STAKEHOLDER TRUST AND EFFICIENCY AT ALPINE DESTINATIONS IN SWITZERLAND: THE ROLE OF STAKEHOLDER INTEGRATION AND PROCEDURAL JUSTICE

A Thesis submitted by

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Abstract

The Swiss Alpine Tourism Industry is facing enormous challenges. The major challenge comes from exponentially increasing regional competition (from other parts of Europe) due to the rise of the low-cost carriers in Europe. The increased competition exposes the problem that the value chain at Swiss Alpine tourism destinations is highly fragmented. Collective action is needed for individual success; however, because stakeholder needs and demands often are heterogeneous, stakeholders in the Industry tend to be hard to manage based on its structural idiosyncrasies. Local tourist organisations (LTOs) that act as the central node at a destination effectively have to balance two conflicting goals, [1] increasing the number of tourists visiting the destination (arrivals) and [2] fostering stakeholder collaboration. Destination management strategies that only focus on maximizing arrivals often produce considerable external costs and generate wealth for a limited number of stakeholders. These strategies are detrimental to intra-destination collaboration. Tourism destinations need to face the competition on a regional level to survive, but without stakeholder collaboration, the ability to successfully compete may not succeed.

Research indicates that stakeholder management can potentially act as an effective approach to tackle the dilemma. This study generates practical knowledge that LTOs can use to shape their strategies to better serve their stakeholders by researching the question what are the relationships of stakeholder integration, procedural justice and trustworthiness on trust and efficiency amongst touristic destinations in Switzerland? The study also contributes to stakeholder theory by showing that stakeholder integration practices are effective in creating trust between an organisation and its stakeholders to generate higher efficiency and the role of procedural justice has in a stakeholder management context. Data from 354 hotels were collected and analysed regarding their perception of the level of stakeholder integration, procedural justice, and trust of LTOs via a survey. Secondary data obtained from the Federal Statistical Office was used to measure efficiency at 112 Alpine destinations.

Results showed that stakeholder integration was directly and positively associated with perceived organisational trustworthiness, which, in turn, was linked to increased trust

levels towards the LTO. However, the relationships between stakeholder integration, perceived organisational trustworthiness, and trust were negatively moderated by procedural justice. The higher an LTO scored on procedural justice, the smaller the contribution of stakeholder integration to positively shape the perceived trustworthiness of the organisation or foster trust towards that LTO. Stakeholder integration did have a positive effect on destination efficiency when serially mediated through perceived organisational trustworthiness and trust.

Findings showed that stakeholder integration practices can help to build trust among destination stakeholders and LTOs act as the principal orchestrators in trust formation. Trust among destination stakeholders is a vital precondition for destination networks to function. As this study has shown, trust has the potential to increase the efficiency of the destination. Consequently, the elements of the local tourist industry should focus on fostering stakeholder cooperation based on trust and avoiding rivalry on an intra-destination level.

Certification of Thesis

This thesis is entirely the work of Urs Jäckli except where otherwise acknowledged. The work is original and has not previously been submitted for any other award, except where acknowledged.

Student and supervisors' signatures of endorsement are held at USQ.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background to the research

International tourism has experienced a continuous expansion over the past decades and became one of the fastest-growing economic sectors worldwide. The number of international tourists has grown without interruption from 25 million arrivals in 1950 to 1,235 million in 2016 (UNWTO 2017). Despite this increase in mobility, there is an ongoing crisis in the Swiss tourism industry, especially in the Alpine areas of Switzerland (Bieger & Beritelli 2013; Federal Statistical Office 2016; Swiss Federal Council 2013).

Global competition has increased significantly because of the rise of low-cost air carriers (Bieger & Beritelli 2013). Swiss tourists have increasingly taken their vacation outside Switzerland due to lower airfare. For example, 66% of individuals living in Switzerland travelled outside the country in 2015 compared to 61% in 2013 (Federal Statistical Office 2016). This is significant as domestic tourism accounted for 45% of the demand in 2015, which equals 16.1 million room nights (Federal Statistical Office 2016). As a result, for the first time since 1975, Swiss residents spent CHF 252 Million more outside Switzerland in 2016 than non-resident revenue generated in Switzerland (Federal Statistical Office 2018a). Alpine tourist destinations in Switzerland had a negative average occupancy growth of -3% between 2011 and 2015 even though 5% of the room capacity had been taken out of the market in the same period (Federal Statistical Office 2016).

What official data is showing is that Switzerland has not been able to capitalise on the increased mobility of the European traveller to the same extent as its competitors across Europe. Compounding the strength of the Swiss Franc making the tourist experience more expensive has been the structural problems resulting from dysfunctional cooperation or the breakdown of cooperation by the different entities involved in the catering of tourists at Swiss Alpine tourism destinations (Candela & Figini 2012; Raths 2015). Both of these issues led to a 9% decrease of European tourists coming to Switzerland in 2015 (Federal Statistical Office 2016). This drop in numbers is significant, as European guests accounted for the second largest demand of 11.8 Mio room nights in 2015, which equals 33% of total room nights generated (Federal Statistical Office 2016).

In this highly competitive environment, customer needs change rapidly, and destinations need to continuously perform product, process, and market innovation to ensure market access (Beritelli, Bieger & Laesser 2007). Dysfunctional cooperation can occur at destinations when the different stakeholders claim a diverse range of rights or prevent others from using their rights, impeding the formation of a viable tourism product and efficient resource allocation (Candela & Figini 2012; Heller 1998; Swiss Federal Council 2013). Switzerland historically features community-type destinations with decentralised ownership and fragmented value chains. Thus, Swiss tourism destinations in the Alpine region of Switzerland consist of a wide array of heterogeneous stakeholders with sometimes competing interests (Bieger & Beritelli 2013). This means that despite the existence of a tourist organisation destination governance is distributed across the various destination stakeholders (Bieger & Beritelli 2013). There is no one central authority with decision power and direct decision processes (Beritelli, Bieger & Laesser 2007).

What seems to be happening is that the prevalent transactional and personal relationships found in the community-based approach seen in Switzerland is losing ground to competing tourist destinations around the globe that are integrated and centrally managed tourist destinations, often managed by one single company like cruise ships (mobile destinations), amusement parks, winter sport resorts in North America and summer vacation resorts in Asia and the Middle East (Beritelli, Bieger & Laesser 2007; Bieger & Beritelli 2013). For example, Vail Resorts Management Company is a mountain resort company that directly manages the following renowned North American ski destinations: Vail, Beaver Creek, Whistler Blackcomb, Breckenridge, Keystone, Park City, Heavenly, Northstar, Kirkwood, and Stowe (Vail Resorts 2018). Destination development or planning process at community-based destinations relies on informal connections, knowledge and trust. As a result, community-based destinations are transactional and personal relationships in networks are the norm (Beritelli, Bieger & Laesser 2007). However, in contrast, in a corporate model, hierarchical relationships predominate. For this reason, integrated, centrally or corporate-managed destinations develop more distinct, focused and differentiated strategies, with decisions made and measures implemented more rapidly (Bodega, Cioccarelli & Denicolai 2004; Hage & Alter 1991).

Tourism's economic impact on destination sites throughout the world places an emphasis on how anyone destination approaches what it offers, how it markets itself to potential tourists and the role played by its local tourist organisation (LTO). How the different stakeholders interact and help shape the complex product that makes up the tourism industry at a destination are critical to success because the relationship between stakeholders helps define the extent of complementary in the network (e.g., accommodation, transport, attractions, etc.) and substitutive goods and services (e.g., different lodging structures, alternative attractions, etc.) that define a tourist destination (Andergassen, Candela & Figini 2017).

1.2 Research problem and contributions

Swiss Alpine destinations have experienced a decline in demand (measured in room nights) of 7% between 2011 and 2015. While domestic tourism demand declined by 2%, demand generated by international tourists was down 11% (Federal Statistical Office 2016). This led to an average drop in occupancy of 3% between 2011 and 2015 even though the overall capacity had already decreased by 5% (measured in available rooms) or 10% (measured in hotels) between 2006 and 2015 (Federal Statistical Office 2016). Due to this decline, the gross value added (GVA) total share of tourism has dropped from 2,9% in 2001 to 2,6% in 2016 (Federal Statistical Office 2018a). If this development persists, more and more jobs in the tourism sector are at risk. To illustrate this point, the number of workers in Switzerland employed in the tourism sector has dropped from 4.3% to 4.1% between 2001 and 2016 (Federal Statistical Office 2018a; Freigang 2018). Another effect has been the acceleration of the increasing shift of jobs from rural locales to the cities in the Alpine areas of Switzerland as a result of fewer jobs, further weakening the tourism sectors in these rural areas (Berner Zeitung 2015). The mountain areas, in particular, continue to rely on tourists because the inhabitants of entire valleys depend directly or indirectly on them. According to Federal Councillor Johann Schneider-Ammann (Freigang 2018), "In large parts of the Alpine region, tourism plays a key role - without it, the economic prospects of many valleys would look bleak…Tourism is one of the pillars of the Swiss economy" (Freigang 2018). The question on the horizon is how this downward spiral can be stopped.

The strong Swiss Franc is often cited as one of the main reasons Swiss Alpine destinations are in decline (Swiss Federal Council 2013). While the strength of the Swiss Franc versus other important currencies like the Euro undoubtedly has a substantial impact on tourism demand in Swiss Alpine destinations, it cannot entirely explain the phenomenon of the dwindling numbers at Swiss Alpine destinations. For example, domestic tourism, which accounted for 45% of the demand in Swiss Alpine destinations in 2015, has been declining by 2% between 2011 and 2015 (Federal Statistical Office 2016). However, domestic tourists are not exposed to exchange currency influences. In any case, it is pointless to focus on parameters that cannot be changed. The exchange rate has to be accepted as a framework condition.

Another potential reason why Swiss Alpine tourism is suffering is its structural idiosyncrasies. In contrast to the problem of unfavourable exchanges rates, these structural idiosyncrasies do not have to be accepted as an unalterable given. Destinations themselves can tackle the need to make changes.

One reason why tackling change is a difficult undertaking is that in the tourism market, destinations are the competitive unit and not the individual firms (Crouch & Ritchie 2000). The value chain at tourism destinations is multi-faceted and fragmented (Murphy, Pritchard & Smith 2000), requiring cooperation among the various destination stakeholders for destination planning (Candela & Figini 2012). Tourism research stipulates the need to adopt a strategic and therefor managerial approach to steering the disparate elements of the touristic supply chain (Buhalis 2000; Flagestad & Hope 2001; Pechlaner 1998). However, particularly in the context of community-type destinations, to engendering collaboration among the destination stakeholders is a difficult task (Beritelli 2009). Many case studies illustrate the fact that effective destination management and planning at community-type destinations is challenging (Crouch & Ritchie 1999; Getz & Jamal 1994; Gill & Williams 1994; Robson & Robson 1996) or even impossible (Taylor 1995) due to the following circumstances:

- The low degree of integration (e.g., destinations with few or one major company vs. community-type destinations with fragmented structure) (Flagestad & Hope 2001; Sainaghi 2006).

- Strategic planning in community-type destinations takes place in public space (Beritelli 2009).
- Involved stakeholders are constrained in a complex system of particular interests (Beritelli 2009).
- The destination usually consists of various rights-holders that often protect their exclusive rights to which they are entitled (Boesen & Martin 2007; Cole 2014). This potentially impairs cooperative behaviour among destination stakeholders and can lead to inefficient use of resources (Candela & Figini 2012).
- The challenge of collective action. Once the group size increases, individuals tend to only acknowledge the importance of collective goods to a limited degree. Collective failure is one likely result, especially when the group is homogeneous and when institutional structures that promote collective action are missing (Olson 1989).
- Information asymmetries between the destination stakeholders (Axelrod & Hamilton 1981)

If Alpine destinations want to remain on the global touristic landscape, all constituents affected need to be more actively involved in establishing viable destination strategies (Jamal & Getz 1995; Swiss Federal Council 2013). Therefore, it is worthwhile for Swiss Alpine destinations to ensure that tourist enterprises cooperate, coordinate their services, establish and pursue a shared vision, and support a specific development policy emanating from that vision (Bieger & Beritelli 2013).

Predominant conventional destination strategies, based on the neoclassical economic paradigm that understands destination planning in a rather narrow sense (e.g., the planning activities and their outcomes) (Bieger & Laesser 1998) have not fully met the challenges resulting from the fragmented nature of community-type destinations (Beritelli 2009). These strategies do not sufficiently embrace the idiosyncratic circumstances of community-type destinations listed above (Beritelli 2009) and, as a result, have generally failed to ignite collaboration beyond self-interest driven behaviour (Ritchie & Crouch 2003). The economic perspective based on concerns of power, rational gain, and self-interest, falls short in explaining human behaviour that goes beyond outcome-driven self-

interest (Chan & Mauborgne 1998; Ghoshal 2005; Tversky & Kahneman 1986). Newer perspectives like the stakeholder paradigm (Sachs & Rühli 2011) and the organisational justice and trust literature (Chan & Mauborgne 1998; Colquitt et al. 2001; Cropanzano, Bowen & Gilliland 2007; Hosmer & Kiewitz 2005; Husted 1998; Phillips 1997) seem to better capture the benefit that potential mutual value creation can have on the Swiss Alpine tourism industry through the integration of stakeholders in organisational processes

The concept of stakeholder integration, which is the ability to establish positive collaborative relationships with a wide variety of stakeholders (Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010), has proven to be a promising approach to foster the kind of collaboration that leads to generate more viable destination strategies. In this approach, knowledge, more than capital, labour or natural resources is the primary driver for value creation in the 21st century especially, as knowledge, more than capital, labour or natural resources is the primary driver for value creation in the 21st century (Asher, Mahoney & Mahoney 2005; Blair & Stout 1999; Drucker 1994; Jones & Felps 2013). Knowledge can be acquired through positive stakeholder relationships (Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010; Sachs & Rühli 2011). The value-add resulting from positive, trust-based stakeholder relations exceeds what can be acquired through regular market transactions (Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010). Barney and Hansen (1994) argue that trust-based stakeholder relations cannot only emerge in situations where the exchange parties are backed by legal protections and self-interest drives trustworthy behaviour. Instead, organizations need special skills and abilities such as efficiency to evoke trust in order to be a competitive advantage.

Knowledge in the form of the utility functions of stakeholders has the potential to increase efficiency (Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010). Stakeholder utility function refers to "stakeholders' preferences for different combinations of tangible and intangible outcomes resulting from actions taken by the firm" (Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010, p. 62). When stakeholder utilities become known, efficiency is likely to increase as firm tactics and resources can be adapted accordingly (Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010).

Nevertheless, the expected utility hypothesis based on the rationality of economic actors may not be an adequate concept to explain stakeholder utility (Sachs & Rühli 2011;

Tversky & Kahneman 1986) because, more likely, decisions by stakeholders are driven by norms, habits, and expectations and not just by rational thinking (Tversky & Kahneman 1986).

In other words, stakeholders judge the value created and the utility received by the focal organisation not in absolute but in relative terms: losses and gains might differ across stakeholders depending on their individual reference point. Additionally, the perception of value might change over time: the certainty of losses can result in weighing more heavily than equally sized gains (Kahneman & Tversky 1979). Unclear, from a stakeholder's perspective, is what defines gain or loss as well as how the reference point is determined (Barberis 2013). To shed light on these mechanisms, stakeholder integration uses trust and trust-based relationships between the stakeholders and the focal organisation to establish a more fine-grained view on the reference point, the definition of a gain or a loss and, thus, on each stakeholder's utility function (Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010; Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010).

Stakeholder trust has various positive effects on the stakeholder-firm relationship, such as improved collaboration, increased organisational effectiveness, efficiency and overall business performance (Da Silva & Gonçalves 2013; Dervitsiotis 2003; Greenwood & Van Buren III 2010; Harris & Wicks 2010; Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010; Longo & Mura 2008; Sloan & Oliver 2013; Swift 2001). Unlike this study, trust research has predominantly focused on the individual instead of the organisational level of trust (Pirson & Malhotra 2011). Further, it is unclear what kind of stakeholder management practices signal trustworthiness as an antecedent of stakeholder trust (Pirson & Malhotra 2011), in accordance to Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) definition of trustworthiness. Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010) argue that trustworthiness alone is not enough to unveil the stakeholders' utility functions. Only relationships that are based on procedural justice lead to the unveiling of nuanced information about stakeholders' utility functions; as a firm can be trustworthy and not allocate decision-making influence across its stakeholder network. As a consequence, if a focal firm's reputation for procedural justice processes is impaired, stakeholders' trust erodes (Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010) in

accordance to the stakeholders' perception of the fairness of decision-making vis à vis its procedural justice (Leventhal 1980; Lind & Tyler 1988).

Stakeholder integration is linked to stakeholder management capability, but it is an underdeveloped academic concept (Driessen, Kok & Hillebrand 2013). Its benefit rests in the view that knowledge of the specific stakeholder's utility function is vital for mutual value creation (Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010). This study's goal was to further the academic development of the concept. In the literature, Hart (1995) proposed to integrate external stakeholders and their perspectives on product design and development processes, describing what he called stakeholder integration as a critical resource. Harrison and St. John (1996), in the same vein, called for a new approach to stakeholder management, demonstrating how partnering tactics with external stakeholders can lead to achieving common goals that lead to increased efficiency. Heugens, Van Den Bosch and Van Riel (2002) further developed the concept of stakeholder integration in a manner similar to the stakeholder view held by Post, Preston and Sachs (2002) that organisational wealth can be created through relationships with stakeholders of all kinds and that managing relationships with stakeholders for mutual benefit is a critical requirement for corporate success.

Plaza-Úbeda et al. (2009) further extended the concept of stakeholder integration by measuring the degree of stakeholder integration in the firm's decision-making process by listing all the major stakeholder groups of the firm. Managers had to rate the efforts that the firm exerted in satisfying and responding to the demands of each identified stakeholder group. Before this research, no study had explicitly measured the degree of stakeholder integration in a firm empirically. Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010) also developed a measurement scale to evaluate the degree of stakeholder integration in corporate management consisting of three dimensions: (1) knowledge of stakeholders and their demands (Maignan & Ferrell 2004), (2) interaction between stakeholders and the company (Payne & Calton 2004) and (3) decisions and behaviour which take into account stakeholders' demands (Altman & Petkus Jr 1994). These three categories corresponded with the stakeholder management capability as described by

Freeman (1984) and Freeman, Harrison and Wicks (2007) that can be rational, process and transactional in scope.

According to Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010), stakeholder integration has the potential to foster trust between the focal organisation and its stakeholders. Trust as a fundamental element is a basis on which destinations stakeholders rely as it creates the necessary conditions for successful partnerships and collaboration in tourism destinations (Nunkoo & Smith 2014). "The existence of a reasonable level of trust among key tourism players and between those players and the society in which they operate significantly affects the nature and magnitude of environmental, social, and economic impacts and other strategies developed to minimize negative consequences" (Nunkoo & Smith 2014). Trust also has a positive impact on efficiency because in low-trust environments business decisions that involve consumer relations, contracts and interactions with suppliers, partnerships, licensing, and long-term business dealings are much more difficult, time-consuming and less likely to be successful (Nunkoo & Smith 2014).

In the context of community-type destinations, there is a need to better understand which kind of management evokes desired outcomes such as trust that serves as a foundation for constructive collaboration (Moorman, Zaltman & Deshpande 1992b) and destination efficiency (in terms of resource allocation) (Beritelli 2009; Candela & Figini 2012; Sainaghi 2006). This study aims at testing the relationship between stakeholder integration practices and their capability to evoke trust and efficiency at community-type destinations.

Practitioners potentially benefit from the findings of this study as it sheds light on the positive outcomes of a specific stakeholder management practice that can be applied at community-type tourism destinations. Stakeholder integration departs from the traditional destination management approaches (Bieger & Laesser 1998) as it focuses on integrating various perspectives into decision-making processes (Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010) and does not primarily aim at managing and steering the stakeholders at tourist destinations in order to maximize shareholder value (Sachs & Rühli 2011). In today's competitive tourism landscape (Bieger & Beritelli 2013), new approaches are needed to remain competitive (e.g., efficient use of resources) while

simultaneously avoiding negative externalities like over-tourism or the exploitation of natural resources (Bornhorst, Ritchie & Sheehan 2010; Hall, Gössling & Scott 2015).

From a theoretical point of view, this study was important for four reasons:

1. The implications of stakeholder integration on trust and efficiency as well as how stakeholder integration transmits its effects on these variables has not been tested empirically, to the best knowledge of the researcher (Ayuso, Rodriguez & Ricart 2006; Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010; Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010).

2. Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010) emphasised that stakeholder relationships need to be continuously maintained in order to ensure the type of trust necessary to unlock value creation opportunities. However, they spoke of stakeholder management and its effects in general terms. This study tested a specific stakeholder management approach.

3. By applying the procedural justice measure by Colquitt (2001) in a stakeholder tourism context, this study contributed to the understanding of the influence of this justice dimension, especially in a stakeholder integration process. The study tested the role of procedural justice as a moderating variable between trustworthiness, trust, and efficiency (regarding resource allocation decisions).

4. Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010) contended that trustworthiness alone might not be enough for stakeholders to unveil their utility function. This study offered empirical support for this argument and provided further explanations about the conditions and mechanisms that are at play for the stakeholders to unveil their utility functions.

1.3 Research questions

This study addressed the following four main research questions:

- Does stakeholder integration improve trust levels between the LTO and its stakeholders?

- Does stakeholder integration improve efficiency at Swiss Alpine tourism destinations?
- Does the degree of procedural justice applied by the LTO during the stakeholder integration process improve trust levels between the LTO and its stakeholders?
- Does the degree of procedural justice applied by the LTO during the stakeholder integration process increase efficiency at Swiss Alpine tourism destinations?

These main research questions were further refined and divided into 12 sub-questions:

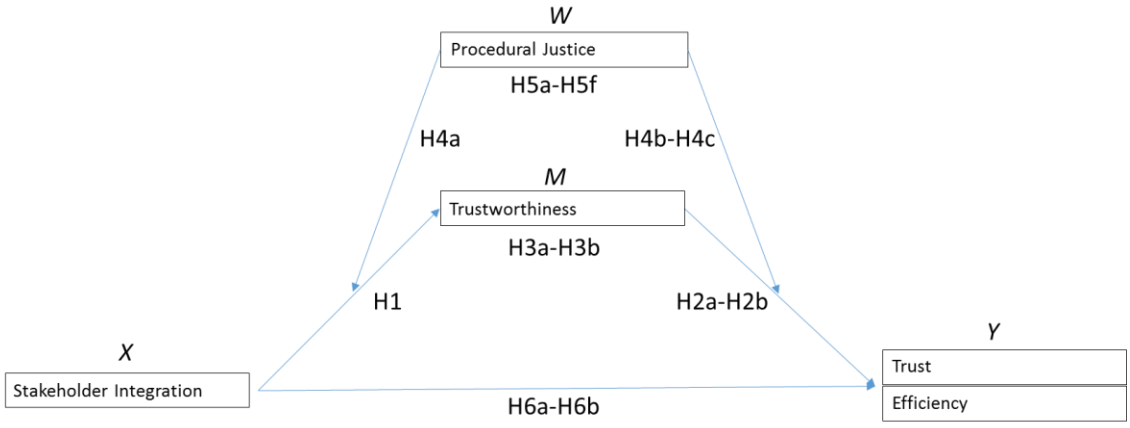
1. What is the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness amongst hotels and LTOs at Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland?
2. What is the relationship between stakeholder integration and trust amongst hotels and LTOs at Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland?
3. What is the relationship between stakeholder integration and efficiency amongst hotels and LTOs at Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland?
4. Does stakeholder integration influence trust because stakeholder integration is associated with trustworthiness, which in turn influences trust among hotels and LTOs at Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland?
5. Does stakeholder integration influence efficiency because stakeholder integration is associated with trustworthiness, which in turn influences efficiency at Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland?
6. Does procedural justice moderate the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness?
7. Does procedural justice moderate the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness to predict trust amongst Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland?
8. Does procedural justice moderate the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness to predict efficiency amongst Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland?

9. Does procedural justice moderate the relationship between trustworthiness and trust amongst Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland?
10. Does procedural justice moderate the relationship between trustworthiness and efficiency amongst Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland?
11. Does procedural justice moderate the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness and the relationship between trustworthiness and trust to predict trust amongst Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland?
12. Does procedural justice moderate the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness and the relationship between trustworthiness and efficiency to predict efficiency amongst Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland?

1.4 Research design and methodology

This study sought to test important aspects of instrumental stakeholder theory and theories of trust and organisational justice. One part of this study explored the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness while applying procedural justice as a moderating variable. Another part examined the relationship between trustworthiness, stakeholder trust, and efficiency (in terms of resource allocation) and the contingency of these relationships on procedural justice (Figure 1).

Figure 1 Conceptual framework for stakeholder integration and organisational performance



Source: developed for this research

Examining the role of stakeholder integration and trustworthiness as well as the moderating role of procedural justice is essential (Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010) in determining viable sector destination strategies. The interplay between these variables was deemed to have the potential to explain the conditions for stakeholder trust and efficiency to occur. Thus, this study built on the managing-for-stakeholders-approach used by Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010). According to this model, companies that signal trustworthiness towards their stakeholders potentially are in a position to increase trust and efficiency. Specifically, the focus was on:

- The three dimensions of the stakeholder integration scale identified by Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010). These are [1] knowledge of the stakeholders and their demands, [2] interaction with stakeholders and [3] adapting to stakeholder needs when making decisions. Stakeholder integration served as a tool to incorporate the hotel stakeholders' demands or desires in the LTO's decisions, signalling trustworthiness and thus leading to the optimization of firm tactics through the unveiling of the stakeholders' utility functions (Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010).

- The perceived organisational trustworthiness through the lens of hotel stakeholders judging the perceived organisational trustworthiness of their LTO. The scale utilized looked at [1] ability (the organisation's collective competencies and characteristics that enable it to function reliably and effectively to meet its goals and responsibilities), [2] benevolence (organisational action indicating genuine care and concern for the well-being of stakeholders), and [3] integrity (organisational action that consistently adheres to moral principles and a code of conduct acceptable to employees, such as honesty and fairness) (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995).

- Procedural justice, as based on justice rules identified by Leventhal (1980). This measure was not necessarily tied to a specific event, but it was treated as an entity measure. As proposed by Colquitt (2001), procedural justice was an indirect measure of advantages in giving managerial advice to the different stakeholders in tourist destinations (e.g., the necessity to devote more resources to ensure the

accuracy, consistency and the ability to correct decision-making process or stakeholder integration procedures), something that a direct measure could not provide (Colquitt & Shaw 2005).

- Measuring trust and trustworthiness as separate but related constructs. Gillespie's (2003) measure of the intent or the decision to trust (e.g., the decision to act) was adapted to suit to this study's stakeholder-organisation context as it was initially designed for an individual and not an organisation to be the referent of trust.

- Efficiency as a measure of resource allocation was measured using data envelopment analysis (DEA) (Zhu 2003). DEA is a common method used in the tourism industry to measure efficiency (Liu et al. 2013). It can identify the relationships between inputs and outputs irrespective of their similarities or dissimilarities as a scale (Perrigot, Cliquet & Piot-Lepetit 2009). The input variables for this study were [1] the number of hotels, [2] the number of hotel beds at the destination and the output variables, [3] the number of hotel room nights generated and [4] the number of arrivals at the destination.

This research adopted a post-positivistic paradigm or worldview, deterministic in nature, holding that causes probably determine effects (Creswell 2009). Using a survey was an appropriate strategy in light of the post-positivistic worldview (Creswell 2009; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe 2002). The approach taken applied a cross-sectional rather than longitudinal design to only uncover relationships without allowing to statistically infer that one variable causes another (Bryman & Bell 2010).. Care was taken to make sure that the cross-sectional data allowed covariation to support a theory-driven causality assumption which means that coherence strongly relied on theory rather than on data collection to provide causal evidence (Rindfleisch et al. 2008). A longitudinal design was not adopted because [1] temporal erosion meant that order could not be improved from collecting longitudinal data and [2] the presence ofanother important marker of causality like theoretical coherence (Rindfleisch et al. 2008).

The unit of analysis in the study were local tourist organisations (LTO) in the Alpine region in Switzerland. The unit of observation was the LTOs' hotel stakeholders. The region for this study was comprised of the cantons of Waadt, Wallis, Bern, Freiburg,

Luzern, Obwalden, Nidwalden, Uri, Tessin, Schwyz, Glarus, St. Gallen, Appenzell, and Graubünden. Hotels were identified through the database of the Swiss Hotel Association (2015), giving all hotels an equal chance of participating in the study. Providing an equal opportunity to participate was important due to accounting for non-response and analysing non-response bias by conducting a refusal conversion analysis in which converted respondents became proxies for final non-respondents (Armstrong & Overton 1977; Groves & Couper 1998; Smith 1984).

1.5 Thesis outline

The thesis consists of five chapters that outline the main theories and methods to address the research questions, results obtained from the study, a discussion of the findings and conclusions, and implications arising from the investigation.

Chapter 1 provides the context and scope of the study and presents the research problem, conveying why this study was important while briefly introducing methodology used in this study while providing the reader with the definitions and delimitations of the study.

The literature review in Chapter 2 presents the background of the literature on which the study was based. Emphasis is given to stakeholder theory, trust theory, and organisational justice theory, which serve as the underpinning for the framework of this study.

The methodology chapter, Chapter 3, discusses and justifies the applied post-positivistic research paradigm and the investigation's research design. A quantitative approach was used. Data was collected through an online survey as well as from data of the Swiss Federal Statistical Office.

The survey and secondary data were analysed using SPSS and PROCESS; the procedures and outcomes are explained in further detail in Chapter 4. Chapter 4 reports and discusses the empirical research findings on the relationship between stakeholder integration, trustworthiness, procedural justice, trust, and efficiency as they relate to the research questions.

Finally, Chapter 5 provides a discussion of the research questions framed from a theoretical perspective as well as identifying potential implications for Swiss LTO and hotel managers. It provides the reader with a reflective discussion of the study's findings.

1.6 Definitions

In this section, key terms used in this study are defined in Table 1 below. The definitions are further explained in terms of how they are applied in the specific context of this study.

Table 1 Definitions

Destination stakeholder:	A person, group, or an organisation that has a stake in a destination. This includes the local community, visitors, non-governmental organisations, local trade, transportation providers, employees, financiers, political parties, suppliers, attractions, and hotels. In this study, hotels are in scope as the sole destination stakeholder due to practical reasons. Whenever the term destination stakeholder is used in this study, it refers to hotels.
Stakeholder trust:	The degree to which destination stakeholders trust their local tourist organisation. In this study, only hotels are under scrutiny; therefore stakeholder trust only refers to the level hotels trust their LTO.
Tourism:	The practice of travelling for recreation. Tourism can be characterised by [1] the interdependence of its different sectors, [2] by the generally small scale of its many operators, [3] by the fragmentation of its markets and [4] by the spatial separation of origins and destinations.
Tourism destinations:	A tourism destination is the competitive unit of incoming tourism made up of all services and infrastructure necessary to meet the needs of visitors staying to see or experience a specific tourism segment

	(e.g., landscape, fauna, flora, climatic conditions, cultural-historical attractions, accommodation, leisure facilities, other infrastructure). Destinations are an essential part of a tourism product (Bieger & Beritelli 2013) of a specific geographical area. Accordingly, a hotel (for the visitor of a meeting or conference) or a resort can also be regarded as a destination. It must be noted that the general conditions of destination management are changing so that, for example, only one company is responsible for managing a hotel or resort.
Local tourist organisation (LTO)	Tourist organisations exist at different levels: international, national, regional, and local. The focus of this study is on the lowest level, the local tourist organisation (LTO). LTOs can be private or governmental organisations and are mostly funded by visitor's tax revenues. LTO primary functions include marketing the destination, visitor servicing, destination development, tourism planning, research, stakeholder coordination, and lobbying (Bieger & Beritelli 2013; Pearce 1992). An essential feature of LTO is that it has no authority to issue directives to service providers and is therefore dependent on their voluntary cooperation and collaboration, which makes efficient destination management considerably more difficult. The extent of interdependence between stakeholders, size, market fragmentation, and spatial separation are all factors that may lead to a desire to unite for combined action in order to achieve common goals (Pearce 1992).
Procedural Justice	Concerned with the fairness of decision-making procedures (Cropanzano & Greenberg 1997). Procedural justice is accomplished by adhering to

	several rules of fair treatment such as consistency, bias suppression, accuracy, and correctability (Leventhal 1980)
Stakeholder Integration	The ability of an organization to establish positive collaborative relationships with a wide variety of stakeholders (Rueda-Manzanares, Aragón-Correa & Sharma 2008). It consists of three dimensions: [1] knowledge (of stakeholders and their demands), [2] interaction between stakeholders and the focal organisation and [3] the adaptive behaviour of the focal organisation toward its stakeholders (Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010).

1.7 Delimitations of scope

The research outlined in this thesis examines the relationships between stakeholder integration, trust, and efficiency in conditions of various levels of procedural justice exerted by the local tourism organisation. No other constructs or relationships were in scope.

This study did not analyse normative or any other type of LTO motivation to integrate stakeholders. This study was based on the instrumental view of stakeholder theory and interested in testing relationships between stakeholder management and positive outcomes. Therefore, this work mainly contributes to the body of research of instrumental stakeholder theory (Aupperle, Carroll & Hatfield 1985; Berman et al. 1999; Cochran & Wood 1984; Donaldson & Preston 1995; Jones, Harrison & Felps 2018).

The focal point of this study were the hotels and LTOs in the Alpine region of Switzerland. Hotels were treated as the main stakeholders at a tourist destination. Limiting the focus on the Alpine region was important as city destinations, for example, can rely on commercial and event tourism if their leisure business is slow. City destinations are less dependent on weather, season, and currency influences thanks to their diversification. These influences would have biased the research. Because this study aimed to investigate the effects of

stakeholder integration on community-type destinations, centrally managed destinations like cruise ships (mobile destinations), amusement parks or centrally managed summer or winter sports resorts (as found in the Middle East or North America, for example) were not part of this investigation.

1.8 Chapter conclusion

Chapter 1 provided the background and context on which this study is based. It presented the research problem at hand: Alpine tourism destinations in Switzerland face significant challenges due to increased global competition. Even though international tourism has been growing without interruption since 1950, Switzerland's Alpine tourism destinations have experienced a decline in demand since 2011, hurting occupancy rates and decreasing overall hotel capacity simultaneously between 2011 and 2015. In addition to getting fewer international visitors, the trend of Swiss citizens going abroad on vacation is decreasing their contribution to Switzerland's GVA which, in turn, is leading to a decline in the number of people employed in the tourism sector. These developments jeopardize the existence of entire valleys and villages in the Alpine region of Switzerland. If destinations cannot increase their efficiency in attracting tourists, this downward spiral is not likely to be stopped.

Stakeholder theory, trust theory, and organisational justice theory were synthesised to investigate this problem. Overall, stakeholder theory offers a new approach to destination management by incorporating the various perspectives of the destination stakeholders instead of applying a narrow managerial and somewhat mechanical approach of planning outcomes. Developing a new, collective perspective is important, as Swiss Alpine community-type tourism destinations consist of various stakeholders with sometimes competing interests. This makes destination planning more challenging than at centrally managed destinations where one single company manages the entire tourist destination. Community-type destinations rely more on trust and personal relationships than on structures and processes. In this context, stakeholder integration has the potential to foster trust between the LTO and its stakeholders. This increased trust level at the destination potentially increases efficiency - the better use of resources - at the destination, helping to resolve the research problem at hand. After the outline of the study, key definitions and

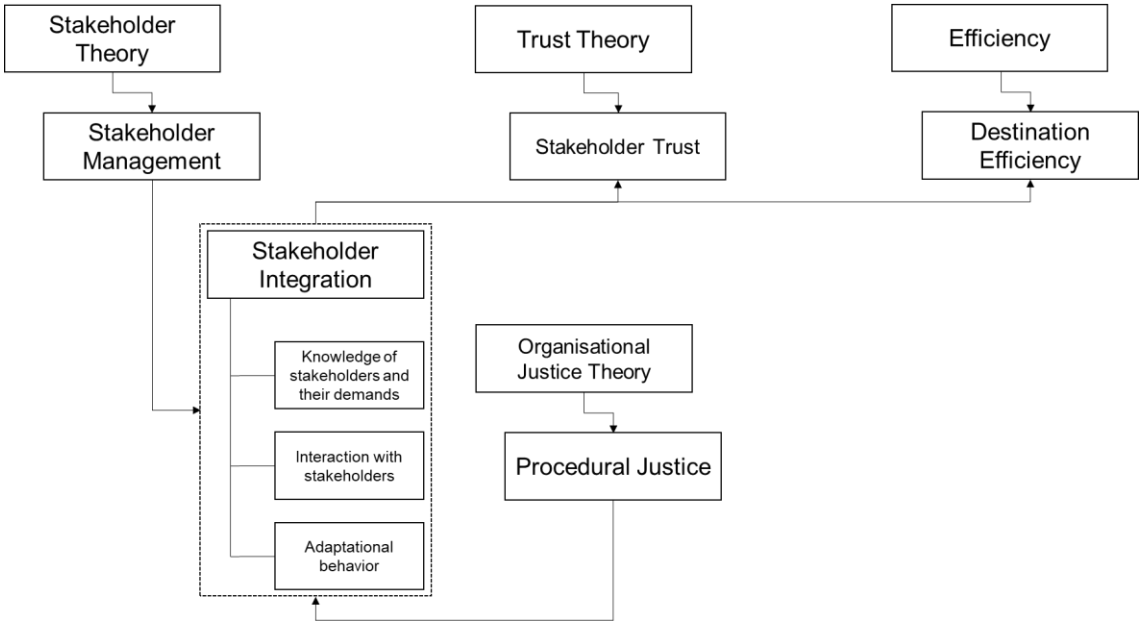
the delimitations of scope were also explained. The next chapter explores the literature on stakeholder theory, trust theory, and organisational justice theory.

Chapter 2: Literature review and conceptual development

2.1 Introduction

There are seven components to this chapter. The first section discusses the existing literature related to the evolution of stakeholder theory to unveil its capacity to evoke positive outcomes like trust (section 2.2). The narrative then provides a technical exploration of stakeholder management and integration concepts (section 2.3) and the role of trust and trustworthiness in stakeholder interactions resulting from the consequence of stakeholder integration and procedural justice (section 2.4). The next section provides a more detailed treatment of organisational justice (section 2.5). The analysis identifies the role of procedural justice in a stakeholder relationship, which is based on trust. Possible positive outcomes of a stakeholder approach, namely stakeholder trust (section 2.4) and efficiency are topics of section 2.6. The last section presents the conceptual model and its underlying hypotheses (section 2.7). Figure 2 depicts the relevant literature streams used in this study and how they are linked together.

Figure 2 Structural illustration of literature used



Source: developed for this study

2.2 Stakeholder theory

In his landmark book "Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach," Freeman (1984) proposed that stakeholders, including employees, customers, suppliers, financiers, and communities are an essential part of an organisation's environment. This contrasted with the traditional view of a company that has a binding fiduciary duty to put shareholders first and consequently only needs to increase value for them. Stakeholder theory aimed at increasing the probabilities of an organisation's capacity to survive in competitive markets by understanding the needs and concerns of stakeholder groups and by gaining their support to achieve the ultimate managerial goal of creating value through cooperation (Buyucek et al. 2015; Freeman et al. 2010). For example, Bryson (2004) suggested that there is a relationship between considering the expectations of stakeholder groups and organisational decision-making success. This view was supported by Donaldson and Preston (1995), who found a positive correlation between a company's success and the number of stakeholders taken into account as part of planning and decision-making processes.

By implication, stakeholder theory adopts a collaborative perspective by emphasising the importance of partnerships in value creation. Even though stakeholder theory uses resource dependence theory (Pfeffer & Salancik 1978) as one of its central tenets, it does not only pay attention to the stakeholders' potential to threaten the organization by withholding resources. Instead, as posited by Post, Preston and Sachs (2002) and Freeman et al. (2010), emphasis is placed on the important (and more optimistic) dimension of the potential for cooperation emanating from stakeholder relations. This perspective is based on the idea that organisations inherently are cooperative systems and, as a result of their cooperative nature, organisations are inclined to form stakeholder networks to achieve common goals (Freeman et al. 2010). Interestingly enough, the topic of value creation and trade resulting from stakeholder relationships has rarely been examined (Freeman et al. 2010). Specific questions such as how a firm should treat stakeholders to create value have not been sufficiently answered (Garriga, 2014). This study addressed this question by focusing on stakeholder integration as a distinct stakeholder management approach. Thus,

this study adopted an instrumental view of stakeholder theory (Donaldson & Preston 1995).

A review of the stakeholder literature demonstrated an insufficient amount of empirical testing of the stakeholder theory approach (e.g. Barringer & Harrison 2000; Harrison & Freeman 1999; Laplume, Sonpar & Litz 2008). As a result, current stakeholder theory has significant practical limitations due to its descriptive rather than prescriptive nature and its macro orientation (Barringer & Harrison 2000; Laplume, Sonpar & Litz 2008). This study acknowledged the need to ground stakeholder theory through empirical research by empirically testing a specific form of stakeholder management to derive concrete recommendations for managers from a stakeholder theory perspective. The object of the next section is to conceptualise stakeholder integration as a specific stakeholder management approach, which will serve as the foundation for empirical testing.

2.3 Stakeholder management and stakeholder integration

As indicated in section 2.2., one important branch of stakeholder theory is its focus on value creation and trade and how businesses can be managed effectively (Freeman et al. 2010). The goals of stakeholder management are twofold: [1] implementing organisational policies and practices based on the consideration of the goals and concerns of relevant stakeholders And [2] consistency in regards to the organisation's enterprise-level strategy and profit-making purpose (Banks et al. 2016; Verbeke & Tung 2013). To date, there is not much literature that systematically describes how different approaches of stakeholder management affect the performance of an organisation (Bridoux & Stoelhorst 2014). As stakeholder management can take many forms, guiding frameworks are needed for managers to discuss stakeholder decisions as managers lack clear guidance about what an overarching stakeholder management strategy looks like (Banks et al. 2016). The following subsections synthesise the existing literature of stakeholder management to conceptualise stakeholder integration for this study.

2.3.1 From stakeholder management towards stakeholder integration

The idea of engaging or integrating stakeholders and their demands into planning processes is an essential aspect of stakeholder theory (Freeman et al. 2010). Over time,

different approaches have been developed to describe these practices: *stakeholder management* (e.g. Freeman 1984), *managing for stakeholders* (e.g. Freeman, Harrison & Wicks 2007; Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010), *management of stakeholders* (e.g. Post, Preston & Sachs 2002), *stakeholder engagement* (e.g. Sharma & Vredenburg 1998) and *stakeholder integration* (e.g. Heugens, Van Den Bosch & Van Riel 2002; Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010).

The term *stakeholder management,* as introduced by Freeman (1984) encompassed three levels that should be present in dealing with stakeholders: rational, process, and transactional. Further classifications of stakeholder management were grounded on these three levels. The first level is reflected in the literature on stakeholder salience (e.g. Mitchell, Agle & Wood 1997; Neville, Bell & Whitwell 2011), the second in literature on communication with stakeholders (e.g. Calton & Payne 2003; Lamberg, Savage & Pajunen 2003) and the third in research on response strategies (e.g. Savage et al. 1991). Stakeholder integration as conceptualized by Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010) includes all practices aiming at getting stakeholders more involved with organizations and is thus a holistic approach.

