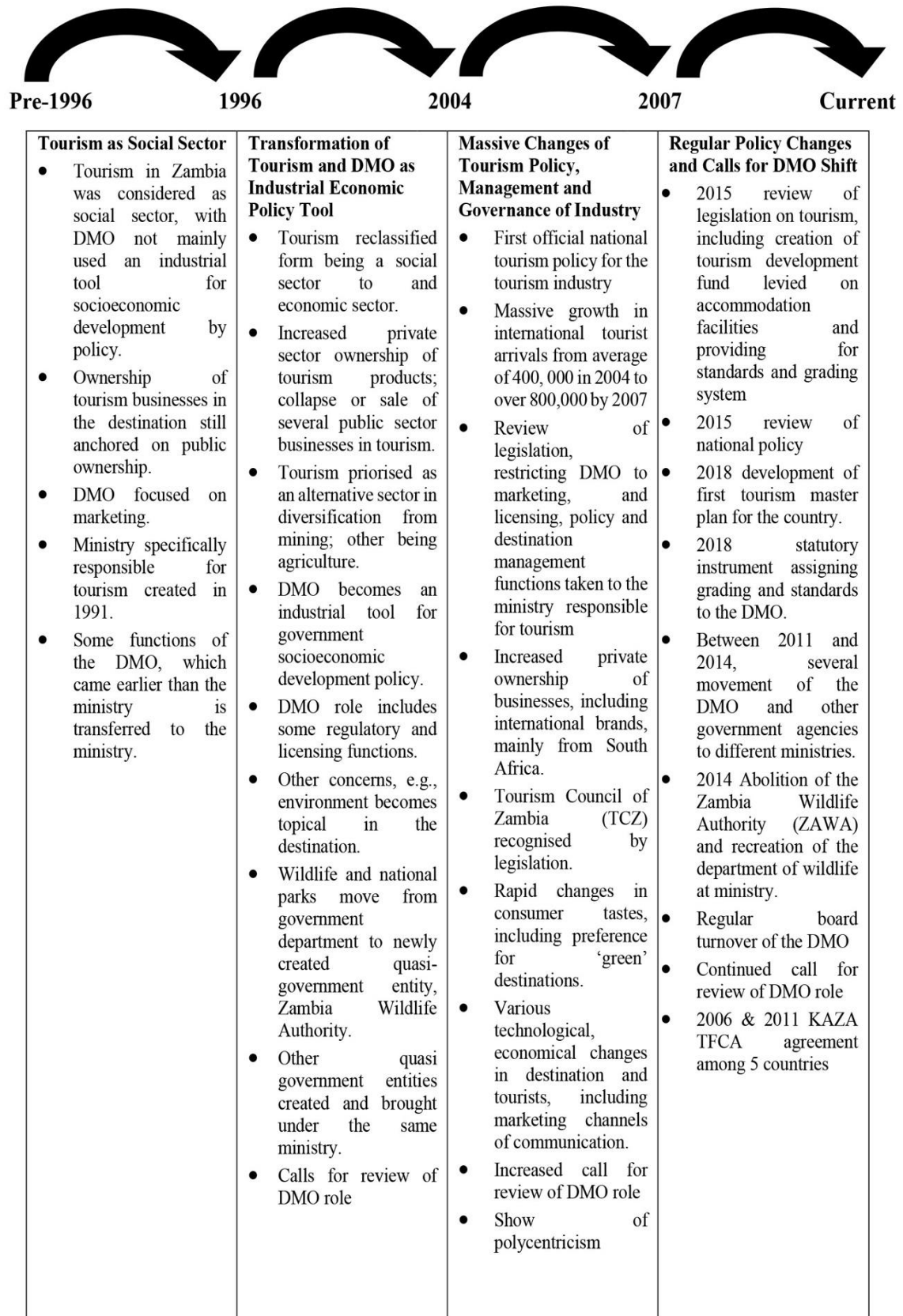


Figure 5.13: Major Destination Epochs: Pre-1996 to 2021.

(b) Moments / Triggers

(i) Pre - Moment Scape: From the above events, the pre-moment scape that prepared the destination system to be on the current trajectory in regard to the DMO phenomena were found to include the following:

- The shift of the tourism industry from being social to an economic sector through policy reclassification in 1996 and eventual policy and legislation changes;
- Privatisation of tourism state enterprises and influx of tourism private sector investments from South Africa;
- The Zambia Tourism Policy of 1997 and 2005 and the 2007 legislation changes that, among others, separated product development and licensing on one hand and destination marketing on the other. The two were assigned to the department of tourism at the ministry and the DMO, respectively; and
- The sliding economic situation and slump in tourism economy in the adjacent destination of Zimbabwe from the early 2000s.

One of the prominent pre-moment scape was the feature of layering, which added new actors, institutions and relations in the destination system. The following were found:

- A review of documents showed that the changes to the tourism policy in 2005 and eventual legislation amendments of 2007 that recognised the Tourism Council of Zambia (TCZ) by law added new actors and relationship in the destination. this changed the relationships among the destination system components; and
- Some of the legislation changes were considered to be layering by some respondents. One respondent in Livingstone noted as follows:
“The 2007 and 2015 legislation change was more of a personal agenda; the problems that were attempted to be resolved by the change of the law could have been resolved without changing the Act because it had to do with the organisational structure at the ministry, removal or change of functions without resolving the issue of the structure will not solve the problem”.

(ii) Moments: From the above events what appears to be moments and active triggers of social interactions that set the trajectory for the current DMO phenomena are as below.

- **Kavango-Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area (KAZA) and other TCAs:** Zambia becoming part of the five countries to create the Kavango-Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area (KAZA TFCA) in 2006 and making it operational in 2011 created both threats and opportunities to the private sector operators and the DMO. The signing of the KAZA UNIVISA between Zambia and Zimbabwe in November 2014 as a direction towards the KAZA visa initiative confirmed the direction of the TFCAs. The KAZA UNIVISA initiative allows travellers to move across partner countries without applying for visas for each country. The stakeholders' expectations of the DMO role within the KAZA initiative, with its increased opportunities and threats vis-à-vis exiting public policy on DMO role and destination organisation was viewed to be inadequate and out of date.
- **High Policy and legislation turnovers between 2007 and 2018:** The regular various legislations and policy changes between 2007 and current, including Tourism and Hospitality Act of 2015, tourism funding, creation of the Tourism Development Fund and the standard and grading system have triggered debate and renewed open questions on the DMO role.
- **Zambia Tourism Master Plan of 2018-2038:** In 2018, the government launched the Tourism Master Plan. This even brought with it a spiral of open questions and renewed debate on the organisation of roles of components in the destination system and direction of tourism development. One of the major trigger has been the destination overall strategy and vision from public policy view vi-a-vis that of private sector operators in terms of target market and product development.
- **Tourism markets and Lowering tourism performance metrics in the destination:** The performance metrics of tourism, especially the length-of-stay was noted to have gone down from an average of six days in 2013 to four days by 2019. However, the

policy goals of government to improve performance these metrics triggered an evolutionary path elsewhere, contrary to policy intentions. The government among the measures was to refocus development of tourism to the northern circuit so as to supplement and / or offer an alternative to the highly visited southern circuit. This policy goal was mainly to improve length-of-stay and other metrics, such as tourist-spend in the destination, because while the length-of-stay was going down, actual international arrivals showed growth during the same period from international tourist arrivals showed growth from 931,782 in 2015 to 1,266,427 in 2019.

However, the above focus has triggered different reactions from operators in the southern circuit who view it as competition and were instead found to have resorted look for partnerships away from the destination. Additionally, it also triggered debate on the role of the DMO in leading a coordinated marketing and well-managed destination.

The above is worsened by tourism markets direction that appear to be realigning with rising of Asians markets, waning traditional markets of Europe and America, new growth markets of Baltics; growing worldwide outbound tourism; and increased influences of wholesalers and buyers.

- **Budgeting and funding:** The lowering budget for the DMO from the government from 2013 has triggered open questions on, among others, the DMO business and funding model.
- **Others – crises (adjacent Zimbabwe problems and COVID-19):** The adjacent destination of Zimbabwe went through turbulent resulting from severe economic difficulties due to sanctions by major international long-haul source markets of Europe and United States of America. This created a crisis for the destination which in some areas, such as Livingstone and Lower Zambezi product resources.

The other crisis in the recent past was the outbreak of COVID -19, which disrupted the tourism and travel industry worldwide. The search for solutions and alternatives has led to trigger of open question on role of the DMO and other components such as the government and private sector. Governance structures and policies are also being questioned.

5.4. Description of Events and Identified Components Category Three: Non-Linear Dynamism, Combinatorics and Opportunity Tension

The study also found some exhibitions in the destination system of other events and components which could be ascribed to the unique nature of the destination system complexity. The findings as shown in Table 5.3, were found to be: (a) nonlinear combinatorics; (b) linear combinatorics; (c) opportunity tension dynamics arising from complexity of the destination systems; and (d) co-evolutions among the DMO, operators and adjacent destinations.

Table 5.3: Category Three Findings - Destination Complexity.

	CATEGORY THREE FINDINGS – COMPLEXITY SYSTEM EVENTS AND COMPONENTS
FINDING 1	The destination system was found to exhibit non-linear dynamisms and reactions from policy stimuli.
FINDING 2	Combinatorial productivity- at meso and micro levels of the destination there were a number of active entities.
FINDING 3	The destination was found to have strong indications of active opportunity tension driven mostly by markets, product development, regional events and history of the destination.
FINDING 4	Co-evolution - the interactions of the operators, adjacent destination, DMO and some of the path dependence forces were found to exhibit co-evolution.

5.4.1. Events and Components Category Three Finding One (1): Non-linear Dynamism and Combinatorics

Dynamism and made the destination system components to behave differently from policy intentions and expectations in some situations and policy interventions. The most prominent that appeared in the data were: (a) the destination response to the Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018-2038, its implementation and the various decisions at policy level associated with it; and (b) the implementation of the Tourism Development Fund (TDF) that is provided for in the Tourism and Hospitality Act Number 13 of 2015. The highlights of these two are as below.

(a) Destination System Response to Policy and Tourism Master Plan Implementation

In 2018, the government launched the second Zambia Tourism Master Plan for 2018 to 2038. Included in the master plan are prioritised tourism development area, with ten prioritised areas of Livingstone, Kafue National Park, Kafue flats, Lusaka, Siavonga, Luangwa Valley, Samfya, Ndola and the Nsumbu area. However, the destination components had responded differently, underlying nonlinear combinatorics to display emergentism as outcome. The components showed the behaviour of delays and policy resistance.

To improve performance metrics of tourism, especially the length-of-stay, which was noted to have gone down from an average of six days in 2013 to four days by 2019, the government among the measures was to refocus development of tourism to the northern circuit so as to supplement and / or offer an alternative to the highly visited southern circuit. The policy goal was mainly to improve length-of-stay and other metrics, such as tourist-spend in the destination, because while the length-of-stay was going down, actual international arrivals showed growth during the same period from international tourist arrivals showed growth from 931,782 in 2015 to 1,266,427 in 2019.

Figure 5.14. is a simplified illustration of nonlinear destination response to the introduction of the tourism master plan in the destination systems. Once the master plan

was launched in 2018, there was a delay in visible reactions of the destination system components and then showed nonlinear reactions, visible by 2020.

However, while the policy goal was to improve the falling tourism metrics, especially the length-of-stay, the reaction of the sub destinations and other components had been different from policy expectations. Instead, the system created a spiral of reactions likely to yield the opposite of the expectations, such as collaborating with operators in the neighbouring Zimbabwe to ‘protect the destination’, initiated private sector-led resource mobilisation away from the government and DMO with operators in Zimbabwe and others, and embarked on private sector-led activities in markets kept as ‘black boxes’ to the DMO and public policy.

Some private-sector operators interviewed also viewed that the quicker way of improving performance metrics included first exploiting the Sioma-Liuwa and the Kafue ecosystem which was part of or closer and some cases shared natural resources with the southern circuit and already flourishing destinations in Botswana, Namibia and Zimbabwe (Interviewee Numbers 2.1; 2.6; 3.1). So, some components within the system opted to partner and collaborate with operators in the region to market and manage the larger KAZA TFCA. This led to the opposite of the policy goal, and possibly increased the DMO pressure for performance and resources to engage in countering competition generated by policy goal to improve the situation.

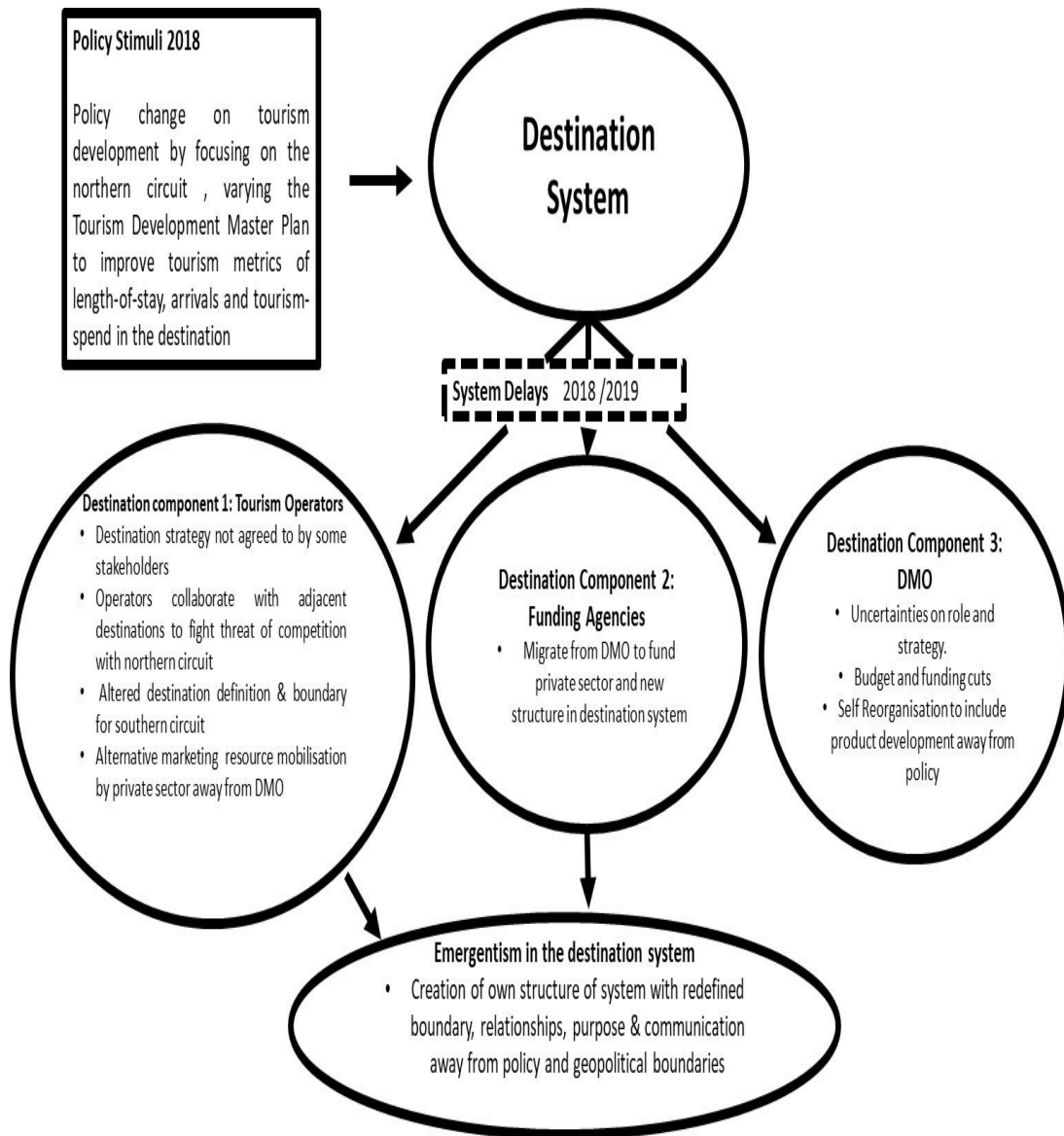


Figure 5.14: Simplified illustration of Nonlinear Destination Response.

(b) Destination funding model through Tourism Development Fund – Policy Resistance

In the Tourism and Hospitality Act Number 13 of 2015, there was a fund that was raised as a levy on accommodation providers in the tourism industry. The fund was envisioned for tourism destination marketing, product development, infrastructure development, research and training. However, in course of implementation the reaction of system was

different from policy anticipation. As in the case of the implementation of the Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018-2038, some of the components within the system resorted to spiral actions, leading to the likely failing of the fund, as shown in the Figure 5.15.

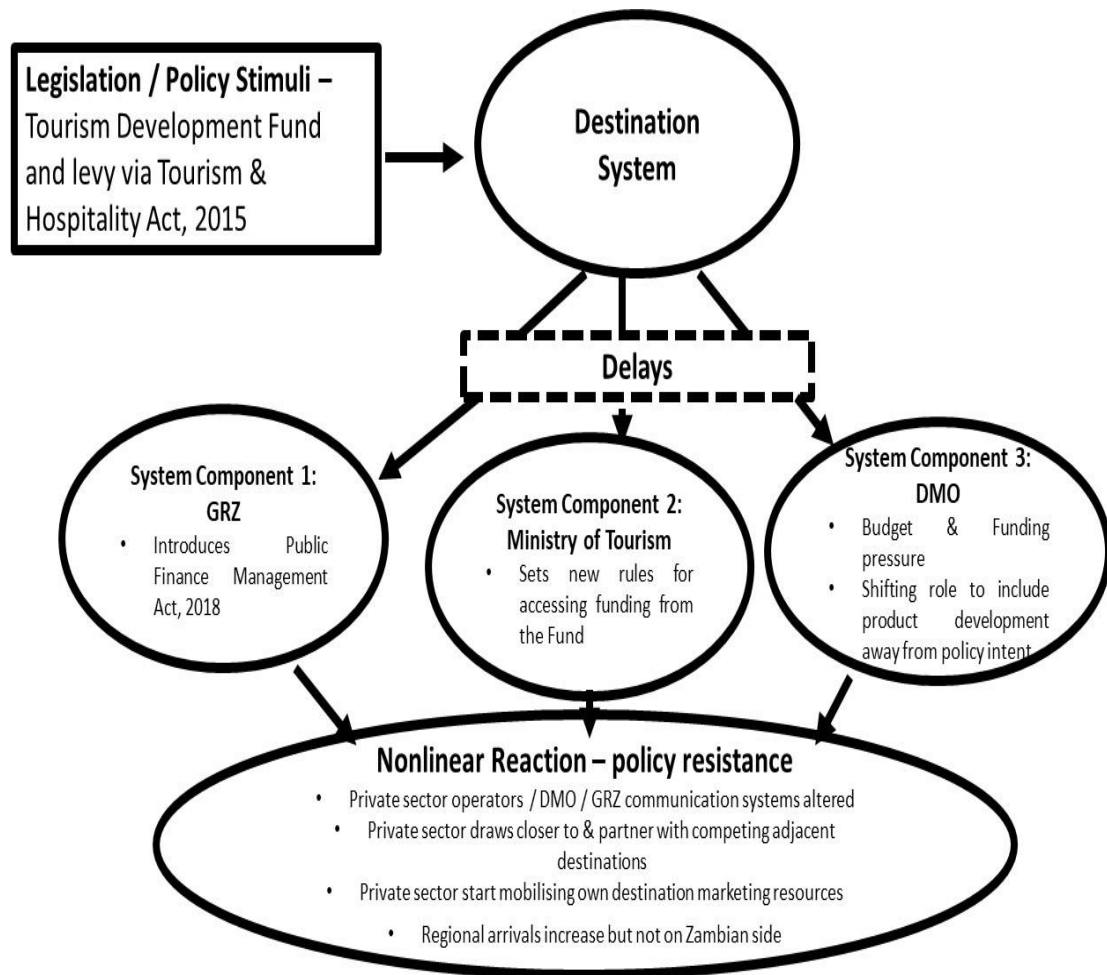


Figure 5.15: Nonlinear Combinatorics Leading to Policy Resistance.

The components in the destination behaved as follows: at (1) the government introduced the Public Finance Management Act Number 1 of 2018, which made it mandatory for all funds to be deposited in the Central Bank account thereby lengthening access by the industry; at (2) the Ministry of Tourism introduced rules and regulations for the administration of the funds that made it difficult and based on project-to-project that made

planning for it and even access difficult; at (3) the DMO was unable to access the funds for its activities easily and instead proposed to undertake product development activities which were easier to justify to the committee responsible for approval of projects; (4) private sector became suspicious and opts to raise its own funds for destination marketing and management activities; and at (5) competition for the DMO is increased and as possibility arrivals would increase in Zimbabwe instead of Zambia.

5.4.2. Events and Components Category Three Finding Two (2): Combinatorial Productivity

At micro and meso levels the study found a number of active entities, in rather woven way. But generally, when categorised into input layer, hidden layer and out layer, the findings showed that the active entities in the case study area were as shown in Figure 5.16. The input layer consisted of the various public policy directions and influences, such as the tourism master plan, the changes in legislation and reduced destination marketing budgetary allocations. Others were found to be reducing international market shares, changes in the tastes and conceptualisation of destinations, DMO absence in markets targeted by the private sector operators and influences of the Kavango-Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area (KAZA-TCA) membership by Zambia.

The hidden layer was mainly found to be the tourism industry rivalries based on geographical / circuits and product types; informal collaborations, and channels of communication of Zambian operators with adjacent destinations operators; and private sector – public sector mistrusts. The outer layer was found to consist of polycentricism, informal destination governance arrangements of the private sector among themselves and the private sector by-passing the DMO in some activities. The context layer interacting with the hidden layer elements included destination and operators histories, destination structural arrangements, cost structure of the tourism industry, heterogeneity of the destination, regional links and interdependence and limited destination capacities in some areas.

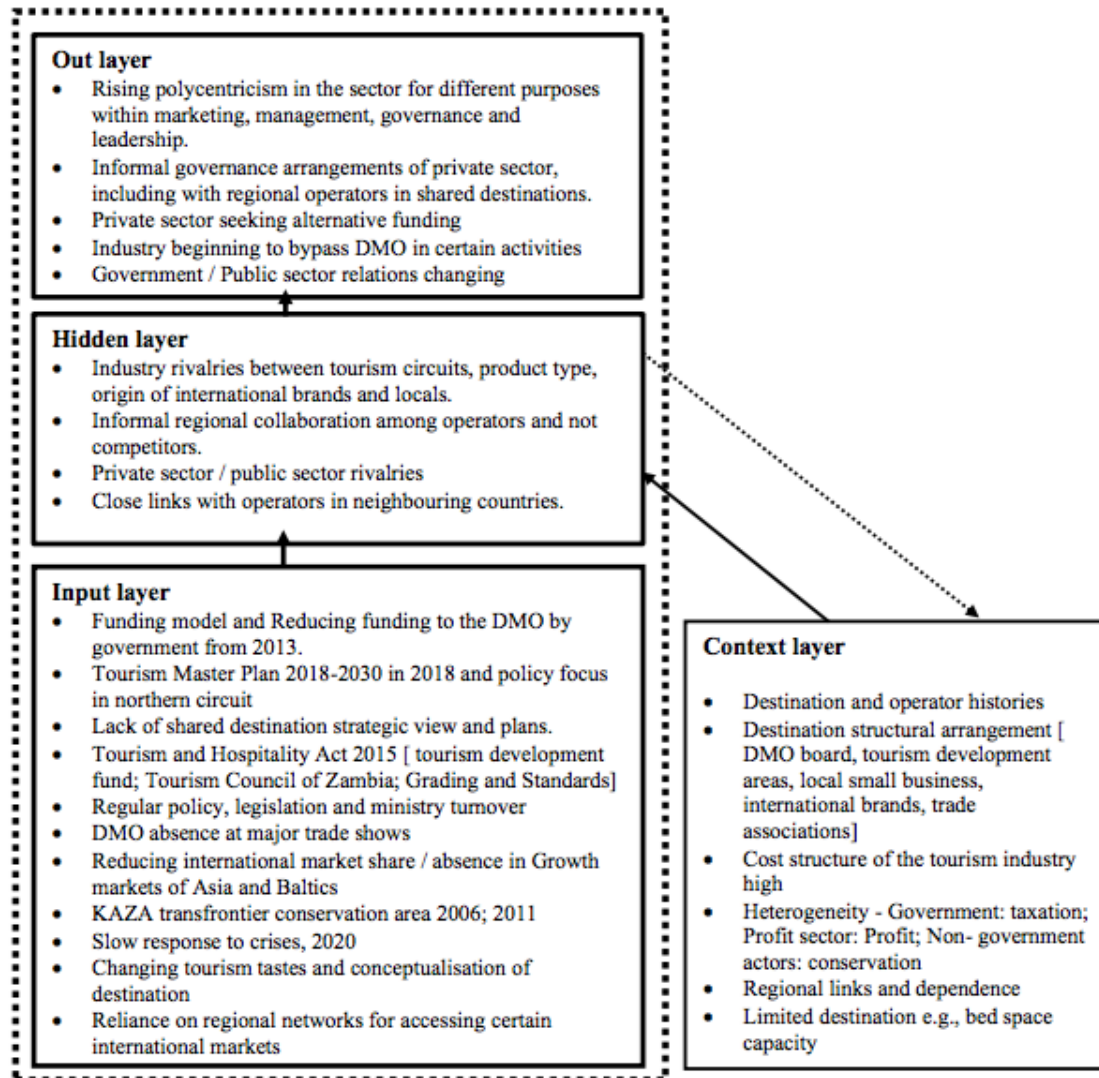


Figure 5.16: Combinatorial Productivity on Shifting Role of DMO.