Post, Preston and Sachs (2002) added an additional perspective to stakeholder management: a moral motivation to organisations practising a stakeholder management approach. They distinguished the terms *stakeholder management* and *management of stakeholders* because they regarded the *management of stakeholder* approach as a manipulative relationship. This is in contrast to *stakeholder management* that, in the view of Post, Preston and Sachs (2002), addresses morals and values in managing an organization. Stakeholder integration aims at establishing collaborative ties with their stakeholders in a positive but morally neutral way: “[M]easuring Stakeholder integration does not allow us to verify whether the grounds for implementing these practices are the company’s moral commitment to stakeholders or simply the desire to obtain the support of certain groups with a view to obtaining economic benefits. As such, stakeholder integration or stakeholder engagement are morally neutral practices” (Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010, p. 420).

In the literature, stakeholder integration resembles the concept of *stakeholder engagement,* which has been more prominently used within the domain of environmental sustainability (Andriof & Waddock 2002; Ayuso et al. 2011; Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010).[1] Although applied differently, the similarity between stakeholder integration and stakeholder engagement rests in their core idea of the centrality of a proactive approach to stakeholder management and the partnerships between the firm and its stakeholders (Andriof & Waddock 2002; Heugens, Van Den Bosch & Van Riel 2002). In the context of this study, stakeholder integration and stakeholder engagement were treated as interchangeable concepts because it is this proactive aspect to stakeholder engagement and stakeholder integration that distinguishes them from traditional approaches to stakeholder management. Both concepts pay attention to 'dynamic efficiency' (the emphasis on learning and innovation) in contrast to strategic management's emphasis on efficiency by economizing transactional costs (Amin & Cohendet 2003; Wu & Eweje 2008).

Another example reflecting the shift from a traditional to a more proactive stakeholder management approach was advocated by Svendsen (1998). She suggested that the organisation should not only try to buffer itself from the negative impacts of stakeholder activities but postulate a collaborative approach. This collaborative perspective sees stakeholder relationships as reciprocal, evolving, and mutually defined, implying a more *integrated* approach to identifying and building strategically vital stakeholder relationships. Svendsen's (1998) study was one of an increasing number of studies suggesting a relationship between strengthened stakeholder relationships and critical competitive advantages such as trust (Ayuso, Rodriguez & Ricart 2006).

Despite the breadth of literature about stakeholder management, Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010) concluded that none of these approaches systematically described, on a firm-stakeholder relationship level, how a particular type of stakeholder management leads to a competitive advantage. Subsequently, they suggested a managing for stakeholders-approach with firms doing more than what is necessary to maintain

[1] A search on Google Scholar using stakeholder engagement as a search term delivered 37,500 results whereas 26,200 entries resulted when the terms stakeholder engagement and sustainability were used in combination.

continued stakeholder participation within their network. This means organisations should allocate firm value and decision-making influence to satisfy stakeholder demands and needs of stakeholders. Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010) presented a conceptual framework of the underlying mechanisms, which this study takes as a starting point.

Even today, the question of how a firm should treat its stakeholders to create value remains largely unanswered (Garriga 2014). Ayuso, Rodriguez and Ricart (2006) concluded that there had been very little empirical research on the topic of concrete stakeholder integration mechanisms. The goal of the next subsection is to develop valid and reliable indicators that reflect the stakeholder orientation of an organization based on the premises developed in this section.

2.3.2 Stakeholder integration

Stakeholder integration as described by Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010) is characterised by an organisation's [1] knowledge of stakeholders and their demands (Maignan & Ferrell 2004), [2] interaction between stakeholders and the focal organisation (Payne & Calton 2004) and [3] decision-making processes taking into account the demands and needs of stakeholders (Altman & Petkus Jr 1994). Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010: 419) provided a company-centric definition of stakeholder integration: "*the ability to establish positive collaborative relationships with a wide variety of stakeholders."* In a similar vein, Heugens, Van Den Bosch and Van Riel (2002) identified stakeholder integration mechanisms based on stakeholder characteristics, distinguishing between four different types of stakeholder integration, depending on the locus (dyad or network) and modus (structural or processual) of the stakeholder relationship: [a] buffering (structural/network), [b] co-optation (structural/dyad), [c] mutual learning (processual/dyad) or [d] meta-problem solving (processual/network). The modus operandi of stakeholder integration can either be structural, involving the creation of boundary spanning structures or processual, which focuses on the development of informal means for managing external stakeholders (Heugens, Van Den Bosch & Van Riel 2002). Structural stakeholder integration is applied when an organization is faced with pressure from stakeholders and managers only seek to comply to safeguard the autonomy of the company (Edelman 1992).

As this study focused on an informal and proactive basis toward working with stakeholders as described in the preceding sections, it adopted a processual view as described by Heugens, Van Den Bosch and Van Riel (2002). An example of a processual approach is when external stakeholders are offered the opportunity to informally influence the organization's or a stakeholder network's policy (Frooman 1999). Gray (1989) also suggested that a more formal approach involving outside stakeholders potentially produces solutions to boundary-spanning problems that none of the stakeholders could have achieved by working independently. This idea coincides with the definition of stakeholder integration and the research setting that was the basis for this study.

Heugens, Van Den Bosch and Van Riel (2002) further suggested that the locus of stakeholder integration can either be a one-to-one relationship between a firm and its individual stakeholders (dyad-level) or based on multilateral contracts between a firm and its stakeholders (network-level). This study operated at a dyad-level based on the hub-and-spoke model presented by Freeman (1984). In this model, the focal organisation is the hub of a wheel, and stakeholders are at the end of the spokes. The hub-and-spoke model suffices if the focal organization can isolate its most critical stakeholders Heugens, Van Den Bosch and Van Riel (2002).

The main purpose of this subsection is to contextualise the concept of stakeholder integration. Subsections 2.3.3 through 2.3.5 critically discuss and further develop the dimensions that constitute the integration of stakeholders.

2.3.3 Knowledge of stakeholders and their demands

As the first step in a stakeholder management process, organisations need to prioritise stakeholders and their demands (Banks et al. 2016). Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997) created a well-established prioritisation framework along the stakeholder dimensions of power, legitimacy, and urgency. In this model, stakeholders gain priority or salience when they possess all three of these attributes. However, Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997) mainly applied a risk-avoidance – or an "*outside-in*" (Banks et al. 2016) perspective, arguing that managers have to know as much as they can of those stakeholders that have the power and the intent to impose their will upon the firm. Organisation-specific factors that impact the organisation-stakeholder relationship have not been covered by this

traditional power utilisation based prioritisation framework (Banks et al. 2016). There is little guidance on how to differentiate and prioritise stakeholders, especially in the case of a stakeholder that falls into all three categories and hence becomes a so-called definitive stakeholder (Ribeiro Soriano et al. 2012). Thus, a scale to determine whether or not a stakeholder is salient to the organisation is of great importance (Ackermann & Eden 2011).

An *inside-out* perspective to establish a stakeholder hierarchy provides an instrumental focus as only stakeholders that help to maximise benefits for the organisation are allowed to join the network (De-Burgos-Jiménez, Vazquez-Brust & Plaza-Úbeda 2011). This study adopts an inside-out perspective as it seeks as a first step to understand the stakeholders' needs to incorporate them in a later stage into decision-making. Banks et al. (2016) took such a strategic stance determining stakeholder salience, arguing that an organisation should identify stakeholders deemed critical to the organisation's strategic plans and consequently targeting communications only to these external entities. This perspective is also reflected in Clarkson's (1995) taxonomy of primary and secondary stakeholders. The primary stakeholders are vital for the focal organization, whereas the secondary stakeholders do not have a direct relationship with the focal organization. To help to prioritise stakeholders, Banks et al. (2016) recommended applying a focused approach to stakeholder management if a particular stakeholder group possesses great strategic significance. This approach is in line with Harrison's et al. (2010) suggestion to only include stakeholders that are most closely connected with the organisation's objectives if the primary interest is to gain competitive advantage. This way, the strategic importance of a stakeholder group is dependent on the prevailing industry sector context as well as the organisation itself (Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010; Ribeiro Soriano et al. 2011). In conclusion, in the context of stakeholder integration, it is crucial to analyse whether firms are investing time and money to get to know their stakeholders. Subsection 2.3.4 further elaborates on how the focal organisation and the stakeholders interact to create value.

2.3.4 Stakeholder interaction

On its own, communication between an organisation and its stakeholders is not sufficient to ensure the exchange of ideas between them. A meaningful exchange to occur requires a nuanced understanding of what type of stakeholder communication strategy is applied. If done superficially, communication can lead to organisational paralysis, identity fragmentation, or cacophony (Crane & Livesey 2003). Thus, the notion of stakeholder interaction, defined as a mutual relationship with stakeholders based on participation, consultation and information serve as a proxy for the intensity and frequency of communication, making it an indispensable element of stakeholder integration (Green & Hunton-Clarke 2003; Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010; Polonsky 1995).

To better understand the nature of stakeholder interaction and the immanent communication elements that compose interaction, stakeholder communication needs to be defined either as being one-way or two-way (Crane & Livesey 2003). In their analysis, Crane and Livesey (2003) held that the only means one-way communication can foster stakeholder trust is if the organisation customises its message to come across as if stakeholders are being spoken to in something approximating their own voice. However, they also warned that the communicator is not always able to control the message as the dialogic nature of meaning-making is implicit in every act of communication. This explains why standardized messages can come across as manipulative by stakeholders and are unlikely to generate trust.

A genuine dialogue based on a symmetric two-way communication allows a better understanding of the demands and needs of the parties involved. This is in line with the notion of stakeholder integration, as suggested by Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010) who also described this dichotomy of uni- and bi-directional communication in a stakeholder context. For them as well, both types of communication can help generate stakeholder trust. They suggested that communication from stakeholders to an organisation helps improve that organisation's knowledge of the stakeholders. When communication flows from the organisation to stakeholders, it helps to satisfy the stakeholders' demands. A bi-directional symmetric communication

approach is a way of communicating *with* rather than *to* stakeholders without aiming to align interests (Crane & Livesey 2003). Genuine dialogue is a high-quality form of engagement between organizations, which is an integral part of relationship formation and maintenance (Andriof 2001). By implication, the development of trust is one of the key outcomes of successful dialogue along with access to information that is usually inaccessible (Burchell & Cook 2006).

2.3.5 Stakeholder adaptation

Stakeholder theory is also concerned with the extent to which an organisation's decision-making needs to adapt to stakeholders and their interests (Friedman & Miles 2002). This idea of modifying company policies and priorities to adapt to stakeholders was already present in the work of Freeman (1984); however, the literature does propose some limitations to adaptation. Verbeke and Tung (2013) suggested that more adaptation is not always better. Instead, they posited that the focus of stakeholder interactions should serve the value-creating purpose and competitive advantage of the organisation. This requirement is supported by Ackermann and Eden (2011), who suggested that consideration of stakeholder demands needs to be carried out in relation to the goals of the organization.

Adopting a behaviour of adaptation unveils the true intention to apply stakeholder integration (Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010). Kaptein and Van Tulder (2003) thought that it is impossible to satisfy the demands and needs of every stakeholder, hence the importance of signalling to stakeholders that the company is handling their interests with great care. The authors further argued that stakeholders need to be involved in decision-making processes in order for them to see the dilemmas the organization is facing. By implication, the process is just as important to stakeholders because the final distribution of outcomes is evaluated in terms of stakeholder interests that are often conflicting and which colour stakeholder perception of the organisation's procedural fairness (Phillips 2003). The expectation is that listening to individual stakeholder concerns and including them in the organisation's decision-making processes will improve the welfare of the stakeholders (Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010). From the organisation's point of view, the nuanced understanding of the needs and demands of its

stakeholders can hence be used to envision actions it can take to create value for stakeholders as well as itself (Bosse, Phillips & Harrison 2009).

2.3.6 Stakeholder integration from a tourism perspective

Collaborative and participatory policies encouraging the engagement with stakeholders in decision-making processes at tourism destinations have been widely advocated (Bramwell 2012; Bramwell & Lane 2000; Vernon et al. 2005). However, such stakeholder integration processes have also been described as being problematic in practice (Hansen & Mäenpää 2008). Byrd (2007) held that local tourism organisations (LTOs) need to plan and execute their development plans based on evidence, opinions, and perspectives from various stakeholder groups at a destination. More precisely, Donaldson and Preston (1995) argued that not all stakeholders need to be involved equally in the decision-making process, but that it is vital to understand and identify all relevant interests. Advancing this notion even further, Banks et al. (2016) suggested that organizations need to identify stakeholders that are critical to their strategic plans, not only those stakeholders who exert demands and pressures on the organization. They posited that a focused approach to stakeholder management makes sense in cases where a key stakeholder group can be identified.

Hotels are reckoned to be an important stakeholder group in a tourism context (Sheehan & Brent Ritchie 2005). The predominance of hotel stakeholders along with the circumstance of funding LTOs through hotel taxes justified a more in-depth examination of the relationship between the LTO and the hotels at a tourist destination (Sheehan, Ritchie & Hudson 2007). These two actors are critically interdependent, with each contributing vital resources to the strategic success of a tourism destination (Sheehan, Ritchie & Hudson 2007). For example, hotels provide nonfinancial resources such as room availability on which the LTO depends on to generate business. LTOs also depend on hotels to promote the destination through activities such as familiarisation tours where complimentary hotel rooms and meals are provided by hotels to key influencers of travel such as journalists, agents, wholesalers, and meeting planners. Therefore, LTOs and hotels need to synchronize their business plans. Hotels should work with LTOs to identify business opportunities, “thinking beyond their hotel to the destination” (Sheehan, Ritchie & Hudson 2007).

The focus on hotels as the most salient LTO stakeholder does not deny the existence of other stakeholders within the destination. However, as suggested by Sheehan, Ritchie and Hudson (2007), other stakeholders may not contribute resources at the same level; yet, are likely to benefit from the positive externalities of the LTO-hotel relationship. This explains why these stakeholders potentially go along with the decisions of the hotels and the LTO (Sheehan, Ritchie & Hudson 2007). These findings support the Banks et al. (2016) typology indicating that a focused scope can make sense from a strategic point of view. It thus seems appropriate for an LTO to focus on a limited number of stakeholder relationships in order to be able to foster collaboration and to position the entire destination consistently and coherently.

From a strategic viewpoint, ongoing interaction between LTOs and hotels is core to competitiveness and thus to stakeholder value creation (Banks et al. 2016; Sheehan, Ritchie & Hudson 2007). Nevertheless, enterprises at a destination are largely driven by their self-interest (Ritchie & Crouch 2003) and hence may not be well attuned to stakeholder interaction. But as a destination does not solely consist of independent enterprises and is, in fact, an amalgamation of products, which includes accommodation, hospitality, culture, transport, heritage, infrastructure, arts, attractions, entertainment and the natural environment (Buhalis 2000; Morgan, Pritchard & Piggott 2003), collectivism is needed for individual success (d'Angella & Go 2009). Therefore, LTOs play a crucial role in orchestrating decision making on design, organisation, and management of relationships in the network. In an industry that consists of a large number of relatively small organisations, seeking collaboration rather than competition might be a particularly effective strategy (Bramwell 2012).

Regional or destination specific competitive advantage cannot be achieved in a market environment where organisations are operating independently from one another (Bramwell 2012). The interaction among stakeholders operating in the tourism industry is synergistic (Laws, Scott & Parfitt 2002). As Fyall, Garrod and Wang (2012) pointed out, the various tourism sectors cannot be successful following a “go-it-alone” approach. Stronger collaboration is needed due to the reality that tourism planning is part of an interactive system. Within the context of tourism, it can be argued that even self-sustaining

organisations reach their goals best through the adoption of joint-working strategies which in turn form a management structure with mutuality rather than competition at the core (Bramwell 2012). If such an interactive approach is applied, the boundaries between organisations become blurred, and organisations eventually establish a perception of trust and fairness in the exchange relationship (Bramwell 2012; Fyall, Garrod & Wang 2012). The concept of fairness is relevant in convincing tourism stakeholders to participate in collective action (Wang 2008). Trust and a culture of fairness, equity and stakeholder empowerment are essential prerequisites in enabling collaboration between different destination stakeholders such as hotels and LTOs (Fyall, Garrod & Wang 2012; Nunkoo & Smith 2014).

As outlined above, due to the highly fragmented nature of the tourism industry, there is often a lack of coordination and cohesion in the promotion of a destination. This results in a need to actively adapt decisions to meet the demands and needs of all parties affected by the destination marketing strategy (Jamal & Getz 1995). The overarching aim for all stakeholders should be to market a destination to potential visitors, which, in turn, will provide economic benefits to all destination stakeholders (Blain, Levy & Ritchie 2005). Each stakeholder potentially has a different set of needs and expectations about a destination's performance goals (Getz & Timur 2012). This is why a collaborative approach and cohesive action based on a fair consideration of stakeholder needs as well as mutual trust is needed to align differing expectations. Simply put, conflicts can be detrimental to the destination's competitiveness (Getz & Timur 2012).

LTOs are responsible for the destination strategy, yet, they are not the operators of the tourism product. Rather, they are critically dependent on the resources of stakeholders within the destination (Chandra & Menezes 2001). To overcome these limitations, one of the main tasks that an LTO should undertake is to create effective destination strategies that consider the requirements of the other tourism stakeholders (Chandra & Menezes 2001), especially hotels as they are the most salient destination stakeholder group (Sheehan, Ritchie & Hudson 2007). The LTO needs to meet the requirements of the stakeholders and the destination as a whole. It can do this by juggling the interests, values, and perspectives of the tourism stakeholders, which often vary widely even within

particular stakeholder groups (Jamal & Getz 1995). This is a particularly tricky task because stakeholders may not wish to risk sharing their resources or ideas with other actors in the network (Sheehan, Ritchie & Hudson 2007). However, if the LTO is able to reduce this risk by establishing trusting and fair relationships with its stakeholders, the information about the stakeholders' true demands and needs may flow more freely (Sheehan, Ritchie & Hudson 2007).

LTOs at community type destinations are usually assigned the vital task of integrating stakeholders and enhancing stakeholder collaboration (Volgger & Pechlaner 2014). However, to date, there is still a lack of empirical analysis investigating the extent to which stakeholder integration affects LTO success in spite of mounting research in destination management that argues for the importance of stakeholder integration (Volgger & Pechlaner 2014).

To be able to examine the impact of stakeholder integration on trust building, it is necessary to discuss the concept of stakeholder trust in greater depth, which is the topic of section 2.4.

2.4 Stakeholder trust

The concept of trust has proliferated in the stakeholder literature (e.g. Bosse, Phillips & Harrison 2009; Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010; Jones 1995; Jones, Harrison & Felps 2018; Pirson, Martin & Parmar 2013) while research in the area of stakeholder trust in business is developing. However, much is not known nor much empirical evidence about how stakeholder trust is generated (Pirson & Malhotra 2011) or about the consequences of stakeholder trust.

To date stakeholder trust has especially been recognised as being vital to foster collaboration between stakeholders and the focal organisation (Da Silva & Gonçalves 2013; Greenwood & Van Buren III 2010; Longo & Mura 2008; Sloan & Oliver 2013; Swift 2001). Positive outcomes of trust in a stakeholder context:

- increase organisational effectiveness and organisational efficiency (Dervitsiotis 2003);
- increase business performance (Harris & Wicks 2010);

- increase demand and efficiency; and
- increase innovation and greater ability to deal with unexpected changes (Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010) and competitive advantage (Barney & Hansen 1994; Jones 1995; Jones, Harrison & Felps 2018).

At the interpersonal level, there is a vast amount of research on understanding trust formation while research on stakeholder trust formation is still in its infancy (Pirson & Malhotra 2011). To date, it is suggested that stakeholder trust is being fostered by:

- conversation, communication, and relationship-building (Dervitsiotis 2003);
- a managing for stakeholders approach (Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010);
- community involvement, transparency, stakeholder consultation, participation in company decision making (Iannuzzi 2000; Schnackenberg & Tomlinson 2014);
- reputation (Jones 1995);
- information sharing (Sloan & Oliver 2013); and
- telling and sharing viewpoints (Swift 2001).

Despite this existing body of research, there are major gaps in the literature on stakeholder trust. To begin with, potential antecedents of perceived organisational trustworthiness in a stakeholder context need further development (Schnackenberg & Tomlinson 2014). Greenwood and Van Buren III (2010) further suggested that scholars need to shed more light on organisations having trustworthy behaviour characteristics and how organisational perception of trustworthiness will vary between and within stakeholder groups. Partially responding to this call and in contrast to the approach of Pirson and Malhotra (2011) who aimed at evaluating trustworthiness dimensions among generic stakeholder groups, this study stemmed from a differentiated stakeholder perspective that acknowledged intra-stakeholder differences (Winn 2001). This approach was in line with Harrison and Freeman (1999) who contended that there is a need to better understand the dynamics and heterogeneity within stakeholder groups and to go beyond generic stakeholder categories toward a finer grained stakeholder analysis.

Harris and Wicks (2010) advocated for further research regarding the impact that different dimensions of trustworthiness have on organisational outcomes. There is a view that a

more nuanced theory about stakeholder trust can help scholars and practitioners alike to improve the levels of trust in business (e.g.,Pirson, Martin & Parmar 2013). Subsection 2.4.1 through 2.4.3 conceptualise and define stakeholder trust by merging the views from the existing body of knowledge on trust and stakeholder theory.

2.4.1 Conceptualisation of stakeholder trust

Stakeholder trust needed to be theoretically conceptualised and defined to ensure a coherent and consistent operationalisation. According to Gillespie (2012), this requires first deciding on the key constructs under investigation: Is it trust, perceived trustworthiness, trusting behaviour, distrust, or a combination? Dietz and Hartog (2006) distinguished between three forms that trust can take: trust as a belief, as a decision, and as an action. This implied that trustworthiness and trust are different constructs as described earlier by Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995), who suggested that trustworthiness is a quality of the trustee whereas trusting is a decision and an action of the trustor. Even though stakeholder *A* may perceive organisation *B* as trustworthy this does not necessarily mean that *A* will trust *B*; however, *A*'s belief in *B*'s trustworthiness is expected to strongly influence *A*'s decision to trust *B* (Dietz & Hartog 2006). Hence, trust must not be confounded with its antecedents nor its consequences resulting from trustful expectations (Möllering 2006).

Trust as a decision is the manifestation of the belief in others' trustworthiness. It has been described as the willingness to render oneself vulnerable (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995; Rousseau et al. 1998). This study will focus on trustworthiness and its antecedents along with *trust as a decision* as an outcome of trustworthiness. *Trust as an action* that must follow through on the decision to trust was out of scope of this study. According to Dietz and Hartog (2006), there is no agreement in the literature, as to whether the action of trusting should be considered in an overall model of trust. This is partially for etymological reasons resulting from the conflation of the three necessary constituent parts of trust in everyday connotations and uses (Dietz & Hartog 2006).

2.4.1.1 Definition

Various social scientists have paid considerable attention to the challenge of defining trust (e.g. Barber 1983; Luhmann 1988; Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995); however, to date, there has not been a consensus about how trust should be defined. As a result, the term *trust* is being used in distinct but not always compatible ways in the social sciences (Kramer 2006). According to Kramer (2006) and McEvily and Tortoriello (2011), there is agreement about the essential features of trust. Trust is seen as a psychological state, as the willingness to be vulnerable and as the expectation of favourable treatment by another party. These elements are incorporated in the definition of Rousseau et al. (1998: 395) used for trust: *"a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviours of another." Vulnerability* along with trust, along with *risk* (particularly risk tolerance), and *interdependence* (reliance or dependence on each other) are conditions that need to be present for trust to exist (Hosmer 1995, Rousseau et al. 1998). Trust requires complete certainty in order for at least one of the parties involved in establishing a relationship to be willing to take the *risk* associated with involvement with the other stakeholder (Rousseau et al. 1998). I*nterdependence* engenders trust based on how "*the interests of one party cannot be achieved without reliance upon another*" (Rousseau et al. 1998: p. 395). The depth of trust is determined by the extent of risk mitigation as a function of how the interdependence is formed (Sheppard & Sherman 1998).

To further refine the concept of trust Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) also clarified what trust is not by separating trust from trustworthiness, identifying three characteristics of the trustee (ability, benevolence, and integrity) that act as antecedents of trust. Ability describes a set of competencies of the trustee in a specific domain. Ability is domain-specific as the trustee may be highly competent in one area, but not in other. Thus, the trustee will be trusted in the area of competence while not in the other areas (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995). *Benevolence* is "*the extent to which a trustee is believed to want to do good to the trustor, aside from an egocentric profit motive*" (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995: p. 718). Accordingly, benevolence assumes that the trustee has some form of attachment to the trustor. *Integrity* refers to a set of principles that the trustee adheres to and which the trustor deems agreeable (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995).

This is in line with Gabarro (1978) who views trustworthiness as a multifaceted construct that captures the competence and character of the trustee. However, as a meta-analysis of 93 articles conducted by Dirks and Ferrin (2002) showed, what was coded as *trust* often represented an amalgam of trust, ability, benevolence, and integrity in a Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) sense. This study was based on the findings of even more recent studies on trust (e.g., Colquitt, Scott & LePine 2007) that distinguished between trustworthiness and trust as already suggested by Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995).

2.4.1.2 Level of analysis

Trust was initially studied at the individual level in psychology and then gradually expanded to group, organisation, inter-organisation and even nation-wide levels in fields such as organisational and strategic management (Seppänen 2008). Nevertheless, there have been serious problems with some of the published research due to a lack of clarity or ability to distinguish between individual and organisational trust (Blois 1999). Zaheer, McEvily and Perrone (1998) argued that personal and organisational trust are related but different constructs. It can be argued that it is the individuals and not organisations that generate trust (Blomqvist 2002). On the other hand, Möllering (2006) suggested that collective or even non-human entities could be classified as trusting or trusted actors, notwithstanding that trust is a psychological state (Rousseau et al. 1998). Möllering (2006) also stated that the only necessary condition for trust to occur is to meaningfully ascribe expectations and actions to the trusting or trusted actors. Individuals and organisations can both be objects of trust (trustees). Organisations have reputations and images based on their routines, processes and culture that, as a whole, represent the behaviour of their employees (Blomqvist 2002).

According to Seppänen (2008) and Blomqvist (2002), the trusting party is never the organisation per sé; rather, it is the individual. This applies even when individuals belong to a specific group sharing a similar orientation such as an identified stakeholder group (Greenwood & Van Buren III 2010; Pirson & Malhotra 2011). One consequence of this distinction is that while organisations can be the object of trust they are not the source of trust (Zaheer, McEvily & Perrone 1998). This is why the level of analysis in this study

was the trust of individuals within a specified stakeholder group (hotels) had towards a focal organisation (LTO). The organisation (LTO) was the referent of trust.

This approach is in line with most of the literature of stakeholder trust (Caldwell & Karri 2005; Greenwood & Van Buren III 2010; Hauswald 2013; Pirson & Malhotra 2011) that considers the degree to which an individual (stakeholder) trusts an organisation in a stakeholder context. One notable exception to the prevalent research is Sloan and Oliver (2013), who studied the development of trust in a stakeholder context on an individual level. This study focused on cognitive and affective dynamics between individuals to explain why the referent of trust is an individual in a multiple-stakeholder partnership context. Currall and Inkpen (2002) suggested the individual-to-organisation interaction is an appropriate level of analysis when studying trust in organisations. Stakeholder trust towards organisations describes the willingness of individuals belonging to a specific stakeholder group to accept vulnerability organisational action based on positive expectations (Pirson & Malhotra 2011). Nevertheless, this study acknowledged that the likely behaviour of relevant organisational actors could in part be the target of stakeholder expectations rather than the organisation itself (Sloan & Oliver 2013; Zaheer, McEvily & Perrone 1998).

2.4.2 Multi-dimensionality of stakeholder trust

There is agreement among scholars that trust is a multi-dimensional construct, but there is not much agreement about the number of these dimensions and the make-up of these dimensions (Seppänen 2008). Trust research in an organisational as well as in a stakeholder context has expanded considerably in recent years (McEvily & Tortoriello 2011). Although growing, the dimensions of trustworthiness in an organisation have attracted much less scholarly attention than the literature on interpersonal trust (Searle et al. 2011). Despite conceptual advances, the literature on trust is not well integrated and lacks coherence (McEvily & Tortoriello 2011). McEvily and Tortoriello (2011) argued the increased interest by organisational researchers from widely different fields is a factor as to why trust-measurement is in such a disjointed state. They also stated that the fragmented state of trust measurement might also be due in part to the context-specific nature of trust. This also applies to research on stakeholder trust.

Table 2 provides a non-exhaustive list of the various dimensions of trustworthiness found in the literature on stakeholder trust. The Table illustrates the numerous ways researchers measure trust. As McEvily and Tortoriello (2011) pointed out, different researchers used different dimensions and measurement instruments to meet their study's specific needs. There is merit in having research on the various context-dependent trust dimensions. The question, however, is whether trust scales aimed at one specific type of relationship can be meaningfully used for other kinds of relationships (McEvily & Tortoriello 2011). Developing a measure of trust to meet the specific context of the study based on the assumption that trust is context-dependent (Hardin 2002), can result in a unique measure of trust for each study. Because there is limited consensus on the operational dimensions of trust, it would become problematic to compare and integrate results across studies and accumulate a body of knowledge (McEvily & Tortoriello 2011).

Table 2 Dimensions of trustworthiness in stakeholder trust research

Authors & Year	**Dimensions of trustworthiness in a stakeholder context**
Da Silva and Gonçalves (2013)	Reputation
Greenwood and Van Buren III (2010)	Responsibility
Harris and Wicks (2010)	Competence Goodwill
Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010)	Ability Benevolence Integrity
Hauswald (2013)	Ability Benevolence Integrity
Iannuzzi (2000)	Transparency
Matuleviciene and Stravinskiene (2015)	Competence Benevolence Integrity Reputation Responsibility Transparency

Pirson and Malhotra (2011)	Benevolence Identification Integrity Managerial competence Technical competence Transparency

Source: developed for this research

To produce comparable and integrative findings, the approach taken for this study was based on the integrative model of trust by Schoorman, Mayer and Davis (2007). Their model looks at ability, benevolence, integrity (ABI) as a means to determine employee-trust in an organisation. These three dimensions were the most common ones in the studies reviewed by McEvily and Tortoriello (2011). The use of these three dimensions helped make this study's results comparable to other studies and contexts. This study used Gillespie and Dietz's (2009) adaptation to the Schoorman, Mayer and Davis (2007) three dimensions of interpersonal trustworthiness in order to make the ABI-scale suitable to fit an organisational referent of trust:

- Ability is understood to be the organisation's collective competencies and characteristics that enable it to function reliably and effectively to meet its goals and responsibilities.
- Benevolence is defined as the organisational action indicating genuine care and concern for the well-being of stakeholders.
- Integrity stands for organisational action that consistently adheres to moral principles and a code of conduct acceptable to stakeholders, such as honesty and fairness.

After reviewing the current state of stakeholder trust research, the role that stakeholder trust plays in a tourism context is the topic of section 2.4.3.

2.4.3 Stakeholder trust in a tourism context

Nunkoo and Smith (2014: 81) wrote that *"The overall aim of tourism development should be to build all forms of capital, but especially trust (…) to support effective collective action*." The informal connections which are based on trust are crucial for the formation

and evolution of a network at community-based destinations (Beritelli, Bieger & Laesser 2007). Strong mutual trust is needed to make decisions and engender actions (Beritelli, Bieger & Laesser 2007). Nunkoo, Ramkissoon and Gursoy (2012) suggested that trust among tourism stakeholders is an important element for effective destination governance. Trust undergirds an LTO's ability to be a catalyst for action because destination stakeholders will commit resources only when they know the LTO supports or legitimises them (Sheehan, Ritchie & Hudson 2007).

Building trust between the various destination stakeholders in one of the main problems a central organisation such as an LTO faces (Sibila Lebe & Milfelner 2006). The key point Sibila Lebe and Milfelner (2006) made is that an LTO faces problems in getting individual stakeholders to become part of the broader framework. For example, the less educated the destination stakeholders are (e.g., farmers, owners of small to medium enterprises or SMEs), the greater their fear joining a destination or stakeholder network from concerns over losing market share. According to Sibila Lebe and Milfelner (2006), these stakeholders prefer working and presenting their enterprises individually, which then reduces the complex system "destination" to operating linearly instead of using the synergies of cooperation.

Positive outcomes of trust among key stakeholders at a touristic destination are public support (Nunkoo & Smith 2013) along with significant positive environmental, social, and economic impacts (Nunkoo & Smith 2014). Although some or all of these outcomes may be possible with little or no trust, the possibility of these occurring increase because target-oriented and efficient tourism development ultimately requires the various stakeholders trust each other as "trust lubricates cooperation" (Putnam, Leonardi & Nanetti 1994: 171).

The next section sheds light on the role that procedural justice plays in a stakeholder context. After a conceptualisation of procedural justice in a stakeholder realm, the scope of section 2.5 will be the impact that procedural justice has on the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness.

2.5 The role of procedural justice in stakeholder theory

Phillips (1997) advocated the transition from competition to a cooperative scheme. He saw stakeholders more as partners for the achievement of mutual advantage rather than entities that need to be managed and their impacts minimised. Building on these ideas, Husted (1998) showed that organisational justice could provide insight into how to design stakeholder relations and called for the use of organisational justice theory to evaluate how stakeholders will perceive the fairness of stakeholder management structures and empirically study these aspects of stakeholder relations. Following this approach, scholars are able to use justice theory to develop a coherent framework for the management of stakeholder relationships.

Organisational justice theory is a concept initially introduced by Greenberg (1987) concerning how an individual judges the behaviour of an organization in terms of fairness of its decisions. It looks at how these decisions may influence the individual's subsequent attitudes and behaviours as well.

Colquitt et al. (2001) described organisational justice by focussing on the antecedents and consequences of two types of subjective perceptions: [a] the fairness of the distribution of an outcome and [b] the fairness of these distribution procedures. The former is referred to as distributive justice (Leventhal 1976) and the latter as procedural justice (Greenberg 1986; Leventhal 1980; Thibaut & Walker 1975). Bies and Moag (1986) later advanced the concept of organisational justice by introducing interactional justice, which refers to the quality of interpersonal treatment stakeholders receive when procedures are implemented.

The concept of procedural justice was formerly aimed at disputant reactions to legal procedures (Thibaut & Walker 1975). Leventhal (1980) extended the idea of procedural justice into an organisational context and expanded the list of determinants far beyond process control. Consequently, procedural justice consists of a set of six determinants that specify and govern the roles of participants within the decision-making process (Cropanzano, Bowen & Gilliland 2007). To be perceived as fair, procedures should [1] be applied consistently across people and time (consistency), [2] be free from bias (e.g., no person or group is singled out for discrimination or ill-treatment), [3] ensure that accurate

information is collected and used in making decisions (accuracy), [4] have some mechanism to correct flawed or inaccurate decisions (correction), [5] conform to personal or prevailing standards of ethics or morality (ethics), and [6] ensure that the opinions of various groups affected by the decision have been taken into account (representation of all) (Leventhal 1980). Leventhal (1980) did not use "ethical" in point [5] from a normative perspective, but rather in a descriptive sense, meaning that individuals do decide on what is fair according to personal or organisational standards.

As a starting point from a stakeholder theory perspective, Hosmer (1994) and Phillips (1997) stated that *right*, *just* and *fair* treatment of the stakeholders is essential to the long-term competitive success of the organisation. Phillips (1997) concluded that it is a stakeholder's engagement in and acceptance of the benefits of a cooperative scheme that creates an extra obligation, owed to stakeholders by managers of the focal organisation.

Fassin (2012) argued, that business needs an environment of trust to be successful over the long term and fairness towards stakeholders will help to build this trusting environment. By implication, the organisational justice literature can be applied to stakeholder management strategies by preventing the erosion of credibility or, even worse, stakeholder alienation to the point of risking the loss of the organisation's legitimacy regarding their mutual interests (Laplume, Sonpar & Litz 2008). The notion that organisations need to take their legitimacy seriously in order to survive marks a salient point of convergence between justice and stakeholder theory (Husted 1998). The legitimacy of organisations requires that stakeholders deem the decision-making procedures as fair because fairness is deemed to be a vital element in how stakeholders perceive the firm (Husted 1998).

Bosse, Phillips and Harrison (2009) provide an additional perspective on the role of procedural justice in a stakeholder context, positing that fair treatment of stakeholders affects firm performance. Their basic argument is that stakeholders are not purely self-interested in their actions, but reciprocate in kind to those whose actions they deem fair. Conversely, stakeholders are willing to punish if they perceive that they have not been treated fairly. In conclusion, justice considerations have the potential to provide beneficial

consequences. On the other hand, the lack of fair treatment of stakeholders can be detrimental to firm performance.

2.5.1 Procedural justice and stakeholder trust

Blau (1964) suggested that procedural justice is a vital condition to value creation because people reciprocate and they value being treated fairly. One of the most significant and widespread consequences of procedural justice is trust. For this reason, trust engendered by procedural justice potentially acts as a predictor of voluntary cooperation (Chan & Mauborgne 1998).

Bies and Moag (1986) argued that procedural justice is based on the individual's perception of the overall organisation whereas other justice dimensions such as interactional fairness stem from perceptions of authority figures (supervisors, bosses. etc.). This is why procedural justice predicts organisation-referenced outcomes such as stakeholder trust (Colquitt et al. 2001). Trust engendered by procedural justice changes the nature of transactions from transactional to relational. When there is trust, there is willingness to override personal self-interest (Williamson 1975) and stakeholders become motivated to collaborate in a way that goes beyond the call of duty (Kim & Mauborgne 2004). Hence, procedural justice has the potential to be a fundamental condition in explaining mutual value creation that goes beyond complete contracts between the stakeholders and the focal organisation as put forth in the stakeholder paradigm described by Sachs and Rühli (2011). These authors addressed the question of how the stakeholders and the focal organisation can be motivated to generate above-the-norm contributions by contending that in the stakeholder paradigm the contributions of stakeholders to value creation are mostly based on incomplete or even implicit contracts. In their view, stakeholders might be willing to maintain their loyalty and contributions based on good experiences in the past and faith in the future, which is in tune with the notion of procedural justice. Positive perceptions of procedural justice, provide a utility-based justification to stakeholders to continue a reciprocal relationship with a firm even if the outcome of the relationship is only satisfactory (Harrison & Wicks 2013). Procedural justice, by implication, acts as a sort of buffer allowing the focal organisation to maintain trust even when things do not go according to the stakeholders' demands and priorities

(Brockner & Wiesenfeld 1996). According to Hosmer (1994), this is a critical feature of procedural justice. For example, the focal organisation could do well regarding stakeholder integration, but differences in managing specific relationships or the outcome of decisions may still occur. In such a case, if the stakeholder integration processes adhere to the standards of procedural justice, the stakeholder still perceives the focal organisation as trustworthy even though the actual stakeholder integration approach might not have produced the desired result in the view of some stakeholders.

2.5.2 Stakeholder integration and procedural justice

Stakeholder integration is a morally neutral concept (Greenwood 2007; Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010). The degree of stakeholder integration alone does not verify the reason how and why the focal organisation implements these practices. Other considerations influencing the focal organisation could be its moral commitment to stakeholders or it could be that the focal organisation wants to obtain the support of certain groups to obtain economic advantages (Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010).

If the focal organisation seeks to increase its economic advantages, it is very likely that stakeholder integration may not increase the perceived trustworthiness of the focal organisation to the same extent as if there is a moral commitment as stakeholder integration may be revealed to be manipulative and opportunistic behaviour (Polonsky 1995). Adherence to the standards of procedural justice reveals the extent of moral commitment the focal organisation has towards its stakeholders (Hosmer 1994). In this regards, procedural justice serves as a potential indicator of the organisation's moral motivation based on the legitimate consideration of stakeholders in corporate or, in this case, in destination decision making as described by Hosmer (1994) and Post, Preston and Sachs (2002). Procedural justice, therefore, has the potential to serve as an important condition related to the perceived trustworthiness of the organisation by its capacity to evoke trust and efficiency (Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010; Sachs & Rühli 2011).

2.5.3 Level of analysis

Procedural justice has typically been studied in one-to-one relationships (Colquitt 2001), primarily focused on one type of stakeholder: the employee (Bosse, Phillips & Harrison 2009). Nevertheless, similar effects of procedural justice occur between organisations and other stakeholders, with the overall collaboration representing the amalgamation of many such dyadic interactions (Bosse, Phillips & Harrison 2009). This is why Husted (1998) called for further research beyond the employee-employer relation to incorporate stakeholders.

Barden, Steensma and Lyles (2005) partially answered Husted's (1998) call by suggesting that justice theory can be applied at any level of analysis. They applied this concept on an inter-organisational level, concluding that perceptions of procedural injustice increase costs and conflicts in the context of international joint ventures. Two studies conducted by Luo (2007) and Luo (2008) were also based on an inter-organisational level. Luo (2007, 2008), in his two articles, contended that procedural justice may have an even more significant impact on alliance performance than distributional justice. This growing body of literature scrutinising organisational justice on an inter-organisational level support the arguments proposed by Bosse, Phillips and Harrison (2009) and Husted (1998). Extending inquiries beyond employees within an organisation acknowledge the logic behind the argument that, similar to employees, external stakeholders do not have an explicit or defined contract but, under the assumption of bounded self-interest, the stakeholder's contribution to the organisation depends on their perception of fairness (Bosse, Phillips & Harrison 2009).

2.5.4 Procedural justice in a tourism context

Another necessary condition of successful stakeholder integration in general, and more specifically, in a touristic realm is fairness (Byrd 2007). The idea of fairness incorporates the concept that the tourism stakeholders' interests were taken into account during the process and that the process is being perceived as fair by the tourism stakeholders (Byrd 2007). This description of fairness from a tourism perspective is in line with what has been conceptualised as procedural justice in subsection 2.5.1 above.

Wray (2011) contended that the fairness of the process is an important condition needed to foster effective partnerships in strategic tourism planning. Stakeholder integration is more likely to stimulate willing stakeholder support when an outcome is deemed to be based on a fair and open process than if the process is perceived as unfair (Timothy & Tosun 2003). Undertaking a balanced stakeholder integration approach in a destination context is very time-consuming and requires the ability to overcome obstacles that include insufficient financial resources and conflicting vested interests (Okazaki 2008). However, Okazaki (2008) concluded that even against the backdrop of these potential difficulties, a stakeholder-based approach based on fair processes is still the best course of action in a tourism context. The next section 2.6 sheds light on efficiency evoked through fair treatment of stakeholders as described in this section 2.5.

2.6 Efficiency

Measuring destination competitiveness has received an increasing amount of attention in the tourism literature due to the intensifying competition in worldwide tourism and the increasing economic importance of the tourism sector (Cracolici, Rietveld & Nijkamp 2008). Destination efficiency, in terms of resource allocation (hotel capacity, room nights, arrivals), has become an essential proxy of destination competitiveness (Cracolici, Rietveld & Nijkamp 2008). Cracolici, Rietveld and Nijkamp (2008) did note that the empirical analysis of efficiency in the tourism literature is restricted to a few studies. For example, Hwang and Chang (2003), Barros (2005) as well as Morey and Dittman (1995) all measured efficiency in a tourism context using data envelopment analysis.

The idea of economic efficiency is based on the concept of the *production possibility frontier* (Anderson, Lewis & Parker 1999). A production function is used to "define the relationship between inputs and outputs by depicting graphically the maximum output obtainable from the given inputs consumed" (Barros 2005: 457). This relationship can exist between single or aggregated inputs and outputs (Barros 2005). As the benchmark is the individual production frontier and not an external one, it measures how well inputs are processed to achieve outputs compared to its maximum potential, which is the production frontier (Barros 2005). Efficiency is distinguished from productivity, reflecting the ratio of outputs over inputs. The advantage of using an efficiency measure as opposed to a

productivity measure is that there is no need to look for an adequate and non-arbitrary external benchmark to interpret the productivity ratio (Barros 2005).