5.4.3. Events and Components Category Three Finding Three (3): Opportunity Tension

The study found that there are also strong indications of what could be categorised as opportunity tension active in the destination, driven mostly by markets, product development, regional events and history of the destination. These were:

- (a) Realignment of international outbound tourism by growth of the Asian and Baltic regions and were already being pursued by neighbouring destinations, while Zambia as destination had not exploited them much due to resource constraints of the DMO. This was pushing some private sector operators, especially travel trade to partner

among themselves and those in the region in raising resources for joint marketing activities to exploit these growth market opportunities. In the process, private sector operators created their own structures to coordinate and undertaken some of the activities.

- (b) Livingstone had historically settlements of Indians and Israelis, which created opportunity for development and marketing a certain components within the industry but was not commonly pursued by the destination. Similarly, sporting history of Livingstone offered opportunity for some accommodation and activities providers.
- (c) Geopolitical issues in the neighbouring destinations offers created opportunity tension to move into market gaps left by the neighbouring destinations. Connected to this, was the opportunity for regional expanded products and partnerships which the DMO is unable to enter into without central government intervention.

5.4.4. Events and Components Category Three Finding Four (4): Co-evolution

The embeddedness of the DMO and other stakeholders in the destination in the tourism industry with the environment was found to make to co-evolve at several scales and levels (Essletzbichler, 2012). The DMO and some of the path dependence elements were found to have some characteristics of co-evolution. They had causal forces on each other's ability to persist. The major co-evolution paths found were as follows:

- (a) Zambian operators and other destination components in the Livingstone area were also found to co-evolve with operators in the adjacent destination of Zimbabwe. This co-evolution was based on product dependence of both destinations. Operators on the two destinations formed informal rules, destination boundaries and working arrangements away from policy in response to rules or policies from either country found unsuitable for their operations. This was found to be based on product dependences on each and tourism metrics. These evolutions are illustrated in Figure 5.17.

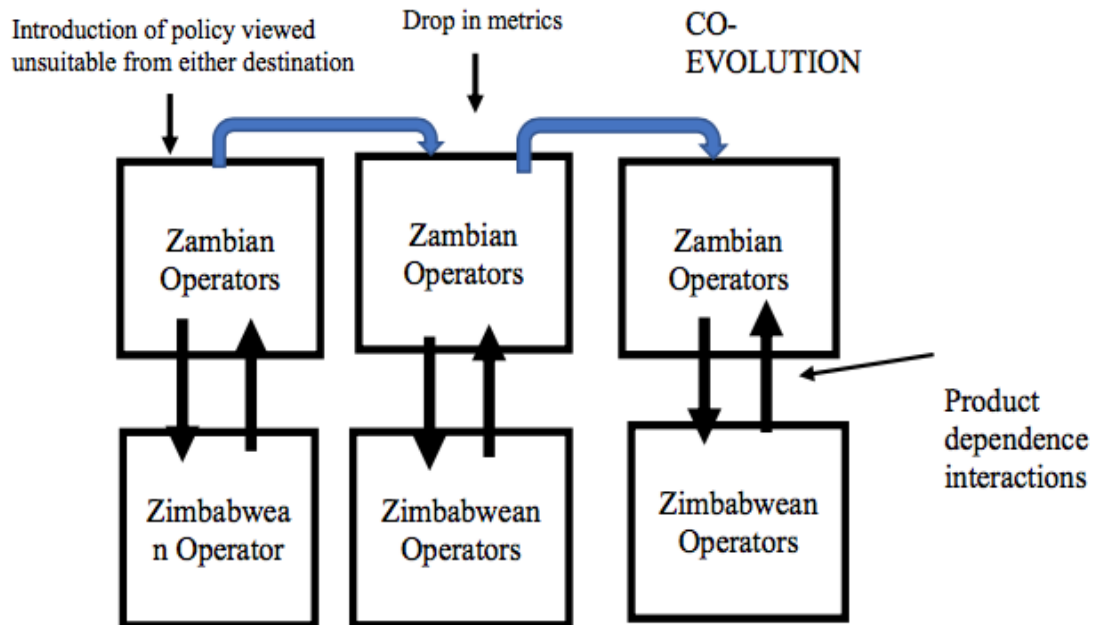


Figure 5.17: Zambian and Zimbabwean Operators Co-Evolution.

(b) The interactions between the DMO and private institutions in the sector were found to co-evolve. Through interviews and review of documents, it was found that in some cases, introduction of certain policies and legislation led to co-evolution between the institutions in the sector and the DMO. These co-evolutions appeared to be multiple in the destination. Figure 5.18 illustrates some of the interactions that lead to co-evolution of the DMO and the sector. At stage one, the Figure shows the interactions and impacts of the respective environments on both the DMO and private sector and at the same time the private sector and DMO have interactions. These impacts and interactions led both to evolve but this evolution is a co-evolution type because of the embeddedness and continuous interactions of the two.

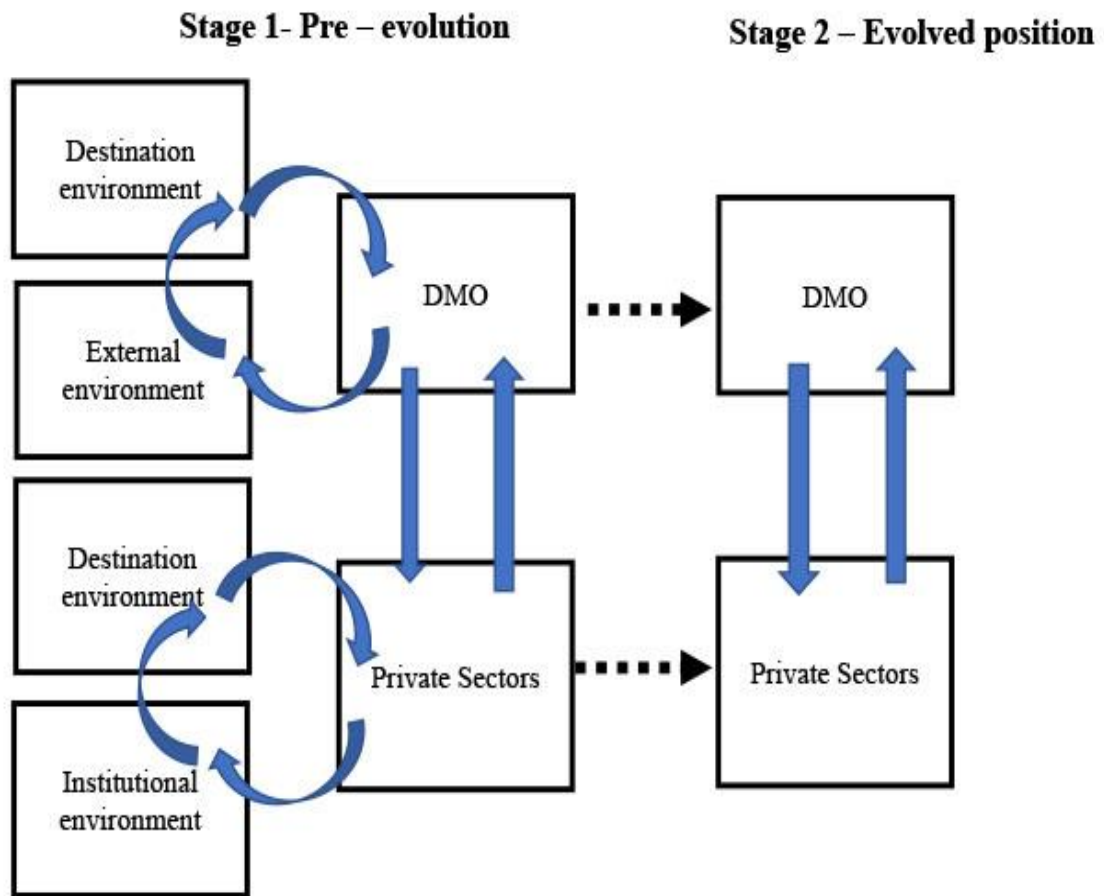


Figure 5.18: DMO / Private Sector Co-Evolution.

5.5. Theoretical Re-description and Retrodution using Social Realist Theoretical Assumptions: Mechanisms and Outcomes

From the above description of events and the components identified, the re-description and retrodution of the underlying mechanisms and outcomes using socialist realist theory could be as follows. Retrodution of causality under the critical social realism assumptions, description and explanation shifts from macro-level behaviour of the destination to micro interactions. The model of causality relationship could be described as an interplay of the destination context elements; interactions of the destination system and its environment; and the affordances stimulated by the aforesaid context. These lead to the eventual outcome, which is visible in the destination, in this case through the macro-

level emergent behaviour, polycentricism and the sometimes the nonlinear behaviour exhibited in the destination. This could be modelled and illustrated in Figure 5.19.

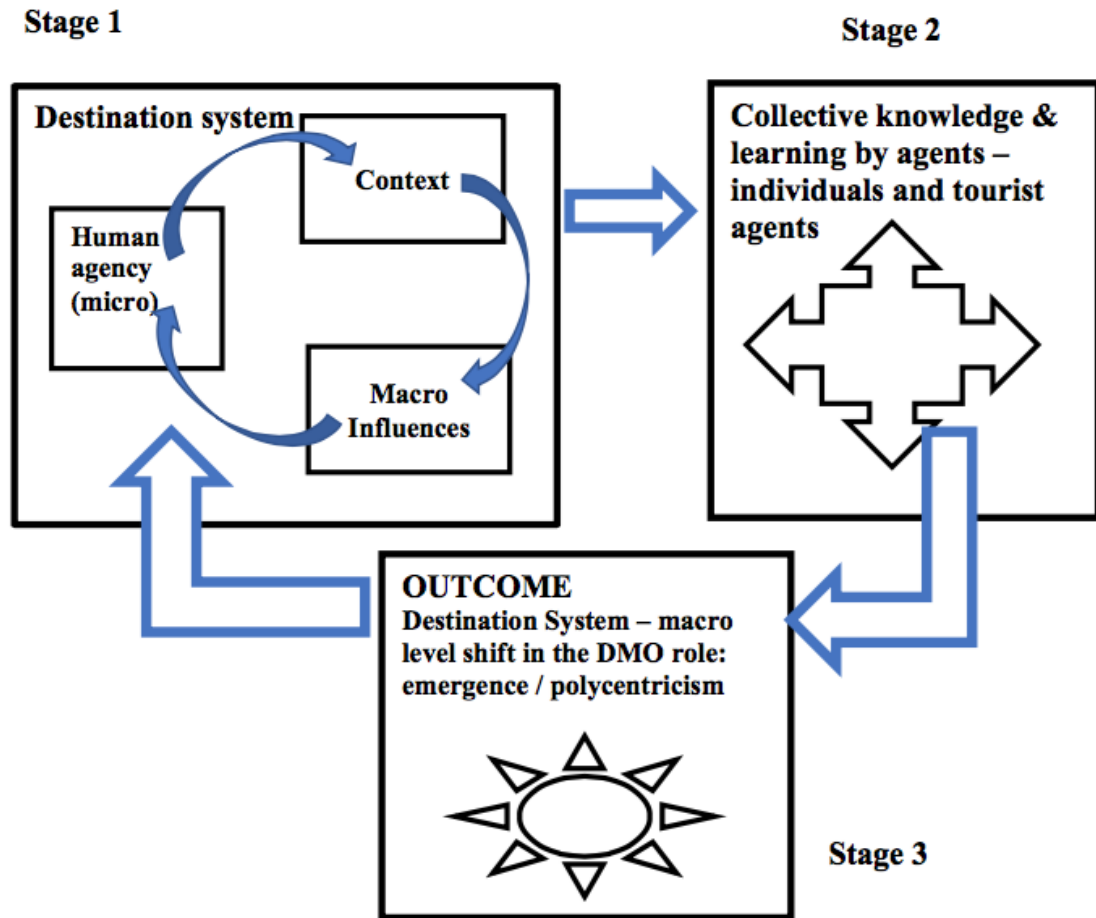


Figure 5.19: Realist Social Theory Description and Explanatory Model.

At stage one (1), the model shows the interactions of: (a) human agency - collective action and interactions of stakeholders, enabled by the generation and application of knowledge; (b) path dependence forces – historical trajectory of the DMO / destination, including events and decisions made in the past; and (c) contextuality of the phenomena – various social, economic, environmental and market structures active in the destination. At stage two (2) primary agents learn and collectively transform themselves (or not) in seeking to transform society. This leads to stage three (3), which is the social reproduction or transformation affecting the extant role array in the destination. This is what leads to the observable events at macro level of the destination in form of emergentism.

5.5.1. Social Realist Theory Description of Shifting Expected Role of the DMO and other Components

Therefore from the above theoretical re-description of the phenomena and using the Affordances Model (Bygstad *et al.*, 2015) and the Pawson and Tilley (1997) Model of Context (C) + Mechanism (M) = Outcomes (O), the study found that the causally relationship and elements that describe and models explanation of the shifting role of the DMO could be as shown in Figures 5.20 and 5.21. The main contextual and historical elements (pre-existing structures) include those arising from the operators and destination enjoying historical links with markets of United Kingdom and other commonwealth countries; multiplicity of size / type of product ownership; connectedness and shared products with adjacent destinations; heterogeneity of the tourism product with several spatial distributions and multiplicities; entry of international operators; and shared products and links with regional destinations, especially Zimbabwe, Namibia, Botswana and South Africa. Historically, the DMO being formed and funded by government; and regular changes from 1996 in four epochs. Other historical attributes of the destination were found to be historical links of destination with some source markets like the United Kingdom; emerging destination status; and the major player of operations and product ownership was government and begun privatising in early 1990s. These elements of historical and contextual factors stimulate and releases effects on the affordances that eventually translate into the macro-level behaviour emergent behaviour as witnessed in the destination through rising polycentricism.

The above contextual and historical elements interplay with the interactions of the destination actors and the destination environment (causal constitutive and action formation mechanisms). The main destination actors were found to be the various tourism associations; polycentric structures such as Destination Livingstone and KAZA TFCA; individual operator linkages with near destination operators – Zimbabwe, Botswana and Namibia; operators in nearby destinations; various funding agencies; quasi government organisations; conservation groups; government departments; historically linked traditional markets and travel trade in United Kingdom and traditional markets of Europe and USA; local, small operator; and International brands operating in Zambia.

The destination environment interacting with the destination actors were found to include public policy directions from the mid-1990s, including legislation and political directions (Tourism and Hospitality Act, 2015; Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 - 2038); cultural elements, based on origin of brands and ownership and history; regional influences and directions: KAZA TFCA / linkages / networks / opportunity for product area expansion; Zimbabwe / South Africa influence in destination; shared products / interconnections with neighbouring destinations; international funding opportunities / influences and direction; technological changes, heightened with covid-19 and for other marketing channels; tourism markets direction – realignment of tourism markets rising of Asians markets, waning traditional markets of Europe and America, new growth markets of Baltics; growing worldwide outbound tourism; declining share and length of stay; influence of wholesalers and buyers; international membership organisations such as UNWTO influences and direction; and international funding agencies influence.

Going by sociological emergentism, the descriptive and explanatory model traces the affordances (transformation mechanisms), which give the immediate link with what is visible in the destination through the emergence behaviour. In this study the affordances were found to be the rivalries within destination based on history; rivalries based on circuits; north – south circuits; heterogeneity of operators and interests; localised rules and practices within industry in shared products areas with neighbours; heterogeneity of operators and regional linkages at meso and micro levels with operators in neighbouring destinations; regional networks and reliance of destination for marketing, products, transportation; rules and practices at variance in common product areas like Livingstone – operators enjoy informal rules with neighbours; local networks created of operators with neighbouring destinations; networks created based on origin of brands and ownership, history; sub sector competitions; culture prominence of history of ownership / management of businesses and countries of origin surface; and development of unwritten rules and localised.

The outcome of the above interactions and influences in the destination is what manifested at macro level of the destination as emergentism, visible through polycentricism; new pathways; policy interruptions; evolutionary DMO role; policy interruptions; nonlinear behaviour of and in the system; and multiplicity and altered feedback channels.

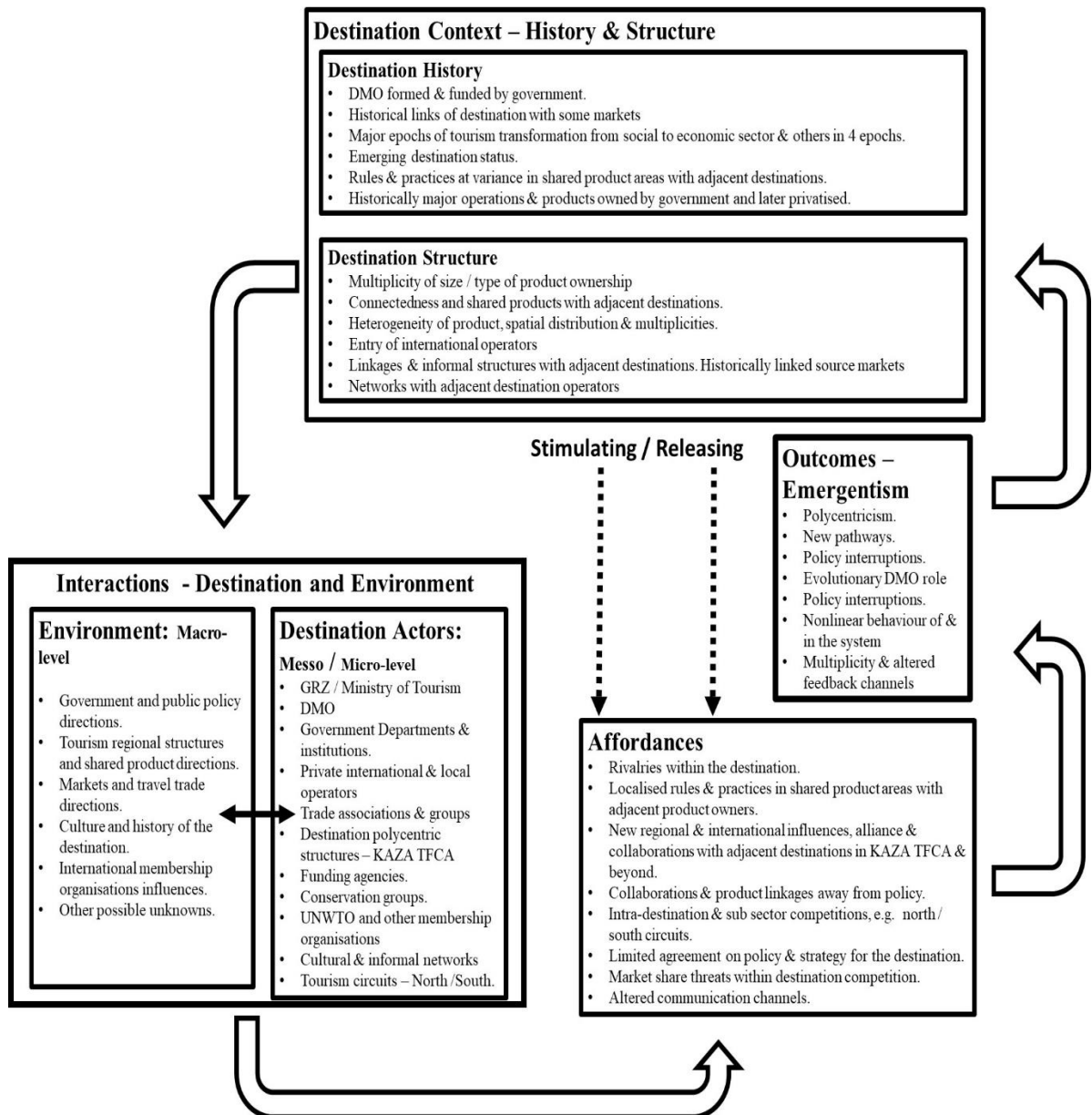


Figure 5.20: Model of Social Realism Mechanisms of Emergence.

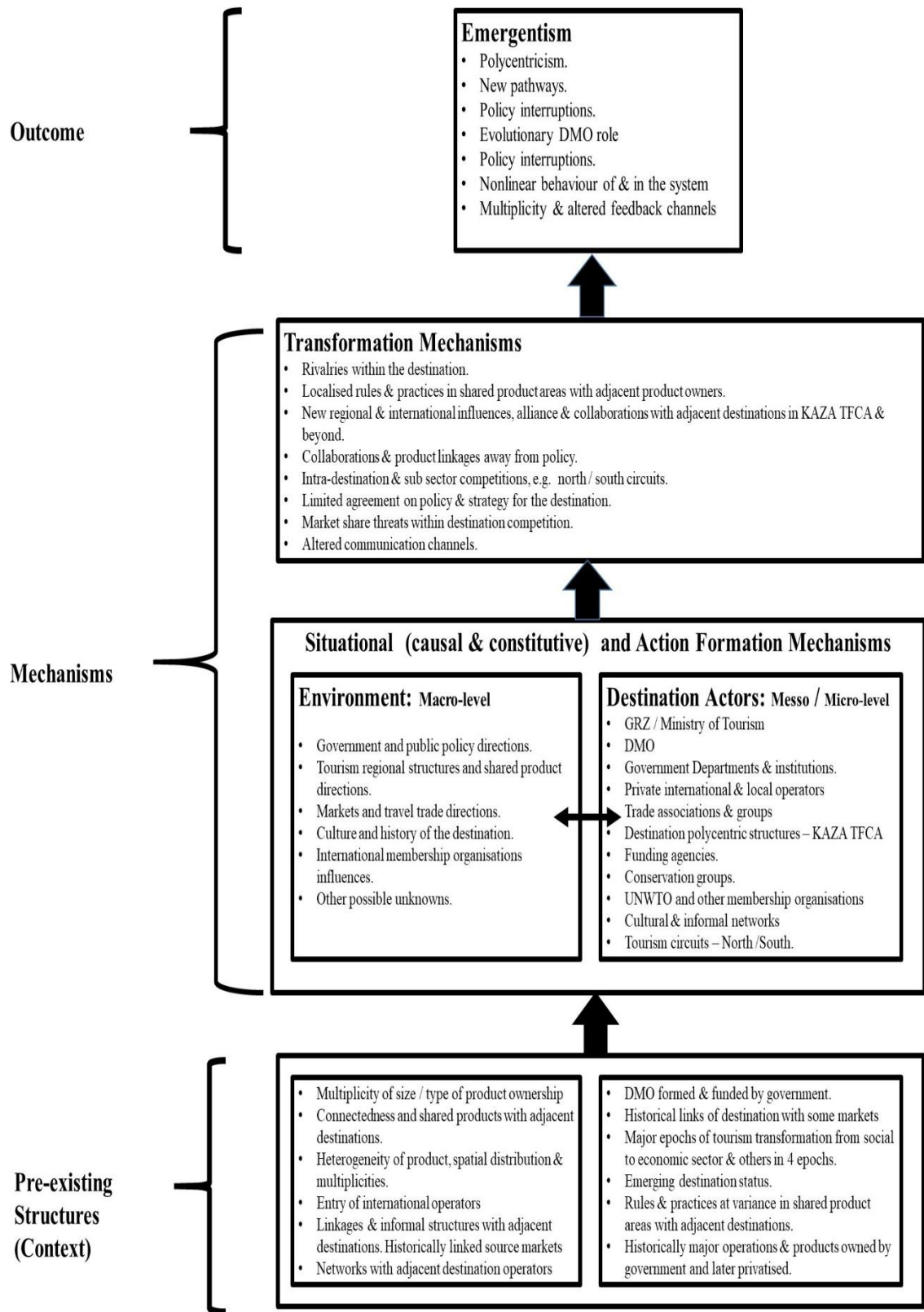


Figure 5.21: Descriptive and Explanatory Realist Social Theory Model: Structure, Mechanisms and Outcome.

5.5.2. Social Realist Theory Explanation of Shifting Expected Role of DMO and Unchanging General Structure and Core Activities in Policy

From the foregoing critical realist description of the DMO phenomena, the plausible explanation of the shifting expected role of the DMO and other components among the tourism industry stakeholders and that of the unchanging general structure and core activities in policy could be as below.

(a) Explanation of Shifting Expected Roles

The destination was found to have several active action possibilities (affordances or transformation mechanisms) formed by the interactions of the macro level influences and the destination and its actors at micro / meso levels. These action possibilities when formed by the interactions of the destination environment (situational or causal constitutive mechanisms) and stimulated by the destination context of both historical and structure factors (pre-existing structures) are causing the macro level events observable in the destination, namely shifting in the expected role of the DMO and other components through emergentism. As identified in figures 5.20 and 5.21, the prominent action possibilities formed by interactions of the destination and its environment are: rivalries within the destination; localised rules and practices in shared product areas with adjacent product owners; alliances and collaborations with adjacent destinations in KAZA TFCA and beyond; collaborations and product linkages away from policy; intra-destination and sub sector competitions; market share threats within destination competition; and altered communication channels. It is worth noting that these action possibilities are only activated in the given context of the destination, Zambia, and may result in other events in other contexts.