2.6.1 LTO efficiency

Efficiency of the LTO is depicted as an important key performance indicator (KPI) of LTOs in general (Bornhorst, Ritchie & Sheehan 2010; Volgger & Pechlaner 2014). The variables used in this study reflect typical input and output measures used to measure efficiency in a tourism context (Honma & Hu 2012). The number of hotels and the total hotel bed capacity were used as input variables while the number of room nights and number of arrivals were output variables. By implication, if a destination is unable to produce the maximum possible output, given the input, the destination is considered to be working below the production possibility frontier (Cracolici, Rietveld & Nijkamp 2008).

Even though there is no unanimous agreement in the tourism literature on how to measure LTO performance (Bieger & Beritelli 2013; Volgger & Pechlaner 2014) a potentially fruitful point of departure is to assess how well the LTO markets the destination. One crucial pillar in marketing the destination is using and promoting a reservation system that can attract, direct and manage travel agency bookings (Bieger & Beritelli 2013) while also taking care of advertising, public relations, direct marketing, sales promotion and personal selling (Dore & Crouch 2003). Against this backdrop, a composite efficiency measure on a destination level, based on hard data such as hotel room nights and number of arrivals, is, therefore, one of the most important and directly attributable key performance indicator (KPI) of an LTO (Bornhorst, Ritchie & Sheehan 2010). As LTO success and destination success are strongly positively related (Volgger & Pechlaner 2014), these two levels are treated interchangeably.

2.6.2 Conditions of LTO efficiency

From a stakeholder theory perspective, Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010) contended that a stakeholder integration approach based on trust and fairness has the potential to trigger and enhance stakeholder contributions, such as information about their utility function. There are two main reasons why it is vital for the LTO to reveal the stakeholder utility functions.

First of all, the LTO cannot infer that the stakeholders' utility functions are based on rational thinking, meaning the expected utility hypothesis is unlikely to hold (Kahneman & Tversky 1979; Sachs & Rühli 2011; Tversky & Kahneman 1986). Stakeholders are likely to first frame and then evaluate during a choice process (Tversky & Kahneman 1986). The framing process is dependent on the way the choice problem is presented by the LTO, by norms, habits, and expectancies of the stakeholder (Tversky & Kahneman 1986). In the evaluation phase, the prospect of the highest value is chosen. However, value is not assessed in absolute but in relative terms by the stakeholder, and it can change over time (Kahneman & Tversky 1979). This means that it is important to know the individual stakeholder's reference points to know what gains and losses mean from their own context perspective (Barberis 2013). In general, losses weigh more than gains of the same magnitude (Kahneman & Tversky 1979). For example, a given hotel's perceived utility could be increased by participating in a destination-wide marketing campaign if the campaign is explained through a gain-framed messaging. The marketing campaign can also decrease the stakeholder's utility, depending on the reference point of the hotel stakeholder. This can be the case when the aims of the marketing campaign is at odds with one or more stakeholders. If an LTO's campaign is aimed at increasing visitor numbers but the hotel itself is more interested in protecting the natural heritage, the hotel stakeholder is likely to fiercely oppose the campaign as it might represent a loss to the stakeholder. It is in the LTO's best interest to acquire nuanced knowledge about the stakeholders' utility function(s) rather than relying on assumptions based on expected utility theory, the LTO will be in a better position to foster efficient resource allocation and mutual value creation.

Secondly, Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010) concluded that an LTO can be more efficient because, as an organisation, it can fine-tune its strategies and tactics and allocate resources based on the information gained about their stakeholders' utility. The better the LTO understands the needs and demands of individual hotel stakeholders, the better its position to adapt its strategy in a manner that will potentially translate into increased occupancy and a higher number of arrivals (Volgger & Pechlaner 2014). By implication, if the hotel does not disclose this kind of information due to a lack of trust or integration, the chances are that the LTO is likely to adopt unproductive or undesirable strategies from

the stakeholder's perspective. In the words of Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010) this kind of information enables managers to make decisions regarding short-term tactics in a manner that allows them to allocate resources optimally.

A similar notion was already present in the work of Post, Preston and Sachs (2002), who described efficiency as one favourable output of stakeholder relations based on mutual trust. Also, Harrison and St. John (1996) had made the point that organisations should focus on external stakeholder management as this can lead to greater trust and, consequently, to increased efficiency. Jones (1995) too argued that efficiency between organisations can be achieved through perceived trustworthiness. By implication, trustworthiness mediates the effect of stakeholder integration on efficiency.

Green and Hunton-Clarke (2003) even postulated that there is a direct connection between stakeholder integration and the maximisation of resource efficiency. Henisz, Dorobantu and Nartey (2014) who conducted a study to explore the link between stakeholder support and financial market evaluation, found that there is a connection between stakeholder cooperation or integration and productive efficiency.

The next section will present the conceptual model that has been derived from the preceding sections and subsections (2.22.1 to 2.6). The study's hypotheses were generated according to this conceptual model.

2.7 Conceptual model and hypotheses

The following section presents the conceptual model and the underlying hypotheses. The moderating and mediating effects within the model are presented and explained.

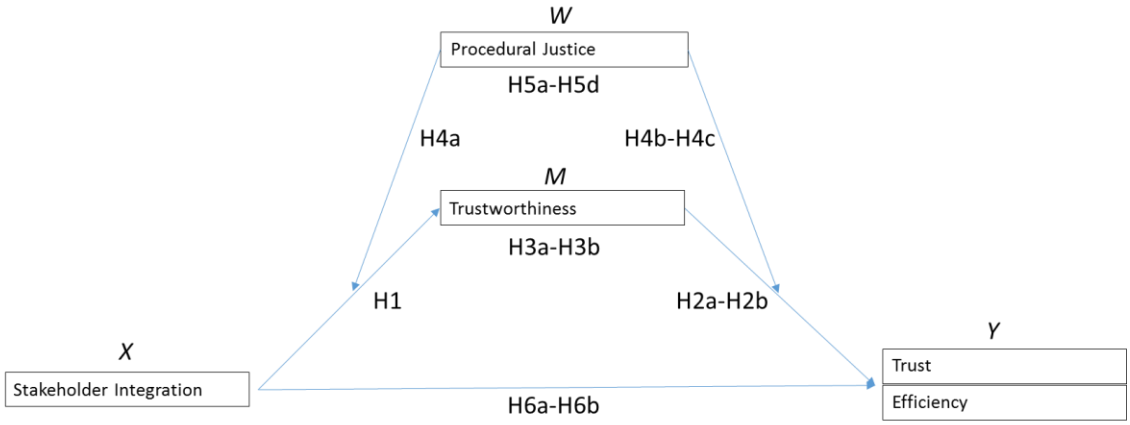
Three different kinds of literature related to stakeholder theory, trust and organisational justice provide the basis for the model. The rationale for their use is two-fold: they represent the identified gaps in stakeholder theory and they have bearing on how to analyse the impact of decreasing destination performance in Swiss Alpine tourism. The research should be regarded to be of high relevance to LTOs who are confronted with stakeholder integration issues on a daily basis, who are under increasing pressure from competition from other tourism destinations and fighting for legitimacy as an organisation.

The main assumptions behind the combination of these three strands in the literature were their:

1. potential to inform stakeholder theory and provide guidance to tourism practitioners,
2. ability to ground stakeholder theory by providing more solid micro foundations toward filling gaps in the literature, and
3. capacity to provide empirical evidence on the effectiveness of stakeholder integration in creating trust and efficiency of LTO at Swiss Alpine destinations.

The conceptual model, as presented below in Figure 3 was formulated based on the critical analysis and discussion of the literature related to stakeholder theory, trust, and organisational justice explained in the preceding sections. The concept of stakeholder integration was the starting point for this conceptual model. This study suggested that stakeholder integration fosters trust and efficiency.

Figure 3 Conceptual model



Source: developed for this research

Stakeholder integration is understood to be a reflexive and hierarchical construct, whereas knowledge of stakeholders and their demands, interaction with stakeholders, and adaptation to stakeholder needs are first-order factors. These three factors together constitute the stakeholder integration concept as delineated by Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010).

Based on the literature review, it could be concluded that the academic discussion of stakeholder integration was underdeveloped, especially because the conditions and outcomes of stakeholder integration are mostly unknown. Therefore, this study drew on the literature related to organisational justice and trust to carve out the mechanisms of how stakeholder integration transmits its effects on trust and efficiency.

To begin with, the relationship between stakeholder integration and its positive role in signalling trustworthiness is being postulated in hypothesis 1). Sections 2.3 and 2.4 of the literature review crystallised the idea and perspective that stakeholder integration potentially signals organisational trustworthiness.

Hypotheses 2a) and 2b) explain the relationship between perceived organisational trustworthiness and stakeholder trust (section 2.4) as well as efficiency (section 2.6). *Stakeholder trust* was understood to be the manifestation of what LTO stakeholders (the hotels at a destination) thought of the LTO regarding the LTO's trustworthiness and their willingness to make themselves vulnerable to their actions (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995; Rousseau et al. 1998). The e*fficiency* of the LTO is a widely used key performance indicator of LTOs and destinations as these two KPIs are highly correlated. In this study, the efficiency measure consisted of specific input and output variables: the number of hotels and the hotel bed capacity as input variables as well as the number of room nights and the number of arrivals as output variables.

Stemming from the literature reviewed in sections 2.4 and 2.6, the positive effects of stakeholder integration on trust and efficiency are likely to be mediated by perceived organisational trustworthiness. This perspective led to the formation of hypotheses 3a) and 3b).

According to findings presented in section 2.5, there is a potential interaction between stakeholder integration and procedural justice when predicting perceived organisational trustworthiness as delineated in hypothesis 4a), predicting trust as presented in hypothesis 4b) and efficiency as described in hypothesis 4c). This interaction effect persists in such a manner that procedural justice potentially influences the magnitude of the indirect effect between stakeholder integration and trust as well as efficiency per hypotheses 5a)-5d).

Section 2.3 and subsection 2.6.2 in this chapter discussed how stakeholder integration has a direct and indirect effect on trust and efficiency. Grounded on what was learned, hypotheses 6a) and 6b) postulated a relationship between stakeholder integration and trust as well as efficiency.

Section 2.7 and its subsections 2.7.1 throughout 2.7.6 extend the discussion of the conceptual model in this section extend what was outlined in this section by discussing how these were theoretically derived and the hypotheses formulated. Subsections 2.7.1 to 2.7.3 and 2.7.5 to 2.7.6 concentrate on the causal chain of how stakeholder integration contributes to trust and efficiency while subsection 2.7.4 features procedural justice as a potential moderator of this causal chain.

2.7.1 Stakeholder integration and trustworthiness

To get to know the demands of the organisation's stakeholders, it is essential for organisations to know who their stakeholders are and to obtain feedback on the repercussions of the organisation on stakeholders (Maignan and Ferrell, 2004). Applying a systematic approach to reach this goal demonstrates that the organisation allocates resources to identify the needs and wants of their stakeholders (Plaza-Úbeda et al., 2010) which, in turn, signals that the organisation cares about the stakeholders' interests. This potentially evokes a perception of trustworthiness, drawing on the goodwill dimension (e.g., stakeholders' needs and desires are important to this organisation) as defined by Mayer et al. (1995). Additionally, it demonstrates that the organisation is capable of meeting its responsibilities and that it is competent in identifying stakeholders and their demands. This reflects the competence dimension as put forth by Mayer et al. (1995).

In many cases, the assessment of trustworthiness occurs through repetitive interactions where stakeholders form opinions about the focal organisation (Caldwell & Clapham 2003). Interaction between stakeholders and the focal organisation can take different forms such as participation, consultation, information, and communication. Communication is especially crucial in the stakeholder organisation relationship (Calton & Payne 2003; Lehtimaki & Kujala 2015; Polonsky 1995). By implication, the intensity and frequency of communication with stakeholders have often been used as a measure of

interaction between stakeholders and the focal organisation (Green & Hunton-Clarke 2003).

Communication takes on various forms: unidirectional-bidirectional, formal-informal, regular-occasional, structured-unstructured, oral or written (Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010). Rousseau et al. (1998) and Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010) suggested that the frequency of communication is particularly relevant for the generation of trust between two parties. Also, Lewicki and Bunker (1996) and Van de Ven and Walker (1984) contended that organisations and individuals that have the opportunity to communicate regularly with stakeholders are likely to improve trust levels. The characteristics of the trustee would become more visible to the trustor when there is a higher frequency of communication between the actors, and hence can be expected to have a more significant impact in his/her evaluation of the trustee's trustworthiness (Becerra & Gupta 2003). Lewicki and Bunker (1996) inferred that regular communication creates an opportunity for each party to learn about the other party's preferences, values, and approaches to problems. The exact effect of communication on trust has been delineated by Butler and Cantrell (1994) who found evidence that only business-related communication had a positive impact on trustworthiness where as personal communications had not.

In short, repeated interactions and open, business-related communication increase the perceived organisational trustworthiness as the interaction ensures the mutual understanding of the demands and needs of stakeholders which, in turn, promotes trustworthiness (Ruppel & Harrington 2000). If the trustee (LTO) is able to signal open and business-related communication, that it takes genuine care and concern for the well-being of stakeholders (benevolence) and its ability to meet its goals and responsibilities (ability) (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995), it can be implied that this kind of behaviour sends tangible clues to stakeholders about the trustworthiness of the focal organisation.

To achieve behaviour adaptation, the notion of responsiveness to stakeholder concerns needs to be addressed to demonstrate the intention of developing stakeholder integration (Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010). According to Altman and Petkus Jr (1994) and Grafé-Buckens and Hinton (1998), adaptational behaviour is about

making changes in order to adapt the organisations' goals and priorities to their stakeholders. Previously Freeman (1984) pointed out that responsiveness is important when explaining the importance of policy modification and priority adaptation to stakeholders. This kind of behaviour signals that the organisation cares about the trustor (benevolence) and it may hence affect the trustor's perception of the organisations' fairness and concern (integrity) (Dirks & Ferrin 2002). Thus, it can be hypothesised:

H1) There is a positive relationship between stakeholder integration and perceived organisational trustworthiness

2.7.2 Trustworthiness, stakeholder trust, and efficiency

Trustworthiness is the antecedent accumulated perceptual experience that leads a stakeholder to trust an organisation (Caldwell & Clapham 2003). Stakeholder trust, or more precisely the decision of a stakeholder to trust the focal organisation, is thus, to a large extent driven by the perceived organisational trustworthiness (Mayer & Davis 1999; Schoorman, Mayer & Davis 2007; Searle et al. 2011). Perceived trustworthiness is a multi-dimensional construct that can be broken down into trustworthy intentions such as benevolence and integrity as well as ability (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995). Stakeholders that perceive the focal organisation as being able to achieve its goals and meet its responsibilities as well as having trustworthy intentions are more likely to trust the organisation (Searle et al. 2011). Thus, it can be proposed that

H2a) Perceived organisational trustworthiness is related positively to stakeholders' trust in the LTO.

Barney and Hansen (1994) suggested that trustworthiness is economically valuable unless one party in the exchange behaves opportunistically. In this case, in order to control opportunistic behaviour, all parties need to invest in various economic and social control mechanisms, which results in reduced efficiency. On the other hand, if trustworthiness exists, stakeholders perceive that any vulnerabilities that might exist are unlikely to be exploited by the focal organisation and efficiency in transactions increases (Barney & Hansen 1994). Dyer and Chu (2003) also suggested that perceived trustworthiness in an exchange relationship leads to joint efforts to minimise inefficiencies. North (1990) even

contended that national economic efficiency is highly associated with a high-trust institutional environment. Zaheer, McEvily and Perrone (1998) concluded that if perceived trustworthiness were high, costs associated with contracting would be limited. This, in turn, has a positive impact on the efficiency of both, the focal firm and the stakeholders.

Trustworthiness is an important pre-condition for stakeholders to disclose information that can be used by the focal organisation to increase efficiency by better allocating resources and adapting firm tactics (Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010; Post, Preston & Sachs 2002; Sachs & Rühli 2011). Based on this line of reasoning, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H2b) Perceived organisational trustworthiness is related positively to LTO efficiency.

2.7.3 The mediating role of trustworthiness

Hypothesis 1) suggested that there is a positive relationship between the concept of stakeholder integration and perceived organisational trustworthiness. Hypotheses 2a) and 2b) postulated that there is a positive relationship between perceived organisational trustworthiness and stakeholder trust as well as efficiency. In combination, these hypotheses formed a mediation model by which the concept of stakeholder integration transmits its effect on trust and efficiency through perceived organisational trustworthiness.

Based on what was hypothesised in section 2.7.1 and on the integrative model of trust by Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995), this study suggested that stakeholder integration transmits its positive effect on stakeholder trust through its positive impact on the perceived trustworthiness. Thus,

H3a) The relationship between stakeholder integration and stakeholders' trust in the LTO is fully mediated by perceived organisational trustworthiness.

According to what was argued in section 0 and 2.7.2 it can also be hypothesised that the effect of stakeholder integration on efficiency is mediated by the perceived organisational trustworthiness:

H3b) The relationship between stakeholder integration and LTO efficiency is fully mediated by perceived organisational trustworthiness.

2.7.4 The moderating role of procedural justice

Until this point, it has been argued that stakeholder integration indirectly influences stakeholder trust through perceived trustworthiness. Stakeholder theory and trust researchers have suggested that stakeholder integration may interact with procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation towards their stakeholders to predict perceived trustworthiness. Provided that the integration process has considered the interests and rights of each stakeholder involved according to consistent ethical principles, there should be an increase of trust regardless of potential disagreements among the stakeholders on what outcome is considered „right", „just" and „fair" (Hosmer 1994). Searle et al. (2011) also suggested that procedural justice signals organisational trustworthiness. Procedural justice can be perceived as a signal of the organisations' *ability* as it increases the visibility and consistency of resource allocation processes (Leventhal 1976). Searle et al. (2011) further argued that procedural justice also signals the *intentions* of the focal organisation.

Tyler and Blader (2001) contended that procedural justice signals an organisations' care and respect for its stakeholders and that procedural justice involves a certain amount of equality in the treatment of the stakeholders as well as conveying information about a stakeholders' status as a member of the network. Thus, it can be inferred that unless stakeholder integration is practised according to the rules of procedural justice, the positive effect on trustworthiness is less than if rules of procedural justice are adhered to (Hosmer 1994). Hence, hypothesis 4a) tests whether stakeholder integration is a more effective signal of trustworthiness under conditions of high procedural justice:

H4a) Procedural justice will moderate the positive relationship between stakeholder integration and perceived organisational trustworthiness, such that when procedural justice is less/more developed, the relationship between stakeholder integration and stakeholders' perceived trustworthiness of the LTO will be weaker/stronger.

Furthermore, as suggested in section 2.5.2, procedural justice potentially is an important condition in moderating the relationship between trustworthiness and the decision by

stakeholders to trust the focal organisation. If there is a history of procedural fairness, stakeholders are more likely to decide to trust an organisation compared to when stakeholders can only perceive the organisation as trustworthy. Procedural justice may, therefore, work as a buffer to maintain trust even when the focal organisation does not meet the demands and needs of their stakeholders.

H4b) Procedural justice will moderate the positive relationship between perceived organisational trustworthiness and trust, such that when procedural justice is less/more developed, the relationship between perceived organisational trustworthiness and trust will be weaker/stronger.

Procedural justice can be a cue to stakeholders that the focal organisation does not behave opportunistically. This is an important condition for trustworthiness to transmit its positive effects on efficiency (Barney & Hansen 1994). Therefore, procedural justice reduces the need for extensive control mechanisms and thus increases efficiency. This notion is in line with the argument of Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010) who contended that trustworthiness alone does not lead to an increase in efficiency but that procedural justice facilitates this process. Thus, it can be hypothesised:

H4c) Procedural justice will moderate the positive relationship between perceived organisational trustworthiness and efficiency, such that when procedural justice is less/more developed, the relationship between perceived organisational trustworthiness and efficiency will be weaker/stronger.

2.7.5 The indirect conditional effect

It was expected that stakeholder integration and procedural justice are related to stakeholder trust and efficiency in a nonlinear fashion (double moderating relationship), and the effects of both factors on stakeholder trust and efficiency to be transmitted through perceived trustworthiness (e.g., a mediating relationship). As hypothesised in section 2.7.4 stakeholder integration is contingent on the degree of perceived procedural justice to transmit its effect on perceived organisational trustworthiness.

Trustworthiness, while an essential predictor, might not be the only element to foster trust and efficiency. An organisation may be perceived as trustworthy by the stakeholders,

however, stakeholders may not be willing to trust the focal organisation, unless it allocates value through the execution of procedural justice broadly across its stakeholders (Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010). As hypothesised in subsection 2.7.4, the relationship between trustworthiness and trust is potentially contingent on the perceived procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation thanks to its risk buffering effect. Barney and Hansen (1994) suggested that trustworthiness will only increase efficiency if the parties involved in an exchange do not behave opportunistically. Subsection 2.5.2 outlined how procedural justice potentially acts as a sort of proof of good intentions by the focal organisation and, as a result, further increases efficiency. Procedural justice thereby replaces control mechanisms that could reduce efficiency. Based what was discussed in subsection 2.7.2 and if stakeholders perceive the focal organisation as trustworthy, the focal organisation will benefit from higher efficiency to a more considerable extent if the stakeholders' relationship is based on a history of fair treatment.

Reflecting on what has been labelled a moderated mediation effect (Preacher, Rucker & Hayes 2007), it is inferred that the strength of the indirect effect between stakeholder integration, trustworthiness, and trust, and efficiency will be conditional on the level of procedural justice.

H5a) The relationship between stakeholder integration and trust is mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO and the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness is contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation. Specifically, a positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and trust (through perceived trustworthiness) is anticipated when procedural justice is high.

H5b) The relationship between stakeholder integration and trust is mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO and the relationship between trustworthiness and trust is contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation. Specifically, a positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and trust (through perceived trustworthiness) is anticipated when procedural justice is high.

H5c) The relationship between stakeholder integration and trust is mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO, and both relationships are contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation. Specifically, a positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and trust (through perceived trustworthiness) is anticipated when procedural justice is high.

H5d) The relationship between stakeholder integration and efficiency is mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO, and the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness is contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation. Specifically, a positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and LTO efficiency (through perceived trustworthiness) is anticipated when procedural justice is high.

H5e) The relationship between stakeholder integration and efficiency is mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO, and the relationship between trustworthiness and efficiency is contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation. Specifically, a positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and LTO efficiency (through perceived trustworthiness) is anticipated when procedural justice is high.

H5f) The relationship between stakeholder integration and efficiency is mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO, and both relationships are contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation. Specifically, a positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and LTO efficiency (through perceived trustworthiness) is anticipated when procedural justice is high.

2.7.6 Stakeholder integration, trust, and efficiency

The level of trust between a firm and its stakeholders may be a function of the information asymmetry between them (Kulkarni, 2000). Organisations can draw on a set of tools such as dialogue, meetings, and reports to reduce or eliminate asymmetry of information between the company and its stakeholders (Kulkarni, 2000). Hence, the adoption of a stakeholder integration approach helps to facilitate the exchange of information both inside and outside the organisation (Longo and Mura, 2008). By implication, interactions

with stakeholders facilitate the development of trust between the firm and its stakeholders (Longo & Mura 2008; Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010; Wu & Eweje 2008). Grafé-Buckens and Hinton (1998) also suggested that the involvement of stakeholders will help to build trust. Additionally, Byrd (2007) contended that one potential outcome of stakeholder integration is an increase in trust between all parties. Thus, the following hypothesis can be derived:

H6a) Stakeholder integration is positively related to stakeholder's trust in the LTO.

Stemming from the discussion in subsection 2.3.6, the integration of the demands and needs of the stakeholders alone has the potential to increase efficiency because tactics and resource allocation can be adapted to the needs of the stakeholders. Additionally, as laid out in subsection 2.6.2, studies by Green and Hunton-Clarke (2003) and Henisz, Dorobantu and Nartey (2014) supported the direct link between stakeholder integration tactics and efficiency. Accordingly, the following is hypothesised:

H6b) Stakeholder integration is positively related to LTO efficiency.

2.8 Conclusion

Chapter 2 has laid out the theoretical foundations on which the conceptual model was based. Instrumental stakeholder theory was the starting point of the conceptual analysis.

Instrumental stakeholder theory is concerned with how organisations can survive in competitive markets by understanding and aligning the needs and demands of stakeholder groups and by gaining their support to sustain and improve performance. In an instrumental stakeholder theory view, organisations are considered to be cooperative systems rather than rivals that join for mutual value creation. It is the instrumental realm of stakeholder theory that examines the causalities between the organisation's stakeholder interactions, stakeholder management and its performance. It is widely accepted that by systematically adopting a stakeholder management approach, organisations achieve efficiency maximisation and thus higher economic value.

However, a gap in the instrumental stakeholder literature has been the question of which kind of stakeholder management evokes this kind of value creation. This study introduced

the concept of stakeholder integration as a distinct stakeholder management approach that has the potential to lead to efficiency maximisation and increased economic value.

Stakeholder integration consists of three steps with increasing sophistication:

1) knowledge of the stakeholders and their demands,

2) interaction with stakeholders, and

3) taking into consideration the stakeholders' demands and needs when making decisions

The interactive nature of stakeholder integration, if properly executed by the focal organisation, is likely to signal trustworthiness to the stakeholders in the network. An increased stakeholder's perception of trustworthiness fosters stakeholder trust towards the focal organisation. Trust is an important cause behind the unveiling of important information in the organisation-stakeholder relationship. This information, which entails details about the utility functions of the stakeholders, helps the organisation adapt its tactics in order to increase efficiency.

Trust alone, however, may not be sufficient for stakeholders to unveil their utility functions. Procedural justice, as executed by the focal organisation, helps assure the stakeholders that the information will not be exploited or used for only the benefits of the focal organisation. In other words, the higher the level of procedural justice the more likely stakeholders will trust the focal organisation and be willing to share their utility functions. Consequently, if stakeholder integration, trust, and procedural justice are high, efficiency will be maximised.

In the case of this study, this causal chain, as outlined above, was applied to tourist destinations. As tourist destinations are an amalgam of different stakeholders that together constitute the tourism product, trust is vital for destination efficiency. Due to the fragmented value chain at destinations, there is a need for LTOs to be the central node that manages the destination and its stakeholders. Thus, stakeholder theory, trust theory, and organisational justice theory can help to further the understanding of how destinations can be managed effectively while fully embracing the idiosyncrasies of tourist destinations.

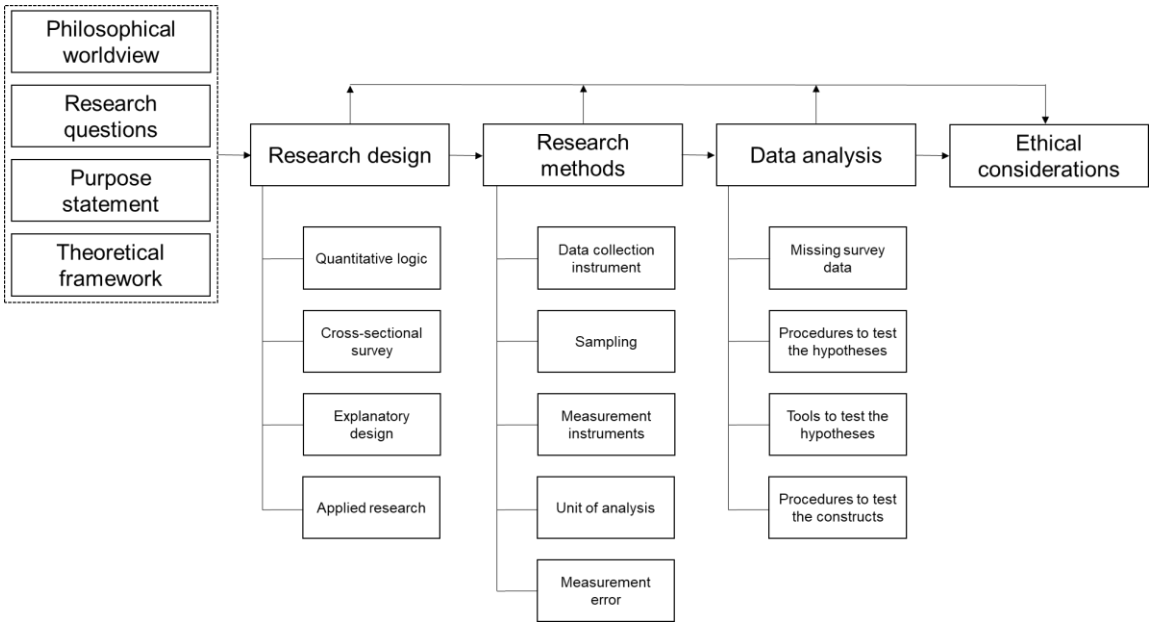
In the next chapter, the research methodology is introduced. Chapter 3 illustrates how the data was collected and how the theoretical constructs, namely stakeholder integration, trustworthiness, procedural justice, and trust, were measured in order to validate the hypothesised causalities statistically. Efficiency was measured by using statistical data on room nights, arrivals, and hotel capacity.

Chapter 3: Research methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter sets out the methodology and the rationale for its use based on the theoretical framework on which the study was based (Figure 4). It begins by discussing the philosophical worldview perspective taken (section 3.2), followed by a brief purpose statement (section 3.3) and a short explanation of the theoretical framework (section 3.4). The research design, data collection, and sampling methods are described in section 3.5. Section 3.6 provides a detailed breakdown of the measurement constructs and salient issues pertaining to validity and reliability while section 3.7 provides an explanation of the data analysis techniques utilised in this study. Limitations to the study are identified in section 3.8. The chapter concludes with a discussion on the ethical considerations related to the implementation of this study (section 3.9) and a conclusion section (section 3.10).

Figure 4 Structural illustration of the research methodology applied



Source: developed for this study

3.2 Philosophical worldview

The philosophical ideas that underpin a research project influence the practice of research and hence need to be identified (Creswell 2009). One of the goals of this study was to test certain aspects of instrumental stakeholder theory deductively and to explore associations between variables. This study adopted a post-positivistic paradigm or worldview due to its deterministic approach that recognises that causes probably determine effects and, as such, supporting this author's belief that it is important to identify and assess the causes influencing outcomes(Creswell 2009). By taking a post-positivistic stance, this study also acknowledged that objectivity could be biased as a result of theories, background, knowledge and the values held by the researcher could have had an impact on the observed object (Creswell 2009).

Ontological, epistemological, and methodological perspectives are interrelated in the choice of a paradigm (Guba & Lincoln 1994). According to Guba (1990), post-positivists take the *ontological* position that the external reality is factual and exists and that knowledge can, therefore, be created by measuring this objective reality. For postpositivists, the real world is independent of researchers even though there are many perceptions of it (Guba & Lincoln 1994). From an *epistemological* point of view, post-positivists aim for objectivity in an objective world; however, absolute truth can never be found (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe 2002). According to Phillips and Burbules (2000) being objective is a vital aspect of competent inquiry and why conclusions and methods that researchers apply to their investigation need to be examined for bias, such as the standard of validity and reliability (Phillips & Burbules 2000). *Methodologically*, post-positivism mostly begins by testing of a theory through the making of claims that are later refined or abandoned for other claims (Phillips & Burbules 2000).

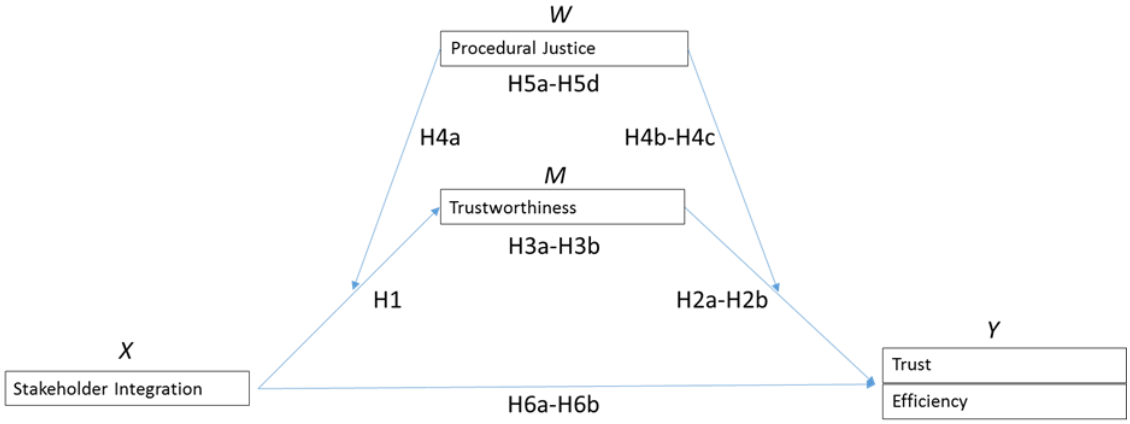
In order to test the hypotheses, information was collected by using valid and reliable online survey instruments completed by the targeted population and other instruments (Phillips & Burbules 2000). This study relied on the collection of quantitative data by surveying hotel managers as well as from available secondary sources. These data were then used to test a defined aspect of instrumental stakeholder theory based on observable realities. The association between the variables was tested using conditional process

analysis, which is based on linear regression techniques. Nevertheless, this study's author kept in mind Guba and Lincoln (1994) statement about how manifestations of a reality are only seen as imperfect representations of that reality.

3.3 Purpose statement

This study tested important aspects of instrumental stakeholder theory, theories of trust, and organisational justice (Figure 5). One part of this explored the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness while applying procedural justice as a moderating variable. Another part examined the relationship between trustworthiness and stakeholder trust and efficiency and the contingency of these relationships on procedural justice.

Figure 5 Conceptual framework for stakeholder integration and organisational performance



Source: developed for this research

3.4 Theoretical framework

This study was based on four different categories of theory. Table 3 provides an overview of what these different categories represent and how they were constituted for the purpose of this study. First of all, stakeholder theory was used to describe the independent variable and how it affected the other variables. More specifically, instrumental stakeholder theory was applied as a major concept within the category of stakeholder theory. Instrumental stakeholder theory postulated that businesses that were managed in the name of all stakeholders tended to perform better in economic terms (Donaldson & Preston 1995).

Stakeholder integration was selected as a specific means of stakeholder management and its impact was tested on variables like trustworthiness, trust, and efficiency.

Stakeholder-oriented performance theory was the second category on which the study was based as it laid the groundwork for establishing an efficiency measure as a dependent variable. As the impacts of stakeholder integration were not likely to be fully captured by financial measures, data envelopment analysis was seen as an appropriate tool to measure positive outcomes of stakeholder integration because "it can combine disparate kinds of goods" (Jones, Harrison & Felps 2018: 40).

Fairness in stakeholder relations was the third theoretical category of stakeholder theory framing this study. The notion of fairness was captured through the use of organizational justice theory. Procedural justice was applied as a condition that was supposed to positively influence the relationship between stakeholder integration and positive outcomes like trust and efficiency.

Trust theory was the fourth category used in designing this study. It played an important part in explaining how the positive effects of stakeholder integration were transmitted. This was done by applying an inter-organizational level of analysis, with trustworthiness and trust treated as two distinct entities. Trustworthiness was assumed to generate trust based on the review of the literature (i. e. Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995).

Table 3 Theoretical framework

Theory Category	**Grouping of Like-Theories & Approaches**	**Major Theories**	**Rollup of Major Theories**
Stakeholders	• Managing for stakeholders • Stakeholder integration • Stakeholder engagement • Stakeholder management • Competitive advantage • Business strategy • Stakeholder collaboration • Stakeholder relationships • Stakeholder dialogue	Instrumental stakeholder theory	Stakeholder theory
Performance	• Key performance indicators • Performance evaluation and benchmarking • Triple bottom line	Performance measurement	

	• Efficiency • Social welfare • Stakeholder happiness		
Fairness	• Inter-organisational fairness • Stakeholder fairness • Cooperative scheme • Freeriding • Design of stakeholder relations • Voluntary cooperation • Reciprocity	• Procedural justice • Interactional Justice • Distributive Justice	Organisational Justice Theory
Trust	• Inter-organisational trust • Interpersonal trust • Firm-Stakeholder trust • Trust creation • Trustworthiness • Stakeholder trust	• Dimensions of trustworthiness (ABI)	Trust Theory

Source: developed for this research

3.5 Research design

3.5.1 Quantitative logic

This study investigated the research questions by empirically testing the hypotheses through quantitative techniques. In the context of this study, a quantitative approach seemed suitable for several reasons. Firstly, as the data collected was numeric, it required statistical analysis. Had verbal or other forms non-numeric empirical data been collected, a qualitative analysis (or possibly mixed methods) would have been needed (Creswell 2009; King, Keohane & Verba 1994). Secondly, following the rationale of the post-positivistic worldview, the study did not aim to understand one single phenomenon in depth in order to generate hypotheses inductively. Instead, the study applied a deductive approach. The research strategy consisted of an online survey and the use of statistical data. The approach taken by this study empirically tested hypotheses that drew on the extant literature and to generate generalisable findings (Creswell 2009) based on a quantitative logic and a desire to allow for replicability and generalisability of findings. Thirdly, the study aimed to further the understanding and contribute to the solution of a well-defined problem: the lack of knowledge about the effectiveness of stakeholder integration regarding generating trust and efficiency at Alpine destinations in Switzerland. Generating this knowledge was deemed important because the Swiss Alpine destinations

seem to need new strategies that take into account the idiosyncratic nature of community-type tourism destinations in that traditional methods only worked for some community-type destinations as evidenced by the decline in room nights and aggregate value added (AVA) since 2011 (Federal Statistical Office 2018b).

3.5.2 Cross-sectional survey

This study applied a cross-sectional rather than a longitudinal design. An online survey collected quantifiable data at a single point in time in order to detect patterns of association between the measured variables (stakeholder integration, trustworthiness, procedural justice, trust) and secondary data (efficiency) (Bryman & Bell 2010). Bryman and Bell (2010) pointed out that in the context of cross-sectional designs, only relationships may be uncovered because the inference that one variable causes another is not possible. Philosophers such as Hume and Mill (cited in Rindfleisch 2008, p. 263) wrote that causal relationships are impossible to observe. The explanation that one variable causes another drew on the fundamental assumption that outcomes have causes and hence, causality must be inferred (Granger and Berk, cited in Rindfleisch 2008, p. 263).

There is consensus in the research literature that temporal order is an important condition to detect causal relationships (Rindfleisch et al. 2008; Somekh & Lewin 2011). This implies that longitudinal data is believed to possess better causal inference than cross-sectional data (Bryman & Bell 2010). However, Rindfleisch et al. (2008) concluded that firstly, temporal order is not necessarily improved by the collection of longitudinal data and secondly, that there are other important markers of causality besides temporal order. As causality cannot be proven by statistical means if cross-sectional data is used, the causal effect has to be derived from theory (Creswell 2009).

Rindfleisch et al. (2008), in supporting the use of cross-sectional data, contended that temporal erosion – the effect that caused the phenomenon can erode over time – may harm causal inference. For example, Moorman, Zaltman and Deshpande (1992a) and Narayandas and Rangan (2004) argued that the effect of inter-organisational trust on organisational outcomes (which was a focus in the context of this study) is more likely if trust is recent and ongoing. It followed that in such a case, longitudinal data were not as likely to exhibit superior causal inference as cross-sectional data (Rindfleisch et al. 2008).

Einhorn and Hogarth (1986), as well as Marini and Singer (1988), supported Rindfleisch et al.'s (2008) view that theoretical coherence is a sign for causal inference..

Rindfleisch et al. (2008) defined t*heoretical coherence* to be the degree to which predictor and outcome variables are congruent with theoretical expectations. In this study, the hypotheses were deducted from an existing body of literature. For instance, two inferences emanating from the literature were [1] that stakeholder integration is likely to have an impact on trustworthiness and not vice versa and [2] that trustworthiness yields positive outcomes, such as trust and efficiency.

Rindfleisch et al. (2008) further argued that if input and output variables showed a nomological pattern to other relevant variables, longitudinal data would not necessarily produce stronger evidence of coherence than cross-sectional data. By implication, temporal erosion of inter-organisational trust on potential outcomes supported a cross-sectional design. Coherence is theory dependent rather than based on data collection (Rindfleisch et al. 2008; Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). Both, Rindfleisch et al. (2008) and Bryman and Bell (2010) concluded that a well-designed cross-sectional survey has the potential to serve as an adequate substitute for longitudinal data collection. If all conditions are met like in the context of this study, cross-sectional data will likely provide causal evidence. .

3.5.3 Explanatory design

The nature of this study was explanatory as the aim was to test hypotheses, to explore relationships, and to investigate how variables interacted. Explanatory designs sought to analyse data by using statistical techniques. This study included, in the narrowest sense, experiments and more broadly, as applied in the context of this study, causal modelling (Given 2008). Survey and secondary statistical data were analysed to detect relationships as hypothesised between stakeholder integration, trustworthiness, trust, and efficiency under the various levels of procedural justice.

3.5.4 Applied research

This study falls under applied research since it sought to find a solution to a practical business problem rather than generating new or improving existing theories (the domain

of basic research). The aim was to help touristic destination stakeholders, namely hotels and LTOs, improve their performance regarding trust and efficiency levels as a means to help the entire touristic destination thrive.

3.6 Research Methods

3.6.1 Data collection instrument

Data was collected using an online self-completion questionnaire survey (Bryman & Bell 2010), which was sent out by email. The survey was attached to the email as a hyperlink directing the respondents to the survey web page on the internet. Using a survey was an appropriate strategy in light of the post-positivistic worldview as it allowed to collect data that could be statistically analysed and relationships inferred (Creswell 2009; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe 2002).

According to Veal (2006), surveys are predominantly used in tourism research. Some of the main advantages of a self-completion survey compared to other instruments, such as the structured interview, include large amounts of data that can be gathered in a relatively short time frame and the ability to use the results for statistical analysis (Veal 2006). These characteristics were a vital precondition for the success of this study.

Self-completion surveys are convenient for the respondents because they can complete a survey when they want and at their own speed (Bryman & Bell 2010). However, there are also drawbacks related to survey research. For example, the wording and structure of the survey may distort the responses of the participants, and the researcher may not provide prompts to the respondents in the case of ambiguities (Veal 2006). Survey construction issues could have created measurement error (see subsection 3.6.4). Non-response bias concerns based on how respondents answered the survey are identified in subsections 0 and 3.7.1 below.

3.6.2 Sampling

According to Fowler (2009), the following aspects have the potential to both, enhance or detract from the accuracy of a survey:

3.6.2.1 The sample frame

This study aimed to create an optimal design by taking all the salient facets of the survey process outlined by Fowler (2009) into account while optimising the use of time resources. Subsections 3.6.2.1 to 0 describe the aspects listed above as these were applied to this research project in more detail.

3.6.2.1 Sample frame

The population of this study was defined as the *entirety of the hotels and LTOs in the Alpine region of Switzerland* (the Alpine region of Switzerland is confined by the cantons of Waadt, Wallis, Bern, Freiburg, Luzern, Obwalden, Nidwalden, Uri, Tessin, Schwyz, Glarus, St. Gallen, Appenzell, and Graubünden). The reason why the metropolitan areas were excluded was that besides leisure tourists, these regions also draw significant numbers of business-driven visitors. Business travel plays by different rules than leisure tourism and was therefore not in scope.

This study's unit of analysis, as previously indicated, was the local tourist office (LTO) and the unit of observation was the LTO's most salient set of stakeholders, the hotels (Sheehan, Ritchie & Hudson 2007; Sheehan & Brent Ritchie 2005). The sampling frame consisted of all hotels in the Alpine region of Switzerland, as listed in the hotel database of the Swiss Hotel Association (1441 cases). This is the most comprehensive database in the industry, covering more than 75% of the hotels in Switzerland (Swiss Hotel Association 2015). All hotels on this list were deemed to be the total population that could be contacted, making the selection probability calculation 100% and thus allowing for a minimisation of coverage bias (Fowler 2009; Hibberts, Johnson & Hudson 2012). To reduce the risk of under- or over-coverage (Bautista 2012), no elements from the list drawn from the hotel database were removed. Likewise, no elements that did not belong to the hotel database were added. Only hotels that were in an official Alpine district were selected.

The sample population for the pilot study consisted of comparable rural but not necessarily Alpine region hotels. This meant that at no time city hotels were included in any part of the study. Non-Alpine region rural hotels were used in the pilot because could be based on their reliance on leisure travel only. As a result of the analysis conducted, the population size of the pilot study was 535 hotels.

3.6.2.2 Sample size

According to Hibberts, Johnson and Hudson (2012), when a small relationship between the variables is expected, a larger sample size is advisable. As this study was using an integrated moderation and mediation model (conditional process modelling), small relationships were expected. If a multiple regression model is used to detect differences in the dependent variable, the power of the model is mainly dependent on the number of predictor variables Cohen (1988). In the context of this study, three predictor variables were tested and the sample size needed to be large to ensure sufficient effect size. The effect size for multiple linear regression models was calculated by using Cohen's f^2 as an indication of the strength of the relationship (Cohen 1988). Moreover, a larger sample produces narrower confidence intervals (Hibberts, Johnson & Hudson 2012). By using the G-Power tool (Universität Düsseldorf 2015) sample size could be calculated via the expected effect size (Cohen's f^2: small: 0.02, medium: 0.15, large: 0.35), the aimed confidence level of 95%, the desired power level (recommended minimum for research according to Hibberts, Johnson and Hudson (2012): 0.80) and the numbers of predictors (3).

According to Table 4, the optimal sample size of hotel managers (who were treated as the formal representation of the hotel) in the context of this study was 539. A conservative estimate of 20% response rate was assumed because it was unlikely that the response rate would be 100%, especially since within the field of tourism managerial responses to surveys often yielded no more than a 30% response rate (Smith 1995). In light of the turmoil in the Swiss tourism and its hotel industry (Raths 2015), the response rate of 20% was realistic. To achieve the desired sample size of 539 and using a 20% response rate from hotel managers likely, it was estimated that the total population sample should be 2695. Regrettably, the Swiss Hotel Association only listed 1441 Alpine hotels. Inferential

statistics proposes that larger samples result in smaller standard errors, greater statistical power, fewer Type II errors in hypothesis testing and tighter confidence intervals (Hibberts, Johnson & Hudson 2012). Therefore, the entire list of hotels in the database was contacted.

Table 4 Sample sizes

	f^2 small: 0.02	f^2 medium: 0.15	f^2 large: 0.35
Confidence level 95%	539	66	25

Test family: F-Tests / Statistical test: Linear multiple regression, fixed model, R^2 deviation from zero

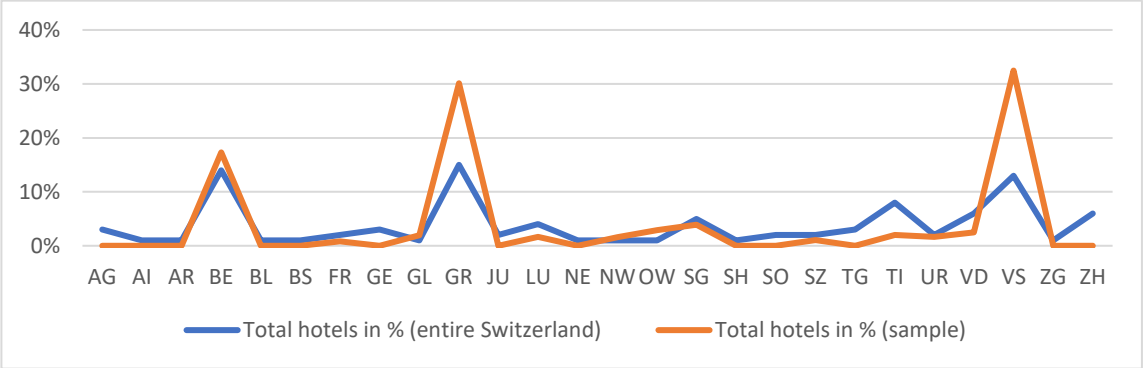
3.6.2.3 The sample design

The previous subsection described the strategy used for sampling hotels through their managers. All 1441 hotels in the Alpine region of Switzerland listed in the Swiss Hotel Association database were contacted. This was a viable approach because the database was a relatively accurate listing of the study population (Bickman & Rog 2008). The approach taken in this study has been successfully applied in other published studies that used conditional process analysis as a way of analysing the data (e.g. Cole, Bedeian & Bruch 2011; Goodboy, Martin & Brown 2016; Gvirsman 2014; Hoyt, Burnette & Auster-Gussman 2014; Quratulain & Khan 2015; Smith, Martinez & Sabat 2016; Torres & Taknint 2015; Van Dijke, De Cremer & Mayer 2010), with some of these studies conducted in the same field of research (e.g. Brown, Davidsson & Wiklund 2001; Kirsch, Goldfarb & Gera 2009; Kriauciunas, Parmigiani & Rivera-Santos 2011; Miller & Friesen 1982).

Figure 6 demonstrated how the identified sample accurately represented the major Alpine tourism-regions like Bern (BE), Graubünden (GR) and Wallis (VS) but also the more peripheral regions like Waadt (VD), Freiburg (FR), Lucerne (LU), Obwalden (OW), Nidwalden (NW), Uri (UR), Tessin (TI), Schwyz (SZ), Glarus (GL), St. Gallen (SG) and Appenzell (AI/AR). All city area hotels in these cantons were removed from the population group, which explains the difference between the number “total hotels in % entire Switzerland” and “total hotels in % sample” in Figure 6. The remaining cantons that

were not part of the Alpine region of Switzerland were out of scope of this study and therefore not included in the population group: Basle (BL/BS), Geneva (GE), Jura (JU), Neuchatel (NE), Schaffhausen (SH), Solothurn (SO), Thurgau (TG), Zug (ZG), Zurich (ZH).

Figure 6 Sample representativity by Canton



The sample also reflected the language distribution across the Swiss hotel landscape. The 10% difference in the proportion was mainly due to the exclusion of the city-hotels. As Table 5 notes, the Alpine region is predominantly German-speaking.

Table 5 Representativity of the sample by language region

	Total hotels in Switzerland		Total hotels in the sample	
French	1130	22%	135	9.3%
German	3925	78%	1306	90.7%
Total	**5055**	**100%**	**1441**	**100%**

Source: developed for this research

In conclusion, the chosen sample accurately represented the basic regional and linguistic distribution within the region. Another indicator of the sample's representativeness could have been the hotel classification (ratings based on the number of stars). However, not all hotels featured an official classification and, as a result, hotel classification was not deemed to be a reliable indicator of representativeness.

3.6.2.4 The response rate

Typically, a response rate depends on the survey method used. According to Singleton Jr and Straits (2010) and Babbie (2010), e-mail surveys have the lowest response rate among the different survey methods; yet, there are some measures that help increase the response rate. For example, Stoop (2012) recommended that survey procedures should be designed to make the cooperation as easy as possible, and small incentives given as a sign of appreciation.

To fulfil Stoop (2012) first criterion, this study used surveys in German and French language to increase the response rate. These instruments included a telephone number and e-mail address respondents could use in case the respondents had questions regarding the survey. Embracing Stoop (2012) second criterion, a summary of the most important results and conclusions for practitioners was offered to all the participants as an additional incentive to participate.

Stoop (2012) also thought that the benefits of survey participation should be highlighted and costs should be held at a minimum level. Participation costs were minimal if the participants responded using the web-based survey tool. Emails with a direct link to the web page were sent to all the hotels. The benefits of participation in the survey were highlighted in the first paragraph of the email text. Potential respondents were told that one of the main benefits from participating in the survey was that they were addressing a relevant problem within the tourism industry from a relatively new perspective that could lead to possible solutions to help the industry thrive.

According to Stoop (2012), the decision to cooperate is more often the result of a heuristic rather than a conscious decision. This means that it is difficult to assess non-participation, requiring an investigator to partake of all possible means to minimise refusal (Stoop 2012).

After the initial refusal to participate, another strategy called *refusal conversion* was applied to convince potential respondents to cooperate after an initial refusal (Stoop 2012). The concern was that non-participation from certain potential respondents would lead to bias through non-response (Hibberts, Johnson & Hudson 2012). Groves (2006) did, however, indicated there is no linear relation between non-response rate and non-response

bias. To detect non-response bias, a non-response bias test was conducted using refusal conversion to study non-response that treated respondents who changed their mind and participated as proxies for final non-respondents (Armstrong & Overton 1977; Groves & Couper 1998; Smith 1984).

3.6.3 Measurement constructs

The constructs used in the context of this study were based on existing measurement constructs proven to be reliable and valid in previous studies. These included the scale for stakeholder integration by Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010), procedural justice by Colquitt et al. (2001), trustworthiness by Searle et al. (2011) and trust by Gillespie (2003). As the survey was conducted in German and French language, a professional translator was engaged to help write the instrument. According to the recommendation of Peña (2007), the researcher, who can speak, read, and write German, French, and English, reviewed the translation. The goal was to make sure that the words and the linguistic meaning used in the instruments were identical with the original instrument.

The data for the observable variable *efficiency* was collected by tapping into secondary data sources. Specifics about the operationalisation of independent latent variables are discussed in subsections 3.6.3.1 (stakeholder integration), 3.6.3.2 (perceived organisational trustworthiness) and 3.6.3.3 (procedural justice). Subsection 3.6.3.4 provides more information about trust as a dependent latent variable and subsection 3.6.3.5 encompasses a discussion on efficiency as a dependent observable variable.

3.6.3.1 Stakeholder integration

Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010) identified three dimensions that together constitute stakeholder integration: knowledge of stakeholders (KNOW), stakeholder interaction (INTER) and behaviour of adaptation (ADAP). The stakeholder integration measure was based on self-reported data (Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010). The scale ranged from 1 = strongly agree to 7 = strongly disagree. Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010) validated their scale using the five critical components of validity according to

Venkatraman and Grant (1986): content validity, internal consistency, convergent validity, discriminant validity, and nomological validity.

Content validity cannot be tested quantitatively; hence Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010) based their checks on the literature review process, peer-reviews by fellow researchers and expert interviews as well as pre-tests in the field. To check the reliability and internal consistency, the authors conducted an exploratory factorial analysis. The result of this analysis showed that the stakeholder integration concept included three dimensions. Each dimension showed to be consistent as the reliability assessment delivered Cronbach's alpha values between 0.8813 and 0.9136, the composite reliability index (CRI) showed values between 0.8800 and 0.9157 as well as average variance extracted (AVE) values between 0.5961 and 0.6864.

After conducting the exploratory factor analysis, Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010) conducted a second-order confirmatory factorial analysis for additional evidence of the scales' dimensionality (Table 6). In model 1, the 16 items directly related to the construct variable. In model 2, the three dimensions relate to the construct variable. The goodness of fit indicators improved in the second model:

Table 6 Results of confirmatory factorial analysis

Model	X^2	G.L.	X^2 corr.	RMSEA	GFI	NFI	CFI	IFI	RFI	PGFI
1	546.28	104	5.25	0.17	0.687	0.767	0.812	0.814	0.731	0.525
2	165.47	101	1.63	0.06	0.879	0.905	0.958	0.959	0.887	0.653

Source: Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010)

The correlations between the dimensions of the scale were assessed to control for convergent validity. The correlations were all significant at the level of 1% error. Additionally, the normalised fit index (NFI) of over 0.90 for the second model is an indication of a high level of convergent validity.

Discriminant validity was scrutinised by comparing the correlation between the items of each dimension with the correlation of the remaining ones. This test showed that the correlations are higher in the first case than in the second (Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010).

Eventually, to test the nomological or predictive validity of the scale, different analyses were carried out. Stakeholder integration was considered as a complementary asset that leads to increased performance when combined with proactive environmental management (Sharma & Henriques 2005). A regression test conducted by Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010) showed that companies with advanced environmental management enjoy greater profitability only when the level of stakeholder integration was high. Thus, these results provided support for the predictive validity of the stakeholder integration scale (Table 7).

Table 7 Stakeholder integration measure

Knowledge of stakeholders and their demands
1) The company keeps documented information on the previous relationships with stakeholders (important meetings, conflicts, agreements, judicial or extrajudicial demands, etc.)
2) Knowledge of all stakeholders and their demands is very important for the managers (performance, relationships among them, positions of power, importance and satisfaction…)
3) The company obtains feedback on its repercussions on stakeholders
4) The company dedicates little time and few resources to know the characteristics of its stakeholders (relationships between different stakeholders, potential threats, cooperation, etc.)
5) There is a lack of information and documentation on stakeholders' demands
Stakeholder interactions
1) The company frequently has meetings with the stakeholders
2) The company consults the Stakeholders and asks them for information before taking decisions
3) The company's formal or informal cooperation with the stakeholders is intense (commitments, collaboration agreements…)
4) Stakeholders participate in the company's decision-making process
5) The company strives to develop new contacts with all the stakeholders

6) The company dedicates time and resources for assessing and prioritising the demands of the different stakeholders
Behaviours of adaptation
1) The company makes a special effort to prepare the information for the different stakeholders
2) There is frequent managerial debate about the demands of the stakeholders
3) The company is willing to change its objectives in line with stakeholders' demands
4) The company dedicates little time and few resources to adapting to Stakeholders' demands
5) The company's policies and priorities are adapted to Stakeholders' demands

Source : Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010)

3.6.3.2 Perceived organisational trustworthiness

Gillespie and Dietz (2009) and Searle et al. (2011) transformed the trustworthiness scale developed by Mayer and Davis (1999) from an interpersonal to an organisational level: [1] ability (the organisation's collective competencies and characteristics that enable it to function reliably and effectively to meet its goals and responsibilities), [2] benevolence (organisational action indicating genuine care and concern for the well-being of stakeholders), and [3] integrity (organisational action that consistently adheres to moral principles and a code of conduct acceptable to employees, such as honesty and fairness). Stakeholders judged the overall trustworthiness of an organisation by considering multiple sources of evidence from multiple organisational components and levels such as immediate working relationships, senior management, internal groups, and the organisation itself (Gillespie & Dietz 2009).

Searle et al. (2011) conducted a principal components analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation to find out whether the three dimensions of trustworthiness (ability, benevolence, integrity) as stipulated by Schoorman, Mayer and Davis (2007) could be distinguished on an organisational level. Searle et al. (2011) could not support the three-factor structure as identified at an individual level as proposed by (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995). However, even in studies on an interpersonal level, the three-factor model of Mayer, Davis

and Schoorman (1995) could not always be supported either (Searle et al. 2011). In contrast, Schoorman, Mayer and Davis (2007) suggested that their framework was proven to be reasonably robust across levels of analysis and thus could be applied to interpersonal, intergroup, or inter-organisational contexts. By implication, Schoorman, Mayer and Davis (2007) contended that perceptions about an individual's ability, benevolence and integrity not only affected the extent of trust that an individual could garner but that this also applied to organisations as referents of trust. This was why this study used the three-factor model as stipulated by Schoorman, Mayer and Davis (2007).

While the dimensions of ability and integrity were well accepted at organisational levels of analysis, according to Schoorman, Mayer and Davis (2007), benevolence was not likely to be the most important factor developing inter-organisational trust. However, in cases where the organisations had strong bonds that displayed significant benevolence toward one another, benevolence would help to build trust (Schoorman, Mayer & Davis 2007).

The original organisational trustworthiness measure by Mayer and Davis (1999) indicated that the three dimensions of trustworthiness were distinct in a confirmatory factor analysis. Cronbach's α results of 0.93 for ability, 0.95 for benevolence and 0.96 for integrity suggested acceptable reliability for each dimension. The authors also compared a global model (including trust as a dimension) with the proposed model (consisting of the three dimensions of trustworthiness). They found respondents did not differentiate trust and the trustworthiness dimensions at a global level; yet, the second model reflected that respondents had distinguished each of the three factors as the theory proposed. The fitness statistics showed that the proposed model provided the best fit on all the fit indexes used in both survey waves (Table 8):

Table 8 Results of confirmatory factorial analysis

Model	*df*	X^2	GFI	AGFI	RMSR	CFI
Wave 1						
Global	189	385.23	0.80	0.76	0.051	0.88
Proposed	183	251.38	0.88	0.84	0.043	0.96
Wave 2						
Global	189	428.60	0.81	0.77	0.044	0.89
Proposed	183	327.90	0.86	0.82	0.040	0.94

Source: Mayer and Davis (1999)

The only comparative fit index (CFI) that exceeded 0.90 was the one for the proposed model. Additionally, a chi-square difference test compared the fit of the two substantive models: The difference in chi-squares was significant, for Wave 1, $X^2(6, N = 166) = 133.85$, $p < .01$; for Wave 2, $X^2 (6, N= 185) = 100.61$, $p < .01$, which showed that the proposed model provided a better fit with the data. Thus, the following scale based on Mayer and Davis (1999) and adapted by Searle et al. (2011) was used in this study (Table 9):

Table 9 Organisational trustworthiness measure

Ability scale
This organisation is capable of meeting its responsibilities.
This organisation is known to be successful at what it tries to do.
This organisation does things competently.
Benevolence scale
This organisation is concerned about the welfare of its stakeholders.
Stakeholders' needs and desires are important to this organisation.
This organisation will go out of its way to help its stakeholders.
This organisation would never deliberately take advantage of its stakeholders
Integrity scale
This organisation is guided by sound moral principles and codes of conduct
This organisation does not abuse its power.
This organisation does not exploit external stakeholders.

Source: Searle et al. (2011)

The scales presented above were based on self-report data, and they measured the trustworthiness of the focal organisation from a stakeholder perspective. The Likert scale ranged from 1 = strongly agree to 7 = strongly disagree.

3.6.3.3 Procedural justice

Moorman (1991) was the first to measure procedural justice items within a formal decision-making system rather than the behaviours of a supervisor. The measure was not tied to a specific procedural event such as a performance evaluation; instead, it was considered as an *entity* measure, in the words of Cropanzano et al. (2001). A more recent measure published in the justice literature was created by Colquitt (2001). This measure could also be adapted to provide a general assessment of procedural justice by adding a more entity-style culmination like "outcomes in this organisation" and adapted to different contexts (Colquitt & Shaw 2005). The measure can assess multiple sources of justice and be referenced to an organisational system as well as a human authority figure.

Colquitt and Shaw (2005) conducted a confirmatory factor analysis of a merged data set of 12 authors and 16 independent samples, which resulted in a single set of 2,331 individual respondents. The procedural justice dimension possessed acceptable reliability with a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.83 (The Likert scale ranges from 1 = *to a small extent* to 5 = to *a large extent*). Table 10 provides items (Colquitt 2001) generated for the procedural justice measure.

Table 10 Procedural justice measure

Procedural justice	
The following items refer to the stakeholder integration procedures of your LTO	Source:
1) Have you been able to express your views and feelings during these procedures? (Process control)	Colquitt (2001) based on justice rules by Leventhal (1980) and
2) Have you had influence over the outcome arrived at by those procedures? (Decision control)	
3) Have those procedures been applied consistently? (Consistency)	

4) Have those procedures been free of bias? (Bias suppression)	Thibaut and Walker (1975)
5) Have those procedures been based on accurate information? (Accuracy)	
6) Have you been able to appeal the outcome arrived at by those procedures? (Correctability)	
7) Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards? (Ethicality)	

Source: Colquitt (2001)

These measure items above were considered to be an indirect measure (Colquitt & Shaw 2005). Indirect measures showed stronger relationships with many outcomes when a comprehensive set of justice rules were utilised (Colquitt 2001). Additionally, indirect measures have a distinct advantage compared to direct measures in giving managerial advice as results can always be related to Leventhal (1980) rules for consistency, precision, absence of bias, representativeness, correction, and ethic. For example, a practical finding could be that it was necessary to devote more resources to the consistency, accuracy, and correctability of decision-making or stakeholder integration procedures. A direct measure did not provide such information (Colquitt & Shaw 2005).

3.6.3.4 Trust in the focal organisation

According to an extensive literature review conducted by Dietz and Hartog (2006), only a few trust measures tested for the respondent's intention to act. Most available measures only focused on the *belief* element of trust, which was the assessment of the referent's trustworthiness. Based on this study's conceptualisation of trust, a scale that measured the intent or decision to trust had to be applied. Gillespie (2003) developed a scale that specifically assessed the trustor's decision to act. The scale was designed to be used in conjunction with *belief* measures, such as the one used in this study generated by Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995). However, the referent of trust according to the scale of Gillespie (2003) was an individual and not an organisation. Thus, the existing scale needed to be adapted to fit an inter-organisational context, and consequently, a conformational factor analysis was conducted.

Table 11 show Gillespie's (2003) original trust measure items.

Table 11 Original trust measure

Trust as a decision	
"How willing are you to…"	Source:
1) … rely on your leader's work-related judgements?	Gillespie (2003)
2) … rely on your leader's task-related skills and abilities?	
3) … depend on your leader to handle an important issue on your behalf?	
4) … rely on your leader to represent your work accurately to others?	
5) … depend on your leader to back you up in difficult situations?	
6) … share your personal feelings with your leader?	
7) … confide in your leader about personal issues that are affecting your work?	
8) … discuss honestly how you feel about your work, even negative feelings and frustration?	
9) … discuss work-related problems or difficulties that could potentially be used to disadvantage you?	
10) … share your personal beliefs with your leader?	

Source: Gillespie (2003)

Table 12 displays how (2003) scale was adapted for this study:

Table 12 Adapted trust measure

Trust as a decision	
"How willing are you to…"	Source:
1) … rely on the LTO's work-related judgements?	Gillespie (2003)
2) … rely on the LTO's task-related skills and abilities?	
3) … depend on the LTO to handle an important issue on your behalf?	

4) … rely on the LTO to represent your hotel accurately to others?	
5) … depend on the LTO to back you up in difficult situations?	
6) … discuss honestly how you feel about your cooperation, even negative feelings and frustration?	
7) … discuss work-related problems or difficulties that could potentially be used to disadvantage your organisation?	

Source: Gillespie (2003)

Questions 6, 7, and 10 from Table 11 were removed as the content of the question could not be meaningfully transferred to an organisational referent level. As the trust scale above was reflective, which meant that items were correlated and that they all had occurrences of the construct, the removal of items was not expected to have a causal effect on the latent variable (Diamantopoulos 1999). This was reconfirmed by conducting a conformational factor analysis.

3.6.3.5 Efficiency

Efficiency was measured using data envelopment analysis (DEA). DEA is a non-parametric linear method to measure the efficiency of decision-making units (DMU) relative to other DMU (Zhu 2003). For this study, the DMU were the aggregated hotels at a given destination. The relationships between inputs and outputs were identified, irrespective of their similarities or dissimilarities in terms of scale (Perrigot, Cliquet & Piot-Lepetit 2009).

Two alternative approaches to DEA were available. One was *input-oriented*, where the inputs were minimised, and the outputs are kept at their current levels. The other alternative approach available was an *output-oriented* model that maximised the output given the current input (Zhu 2003). In the context of this study, an output-oriented approach with constant returns to scale (CRS) was applied. CRS assumed that a destination operates under constant returns to scale. An increase in input results in a proportionate increase in the output level (Emrouznejad, Parker & Tavares 2008). This

approach was justified as accommodation is characterised by constant returns to scale at an industry or destination level (Shi & Smyth 2012).

The input variables were the following:

Input:

- Number of hotels at the destination
- Number of total bed capacity at destination

Output:

- Annual arrivals
- Annual hotel room nights

DEA is a common method used in the tourism industry to measure efficiency. According to Liu et al. (2013), 42 papers using DEA in a tourism context were published between 1978 and 2010. According to Cracolici, Rietveld and Nijkamp (2008), physical resources were predominantly used as input factors whereas arrivals, as well as hotel room nights, are used as output variables. By implication, the performance at a destination was evaluated by its efficient resource use. If a touristic destination was not able to generate an efficient output given the inputs, it would probably attract relatively fewer visitors compared to other hotels or destinations (Cracolici, Rietveld & Nijkamp 2008). Optimal efficiency was reached if a hotel operated at the production possibility frontier. Hotels that operated below the frontier were considered to be inefficient. The production possibility frontier showed the maximum production of one good or service without decreasing the production of another good or service (Zhu 2003).

3.6.4 Measurement error

A source of bias linked to the measurement instrument is *measurement error*. Measurement error occurs when inaccuracies in responses due to the survey, the mode of data collection or the characteristics of the respondent occur (Bautista 2012). According to Bautista (2012), this kind of error can have various root causes such as poor question wording, unclear question instructions, erroneous skip patterns, lengthy questions, inadequate response options and the topic of the survey.

Pre-testing the questions became very important (Lavrakas 2008) because the researcher was not present to remove these potential ambiguities that could emanate from respondent answers. Therefore, the survey used in this study was peer-reviewed and tested in a pilot study to minimise such ambiguities that could lead to measurement error. The survey would have had to be disregarded if the respondent did not affirmatively respond whether she/he had experience in dealing with the LTO directly in order to avoid inaccuracies in response due to respondent characteristics.

3.6.5 Unit of analysis

Proposed independent latent variables were measured based on self-reported data. As a result, several challenges needed to be considered. For example, as the units of analysis were organisations and not persons, the underlying hypotheses could not be tested by asking respondents to report strictly personal information such as their feelings, opinions, or behaviours (Seidler 1974).

The typical sampling strategy (Bryman & Bell, 2010; Phillips, 1981) of selecting one member from the hotel management group as its representative to respond to the survey was utilised in this study. This meant that this study focused on an individual's perception of the relationship with the focal organisation and not on the relationship with specific persons representing the focal organisations (e.g., boundary spanners). This was consistent with Phillips' (1981) *key informant method*, which measures some aspects of an organisation by reporting the observation of a key person like a manager. Individuals can ascribe human-like characteristics, motivations, and emotions to organisations while tending to hold beliefs about their relationship with an organisation as a whole rather than any specific agent of the stakeholder group (Sluss & Ashforth 2008).

The key informant method allowed measuring organisational characteristics distinct from personal characteristics (Phillips 1981). This method was not fully free of bias because the information from the key informant potentially might not have been representative of an entire unit or company (Hughes & Preski 1997). An individual's view could be distorted by their role, personal views and perceptions or their current personal circumstances (Kumar, Stern & Anderson (1993).

In the context of this study, the hotel managers for the most part represented a relatively small unit (one hotel); therefore, the expectation was that bias from these 'smaller' units, as outlined above, was inherently smaller when compared to a manager representing a 'blue-chip' company with multiple hotels. Section 3.6.4 outlined how measurement errors were prevented through a peer review of the survey instrument. Respondents needed to indicate their level of experience in dealing with the LTO as another filter to reduce or fully eliminate bias, which is why managers with no experience with LTOs were extracted from the sample.

3.7 Data analysis

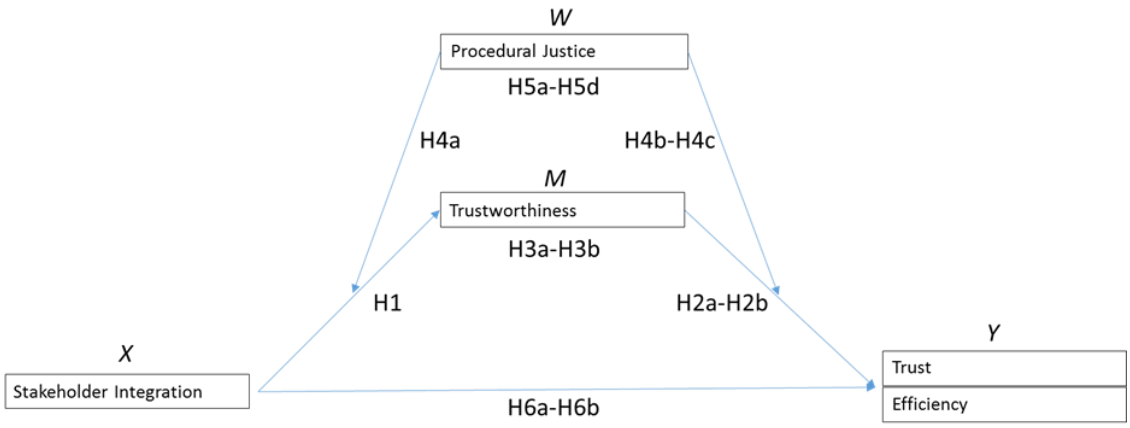
3.7.1 Missing survey data

Conditional process analysis, which was applied in this study, relied on complete data sets, which is why only complete data sets were considered for this study. The online survey tool had an alert function that was used to remind participants that some questions had not been answered in order to maximize the number of complete data sets. This helped to minimise accidental item non-response. Incomplete surveys or missing data did pose a challenge because of the need to have complete data sets; yet, the researcher was aware that item non-response was possible. Reasons for non-completion could have been due to personal choice or inability to answer. More specifically, non-completion might have occurred [1] if participants consciously refused to answer the survey, [2] if they did not have enough time to complete the survey or [3] if they did not know the answer to a question. Accordingly, the survey was designed in a way that the participants were able to submit the survey even though it had not been completed. Instead of only accepting complete surveys automatically, responses with missing values were excluded from analysis retrospectively. According to Patrician (2002), so-called list-wise deletion or only accepting completed surveys could have led to two potentially serious problems: compromised analytic power and non-response bias. Compromised analytic power was tackled by using a large sample. Detecting bias through non-response was addressed in section 0 above.

3.7.2 Procedures to test the hypotheses

Moderated mediation occurs when mediation relations are contingent on the level of a moderator (Preacher, Rucker & Hayes, 2007). A first stage moderated mediation occurs when the association between the predictor variable and the mediator variable is moderated (Hayes 2013). This study featured a double moderation model, as shown in the conceptual model below (Figure 7), which postulated that trustworthiness was mediating the relationship between stakeholder integration and trust as well as efficiency. Furthermore, the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness as well as the relationship between trustworthiness and trust and efficiency were likely to be contingent on the level of procedural justice applied by the LTO in the interactions with their hotel stakeholders.

Figure 7 Conceptual framework for stakeholder integration and organisational performance



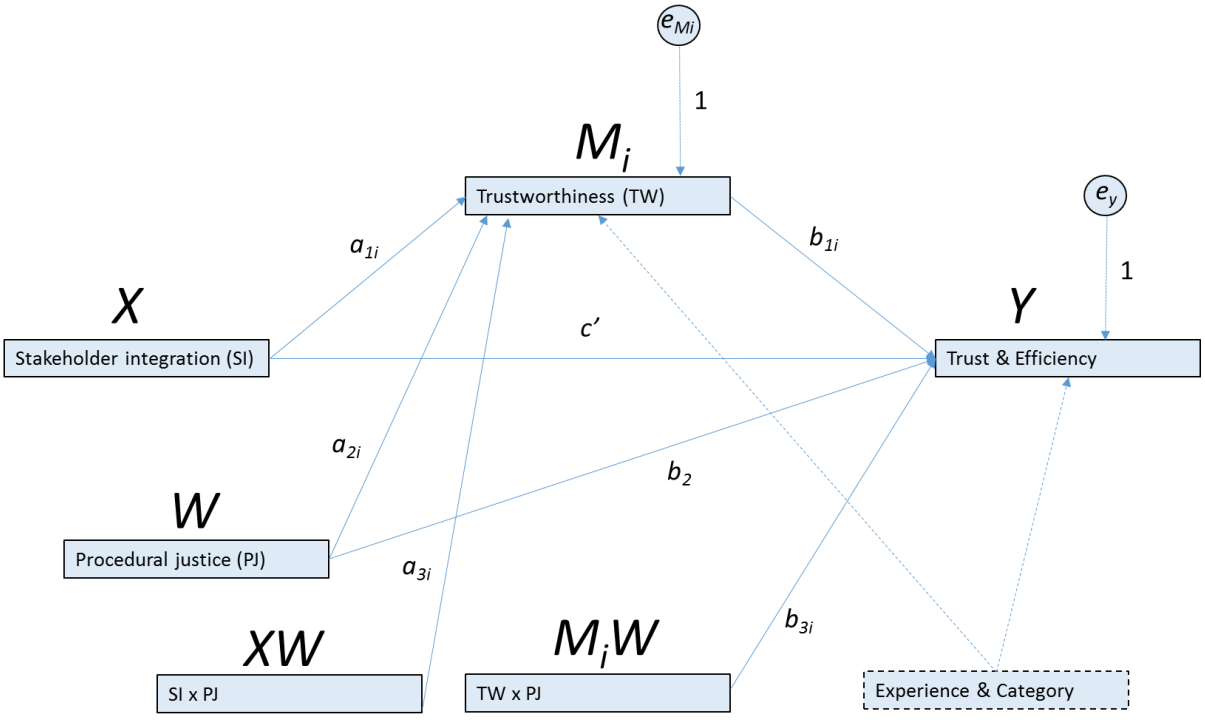
Source: developed for this research

There are various statistical approaches to test theoretical concepts such as the one outlined above. One such popular approach is covariance-based approach structural equation modelling (SEM). Its approach is more general, looking at evaluating the measurement of latent variables while testing the relationship between latent variables. Another approach that is becoming more popular is the variance-based partial least squares (PLS) technique applied to SEM (Hair Jr et al. 2014). However, according to Hair

Jr et al. (2014), there is still some ambiguity on how to evaluate mediating effects in PLS SEM and that more research was needed in order to provide guidance in case of more complex effects such as moderated mediation.

Hayes (2013) suggested a regression-based approach to moderated mediation called conditional process analysis, which was a suitable approach for this study. Conditional process analysis is used when the goal of the research is to describe the conditional nature of the mechanism by which a variable transmits its effect on another and test hypotheses about such contingent effects (Hayes 2013). Analytical procedures that combine and integrate moderation and mediation analysis in a systematic fashion, like the approach advocated by Hayes (2013), were only recently introduced to the research community. The statistical model shown below (Figure 8) demonstrated the need for a statistical approach that could cope with combined mediation and moderation analysis.

Figure 8 Statistical model of this study



Source: developed for this study

3.7.3 Tools to test the hypotheses

Data was analysed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 24 (SPSS). To conduct the conditional process analysis, the PROCESS macro v3.0 (Hayes 2013, 2017), which runs on SPSS, was used. Hayes (2013) described PROCESS as a tool for path analysis-based moderation and mediation analysis and their integration in a conditional process model.

PROCESS estimates unstandardised model coefficients, standard errors, t- and p-values, and confidence intervals based on ordinary least squares (OLS) regression for continuous outcomes (Hayes 2013). In addition, PROCESS is able to generate conditional indirect effects in conditional process models with a single (or multiple) mediator(s) (Hayes 2013). Given the possibility that the distribution of the sample of this study was non-normal, PROCESS was able to use bootstrap confidence intervals. The rationale behind bootstrapping confidence intervals for inference about conditional indirect effects respected this non-normality as they were based on an empirically generated representation of the sampling distribution rather than an inaccurate assumption about its shape (Hayes 2013).

3.7.4 Procedures to test the constructs

Bagozzi and Phillips (1982) and Venkatraman and Grant (1986) contended that the empirical validation of a measurement scale such as those used in this study consists of five critical components: content validity (see subsection 3.7.4.1 below), internal validity (subsection 3.7.4.2 below), criterion-related validity (subsection 3.7.4.3 below), convergent validity (subsection 3.7.4.4 below) and discriminant validity (subsection 3.7.4.5 below). It was important that the study's constructs met these criteria in order to be valid and reliable and thus conformed to accepted methodological rigour. The constructs (stakeholder integration, trustworthiness, procedural justice, trust) needed to be inherently repeatable and accurately measure what they were supposed to, and the (Creswell 2009) and are explained in the following subsections.

3.7.4.1 Content validity

According to Carmines and Zeller (1979), content validity is described as the extent to which a specific domain of content is being reflected by the empirical measurement. This could be achieved through reviews, experts, and the analyses of the extent of consistency among them (Venkatraman & Grant 1986). In this study, content validity was checked by first engaging in a thorough literature review process as well as expert reviews. The constructs that were used already existed and tested for content validity by various researchers. Thus, content validity could be assumed because, as previously stated, content validity could not be tested quantitatively.

3.7.4.2 Internal validity

To evaluate internal validity Venkatraman and Grant (1986) differentiated between unidimensionality, which described the extent to which all dimensions reflected the construct and reliability, defined by the absence of measurement error in a cluster score. The coherence of the items was measured according to Anderson and Gerbing (1988), who suggested conducting an exploratory factor analysis. Before the internal consistency could be evaluated, the unidimensionality of the scale was checked by an exploratory factorial analysis using oblimin rotation, as the dimensions used were likely to correlate.

To measure reliability, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used, with values of over 0.70 deemed acceptable (Peterson 1994). Cronbach's alpha presupposed that each indicator of the construct contributed in the same way (Peterson 1994), thus the alternative coefficients of composite reliability index (CRI) (Werts, Linn & Jöreskog 1974) and the average variance extracted (AVE) were used. These results needed to be higher than 0.70 and 0.50 respectively to demonstrate high reliability levels (Hair et al. 1999).

3.7.4.3 Criterion-related validity

The working definition of the predictive validity of a scale, according to Venkatraman and Grant (1986), was the degree to which hypotheses that relate to other associated concepts can be reproduced. As far as predictive validity was concerned, it had already been performed by other authors, and hence not tested again for this study. (Colquitt 2001;

Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010; Schoorman, Mayer & Davis 2007; Searle et al. 2011).

3.7.4.4 Convergent validity

Convergent validity indicates the degree to which the different items that are intended to measure a construct are in agreement (Venkatraman & Grant 1986). In statistical terms, convergent validity exists when significant correlations can be observed between the variables that constitute each dimension (Liden & Maslyn 1998). Further tests to estimate convergent validity that were used in this study were the Bentler-Bonett coefficient (Bentler & Bonett 1980) or the normalised fit index (NFI) (Li et al. 2005), which according to Segars and Grover (1993), required values of over 0.90 demonstrate a high level of convergent validity.

3.7.4.5 Discriminant validity

To check discriminant validity, the correlations between the items of each dimension with the correlation of the remaining ones were compared (McGrath 2001). Discriminant validity was supported if correlations were higher in the first case than in the latter.

3.7.4.6 Tools to test the constructs

To conduct exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, SPSS Amos was used. IBM SPSS Amos allowed the researcher to build models on a graphical interface which greatly facilitated the above-mentioned procedures. SPSS was used to calculate reliability indicators such as Cronbach's alpha (Peterson 1994) and CRI (Werts, Linn & Jöreskog 1974) or AVE (Hair et al. 1999). Correlation and regression analysis also important instruments to validate the constructs, were performed using SPSS as well.

3.7.4.7 Common method variance and single source bias

Organisational research often makes use of key informants as data resources (self-reporting methodology) even though there is a potential exposure to common method variance and single source bias (Schilke & Cook 2015) that can result in an artefactual covariance between the variables. According to Podsakoff and Organ (1986), artefactual

covariance could potentially be produced because of the consistency motif or social desirability.

Podsakoff et al. (2003) made some recommendations to overcome this problem. First, in this study, *efficiency* data were obtained from secondary data sources. However, this was not the case as far as *trust* is concerned due to the data originating from one single source (hotel stakeholders) and given the perceptual and subjective nature of trust (Searle et al. 2011). To reduce the chance of common method variance occurring regarding single source of data and the subjective nature of trust, and to reduce evaluation apprehension, the survey instructions clearly stated that the respondents' anonymity was protected and that there were no right or wrong answers.

Secondly, after using these procedural remedies, a statistical measure was taken. A collinearity test, a standard convergent and discriminant validity assessment were conducted as well based on confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Koch 2015). According to Richardson, Simmering and Sturman (2009), the commonly used Harman test did not provide the same value, and therefore, a collinearity test as recommended by Kock (2015), was conducted.

3.8 Limitations

Even though adequate measures had been identified to minimise various forms of bias, the data, the analysis and results based on the data collected were very likely to be biased to some extent. Since observable and latent variables were measured based on self-report data, the results were likely to be biased by the perception from participants and the views they held. The measures applied in this research had been re-used from former studies in which they proved to be valid and reliable, but the concern remained about how the measures used previously in other studies might not have been reliable and valid in a different context.

As far as generalisability was concerned, this study focused on the Alps region in Switzerland, hence findings could only be generalised for destinations and LTOs within this given context. Independent variables might have also had an impact on more outcomes than trust and efficiency. For example, the literature reviewed (Harrison, Bosse

& Phillips 2010) suggested the possibility of other positive outcomes, such as increased innovation or greater ability to deal with unexpected changes, which were outside this study's scope.

There were also limitations to the predictor variables under scrutiny. The effect of stakeholder integration, trustworthiness, and procedural justice on the postulated outcomes was controlled for the category of the hotel and the experience of managers in dealing with stakeholders. However, there were many exogenous variables such as political, ecological, and technological factors that were very likely to have an impact on the outcomes which was not accounted for in the context of this study.

Due to time constraints, limited financial resources and other practical reasons, this study only focused on the relationship between the most salient stakeholder group of an LTO (hotels) and did not focus on the entirety of primary stakeholders as postulated in Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010).

Common method bias (Podsakoff & Organ 1986) may be the result of the way the study was designed, at least insofar as *trust* as a dependent variable was concerned. Stakeholder integration, trustworthiness, and trust were measured by self-report data, and thus, these results potentially suffer from common method variance. Yet, all the constructs used were perceptual and subjective in nature and, therefore, were best answered by the focal respondents. Stakeholder integration could also have been measured from an LTO perspective (self-assessment) instead of a hotel manager perspective. This approach was not sensible because some LTOs would have had to assess up to 50 hotels. The response rate and variance would potentially have suffered significantly if such an approach had been pursued.

Procedural justice could have been measured by secondary data. A preliminary screening showed that there was not a seamless coverage of such secondary data by the LTOs in focus, suggesting this approach was not feasible in practice.

3.9 Ethical conduct of survey research

An application for ethical clearance was submitted to USQ in accordance with USQ's ethical policies and procedures. The application was approved by the ethics committee on

December 15th, 2015 (approval number H15REA256) and it expired December 15th, 2018. The committee approval meant this study met the requirements of Australia's *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007)*.

This study also followed complementary ethical practices identified by Oldendick (2012) in addition to adherence to USQ research ethics policies and procedures to ensure the protection of respondents from all forms of abuse, the safeguarding of respondents' privacy of information and the accuracy of the presented results. Oldendick (2012) stated that researchers should pay particular attention to the following six general principles when data was collected from human subjects. This study successfully aimed to adhere to these principles.

(1) *Respondents should provide willing and informed consent.* Participants should understand that participation is voluntary, that they do not have to answer any questions that they do not want to and that they can withdraw from the study at any time without any negative consequences. Benefits should be described in a realistic manner and participation costs minimised.

(2) *Do no harm to participants.* Any potential emotional or physical risk to respondents should be minimised. Limit the burden placed on respondents regarding the length of the survey, the amount and level of difficulty involved in accessing and providing information and collect the information in the most convenient manner possible.

(3) *Minimise deception.* Participants have a right to know the content of the study and not to be deceived. Information should be provided information about the purpose of the study, sponsorship (if any) and how long it will take to complete the survey items or interview questions.

(4) *Protect respondent confidentiality.* Respondents have the expectation of anonymity and confidentiality. There should be no way responses can be linked to any one individual (anonymity), information should be kept in a secure manner, with access limited only to those conducting the study, and reported information fully de-identified (confidentiality). To further protect anonymity and

confidentiality, when it is necessary to link personal data to the answers, a unique identifier should be created.