(b) Unchanging General Structure and Core Activities in Policy

The most plausible explanation for the unchanging general structure and core activities of the DMO in Zambia could lie in the hidden mesh of contextual and stimulations of the affordances. The use of general descriptors for the DMO structure and definition of its core activities in policy without taking into account the contextual issues and active situational, action formation and transformation mechanisms could yield an unchanging

structure and activities. The destination has its own unique environment, actors, affordance and structure as already identified in the descriptions above. Therefore, it is plausible that the structure and active mechanisms in the destination of Zambia were not being accounted for in policy propositions. Hence, the manifestation of observable events of polycentricism; new pathways; policy interruptions; evolutionary DMO role; nonlinear response to policy of and in the system; and multiplicity of altered feedback channels. These suggest a need to reconsider the DMO role and its core activities in policy within its uniqueness.

5.5.3. Challenges of Social Realist Theory for DMO Business Model Framework

The challenge when it comes to the explanatory model based on the above view is that different configurations of the same context and mechanisms may produce the same outcome and also conversely the same configuration of the context and mechanisms may produce different outcomes (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Fleetwood and Ackroyd, 2004). As shall be discussed below, this makes the model based on sociological emergentism to be less suitable for use as frameworks of DMO business models in the current study, even when using pragmatism as the logic of scientific reasoning.

The results of the study also show the shortfalls that have been highlighted in literature regarding usage of critical social realism as a frame of reference. Literature that has discussed causality of the current phenomena in destinations has been laced with typical sociological thinking, interested in explaining emergence, persistence and changes of large-scale social events; and properties and processes (Hristov and Zehrer, 2014; Dredge, 2016). However, as acknowledged in several discourses, the relation of macro-level to small-scale social events and processes has been a problem (Gorski, 2013). Sociological emergentism carries with it one key unresolved debate, namely, that of the micro-macro debate vis-à-vis methodological individualism; this is even more heightened in studies that invoke emergentism (Yeung, 1997; Sawyer, 2001; Demeulenaere, 2011; Gorski, 2013; Ylikoski, 2016). In order to develop frames of reference, two lines of discourses have become regular in discourses. First is to approach the micro level descriptor from the 'microfoundationalist' view (Zahle and Kincaid, 2019). Second option has been to approach

it from views similar to that of Coleman (1990) that uses 'macro' in a rather flexible way (Ylikoski, 2016). Both approaches are unstable and likely to yield different results when applied in similar studies. They both allow a rather too flexible application of micro- and macro-level elements. This also became apparent in the course of this study. Going by these two, both an individual actor and membership organisation like a travel trade association could be a 'micro-foundation' destination actor and possibly a 'macro-level' element as well (Coleman,1990; Ylikoski, 2016). This potentially makes critical sociological realism assumptions as explanatory model rather unstable.

Secondly, is what has been discussed in literature variously, the limited choice of tools for analysis and eventual policy propositions approach (Gorski, 2013). This study relied on the affordance concept, which also provides a rather wider view of what could be categorised as an 'affordance'. This too makes an explanatory model options too wide and likely to yield different results in studies. Thirdly, when it comes to policy propositions and interventions, the difficulties of isolating the effects of the various micro-level elements interacting to create the macro-level phenomena is difficult. Some are intertwined in the intricacies of history. This is unlike in the complexity theory assumptions, where even when history is at play, it has a causal link that can easily be inferred.

Fourth, and perhaps more fundamental is that when it comes to policy propositions while sociological emergentism offers a relatively rich description of the phenomena, the permutation of possible explanatory causal model is too wide. Also, the interactions of mechanisms and context may produce different outcomes (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Fleetwood and Ackroyd, 2004). These two pose as a challenge when it comes to choices of policy tools to be used in the destination.

On the other hand, the complexity theory as shall be shown below has demonstrated relatively sufficient stable proposition of linking the micro and macro, without losing the relevant aspects of holism. Therefore, the study takes the phenomena to be that of

complexity functional structures of the DMO and the destination system, based on complexity theory.

5.6. Theoretical Re-description and Retrodution using Complexity Theoretical Assumptions: Mechanisms and Outcomes

The most stable theoretical view adopted for the technical account of the phenomena as the frame of reference for the DMO business model between the competing theoretical frameworks is that of complexity theory. From the findings in the preceding sections, when a critical realist analysis was done with the complexity theory view, it identified three generative mechanisms, as schematically illustrated in figure 5.22, namely (i) multiple enclosing systems on the DMO and destination system; (ii) multiple regeneration activities at meso and micro levels; and (iii) novelties from within the destination system that led to sudden and unpredictable interruptions on the DMO role. These causal relationships describe and explain how the DMO phenomena is fueled by complexity and nested nature of the destination.

The main forces at each of the levels influencing path dependence and regeneration activities, respectively, were found to be as follows:

- **Macro level of the destination (enclosing forces):** (a) Government and public policy directions; (b) regional structures and shared products with other destinations; (c) markets and travel trade; (d) culture and history; and (e) other isolated influences, such as international membership organisation.
- **Meso and Micro levels (regenerating activities):** (a) Rivalries within the destination; (b) heterogeneity of product, spatial distribution and multiplicities; (c) connectedness and shared products with adjacent destinations; (d) origin of ownerships; and (e) sizes of business and multinational vis-à-vis locally owned.

Therefore, under this theoretical frame of reference, the shifting expected role of the DMO and the unchanging structure and core activities could be described and explained using a mix of three principal domains. First, a combination of three elements, namely, interactions, feedback and emergent order; secondly, the interplay of the macro-level superordinate enclosing systems and the enclosed tourism destination system; and thirdly,

the novelty. The notion of novelty makes it a more stable theoretical frame of reference when compared with realist social theory. Under complexity theory, it becomes possible to somewhat fully account for emergentism, which path dependence, human agent and context interactions alone, as in the case of realist social theory, may not.

As shown in Figure 5.22, the causality description and explanation of the DMO phenomena investigated was found to be contingent on the following pre-existing cycle, mechanisms and observable events:

- (a) **Destination context (pre-existing):** Destination complexity and nested system nature with multiple components, interactions and feedback loops; opportunity tensions; dynamism and combinatorics (linear and nonlinear); self-reinforcing & political lock-ins; and unknown-unknowns. In addition to these, the history of the destination matters, as found in the study that had four major epochs of tourism transformation; moments and Triggers; historical links of destination with some markets; and was susceptible to path dependence.
- (b) **Mechanisms:** Multiple enclosing driven by macro level influences; multiple regenerations by the meso and micro levels of the destination; and novelty arising from the complexity of the destination, as already indicated in preceding paragraphs.
- (c) **Events:** Emergent order observable through polycentricism; new pathways; policy interruptions; evolutionary DMO role; nonlinear behaviour of and in the system; multiplicity and altered feedback channels; and sudden and unpredictable destination system disruptions / nonlinear reactions

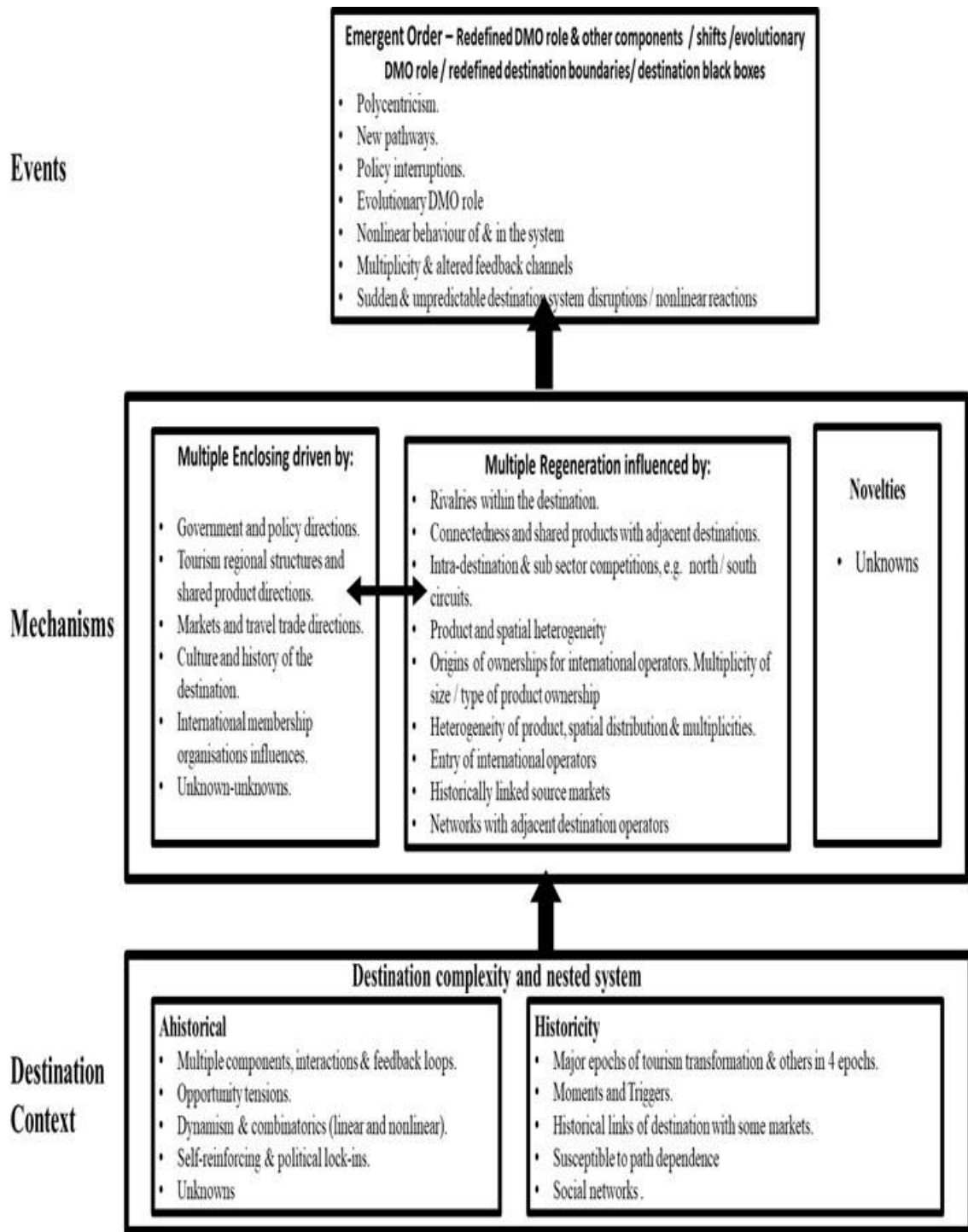


Figure 5.22: Schematic Illustration of Mechanism, Structures and Observable Events.

It is also worth underlining that under complexity theory assumptions, description and explanation moves from macro-level description and explanation to micro-level behaviour of the destination components. Additionally, under complexity theory it is also plausible to describe and explain at macro-to-macro-levels. On the other hand, in the critical social realism assumptions, description and explanation shift the causality study from macro to the micro-level.

From the findings of the study as already presented in preceding sections, under the complexity theory assumptions causality could be said to be arising from two major factors, path dependence and novelty dynamism of the destination system. These two are put together to give descriptive and explanatory model would be as Figures 5.23 and 5.24 below. In Figure 5.23 at stage one (1) shows the interactions of the agents in the destination and the path dependence forces, which are macro level. This leads to stage two (2), which shows the collective knowledge and learning just like in the realist social theory assumptions. However, in the case of complexity theory assumptions, there is the notion of novelty arising from the dynamism of the system which changes the path dependence trajectory and puts the DMO phenomena on another forced path, shown on stage three (3) as the eventual outcome. In Figure 5. 24, stage one (1) shows the interactions of the external influences and factor endogenous to the destination that leads to the emergent order in stage two (2). This is visible in the destination through the empirical events in stage three (3).

Figure 5.25 shows the actual factors, elements and mechanism involved in the case of Zambia. The step-by-step description and explanation of the phenomena shown in Figure 5.25 is elaborated in Figures 5.26 to 5.28.

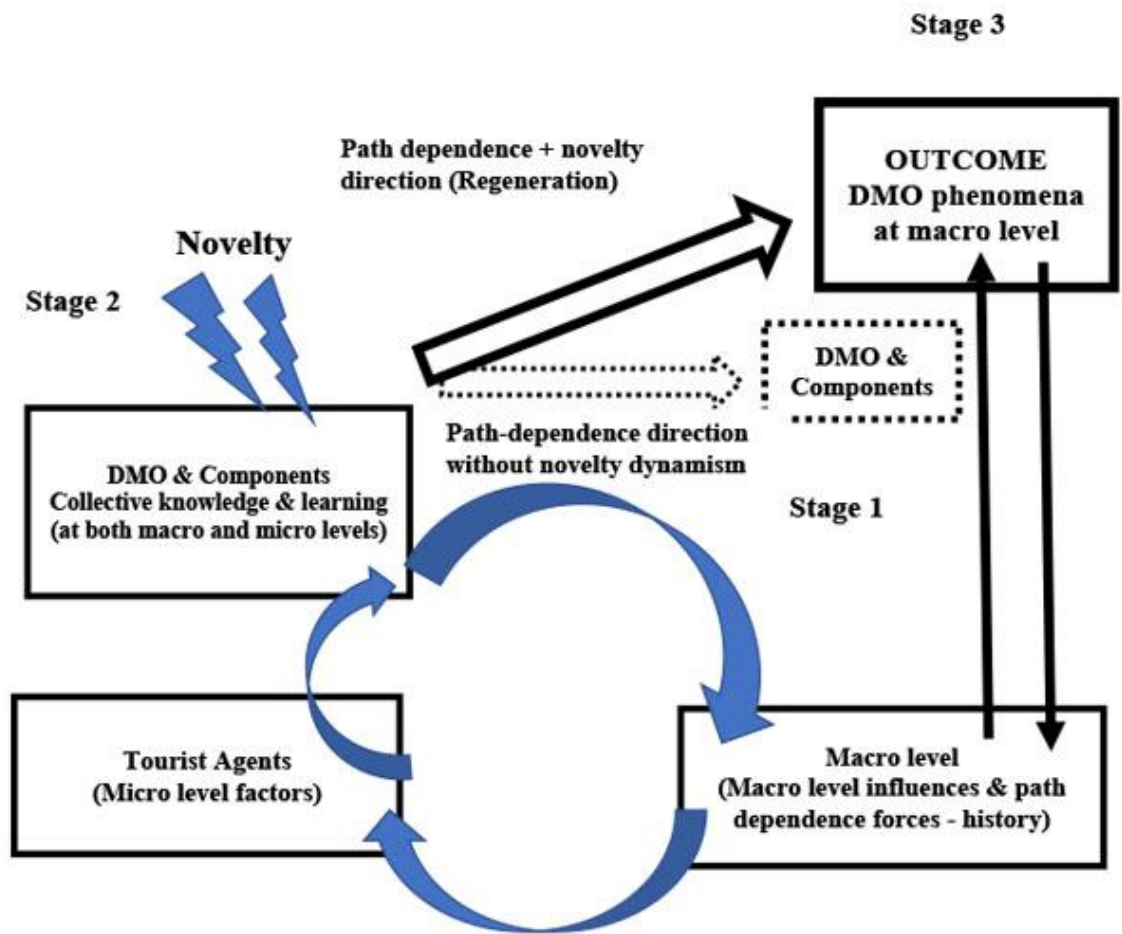


Figure 5.23: Complexity Theory Re-description and Explanatory Causality Model.

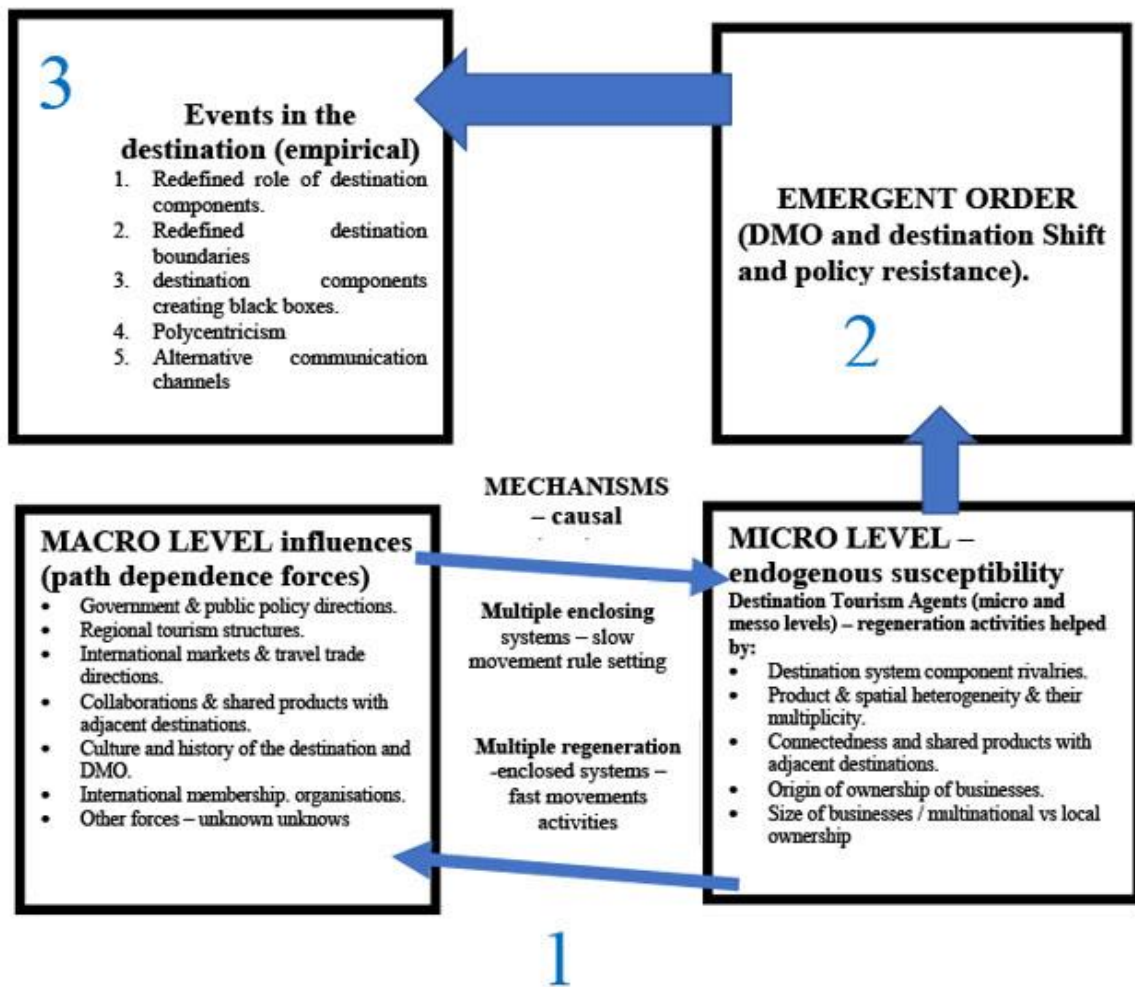


Figure 5.24: Complexity Theory Causality and Mechanisms Model.

The destination system is complex, primarily because of interactions, feedback and emergent order within the system components and those exogenous to it, as illustrated in Figure 5.25.. Therefore, the critical underlying causally factor is taken to be the complexity of the destination itself. This can also be inferred to have also been the underlying challenge in policy propositions and accounts of the structure and core activities of the DMO remaining the same for years, despite shift in the expected role of the DMO.

As shown in Figure 5.26, in Zambia the range and inter relationships among components include those that emanate across the border, away from where the Zambia Tourism

Agency (ZTA) and Government has no formal jurisdiction. These complex systems still nonetheless influence policy and practice on the Zambian side, because of, among others, the shared tourism resources and historical links of operators. The various policy and government direction decisions and the direction of markets and the travel trade also increased the complexity.

(a) Interactions

The tourism destination system has numerous interactions of nested and highly active heterogeneous components that exhibit variations, and each of these are ‘systems’ on their own with influences, as shown below. The destination system comprises of and are influenced by other complex systems that equally have numerous nested and heterogeneous system elements that exhibit considerable variation, with each element being a system in their own right. The interactions of the destination as a whole and the DMO comprised of multiple entities, organisations, agencies and sectors at local, regional, state, national and international levels, all of which vary in terms of their structure, function and interests. Each component in the destination system has a unique relationship to and influence on the destination system.

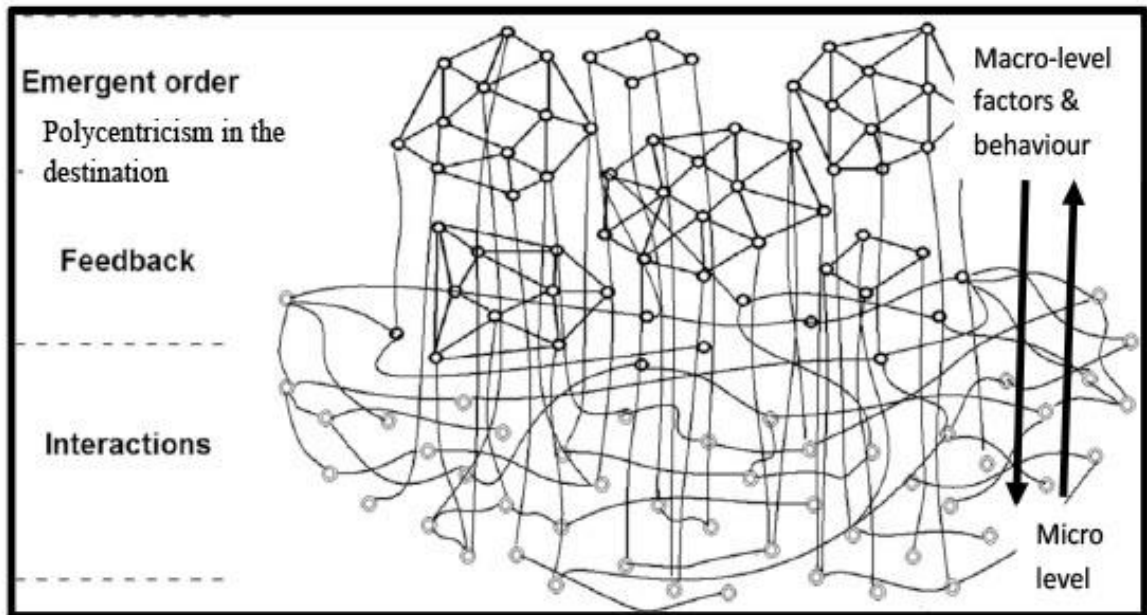


Figure 5.25: Three Elements of Complexity Characterisation (Adapted from A. Strauss & Associates, 2018).

(b) Feedback

The destination, typical of complex systems, is displaying dynamic behaviour and has the ability to change, adapt and reorganise in response to its environment. It has feedback loops of interconnections. The displayed behaviour of the destination is largely as a result of the cumulative effect of positive (reinforcing or self-enhancing) and negative (balancing or goal seeking) feedback mechanisms. What increases complexity is that the feedback loops in the destination include those connected to regional destinations and the international travel-trade.

(c) Emergent order

The model explanation could be that the multifarious interactions and feedback mechanisms in the destination are the ones that produce emergent order or properties displayed by the whole destination, as witnessed in the case of Zambia. The shifting role of the DMO cannot therefore be inferred by the study of individual system elements or variables but rather through the study of relationships in the whole system.

In addition to the above three plausible elements of describing and explaining, the second way is that of critically examining the external influences. This study found that these could be clustered around six themes, namely (a) government and public policy directions; (b) regional structures, collaborations and shared products with adjacent destinations within the region; (c) international markets and travel trade directions; (d) culture and history of the destination; (e) international membership organisations; and (f) others, such as crises. In addition to the foregoing, there are also still possibilities of some unknown-unknowns that emanate from the internal behaviour of the destination itself. In the explanation model, the six cluster of influences act as superordinate systems influencing the destination.

5.6.1. Complexity Theory Explanation of Shifting Role of the DMO and Unchanging DMO Core Structure and Activities in Destination Policy

From the above re-description of causally behaviour, the model of causality under complex theoretical assumptions could be explained from four intertwined elements in the destination system, namely: (i) the superordinate enclosing systems enclosing the destination system and the regeneration activities of the destination system as a whole; (ii) multiple regeneration activities of the various destination components to multiple rule-settings by the various superordinate systems; (iii) multiple enclosing and enclosed relationships within the destination system; and (iv) co-evolution of the DMO and its stakeholders. These combined provide the explanation of the phenomena in response to the two why-questions of this study.

(a) Superordinate Enclosing Systems and Enclosed Destination System

As found by the study, the most active superordinate systems in the destination are the government and public policy systems; regional structures and shared products system with near destinations; international tourism systems; market and travel trade systems; and culture and history system. In addition to these, there is also a possibility of the unknown unknowns existing in the destination.

Causally behaviour of the superordinate systems arises from their enclosing, rule-setting movements that enclose the destination and in return the destination system as a whole or its most active actors embark on regeneration activities. The regeneration activities are faster than the rule-setting emergence. In the end, the destination system as a whole displays the visible emergence behaviour. As shown in Figure 5.26 the macro-level elements act as enclosing systems that are setting the rules for emergence behaviour. These elements or factors are systems on their own.

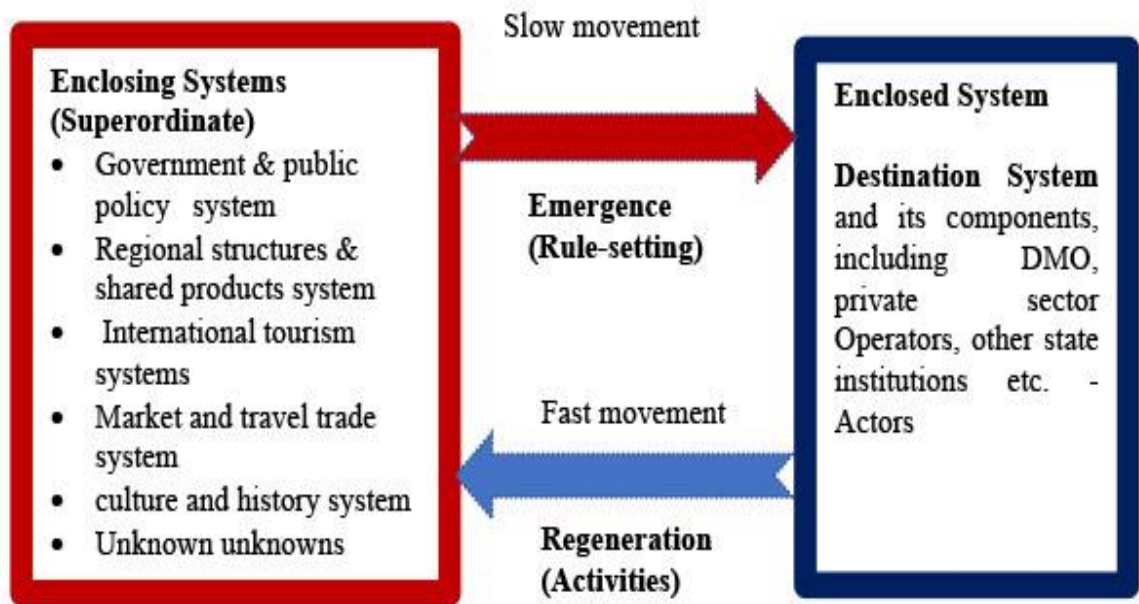


Figure 5.26: Complexity Causality Model Number One,

(b) Multiple Rule-Settings Emergences by Superordinate Systems and Multiple Regeneration Activities by Destination Actors

While the systems may seem to be taken as a ‘wholes’ in the destination, there are multiple enclosing systems and enclosed systems simultaneously responsible for the ultimate causally behaviour. Each of the superordinate systems has enclosing influence of each of the components in the systems and at the same time each of the enclosed destination system may engage in different regeneration activities. Depending on the most imposing enclosing system characteristics and the fastest reacting destination components, the

display of emergence may also vary. In studies of urban settlements, among cultural, political, economic and technological influences, the slowest was found to be cultural influences and fastest political ones (Walloth, 2015).

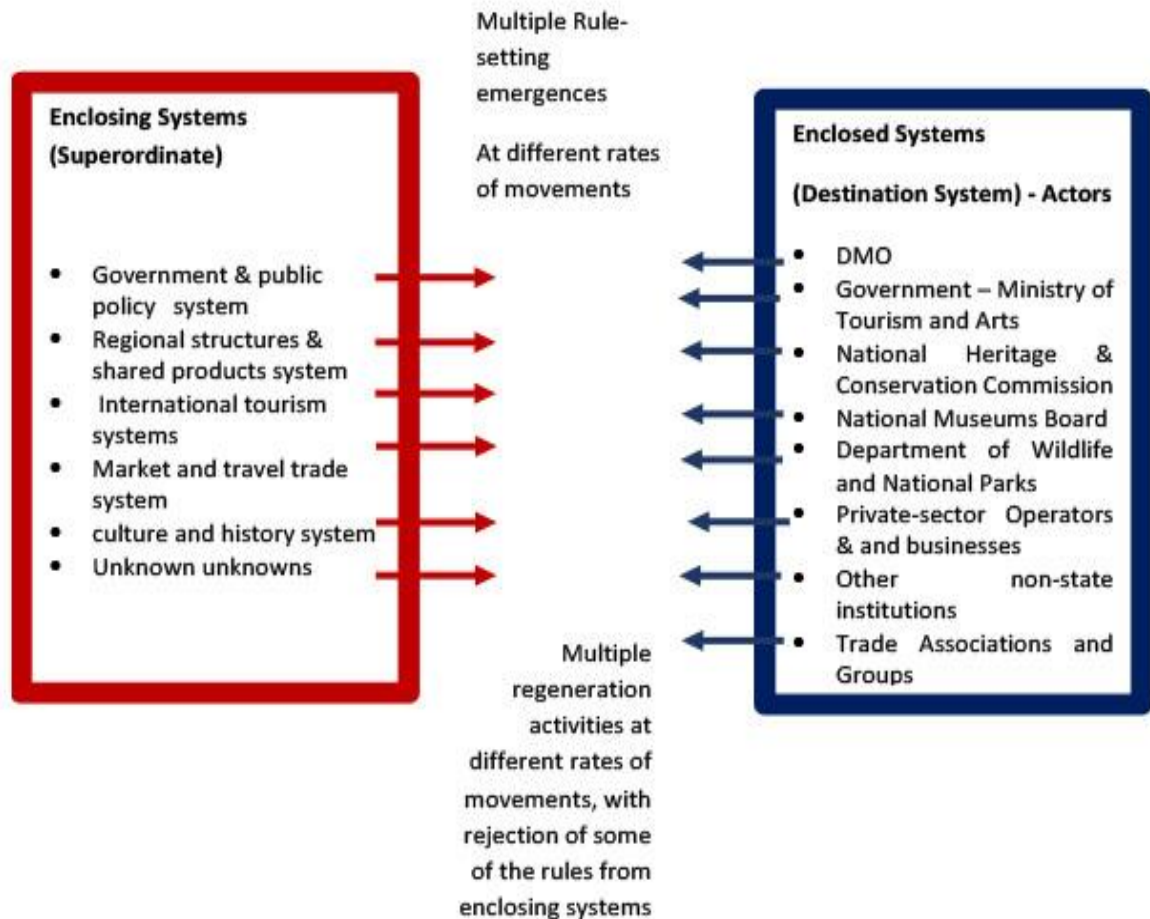


Figure 5.27: Complexity Causality Model Number Two.

(c) Destination System Enclosing and Enclosed by Each Other

In addition to the influences from superordinate systems mentioned above, within the destination systems there are simultaneously multiple enclosing-and-enclosed relationships among the components. The activities include rejection of some of the enclosing rules. Depending on the rule-setting components (systems) and the regeneration activities of enclosed of the components, within the systems the expected role of the DMO

could shift or viewed differently among the components. Figure 5.27 shows the possible interactions, enclosing and enclosed components within the supply side of the destination system.



Figure 5.28: Complexity Causality Model Number Three.

(d) Co-evolution

The findings show that the DMO and its stakeholders have a significant causal impacts on each other’s ability persist. The enclosing and enclosed influences were found to be mutually interdependent and have a reciprocal influence on each other (Murman, 2003). Additionally, co-evolution of entities could be said to at multiple scales, based on the regeneration capacities and speed of the components in the destination. Therefore, the current role of the DMO and new expectations developed over time; as new industry expectation and destination paradigms emerged, others declined (Wal and Boschma, 2011).

Combining the four causality domains above provides explanations of why the expected role of the DMO is shifting among the various tourism industry stakeholder; and at the same time policy is not changing in tandem with this shifting. From the four preceding domains of causality in the current DMO phenomena, the complexity model of what is obtaining in the destination can be summarised in Figure 5.29.

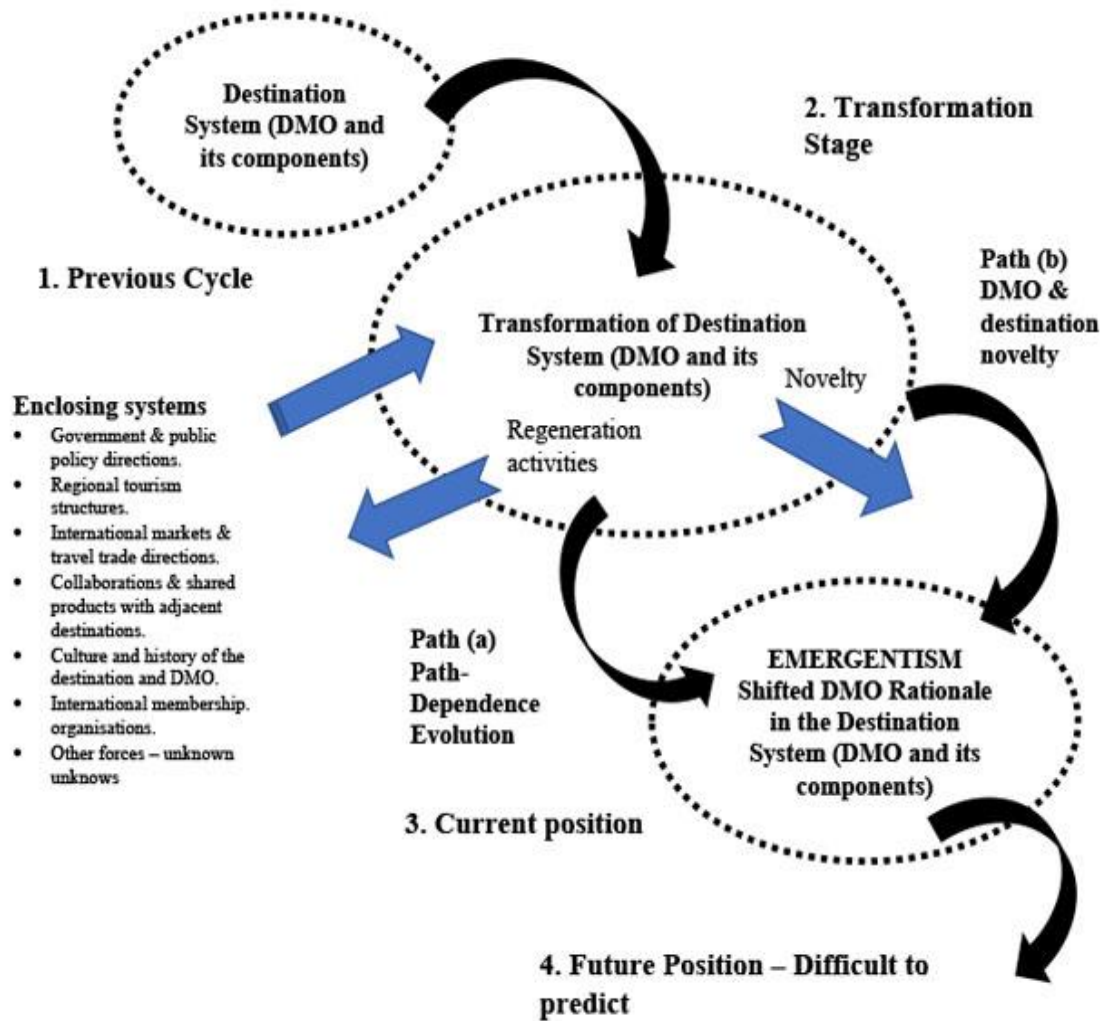


Figure 5.29: DMO Rationale Transformation Model.

At stage one (1) the model shows the previous cycle(s), which fall outside the scope of the current study. The transformations that led to the current position of the destination

system at stage three (3) takes place at two (2). During the transformation process at this stage, the major causally behaviour is determined by three sources of impacts / actions, namely (i) the path-dependence forces that act as the enclosing systems; (ii) the novelty behaviour tendencies by the destination system arising from the complexity of the destination systems and its components; and (iii) the regeneration activities of the destination system components.

The above transformation process leads to two path ways of causality. The first is the path-dependence route that is evolutionary in nature and comes from multiple interactions, path (a). Because of the importance of historicity, context and human agents in both enclosing and regeneration activities, this route is not likely to come suddenly and is also difficult to isolate cause and effect over short periods. The second path is the novelty path, which can come suddenly and unpredictable, path (b). It is also difficult to anticipate and know the direction until it actually occurs. Because of these two possible path ways and complexity behaviour of destinations, even the future of the DMO cannot be predicted with certainty, at stage (4).

5.6.2. DMO Business Model Options

The findings of this study have demonstrated that there is no way of predicting the quality of emergence before it is there because of four principal factors. First, emergentism is possibly from two directions, path-dependence and novelty. These are both difficult to isolate in public policy propositions because they arise from the complexity behaviour of a destination system. Second, systems are dynamic and while enclosing are simultaneously being enclosed by other systems. Third, there may also be unknown unknowns that show up, as the case in this study where likely unknown-unknowns (Walloth, 2015) or unaccounted for behaviour in the destination could remain. It is likely that there will be some black boxes to policy, practice and DMOs. The latter argument can also be extended to include those effects that studies may not capture during the course of policy formulation. Fourth, co-evolution tendencies likely to always bring unknowns-unknowns in destination modelling.

Because of the unknown-unknowns, high dynamism of destinations systems and lack of predictability of the properties of emergence until it is displayed, a framework based on causation becomes a challenge. The alternative is to mirror causation by using what Walloth (2015) suggests, namely, the effectuation concept, traced to Sarasvathy (2001). This becomes the source of plausible principles to use in decision-related choices for complexity systems that display nesting behaviour. This study adopts this view, but goes beyond by emphasising on the feedback loops as key even within the effectuation concept application.

According to Walloth (2015), the probable options for influencing in such a problem situation would be:

- (a) Changing the generative activities of the destination system components in a way that make them to no longer comply with existing rules of the inward influences from the superordinate systems. The expected end result is changing the enclosing guiding quality
- (b) Undertaking activities in the destination system that are in compliance with existing rules by disturbing the established and stable whole; and
- (c) Inwardly influencing the guiding rules from the enclosing systems so as to change the activities of the destination system and its components.

5.7. Chapter Conclusion

The chapter presented the findings of the study under the two theoretical frameworks and modelled causality of the phenomena in this study. The results have shown varied influences and show the location of causality of the destination in regard to the phenomena to be both from the exogenous and endogenous influences, and at the same time from both macro-and micro-level interactions and influences. The relationship is nested in the complexity of the destination. The chapter also served to respond to research questions one, two and three (phenomena descriptive and explanatory questions). The next chapter discusses these results and their implications before the DMO business model framework proposition in chapter seven.

CHAPTER SIX - DISCUSSION

6.1. Introduction

The study sought to develop a technical account of the explanation for the shifting expected role of the Destination Marketing Organisation (DMO) in Zambia, the Zambia Tourism Agency (ZTA), among the various tourism industry stakeholders in Zambia; and to use the account to develop a framework for DMO business models. To achieve this, the study was approached from a pluralist theoretical frame of reference using complexity theory and critical social realism theory as competing theories. In these two theoretical frameworks, the common explanatory frame of reference was the ‘mechanisms of emergence’, based on the doctrine of emergence. The foundational premise of the doctrine of emergence is that complex systems display behaviour that cannot be predicted from a full and complete description of the component units of the system and that the created order, patterns or global-level structures arising from interactive local-level processes cannot be understood or predicted from the behaviour or properties of the component units alone.

The results presented in the previous chapter were in response to the four research questions that form the discussion areas below, namely:

- What has shifted the expected role of the DMO and that of other components in the tourism destination system among the various tourism industry stakeholders in Zambia?
- Why is the expected role of the DMO and that of other components in the tourism destination system shifting among the various tourism stakeholders in Zambia?
- Why is the general structure and core activities of the DMO not changing in Zambia despite the expected role and the nature of destination leadership shifting among the various tourism stakeholders?

How can the technical accounts of the shifting expected role of the DMO and that of unshifting policy of the DMO in Zambia be used to develop a framework for DMO business model(s)?

While both theoretical frameworks yielded useful findings, descriptions and plausible explanatory models, when it comes policy propositions, complexity theoretical assumptions presented a more stable and applicable pragmatic model for the current research problem. The discussion proceeds from this standpoint.

6.2. Discussion

In this study the DMO phenomena was approached in a two-phase way, involving empirical and theoretical views. Empirically data collected from secondary archival sources was triangulated with primary data obtained through face-to-face in-depth interviews from among the tourism industry stakeholders. These were chosen through non-random theoretical sampling. The second stage was to conduct an in-depth critical realist analysis to retroduct the underlying forces shaping the DMO phenomena. This allowed for deeper understanding of the dynamics occurring in the destination system.

Using complexity theoretical framework, the study identified three generative mechanisms, namely: (i) multiple enclosing systems on the DMO and destination system; (ii) multiple regeneration activities at meso and micro levels; and (iii) novelties from within the destination system that led to sudden and unpredictable interruptions on the DMO role. These causal structures and mechanisms describe and explain how the DMO and destination phenomena is fueled by macro, meso and micro activities. The most active forces found in the destination at macro level were: (a) Government and public policy directions; (b) regional structures and shared products with other destinations; (c) markets and travel trade; (d) culture and history; and (e) other isolated influences, such as international membership organisation. At meso and micro levels the study found the following factors influencing co-evolution and regeneration of activities by the DMO and other destination components: (a) rivalries within the destination; (b) heterogeneity of product, spatial distribution and multiplicities; (c) connectedness and shared products with adjacent destinations; (d) origin of ownerships; and (e) sizes of business and multinational vis-à-vis locally owned.

The complexity structure that gave rise to the observable events (emergent order) were both historical and ahistorical. The observable events were found to be polycentricism, new pathways, policy interruptions, evolutionary DMO role, nonlinear reactions in the system, multiplicity and altered feedback channels, sudden and unpredictable destination system disruptions. Historical elements included major epochs of tourism transformation, moments and triggers, historical links of destination with some markets, susceptibility to path dependence and the various social networks. Ahistorical factors in the destination context were multiple components, interactions and feedback loops, opportunity tensions, dynamism and combinatorics (linear and nonlinear), self-reinforcing & political lock-ins and a possibility of unknowns.

Priori empirical and theoretical considerations hitherto have predominantly emphasised the evolution and shifts of destinations (Butler 2004; Agarwal 2005; Dodds 2007; Brouder *et al.*, 2017; Saarinen and Gill, 2019; Farsari, 2021). This has mostly been from various evolutionary economic-geography frameworks (Brouder *et al.*, 2017). Even where complexity theory has been invoked, it has mostly been from the view of the geography frameworks in relation to evolution of destinations, using evolutionary economic geography (EEG) (Brouder *et al.*, 2017; Farsari, 2021). Where DMO roles have been specifically investigated, it has been from their relationships with other stakeholders in a network (quantitatively) or indeed in an evolving destination (both qualitatively and quantitatively) (Baggio, Dredge, 2016). Mostly, the presumption appear to have been that it was the destination evolving and only implicitly the role of the DMO or other components. This is with the exception of studies that have left open questions in both literary and practice discourse (Zehrer *et al.*, 2014; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Dredge, 2016; Pike, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020).

The alternative literature to the above has been that looking at DMO role in relation to one or two of the destination paradigms (Zehrer *et al.*, 2014; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Dredge, 2016; Pike, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020). Under these, in recent years emphasis has been extending the role of the DMO to incorporate destination leadership and / or destination governance (Hristov and Zehrer, 2015, Hristov

and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020). Even the usefulness of complexity theory has at times been considered in this way (Dredge, 2019). For example, some of the prominent research has looked at shifts in public policy, tourism governance, role of networks and the changing role of the Destination Management Organisations vis-à-vis destination governance (dos Anjos and Kennell, 2019). However, the underlying mechanisms signalling for the need to change or extend the DMO role have not been unearthed and fully defined.

This study found that the role of the DMO has also been evolving and that it was also as subject to similar exogenous influences in its evolution, just like those associated with evolution of destinations. However, in the case of DMOs, in addition to long term evolution, it was also found that the role of DMO shifts were subject to novelty. As expected, changes from novelty appeared faster than evolutions. The commonality, however, is that even novelty could plausibly be associated with triggers from the environment. For example, the change of public policy on funding and direction of vision and strategy vis-à-vis stakeholder expectations led to almost sudden unintended reaction from tourism operators in the southern circuit. In addition to traceable novelty, there were still some unknown-unknowns influences and also sources and definitions of novelty in the destination. Therefore, the phenomena in this study could be attributed, described and explained as below.

The DMO phenomena investigated in this study could be said to be from both the path-dependence evolutionary and the non-linear novelty dynamism of the DMO and other destination components. Evidence from the study suggests that what has shifted the expected role of the DMO in the destination vis-à-vis the DMO rationale was from multi linear and non-linear interactions that led to: (a) path dependence behaviour; and (b) novelty arising from non-linear destination dynamism. These two made the DMO and other destination system components to exhibit what is visible and irreducible at the empirical levels of the destination, namely, emergentism.

The shifting expected role of the DMO and the unchanging policy could be ascribed to the underlying co-evolution and nested-system causally behaviour of the destination. The challenge in policy propositions was primarily from the interactions, feedback and emergent order within the system components and also with influences exogenous to it. Macro-level influences (not causes) and path-dependence forces were found to be government and public policy directions; regional structures, collaborations and shared products with adjacent destinations within the region; international markets and travel trade directions; culture and history of the destination; international membership organisations; and unknown-unknowns. At Micro-level, the destination actors were found to co-evolve and regenerate differently, and that they had rivalries, their own collaborations and redefined destination boundaries as black boxes away from official policy propositions, mainly based on spatial, shared tourism circuits and product types. These micro-level activities created blind spots for policy formulation.

The second causal domain found in the destination was the non-linear dynamism of the DMO rationale and other components. This causal relationship lies in the nested relationship between the various systems and sub systems at play in the destination. The underlying argument here is the concepts of ‘enclosing’ and ‘enclosed’ relationships between systems and sub systems. The key descriptive findings of the study are that there is presence of non-linear causal links or relationships of some of the changes or introduction of policy stimuli. For example, the introduction of some of the policy measures led to unintended reaction from the various destination members, such as the implementation of the Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018-2038 and the Tourism and Hospitality Act of 2015.

Retroductively, therefore, the most plausible description and explanation for the shifting expected DMO among the stakeholders was that the destination system as the enclosed system generates activities faster than enclosing system’s inward rules and guidance from the superordinate influences; and depending on the most imposing enclosing system, it emerges from the activities of enclosed system, diachronically. Some of what has been

cited or implied in literature as causal factors are not causal factors but superordinate influences. This is where hidden underlying mechanisms are active.

Again, through retroduction, the most reliable account of why policy propositions have been failing is that in nested systems, enclosed system's activities or frequencies of change are always faster than those of enclosing system (Walloth, 2015) and the co-evolution of institutions and components. First, policy consultations with stakeholders done from generative activities of enclosed systems which change faster are not likely to stand for long, depending on the enclosing systems at play in the destination.

Second, the destination was found to have too many unaccounted-for influences, some acting as 'black boxes' such as influences from adjacent destinations of Zimbabwe and their actors and the international brands exerting influences from their countries of origin. This study found that the tourism industry components displayed several black-boxes in its relationship with the DMO. So, it is plausible for policy to miss critical destination regeneration activities, and even destination actors themselves.

Third, it is also plausible that some critical views are not usually captured during stakeholder policy consultations because even among destination actors or stakeholders there are slower and faster actors within the destination, for example, some spatial areas or tourism sub sector could be slower and enclosing or faster and enclosed. So, depending on how stakeholder views are captured for policy propositions, it is possible to rely on the faster actors and their outward influences in comparison to the rest.

Fourth, in complex systems, there is always a 'delay' and possible policy resistance between a policy intervention and reaction of the destination. Assessing the effect of policy interventions done during this period could be misleading. It follows that decisions or changes made from this assessment is likely to be unstable. Therefore, policy propositions should be preceded with a thorough understanding based on the destination complexity, including accounting for likely 'delays' and / or 'resistance' emanating from complexity of the destination system. The policy formulation and consultative process as

found by the study have been on an assumption of linearity of destination relationships and actions. This assumption is flawed.

Fifth, as regards co-evolution, the destination showed multiple co-evolutions that could easily be missed by policy propositions. The multifarious interactions and co-evolution tendencies pose serious challenges to policy formulation and it is easy to by-pass them. For path-dependence mentioned above, the four factors important in describing and explaining the DMO phenomena are: (i) active path-dependence factors; (ii) contextuality of the phenomena; (iii) active tourist agents; and (iv) the interactions of afore-mentioned in a particular context. Of the path-dependence forces, the dominant ones were in the realm of political and public policy decisions that emerged with the reclassification of tourism as an economic sector in 1996. By and large, the current trajectory of the destination and DMO was set by public policy decisions and other influences. From the early 2000s, various decisions made by policy began to put the DMO and its rationale on a path that is characteristically evolutionally. This path-dependence trajectory alone was such that even without novelty, it would have already put the role of the DMO and other destination components on a trajectory that shifts as years went on. Therefore, the current role of the DMO and stakeholder expectations could be said to have developed over time and also have had significant casual impact on each other's ability to persist. Within path dependence, because of the mutuality of dependence between the DMO and its stakeholders, the pathway of the DMO has not been linear. The enclosing and enclosed influences were found to be mutually interdependent and have an effectuation-based coevolution. This make the path-dependent evolutionary path to be nonlinear and to show multiple pathways.

In all the preceding discussion, the role of the context, the micro level destination agents or human agency and their interactions cannot be underestimated. Each destination is unique, based on the context, active agents ad their interactions. For example, in the current study, the destination agents were found to have rivalries and showed product spatial heterogeneity and multiplicity; connectedness with adjacent destinations; and business influences from origin of ownership. These could vary, depending on the unique

context of the destination under consideration. Compared to other contexts. Zambia as an emerging destination, the forces are frequently changing and therefore easier to observe. Probably the same cannot be said of more mature and declining destinations.