(5) *The issue of refusal conversion.* Whether conversion attempts should be made or not, is an ethical question, especially against the background that cooperation should be voluntary, as stated in number (1) above. There is general agreement that under certain circumstances (e.g., time constraints like what was found to occur in this study) the improvement in the quality of the data resulting from refusal conversion outweighed the potential harm to participants.

(6) *The use of incentives.* Incentives help to foster cooperation; however; the ethical question revolves around which conditions might incentives be coercive. The use of incentives can undermine the notions of voluntary participation, fair treatment (leading to unequal participation/representation of certain groups) or economic reward may lead people to take risks that are not in line with their true values.

Another topic that needed ethical consideration was the reporting of results. According to Oldendick (2012), ethical reporting of survey results includes that the information provided needs to allow evaluation and replication by other researchers. Additionally, readers of the study need to understand how the data were collected and what conclusions the study reached like, as already discussed, survey sponsorship, the entire questionnaire, a description of the sample design and the response rate as well as limitations such as those related to non-coverage, measurement error and non-response bias (Oldendick 2012).

3.10 Conclusion

The post-positivistic paradigm, the employed research design, and the research methods were discussed in this chapter. The approach used in this study was in line with the post-positivistic paradigm that underpinned this research project and suitable to answer the research questions for which answers were sought and it was. A quantitative methodology with a survey method and self-administered online questionnaires for hotel managers was described. This was followed by presenting the validity and reliability of the suggested methodology and by further specifying the data collection process. Finally, this chapter

outlined methods of data analyses and construct validation, limitations of the applied methodology as well as ethical considerations.

Primary data was collected by asking hotel managers via a survey about their perceived level of stakeholder integration through the LTO, their perceptions of the fairness of the LTO, and how much they trust the LTO. The survey was based on constructs that had been used in previous studies. Secondary statistical data was used to determine efficiency.

Chapter 4: Analysis of the results

4.1 Introduction

This chapter starts with a brief outline of the process followed to develop the survey instrument based on the research design, data collection method, and data analysis techniques (including conducting expert reviews and field testing the instrument) laid out and justified in chapter 3. Next, the chapter provides an analysis of data from the initial pilot study. Key findings from the expert reviews, the field test, and the pilot study have consequently been factored into the design of the main study and are described in section 4.3. Afterwards is an explanation of the main study and a description of how the data was collected, prepared, and analysed to address the research questions and hypotheses in this study. These findings have then been contrasted with the research problem and literature in Chapter 5.

4.2 Expert review and field test

The purpose of the expert review and the field test was to ensure that the instructions of the survey were coherent and to see whether the response set was appropriate. Face validity of all items and response times was checked and content validity was assessed by the panel of experts providing guidance to the author. The panel judged the items within the survey on wording, whether the questions and instructions were clear and coherent, and if the construction of the survey flowed logically. As a result of the expert review and field test, some items were reworded and the survey instructions adapted.

4.2.1 Participants

The following individuals made up the participants involved in the review and field test:

Field test and feedback participants:

- Daniel Laude, Researcher, and doctoral candidate
- Gena Da Rui, Researcher, and doctoral candidate
- Claudio Däscher, MSc in Strategic Management / Stakeholder Theory
- Bettina Fehrlin, Manager at Schweiz Tourismus

- Patricia Schlegel, B.Sc. in Business Communications and Manager at St. Moritz Tourismus
- Dominik Knaus, MSc in Strategic Management / Stakeholder Theory and Manager at Destination Davos/Klosters
- Kurt Baumgartner, General Manager at Hotel Belvedere Scuol
- Sofia de Anta, Manager at Hotel Einstein, St. Gallen
- Renata Faeh, BSc in Business Communications

Expert Interview:

- Prof. Dr. oec. HSG Peter Fehrlin (former Vice President of Zurich Tourism)

Expert Panel:

- Doctoral Colloquium at University of applied sciences Zurich / Institute for Strategic Management / Stakeholder View:
- Prof. Dr. Sybille Sachs
- Prof. Dr. Edwin Rühli
- Dr. Claude Meier
- Daniel Laude MSc and doctoral candidate
- Vanessa McSorley, lic. phil.
- Christian Stutz, lic. phil. and doctoral candidate

4.2.2 Conclusions

The field test revealed that some of the instructions provided in the first draft of the survey instrument were too long and repetitive. Consequently, the instructions were minimised and repetitive phrases eliminated. It was also determined that some questions were considered to be ambiguous. These questions were rephrased and refined to make them clearer and more targeted. Other comments from the field test participants identified concerns about the wording of some questions. It was proposed that some items needed to be changed to fit the study's context better. These items were evaluated and reworded to address these concerns.

Feedback from hotel and tourism organisation professionals was mainly positive. They supported the validity of the constructs and reported that the questions were easy to contextualise. Members of the doctoral colloquium of the University of Applied Sciences Zurich reinforced the validity of the constructs and gave valuable input concerning the phrasing of the questions and survey design.

After weaving in all the input from the field test, the expert interviews, and the expert panel, a pilot study was conducted to test the instrument further before the survey was disseminated to the research participants.

4.3 Pilot study

The primary purpose of the pilot study was to test the validity and reliability of the various constructs and to factor in input from the expert reviews and the field test. The data were first examined to uncover potential hidden effects (Hair et al. 1999). The examination included checks for outliers and violations of assumptions underlying the multivariate techniques. In a second step, validity and reliability tests were conducted along with the multivariate analyses to check if the postulated relationships could be observed in the collected data.

4.3.1 Sample

For the pilot study, a sample of 535 hotels was chosen. These hotels were not part of the original population used for the main study. Only rural hotels were considered in order to have a data set that is related to the main study's population. The data was collected using an online survey. Handling errors through coding and recoding of answers were avoided for the most part. Eleven (11) hotels were removed from the list as they had closed. Consequently, the net sample was 524. Eighty-two (82) hotels responded for a response rate of 15.6%. In total, 79 hotels finalised the entire survey with no missing data.

4.3.2 Outliers

The data were screened for outliers using the Mahalanobis distance. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), the distances have a chi-square distribution with degrees of freedom equal to the number of predictors. Thus, considering that there were three

independent variables tested for outliers (stakeholder integration, procedural justice, trustworthiness), all the cases exceeding the chi-square value of 18.47 (X^2 (4) = 18.47, $p < 0.001$) were deleted from the list. Two (2) cases that were above this threshold were removed from the data set as they revealed inconsistencies. After conducting this procedure, the remaining number of participants was 77.

4.3.3 Data screening and bias tests

The data were tested for normality, homoscedasticity, independence, and multicollinearity to avoid potential bias from violations of assumptions (Field 2009). As this study used parametric tests based on normal distribution, it was important that these assumptions were met.

4.3.3.1 Normality

Skewness and kurtosis were calculated to identify normality. If the values were between -2.0 and 2.0 an univariate normal distribution was able to be assumed (Weiber & Mühlhaus 2014). In the pilot study, all items remained within the limits as postulated by Weiber and Mühlhaus (2014) (see Table 70, Appendix 2). No pattern could be detected that could indicate a problem with normality of the data were noted from looking at the Q-Q plots and histograms of each question item for visual proof.

4.3.3.2 Homoscedasticity and linearity

Figure 39 in Appendix 2 shows the resulting scatterplot of the data from the pilot study. According to (Field 2009), if no systematic relationship between the errors in the model and what the model predicted was note,d linearity and homoscedasticity were supported. As shown in the scatterplot, assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity were found to have been met as there was no funnel shape, indicating there was a linear relationship between the outcome and the predictor. Homoscedasticity and linearity were noted from the graph appearing as a random array of the data points, with no curve because the points were evenly dispersed throughout the plot. Levene's test supported this first visual estimation of homoscedasticity. As far as the trust scores were concerned, the variances were equal for random group 1 and random group 2, $F(1, 75) = 0.32$, $p = 0.57$; therefore, the assumption of homoscedasticity was found to be tenable.

4.3.3.3 Independence

If the residual terms are correlated, the confidence intervals and significance tests will be invalid and the residual terms should be uncorrelated or independent (Field 2009). The assumption of independent errors can be tested using the Durbin-Watson test, which tests for serial correlations between the errors (Field 2009). According to Durbin and Watson (1951), the statistic can vary between 0 and 4, with a value closer to 2 indicating that the residuals are uncorrelated. A more detailed review of Durbin and Watson's (1951) Table 4 provided a more accurate value, a range of 1.59 to 1.69 at a 5% significance level is advised to be acceptable if two regressors are used. The 77 cases from the pilot met the assumption of independent errors (Durbin-Watson value = 1.69).

4.3.3.4 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity exists when there is a strong correlation between more than one predictor variable in the model (Field 2009). One possible collinearity diagnostic is the variance inflation factor (VIF). The VIF reveals strong linear relationships of a predictor with another predictor. According to Field (2009) and Hair et al. (1999), the largest VIF value should not be greater than 10 for the regression not to be biased. Additionally, according to these same authors, the tolerance statistic should not be lower than 0.1. The highest VIF value in the pilot study was 2.50, and the lowest tolerance at 0.40. These results strongly supported the non-collinearity assumption.

4.3.3.5 Non-response bias

Armstrong and Overton (1977) suggested comparing the respondents who answered after the initial e-mailing with the ones that only answered after a reminder e-mail, as a method to detect for potential response-bias. They used the late respondents as proxies for non-respondents. The two groups for this study were compared using a *t*-test. According to Table 71 in Appendix 2, these two groups within pilot study did not differ significantly, making the assumption that there was no significant difference between respondents and non-respondents (Armstrong & Overton 1977) possible.

4.3.4 Reliability and validity of the stakeholder integration scale

4.3.4.1 Internal consistency

The factorability of the 16 stakeholder integration items was examined. Of the 16 items, 12 had a correlation of at least $r = 0.3$ with at least one other item, suggesting reasonable factorability for all items (see Table 72 Appendix 2). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.919 (Kaiser 1970), which was above the minimum value of 0.6 and described as *marvellous* (Hutcheson & Sofroniou 1999). Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (X^2 (120) = 922.81, $p < 0.01$). The diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were all higher than 0.5, indicating that each item could be included in the factor analysis. In addition, all the communalities were above 0.3 (see Table 73, Appendix 2), which was an indication that each item shared some common variance with other items. Against this backdrop, the factor analysis was conducted using all 16 items.

To check for unidimensionality of the scale, the 16 items were checked by an exploratory factor analysis (principal component analysis) with oblimin rotation. The results showed that the three-factor model as postulated by Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010) could not be supported. Instead, the analysis produced only two factors with an eigenvalue over 1, which together reflect 64.96% of the total variation. Table 74 in Appendix 2 shows no consistent pattern of factor loadings among the dimension as postulated by Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010) was noticeable. The subdimensions were collapsed into a single scale to establish a more comprehensive and theory-driven measure of stakeholder integration because the analysis of the subdimensions was not of primary interest in this study.

Cronbach's alpha was used to examine the internal consistency of the scales. According to Peterson (1994), alpha values over 0.70 are acceptable. The alphas were high for the collapsed stakeholder integration dimension containing 16 indicators ($\alpha = 0.95$). Similar results were noted for the sub-dimensions *interaction* ($\alpha = 0.94$) and *adaptational behaviour* ($\alpha = 0.86$). Cronbach's alpha was moderate for the dimension *knowledge* ($\alpha = 0.78$). As Cronbach's alpha implies that each item of the construct contributes in the same way (Peterson 1994), the Composite Reliability Index (CRI) (Werts, Linn &

Jöreskog 1974) and the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) (Hair et al. 1999) were calculated as well (Table 13).

Table 13 Stakeholder integration: assessment of reliability

Construct	Number of Indicators	Cronbach's alpha	CRI	AVE
Knowledge (KNOW)	5	0.784	0.793	0.443
*Knowledge (KNOW)	3	0.787	0.797	0.570
Interaction (INTER)	6	0.938	0.941	0.728
Adaptational Behaviour (ADAP)	5	0.857	0.867	0.573
Stakeholder Integration (SI)	16	0.947	0.958	0.606
*Stakeholder Integration (SI)	14	0.949	0.960	0.652

* After removing item 3 and 4 of KNOW

Source: Developed for this research

According to Hair et al. (1999), the AVE and the CRI should be over 0.50 and 0.70, respectively for high levels of reliability. All the indicators passed this threshold except the dimension KNOW. When item 3 and item 4 of the dimension KNOW, which only had a factor loading of 0.48 and 0.58 respectively, had been removed, the AVE rose to 0.570, CRI to 0.797 and Cronbach's alpha to 0.79. Thus, for further analysis, item 3 and 4 of KNOW were deleted. As the main study's survey had been translated from English into German and French, the translation of the individual items was thoroughly reviewed by a professional translator. The study's author who can speak, read and write German, English and French also checked the translations for consistency to assure the words and linguistic meaning used in the instrument were identical.

Table 14 reports the results of the goodness of fit by running a confirmatory factor analysis using SPSS Amos in accordance with Kline (2015) recommendation of using model-chi square with its degrees of freedom and *p*-value, the Root Mean Square Error of Approximations (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) as indicators. According to the table, all the indicators improve in the second model consisting only of 14 instead of 16 items.

Table 14 Stakeholder integration: results of confirmatory factor analysis

	X^2	df	*p*	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR	NFI
Model 1	137.03	101	0.010	0.069	0.959	0.0579	0.864
Model 2	93.89	74	0.059	0.059	0.976	0.0422	0.898

Model 1: 16 items, model 2: 14 items

Source: Developed for this research

The *p*-value of the chi-square test in model 2 was 0.059, which is greater than 0.05, an indicator of good fit (Kline 2015). The RMSEA should be at 0.06 or less to indicate an acceptable model fit (Hu & Bentler 1999). Model 2 had a value of 0.059, indicative of a good model fit. Both models had a CFI that exceeded the necessary minimum value of 0.90 (Hu & Bentler 1999), although this indicator also improved in model 2. SRMR was at 0.0422 in Model 2, which can be considered a good fit as it was below the value of 0.08 (Hu & Bentler 1999).

4.3.4.2 Convergent validity

Dimensions with the reduced item set attained good levels of convergent validity. The NFI of 0.898 was slightly lower than 0.90 (Table 14), which has been described as a high level of convergent validity (Segars & Grover 1993). The correlations between the three dimensions of stakeholder integration were significant at 0.001% level of error, which strongly supported the convergent validity of the construct (Li et al. 2005) as well (Table 15).

Table 15 Stakeholder integration: correlations between the dimensions

	KNOW	INTER	ADAP
KNOW	1		
INTER	0.793(***)	1	
ADAP	0.739(***)	0.799(***)	1

***The correlation is significant at the level 0.001 (1-tailed)

Source: Developed for this research

4.3.4.3 Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity in this study was checked by comparing the correlations between the items of each dimension with the correlation of the remaining ones (McGrath 2001). Discriminant validity is supported if correlations are greater in the first case than in the latter. The correlation table in Table 72 in Appendix 2 showed evidence of discriminant validity. However, again, the two variables KNOW 3 and KNOW 4 showed weak correlations between items within the same dimension.

4.3.4.4 Conclusion

Items KNOW 3 and KNOW 4 are the reverse-coded items and showed a weak correlation with other items within the KNOW dimension. Thus, for the main study, these questions were positively phrased to support the validity of the scale.

4.3.5 Reliability and validity of the trustworthiness scale

4.3.5.1 Internal consistency

had a correlation of at least $r = 0.3$ with at least one other item, signifying reasonable factorability for all items (Table 77 Appendix 1). The KMO-measure was 0.859 (Kaiser 1970), which was above the minimum value of 0.6. Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (X^2 (45) = 588.65, $p < 0.001$). Additionally, the diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were all above $r = 0.5$ and all communalities were above 0.3 (Table 75 in Appendix 2), an indication that each item shared some common variance with other items. Thus, no item was excluded from the factor analysis.

Unidimensionality was checked by an exploratory factor analysis (principal component analysis) with oblimin rotation. Similar to previous studies (e.g. Jarvenpaa & Leidner 1998; Mayer & Gavin 2005; Searle et al. 2011), only two factors instead of three as postulated by Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) had an eigenvalue above 1, supporting a two-factor structure at the organisational level. These two factors together reflected 70.54% of the total variation. All items loaded above 0.45 on their factor and there were no cross-loadings above 0.40 except for item ABI1 that cross-loaded 0.49 on the benevolence dimension. The cross-loadings of ABI1 indicated potential translation issues that needed to be addressed in the main study.

The pattern matrix (Table 76, Appendix 2) revealed that *ability* and *integrity*, which are the two well-accepted dimensions on a macro level (Schoorman, Mayer & Davis 2007), formed one dimension, whereas *benevolence*, which has received relatively little attention at this level of analysis (Schoorman, Mayer & Davis 2007), signalling the second dimension. However, for the present research, the subdimensions of trustworthiness were collapsed into a single scale to get a more comprehensive and theory-driven trustworthiness measure because the analysis of the subdimensions was not of primary interest.

As can be seen in Table 16, the Cronbach's alpha values were all above the threshold of $\alpha = 0.70$, which is considered as acceptable (Peterson 1994). The alpha of the benevolence dimension increased after item 4 (BENE 4) had been deleted. As Cronbach's alpha implies that each item of the construct contributes in the same way (Peterson 1994), the Composite Reliability Index (CRI) (Werts, Linn & Jöreskog 1974) and the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) (Hair et al. 1999) were also calculated. All dimensions were above the critical value of 0.50 for AVE and 0.7 for CRI (Hair et al. 1999). When item 4 of the dimension BENE, which only had a factor loading of 0.39 had been removed, the AVE rose to 0.756 and the CRI to 0.901. Thus, for further analysis, item 4 of BENE was deleted. For the main study, item 4 needed to be re-translated as this had the potential to be one source of the weak factor loading.

Table 16 Trustworthiness: assessment of reliability

Construct	Indicators	Cronbach's alpha	CRI	AVE
Ability (ABI)	3	0.881	0.890	0.731
Benevolence (BENE)	4	0.820	0.846	0.600
*Benevolence (BENE)	3	0.889	0.901	0.756
Integrity (INTEG)	3	0.876	0.880	0.710
Trustworthiness (TW)	10	0.918	0.952	0.674
*Trustworthiness (TW)	9	0.926	0.960	0.732

* After removing item BENE 4

Source: Developed for this research

According to Kline (2015), the following indicators were used to assess the goodness of fit by running a confirmatory factor analysis using SPSS Amos: Model chi-square with its degrees of freedom and *p*-value, the Root Mean Square Error Approximations (RMSEA), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR). Table 17 showed that all the indicators improved in the second model consisting of only 9 instead of 10 items. The p-value of the chi-square test in model 2 was 0.038, which was still not higher than 0.05 and would have indicated a good fit (Kline 2015). However, it improved compared to model 2. The RMSEA should have been at 0.06 or less to indicate an acceptable model fit (Hu & Bentler 1999). In model 2, the value was at 0.087, which was above the acceptable threshold. CFI met in both models the necessary minimum value of 0.90 (Hu & Bentler 1999), although it also improved in model 2. SRMR was at 0.0542 in Model 2, which can be considered a good fit as it was below the value of 0.08 (Hu & Bentler 1999). As SEM techniques require large samples (Kline 2015), especially for complex models, the sample size of the pilot study of only N = 77 could have been the cause for the mediocre results on these global fit indicators.

Table 17 Trustworthiness: results of confirmatory factor analysis

	X^2	df	*p*	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR	NFI
Model 1	62.594	32	0.001	0.112	0.947	0.0725	0.899
Model 2	37.66	24	0.038	0.087	0.975	0.0542	0.936

Model 1: 10 items, model 2: 9 items

Source: Developed for this research

4.3.5.2 Convergent validity

The 9 item model reached a satisfactory level of convergent validity as its NFI is greater than 0.90 (see Table 17 above), which has been described as a high level of convergent validity (Segars & Grover 1993). Additionally, the correlations between the three dimensions of trustworthiness (Table 18) were significant at 0.01% level of error, strongly supporting the convergent validity of the construct (Li et al. 2005).

Table 18 Trustworthiness: correlations between the dimensions

	ABI	BENE	INTEG
ABI	1		
BENE	0.679(**)	1	
INTEG	0.707(**)	0.633(**)	1

**The correlation is significant at the level 0.01 (1-tailed)

Source: Developed for this research

4.3.5.3 Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity in this study was checked by comparing the correlations between the items of each dimension with the correlation of the remaining ones (McGrath 2001). Discriminant validity is supported if correlations are greater in the first case than in the latter. The correlation Table 77 in Appendix 2 showed some, but not clear evidence of discriminant validity was found. For example, BENE 4 only correlated weakly with BENE 1 and BENE2. Thus, the wording of BENE 4 needed to be checked as well since it was also the item that loaded the least (0.46) on the BENE dimension.

4.3.5.4 Conclusion

The measurement construct for trustworthiness revealed differences on an organisational level of analysis when compared to an individual level of analysis. In the pilot study, the three-factor model could not be supported, but a two-factor model could be supported. Item ABI1 showed cross-loadings on the two components that needed to be addressed in the main study. Translation issues were most probably the cause of this. The wording of the item BENE 4 itself needed to be further scrutinised or deleted as it had the lowest load (0.46) on the BENE dimension.

4.3.6 Reliability and validity of the trust scale

4.3.6.1 Internal consistency

Seven trust items were used, with a correlation of at least $r = 0.68$ with one other item, indicating reasonable factorability for all items (see Table 21 below). The KMO-measure of 0.838 (Kaiser 1970) was above the minimum value of 0.6 and Bartlett's test of sphericity was also significant (X^2 (21) = 415.076, $p < 0.001$). The diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were all above $r = 0.5$ and all communalities above 0.3 (Table 78 in Appendix 2). As a consequence, no item was excluded from the factor analysis. A principal component analysis with oblimin rotation was conducted, and, as suggested in the literature (Gillespie 2003), only one dimension had an eigenvalue above 1, showing a one-factor model. This one dimension reflected 66.56% of the total variance.

The Cronbach's alpha values in Table 19 below were all above the threshold of $\alpha = 0.70$, which is considered acceptable (Peterson 1994). The Composite Reliability Index (CRI) (Werts, Linn & Jöreskog 1974) and the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) (Hair et al. 1999) were calculated to get a more comprehensive view on reliability. The trust construct was above the critical threshold of 0.50 for AVE and 0.70 for CRI (Hair et al. 1999). After deleting items 5,6 and 7 that only had a factor loading of 0.69, 0.55 and 0.58, the AVE rose to 0.775, CRI to 0.932. For further analysis, items 5-7 were deleted.

Table 19 Trust: assessment of reliability

Construct	Number of Indicators	Cronbach's alpha	CRI	AVE
Trust	7	0.912	0.911	0.602
*Trust	4	0.929	0.932	0.775

*with 4 items only

Source: Developed for this research

The goodness of fit was assessed by running a confirmatory factor analysis using SPSS Amos (Kline 2015). Model chi-square with its degrees of freedom and *p*-value, the Root Mean Square Error of Approximations (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) were analysed. Per Table 20, all the indicators improved in the second model, which consisted of 4 instead of 7 items. The p-value of the chi-square test in model 2 turned from being significant, which was a poor fit in model 1 to a value higher than 0.05, indicating a good fit (Kline 2015). The RMSEA had to be 0.06 or less to indicate an acceptable model fit (Hu & Bentler 1999). However, both models did not meet this standard. CFI met the necessary minimum value of 0.90 (Hu & Bentler 1999) in model 2. SRMR was at 0.0180 in Model 2, which was considered a good fit as it was below the value of 0.08 (Hu & Bentler 1999). Overall, the analysis presented a mixed picture. Again, a larger sample size had the potential to solve some of these issues.

Table 20 Trust: results of confirmatory factor analysis

	X^2	df	*p*	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR	NFI
Model 1	62.553	14	0.001	0.214	0.882	0.0852	0.856
Model 2	4.078	2	0.130	0.117	0.992	0.0180	0.985

Model 1: 7 items, model 2: 4 items

Source: Developed for this research

4.3.6.2 Convergent validity

Only the four-items construct reached an adequate level of convergent validity as its NFI was greater than 0.90 (Table 20), which is described as a high level of convergent validity

(Segars & Grover 1993). The correlations between the four items of trust were significant at 0.01% error (Table 21), which strongly supported the convergent validity of the construct (Li et al. 2005).

Table 21 Trust: correlations between the items

	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4
Item 1	1			
Item 2	0.900**	1		
Item 3	0.781**	0.825**	1	
Item 4	0.714**	0.693**	0.684**	1

**The correlation is significant at the level 0.01 (1-tailed)

Source: Developed for this research

4.3.6.3 Discriminant validity

As trust is a single construct, discriminant validity was checked by measuring the difference of the construct concerning trustworthiness, which was a related but different construct. The analysis between the trust construct and the different dimensions of trustworthiness may have been able to reveal cues about the level of discriminant validity. The pattern matrix in Table 81 found in Appendix 2 shows that the factor loadings were coherent with their theoretical assignment (minimum level of 0.50). By implication, trustworthiness and trust could be distinguished, supporting the discriminant validity of both scales.

4.3.6.4 Conclusion

The analysis showed that reliability and validity were increased when the scale was reduced by three items, from seven to only four items. Thus, items 5-7 were deleted for the main study.

4.3.7 Reliability and validity of the procedural justice scale

4.3.7.1 Internal consistency

Correlation among the seven procedural justice items was at least $r = 0.28$ with one other item. These results did not suggest reasonable factorability for all items (see Table 82, Appendix 2). Items 4 and 6 especially showed some weak correlations. The KMO-measure of 0.765 (Kaiser 1970) was above the minimum value of 0.6 and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (X^2 (21) = 117.970, $p < 0.001$). The diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were all above $r = 0.5$ and all communalities above 0.3 (Table 83, Appendix 2). Consequently, at this first stage, no item was excluded for the factor analysis. A principal component analysis with oblimin rotation was conducted, and as suggested by Colquitt (2001), only one dimension showed an eigenvalue above 1, which indicated a one-factor model. This one dimension reflected 54.941% of the total variance.

The Cronbach's alpha values in Table 22 below were higher than $\alpha = 0.70$ and therefore, considered as acceptable (Peterson 1994). Additionally, the Composite Reliability Index (CRI) (Werts, Linn & Jöreskog 1974) and the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) (Hair et al. 1999) were calculated:

Table 22 Procedural justice: assessment of reliability

Construct	Number of Indicators	Cronbach's alpha	CRI	AVE
Procedural justice	7	0.861	0.864	0.479

Source: developed for this research

The procedural justice construct was slightly below the critical threshold of 0.50 for AVE, but it exceeded the minimum CRI value of 0.70 (Hair et al. 1999). This was most likely due to the small sample size of only $N = 41$ cases. The sample size was smaller than in the preceding analyses because only a sub-sample of the original sample ($N = 77$) had been surveyed. The relatively small sample size most likely had an impact on the subsequent analyses reported below.

Goodness of fit was assessed by running a confirmatory factor analysis using SPSS Amos (Kline 2015). Model chi-square with its degrees of freedom and *p*-value, the Root Mean

Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) were analysed. As noted in Table 23, the p-value of the chi-square test was important because it was less than the 0.05 needed to indicate a good fit (Kline 2015). The RMSEA was too high as the value is supposed to be at 0.06 or less to indicate an acceptable model fit (Hu & Bentler 1999). The CFI was slightly above the minimum value of 0.90 (Hu & Bentler 1999) and the SRMR indicates a good fit as it is below the value of 0.08 (Hu & Bentler 1999). Again, the analysis did not show a satisfactory global fit of the model. However, also, in this case, larger sample size may potentially solve most of these issues.

Table 23 Procedural justice: results of confirmatory factor analysis

	X^2	df	*p*	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR	NFI
JUSTICE	24.652	14	0.038	0.138	0.901	0.0690	0.808

Source: Developed for this research

4.3.7.2 Convergent validity

The NFI is supposed to be greater than 0.90 in order to demonstrate a high level of convergent validity (Segars & Grover 1993). The NFI for procedural justice in this pilot study (0.808) did not reach this threshold (Table 23). On the other hand, the correlations between the seven items of procedural justice were all significant at 0.01% and 0.05% levels of error respectively, which supported the convergent validity of the construct (Li et al. 2005) as noted in Table 24.

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Table 24 Procedural justice: correlations between the items

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Item 1	1						
Item 2	.616**	1					
Item 3	.471**	.613**	1				
Item 4	.340*	.369**	.501**	1			
Item 5	.598**	.412**	.634**	.585**	1		
Item 6	.452**	.524**	.480**	.284*	.437**	1	
Item 7	.527**	.418**	.350*	.508**	.405**	.383**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

Source: Developed for this research

4.3.7.3 Discriminant validity

Procedural justice was a single construct, and thus, discriminant validity could be checked by measuring the difference of the construct concerning trust, a related but different construct. The analysis between the procedural construct and the different dimensions of stakeholder integration had the potential to reveal cues about the level of discriminant validity. The pattern matrix in Table 84 in Appendix 2 showed that the factor loadings were coherent with their theoretical assignment (minimum level of 0.50). Thus, procedural justice and trust could be distinguished, corroborating the discriminant validity of both scales.

4.3.7.4 Conclusion

The procedural justice scale did not meet all the goodness of fit indices. However, there was a high probability that increasing sample size could resolve these challenges potentially stemming from the small sub-sample (N = 41) used in the pilot study.

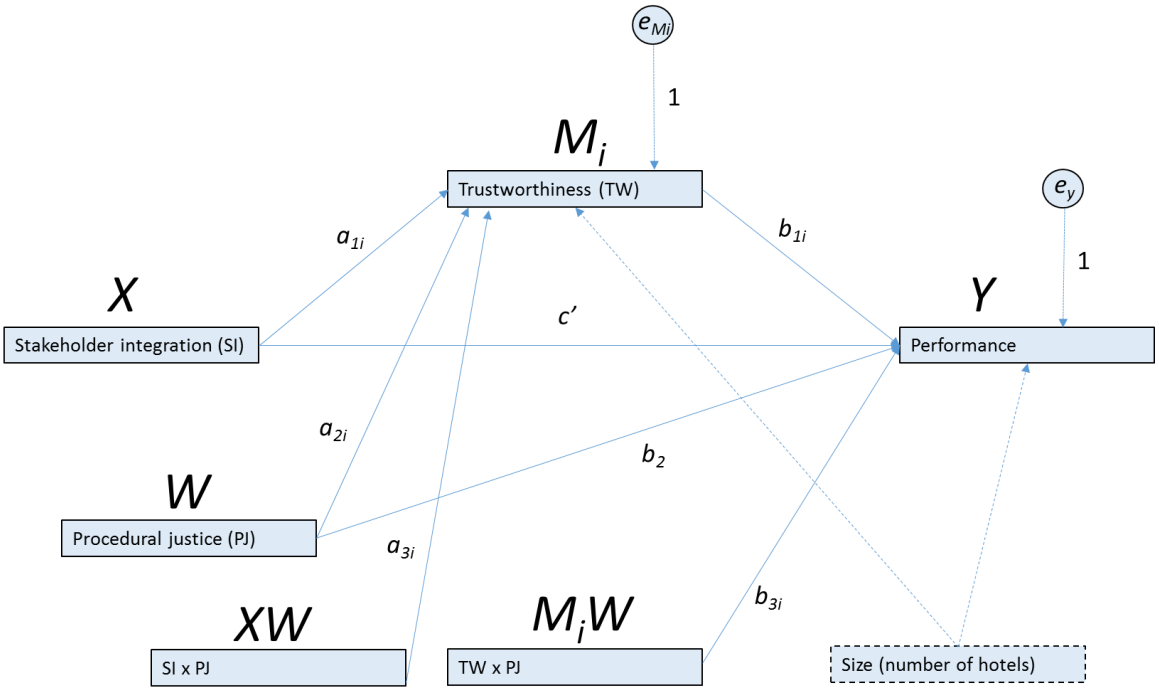
4.3.8 Process analysis to test the hypotheses

In the pilot study, the statistical model proposed for the full study was tested (Figure 9). Even though there were two different dependent variables used in this study, the model in

the actual study only calculated each dependent variable (trust and efficiency). In the pilot, trust was the only variable with a sufficiently large sample size (N = 77) to conduct regression analyses using Hayes' (2013) regression-based approach to moderated mediation or conditional process analysis (CPA). Unstandardised regression weights were reported following Hayes' (2013) recommendation.

Figure 9 illustrates Hayes' (2013) model 58 that used the bootstrapping technique with 10,000 iterations, and 95% bias correction confidence intervals (CI). In this model, when the CIs did not include zero, the respective direct and indirect effects are considered to be statistically significant (Preacher, Rucker & Hayes 2007).

Figure 9 Statistical model of this study (Model 58 according to Hayes (2013))



Source: Developed for this research

In the pilot, the overall model for *trustworthiness* as an outcome (Table 25) was highly significant $F(3,37) = 24.59$, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.65$. Stakeholder integration had no significant association with trustworthiness (a_{1i}) $b = 0.69$, $t(37) = 1.41$, $p > 0.05$. The same applied for procedural justice (a_{2i}) $b = 0.61$, $t(37) = 1.10$, $p > 0.05$. Interaction 1 (stakeholder integration x procedural justice) was not significant either (a_{3i}) $b = - 0.08$, $t(37) = -0.51$, $p > 0.05$.

The model for *trust* as an outcome (Table 25) was significant $F(4,36) = 5.53$, $p < 0.01$, $R^2 = 0.48$. Trustworthiness was not significantly associated with trust (b_{1i}) $b = 0.84$, $t(36) = 1.10$, $p > 0.05$. However, stakeholder integration had a significant direct connection to trust (c') $b = 0.64$, $t(36) = 2.23$, $p < 0.05$ while procedural justice was not significantly connected to trust (b_2) $b = 0.17$, $t(36) = 0.15$, $p > 0.05$. The interaction term 2 was not significant either: (b_{3i}) $b = -0.13$, $t(36) = -0.43$, $p > 0.05$.

Table 25 Test of moderated mediation - Trust

Outcome	Trustworthiness		Trust	
Predictors	Coeff. (b)	*p*	Coeff. (b)	*p*
Intercept	0.57	>0.05	-0.08	>0.05
Trustworthiness (TW)	-	-	0.84	>0.05
Stakeholder Integration (SI)	0.69	>0.05	0.46	<0.05
Procedural Justice (PJ)	0.61	>0.05	0.17	>0.05
SI x PJ (Interaction 1)	-0.08	>0.05		-
TW x PJ (Interaction 2)		>0.05	-0.13	>0.05
Model R^2	0.65	<0.00		

Note: $N = 77$

Source: Developed for this research

Even though the interaction terms were not significant, the interaction effect of procedural justice was significant at the medium level of the moderator for the indirect effect as the CI did not contain zero (Table 26). Given the rather small sample size ($N = 77$) these results were promising for the main study as it could be assumed that a larger sample size results could potentially become significant.

Table 26 Test of conditional effect on trustworthiness SD

Conditional Effect on Trustworthiness			
Procedural Justice (W)	Effect	95% Corrected Bootstrap CI	Bias-
2.06 (low)	0.30	-0.13 to 0.76	
2.71 (medium)	0.23	0.30 to 0.62	
3.64 (high)	0.17	-0.08 to 0.58	

Note. *N* = 77. The conditional direct and indirect effects are probed at the mean and ±1 SD from the mean of Procedural Justice.

Source: Developed for this research

4.4 Key learning from the pilot study and modifications derived

Feedback from the various interviews, reviews, and peer feedback sessions was taken into account in the review of the individual survey items. The review of individual items mainly concerned concept, wording, process and structural issues. Although already reported, changes made to some of the measurement constructs resulting from the analyses conducted on the pilot's results were:

- Items 3 and 4 of the KNOW dimension for stakeholder integration was recoded positively to foster validity of the dimension.
- Item 4 of the benevolence dimension for the trustworthiness construct was omitted in the main study as this item showed a weak fit.
- Items 5-7 for the trust construct were omitted in the main study as these items showed a weak fit as well.

It was expected that these changes would lead to a higher response rate for the main study and more robust results. These expectations were grounded by the finding that the interaction effect of procedural justice was significant at the medium level of the moderator for the conditional indirect effect. This result seemed very promising for the main study as it suggested these changes would be sufficient to ensure robustness.

4.5 Main study

Validity, and reliability of the various constructs used had to be checked prior to the data collected in the main study could be analysed. The first step involved screening the data for potential hidden effects (Hair et al. 1999) such as outliers and violations of assumptions underlying the multivariate techniques. Upon completion of the subsequent validity and reliability tests, multivariate analyses were then conducted.

4.5.1 Description of sample 1

Sample 1 was used to analyse the effects of stakeholder integration, trustworthiness, and procedural justice on trust. A total number of 1441 hotels were contacted by email. Of the 1441 hotels contacted, 107 (7.4%) of the hotels were located in the French-speaking part of Switzerland's Alpine region and 28 (1.9%) of the hotels were located in the Italian-speaking part of Switzerland's Alpine region. The remaining 1306 (90.7%) hotels were in the German-speaking part of Switzerland's Alpine region. These results reflected the relative geographical, and linguistic dispersion of the Alpine region of Switzerland as the Alpine region in Switzerland is predominantly German-speaking.

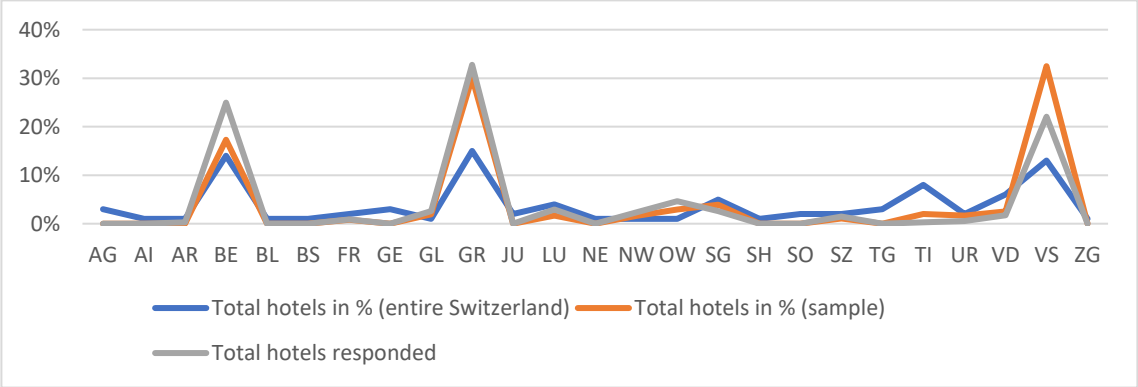
The first wave of emails was sent on January 11th, 2017. The researcher received a response from 243 hotels. A reminder email sent out one week later, on January 18th, 2017. This time 112 hotels sent a response. In all, a total of 69 emails could not be delivered. Twenty-three out of the 69 hotels that could not be contacted had closed. For the remaining 46 hotels who could not be reached, their correct e-mail address was found via a web search. These hotels were then contacted through a separate mailing. Thus, the net sample was 1418 (1441 minus 23). Out of the net sample of 1418 hotels, 354 hotels completed the survey for a response rate of 25%. Of the hotels who completed the survey, 321 (90.7%) hotels answered the survey in German while 33 (9.3%) responded in French. The Italian-speaking participants could choose between French and German. The per cent breakdown of the language used when responding to the survey reflected the relative linguistic proportions of the sample (Figure 10). However, it must be noted that there was underrepresentation of hotels from the Canton of Wallis and a slight overrepresentation of hotels from the Canton of Berne (Figure 11).

Figure 10 Representativity of the participants by the language region

	Total hotels in Switzerland		Total hotels in the sample (Total hotels in Alpine region)		Total participants	
French/Italian	1130	22%	129	9.1%	33	9.3%
German	3925	78%	1289	90.9%	321	90.7%
Total	**5055**	**100%**	**1418**	**100%**	**354**	**100%**

Source: developed for this research

Figure 11 Representativity of the sample response



4.5.2 Description of sample 2

Sample 2 was used to analyse the effects of stakeholder integration, trustworthiness, and procedural justice on efficiency. The 354 respondents were aggregated by destination because efficiency was measured by destination level and not at a hotel level. This resulted in a total number of 112 destinations.

4.5.3 Outliers sample 1

The data set was screened for outliers using the Mahalanobis distance. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) suggested that the distances have a chi-square distribution with degrees of freedom equal to the number of predictors. Three independent variables (stakeholder integration, procedural justice, trustworthiness) were tested for outliers and cases exceeding the chi-square value of 18.47 (X^2 (4) = 18.47, $p < 0.001$) were going to be deleted. No case passed this threshold and all cases remained in the data file.

4.5.4 Outliers sample 2

The same procedure was applied to this sample. Four independent variables were tested for outliers (stakeholder integration, procedural justice, trustworthiness, trust). Cases exceeding the chi-square value of 20.52 (X^2 (5) = 20.52, $p < 0.001$) were deleted. As a consequence, three cases were omitted from the data set, reducing the total number of cases in the efficiency data set (sample 2) to 109.

4.5.5 Data screening and bias test

As this study used parametric tests, the data were tested for normality, homoscedasticity, independence and multicollinearity to avoid potential bias (Field 2009). In addition, potential response bias was scrutinised.

4.5.5.1 Normality

Skewness and kurtosis were calculated to test for normality. Skewness and kurtosis values between -2.0 and 2.0 were considered to be a univariate normal distribution. A more precise rule was suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) in which skewness and kurtosis values need to be within three standard errors of skewness and kurtosis, respectively. Most of the variables met this criterion. The ones that did not meet the criterion of Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), but they did meet the criterion as postulated by Weiber and Mühlhaus (2014) (see Table 85, Appendix 2). An examination of the Q-Q plots and histograms of each question item for visual proof did not detect a pattern indicating a problem with normality of the data.

Despite the strong evidence for the presence of normal distribution of the data in this study as bootstrapping is used to analyse the data, no assumption was made about the shape of the sampling distribution. According to Hayes (2017), bootstrap confidence intervals can deal with the irregularity of the sampling distribution, indicating that normality is the least important assumption in conditional process analysis.

4.5.5.2 Homoscedasticity and linearity

According to Field (2009), if there was no systematic relationship between the errors in the model and what the model predicted, linearity and homoscedasticity could be

supported. The scatterplot based on the data of the pilot study did not show any funnel shape but a rectangle pattern (Figure 40, Appendix 2). A linear relationship between the variables was detected and the Levene's test did not show a significant difference in variance between two randomly selected groups $F(1\ \ 352) = 1.42$, $p = 0.23$. Findings, therefore, provided strong support for the homogeneity of variance based on the large sample sizes of 177 per group (total of 354).

4.5.5.3 Independence

Error terms must not be correlated for the confidence intervals and significance test to be valid (Field 2009). The Durbin-Watson test (Durbin & Watson 1951) was applied to check for the independence of the residual terms. Both of these articles suggested that the statistic can vary between 0 and 4, with a value closer to 2 meaning that the residuals were uncorrelated. Per Table 4 in Durbin and Watson (1951), a range of 1.63 to 1.72 at 5% significance acceptable if two regressors were used (N=100). However, the sample of this study was 354 while the Durbin-Watson table only lists a maximum of 100 cases. Thus, it was assumed that the value at 345 cases should be even closer to 2. The Durbin-Watson value for this sample was at 1.873, which supported the assumptions that the residual terms were independent.

4.5.5.4 Multicollinearity

According to Field (2009), there should not be a strong correlation between more than one predictor variables to avoid the problem of multicollinearity. The variance inflation factor (VIF) was calculated to test for multicollinearity. If the highest VIF value was not greater than 10 and the tolerance statistic was not lower than 0.1, it could be implied that there was no bias due to linear relationships of predictors with other predictor variables. The VIF value for this sample was 3.073, and the tolerance statistics at 0.325. Thus, it could be inferred that there was no issue with multicollinearity.

4.5.5.5 Non-response bias

To test for non-response bias, Armstrong and Overton (1977) compared the respondents who answered after the initial e-mailing with the ones that only answered after a reminder e-mail. Armstrong and Overton (1977) made late respondents proxies for non-

respondents. By using a *t*-test to compare the two groups in the context of this study, it was established that they did not differ significantly (Table 86, Appendix 2). Thus, it was assumed that there was no bias through non-response (Armstrong & Overton 1977).

4.5.5.6 Common method bias

Respondents were the source for the data of the independent and dependent variables of trust. There was a likelihood that the variance would be spurious, according to Podsakoff and Organ (1986), even though Crampton and Wagner (1994) disputed the magnitude of overestimation. Spector (2006) also cited empirical evidence casting doubts whether the method itself produces systematic variance. Nevertheless, bias remained an area of concern.

There are several ex-ante options to test whether the variance is attributable to the measurement method rather than measurement constructs (Podsakoff et al. 2003). Kock (2015) suggested conducting a collinearity test as an effective procedure to control for common method bias because this approach can detect common method bias, even when the constructs pass the assessment criteria for convergent and discriminant validity. Table 27 shows the VIFs obtained. The table also demonstrates that the two latent independent variables are not contaminated with common method bias, as the VIFs are not greater than 3.3 as defined by Kock and Lynn (2012) as well as Hair Jr et al. (2017).

Table 27 Collinearity variance inflation factors

	Stakeholder integration	Trustworthiness
VIF	3.073	3.073

Source: developed for this research

4.5.6 Reliability of sample 1 and 2

Following Hayes (2017) suggestion to check for reliability of the data, the data that was used for the analysis in this study were randomly split into two equally large groups (50%). Each sample was treated with the same analytical procedures used in this study were applied to all the hypothesised models. The goal was to check if the two random samples generated the same results. This was the case for the data in sample 1 (“trust”). As sample 2 (“efficiency”) was smaller than sample 1, significance was not reached when sample 2

was split into two equally sized samples. Therefore, it can be concluded that the results based on sample 1 strongly supported the generality of the findings and claims that this study generated. The results of sample 2 were also significant if taken as a complete sample (112 cases); however, when split into two samples of 56 cases each, the results were no longer significant.

4.5.7 Descriptive statistics

4.5.7.1 Correlation matrix

The correlations between the predictor variables should not cross the value of $r = 0.80$ (Brown 2014) or $r = 0.90$ (Field 2009) in order to avoid the problem of multicollinearity. Trustworthiness and stakeholder integration ($r = 0.821$) along with trustworthiness and procedural justice ($r = 0.849$) were both slightly passed the value of $r = 0.80$. However, the VIF (described in subsection 4.5.5.4) was well within the limits postulated by Field (2009), again supporting the assumption of the absence of a multicollinearity problem between the variables in this study even though some correlations were high.

Table 28 Correlation matrix of latent variables used in the main study

	Stakehold. integr.	Trustworthiness	Trust	Procedural justice
Stakehold. integr.	0			
Trustworthiness	0.821**	0		
Trust	0.563**	0.669**	0	
Procedural justice	0.785**	0.849**	0.627**	0

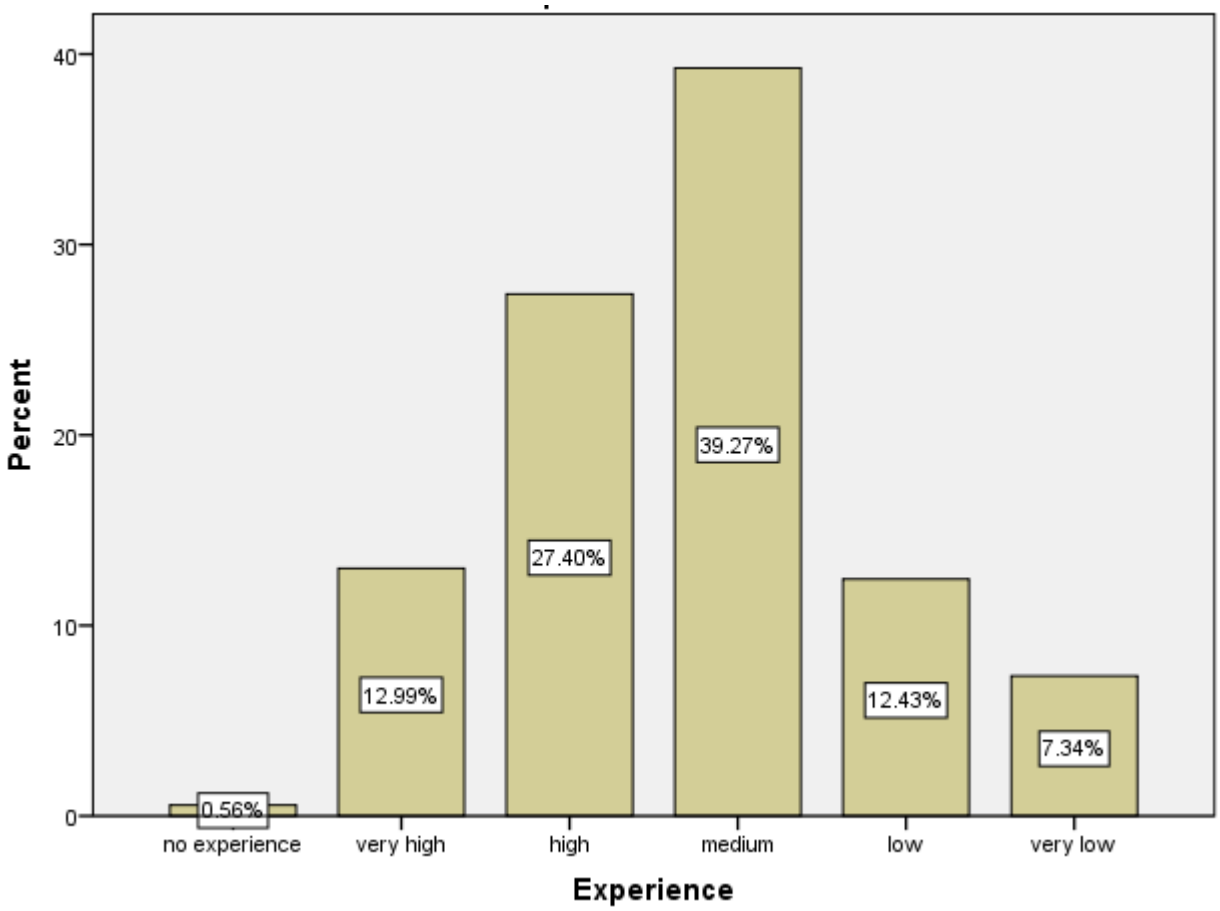
****Significance level: 0.01 (2 tailed)**

4.5.7.2 Experience of hotel managers in dealing with LTO

A drop-out criterion was put in place to ensure only experienced hotel managers answered the survey. If a hotel manager had no experience in dealing with the LTO, the survey could not be completed. Only 0.56% of the sample had no experience in dealing with their LTO and thus had to be dropped out of the survey. As Figure 12 demonstrates, 12.99% of hotel managers showed a *very high* level of experience (>4 years) while 27.40% a *high* level

of experience (3.1-4 years). The majority of the 354 participants indicated a *medium* level of experience (2.1-3 years) in doing business with their respective LTO. Only 12.43% of respondents showed *low* level of experience (1.1-2 years) and 7.34% had a *very low* level of experience (≤1 year), although remaining in the sample of the study.

Figure 12 Descriptive statistics main study: the level of experience

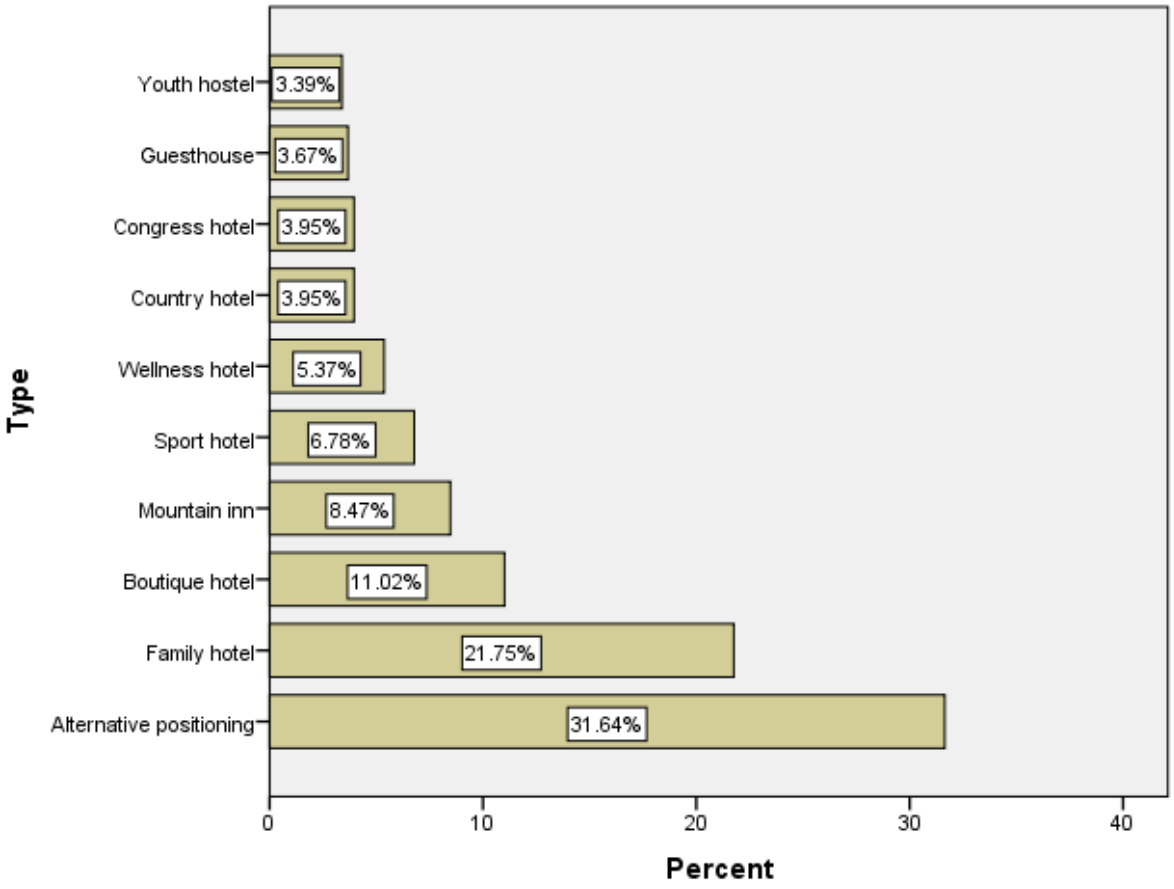


Source: Developed for this research

4.5.7.3 Type of hotels

Two-thirds of the hotels that participated in the study were categorised into the following hotel types: Youth hostels (3.39%), Guesthouses (3.67%), Congress hotels (3.95%), Country hotels (3.95%), Wellness hotels (5.37%), Sport hotels (6.78%), Mountain inns (8.47%), Boutique hotels (11.02) and Family hotels (21.75%). One-third of the sample indicated that they were positioned differently than the categories indicated (Figure 13).

Figure 13 Descriptive statistics main study: types of hotels

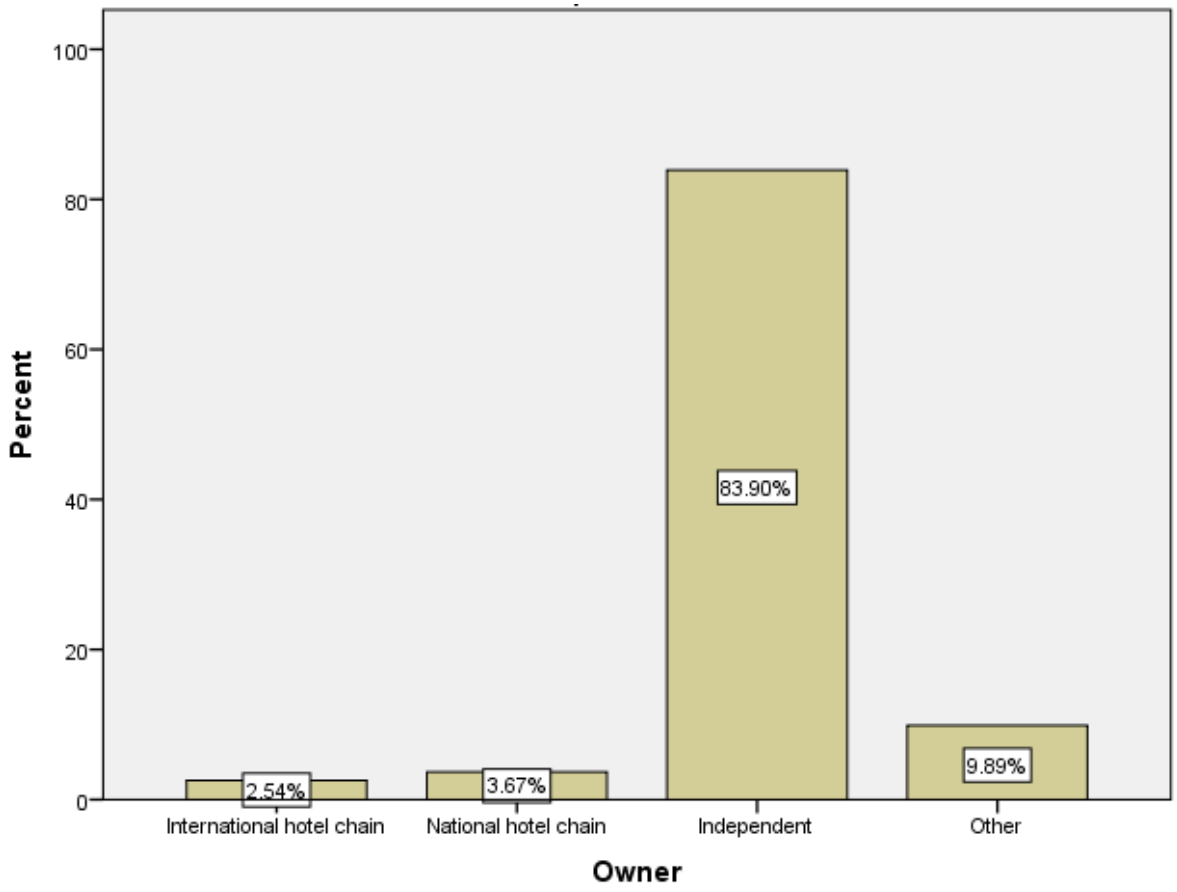


Source: Developed for this research

4.5.7.4 The ownership structure of hotels

Figure 14 provides the breakdown of hotel ownership. The lion's share (83.90%) of the hotels indicated that they were independent and not belonging to a national or international hotel chain. Only 3.67% of hotels belonged to a national hotel chain and 2.54% to an international hotel chain. Finally, 9.89% of the sample indicated a different, unspecified owner structure.

Figure 14 Descriptive statistics main study: ownership structure



Source: Developed for this research

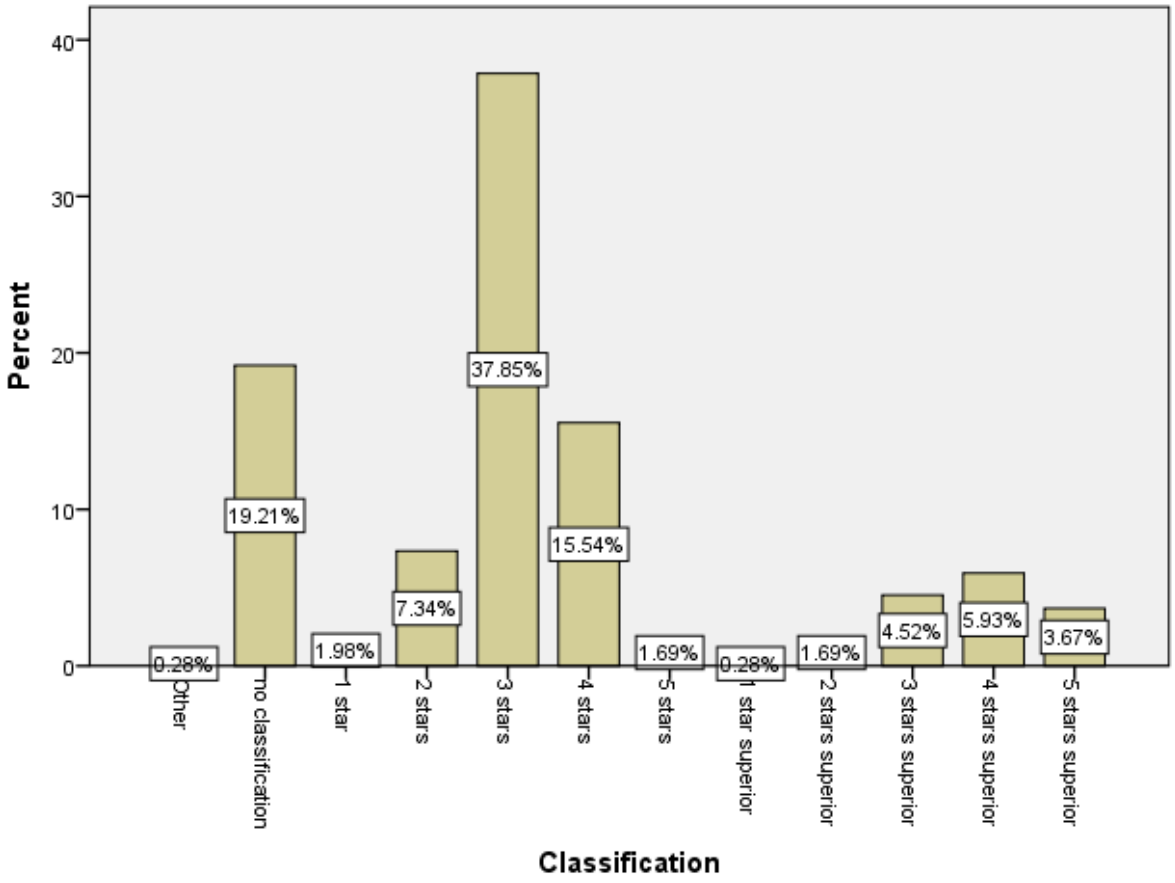
4.5.7.5 Hotel classification

Many of the study's respondents used the Swiss Hotel Association's five-star rating system. According to their certification standards. a one-star hotel meets the minimum requirement for certification. Conversely, and a five-star superior hotel provides features affording guests maximum comfort.

A plurality of hotels (37.85%) in the sample were in the 3-star segment, with 15.54% having 4 stars, 7.34% with 2 stars, 1.69% holding 5 stars and 1.98% with only 1 star. Of the hotels without a star rating, 19.21% of the hotels were not officially classified while 0.28% indicated that they had an alternative classification different from the descriptors used by the Swiss Hotel Association or recognized by a different organisation. To get a finer distinction between the star-ratings, the Swiss Hotel Association also features a

superior label for each star level. 0.28% had a 1-star superior rating, 1.69% a 2-stars superior rating, 4.52% a 3-stars superior rating, 5.93% a 4-star superior rating and 3.67% a 5-star superior rating. A one-star hotel meets the minimum requirement for certification, and a five-star superior hotel features the maximum comfort according to the certification standards. Almost one-fifth of the hotels are not classified at all. This does not mean that they are sub-standard but that they decided not to participate in the official rating system.

Figure 15 Descriptive statistics main study: hotel classification



Source: Developed for this research

4.5.8 Reliability and validity of the stakeholder integration scale

4.5.8.1 Internal consistency

A factor analysis was conducted on all of the 16 stakeholder integration items. All items had a correlation of at least $r = 0.4$ with at least one other item which suggested reasonable

factorability for all items (Table 87 in Appendix 2). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.969 (Kaiser 1970), which was above the minimum value of 0.6 and described as *marvellous* by Hutcheson and Sofroniou (1999). Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (X^2 (120) = 5139.51, $p < 0.001$). Each item was included in the factor analysis as the diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were all higher than $r = 0.5$. All the communalities were above 0.3 (see Table 88 in Appendix 2), indicating that each item shared some common variance with other items.

Each of the 16 items were checked by an exploratory factor analysis (principal component analysis) with oblimin rotation to ensure unidimensionality of the scale. The three-factor model, as suggested by Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010), as in the pilot study, was not supported. The analysis showed only one factor with an eigenvalue over 1, which reflected 65.60% of the total variance (Table 89 Appendix 2). The fact that the three dimensions could not be distinguished in the explorative factor analysis did not pose a critical problem to the study because the sub-dimensions were merged into a single scale to establish a more comprehensive and theory-driven measure of stakeholder integration. The analysis of the sub-dimensions was not a primary goal.

Internal consistency of the scales was assessed using Cronbach's alpha. The alphas were high for the stakeholder integration scale containing 16 indicators ($\alpha = 0.96$) as well as for the sub-dimensions *interaction* ($\alpha = 0.93$), *adaptational behaviour* ($\alpha = 0.92$) and *knowledge* ($\alpha = 0.89$). Alpha values over $\alpha = 0.70$ were acceptable and implied that each item of the construct contributed in the same way (Peterson 1994). The Composite Reliability Index (CRI) (Werts, Linn & Jöreskog 1974) and the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) (Hair et al. 1999) were calculated as well, with results provided in Table 29.

Table 29 Stakeholder integration: assessment of reliability

Construct	Number of indicators	Cronbach's alpha	CRI	AVE
Knowledge (KNOW)	5	0.891	0.896	0.635
Interaction (INTER)	6	0.934	0.934	0.704
Adaptational Behaviour (ADAP)	5	0.918	0.920	0.698
Stakeholder Integration (SI)	16	0.964	0.971	0.662

* After removing item 3 and 4 of KNOW

Source: Developed for this research

According to Hair et al. (1999), the AVE should be over 0.50, and the CRI should be more than 0.70 for high levels of reliability. In the main study, all the indicators pass this threshold.

The following indicators were used to assess the goodness of fit by running a confirmatory factor analysis using SPSS Amos according to a recommendation of Kline (2015): Model chi-square with its degrees of freedom and *p*-value, Root Mean Square Error Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR). Table 30 showed that the p-value is significant, which indicated a poor fit (Field 2009). However, as the sample size was 354, it is very unlikely that the p-value was not significant.

The RMSEA should be at 0.06 or less to indicate an acceptable model fit (Hu & Bentler 1999); however, the RMSEA for model 1 was only 0.061. After two error variances (item 7 and 8, item 10 and 11) had been covaried, the RMSEA improved to 0.053 and was lowered to an acceptable level. The CFI met the necessary minimum value of 0.90 in both models (Hu & Bentler 1999) and was further improved in model 2. SRMR was at 0.0271 in model 2, which is considered a good fit as it was below the value of 0.08 (Hu & Bentler 1999).

Table 30 Stakeholder integration: results of confirmatory factor analysis

	X^2	df	*p*	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR	NFI
Model 1	231.65	101	0.000	0.061	0.974	0.0276	0.956
Model 2	197.09	99	0.000	0.053	0.981	0.0271	0.862

Model 1: no error covariation. Model 2: error variance of item 7 and 8 as well as items 10 and 11 (covaried).

Source: Developed for this research

4.5.8.2 Convergent validity

The dimensions attained good levels of convergent validity (Table 31). The NFI in model 1 exceeded the limit of 0.90 (Table 30), described by (Segars & Grover 1993) as a high level of convergent validity. In model 2, in which two error variances were covaried, the NFI slightly dropped to 0.862. The correlations between the three dimensions of stakeholder integration were significant at 0.01% error level, which strongly supported the convergent validity of the construct (Li et al. 2005).

Table 31 Stakeholder integration: correlations between the dimensions

	KNOW	INTER	ADAP
KNOW	1		
INTER	0.859(**)	1	
ADAP	0.768(**)	0.840(**)	1

**The correlation is significant at the level 0.01 (1-tailed)

Source: Developed for this research

4.5.8.3 Discriminant validity

If the correlations between the items of each dimension were greater than the correlations of the remaining items, discriminant validity could be assessed as being supported (McGrath 2001). The correlation table in Table 87 (found in Appendix 2) showed no strong evidence of discriminant validity. This finding supported the results of the exploratory factor analysis, where only one factor had an eigenvalue over 1.

4.5.8.4 Conclusion

Overall, the stakeholder integration scale met the goodness of fit criteria. The amendments to the scale based on the results from the pilot study helped to improve the fit indices. It was a valid and reliable scale and thus an adequate instrument to measure the level of stakeholder integration. No further configurations to improve fit, reliability, or validity were performed on the measurement construct.

4.5.9 Reliability and validity of the trustworthiness scale

4.5.9.1 Internal consistency

After removing BENE4, which had a weak factor loading in the pilot study, all items had a correlation of at least $r = 0.3$ with at least one other item which suggested reasonable factorability for all items (Table 90, Appendix 2). The KMO measure was 0.894 (Kaiser 1970) exceeding the minimum value of 0.6. Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (X^2 (36) = 2291.81, $p < 0.001$). The diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were all above $r = 0.5$ and all communalities above 0.3 (Table 91, Appendix 2). This indicated that each item shared some common variance with other items. Thus, no item was excluded from the factor analysis.

The nine items in the instrument were tested by an exploratory factor analysis (principal component analysis) with oblimin rotation to check for unidimensionality of the scale. Similar to previous studies (e.g. Jarvenpaa & Leidner 1998; Mayer & Gavin 2005; Searle et al. 2011), the three-factor model as postulated by Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) could not be supported on an inter-organisational level. Only one factor exceeded an eigenvalue of 1. This factor explained 61.91% of the total variation. The component matrix showed the one-factor model (Table 92, Appendix 2). However, as for stakeholder integration as used in this study, the subdimensions of trustworthiness were collapsed into a single scale to obtain a more comprehensive and theory-driven trustworthiness measure. Consequently, the analysis of the sub-dimensions was not critical.

As shown in Table 32 below, the Cronbach's alpha values were all above $\alpha = 0.70$, which is considered acceptable (Peterson 1994). Since Cronbach's alpha implied that each item of the construct contributed in the same way (Peterson 1994), the Composite Reliability

Index (CRI) (Werts, Linn & Jöreskog 1974) and the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) (Hair et al. 1999) were calculated as well. All dimensions were above the critical value of 0.50 for AVE and 0.70 for CRI (Hair et al. 1999):

Table 32 Trustworthiness: assessment of reliability

Construct	Number of indicators	Cronbach's alpha	Composite Reliability Index	Average Variance Extracted
Ability (ABI)	3	0.879	0.884	0.718
Benevolence (BENE)	3	0.911	0.915	0.783
Integrity (INTEG)	3	0.833	0.837	0.633
Trustworthiness (TW)	9	0.923	0.957	0.711

Source: Developed for this research

The following indicators were used to assess the goodness of fit by running a confirmatory factor analysis using SPSS Amos according to a recommendation of Kline (2015): Model chi-square with its degrees of freedom and *p*-value, Root Mean Square Error Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR). Table 33 showed that all the indicators improved in the second model after error 2 and error 3 had been covaried. The *p*-value of the chi-square test in model 2 was 0.001, which was below 0.05, not indicating a good fit (Kline 2015). However, it is likely that the *p*-value does become significant when the sample size is large (Field 2009). The RMSEA should be at 0.06 or less to indicate an acceptable model fit (Hu & Bentler 1999). In model 2, the value was at 0.072. However, considering the alternative goodness of fit indicators that had been calculated, it was be inferred that there was still a satisfactory model fit. CFI met the necessary minimum value of 0.90 (Hu & Bentler 1999) in both models, and it further improved in model 2. SRMR was at 0.0257 in Model 2, which was considered a good fit as it was below the value of 0.08 (Hu & Bentler 1999).

Table 33 Trustworthiness: results of confirmatory factor analysis

	X^2	df	*p*	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR	NFI
Model 1	101.35	24	0.001	0.096	0.966	0.0406	0.956
Model 2	64.60	23	0.001	0.072	0.982	0.0257	0.972

Model 1: no error covariances. Model 2: error 2 and error 3 are covaried.

Source: Developed for this research

4.5.9.2 Convergent validity

As in the pilot study, the 9-item instrument reached a satisfactory level convergent validity as its NFI was greater than 0.90 (Table 33) which has been described as a high level of convergent validity (Segars & Grover 1993). Table 34 shows that the correlations between the three dimensions of trustworthiness were significant at 0.01% error, which strongly supported the convergent validity of the construct (Li et al. 2005).

Table 34 Trustworthiness: correlations between the dimensions

	ABI	BENE	INTEG
ABI	1		
BENE	0.717(**)	1	
INTEG	0.619(**)	0.621(**)	1

**The correlation was significant at the level 0.01 (2-tailed)

Source: Developed for this research

4.5.9.3 Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity in this study was checked by comparing the correlations between the items of each dimension with the correlation of the remaining ones (McGrath 2001). Discriminant validity was considered to be supported if correlations were greater in the first case than in the latter. The correlation table in Table 90 (Appendix 2) did not show evidence of discriminant validity. Therefore, no analyses on a dimensional level were performed as part of the main study.

4.5.9.4 Conclusion

As in the pilot study, the measurement construct for trustworthiness showed differences on an organisational level of analysis compared to an individual level of analysis. The three-factor model could not be supported. However, the overall model fit, including reliability and validity as these exceeded the necessary criteria, qualifying the construct as a viable scale for trustworthiness on an inter-organisational level.

4.5.10 Reliability and validity of the trust scale

4.5.10.1 Internal consistency

The trust scale was reduced from 7 items in the pilot study to only 4 items in the principal study. The four remaining items had a correlation of at least $r = 0.7$ with one other item, suggesting reasonable factorability for all items (Table 37 below). The KMO measure of 0.832 (Kaiser 1970) was above the minimum value of 0.6 and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (X^2 (6) = 1202.996, p <0.001). The diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were all above $r = 0.5$ and all communalities were above 0.3 (Table 93 in Appendix 2). A principal component analysis with oblimin rotation was conducted and, as suggested by the literature (Gillespie 2003), only one dimension had an eigenvalue above 1, which indicated a one-factor model. This one dimension reflected 82.72% of the total variance.

All Cronbach's alpha in Table 35 exceeded $\alpha = 0.70$, which is considered acceptable (Peterson 1994). The Composite Reliability Index (CRI) (Werts, Linn & Jöreskog 1974) and the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) (Hair et al. 1999) had been calculated to get a more comprehensive view on reliability. The values passed the critical threshold of 0.50 for AVE and 0.70 for CRI (Hair et al. 1999).

Table 35 Trust: assessment of reliability

Construct	Number of indicators	Cronbach's alpha	CRI	AVE
Trust	4	0.930	0.930	0.769

Source: Developed for this research

The goodness of fit was assessed by running a confirmatory factor analysis using SPSS Amos (Kline 2015). Model chi-square with its degrees of freedom and *p*-value, Root Mean Square Error Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) were analysed. Per Table 36, the *p*-value of the chi-square test was significant, which indicated a poor fit compared to a value greater than 0.05 that would have indicated a good fit (Kline 2015). However, as there were 354 cases included in the analysis, the likelihood of the results being statistically significant was very high. The RMSEA should have been at 0.06 or less to indicate an acceptable model fit (Hu & Bentler 1999). This threshold was not reached. However, CFI exceeded the necessary minimum value of 0.90 (Hu & Bentler 1999), and SRMR showed a good fit as it was below the value of 0.08 (Hu & Bentler 1999). Overall, the construct was able to be used for further analysis.

Table 36 Trust: results of confirmatory factor analysis

X^2	df	*p*	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR	NFI
32.050	2	0.001	0.206	0.975	0.0272	0.974

Source: Developed for this research

4.5.10.2 Convergent validity

The construct reached an adequate level of convergent validity as its NFI was greater than 0.90 (Table 36), which has been described as a high level of convergent validity (Segars & Grover 1993). As seen in Table 37, the correlations between the four items of trust were significant at 0.01% error, strongly supporting the convergent validity of the construct (Li et al. 2005).

Table 37 Trust: correlations between the dimensions

	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4
Item 1	1			
Item 2	0.868	1		
Item 3	0.776	0.788	1	
Item 4	0.706	0.717	0.759	1

**The correlation was significant at the level 0.001 (1-tailed)

Source: Developed for this research

4.5.10.3 Discriminant validity

As trust became a single construct in this study, discriminant validity was checked by measuring the difference between the trust construct and the trustworthiness construct, which was related but different. The analysis between the trust construct and the different dimensions of trustworthiness revealed indications about the level of discriminant validity. The pattern matrix in Table 96 (Appendix 2) showed the factor loadings are coherent with their theoretical assignment (minimum level of 0.50). Results showed that trustworthiness and trust were distinguished, which supported the discriminant validity of both scales.

4.5.10.4 Conclusion

The analysis showed that reliability and validity, as well as the global goodness of fit indicators of the scale, met the required standards except the RMSEA value.

4.5.11 Reliability and validity of the procedural justice scale

4.5.11.1 Internal consistency

Correlations among the seven procedural justice items were at least $r = 0.39$ with one other item which suggested reasonable factorability for all items (Table 97, Appendix 2). The KMO measure of 0.874 (Kaiser 1970) was above the minimum value of 0.6 and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (X^2 (21) = 1213.449, $p < 0.001$). Additionally, the diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were all above $r = 0.5$ and all communalities above 0.3 (Table 98, Appendix 2). No item was excluded for the factor

analysis at this stage. A principal component analysis with oblimin rotation was conducted and, as suggested by Colquitt (2001), only one dimension showed an eigenvalue above 1, which indicated a one-factor model. This one dimension reflected 58.996% of the total variance.

The Cronbach's alpha in Table 38 below exceeded $\alpha = 0.70$, which is considered acceptable (Peterson 1994). The Composite Reliability Index (CRI) (Werts, Linn & Jöreskog 1974) and the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) (Hair et al. 1999) were calculated as well. The procedural justice construct was slightly above the critical threshold of 0.50 for AVE and also exceeded the minimum CRI of 0.70 (Hair et al. 1999).

Table 38 Procedural justice: assessment of reliability

Construct	Number of indicators	Cronbach's alpha	CRI	AVE
Procedural justice	7	0.882	0.884	0.522

Source: developed for this research

The goodness of fit was assessed by running a confirmatory factor analysis using SPSS Amos (Kline 2015). Model chi-square with its degrees of freedom and *p*-value, Root Mean Square Error Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) were analysed. As can be seen in Table 39, the *p*-value of the chi-square test was significant, which indicated a poor fit compared to a value greater than 0.05, which would have indicated a good fit (Kline 2015). Again, this was likely due to the large sample size. The RMSEA in both models was too high as the value is supposed to be at 0.06 or less to indicate an acceptable model fit (Hu & Bentler 1999). In model 2, CFI was above the minimum value of 0.90 (Hu & Bentler 1999). SRMR indicated a good fit as it was below the value of 0.08 (Hu & Bentler 1999).

Table 39 Procedural justice: results of confirmatory factor analysis

	X^2	df	*p*	RMSEA	CFI	SRMR	NFI
Model 1	152.669	14	0.000	0.168	0.885	0.0665	0.875
Model 2	63.631	12	0.000	0.110	0.957	0.0447	0.948

Model 1: no covariation / Model 2: error 2 and 6, as well as error 3 and 4, had been covaried.

Source: Developed for this research

4.5.11.2 Convergent validity

The NFI was greater than 0.90 (Table 39), described as a high level of convergent validity (Segars & Grover 1993). The correlations between the seven items of procedural justice were all significant at 0.01% error and 0.05% respectively supporting the convergent validity of the construct (Li et al. 2005).

Table 40 Procedural justice: correlations between the dimensions

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Item 1	1						
Item 2	.617**	1					
Item 3	.520**	.494**	1				
Item 4	.443*	.385**	.675**	1			
Item 5	.484**	.422**	.611**	.578**	1		
Item 6	.531**	.663**	.472**	.413*	.424**	1	
Item 7	.570**	.442**	.586*	.572**	.546**	.495**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

Source: Developed for this research

4.5.11.3 Discriminant validity

Procedural justice is a single construct. Discriminant validity was checked by measuring the difference between the procedural justice construct and the trust construct, which was related, but distinct. The analysis between the procedural construct and the different

dimensions of stakeholder integration revealed cues about the level of discriminant validity. The pattern matrix (Table 99 in Appendix 2) showed that the factor loadings were coherent with their theoretical assignment (minimum level of 0.50). Procedural justice and trust were distinguished, supporting the discriminant validity of both scales.

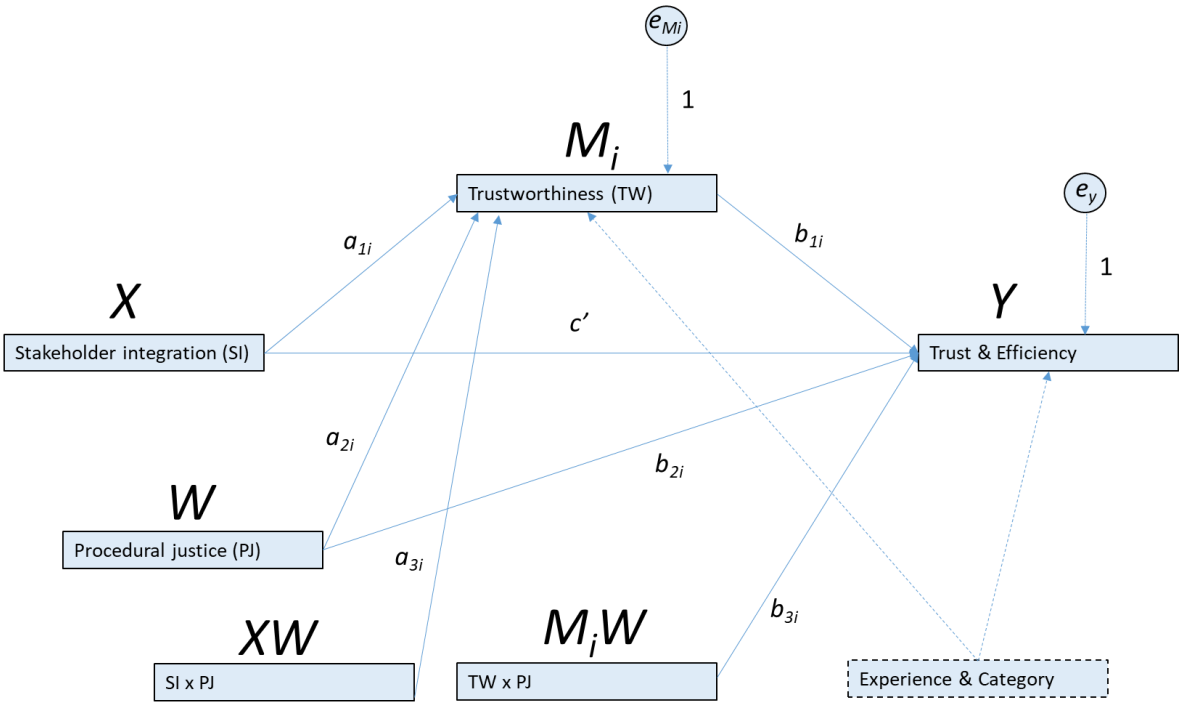
4.5.11.4 Conclusion

The procedural justice scale met the goodness of fit indices, and its reliability and validity were supported.

4.5.12 Analyses to test the hypotheses

To test the hypotheses, the statistical model (Figure 16) was calculated. As there were two different dependent variables used in this study, the model was calculated for each dependent variable (trust and efficiency). The analyses were conducted following the regression-based approach to moderated mediation by Hayes (2013), which is also called "conditional process analysis." Consequently, model 58 (Figure 16) that uses the bootstrapping technique with 10,000 iterations and 95% bias correction confidence intervals (CI) was used (Hayes 2013). When the CIs did not include zero, the respective direct and indirect effects are considered to be statistically significant (Preacher, Rucker & Hayes 2007). Unstandardised regression weights were reported and no mean centering had been applied as recommended by Hayes (2013).

Figure 16 Statistical model of this study



Source: developed for this research based on Model 58 according to Hayes (2013)

4.5.13 Process analysis– dependent variable "Trust"

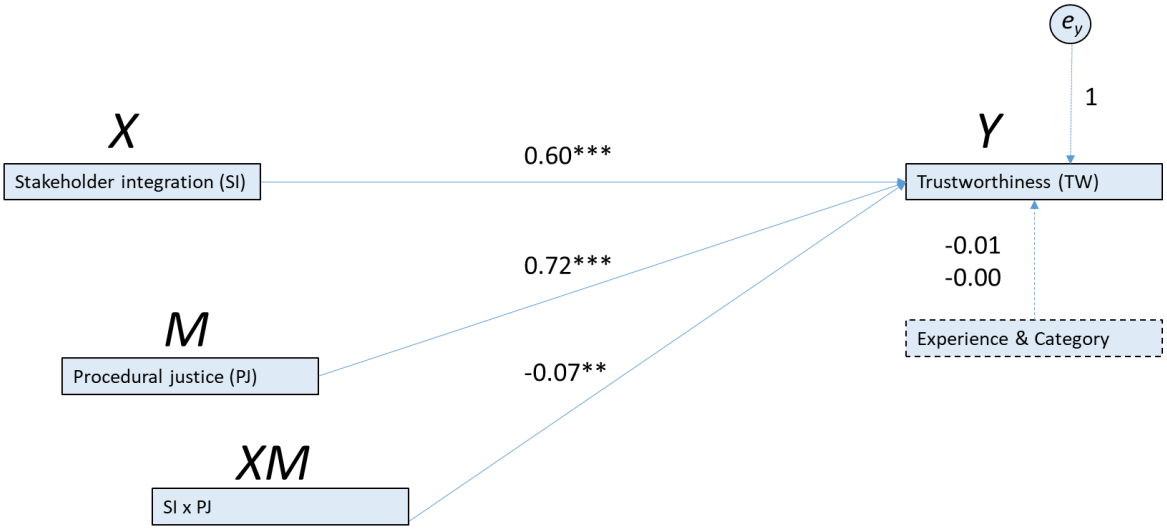
As a beginning point, different parts of the proposed model were considered in isolation. The moderation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness was scrutinised first. This was followed by a mediation analysis of the indirect effect of stakeholder integration on trust through trustworthiness before the conditional indirect effects were discussed.

4.5.13.1 First stage moderation effect of procedural justice

The first analysis represents Model 1, according to Hayes (2013). Relationships between stakeholder integration, procedural justice, and trustworthiness were tested, as was the moderation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness.

Both stakeholder integration and procedural justice had significantly positive coefficients, which suggested that hotels perceive the LTO as more trustworthy when procedural justice and stakeholder integration levels were high (Figure 17 and Table 41).

Figure 17 Statistical model for interaction 1



Source: Developed for this research based on Model 1 by Hayes (2013)

Table 41 First stage moderation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness

Outcome	Trustworthiness	
Predictors	Coeff. (b)	*p*
Intercept	0.12	0.65
Stakeholder Integration	0.60	<0.001
Procedural Justice	0.72	<0.001
SI x PJ (Interaction 1)	-0.07	<0.01
Experience	-0.01	0.69
Category	-0.00	0.79
Model R^2	0.79	<0.001

Source: Developed for this research

As per Table 42 and Figure 18 below, there was a stronger relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness for *low* levels of procedural justice (b = 0.42, $t(348)$ = 9.38, p = < 0.001) than for either *medium*

(b = 0.36, t(348) = 9.45, p = < 0.001) or *high* (b = 0.30, t(348) = 7.94, p = < 0.001) levels. This indicated that the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness was stronger for hotels who perceived their LTO exerted a lower degree of procedural justice.