The addition of this study to the discussion on the DMO role and its business model is useful at this juncture because policy, practice and even academia are all looking for ways of responding to the shift that have occurred and become more prominent in recent years to tourism destinations. This is accelerated by the various challenges already alluded to in the study that have been traced to the rapidly changing operating environment in as far as the role of the DMO and organization of tourism destinations is concerned. The contemporary discussion of DMO role and its survival going forward as viewed from both the complexity theory and social critical realism theory in this study adds a discussion upon which future studies could build on. The study made a number of interesting findings, such as efficacious mechanisms of the observed events that be subjected to further studies using either one or both of the theoretical views.

Some of the similarities of the findings of this study and extant literature are as follows:

- Generally, the role of the expected role of the DMO has been shifting / evolving in policy and practice, as argued by some extant literature. One of the key findings of the study is the evolving role of the expected role of the DMO as discussed in various discourses, at times normatively or implied in studies (Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016).
- The destination has shown some evolution in this study (Brouder *et al.*, 2017; Farsari, 2021), and so has the DMO. However, because of the evolution of both the destination and the DMO role, there is also plausibility of co-evolution between the two (which was not unearthed in the current study as it would require its exhaustive study).
- Path-dependence / historicity of the phenomena: The evolution of the DMO have taken two broad pathways of path-dependence and novelty. Path dependence has been found to be similar to studies on destinations in general on prominence of path dependence influences or forces. This has also been one of the arguments in literature for last decade or so (Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Dredge,

2016; Hristov *et al.*, 2020). Literature discourses from mature destinations of Europe also suggested that the shifting role of the DMO should be understood from the broader macro level factors at play in the tourism industry (Hristov and Naumov, 2015; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015; Pike, 2016); this has been found to be the case in the current study.

- There is a general call for reconsideration of the DMO role found among stakeholders in the current study. This has persistently appeared in literary discourses in recent years (Zehrer *et al.*, 2014; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Dredge, 2016; Pike, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020).
- The changes and quality of the changes in destination remain elusive to predict (Walloth, 2015). This was found to be the case even in the current study.

Looking at the findings of this study, the developments in Zambia followed some of the key arguments that have been touted in literature. Generally, the above-mentioned causally domains of path dependence and novelty have been acknowledged. In the case of path dependence, it has been subject of scholarly discussions for a while (Pike, 2016; Reinhold *et al.*, 2015). However, these two domains should be viewed from all the elements that are important in the determining the causality as found in this study. Causality could be traced and to linked or woven in three factors, namely (a) historicity; (b) contextuality; and (c) novelty dynamism. In the case of Zambia, all these three were found to be active, almost simultaneously. The two domains of path dependence and novelty are subject to contextuality. As found in this study, the context included the susceptibility of the destination arising from the destination agents that caused regeneration. These endogenous factors included destination components rivalries, shared products with adjacent destinations and spatial heterogeneity. Therefore, the key path-dependence forces that put the DMO on the current trajectory found a susceptible context and human agents environment, almost akin to bifurcation. It is clear that while the domains are similar and appear common in destinations, the actual active influences differ, depending on the human agents, contextuality and historical factors of the destination. However, this only appears true in the case of one domain of causality, namely path dependence. However, the second domain has been rarely discussed in literature, in the

case of path dependence domain, contextualisation of literary discussions have not been common.

The major difference of this study with extant literature is the focus of study. While literature has acknowledged the DMO phenomena as problematic (Zehrer *et al.*, 2014; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Dredge, 2016; Pike, 2016; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019; Hristov *et al.*, 2020), most extant literature has focused on the evolution on destinations in general (Butler 2004; Agarwal 2005; Dodds, 2007; Brouder *et al.*, 2017; Saarinen and Gill, 2019; Farsari, 2021). This has mostly been from various evolutionary economic-geography frameworks (Brouder *et al.*, 2017). This study focused on the DMO role. It has developed a relatively reliable and adequate technical account useful in practice and policy propositions of the DMO role and business model. This has been done by unearthing the mechanisms and structures describing and explain the shifting role of the DMO by combining complexity and social realist perspectives in one study.

The implications of this study findings and the DMO business model proposition could be summed as follows. From the findings of this study, the role of the Destination Marketing Organisation (DMO) by all proportions cannot be said to be extinct, at least as suggested by the current study, based on the perspective of stakeholders in Zambia. This is contrary to some discussion in literature, based on some mature destinations (Dredge, 2016; Nagai *et al.*, 2018). The current study shows that the role of the DMO remains relevant to both practice and policy. In the case of policy, justification of the DMO remains from the industrial tool perspective. This is contrary to suggestions in literature that this view is waning in contemporary policy environment (Dredge, 2016). For example, in the implementation period of the current Zambia Tourism Master Plan 2018 – 2038, the government reinforces this perspective and seeks to keep strengthening the DMO for this purpose. The relevancy of the DMO to other stakeholders, especially the private sector operators could be from the various lock-in forces, such as legislation and other public sector influences in the destination. The destination level lock-in factors include the legislations, culture and history of the destination, its linkages to the adjacent destinations

of Zimbabwe and other influences emanating from the Kavango-Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area (KAZA-TFCA).

As regards, the question of the way forward on the question of the DMO rationale. There are two major implications arising from the findings of this study. First, the definition of the role of the DMO in the case of Zambia; and secondly factors at play in destination system modelling and the pragmatic approach to policy formulation in destinations. The findings suggest that the DMO should play the role of destination governance and destination leadership. Other paradigmatic roles of destination marketing and destination management are capable of being shared or undertaken in various forms of partnerships with the private sector operators, travel trade. In the case of marketing, the very foundational argument of the traditional DMO role is being challenged by the current DMO operational environment. Second, it is unlikely that what Pike (2012) and Pike and Page (2014) have been warning from the early 2000s about a highly disruptive environment, which is unlikely go to slowdown. The changes in technology and crises in tourism and travel is altering the traditional destination marketing structures in a big and rather permanent way. Unless destination marketing is re-invented, which is unlikely, the DMO role is changing.

As already alluded to, the study found that the DMO was still focal and important in destinations. However, the research findings also suggest that the role ascribed to the DMO can no longer be considered to be universal as was the case in its earlier life or indeed as suggested by some literature and / or as prescriptively given by membership organisations like the World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO). Even what has hitherto been implied in some literature that the role of the DMO in relations to paradigms like destination marketing and destination management should be as policy decision-makers prescribe (Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016) is not entirely accurate and supported by propositions from the findings of this study. Where such is the case could most likely cause destination components to by-pass, create policy resistance and / or 'black-boxes' for policy. For example, this study found that some of the operators had opted to collaborate with adjacent destinations like Zimbabwe because the policy propositions

were not responsive to their expectations. This is also consistent with some who have argued that there are archetypal DMO.

6.3. Chapter Conclusion

The study developed a relatively reliable and adequate account for policy proposition of DMO role. The policy propositions ought to focus on influencing the active slower inward macro level influences by changing their guiding rules so as to change the faster generative activities of micro level destination actors. In this case, if the policy goal is to use the DMO as an industrial policy tool by the policy decision-makers, its main role becomes that of leading destination governance. The next chapter seeks to provide a DMO business model framework proposition based on the results of the study as discussed above. It will also serve to conclude the study.

CHAPTER SEVEN - STUDY CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1. Introduction

This chapter concludes the study and makes a proposition of the DMO business model framework from a pragmatic view. The findings of this study, as discussed in the preceding chapter, have considerable implications on the approach to policy frameworks and processes of developing them. It requires a thorough process of analysis, development and review in the course of implementation. It is probable that some of the policy resistance witnessed in the destination could be resolved by mere twinkling of the relevant components or interventions in the destination, such as resolving some element identified in the feedback system. It is therefore recommended that policy propositions take a more rigorous scientific approach than mere elementary stakeholder consultations. Second, the policy framework must permit for incorporating emerging dynamism, without necessarily starting from the scratch all the time.

This chapter through the DMO business model framework responds to research question number four and conclude the study. In view of the findings of this study and as aforesaid, the policy propositions ought to focus on influencing the active slower inward macro level influences by changing their guiding rules so as to change the faster generative activities of micro level destination actors. In this case, if the policy goal is to use the DMO as an industrial policy tool by the policy decision-makers, its main role becomes that of leading destination governance, in the case of Zambia for example. Below is an outline of the proposed framework for the DMO business model.

7.2. Framework for Developing DMO Business Models Proposition

The findings of this study have demonstrated that there is no way of predicting the quality of emergence as has been discussed in literature (Heylighen *et al.*, 2006; Gorski, 2013; Capra and Lusi, 2014; Walloth, 2015; Jakulin, 2016; Ylikoski, 2016) before it is there because of three principal factors. First, systems are dynamic and while enclosing are simultaneously being enclosed by other systems. Second, there may also be unknow unknowns that show up, as the case in this study where likely unknow-unknowns (Walloth,

2015) or unaccounted for behaviour in the destination could remain. It is likely that there will be some black boxes to policy, practice and DMOs. The latter argument can also be extended to include those effects that studies may not capture during the course of policy formulation.

Because of the unknown-unknowns, high dynamism of destinations systems and lack of predictability of the properties of emergence until it is displayed, a framework based on causation becomes a challenge. The alternative is to mirror causation by using what Walloth (2015) suggests, namely, the effectuation concept, traced to Sarasvathy (2001). This becomes the source of plausible principles to use in decision-related choices for complexity systems that display nesting behaviour. This study adopts this view, but goes beyond by emphasising on the feedback loops as key even within the effectuation concept application.

According to Walloth (2015), the probable options for influencing in such a problem situation would be:

- Changing the generative activities of the destination system components in a way that make them to no longer comply with existing rules of the inward influences from the superordinate systems. The expected end result is changing the enclosing guiding quality;
- Undertaking activities in the destination system that are in compliance with existing rules by disturbing the established and stable whole; and
- Inwardly influencing the guiding rules from the enclosing systems so as to change the activities of the destination system and its components.

In view of the findings of the study, which show high level inward influences and some of the major influences being possible to be identified with rigorous work, the proposal is to use inward the latter option, namely, influence of the guiding rules from the through various tools. So, the key theoretical principles, concepts and theory that the proposed framework is based on are as follows:

(a) Concept of Effectuating

The concept of effectuation shifts the choice of tools from causation to effectuation, which Sarasvathy (2001), distinguishes as follows: “Causation processes take a particular effect as given and focus on selecting between means to create that effect. Effectuation processes take a set of means as given and focus on selecting between possible effects that can be created with that set of means”.

Although Sarasvathy (2001) argues from entrepreneurship standpoint, effectuation was used in the study for policy formulation because of the likely black-boxes and a number of unknown-unknowns. The useful and applicable principles of effectuation as originally suggested by Sarasvathy (2001) in comparison to causation are as in Table 7.1. The context of focus was more ubiquitous in human action and useful under assumptions of dynamic, nonlinear, and ecological environments. On the other hand, causation focuses on more ubiquitous in nature and becomes more useful in static, linear and independent environments.

In effectuating and as adopted in this study, decision choice criteria focuses on helping choose between possible effects that can be created with given means; selection criteria is based on affordable loss or acceptable risk; and is actor dependent, given specific means, choice of effect is driven by characteristics of the actor and his or her ability to discover (Sarasvathy, 2001). The latter makes policy formulation process to make more of scientific based process than merely as political decision-makers assign role of DMO.

(b) Complexity Feedback

As highlighted in the previous chapter, one of the findings is a typical complex system network of feedbacks within and from outside the system. For, example the findings in this study were that the operators viewed that both the overall tourism master plan and the DMO strategy positions were not shared with them. The findings also indicate policy resistance and delays in the system. These are all factors of feedbacks in the system. In this regard, the feedback loops are important in the success of the DMO business model. The formulation process should therefore include a deliberate monitoring of feedback, and if need be adjusted the policy propositions to influence the system to behaviour accordingly.

Table 7.1: Contrasting Causation and Effectuation Principles (Source: Sarasvathy (2001)).

Categories of Differentiation	Causation Processes	Effectuation Processes
Givens	Effect is given	Only some means or tools are given
Decision-making selection criteria	Help choose between means to achieve the given effect Selection criteria based on expected return Effect dependent: Choice of means is driven by characteristics of the effect the decision maker wants to create and his or her knowledge of possible means	Help choose between possible effects that can be created with given means Selection criteria based on affordable loss or acceptable risk Actor dependent: Given specific means, choice of effect is driven by characteristics of the actor and his or her ability to discover and use contingencies
Competencies employed	Excellent at exploiting knowledge	Excellent at exploiting contingencies
Context of relevance	More ubiquitous in nature More useful in static, linear, and independent environments	More ubiquitous in human action Explicit assumption of dynamic, nonlinear, and ecological environments
Nature of unknowns	Focus on the predictable aspects of an uncertain future	Focus on the controllable aspects of an unpredictable future
Underlying logic	To the extent we can predict future, we can control it	To the extent we can control future, we do not need to predict it
Outcomes	Market share in existent markets through competitive strategies	New markets created through alliances and other cooperative strategies

(c) Nested Behaviour

Underlying the framework is the nested behaviour of the system, as already discussed. This study views that the destination system is a complex nested system, and therefore any proposal for DMO business model should be based on the understanding of the destination form this perspective. This again, entails a more elaborate process of arriving at policy propositions.

The study proposes a seven-step framework that could be used to develop a business model for the DMO. The framework is based on two main theoretical principles that also

appeared highly prevalent in the case of the current destination system, namely (a) reinforcing feedback; and (b) influencing the destination system. The overarching concept followed is that of effectuating. However, the framework is such that it allows for use of several tools from other disciplines, such as strategic management, marketing, tourism and others. The outline of activities on each of the steps is as follows:

Step One: Understanding and Characterising the Destination

This is the exploratory stage that seeks to understand and characterise the destination system and its environment. The outcome of this stage is drawing of boundaries for the destination; and determining the nested relationships of likely outward and inward influences. Tools at this stage could include the various environmental scanning tools from strategic management. Among the questions to be answered at this stage are:

- (a) What are the boundaries of the destination and characteristics of the nested relationships – both the outward and inward influences, including identification of main destination actors.
- (b) What are the guiding rules of inward and outward influence by enclosing systems?
- (c) What are the activities likely to trigger change in the destination?
- (d) What activities of the destination actors are likely to manipulate the rules of the enclosing system(s)?
- (e) What activities of destination components / actors are likely to work within given rules?

Step Two: Ranking likely Influencing Superordinate Enclosing Systems

Step two involves ranking the superordinate influences that have enclosing properties on the destination system and their likely influences. For example, the ranking could be as follows:

Rank 1: Main Enclosing System: Slowest Superordinate System (s) – High influence

Rank 2: Mid Enclosing System (s): Slow Superordinate systems – Mid influences

Rank 3: Enclosed System (s): Fast Superordinate systems – Low influences on Destination system but possible high activities on other systems

Step Three: Rank Main Actors in the Destination System

Step three involves identifying and ranking the main destination actors. These are the fast - enclosed destination system components with outward influence. In the case of destination like Zambia which has high regional influences, it would an idea to explore these likely influences on the destination and policy propositions. The ranking could be based on the spatial, sub destinations, or sub-sector in industry. For example:

Rank 1: Slowest Actors (Intra destination system enclosing – Low activities

Rank 2: Slow Actors (Intra destination system enclosing – Mid activities

Rank 3: Fast Actor (Intra destination system enclosed) – High activities

Step Four: Determine Choice Links

Step four involves two main activities, as follows:

- (a) Deducing potentially effective “enslavement” interventions targeted at other superordinate fast systems by the main slow enclosing superordinate system(s) among the macro-level influences, it is likely that some of these systems may influence others, so at this stage it is important to recognise these macro-to-macro influences. For example, political influences may move faster than cultural influences. If need be, interventions should be devised that dampens or amplifies the undesirable and desirable influences, respectively.
- (b) Deduce potentially effective “Enslavement” interventions targets at the destination system by the main slow enclosing system, where possible through the fastest destination system actors (for example, sub-destinations / sub-sector/ groups).

Step Five: Deduce Alternatives

During this step, the potentially effective “enslavement” interventions of destination system are considered. Critical is also to anticipate unintended distant or long-term consequences of proposed current actions and build in braking or balancing processes and feedback to detect unintended effects and reduce the likelihood of runaway effects of the destination.

Step Six: Develop DMO Business Model

At this stage it is possible to develop the DMO model, together with the overall goal for policy.

Step Seven: Share or Evaluate or Reframe Policy Goal

Once the DMO policy goal has been formulated, unknown-unknowns or indeed what has been missed in the steps or unanticipated consequences may surface, this step provides an opportunity to review policy propositions by revisiting step four. Where necessary, gently reduce input of energy or push on process through step-four. Where the policy proposition is acceptable, then the policy frame for the DMO business model is shared with the key stakeholders.

The above steps are schematically shown Figure 7.1.

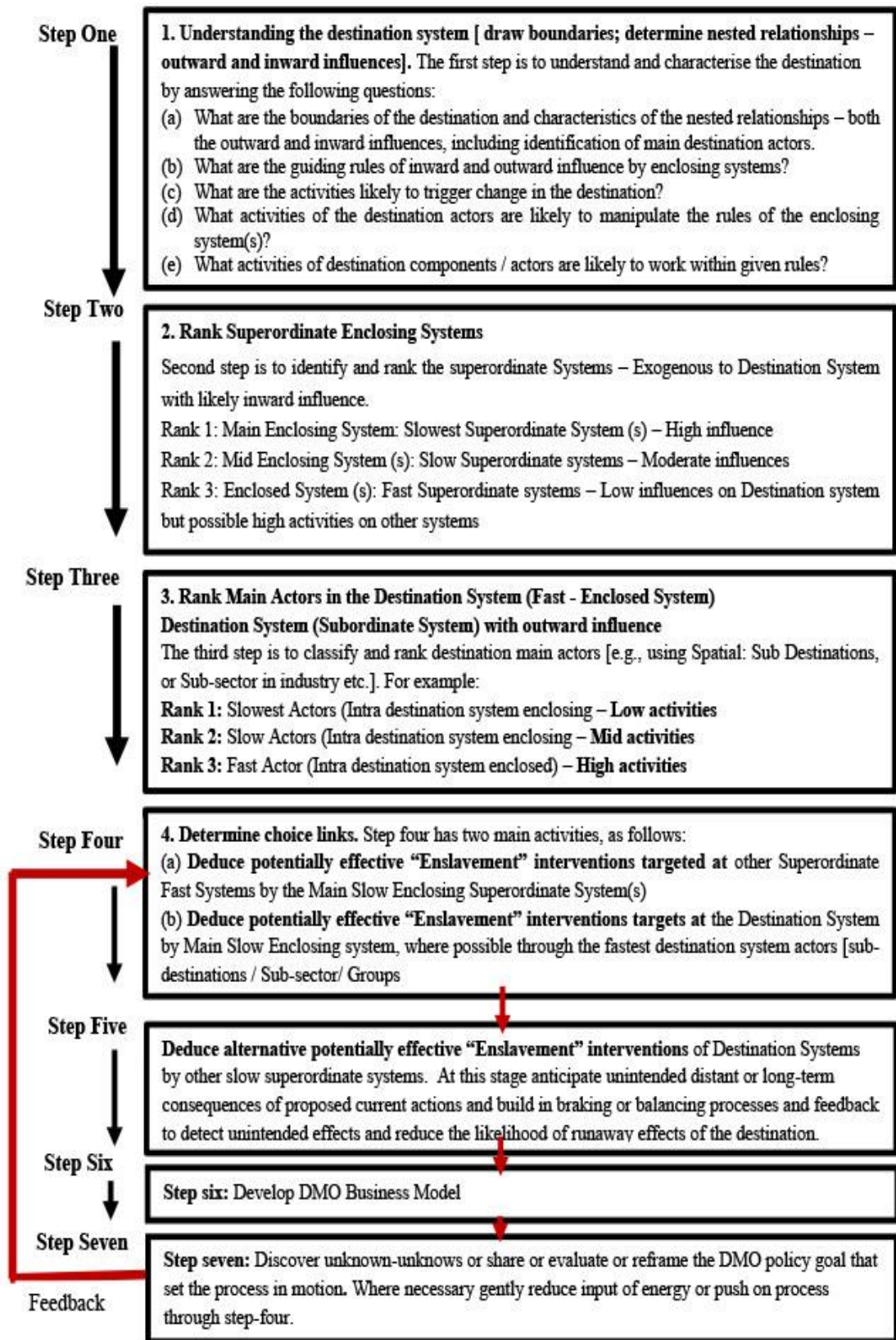


Figure 7.1: DMO Business Model Development Framework.

7.3. Contribution to the Body of Knowledge

This study developed a relatively reliable and adequate technical account that is useful in practice and policy on the DMO role, organisation of the destination and related public policy. Academically, the contribution of this study is premised on three factors, namely:

- (a) The use of a combination of two theoretical frameworks of complexity theory and realist social theory as competing frames of reference to explain the DMO problem in a specific context;
- (b) The use of critical realism (CR) to unearth mechanisms and structures underlying the DMO phenomena; and
- (c) Development of a framework for the DMO business model.

On the overall, this study has contributed another perspective to the ongoing discussion on the role of the DMO in contemporary tourism destinations and on how it will survive and its form, going forward. The study has suggested that the flagship role of the DMO to be should be that of leading destination governance, and then the other paradigmatic roles of destination marketing and management could be shared among private sector, government and other non-government actors, depending on the uniqueness of each tourism destination. This has emerged from the perspective of the complexity theory and the use of the concept of effectuation, which hitherto been mainly associated with other study areas, such as entrepreneurship. It is worth noting that although literature has argued for the conceptualisation of tourism destination studies to move towards the complexity theory in view of their characteristics, the debates around the subject of this study have, hitherto, tended to be from reductionist views. In addition to this, the study also brought in other various tools and theoretical view from various fields of study, including sociological realism.

Secondly, the addition of this study to the discussion is also useful at this juncture because policy, practice and even academia are all looking for ways of responding to the shift that has occurred. This has become more prominent in recent years to tourism destinations, accelerated by the various challenges already alluded to in the study that have been traced to the rapidly changing operating environment in as far as the role of the DMO and

organisation of tourism destinations is concerned. The contemporary discussion of DMO role and its survival going forward as viewed from both the complexity theory and social critical realism theory in this study adds a discussion upon which future studies could build on. The study made a number of interesting findings, such as efficacious mechanisms of the observed events that be subjected to further studies using either one or both of the theoretical views.

Thirdly, this study has also suggested a useful DMO business model framework. For practice and policy, this development of a DMO business model proposition is useful to decision making and serves as a starting point in the overall conceptualisation, organisation and modelling of destination systems under the contemporary and future environment. Hitherto, the frameworks used to develop DMO business models have remained open questions in literature, policy and practices.

7.4. Study Conclusions

The study developed a relatively reliable and adequate account for policy proposition of DMO role. The most stable theoretical view for this study turned out to be the complexity theory. The study found that with this theoretical frame of reference, the shifting expected role of the DMO and the unchanging policy could be described and explained using a mix of two principal domains. First, with a combination of three elements, namely interactions, feedback and emergent order; and secondly, the interplay of the superordinate enclosing systems and the enclosed destination system. The model of causality under complex theoretical assumptions can be explained from three intertwined behaviour of the destination system, namely: (i) the superordinate enclosing systems enclosing the destination system and the regeneration activities of the destination system as a whole; (ii) multiple regeneration activities of the various destination components to multiple rule-settings by the various superordinate systems; and (iii) multiple enclosing and enclosed relationships within the destination system.

Second, this study has also suggested a useful DMO business model framework. For practice and policy, this development of a DMO business model proposition is useful to decision making and serves as a starting point in the overall conceptualization,

organization and modelling of destination systems under the contemporary and future environment. Hitherto, the frameworks used to develop DMO business models have remained open questions in literature, policy and practices.

Going forward, the policy propositions ought to focus on influencing the active slower inward macro level influences by changing their guiding rules so as to change the faster generative activities of micro level destination actors. In this case, if the policy goal is to use the DMO as an industrial policy tool by the policy decision-makers, its main role becomes that of leading destination governance. This study has made a proposition of the framework for developing the DMO business model based on the above.

7.5. Limitations and Future Study Directions

The limitations of this study include the following:

- (a) The field primary data collection was done at the height of the corona-virus pandemic that had affected the tourism and travel industry. It is possible that some of the respondents' views were affected by this immediate problem and the type of leadership they looked for during a crisis.
- (b) Within Zambia as a destination, there are different spatial areas and product types. This study was limited to relatively developed areas in the southern tourism circuit, and not the growth areas of the northern circuit. However, the respondents from the travel trade and public sector organisations also operated in the northern circuit and the study attempted to capture as much representative data from these organisations as far as possible. However, there could still have been some variations had the study been conducted in the actual circuit.
- (c) Study did not rank efficaciousness of the macro level influences. While a number of a number of macro-level influences were unearthed during the study, these were not ranked. The study relied on the general rankings done in studies different from tourism and destinations. This provides an opportunity for future research in the destination.
- (d) Mechanisms are unobservable and therefore descriptions could contain concepts that do not occur in empirical data (Bunge, 2004). It highly relies on conjectures. Therefore, mechanism-based studies have an inherent weaknesses arising from subjectivity.