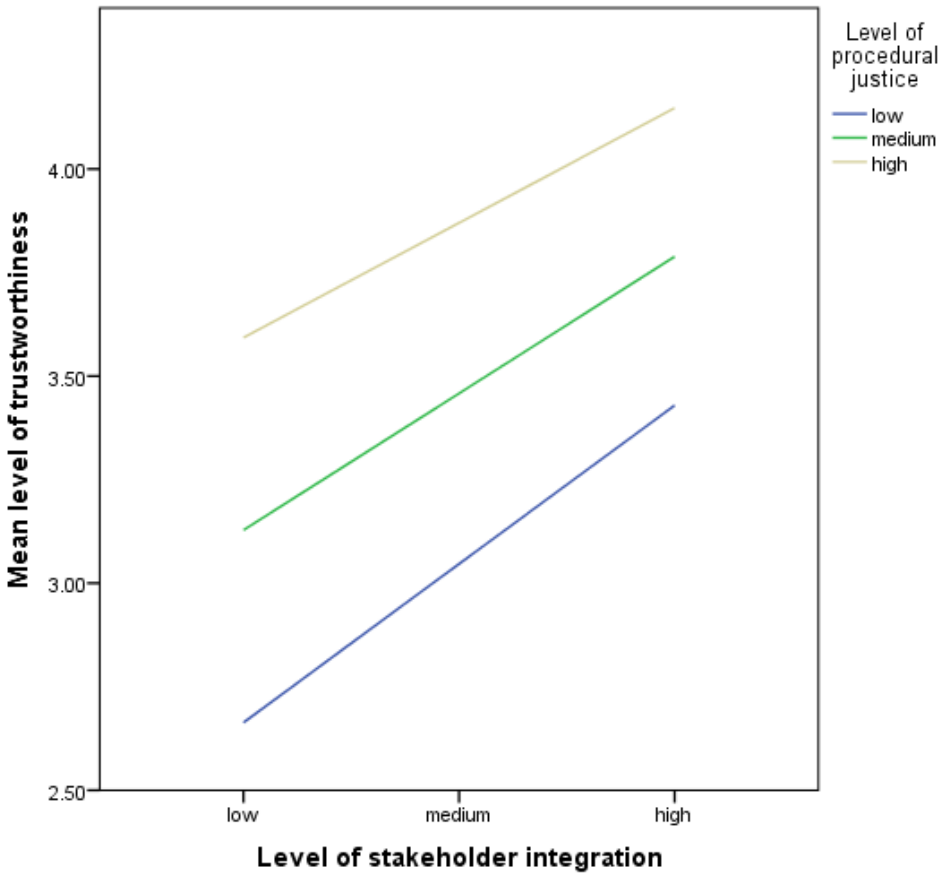
Table 42 Test of conditional effect on trustworthiness

Conditional Effect on Trustworthiness		
Procedural Justice (W)	Effect	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap CI
2.49 (low)	0.42	0.33 to 0.51
3.29 (medium)	0.36	0.28 to 0.44
4.09 (high)	0.30	0.22 to 0.38

Note. N = 354. The conditional direct and indirect effects are probed at the mean and ±1 SD from the mean of procedural justice.

Source: Developed for this research

Figure 18 Moderation effect of procedural justice



Source: Developed for this research. Low = 1 SD below mean, medium = mean, high = 1 SD above the mean.

There was a significant R^2-change of 0.0060 ($F(348) = 9.94$, $p < 0.01$). This meant that moderation (procedural justice) explained an additional 0.6% of the variance in trustworthiness.

Hypothesis 1) proposed that stakeholder integration was positively related to perceived organisational trustworthiness. As per Figure 18 and Table 41 above, the data supported hypothesis 1) due to the relationship being highly significant ($p < 0.001$).

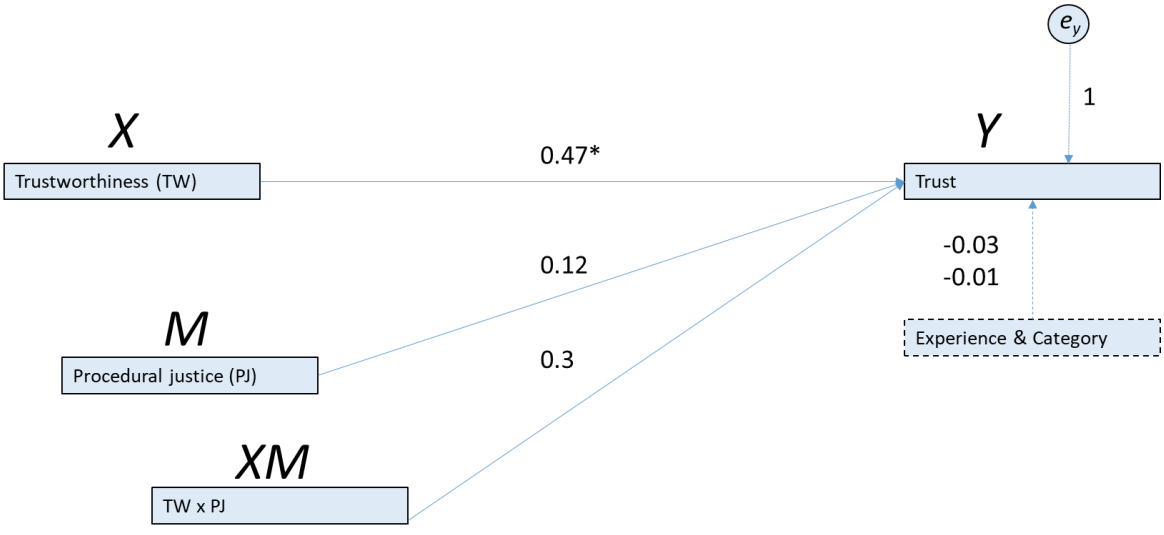
Hypothesis 4a) stated that procedural justice would moderate the positive relationship between stakeholder integration and perceived organisational trustworthiness. When procedural justice was more or less developed the relationship between stakeholder integration and stakeholders' perceived trustworthiness of the LTO would correspondingly be either stronger or weaker. As per Table 41 and Table 42, there was a

highly significant moderation effect. Procedural justice moderated the relationship between stakeholder integration and perceived organisational trustworthiness. What this indicated was that when procedural justice was more or less developed, the relationship between stakeholder integration and stakeholders' perceived trustworthiness of the LTO was weaker or stronger, a reverse expectation. As a result, Hypothesis 4a) was only partially supported.

4.5.13.2 Second stage moderation effect of procedural justice

In the following analysis, the [1] moderation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between trustworthiness and trust and [2] the direct effects of trustworthiness and procedural justice on trust were considered. Trustworthiness showed a significantly positive coefficient, suggesting that hotels tended to trust the LTO if the LTO was perceived to be trustworthy (Figure 19). Procedural justice had a significant impact on the hotels trusting the LTO, even though the interaction term was not significant (Table 43).

Figure 19 Statistical model for interaction 2



Source: Developed for this research based on Model 1 by Hayes (2013)

Table 43 Second stage moderation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between trustworthiness and trust

Outcome	Trust	
Predictors	Coeff. (b)	*p*
Intercept	0.99	0.12
Procedural Justice	0.12	0.53
Trustworthiness	0.47	<0.05
TW x PJ (Interaction 2)	0.03	0.50
Experience	-0.03	0.55
Category	-0.01	0.33
Model R^2	0.46	<0.001

Source: developed for this research

Table 44 shows that justice there was a stronger relationship between trustworthiness (b = 0.60, t(350) = 5.75, p = < 0.001) and trust for *high* levels of procedural than for *medium* (*b* = 0.58, *t*(350) = 6.04, *p* = < 0.001) and *low* (*b* = 0.55, *t*(350) = 5.46, *p* = < 0.001) levels. This indicated that the relationship between trustworthiness and trust was stronger for hotels that perceived higher procedural justice exerted by their LTO. Even though the product term was not significant, there was a significant moderation because the CI did not include 0 (Hayes 2017).

Table 44 Test of conditional effect on trust

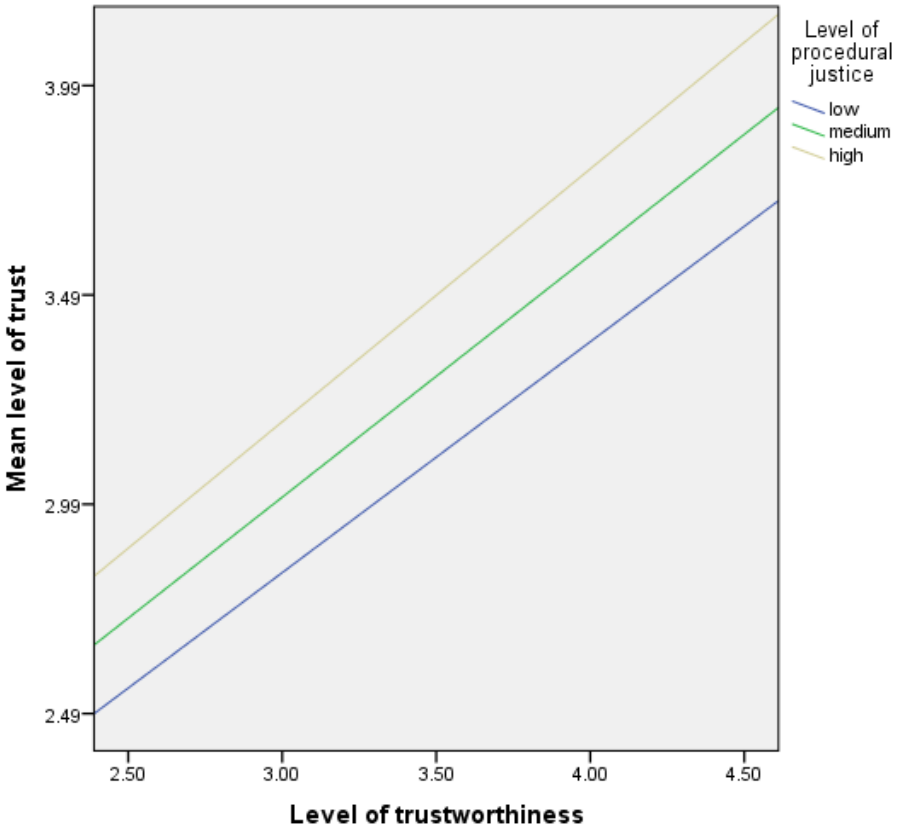
Conditional Effect on Trust		
Procedural Justice (W)	Effect	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap CI
2.49 (low)	0.55	0.34 to 0.76
3.29 (medium)	0.58	0.38 to 0.78
4.09 (high)	0.60	0.39 to 0.82

Note. *N* = 354. The conditional direct and indirect effects are probed at the mean and ±1 SD from the mean of procedural justice.

Source: Developed for this research

Hypothesis 4b) proposed that procedural justice would moderate the positive relationship between perceived organisational trustworthiness and trust and that when procedural justice was less/more developed, the relationship between perceived organisational trustworthiness and trust would be weaker/stronger. This hypothesis could be supported as there was a significant interaction (Table 44 and Figure 20).

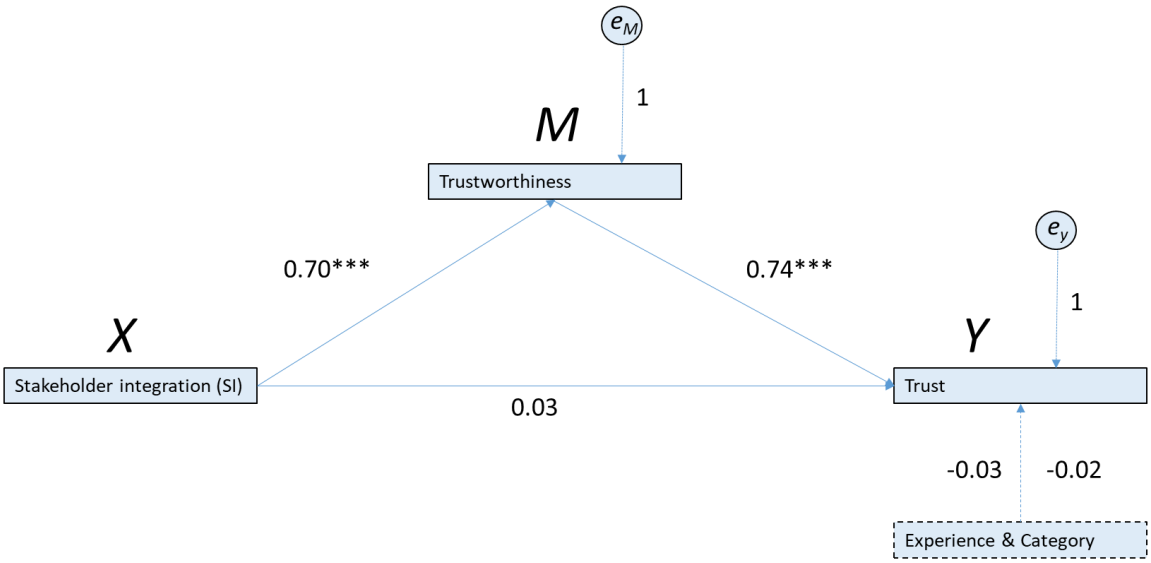
Figure 20 Moderation effect of procedural justice



4.5.13.3 Mediation effect of trustworthiness on trust

A simple mediation analysis was conducted using ordinary least squares path analysis. Results showed that stakeholder integration indirectly influenced trust through its effect on trustworthiness. As shown in Figure 21 and Table 45, hotels who reported a higher value on stakeholder integration perceived the LTO to be more trustworthy (b = 0.70, t(350) = 19.85, p < 0.001. Similarly, hotels who perceived the LTO as more trustworthy expressed greater trust towards the LTO (b = 0.73, t(349) = 8.03, p < 0.001).

Figure 21 Statistical model of mediation effect



Source: Developed for this research based on Model 4 by Hayes (2013)

Table 45 Mediation effect model for trust as an outcome

Outcome	Trustworthiness		Trust	
Predictors	Coeff. (b)	*p*	Coeff. (b)	*p*
Intercept	1.63	<0.001	0.82	<0.01
Stakeholder Integration	0.70	<0.001	0.03	0.69
Trustworthiness	-	-	0.74	<0.001
Experience	-0.04	0.24	-0.03	0.47
Category	-0.01	0.21	-0.02	0.24
Model R^2	0.68	<0.001	0.45	<0.001

Source: Developed for this research

A bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect effect (b = 0.51), based on 10,000 bootstrap samples was entirely above zero (0.39 to 0.64), indicating the indirect effect was significant (Table 46). There was no evidence that stakeholder integration influenced trust independent of its effect on trustworthiness (b = 0.03, $t(350)$ = 0.39, p = 0.69).

Table 46 Mediation analysis: the effect of stakeholder integration on trust through trustworthiness

Indirect effect of stakeholder integration on trust

Effect (Trustworthiness)	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap SE	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap CI
0.51	0.06	0.39 to 0.64

Direct effect of stakeholder integration on trust

Effect	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap SE	*t*	*p*	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap CI
0.03	0.08	0.39	0.69	-0.13 to 0.19

Total effect of stakeholder integration on trust

Effect	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap SE	*t*	*p*	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap CI
0.54	0.07	8.11	<0.001	0.41 to 0.68

Source: Developed for this research.

The total effect is the sum of the direct effect and the indirect effect and it was estimated by regressing trust on stakeholder integration. The total effect was statistically significant ($b = 0.54$, $t(350) = 8.11$, $p < 0.001$).

Hypothesis 2a) specified that perceived organisational trustworthiness was positively related to stakeholders' trust in the LTO. This hypothesis was supported (Table 45), which shows the association was highly significant ($b = 0.74$, $t(350) = 8.16$, $p < 0.001$).

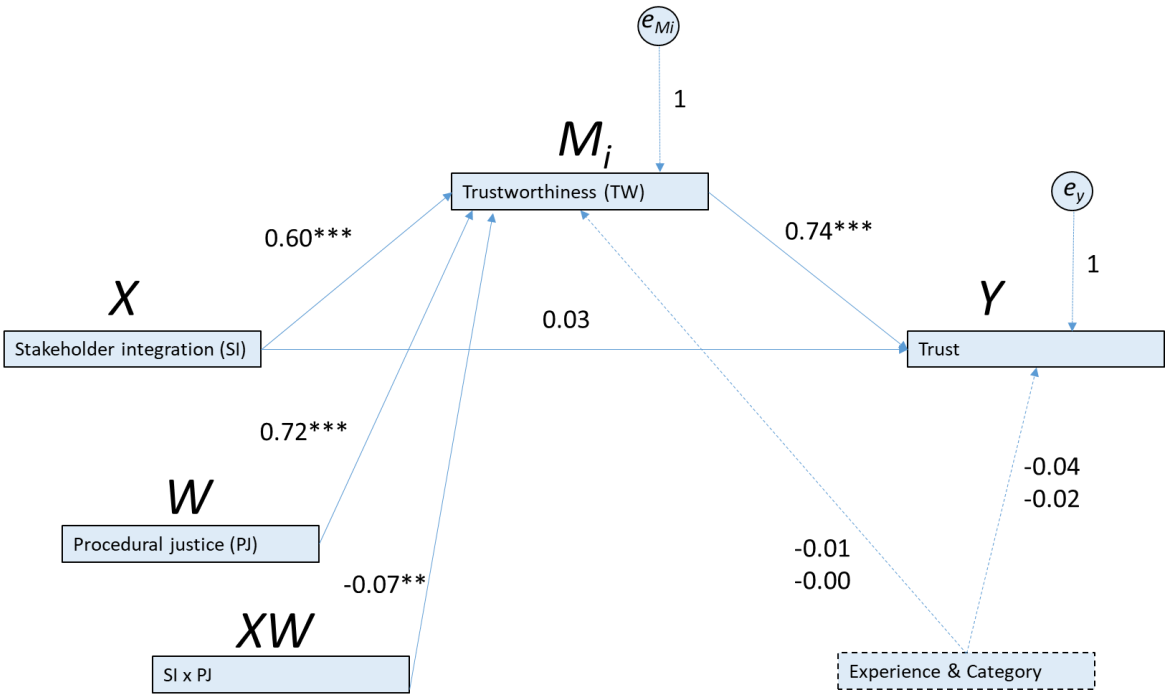
Furthermore, hypothesis 3a) stated that the relationship between stakeholder integration and stakeholders' trust in the LTO would be fully mediated by perceived organisational trustworthiness could be supported (Table 46). The relationship was fully mediated based

on results showing a significant indirect effect (CI 0.39 to 0.64) and no significant direct effect (CI -0.13 to 0.19).

4.5.13.4 First stage conditional indirect effect

The first stage conditional indirect effect of stakeholder integration on trust moderated by procedural justice was evaluated. Figure 22 shows results found based on Hayes' (2013) *Model 7*. There was no significant direct effect of stakeholder integration on trust $b = 0.03$, $t(348) = 0.39$, $p = 0.69$ when trustworthiness and procedural justice were held constant. There was a conditional indirect effect at three values of procedural justice: one standard deviation below the mean (2.49), the mean (3.29), and one standard deviation above the mean (4.09). The conditional indirect effect related to the indirect (mediated by trustworthiness) relationship between stakeholder integration and trust at conditional values of procedural justice (moderator). Table 48 showed that because the confidence interval did not contain zero, the indirect relationship between stakeholder integration and trust was significant at all levels of procedural justice. Moreover, the index of moderated mediation (- 0.05, 95% CI, - 0.09 to - 0.22) was significantly different from zero as the CIs did not contain zero.

Figure 22 Statistical model of first stage conditional indirect effect



Source: Developed for this research based on Model 7 by Hayes (2013)

Table 47 Test of moderated mediation (Model 7) - Trust

Outcome	Trustworthiness		Trust	
Predictors	Coeff. (b)	*p*	Coeff. (b)	*p*
Intercept	0.12	0.65	0.82	<0.05
Trustworthiness (TW)	-	-	0.74	<0.001
Stakeholder Integration (SI)	0.60	<0.001	0.03	0.69
Procedural Justice (PJ)	0.72	<0.001	-	-
SI x PJ (Interaction 1)	-0.07	<0.01	-	-
Experience (control variable)	-0.01	0.69	-0.04	0.47
Category (control variable)	-0.00	0.79	-0.02	0.24
Model R^2	0.79	<0.001	0.45	<0.001

Note: N = 354

Source: Developed for this research

Table 48 Test of the conditional indirect effect of stakeholder integration on trust as a function of procedural justice

Conditional Indirect Effect on Trust (Model 7)

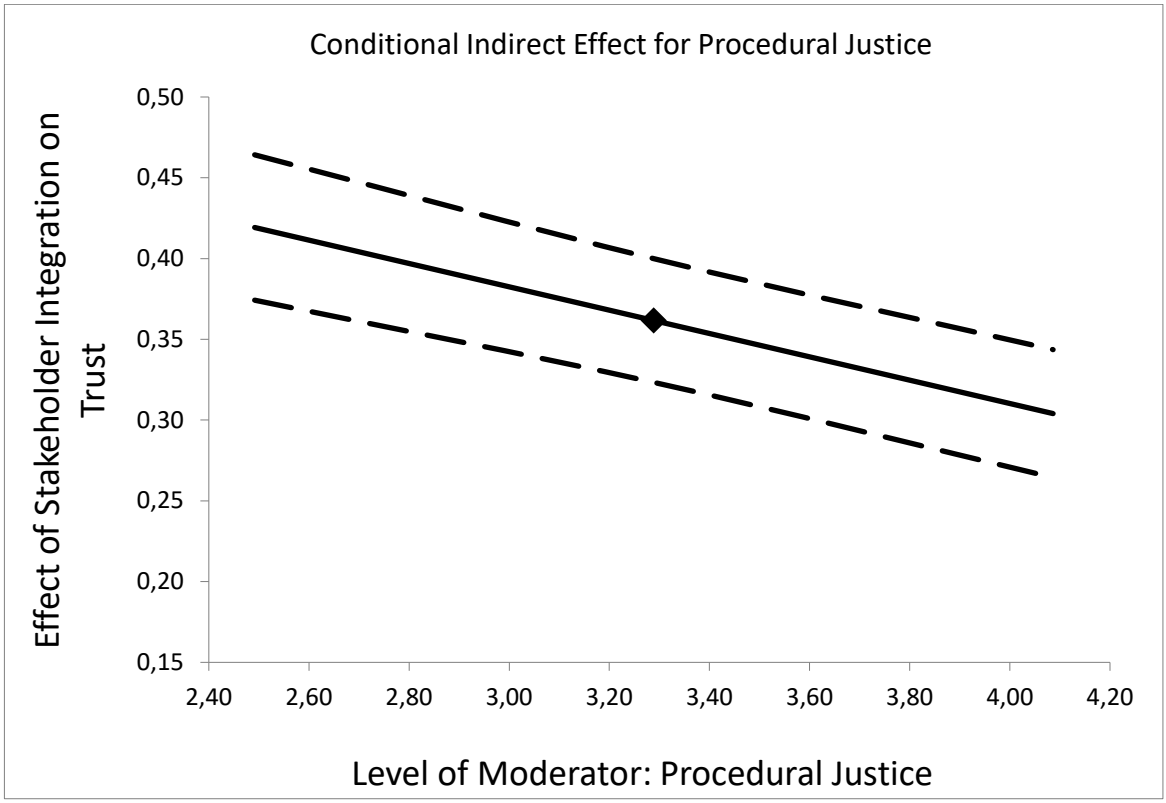
Procedural Justice (W)	Effect	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap CI
2.49 (low)	0.31	0.22 to 0.41
3.29 (medium)	0.27	0.19 to 0.36
4.09 (high)	0.22	0.15 to 0.31

Note. N = 354. The conditional indirect effects were probed at the mean and ±1 SD from the mean of Procedural Justice.

Source: Developed for this research

Hypothesis 5a) suggested that the relationship between stakeholder integration and trust would be mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO and that the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness is contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation. This first stage conditional indirect effect was significant (Table 37, Table 48, and Figure 23). Hypothesis 5a) further stated that a positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and trust (through perceived trustworthiness) would be anticipated when procedural justice was high. Per Table 48 and Figure 23, the effect of stakeholder integration on trust mediated by trustworthiness was less when procedural justice was high. Thus, hypothesis 5a) was not fully supported.

Figure 23 Visual representation of the conditional indirect effect of stakeholder integration on trust as a function of procedural justice.

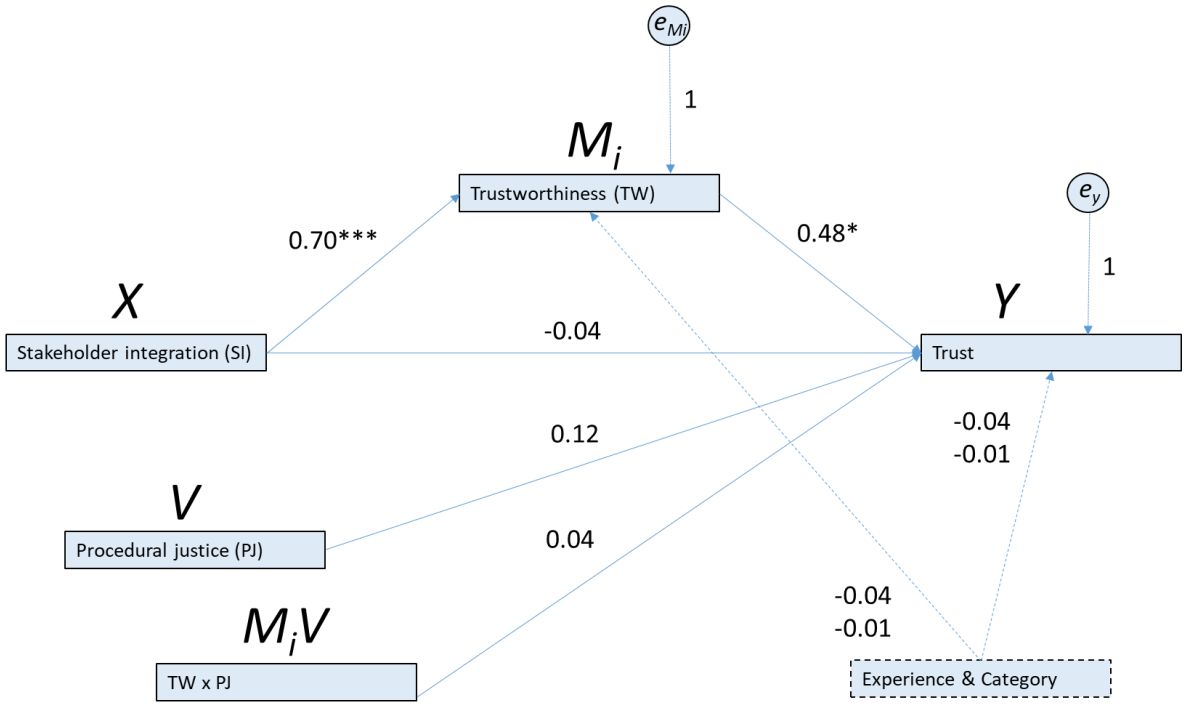


Source: Developed for this research

4.5.13.5 Second stage conditional indirect effect of stakeholder integration on trust

The second stage conditional indirect effect of stakeholder integration on trust moderated by procedural justice was calculated. Results from the study are shown using *Model 14* by Hayes (2013) (Figure 24). There was no significant direct effect of stakeholder integration on trust (b = - 0.04, $t(350)$ = - 0.45, p = 0.65) when trustworthiness and procedural justice were held constant. There was a conditional indirect effect at three values of procedural justice: one standard deviation below the mean (2.49), the mean (3.29), and one standard deviation above the mean (4.09) as seen in Figure 25 and Table 50.

Figure 24 Statistical model of second stage conditional indirect effect



Source: Developed for this research based on Model 14 by Hayes (2013)

Table 49 Test of the second stage moderated mediation (Model 14) of stakeholder integration on trust

Outcome	Trustworthiness		Trust	
Predictors	Coeff. (b)	*p*	Coeff. (b)	*p*
Intercept	1.63	<0.001	1.05	0.10
Trustworthiness (TW)	-	-	0.48	<0.05
Stakeholder Integration (SI)	0.70	<0.001	-0.04	0.65
Procedural Justice (PJ)	-	-	0.12	0.55
TW x PJ	-		0.04	0.44
Experience (control variable)	-0.04	0.24	-0.04	0.48
Category (control variable)	-0.01	0.21	-0.01	0.37
Model R^2	0.68	<0.001	0.46	<0.001

Note: N = 354

Source: Developed for this research

Figure 25 Visual representation of the conditional indirect effect of trustworthiness on trust as a function of procedural justice.

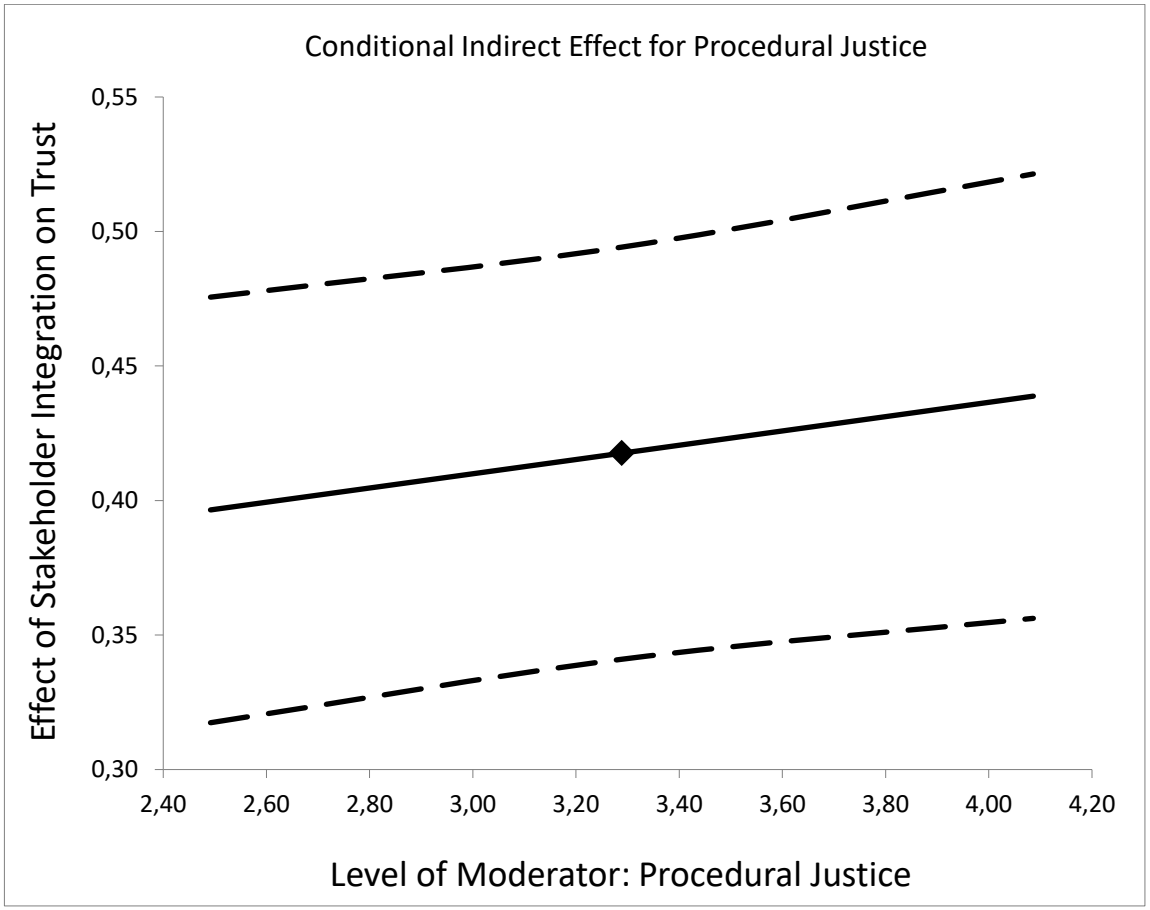


Table 50 Test of second stage conditional indirect of stakeholder integration on trust

Conditional Indirect Effect on Trust (Model 14)

Procedural Justice (W)	Effect	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap CI
2.49 (low)	0.40	0.24 to 0.55
3.29 (medium)	0.42	0.27 to 0.57
4.09 (high)	0.44	0.28 to 0.61

Note. *N* = 354. The conditional indirect effects are probed at the mean and plus/minus one SD from the mean of procedural justice.

Source: Developed for this research

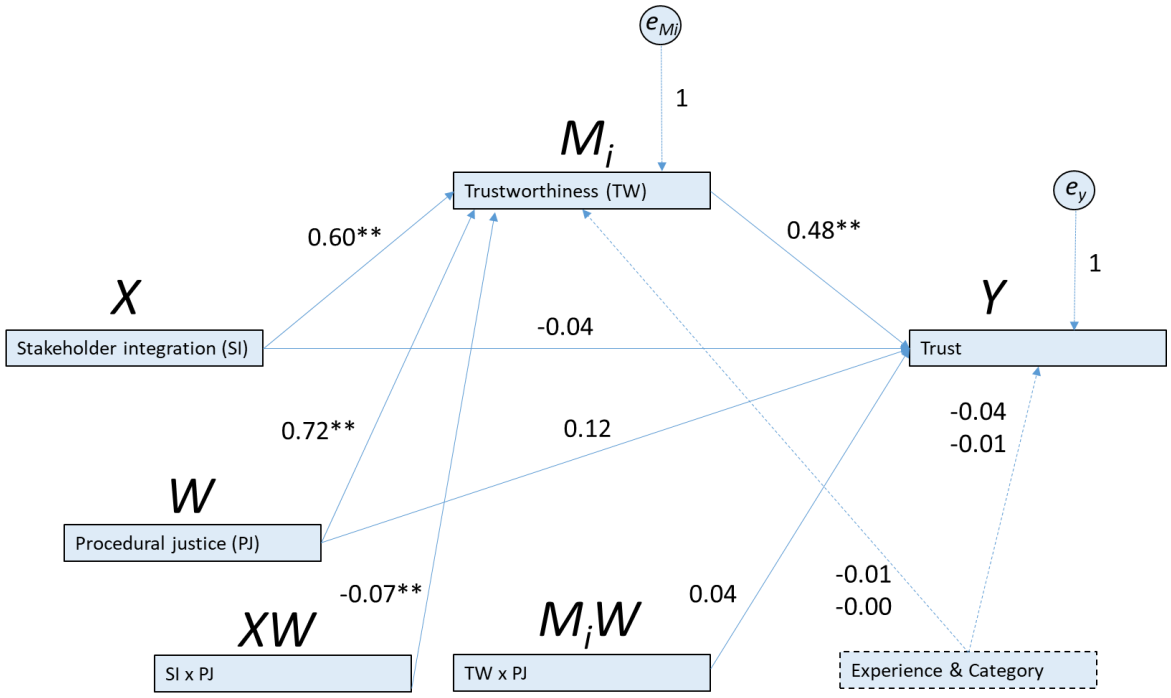
The conditional indirect effect related to the indirect (mediated by trustworthiness) relationship between stakeholder integration and trust at conditional values of procedural justice (moderator). As the CI did not contain zero (see Table 50), these effects were significant.

Hypothesis 5b) posited that the relationship between stakeholder integration and trust would be mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO and that the relationship between trustworthiness and trust is contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation. Hypothesis 5b) further stated that a positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and trust (through perceived trustworthiness) would be anticipated when procedural justice was high. As seen in Table 50, there was a significant contingent effect. The effect of stakeholder integration on trust mediated through trustworthiness was higher with higher levels of procedural justice, supporting hypothesis 5b).

4.5.13.6 First and second stage conditional indirect effect combined

In the last step, Model 58 of Hayes (2013) was calculated using trust as the dependent variable. For a better overview, the statistical model with the unstandardised coefficients, (b) indicated has been presented in Figure 26. The overall model for *trustworthiness* as an outcome (see Figure 26 or Table 51) was highly significant $F(5,348) = 284.38$, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.79$. Stakeholder integration was positively associated with trustworthiness ($b = 0.60$, $t(348) = 6.66$, $p < .0001$), as was procedural justice ($b = 0.72$, $t(348) = 9.54$, $p < 0.001$). Further, interaction 1 (stakeholder integration x procedural justice) was significant ($b = -0.07$, $t(348) = -3.24$, $p < 0.01$).

Figure 26 Statistical model of first and second stage conditional indirect effect



Source: Adapted for this research based on Model 58 by Hayes (2013)

Table 51 Test of double moderated mediation of stakeholder integration on trust

Outcome	Trustworthiness		Trust	
Predictors	Coeff. (b)	*p*	Coeff. (b)	*p*
Intercept	0.12	0.64	1.05	0.06
Trustworthiness (TW)	-	-	0.48	<0.05
Stakeholder Integration (SI)	0.60	<0.001	-0.04	0.62
Procedural Justice (PJ)	0.72	<0.001	0.12	0.50
SI x PJ (Interaction 1)	-0.07	<0.01	-	-
Experience (control variable)	-0.01	0.69	-0.04	0.40
Category (control variable)	-0.00	0.78	-0.01	0.41
TW x PJ (Interaction 2)	-	-	0.04	0.41
Model R^2	0.79	<0.001	0.46	<0.001

Note: N = 354

Source: Adapted for this research based on Model 58 by Hayes (2013)

The model for *trust* as an outcome (Figure 26, Table 51) was also highly significant $F(6,347) = 49.84$, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.46$. Trustworthiness was positively associated with trust ($b = 0.48$, $t(347) = 2.89$, $p < 0.05$). Stakeholder integration did not have a significant direct effect on trust ($b = -0.04$, $t(347) = -0.49$, $p = 0.62$. Neither did procedural justice ($b = 0.12$, $t(347) = 0.68$, $p = 0.50$). The interaction term 2 was not significant: ($b = 0.04$, $t(347) = -0.85$, $p = 0.41$). However, as can be seen in Table 52, even though the interaction term was not significant, there was a conditional indirect effect based on the CI not including zero (Hayes 2017) (Table 52).

Table 52 Test of second stage conditional indirect effect of stakeholder integration on trust

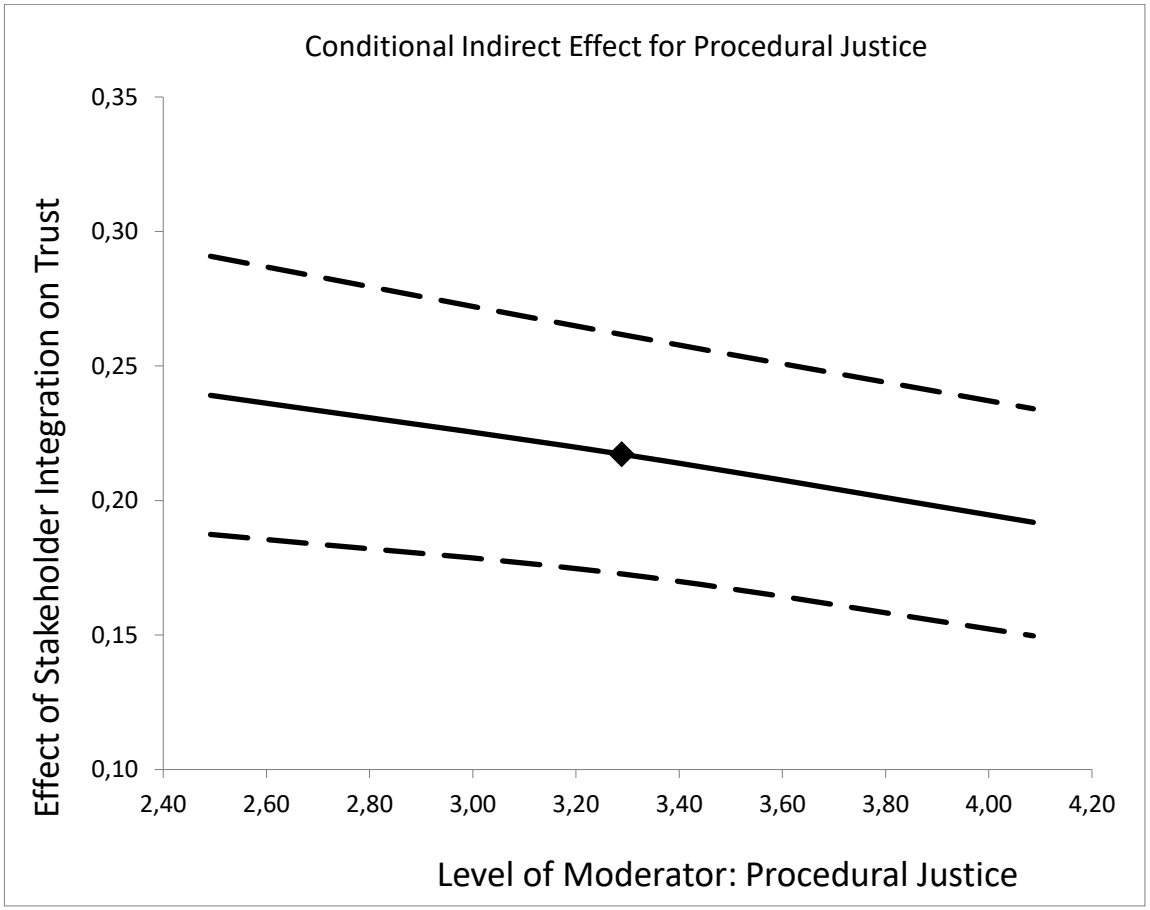
Conditional Indirect Effect on Trust (Model 58)		
Procedural Justice (W)	Effect	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap CI
2.49 (low)	0.24	0.14 to 0.35
3.29 (medium)	0.22	0.13 to 0.31
4.09 (high)	0.19	0.12 to 0.28

Note. $N = 354$. The conditional indirect effects were probed at the mean and ±1 SD from the mean of procedural justice.

Source: Developed for this research

According to Hayes (2017), if the interaction term is not significant, it does not necessarily mean that there is no conditional effect as long as the CI of values of the moderator that lie within the data do not include 0. Figure 27 visualizes the conditional indirect effect of procedural justice when stakeholder integration transmits its effect through trustworthiness on trust. The effect of stakeholder integration on trustworthiness as well as the effect of trustworthiness on trust is moderated by procedural justice. The moderation effect of procedural justice changed from a positive effect when looking at the extent to which procedural justice moderates the effect of trustworthiness on trust (Table 44) to a negative effect when the first stage moderator was added in the context of the conditional process analysis (Table 52).

Figure 27 Visual representation of the conditional indirect effect of stakeholder integration on trust as a function of procedural justice.



Hypothesis 5c) proposed that the relationship between stakeholder integration and trust would be mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO and both relationships were contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation. Both conditional indirect effects were significant (Figure 27, Table 52). Hypothesis 5c) also made the point that a positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and trust (through perceived trustworthiness) was anticipated when procedural justice was high. As shown in Figure 27 and Table 52, the effect of stakeholder integration on trustworthiness and the effect of trustworthiness on trust was less when procedural justice was high. Thus, hypothesis 5c) was not fully supported.

Hypothesis 6a) stated that stakeholder integration would be positively related to stakeholder's trust in the LTO. Per Table 51, there was no significant direct effect of

stakeholder integration on LTO trust when everything else was held constant and, as a result, hypothesis 6a) was not supported.

Hypothesis 6a) stated that stakeholder integration would be positively related to stakeholder's trust in the LTO. Per Table 51, there was no significant direct effect of stakeholder integration on LTO trust when everything else was held constant. Thus, hypothesis 6a) was not supported.