Going forward, other possible areas academia should engage meaningfully is bridging the divide between policy and practice, which literature has already variously identified and discussed. Essentially policy proposition for the DMO role should be evidence-based and be an outcome of a destination-specific context understanding. Possible consideration for future study directions in view of the above could include:

- (c) Focusing on isolating major influences, their characteristics and ranking them on rate of enclosing;
 - (d) Further investigation of the links between destination evolution and that of DMOs;
 - (e) Comparison of efficaciousness between path-dependence evolution and novelty in specified destinations;
 - (f) Testing the framework proposed in the next chapter and continuous development of bespoke tools for this relatively recent and growth area of destination research.
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LIST OF APPENDICES

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FRAMEWORK FOR DEVELOPING A DESTINATION MARKETING ORGANISATION (DMO) BUSINESS MODEL: A COMPLEXITY THEORY PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

To enhance and sustain the competitiveness, growth and profitability of the destinations and travel brands, tourism places and governments, establish and fund Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs), among others. However, open questions on the definition of the purpose, leadership and legitimacy of the DMO in contemporary academic discourses, policy and practice have persisted. In Zambia, this discourse persists despite the several policy and legislation reforms from 2007. The aim of this study was to develop a technical account explaining the shifting expected role of the Destination Marketing Organisation (DMO) among the various tourism industry stakeholders, and that of the structure and core activities of the DMO remaining the same in policy despite the open questions; and to use the account to develop a framework for a DMO business model. The study was approached a complexity theoretical frame of reference of complexity theory with 'mechanisms of emergence' as the explanatory frame of reference. A qualitative single case study design was followed and conducted in three sites cross-sectionally. The research problem was philosophically viewed from critical realism, and used the abduction, retroduction and pragmatism logics of scientific reasoning. The study sample was thirty (30) informants chosen through non-random theoretical sampling method from among licensed private sector operators based on their in-depth knowledge of the tourism industry from business organisations with not less than ten years in Zambia and also from among the government and its main agencies in the tourism sector. This methodological approach was found valuable for in-depth and adequate explanation of a complex social and not-empirically-clear contemporary real-life context and phenomena. The study has suggested a useful DMO business model framework based on effectuation. For practice and policy, this development of a DMO business model proposition is useful to decision making and serves as a starting point in the overall conceptualisation, organisation and modelling of destination systems under the contemporary and future environment.

Keywords: DMO Business Model, Destination Marketing Organisations, DMO role, Destination leadership, Effectuation

INTRODUCTION

In order to enhance and sustain the competitiveness, growth and profitability of tourism destinations and travel brands, in recent decades, places and governments, establish and fund Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs), among others (Pike, 2004; Pike & Page, 2014; Pike, 2016). Since the first DMO was established in 1901 in New Zealand, the DMOs have grown to be a regular and prominent feature in destinations systems (UNWTO, 2011; Pike, 2004; Pike & Page, 2014; Pike, 2016). In the case of Zambia, the DMO is the Zambia Tourism Agency

(ZTA), which is operating as a quasi-government entity at national level (The Tourism and Hospitality Act Number 13 of 2015, 2015).

Traditionally, DMOs from their early establishment were oriented to destination promotion (Pike & Page, 2014; Pike, 2016). Eventually they evolved into full-fledged marketing entities focusing on marketing. This became the germane of the current destination marketing paradigm that is distinct from its antecedent, tourism marketing (Wang & Pizam, 2011; Pike & Page, 2014; Pike, 2016).

However, in both practice and literature, the purpose and legitimacy of this traditional monolithic and universal DMO archetype focused on marketing is now being questioned, and both practice and academia are now calling for DMOs' shift towards organisations that lead the way in destination 'experiential systems' (Reinhold, Laesser & Beritelli, 2015; UNWTO, 2015; Pike, 2016). The World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) observes that "though DMOs have typically undertaken marketing activities, their remit is becoming far broader, to become a strategic leader in destination development" (UNWTO, 2015). According to UNWTO (2019), the contemporary definition of a DMO is "the leading organizational entity which may encompass the various authorities, stakeholders and professionals and facilitates partnerships towards a collective destination vision." This is a departure from its earlier view of a DMO fixated on marketing and management, defined as "those organisations which are responsible for management and / or marketing of individual tourist destinations" (UNWTO, 2004). Similarly, several other authors such as Hristov, Ramkissoon & Naumov (2020) note that the contemporary role of DMOs is expanding beyond the traditional destination marketing "towards assuming greater management and even leadership role". In tourism policy discourses, it is argued that there are shifts in the "function, responsibilities and structures of DMOs" (Hristov and Petrova, 2015), accelerated by: continuous turbulence in political and economic environments (Preston, 2012; Coles et al., 2014); changes in dominant political ideologies; rapid developments of the tourism product and its mass globalization (Buhalis et al., 2014); and the changing conceptualization of the tourism product and other environmental developments taking place. Policy is compelled to reconsider not only exiting approaches to policy development in destinations but also the role of the DMO in the strategic agenda of policy (Hristov & Petrova, 2015).

Scholars argue that going forward there is need to recognise the evolutions taking place in destinations, organisation of destinations and role of DMOs (Hristov, Ramkissoon & Naumov, 2020). Therefore, the contemporary and future strategic agenda for academia, practice and policy regarding the afore-mentioned should include recognising and responding to the challenges, that include:

DMOs "will soon no longer exist in their current form" ... "so now is an opportune time for tourism academics to engage in innovative thinking about the future of these entities" (Pike, 2016).

"Both academia and practice beyond the case of England are also signalling this major shift into the modus operandi of DMOs (Hristov & Zehrer, 2019).

"This shifting landscape questions the long-term sustainability of reshaped, yet financially- constrained DMOs facing severe challenges to deliver value to destinations, visitors and member organisations" (Hristov & Zehrer, 2019).

"Shifts in DMO governance and funding provide opportunities for the introduction of new models with a focus beyond traditional management and marketing to enable DMOs to flourish within this new landscape" (Hristov, Ramkissoon & Naumov, 2020).

However, despite the above-mentioned calls and evolutions, literature notes that the general structure and core activities of many DMOs across the world have by and large remained the same for decades now, including Zambia (Zambia Tourism Policy, 2015; Pike, 2016).

Secondly, literature has also touted various and at times enigmatic views on the factors causing these changes in the role and / or expected role of the DMO and other components in the destination system (Pike & Page, 2014; Hristov & Petrova, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Hristov, Ramkissoon & Naumov, 2020). Third, “the extant literature in the tourism domain appears to provide little insight on how to deal with tourism-specific contingencies when developing new or managing existing business models” (Reinhold, Zach & Krizaj, 2017). Fourth, literature that has argued for the shift in the role of the DMO has been enigmatic on the both the direction and what the new role of the DMO is or will become. Others have argued for retention of the marketing rationale; others a radical change to a new paradigm, such as destination management; and others for a combination but increased role towards a new paradigm, such as destination leadership (Wang & Pizam, 2011; Morrison, 2013; Pike & Page, 2014; Reinhold, Laesser & Beritelli, 2015; Hristov & Petrova, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Hristov & Zehrer, 2019; Hristov, Ramkissoon & Naumov, 2020).

Combined, the above four remain open questions in both literature and practice, and have become the four-fold problem in recent years for policy and practice in several destinations, including Zambia (Reinhold, Laesser & Beritelli, 2015; Hristov & Petrova, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Hristov & Zehrer, 2019; Ministry of Tourism and Arts, 2019; Hristov, Ramkissoon & Naumov, 2020).

The aim of the study was to develop a technical account explaining the shifting expected role of the Destination Marketing Organisation (DMO) among the various tourism industry stakeholders, and that of the structure and core activities of the DMO remaining the same in policy despite the open questions in Zambia; and to use the account to develop a framework for a DMO business model. The objectives were to (i) describe the nature of shifting expected role of the DMO and that of other components in the destination system among the various tourism industry stakeholders in Zambia; (ii) explain the shifting expected role of the DMO and that of other components among the various tourism industry stakeholders in the tourism destination of Zambia; (iii) explain the unchanging general structure and core activities of the DMO in policy despite its expected role shifting among the various stakeholders in Zambia; and (iv) develop a framework for DMO business model(s) from the technical accounts of the shifting expected role of the DMO and that of unshifting policy of the DMO in Zambia.

The above objectives were an attempt to answer the following questions:

1. What has shifted the expected role of the DMO and that of other components in the tourism destination system among the various tourism industry stakeholders in Zambia?
2. Why is the expected role of the DMO and that of other components in the tourism destination system shifting among the various tourism stakeholders in Zambia?
3. Why is the general structure and core activities of the DMO not changing in Zambia despite the expected role and the nature of destination leadership shifting among the various tourism stakeholders?
4. How can the technical accounts of the shifting expected role of the DMO and that of unshifting policy of the DMO in Zambia be used to develop a framework for DMO business model(s)?

Discourses on Causality of the Shifting Expected Role Of Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOS)

Although no specific studies have been undertaken on the underlying causal mechanisms and structures on the shifting role of the DMO and other components in destinations, literature has variously discussed this subject, at times normatively or arising in the course of discussing the role of DMOs generally (Wang & Pizam, 2011; Morrison, 2012; Pike & Page, 2014; Hristov & Naumov, 2015; Hristov & Zehrer, 2015; Reinhold, Laesser & Beritelli, 2015; Dredge, 2016;

Pike, 2016). What appears apparent from the various strands of literature is that academic discourses have accounted for and attributed the changes, disruptions and reorganisations that are taking place at various levels in tourism destinations in different ways. Consequently, the propositions of resolving the problems facing the tourism industry, DMOs, destination components on the organisation of destinations have also been varied, and at sometimes even contradictory (Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016). Even where there has been consensus, the blends of propositions on the future of DMOs in destinations have been multifarious (Wang & Pizam, 2011; Morrison, 2013; Pike and Page, 2014; Reinhold, Laesser and Beritelli, 2015; Hristov & Petrova, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Hristov & Zehrer, 2019; Hristov, Ramkissoon & Naumov, 2020).

The above notwithstanding, it appears uncontested in both academic and professional practice discourses that there are shifts taking place in the tourism industry in general and destinations in specific that are challenging the traditionally held views on the role of the DMO, organisation of destinations, roles of components and the required policy environment (World Tourism Organisation, 2011; Wang & Pizam, 2011; Morrison, 2012; Pike & Page, 2014; Hristov & Petrova, 2015; (Reinhold, Laesser and Beritelli, 2015; Pike, 2016; Dredge, 2016; Hristov, Ramkissoon & Naumov, 2020).

Secondly, it is also widely acknowledged in discourses that DMOs and the definition of their roles have over the years evolved substantially in policy, practice and theory from the traditional role and the nature of leadership they provided in earlier destination modelling to the current varied approaches suggested in some literature discussions (Pike & Page, 2014; Hristov & Naumov, 2015; Dredge, 2016).

Thirdly, it is also generally acknowledged that the tourism industry in general and specifically the destinations are somewhat reorganizing in terms of its structure, governance and leadership somehow (Gyr, 2010). What has been witnessed in the case of Zambia is that at times these have appeared through polycentricism and ahead of policy. In some case they have forced public policy enablement; tended to be continuously evolving also; and even compete with the DMO for resources and politics of DMO decision-making (Pike, 2016; Tourism Council of Zambia, 2020).

Those who have commented or discussed the subject of causality in academics have predominantly associated these changes to be mainly falling under two domains, namely: (a) changing tourism operating environment and resulting structural changes and social transformations (Dredge, 2016); (b) changes in the environment and conceptualization of destinations as complex social systems (Baggio, 2013; Jakulin, 2016). The main argument by the former can be inferred from literature as that of the interactions of the environment, structural changes and social transformation in a late modernity or reflexive era translating into “changes in character and behaviour of organisations and in public expectations about the role and responsibility within society” (Saffic et al., 2010). The latter cluster of literature base the arguments on the growing literature which acknowledges the changes in the conceptualisation of tourism destinations from being viewed as amalgam of products as once conceptualised by Buhalis (2000), to complex systems as espoused by growing number of recent literature (Reinhold et al., 2015; Baggio, 2013; Jakulin, 2016). These changes are considered to have had ramifications on the organisation of tourism in destinations in general and also on the role of the components in these system.

Destination Systems as Complex Social Systems: Rising Theoretical Framework For Destination Phenomena

A growing body of recent literature acknowledges that destinations comprise a multiplicity of interconnected product and service providers, and is open to high levels of external influences from both political and societal dynamics (Quinlan et al., 2015). In addition, literature acknowledges that destinations and problems faced are complex in nature due to their inherent characteristics, and therefore require holistic and systemic approach to understand and resolve them (Wang & Pizam, 2011; Pike & Page, 2014; Baggio, 2013; Jakulin, 2016).

The focal argument in these discourses is that a tourism destination is “a complex system, which deals with many subsystems and softly defined problems (Jakulin, 2016) and that “the only way to fully understand why a problem or element occurs and persists is to understand the part in relation to the whole” (Capra & Lusi, 2014; Jakulin, 2016).

In regard to changes taking place in destinations in general and role of DMOs in specific, some argue that this lies in unveiling the changes in the conceptualization of destinations and the problems they face (Beritelli et al., 2014; Pike and Page, 2014; Hristov & Zehrer, 2015; Reinhold et al., 2015). As the 2014 St Gallen Consensus on Destination Management argue that, going forward, a tourism destination must be viewed as “a market-oriented productive system” where tourists activate this productive system and “together, tourists and supply-side actors co-produce an experience – from origin to destination(s) and back” (Reinhold, Laesser & Beritelli, 2015). As already indicated, this view is a departure from the amalgam conceptualization of destinations as suggested by Buhalis (2000); it rather moves destinations to be conceptually viewed as multifaceted systems and spaces of flow as in a number of recent literature (Castells, 2004; Beritelli et al., 2014; Baggio, 2013; Jakulin, 2016).

The above shift in the conceptualisation of destinations presents complicatedness, especially when considered in terms of understanding the DMO, its stakeholders and problematisation of destination of their challenges. First, this shift implies increase in the role of stakeholders in any destination modelling and also brings the challenge of realigning how the DMO and the various stakeholders coordinate tasks in the ‘production entities’, from the practice and policy perspective. Second, it alters the long-held theory on location of the problems of destinations from discrete components as in analytic thinking to the systems or ‘whole’, and yet there is a gap in tourism literature and practice because of “a profound lack of research on the productivity of destinations” (Reinhold et al., 2015). Third, while it reifies recent literature that views tourism and its problems from the system complexity views, this view has not taken root in destination and tourism research, especially that of DMOs. Most importantly for the last two points is that there are still limited theoretical positions and tools within tourism and destination literature at the disposal of researchers.

Generally destinations characteristically display complexity arising from, among others: (a) tourism destinations have many elements of a variety of people, institutions and organizations that include government and non-government actors with varied interests; (b) these elements are interconnected and influence each other; (c) destination elements have a common history and enjoy feedback information within the system; (d) destinations are open systems, interacting with so many other systems; and (e) their problem situations are multifarious and far from being linear.

THE GAP

Literature from both the system complexity and social transformation strands have not identified the causally efficaciousness of the cited plausible factors and the actual generating mechanism and structures, and to possibly also eliminate the competing factors that have no causality efficacy in destination systems. Second, despite literature acknowledging destinations as complex social systems and problems they face as complex from complexity of destinations

(Capra & Lusi, 2014; Jakulin, 2016), there has been limited attempts to understand and explain the shifting role of DMOs from their complexity and complexity theory. Reductionist approaches still dominant in tourism studies. Third, as already alluded to, “the extant literature in the tourism domain appears to provide little insight on how to deal with tourism-specific contingencies when developing new or managing existing business models” (Reinhold, Zach & Krizaj, 2017).

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The study was approached from a theoretical frame of reference of complexity theory, with ‘mechanisms of emergence’ as the explanatory frame of reference. The approach was to use complexity theory to retro duct causal mechanisms and develop model explanation of the phenomena from complexity emergentism.

The doctrine of emergence as proposed by Mihata (1997) could be summarized as follows: “The concept of emergence is most often used today to refer to the process by which patterns or global-level structures arise from interactive local-level processes. This ‘structure’ or ‘pattern’ cannot be understood or predicted from the behavior or properties of the component unit alone.... In the doctrine of emergence, the combination of elements with one another brings with it something that was not there before”. Bringing ‘something that was not there before’ is ‘emergentism’ and the structure of the emergent entity or entities to infer how it came about is a ‘causal mechanism’ in this case.

Emergent systems are “complex dynamical systems that display behavior that cannot be predicted from a full and complete description of the component units of the system” (Sawyer, 2001). Similarly, Lichtenstein (2014), summarizes emergence as follows: “the creation of order, the formation of new properties and structures in complex systems” and that “when emergence happens, something new and unexpected arises, with aspects that can’t be predicted even from knowing everything about the parts of the system”. The central question in any study under the complexity view is that of causality – what causes the destination organization to display patterns of stability when they do; what causes them to change when they change; and what makes them take the form they take (Stacey et al., 2000).

Complexity theory provides a new framing for inquiries involving change and complex social phenomena by, among others, offering new ways of re-thinking old assumptions of equilibrium in favor of far-from-equilibrium and rectifying the relationship between a system and its environment (Walby, 2003). In regard to change, two pathways have sprung out of complexity theory, namely: (a) the conceptualisation of change from the point of co-evolution of complexity adaptive systems; and (b) the notion of novelty, sudden, critical turning points where complex systems give rise to “bifurcation and new paths of development that are self-sustaining” (Walby, 2003). These two and the respective frames are briefly discussed below.

Co-Evolution of Complex Adaptive System

The key conceptual tool of causality under the complexity approaches is the multi-agent system or the complex adaptive system, whose basic premise is that: a system has a collection of autonomous components or agents that try to achieve individual goals by acting upon the environment, which has other agents. Local interactions of these agents give rise to a global order. Agents on their own are inherently subjective and uncertain about their actions “yet they generally manage to self-organize into an emergent, adaptive system”.

In summary, the behavior of complex adaptive systems characteristically is defined by two fundamental elements as follows: (a) the system’s behavior is both patterned and

unpredictable; and (b) adaptive behavior indicates that such systems influence and are open to be influenced by its environment. Others include (a) large number of possible states; (b) components are dispersed and free to interact locally within a hierarchical structure; and (c) emergent behavior with pockets of unpredictability (Battaram, 1998; Tosey, 2002).

Using the above notion, complexity theory re-frames accounts of social change because the concept of co-evolution presupposes that the system takes other systems to be its environment (Walby, 2003). As systems interact with each other, they do so through coupling and assist in the reproduction of each other. Coupling of the systems can potentially lead to the creation or generation of another system unit in a different domain “from that in which the coupled entities maintain their identities” (Walby, 2003). In the case of tourism destinations, this could be in the form of a polycentric entity. This would amount to a display of emergence behaviour at the empirical level if we are to use the Bhaskarian stratified ontology.

The scope of emergence in complexity causality as approached in this study could comprise of any or a combination of the following elements:

- a) Emergence of ‘new level’ of reality in the destination, such as emergence of polycentric organisations at meso or macro levels (Mihata (1997);
- b) Emergence of patterns or macro-level structures of interactions and communications (Gavetti & Levinthal, 2000; Ganco & Agarawal, 2009) – the greater the structural patterns, the greater the adaptative of the system is;
- c) Emergence of overall novel and coherent structures, patterns and properties or system-wide shift that transforms the destination system (Lichtenstein et al., 2009).

Emergence is at the centre of complexity theory and therefore sits at the core of research in complex systems, especially those leaning on the assumption of re-organization (Lichtenstein, 2014). In theory, the centrality of emergence has been used by management scholars at both micro and macro levels. For example, at micro levels for decision-making (Minniti, 2004), leadership (Plowman et al., 2007), organizational design (Brown and Eisenhardt, 1997) and processes of organisational adaptation and strategic change (MacIntosh & MacLean, 1999) studies; and at macro level for governance processes (O’Mahony & Ferraro, 2007), emergence of new markets (Sarasvathy & Dew, 2005), creation of new industry forms (Perretti et al., 2008) and agglomeration studies (Chiles et al., 2004). The capacity to be useable at both micro and macro levels without losing ‘holism’ of phenomena is one of the reasons that make the complexity theory approaches compete with sociological emergentism as explanatory frameworks.

As alluded to above, complexity theory re-frames the debate about the micro-macro relationship in causality and is assumed to be linked through emergence in complexity theory (Walby, 2003). In sociological views the challenge has been how different levels of patterns are linked, and the variations of response has included ‘macro-micro’ linkage, ‘individual and society’, and structure, action and structuration (Giddens, 1984). Complexity theory assumes that “each level contains the objects that are present in the other levels” but these can be analysed differently, and emergence can be studied from either the bottom-up or bottom-down approaches (Walby, 2003).

Another important view within complex adaptive system is the notion of edge-of-chaos behaviour. Complex adaptive systems display behaviour between states of stability and that of chaos. Stability is considered to be a temporal state due to regular perturbations and constant chaos catalysts. Edge-of-chaos arises from the fact that complex systems display dynamism, with stable equilibrium and random chaos on the extremes. In between these distinctive dynamics, they may be at the edge-of-chaos, which is a state of readiness for radical change (Stacey et al., 2000; Russell, 2006). Contemporary literature describes destination stability as ‘transitional’ and change is considered to be imminent at any time because of the heightened sensitivity to

disruptive internal and external influences and the constant barrage of a multiplicity of chaos catalysts (Burns, 2006; Russell, 2006; Pike, 2016). This essentially is a display of edge-of-chaos characteristic.

Important to note is that complex systems are open to their environment and because of this permeability they import inputs, export outputs and interpret the feedback they receive from the environment. Consequently, they are affected by the environment and its changes. Perturbations cause the system to go into self-amplification. Self-amplification of the fluctuations generated within the system from the perturbations is taken to be the self-organisation of the system (Yolles, 1999).

Going by the edge-of-chaos assumptions in destination as complex adaptive systems, edge-of-chaos is to be expected and could actually be desirable because it drives a destination system and its components towards more competitiveness, resilient and robustness if the system is harnessed to be a learning tourism destination. A learning destination system is achieved by a DMO, government agencies and tourism industry associations acting as “intermediaries, to facilitate the generation, sharing, storage and processing of a myriad of interconnected businesses which exhibit the characteristics associated with creativity and robustness” (Senge, 1990; Speakman, 2017). This is important to keep in policy propositions. Complexity theory approaches under self-organization are suited for investigating phenomena that does not fall in the extremes of the spectrum of order-disorder but rather those on the edge-of-chaos (Langton, 1990).

Figure 1 is a conceptual view of complex adaption through self-organization. At stage one, the destination is displaying temporal stability and soon perturbations trigger the system to go into self-organization at stage two. Three rules governing behavior at stage two that can be studied are: (a) interconnections of the components; (b) self-referential behaviour of components; and (c) emergent behavior of the components at their level. At stage three, the system as a whole displays emergent behavior and is in temporal equilibrium again.

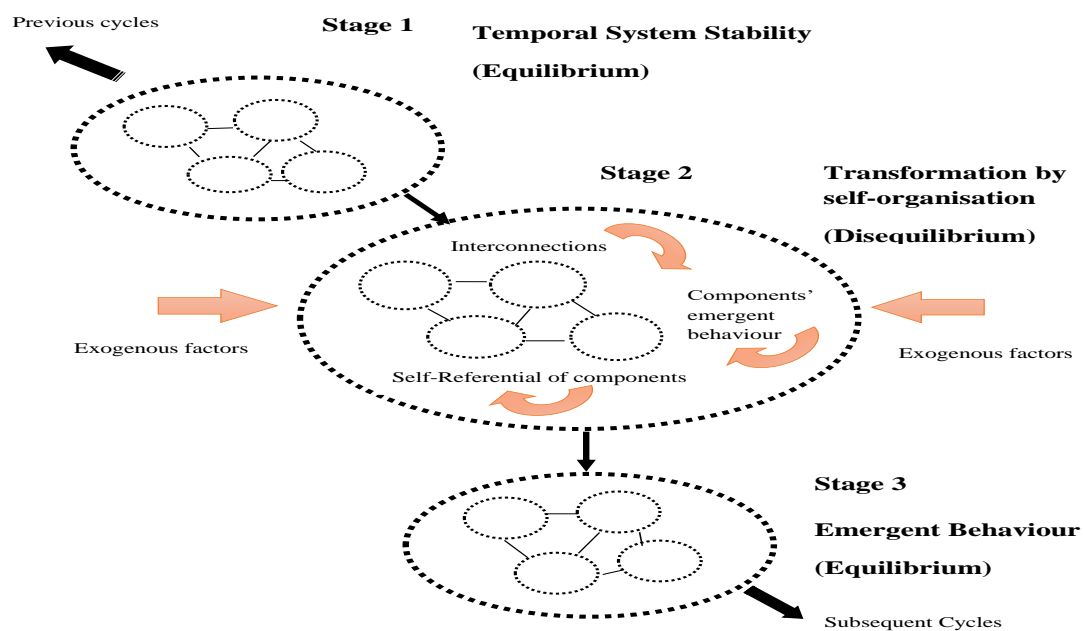


FIGURE 1
DESTINATION COMPLEX SYSTEM – CAUSALITY BY SELF-ORGANISATION
(DISPLAY OF EMERGENT BEHAVIOUR)

Path Dependency and Bifurcation

The other way of analysing change in complexity theory apart from complex adaptive systems is the display of novelty or sudden changes, which can lead to different paths of development rather than one universal route (Walby, 2003). This is somewhat different from the concept of co-evolution, which implies gradualism. In studies, the point of interest under path dependency assumptions is the point at which paths diverge, comparable to crystallization and taken to be the critical turning point or ‘bifurcation’.

Bifurcation is taken to be the point at which the system changes. Crises in destinations are considered to be points of these changes, and could send the destination system into disarray or complete destruction (Speakman, 2017). Using this argument, the shifts in the expected role of the DMO and its components, and the loss of efficacy of the archetype traditional DMO as recorded in literature (Reinhold et al., 2015) could be ascribed to system bifurcation if it arises from the ‘butterfly effect’. ‘Butter fly effect’ as discussed in the last chapter is a notion of small changes that have large effects on unstable systems. At this stage of bifurcation, policy should provide for avoidance of cosmology. In destinations, cosmology is considered to be the panic of components, visible in the system’s agents. A destination able to cultivate an inherent ability to respond to crises is more “adept at adapting to bifurcation and minimizing episodes of cosmology” (Speakman, 2017).

Bringing the above together, the mechanisms by which change and emergence take place in complexity theory could be approached from three perspectives. These are based on the versions of complexity theory from the two schools discussed above, of either change stimulus lying in the endogenous learning and developments or the sudden transformation of the environment (Walby, 2003). The three are: (a) co-evolution and complex adaptive system based on the Santa Fe Institute version; (b) sudden transformation or chaos theory version influenced by Prigogine; and (c) Eldredge’s punctuated equilibria theory, where periods of little change are followed by periods of rapid change (Eldredge, 1985; 1986; Walby, 2003).

Complex Systems as Nested Systems

Complexity emergentism gives a system property of a nested system, where a system is considered to enclose and simultaneously enclosed by other systems (Walloth, 2015). Enclosing is systems emerge diachronically from the systems they enclose. In terms causality, the basic argument is that enclosed system’s activities or frequencies of change will always be faster than those of enclosing systems. According to this doctrine, eventually enclosing systems emerge from the generative activities of the system they enclose. Walloth (2015) found that enclosed system’s activities or frequencies are always faster than those of enclosing systems. Secondly, because of emergent behaviour, there is no way of predicting the quality of emergence until it is there. This study views the destination system to be a nested system.

METHODOLOGY

The study followed a qualitative single case study design and was conducted in three sites cross-sectionally in the southern tourism circuit of Zambia (Yin, 2003; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). The three sites were (a) Livingstone; (b) Kafue Ecosystem; and (c) Lusaka, Siavonga and Lower Zambezi tourism area. Zambia’s tourism product is segmented closely with the geographical spatial areas, and each of these offers a unique product offering and stakeholder constitution in

the destination. These sites offer advantage of providing a variety of informant views and comparisons in the construction of theory under the grounded theory approach.

Livingstone is the tourist capital of Zambia, and has some of the major tourism assets and products. It is home to the Victoria falls and is part of the Kavango-Zambezi Trans-frontier Conservation Area (KAZA), which comprises of joint conservation areas in Zambia, Zimbabwe, Botswana, Namibia and Angola. Livingstone is also one of the oldest destinations with developed tourism products that include adventure activities and seasoned tourism industry operators in Zambia.

The Kafue ecosystem tourism area has the largest national park in Zambia, the Kafue National Park and like Livingstone has developed products and variety of stakeholders that include tour operators, safari accommodation facilities and a host of non-government actors active in conservation. The combination of Lusaka, Siavonga and Lower Zambezi National Park offers a somewhat different product line to Kafue National Park and Livingstone. Lusaka is the national headquarters for government and a number of quasi-government organisations in the tourism sector. Additionally, it is promoted as a meeting, incentive, events and conferencing (MICE) destination just like Siavonga. Lower Zambezi National Park is a safari destination with a number of international brands of tourism products.

The research problem was philosophically viewed from critical realism, and used the abduction, retroduction and pragmatism logics of scientific reasoning (Bhaskar, 1978; Orlikowski & Baroudi, 1991;1993; 1998; Porpora, 1998; Carter & New, 2004; Mingers, 2011; Wynn & Williams, 2012; Wynn & Williams, 2012; Bygstad, et al., 2016; Hoddy, 2018).

The study sample was thirty (30) informants chosen through non-random theoretical sampling method from among licensed private sector operators based on their in-depth knowledge of the tourism industry from business organisations with not less than ten years in Zambia and also from among the government and its main agencies in the tourism sector. Data was collected through face-to-face semi structured in-depth interviews, archival unobstructed data and review of documents, and was analysed from grounded theory approach and thematic content analysis. This methodological approach was found valuable for in-depth and adequate explanation of a complex social and not-empirically-clear contemporary real-life context and phenomena.

The sampling frame was based on the stakeholders drawn from the supply-side of the destination system. Zambia has twelve category of tourism businesses, according to the licensing regime. Tourism business stakeholders will be picked from each of these categories of businesses. However, weight has been given to tour operators because of comprising of both wholesalers and retailers in the sector, and they market products in some of the sub destinations within Zambia, such as North and South Luangwa not included in the case study. The businesses are: (a) accommodation businesses; (b) tour operators; (c) travel agencies; (d) car hire businesses; (e) adventure / activity businesses; (f) restaurant businesses; (g) night club businesses; (h) night club businesses; (i) air charters; (j) events management businesses; (k) hunting safari operators; (l) convention and conference businesses; and (m) theme parks.

Respondents interviewed	Livingstone	Kafue Ecosystem	Lusaka	Total
Travel trade / activity companies	04	-	01	05
Accommodation providers	03	01	02	06
Tourism industry associations and other industry structures	03	-		03
Quasi-government institutions	03	01	03	07

Government (department of tourism)	01			01
Government (wildlife and national parks department)	-	01	01	02
Conservation organisations (non-government actors)	-	03	01	04
Others – funding partners	-	-	01	01
Others – events organisers	-	-	01	01
Total	14	06	10	30

RESULTS

Research Question One: Complexity Theory Model Description of Phenomena

The study found that under the complexity theoretical frame of reference, the shifting expected role of the DMO and the unchanging structure and core activities could be described using four domains, as follows: (i) general behaviour exhibiting a combination of four elements, namely, interactions, feedback and emergent order; (ii) the interplay of the macro-level superordinate enclosing systems and the enclosed tourism destination system; (iii) active regenerative influences at micro and meso levels; and (iv) general characteristics of displayed behaviour.

General Behaviour

The destination system was found to be complex, primarily because of interactions, feedback and emergent order within the system components and those exogenous to it. Therefore, the critical underlying causally factor was taken to be the complexity of the destination itself. This can also be inferred to have also been the underlying challenge in policy propositions and accounts of the structure and core activities of the DMO remaining the same for years, despite shift in the expected role of the DMO.

In Zambia the range and inter relationships among components include those that emanate across the geopolitical boundary borders, away from where the Zambia Tourism Agency (ZTA) and Government has no formal jurisdiction. These complex systems in adjacent destinations still nonetheless influence policy and practice on the Zambian side, because of, among others, the shared tourism resources and historical links of operators. The various policy and government direction decisions and the direction of markets and the travel trade also increased the complexity. Highlights of the interactions, feedback, emergent and nested behaviour are as below.

Interactions: The destination system was found to have numerous interactions of nested and highly active heterogenous components that exhibit variations, and each of these are ‘systems’ on their own with influences.

The tourism destination system has numerous interactions of nested and highly active heterogenous components that exhibit variations, and each of these are ‘systems’ on their own with influences, as shown below. The destination system comprises of and are influenced by other complex systems that equally have numerous nested and heterogeneous system elements that exhibit considerable variation, with each element being a system in their own right. The interactions of the destination as a whole and the DMO comprised of multiple entities, organisations, agencies and sectors at local, regional, state, national and international levels, all

of which vary in terms of their structure, function and interests. Each component in the destination system has a unique relationship to and influence on the destination system.

Feedback: The destination, typical of complex systems, is displaying dynamic behaviour and has the ability to change, adapt and reorganise in response to its environment.

The destination, typical of complex systems, is displaying dynamic behaviour and has the ability to change, adapt and reorganise in response to its environment. It has feedback loops of interconnections. The displayed behaviour of the destination is largely as a result of the cumulative effect of positive (reinforcing or self-enhancing) and negative (balancing or goal seeking) feedback mechanisms.

What increases complexity is that the feedback loops in the destination include those connected to regional destinations and the international travel trade.

Emergent order: The model description could be that the multifarious interactions and feedback mechanisms in the destination are the ones that produce emergent order or properties displayed by the whole destination, as witnessed in the case of Zambia. The shifting role of the DMO cannot therefore be inferred by the study of individual system elements or variables but rather through the study of relationships in the whole system.

Nested System with Enclosed and Enclosing Systems: The destination system was found to show itself as nested system that has properties of enclosing other systems and is simultaneously enclosed by other systems.

Efficacious Influences of Emergence in the Destination from Other Systems

This study found that the main exogenous influences in the destination to be around six clusters or themes, namely (a) government and public policy directions; (b) regional structures, collaborations and shared products with adjacent destinations within the region; (c) international markets and travel trade directions; (d) culture and history of the destination; (e) international membership organisations; and (f) others, such as crises. In addition to these, there are also still possibilities of some unknown-unknowns that emanate from the internal behaviour of the destination itself.

In the explanation model, the six cluster of influences act as superordinate systems influencing the destination.

Cluster influence one: Government and Public Policy Directions: The study found the role of government policy and its direction has had a telling effect in shifting the expected role of the DMO among the various tourism industry stakeholders. Some of the decisions in the immediate past that has affected how the DMO is viewed and expectations from stakeholders are budget and funding models to the DMO; destination strategy and vision; and political and policy environment.

Cluster Influence Two: Regional Structures, Collaborations and Shared Product Directions: Zambia as a destination has highly active entities and mechanisms arising from proximity and shared products in major tourism areas, especially in the southern circuit. Zambia is part of the Kavango-Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area (KAZA TFCA). Second, it shares one of the major tourism attractions, the Victoria Falls, with Zimbabwe. Within the region there are both opportunities and threats of competition according to respondents.

Respondents viewed that the DMO had limitations in making decisions regarding regional competition because of the sluggishness of following centralized decision-making processes. Respondents from the private sector viewed that the DMO should play a role of coordinating with other regional equivalents so as Zambia to benefit from the transfrontier. However, it was found that the private sector has started their own initiatives as already indicated above.

An interesting finding was that while Livingstone town on the Zambian side and Victoria Falls town on the Zimbabwean side at policy and government level each operated on rules and regulations unique to each side, private sector operators on the two sides had made their own localized boundaries and regulations for areas and activities viewed to be of common interest to tourism businesses. These included in some cases collaborating across geopolitical boundaries. However, ZTA as a public entity is driven by government policy and positions, and could not enter into such localised arrangements in transfrontier tourism areas. This has caused private sector operators on both sides of the Victoria falls to create an informal structure of collaboration among themselves. This has also included undertaking destination promotion activities in long-haul markets as opposed to seeing themselves as competitors. This is different with what is found in most of the literature and government narratives.

Cluster Influence Three: Markets and Travel Trade in Source Markets: A number of private sector operators interviewed viewed that there is heightened competition for international markets, and the DMO was not moving in tandem with the private desire to remain competitive and profitable in these markets.

Secondly, a more prominent view in Livingstone is the generally declining regional market for tourism in the Kavango-Zambezi Trans-frontier Area (KAZA) during the last few years. Private sector operators viewed the need for immediate action to regain and grow the regional market. This is also attributed as one of the reasons for the formation of a regional marketing association to promote the area.

Additionally, a number of respondents, including from quasi-government entities viewed that there had been a lot of changes in the major source markets that called for various changes in the DMO role. These changes include destination promotion channels and product preferences. The private sector respondents viewed that they were ahead of the DMO in responding to eco-friendly products, which the DMO should lead in championing. These entailed, among others, for the DMO to support private sector in the delivery of the brand promise based updated market requirements. The view of respondents was that the DMO was sluggish in responding to changes pull-factors in the market place, and there was need to make it a bit more versatile in responding to markets. This has made the private sector to take up their own initiatives.

Tied to the two above, respondents viewed that the absence of destination marketing in major source markets was a major concern because of competition from regional competition which other destinations dominated. DMO was viewed as being absent in some of the potential growth markets for Zambia, such as India, and not promoting the destination in readiness for post-covid 19 era or indeed to continue with market visibility worsened it.

Cluster Influence Four: Culture and History: The destination exhibits a high level of diverse historical backgrounds and ties among individual investments, circuits and markets; and a high heterogeneity, and diverse interests, displaying, among others, the following: (i) competition and rivalry within the Industry and Sub Destinations; and (ii) southern circuit and northern circuit product development rivalries

Cluster influence five: International Organisations' influences - World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) and Other international membership associations of Zambia: Zambia is a member of the international membership organisations, such as World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) and a party to the Conventional on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES). These influenced were found to influence the destination and its organisation.

Other Cluster of Influences: Responses to Crisis: Respondents from both the private and public sector viewed that the destination through various government entities was slow to respond to crises. An example of response to the covid-19 pandemic was referred to. It was

observed that despite some of the accommodation providers taking measures that assure international tourists, the DMO and government not increased budgetary allocation to target markets looking for safer destinations.

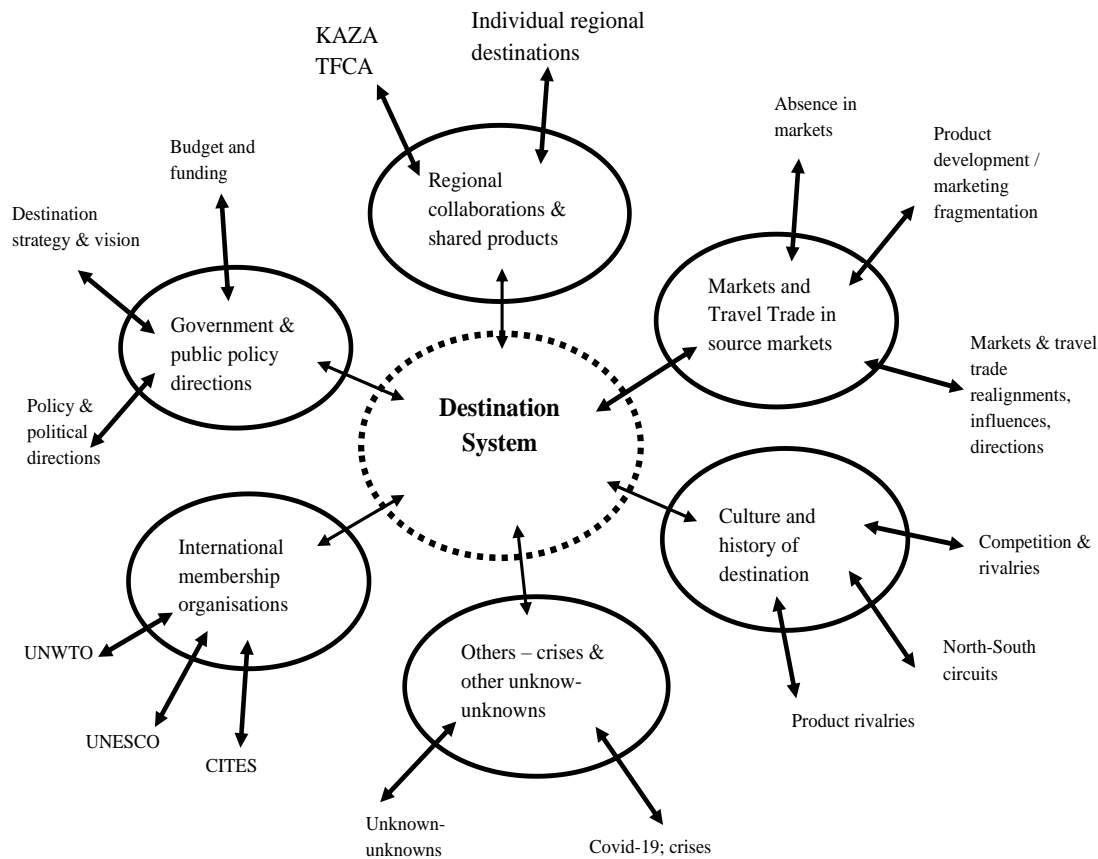


FIGURE 2
CLUSTERS OF THE MOST ACTIVE EXTERNAL COMPLEXITY INFLUENCES IN THE DESTINATION

Active Regenerative Influences at Micro and Messo levels: The active regenerative influences in the destination were to found to be: (i) rivalries within destination, mainly based on spatial areas and product types; (ii) heterogeneity of operators and their interests; (iii) historicity at micro and messo levels; and (iv) levels and sizes of operations and ownerships.

General Characteristics – Displayed Behaviour: The general characteristics of the destination included: (i) a display of emergence behaviour in general; (ii) various non-linear combinatorics; (iii) linear combinatorial productivity; (iv) opportunity tension; and (v) policy resistance – unexpected responses to policy creating worse reality.

Research Questions Two and Three: Explanation of Shifting Role of the DMO and Unchanging DMO Core Structure and Activities in Destination Policy

From the above description of causally behaviour, the model of causality under complex theoretical assumptions can be explained from three intertwined behaviour of the destination system, namely: (i) the superordinate enclosing systems enclosing the destination system and the regeneration activities of the destination system as a whole; (ii) multiple regeneration activities of the various destination components to multiple rule-settings by the various superordinate systems; and (iii) multiple enclosing and enclosed relationships within the destination system. This explains and answers the two why-questions in this study.

Superordinate Enclosing Systems and Enclosed Destination System

As found by the study, the most active superordinate systems in the destination are the government and public policy systems; regional structures and shared products system with near destinations; international tourism systems; market and travel trade systems; and culture and history system. In addition to these, there is also a possibility of the unknown unknowns existing in the destination.

Causally behaviour of the superordinate systems arises from their enclosing, rule-setting movements that enclose the destination and in return the destination system as a whole or its most active actors embark on regeneration activities. The regeneration activities are faster than the rule-setting emergence. In the end, the destination system as a whole displays the visible emergence behaviour. As shown in figure 3 the macro-level elements act as enclosing systems that are setting the rules for emergence behaviour. These elements or factors are systems on their own.

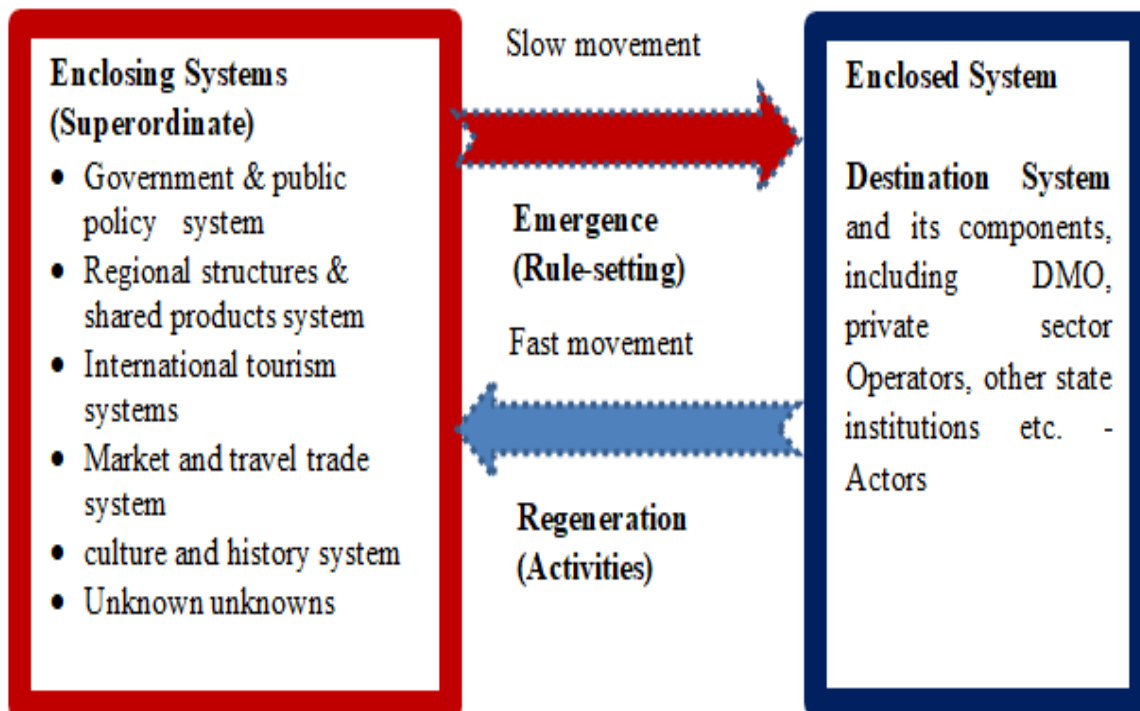


FIGURE 3
COMPLEXITY CAUSALLY MODEL NUMBER ONE

Multiple Rule-Settings Emergences by Superordinate Systems and Multiple Regeneration Activities by Destination Actors

While the systems may seem to be taken as a ‘wholes’ in the destination, there are multiple enclosing systems and enclosed systems simultaneously responsible for the ultimate causally behaviour. Each of the superordinate systems has enclosing influence of each of the components in the systems and at the same time each of the enclosed destination system may engage in different regeneration activities. Depending on the most imposing enclosing system characteristics and the fastest reacting destination components, the display of emergence may also vary. In studies of urban settlements, among cultural, political, economic and technological influences, the slowest was found to be cultural influences and fastest political ones (Walloth, 2015).

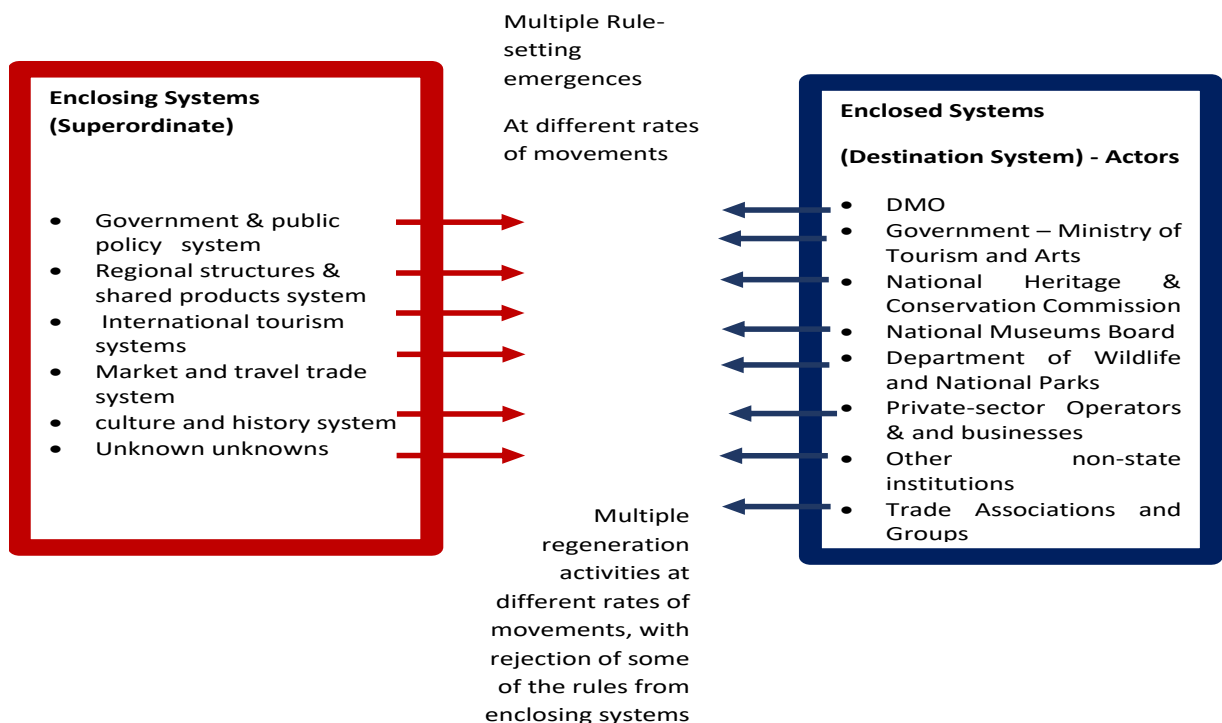


FIGURE 4
COMPLEXITY CAUSALLY MODEL NUMBER TWO

Destination System Enclosing and Enclosed by Each Other

In addition to the influences from superordinate systems mentioned above, within the destination systems there are simultaneously multiple enclosing-and-enclosed relationships among the components. The activities include rejection of some of the enclosing rules. Depending on the rule-setting components (systems) and the regeneration activities of enclosed

of the components, within the systems the expected role of the DMO could shift or viewed differently among the components.



**FIGURE 5
COMPLEXITY CAUSALLY MODEL NUMBER THREE**

Combining the three domains provides explanations of why the expected role of the DMO is shifting among the various tourism industry stakeholder; and at the same time policy is not changing in tandem with this shifting. The explanations as follows:

Shifting Role of the DMO

Retroductively, the most plausible explanation for the shifting expected DMO among the stakeholders is that the destination system as the enclosed system generates activities faster than enclosing system's inward rules and guidance from the superordinate influences; and depending on the most imposing enclosing system, it emerges from the activities of enclosed system, diachronically. Some of what has been cited or implied in literature as causal factors are not causal factors but superordinate influences.

Failing Public Policy Propositions

Again, through retroduction, the most reliable account of why policy propositions have been failing is that in nested systems, enclosed system's activities or frequencies of change are always faster than those of enclosing system (Walloth, 2015). First, policy consultations with stakeholders done from generative activities of enclosed systems which change faster are not likely to stand for long, depending on the enclosing systems at play in the destination.

Second, the destination was found to have too many unaccounted-for influences, some acting as ‘black boxes’ such as influences from adjacent destinations of Zimbabwe and their actors and the international brands exerting influences from their countries of origin. This study found that the tourism industry components displayed several black-boxes in its relationship with the DMO. So, it is plausible for policy to miss critical destination regeneration activities, and even destination actors themselves.

Third, it is also plausible that some critical views are not usually captured during stakeholder policy consultations because even among destination actors or stakeholders there are slower and faster actors within the destination, for example, some spatial areas or tourism sub sector could be slower and enclosing or faster and enclosed. So, depending on how stakeholder views are captured for policy propositions, it is possible to rely on the faster actors and their outward influences in comparison to the rest.

Fourth, in complex systems, there is always a ‘delay’ and possible policy resistance between a policy intervention and reaction of the destination. Assessing the effect of policy interventions done during this period could be misleading. It follows that decisions or changes made from this assessment is likely to be unstable. Therefore, policy propositions should be preceded with a thorough understanding based on the destination complexity, including accounting for likely ‘delays’ and / or ‘resistance’ emanating from complexity of the destination system. The policy formulation and consultative process as found by the study have been on an assumption of linearity of destination relationships and actions. This assumption is flawed.

FRAMEWORK FOR DEVELOPING DMO BUSINESS MODELS PROPOSITION

The findings of this study have demonstrated that there is no way of predicting the quality of emergence as has been discussed in literature (Walloth, 2015) before it is there because of three principal factors. First, systems are dynamic and while enclosing are simultaneously being enclosed by other systems. Second, there may also be unknow unknowns that show up, as the case in this study where likely unknow-unknowns (Walloth, 2015) or unaccounted for behavior in the destination could remain. It is likely that there will be some black boxes to policy, practice and DMOs. The latter argument can also be extended to include those effects that studies may not capture during the course of policy formulation.

Because of the unknown-unknowns, high dynamism of destinations systems and lack of predictability of the properties of emergence until it is displayed, a framework based on causation becomes a challenge. The alternative is to mirror causation by using what Walloth (2015) suggests, namely, the effectuation concept, traced to Sarasvathy (2001). This becomes the source of plausible principles to use in decision-related choices for complexity systems that display nesting behaviour. This study adopts this view, but goes beyond by emphasizing on the feedback loops as key even within the effectuation concept application.

According to Walloth (2015), the probable options for influencing in such a problem situation would be:

- (a) Changing the generative activities of the destination system components in a way that make them to no longer comply with existing rules of the inward influences from the superordinate systems. The expected end result is changing the enclosing guiding quality
- (b) Undertaking activities in the destination system that are in compliance with existing rules by disturbing the established and stable whole; and
- (c) Inwardly influencing the guiding rules from the enclosing systems so as to change the activities of the destination system and its components.

In view of the findings of the study, which show high level inward influences and some of the major influences being possible to be identified with rigorous work, the proposal is to use

inward the latter option, namely, influence of the guiding rules from the through various tools. So, the key theoretical principles, concepts and theory that the proposed framework is based on are as follows:

Concept of Effectuating: The concept of effectuation shifts the choice of tools from causation to effectuation, which Sarasvathy (2001), distinguishes as follows: “Causation processes take a particular effect as given and focus on selecting between means to create that effect. Effectuation processes take a set of means as given and focus on selecting between possible effects that can be created with that set of means”.

Although Sarasvathy (2001) argues from entrepreneurship standpoint, effectuation was used in the study for policy formulation because of the likely black-boxes and a number of unknown-unknowns. The useful and applicable principles of effectuation as originally suggested by Sarasvathy (2001) in comparison to causation are as in table 2. The context of focus was more ubiquitous in human action and useful under assumptions of dynamic, nonlinear, and ecological environments. On the other hand, causation focuses on more ubiquitous in nature and becomes more useful in static, linear and independent environments.

Table 2 CONTRASTING CAUSATION AND EFFECTUATION PRINCIPLES		
Categories of Differentiation	Causation Processes	Effectuation Processes
Givens	Effect is given	Only some means or tools are given
Decision-making selection criteria	Help choose between means to achieve the given effect Selection criteria based on expected return Effect dependent: Choice of means is driven by characteristics of the effect the decision maker wants to create and his or her knowledge of possible means	Help choose between possible effects that can be created with given means Selection criteria based on affordable loss or acceptable risk Actor dependent: Given specific means, choice of effect is driven by characteristics of the actor and his or her ability to discover and use contingencies
Competencies employed	Excellent at exploiting knowledge	Excellent at exploiting contingencies
Context of relevance	More ubiquitous in nature More useful in static, linear, and independent environments	More ubiquitous in human action Explicit assumption of dynamic, nonlinear, and ecological environments
Nature of unknowns	Focus on the predictable aspects of an uncertain future	Focus on the controllable aspects of an unpredictable future
Underlying logic	To the extent we can predict future, we can control it	To the extent we can control future, we do not need to predict it
Outcomes	Market share in existent markets through competitive strategies	New markets created through alliances and other cooperative strategies

(Source: Sarasvathy (2001))

In effectuating and as adopted in this study, decision choice criteria focuses on helping choose between possible effects that can be created with given means; selection criteria is based on affordable loss or acceptable risk; and is actor dependent, given specific means, choice of

effect is driven by characteristics of the actor and his or her ability to discover (Sarasvathy, 2001). The latter makes policy formulation process to make more of scientific based process than merely as political decision-makers assign role of DMO as implied in some discourses (Dredge, 2016).

Complexity Feedback: As highlighted in the previous chapter, one of the findings is a typical complex system network of feedbacks within and from outside the system. For, example the findings in this study were that the operators viewed that both the overall tourism master plan and the DMO strategy positions were not shared with them. The findings also indicate policy resistance and delays in the system. These are all factors of feedbacks in the system. In this regard, the feedback loops are important in the success of the DMO business model. The formulation process should therefore include a deliberate monitoring of feedback, and if need be adjusted the policy propositions to influence the system to behaviour accordingly.

Nested Behavior: Underlying the framework is the nested behaviour of the system, as already discussed. This study views that the destination system is a complex nested system, and therefore any proposal for DMO business model should be based on the understanding of the destination form this perspective. This again, entails a more elaborate process of arriving at policy propositions.

The study proposes a seven-step framework that could be used to develop a business model for the DMO. The framework is based on two main theoretical principles that also appeared highly prevalent in the case of the current destination system, namely (a) reinforcing feedback; and (b) influencing the destination system. The overarching concept followed is that of effectuating. However, the framework is such that it allows for use of several tools from other disciplines, such as strategic management, marketing, tourism and others. The outline of activities on each of the steps is as follows:

Step One: Understanding and Characterising the Destination

This is the exploratory stage that seeks to understand and characterise the destination system and its environment. The outcome of this stage is drawing of boundaries for the destination; and determining the nested relationships of likely outward and inward influences. Tools at this stage could include the various environmental scanning tools from strategic management. Among the questions to be answered at this stage are:

- (a) What are the boundaries of the destination and characteristics of the nested relationships – both the outward and inward influences, including identification of main destination actors.
- (b) What are the guiding rules of inward and outward influence by enclosing systems?
- (c) What are the activities likely to trigger change in the destination?
- (d) What activities of the destination actors are likely to manipulate the rules of the enclosing system(s)?
- (e) What activities of destination components / actors are likely to work within given rules?

Step Two: Ranking likely Influencing Superordinate Enclosing Systems

Step two involves ranking the superordinate influences that have enclosing properties on the destination system and their likely influences. For example, the ranking could be as follows:

Rank 1: Main Enclosing System: Slowest Superordinate System (s) – High influence

Rank 2: Mid Enclosing System (s): Slow Superordinate systems – Mid influences

Rank 3: Enclosed System (s): Fast Superordinate systems – Low influences on Destination system but possible high activities on other systems

Step Three: Rank Main Actors in the Destination System

Step three involves identifying and ranking the main destination actors. These are the fast - enclosed destination system components with outward influence. In the case of destination like Zambia which has high regional influences, it would an idea to explore these likely influences on the destination and policy propositions. The ranking could be based on the spatial, sub destinations, or sub-sector in industry. For example:

Rank 1: Slowest Actors (Intra destination system enclosing – Low activities

Rank 2: Slow Actors (Intra destination system enclosing – Mid activities

Rank 3: Fast Actor (Intra destination system enclosed) – High activities

Step Four: Determine Choice Links

Step four involves two main activities, as follows:

- (a) Deducing potentially effective “enslavement” interventions targeted at other superordinate fast systems by the main slow enclosing superordinate system(s) among the macro-level influences, it is likely that some of these systems may influence others, so at this stage it is important to recognise these macro-to-macro influences. For example, political influences may move faster than cultural influences. If need be, interventions should be devised that dampens or amplifies the undesirable and desirable influences, respectively.
- (b) Deduce potentially effective “Enslavement” interventions target at the destination system by the main slow enclosing system, where possible through the fastest destination system actors. (for example, sub-destinations / sub-sector/ groups).

Step Five: Deduce Alternatives

During this step, the potentially effective “enslavement” interventions of destination system are considered. Critical is also to anticipate unintended distant or long-term consequences of proposed current actions and build in braking or balancing processes and feedback to detect unintended effects and reduce the likelihood of runaway effects of the destination.

Step Six: Develop DMO Business Model

At this stage it is possible to develop the DMO model, together with the overall goal for policy.

Step Seven: Share or Evaluate or Reframe Policy Goal

Once the DMO policy goal has been formulated, unknown-unknowns or indeed what has been missed in the steps or unanticipated consequences may surface, this step provides an opportunity to review policy propositions by revisiting step four. Where necessary, gently reduce input of energy or push on process through step-four. Where the policy proposition is acceptable, then the policy frame for the DMO business model is shared with the key stakeholders.

These steps are presented in figure 6.

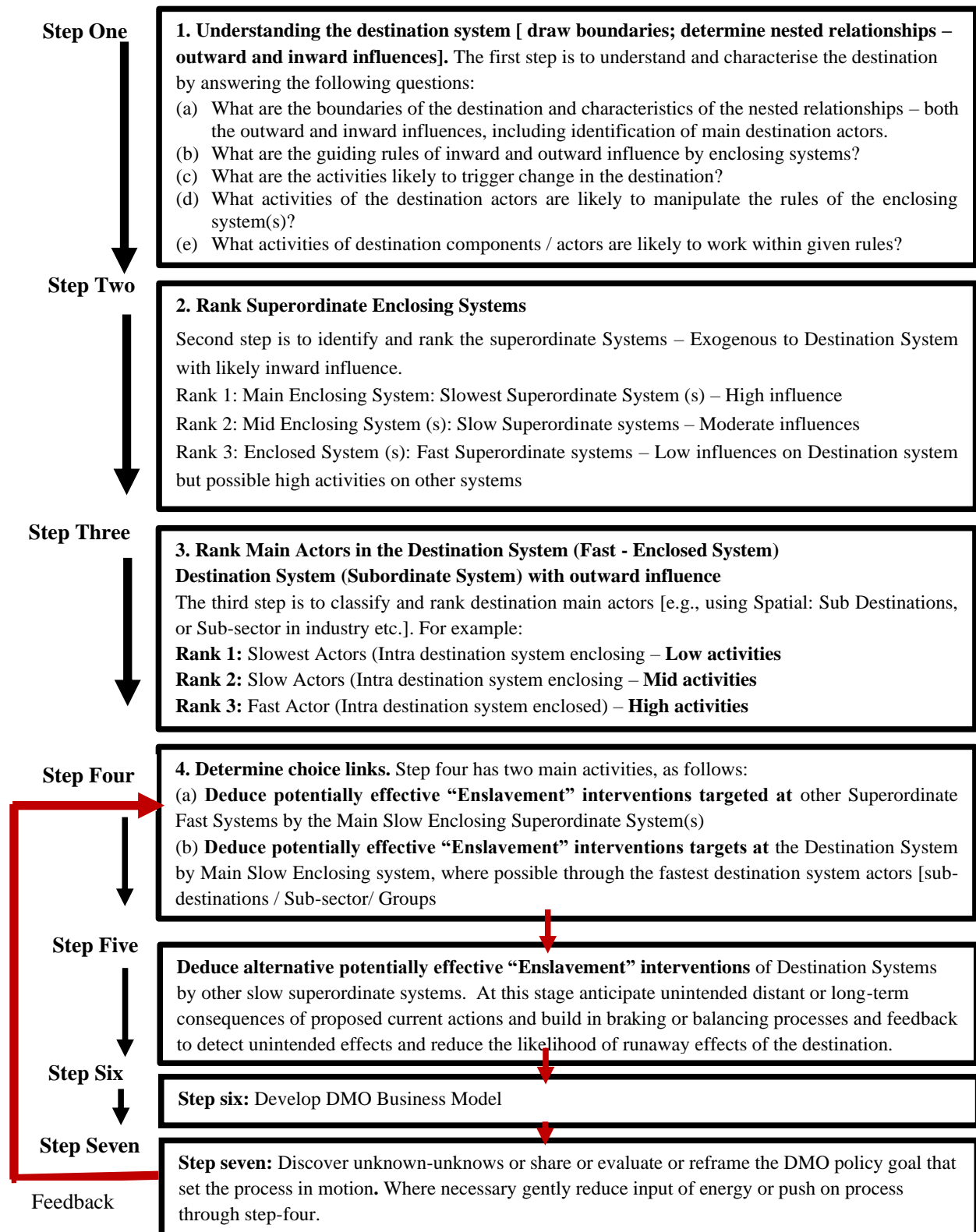


FIGURE 6
DMO BUSINESS MODEL DEVELOPMENT FRAMEWORK

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The addition of this study to the discussion is useful at this juncture because policy, practice and even academia are all looking for ways of responding to the shift that have occurred and become more prominent in recent years to tourism destinations, accelerated by the various challenges already alluded to in the study that have been traced to the rapidly changing operating environment in as far as the role of the DMO and organization of tourism destinations is concerned. The contemporary discussion of DMO role and its survival going forward as viewed from both the complexity theory and social critical realism theory in this study adds a discussion upon which future studies could build on. The study made a number of interesting findings, such as efficacious mechanisms of the observed events, that be subjected to further studies using either one or both of the theoretical views.

Second, this study has also suggested a useful DMO business model framework. For practice and policy, this development of a DMO business model proposition is useful to decision making and serves as a starting point in the overall conceptualization, organization and modelling of destination systems under the contemporary and future environment. Hitherto, the frameworks used to develop DMO business models have remained open questions in literature, policy and practices.

The study developed a relatively reliable and adequate account for policy proposition of DMO role. The study found that with the complexity theoretical frame of reference, the shifting expected role of the DMO and the unchanging policy could be described and explained using a mix of two principal domains. First, with a combination of three elements, namely interactions, feedback and emergent order; and secondly, the interplay of the superordinate enclosing systems and the enclosed destination system. The model of causality under complex theoretical assumptions can be explained from three intertwined behaviour of the destination system, namely: (i) the superordinate enclosing systems enclosing the destination system and the regeneration activities of the destination system as a whole; (ii) multiple regeneration activities of the various destination components to multiple rule-settings by the various superordinate systems; and (iii) multiple enclosing and enclosed relationships within the destination system.

Going forward, the policy propositions ought to focus on influencing the active slower inward macro level influences by changing their guiding rules so as to change the faster generative activities of micro level destination actors. In this case, if the policy goal is to use the DMO as an industrial policy tool by the policy decision-makers, its main role becomes that of leading destination governance and destination leadership.

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Appendix 2

Ethics Clearance / Approval Letter to Conduct the Study



THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA
DIRECTORATE OF RESEARCH AND GRADUATE STUDIES
RESEARCH DEPARTMENT

APPROVAL OF STUDY

23rd December, 2020.

REF NO. NASREC-2020-DEC-001

Ephraim Kaang'andu Belemu,

LUSAKA.

Dear Mr. Belemu,

RE: "THE SHIFTING ROLE OF THE DESTINATION MARKETING ORGANISATION (DMO) IN ZAMBIA: A PLURALISM OF COMPLEXITY THEORY AND REALIST SOCIAL THEORY PERSPECTIVE"

Reference is made to your protocol dated 1st December, 2020. NASREC resolved to approve this study and your participation as Principal Investigator for a period of one year.

REVIEW TYPE	ORDINARY REVIEW	APPROVAL NO. NASREC-2021- DEC-001
Approval and Expiry Date	Approval Date: 23 rd December, 2020	Expiry Date: 22 nd December, 2021
Protocol Version and Date	Version - Nil.	22 nd December, 2021
Information Sheet, Consent Forms and Dates	<input type="checkbox"/> English.	To be provided
Consent form ID and Date	Version - Nil	To be provided

Recruitment Materials	Nil	Nil
Other Study Documents	Questionnaire.	
Number of Participants Approved for Study		

Specific conditions will apply to this approval. As Principal Investigator it is your responsibility to ensure that the contents of this letter are adhered to. If these are not adhered to, the approval may be suspended. Should the study be suspended, study sponsors and other regulatory authorities will be informed.

Conditions of Approval

- No participant may be involved in any study procedure prior to the study approval or after the expiration date.
- All unanticipated or Serious Adverse Events (SAEs) must be reported to NASREC within 5 days.
- All protocol modifications must be approved by NASREC prior to implementation unless they are intended to reduce risk (but must still be reported for approval). Modifications will include any change of investigator/s or site address.
- All protocol deviations must be reported to NASREC within 5 working days. All recruitment materials must be approved by NASREC prior to being used.
- Principal investigators are responsible for initiating Continuing Review proceedings. NASREC will only approve a study for a period of 12 months.
- It is the responsibility of the PI to renew his/her ethics approval through a renewal application to NASREC.
- Where the PI desires to extend the study after expiry of the study period, documents for study extension must be received by NASREC at least 30 days before the expiry date. This is for the purpose of facilitating the review process. Documents received within 30 days after expiry will be labelled “late submissions” and will incur a penalty fee of K500.00. No study shall be renewed whose documents are submitted for renewal 30 days after expiry of the certificate.
- Every 6 (six) months a progress report form supplied by The University of Zambia Natural and Applied Sciences Research Ethics Committee as an IRB must be filled in and submitted to us. There is a penalty of K500.00 for failure to submit the report.

- When closing a project, the PI is responsible for notifying, in writing or using the Research Ethics and Management Online (REMO), both NASREC and the National Health Research Authority (NHRA) when ethics certification is no longer required for a project.
- In order to close an approved study, a Closing Report must be submitted in writing or through the REMO system. A Closing Report should be filed when data collection has ended and the study team will no longer be using human participants or animals or secondary data or have any direct or indirect contact with the research participants or animals for the study.
- Filing a closing report (rather than just letting your approval lapse) is important as it assists NASREC in efficiently tracking and reporting on projects. Note that some funding agencies and sponsors require a notice of closure from the IRB which had approved the study and can only be generated after the Closing Report has been filed.
- A reprint of this letter shall be done at a fee.
- All protocol modifications must be approved by NASREC by way of an application for an amendment prior to implementation unless they are intended to reduce risk (but must still be reported for approval). Modifications will include any change of investigator/s or site address or methodology and methods. Many modifications entail minimal risk adjustments to a protocol and/or consent form and can be made on an Expedited basis (via the IRB Chair). Some examples are: format changes, correcting spelling errors, adding key personnel, minor changes to questionnaires, recruiting and changes, and so forth. Other, more substantive changes, especially those that may alter the risk-benefit ratio, may require Full Board review. In all cases, except where noted above regarding subject safety, any changes to any protocol document or procedure must first be approved by NASREC before they can be implemented.

Should you have any questions regarding anything indicated in this letter, please do not hesitate to get in touch with us at the above indicated address.

On behalf of NASREC, we would like to wish you all the success as you carry out your study.

Yours faithfully,



Dr. M. Kaonda

VICE CHAIRPERSON

**THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA NATURAL AND APPLIED SCIENCES
RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE - IRB**

cc: Director, Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies

Assistant Director (Research), Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies

Assistant Registrar (Research), Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies

Appendix 3

Participant Information Sheet



The Shifting Role of the Destination Marketing Organisation (DMO) in Zambia: A Pluralism of Complexity Theory and Realist Social Theory Perspective

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

What this research is about

You are invited to participate in an academic research study which seeks to develop an account of the changes witnessed in the destination regarding the expected role of the Zambia Tourism Agency (ZTA), the Destination Marketing Organisation (DMO), but at the same time the core purpose and activities remaining the same in policy provisions. The study is intended to find out why there has been this change in expected role of Zambia Tourism Agency and at the same time its structure and core activities have remained the same for many years now. As part of this study, officials from major government and quasi-government tourism industry stakeholder institutions, organisations or individuals will be interviewed. In addition, non-government actors in profitable business and non-profit organisations and associations in the tourism industry will also be interviewed.

You have been identified as one of the key stakeholders to help inform the research.

This research takes place about sixty days between November 2020 and January 2021, and during this period you will be visited once or twice. The interview will take about one hour at your organisation or nearest place of your convenience.

About the researcher and funding

This research is being conducted by Ephraim K. Belemu – a PhD student at the University of Zambia, and is supervised by Dr. Erastus M. Mwanaumo. Student contact: belemue@gmail.com. Supervisor contact: erastus.m.mwanaumo@gmail.com.

The research has been approved by the University of Zambia's Natural and Applied Sciences Ethics Committee under the Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies. The study is funded by the student.

Consent Protocols

With your permission, notes and documents from this interview will be stored either electronically or in hard copy in a secure location known only to the student and supervisors. The information will be used to inform the results of the research study which will be published in a PhD thesis and in academic conferences and journals. The information will only be retained for the academic purposes only, in accordance with the University of Zambia, Natural and Applied Sciences Ethics. By supplying this information, you are consenting to the researcher and University storing your information for the purposes stated above.

No identifiable personal data will be published.

Appendix 4

Information and Consent Form

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The Shifting Role of the Destination Marketing Organisation (DMO) in Zambia: A Pluralism of Complexity Theory and Realist Social Theory Perspective

INFORMATION AND CONSENT FORM

What this research is about

You are invited to participate in an academic research study which seeks to develop an account of the changes witnessed in the destination regarding the expected role of the Zambia Tourism Agency (ZTA), the Destination Marketing Organisation (DMO), but at the same time the core purpose and activities remaining the same in policy provisions. The study is intended to find out why there has been this change in expected role of Zambia Tourism Agency and at the same time its structure and core activities have remained the same for many years now. As part of this study, officials from major government and quasi-government tourism industry stakeholder institutions, organisations or individuals will be interviewed. In addition, non-government actors in profitable business and non-profit organisations and associations in the tourism industry will also be interviewed.

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No identifiable personal data will be published. It is up to you what name or designation we store and cite your interview data under. Please indicate to the interviewer, and below how you would like to be cited.

By signing below, you are:

- (a) Confirming that you have read and understood the participant information sheet for this study and that you have had the opportunity to ask questions if necessary and have had these answered satisfactorily.
- (b) Confirming that you understand that your participation is voluntary and that you are free to withdraw during the interview and for three months after the date of this agreement, without giving any reason. If you choose to withdraw, you will contact the researcher by email (belemue@gmail.com) quoting your name and the date of the interview. If you withdraw during this period, your data will be removed from the study and be destroyed. Unfortunately, it is not possible to withdraw after this time because the data will have already been processed and incorporated in some of the research findings.
- (c) You understand that your personal data will be processed for the purposes detailed above, in accordance with the University of Zambia, Directorate of Research and Graduate, Natural and Applied Sciences Committee Ethics protocols.
- (d) You understand that your words maybe quoted directly.
- (e) For the purposes of this study, please indicate what personal identifiers you would be willing to be cited by.

Name	
Job Title	
Organisation	
Department (if applicable)	
None of the above	

- (f) Based on the above, you agree to take part in this study.

I understand and agree.

Signature:.....Date.....

...

Signature _____ of

Researcher.....Date.....

Contacts for Questions or clarifications

Name: Ephraim K. Belemu

Mobile: 0977142293

Email: belemue@gmail.com

If you would like to be kept informed of how the research progresses, including receiving publication from it, then please indicate by ticking or email the Researcher.

Appendix 5

Interviewing Instrument – Guide for use by the Researcher



The Shifting Role of the Destination Marketing Organisation (DMO) in Zambia: A Pluralism of Complexity Theory and Realist Social Theory Perspective

Interviewing Instrument – Guide for use by the Researcher (1 to 2 hours)

	Research Objective	Guiding Questions
1.	To describe the nature of shifting expected role of the DMO and that of other components in the destination system among the various tourism industry stakeholders in Zambia;	<p>(a)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Background of the informant in the tourism industry and key roles of the organisation the informant belongs to. 2. Describe the key changes that you think have taken place in the tourism industry during the last ten years or so in Zambia. 3. What do you consider to be the reasons or causes of these changes? 4. What are the main events that have occurred in the tourism industry during the last ten years or so? 5. Which sub sectors or parts of the tourism industry and businesses do you think has experienced more of these changes, and what could be the reasons. 6. How did the changes affect your organisation and other operators in the industry? 7. Are they specific to you or enforced by the industry traditions? 8. Do you find that individuals react differently to changes?
2.	To explain the shifting expected role of the DMO and that of other components among the various tourism industry stakeholders in the tourism destination of Zambia;	<p>(b)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Describe what you consider to be the role of the Zambia Tourism Agency (ZTA) and what changes do you consider to have occurred in this role during the last 10 years. 2. What would you consider to have changed, if any, on the activities and programs of the Zambia Tourism Agency, and what do you view as the causes of these changes? 3. What are your expectations from the Zambia Tourism Agency in undertaking their roles and what role do you think they must undertake, going forward, and why these expectations? 4. Do you see any particular governmental requirements or policy affecting you?
3.	To explain the unchanging general structure and core activities of the DMO in policy despite its expected role shifting among the various stakeholders in Zambia; and	