4.5.14 Process analysis– dependent variable "Efficiency"

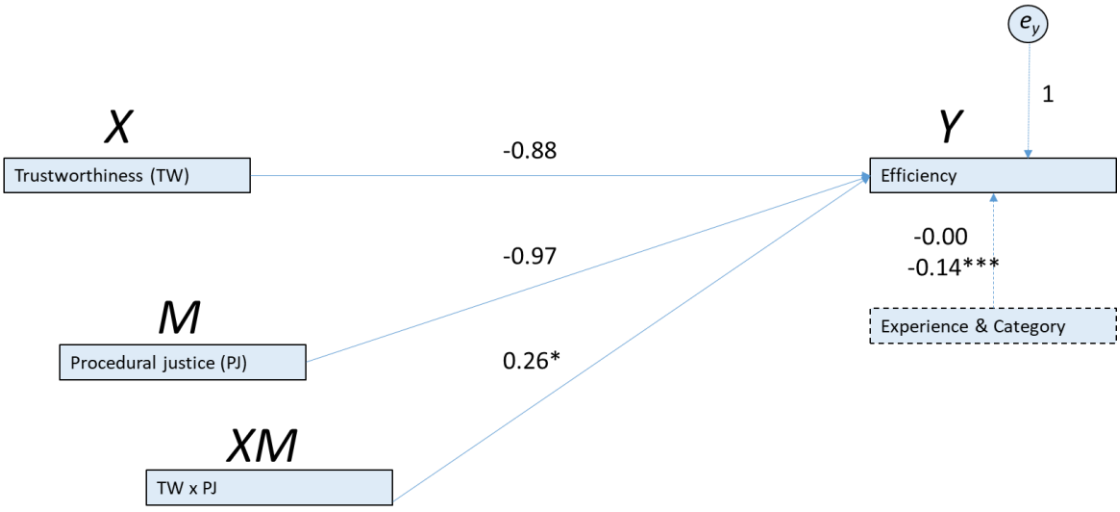
As in the preceding subsection, the isolated elements of the model were tested before the entire model was presented. Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) was applied to calculate the output-oriented efficiency coefficients with constant returns to scale (CRS) to measure efficiency (Zhu 2003). The table of the efficiency coefficients is found in Appendix 2, Table 100.

4.5.14.1 Second stage moderation effect of procedural justice

Trustworthiness, as well as the interaction of trustworthiness and procedural justice, did not have a significant effect on efficiency (Figure 28). Only the hotel category showed a significantly negative coefficient, which suggested that hotels with fewer stars tended to be more efficient than hotels with more stars (Table 53).

Moderation was not found to be significant because the confidence interval contained zero, even though the interaction term was significant ($b = 0.26$, $t(106) = 2.06$, $p < 0.05$) (Table 54). The conditional effects of trustworthiness on efficiency at the different values of procedural justice could not be properly interpreted. The R2-change of 0.03 was significant ($F(106) = 4.25$, $p < 0.05$).

Figure 28 Statistical model of the second stage moderation effect



Source: Adapted for this research base on Model 1 by Hayes (2013)

Table 53 Second stage moderation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between trustworthiness and efficiency

Outcome	Efficiency	
Predictors	Coeff. (b)	*p*
Intercept	6.21	<0.001
Procedural Justice	-0.97	0.09
Trustworthiness	-0.88	0.06
TW x PJ	0.26	<0.05
Experience	-0.00	0.97
Category	-0.14	<0.001
Model R^2	0.19	<0.001

Source: Developed for this research

Table 54 Test of conditional effect of trustworthiness on efficiency

Conditional Effect on Efficiency		
Procedural Justice (W)	Effect	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap CI
2.55 (low)	-0.22	-0.80 to 0.36
3.22 (medium)	-0.05	-0.62 to 0.53
3.90 (high)	0.13	-0.50 to 0.75

Note. N = 112. The conditional direct and indirect effects were probed at the mean and ±1 SD from the mean of procedural justice.

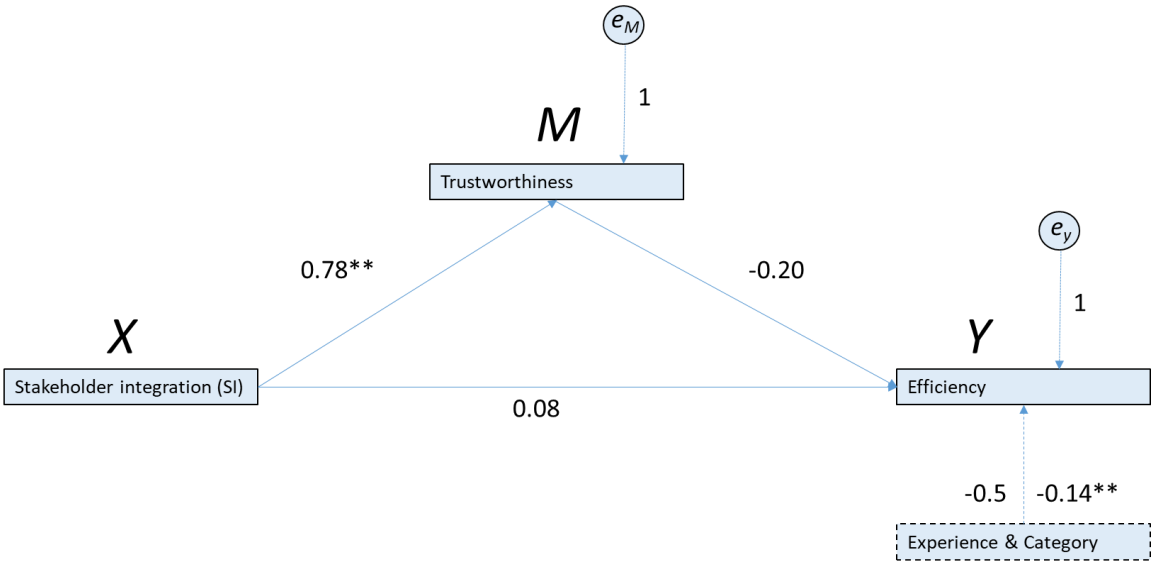
Source: Developed for this research

Hypothesis 4c) said that procedural justice would moderate the positive relationship between perceived organisational trustworthiness and efficiency, such that when procedural justice was more or less developed, the relationship between perceived organisational trustworthiness and efficiency would correspondingly be stronger or weaker. This hypothesis could not be supported as the CI of the conditional effects contained 0.

4.5.14.2 Mediation effect of trustworthiness on efficiency

The simple mediation analysis using ordinary least squares path analysis showed that stakeholder integration did not indirectly influence efficiency through its effect on trustworthiness. Therefore, hypothesis 6b) was not supported. According to Figure 29 and Table 55, hotels that reported a higher value on stakeholder integration perceived the LTO as more trustworthy (b = 0.78, t(108) = 14.29, p < 0.001) while the hotels who perceived the LTO as more trustworthy did not show a significant effect on efficiency (b = - 0.20, t(107) = - 0.84, p = 0.40).

Figure 29 Statistical model of mediation effect



Source: Adapted for this research based on Model 4 by Hayes (2013)

Table 55 Mediation effect model for efficiency as an outcome

Outcome	Trustworthiness		Efficiency	
Predictors	Coeff. (b)	*p*	Coeff. (b)	*p*
Intercept	1.40	<0.001	3.67	<0.001
Stakeholder Integration	0.78	<0.001	0.08	0.74
Trustworthiness	-	-	-0.20	0.40
Experience	-0.43	0.36	-0.05	0.68
Category	-0.01	0.57	-0.14	<0.001
Model R^2	0.73	<0.001	0.16	<0.001

Source: Developed for this research

A bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect effect (b = -0.16) based on 10,000 bootstrap samples included zero (-0.64 to 0.30) was not significant (Table 56). There also was no evidence showing that stakeholder integration influenced efficiency independent of its effect on trustworthiness either (b = 0.08, $t(107)$ = 0.33, p = 0.74).

Hypothesis 2b) posited that perceived organisational trustworthiness would be positively related to LTO efficiency. This could not be supported based on the findings in Table 55, as the association did not reach the required significance level (p > 0.05). Hypothesis 3b),

which posited that the relationship between stakeholder integration and LTO efficiency would be fully mediated by perceived organisational trustworthiness, could not be supported as shown in Table 56 due to not finding significant indirect effect. However, even though not hypothesised, there was a significant serial moderation effect between stakeholder integration and efficiency through trustworthiness and trust per section 4.5.14.3.

Table 56 Mediation analysis of trustworthiness mediating stakeholder integration and efficiency

Indirect effect of stakeholder integration on efficiency

Effect (Trustworthiness)	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap SE	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap CI
-0.16	0.24	-0.64 to 0.30

Direct effect of stakeholder integration on efficiency

Effect	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap SE	*t*	*p*	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap CI
0.08	0.23	0.33	0.74	-0.38 to 0.54

Total effect of stakeholder integration on efficiency

Effect	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap SE	*t*	*p*	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap CI
-0.08	0.14	-0.59	0.56	-0.35 to 0.19

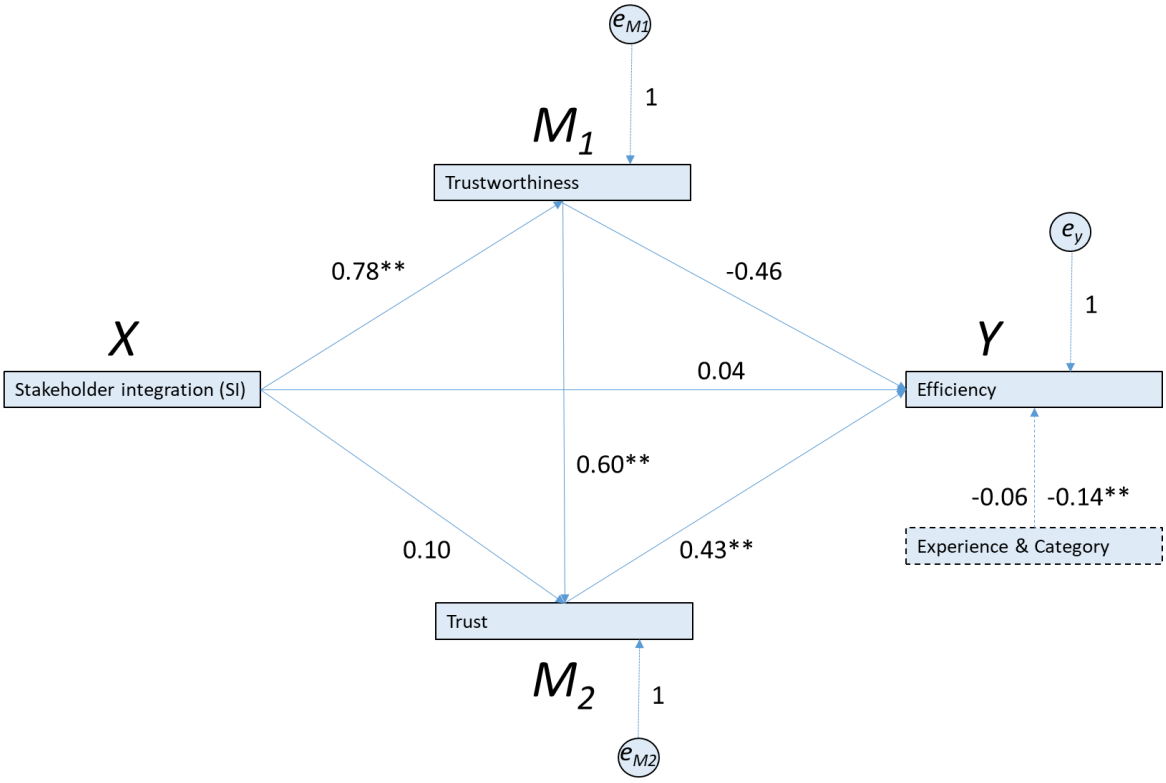
Source: Developed for this research

4.5.14.3 Serial mediation effect of trustworthiness and trust on efficiency

This serial multiple mediator model contained two mediators: trustworthiness (M_1) and trust (M_2). The analysis showed that stakeholder integration indirectly influenced efficiency through trustworthiness and trust. According to Figure 30 and Table 57, LTOs

were perceived as more trustworthy at destinations where hotels reported a higher value on stakeholder integration (b = 0.78, t(108) = 14.29, p < 0.001). However, destinations where hotels perceived the LTO to be more trustworthy did not show significantly higher or lower efficiency (b = - 0.46, t(106) = - 1.86, p = 0.07). The LTO was trusted more at destinations where hotels reported a higher value on stakeholder integration, but this association was not found to be statistically significant (b = 0.10, t(107) = 0.60, p = 0.55). Destinations where hotels perceived the LTO as trustworthy demonstrated a significant level of higher trust in their LTO (b = 0.60, t(107) = 3.61, p < 0.01) and also showed a significant level of higher efficiency (b = 0.43, t(106) = 3.16, p < 0.01).

Figure 30 Statistical model of serial mediation effect



Source: Adapted for this research based on Model 6 by Hayes (2013)

Table 57 Serial mediation model: trustworthiness and trust mediating the relationship between stakeholder integration and efficiency

Outcome	Trustworthiness		Trust		Efficiency	
Predictors	Coeff. (b)	*p*	Coeff. (b)	*p*	Coeff. (b)	*p*
Intercept	1.40	<0.001	0.92	<0.01	3.27	<0.001
Stakeholder Int.	0.78	<0.001	0.10	0.55	0.04	0.87
Trustworthiness	-	-	0.60	<0.001	-0.46	0.07
Trust	-	-	-	-	0.43	<0.01
Experience	-0.04	0.36	0.02	0.85	-0.06	0.63
Category	-0.01	0.57	0.01	0.77	-0.14	<0.001
Model R^2	0.73	<0.001	0.39	<0.001	0.23	<0.001

Source: Developed for this research

The specific indirect effect of stakeholder integration on efficiency through trustworthiness and trust in serial mediation, with trustworthiness modelled as affecting trust, which in turn influenced efficiency, was estimated at $b = 0.20$, with a bootstrapped standard error of 0.09. This effect was significantly positive based on the bootstrap confidence interval being above zero (0.05 to 0.41). Results reported in Table 58 show destinations where hotels reported a higher level of stakeholder integration perceived the LTO as more trustworthy and therefore more willing to trust the LTO. This, in turn, led to increased efficiency of the hotels at those destinations.

Table 58 Indirect effects of stakeholder integration on efficiency

	Coeff. (b)	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap SE	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap CI
Total	-0.12	0.23	-0.56 to 0.31
Ind1	-0.36	0.25	-0.86 to 0.11
Ind2	0.04	0.09	-0.12 to 0.23
Ind3	0.20	0.09	0.05 to 0.41

Indirect effect key:

Ind1: Stakeholder integration – trustworthiness – efficiency

Ind2: Stakeholder integration – trust – efficiency

Ind3: Stakeholder integration – trustworthiness – trust – efficiency

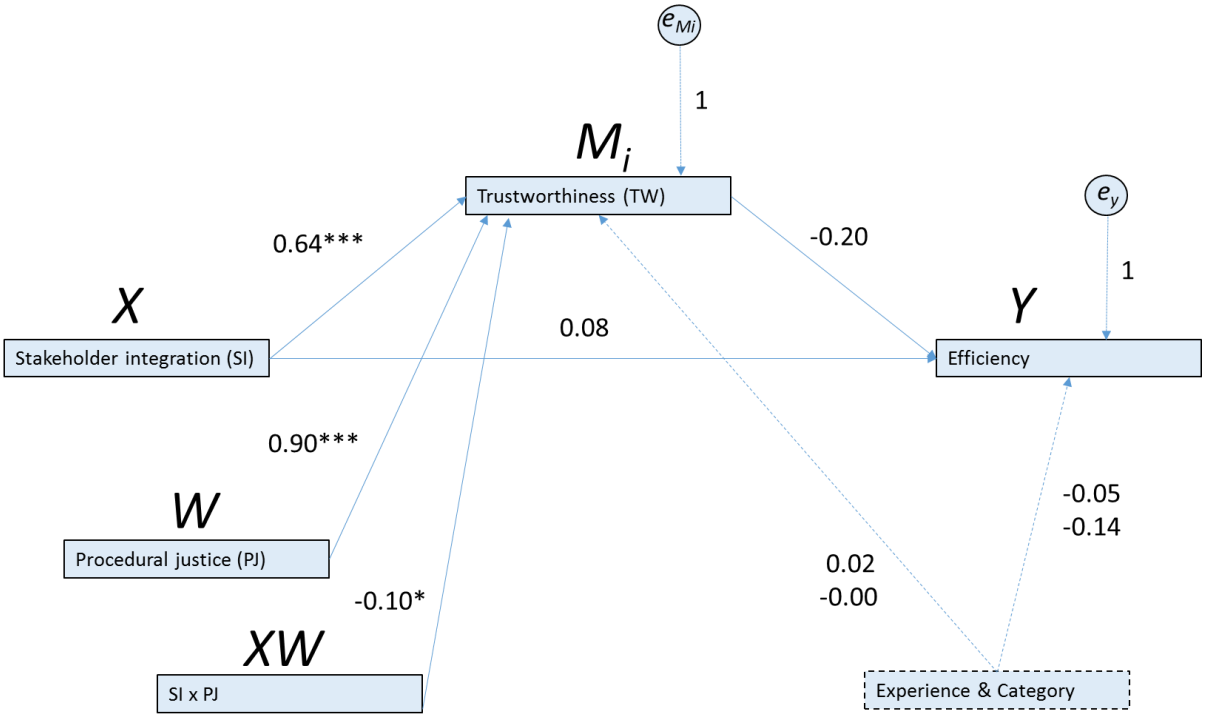
Note: $N = 112$

Source: Developed for this research.

4.5.14.4 First stage conditional indirect effect

The first stage conditional indirect effect of stakeholder integration on efficiency moderated by procedural justice was assessed at this point based on (2013) Model 7 (Figure 31). No significant direct effect of stakeholder integration on efficiency b = 0.08, t(107) = 0.33, p = 0.74 was found when trustworthiness and procedural justice were held constant (Table 59). No conditional indirect effects were noted for the three values of procedural justice based on one standard deviation below the mean (2.55), the mean (3.23), and one standard deviation above the mean (3.90). The conditional indirect effect related to the indirect (mediated by trustworthiness) relationship between stakeholder integration and efficiency at conditional values of procedural justice (moderator).

Figure 31 Statistical model of first stage conditional indirect effect



Source: Adapted for this research based on Model 7 by Hayes (2013)

Table 59 Test of moderated mediation (Model 7) of stakeholder integration on efficiency

Outcome	Trustworthiness		Efficiency	
Predictors	Coeff. (b)	*p*	Coeff. (b)	*p*
Intercept	-0.30	0.39	3.67	<0.001
Trustworthiness (TW)	-	-	-0.20	0.40
Stakeholder Integration (SI)	0.64	<0.001	0.08	0.74
Procedural Justice (PJ)	0.90	<0.001	-	-
SI x PJ (Interaction 1)	-0.10	<0.05	-	-
Experience	-0.02	0.51	-0.05	0.68
Category	-0.00	0.90	-0.14	<0.001
Model R^2	0.85	<0.001	0.16	<0.001

Note: N = 112

Source: Developed for this research

Table 60 showed that because the confidence interval contained zero at all levels of procedural justice, the indirect relationship between stakeholder integration and efficiency was not significant. The index of moderated mediation (0.02, 95% CI = - 0.03 to 0.11) was not significantly different from zero as the CIs contained zero as well.

Table 60 Test of the conditional indirect effect of stakeholder integration on efficiency

Conditional Indirect Effect on Efficiency (Model 7)

Procedural Justice (W)	Effect	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap CI
2.55 (low)	-0.08	-0.36 to 0.14
3.23 (medium)	-0.07	-0.31 to 0.12
3.90 (high)	-0.05	-0.26 to 0.10

Note. N = 112. The conditional indirect effects were probed at the mean and ±1 SD from the mean of procedural justice.

Source: Developed for this research

Hypothesis 5d) indicated that the relationship between stakeholder integration and efficiency would be mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO and the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness is contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation. This first stage conditional indirect effect was not significant (Table 60).

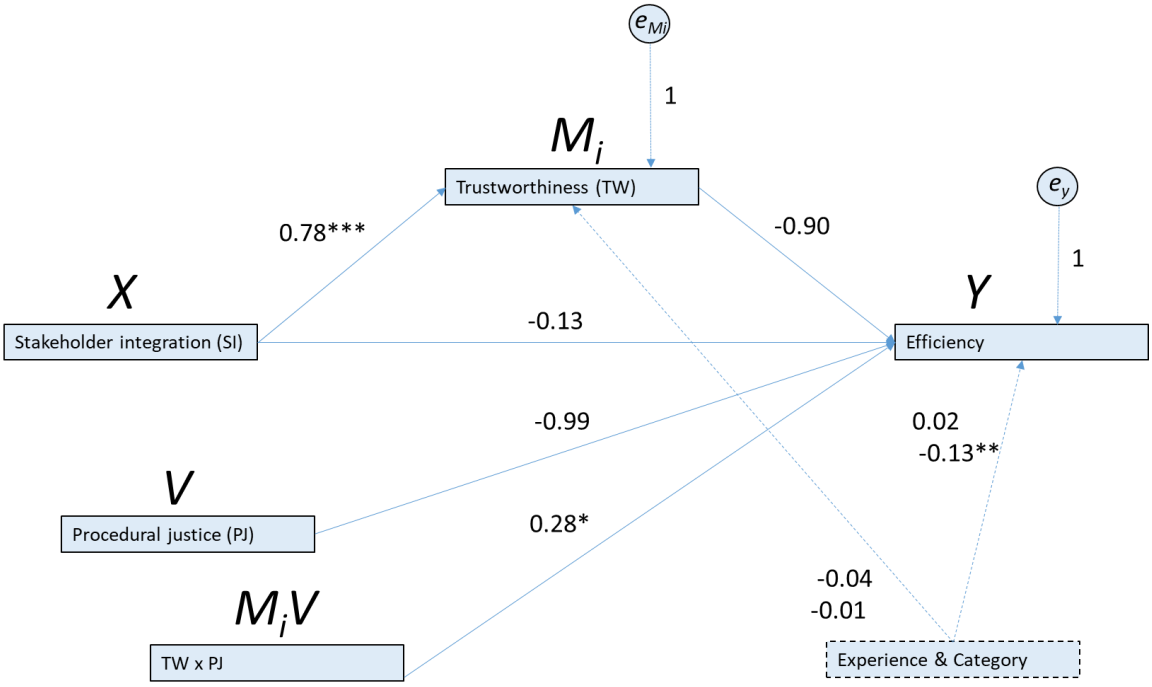
Hypothesis 5d) also stated that a positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and efficiency (through perceived trustworthiness) was anticipated when procedural justice was high. As seen in Table 60, the effect of stakeholder integration on efficiency mediated by trustworthiness was not significant therefore, hypothesis 5d) was not supported.

4.5.14.5 Second stage conditional indirect effect

Figure 32 shows the conditional indirect effect of stakeholder integration on efficiency and the second stage moderation by procedural justice was evaluated in accordance with Model 14 generated by Hayes (2013). There was no significant direct effect of stakeholder

integration on efficiency (b = - 0.13, $t(105)$ = -0.47, p = 0.64) when trustworthiness and procedural justice were held constant. There was no conditional indirect effect at three values of procedural justice: one standard deviation below the mean (2.55), the mean (3.23), and one standard deviation above the mean (3.90).

Figure 32 Statistical model of second stage conditional indirect effect



Source: Adapted for this research based on Model 14 by Hayes (2013)

Table 61 Test of moderated mediation (Model 14) of stakeholder integration on efficiency

Outcome	Trustworthiness		Efficiency	
Predictors	Coeff. (b)	*p*	Coeff. (b)	*p*
Intercept	1.40	<0.001	6.34	<0.01
Trustworthiness (TW)	-	-	-0.90	0.05
Stakeholder Integration (SI)	0.78	<0.001	-0.13	0.64
Procedural Justice (PJ)	-	-	-0.99	0.08
TW x PJ	-	-	0.28	<0.05
Experience (control variable)	-0.04	0.36	0.02	0.86
Category (control variable)	-0.01	0.57	-0.13	<0.001
Model R^2	0.73	<0.001	0.19	<0.001

Note: $N = 112$

Source: Developed for this research

Table 62 Test of the conditional indirect effect of trustworthiness on efficiency

Conditional Indirect Effect on Efficiency (Model 14)

Procedural Justice (W)	Effect	95% Bias-Corrected Bootstrap CI
2.55(low)	-0.14	-0.64 to 0.46
3.23 (medium)	0.01	-0.51 to 0.65
3.90 (high)	0.16	-0.45 to 0.87

Note. $N = 112$. The conditional indirect effects were probed at the mean and ±1 SD from the mean of Procedural Justice. Source: Developed for this research.

The interaction term was significant ($b = 0.28$, $t(105) = 2.08$, $p < 0.05$) and so was the index of moderated mediation (0.22, 95% CI, 0.02 to 0.53). However, the indirect effect of stakeholder integration on efficiency could not be interpreted because the CI of the conditional indirect effects all contained 0.

Hypothesis 5e) argued that the relationship between stakeholder integration and efficiency would be mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO

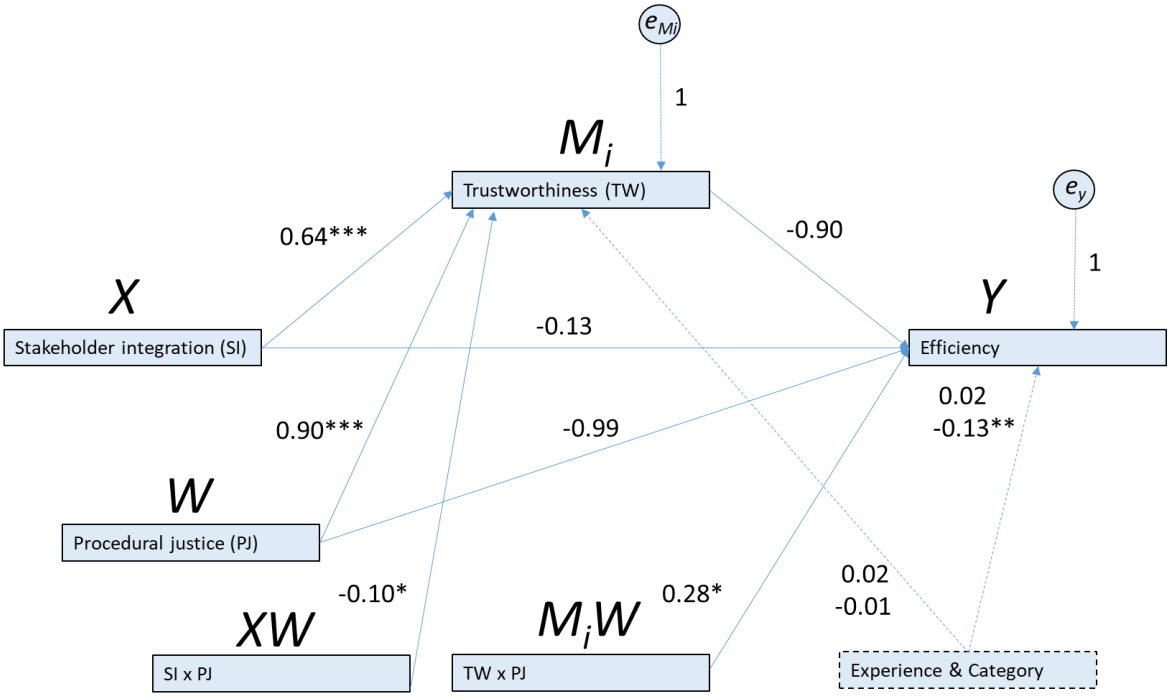
and the relationship between trustworthiness and efficiency is contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation. This second stage conditional indirect effect was not significant (Table 62).

Hypothesis 5e) further stated that a positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and efficiency (through perceived trustworthiness) was anticipated when procedural justice was high. The effect of stakeholder integration on efficiency mediated by trustworthiness was not significant (Table 62). As a result, hypothesis 5e) was not supported.

4.5.14.6 First and second stage conditional indirect effect combined

As in the last step in the study, Model 58 of Hayes (2013) was calculated using efficiency as the dependent variable. Figure 33 provides an overview of the statistical model with the unstandardised coefficients (b) and the results found from the analysis.

Figure 33 Statistical model of first and second stage conditional indirect effect



Source: Adapted for this research based on Model of 58 by Hayes (2013)

Table 63 Test of moderated mediation of stakeholder integration on efficiency

Outcome	Trustworthiness		Efficiency	
Predictors	Coeff. (b)	*p*	Coeff. (b)	*p*
Intercept	-0.30	0.39	6.34	<0.001
Trustworthiness (TW)	-	-	-0.90	0.05
Stakeholder Integration (SI)	0.64	<0.001	-0.13	0.64
Procedural Justice (PJ)	0.90	<0.001	-0.99	0.08
SI x PJ (Interaction 1)	-0.10	<0.05	-	-
Experience	-0.02	0.51	0.02	0.86
Category	-0.00	0.90	-0.13	<0.001
TW x PJ (Interaction 2)	-	-	0.28	<0.05
Model R^2	0.85	<0.001	0.19	<0.001

Note: $N = 112$

Source: Developed for this research

The overall model for *trustworthiness* as an outcome (Figure 33, Table 63) was highly significant $F(5,106) = 116.20$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = 0.85$. Stakeholder integration was positively associated with trustworthiness ($b = 0.64$, $t(106) = 3.94$, $p < 0.001$) and so was procedural justice ($b = 0.90$, $t(106) = 7.34$, $p < 0.001$). In addition, interaction 1 (stakeholder integration x procedural justice) was significant ($b = -0.10$, $t(106) = -2.53$, $p < 0.05$).

The model for *efficiency* as an outcome (Figure 33, Table 63) was also highly significant $F(6,105) = 4.20$, $p < 0.001$, $R^2 = 0.19$. Trustworthiness was found not to be significantly associated with efficiency ($b = -0.90$, $t(105) = -1.95$, $p = 0.05$). Moreover, stakeholder integration did not have a significant direct effect on efficiency ($b = - 0.13$, $t(105) = - 0.47$, $p = 0.64$). Neither did procedural justice ($b = - 0.99$, $t(105) = - 1.77$, $p = 0.08$). The interaction term 2 was significant ($b = 0.28$, $t(105) = 2.08$, $p < 0.05$). The moderation effect of procedural justice on the relationship between stakeholder integration on efficiency mediated by trustworthiness was not significant (Table 64).

Table 64 Test of the conditional indirect effect of stakeholder integration on efficiency through trustworthiness and moderated by procedural justice

Conditional Indirect Effect on efficiency (Model 58)

Procedural Justice (W)	Effect	95% Corrected Bootstrap CI	Bias-
2.55 (low)	-0.07	-0.38 to 0.19	
3.23 (medium)	0.01	-0.25 to 0.25	
3.90 (high)	0.05	-0.16 to 0.30	

Note. *N* = 112. The conditional indirect effects were probed at the mean and plus/minus one SD from the mean of procedural justice.

Source: Developed for this research

The conditional indirect effect at three values of procedural justice: one standard deviation below the mean (2.55), the mean (3.23), and one standard deviation above the mean (3.90) was not significant as the confidence interval did contain zero (Table 64). Hypothesis 5f) indicated that the relationship between stakeholder integration and efficiency would be mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO and both relationships were contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation. As seen in Table 64, hypothesis 5f) was not supported. Hypothesis 5f) also stated that a positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and efficiency (through perceived trustworthiness) was anticipated when procedural justice was high. Table 64 shows none of the effects were significant. Therefore, this hypothesis was not supported.

4.5.15 Dimension analysis

The explorative factor analysis did not show evidence of stakeholder integration and trustworthiness being a three-dimensional construct (Table 65). For both constructs, only one dimension had an eigenvalue larger than 1. Nevertheless, the results of the confirmatory factor analysis supported the three-dimensionality of the construct. As a result, it is worthwhile to focus on the relationships between the dimensions of the two constructs to develop a clearer picture of how they were interrelated.

Table 65 Regression analysis on a dimensional level

Outcome	Trustworthiness		Ability		Benevolence		Integrity	
Predictors	Beta	*p*	Beta	*p*	Beta	*p*	Beta	*p*
Knowledge	0.37	<0.001	0.31	<0.001	0.34	<0.001	0.31	<0.001
Interaction	0.11	>0.05	0.08	>0.05	0.08	>0.05	0.14	>0.05
Adaptational	0.37	<0.001	0.31	<0.001	0.50	<0.001	0.12	>0.05
Experience	0.07+	<0.10	0.12	<0.01	0.01	>0.05	0.05	>0.05
Category	-0.05	>0.05	-0.07	<0.10	-0.03	>0.05	-0.04	>0.05
Model R^2	0.69	<0.001	0.53	<0.001	0.75	<0.001	0.33	<0.001

Note: $N = 354$

Source: Developed for this research

Knowledge of the destination stakeholders, their demands and adaptational behaviour had a significant positive effect on the perceived organisational trustworthiness. However, the interaction with stakeholders did not show to have any significant positive impact on perceived organisational trustworthiness. The analysis of ability and the benevolence dimension as the independent variables revealed the same pattern: Knowledge and adaptational behaviour were significantly positively related to ability and benevolence. Interaction with stakeholders was not significantly associated with both. Only the knowledge dimension was significant and positively connected when the integrity dimension was regressed on the three dimensions of the stakeholder integration construct.

Trust and efficiency were regressed on the three dimensions of the perceived organisational trustworthiness construct (Table 66). Results indicated all three dimensions of perceived organisational trustworthiness were significant and positively associated with trust. Ability had the largest impact on creating trust among the destination stakeholders; yet, no trustworthiness dimension had a significant impact on efficiency. The control variable hotel category was highly significantly and negatively associated with efficiency. According to the results, hotels with fewer stars tended to be more efficient than upper- and high-class hotels.

Table 66 Regression analysis on a dimensional level

Outcome	Trust		Efficiency	
Predictors	Beta	*p*	Beta	*p*
Ability	0.35	<0.001	-0.19	>0.05
Benevolence	0.21	<0.001	0.07	>0.05
Integrity	0.17	<0.001	-0.01	>0.05
Experience	0.07	>0.05	-0.02	>0.05
Category	-0.06	>0.05	-0.39	<0.001
Model R^2	0.46	<0.001	0.13	<0.001
N =	354		112	

Note: *N* = 354

Source: Developed for this research

4.5.16 Summary of hypotheses

The analyses conducted as part of this study showed that the following hypotheses were fully supported:

H1) There is a positive relationship between stakeholder integration and perceived organisational trustworthiness

H2a) Perceived organisational trustworthiness is related positively to stakeholders' trust in the LTO.

H3a) The relationship between stakeholder integration and stakeholders' trust in the LTO is fully mediated by perceived organisational trustworthiness.

H4b) Procedural justice will moderate the positive relationship between perceived organisational trustworthiness and trust, such that when procedural justice is less/more developed, the relationship between perceived organisational trustworthiness and trust will be weaker/stronger.

H5b) The relationship between stakeholder integration and trust is mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO, and the relationship between trustworthiness and trust is contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted

by the focal organisation. Specifically, a positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and trust (through perceived trustworthiness) is anticipated when procedural justice is high.

Results from the study demonstrated that the following hypotheses were partially supported by the model:

H3b) The relationship between stakeholder integration and LTO efficiency is fully mediated by perceived organisational trustworthiness.

H4a) Procedural justice will moderate the positive relationship between stakeholder integration and perceived organisational trustworthiness, such that when procedural justice is less/more developed, the relationship between stakeholder integration and stakeholders' perceived trustworthiness of the LTO will be weaker/stronger.

H5a) The relationship between stakeholder integration and trust is mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO, and the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness is contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation. Specifically, a positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and trust (through perceived trustworthiness) is anticipated when procedural justice is high.

H5c) The relationship between stakeholder integration and trust is mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO, and both relationships are contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation. Specifically, a positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and trust (through perceived trustworthiness) is anticipated when procedural justice is high.

Findings from the analyses conducted revealed that the following hypotheses were not supported by the model:

H2b) Perceived organisational trustworthiness is related positively to LTO efficiency.

H4c) Procedural justice will moderate the positive relationship between perceived organisational trustworthiness and efficiency, such that when procedural justice is

less/more developed, the relationship between perceived organisational trustworthiness and efficiency will be weaker/stronger.

H5d) The relationship between stakeholder integration and efficiency is mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO, and the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness is contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation. Specifically, a positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and LTO efficiency (through perceived trustworthiness) is anticipated when procedural justice is high.

H5e) The relationship between stakeholder integration and efficiency is mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO and the relationship between trustworthiness and efficiency is contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation. Specifically, a positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and LTO efficiency (through perceived trustworthiness) is anticipated when procedural justice is high.

H5f) The relationship between stakeholder integration and efficiency is mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO, and both relationships are contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation. Specifically, a positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and LTO efficiency (through perceived trustworthiness) is anticipated when procedural justice is high.

4.6 Conclusion

Chapter 4 focused on the data analyses undertaken in this study. In the context of a pilot study, the measurement constructs were tested for validity and reliability. These findings consequently influenced the design of the measurement constructs, which were again tested for validity and reliability using the data from the main study. The collected data from the main study was screened to fulfil the assumptions underlying inferential statistical analyses and for potential bias. This was followed by descriptive statistics and the conditional process analysis to test the hypotheses.

Data for the dependent variable trust produced no outliers, although three cases were listwise deleted from the efficiency dataset. The data collected by the study fulfilled the

assumptions of normality, homoscedasticity, linearity, independence, and multi-collinearity. There was no bias due to non-response and common method in the trust dataset. Findings revealed that out of 14 hypotheses, 5 could be fully supported, 4 partially supported and 5 not supported at all.

In the next chapter, conclusions and implications based on the results from the study described in this chapter are discussed. This discussion frames the issues in relation to how this study contributes to the body of knowledge by building and expanding on prior research.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and implications

5.1 Introduction

This study investigated [1] if stakeholder integration has the potential to increase trust and efficiency at Swiss alpine destinations and [2] the role procedural justice plays in the relationships between LTOs and the hotels as stakeholders. The major finding from this research was that the concept of stakeholder integration is an important factor in creating trust among hotel stakeholders and LTOs. Another finding from the study showed that stakeholder integration even has the potential to substitute fairness considerations. In other words, stakeholders build trusting relationships with focal organisations when these give a voice to stakeholders and demonstrate they care about stakeholder needs. If this occurs, stakeholders do not consider procedural justice seems to be less important than stakeholder integration. Furthermore, a trusting relationship between the hotel stakeholders and LTOs leads to increased efficiency in terms of resource allocation results.

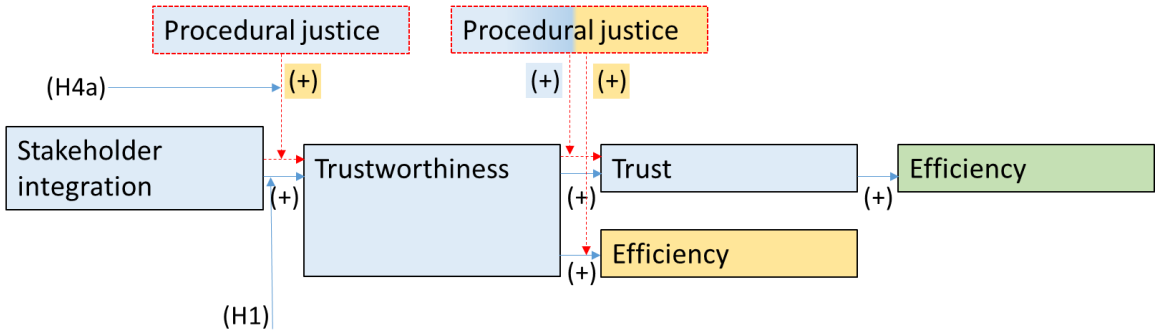
Discussed in this last chapter are the conclusions, contributions, implications, and limitations of the research findings. Each research issue is considered within the context of the relevant literature based on the relationships of stakeholder integration, organisational justice, and perceived organisational trustworthiness on trust, and efficiency amongst touristic destinations in the Alpine region of Switzerland and the hypotheses addressing these objectives. Conclusions about the research problem are provided, organised through a discussion of the study's hypotheses. The contributions this study makes to the body of knowledge are then proposed predicated on existing theory, policy, and practice. The chapter closes with the research limitations and suggestions for future research.

5.2 Conclusions per hypothesis

5.2.1 Hypotheses 1) and 4a): Relationship between stakeholder integration and perceived organisational trustworthiness and the role of procedural justice as a moderator

Hypotheses 1) and 4a) focused on the influence stakeholder integration had on perceived organisational trustworthiness and the moderation of this relationship through procedural justice, respectively (Figure 34). The yellow areas are parts of the conceptual model not supported by the empirical data. The yellow and blue box shows a part of the model partially supported by the findings while the green area is an addition to the model resulting from the results.

Figure 34 Conceptual model of this study depicting hypotheses 1) and 4a)



Source: Developed for this study.

Based on the literature examined in chapter 2, hypothesis 1) proposed a positive relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness. The study's results, as analysed in section 4.5.13 and 4.5.14 supported hypothesis 1). As a result, research question 1 (*What is the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness amongst hotels and LTOs at touristic Alpine destinations in Switzerland?*) can be answered as follows: Stakeholder integration signalled trustworthiness as stakeholders (hotels) who reported a higher level of integration through their respective LTO (the focal firm) also deemed the LTO to be more trustworthy, which contrasted with stakeholders who felt less integrated. This result supported the body of literature (Caldwell & Clapham

2003; Lehtimaki & Kujala 2015; Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010) on which the hypothesis was based.

This finding was interesting from an organisational level perspective. A recent meta-analysis by Schilke and Cook (2015), showed that, at present, the literature suggests there is less agreement on how trustworthiness develops than on its beneficial consequences. According to this meta-analysis, there are two competing views: the calculative and the relational perspective. Stakeholder integration, as an antecedent of organisational trustworthiness, supports the relational line of thinking that the trustee's values and behaviour are known to be an important organisational antecedent to trustworthiness (Barney & Hansen 1994; Kramer 1999). Stakeholder integration can thus be understood in terms of what Barney and Hansen (1994) described as internalised behavioural standards that make exchange parties trustworthy. High trustworthiness tends to be related to organisations receptive to external input, participation, and teamwork (Cameron & Quinn 2005; Larson 1992) characteristics that are at the heart of stakeholder integration. It is noteworthy that stakeholder integration was an important predictor of trustworthiness even when faced with procedural justice as an additional antecedent. What is remarkable under these circumstances is that at an organisational level, procedural justice is considered to be one of the main predictors of trustworthiness (Brockner 1996; McFarlin & Sweeney 1992; Stinglhamber, Cremer & Mercken 2006).

Research question 6 asked if *procedural justice moderates the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness.* Interestingly enough, when procedural justice was added as a moderator to the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness (Hypothesis 4a), the results of the study and the literature examined in Chapter 2 partially diverged. While procedural justice moderated the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness, the relationship between stakeholder integration and perceived organisational trustworthiness was stronger when procedural justice was lower and vice versa.

This finding was contrary to what was hypothesized. Procedural justice and stakeholder integration showed a substitutive rather than a complementary effect. In other words, according to the findings from the literature, under conditions of low procedural justice,

stakeholder integration would become more relevant in signalling trustworthiness. A similar effect was observed in a study by Searle et al. (2011) conducted in an intra-organisational context. They found that high involvement work practices (HIWP) moderated the relationship between procedural justice and trust in a way that when HIWP were less developed, the relationship between procedural justice and the employees' trust in the employer was stronger. Put differently; the two concepts are of substitutional and not of a complementary nature.

Hypothesis 4a) built particularly on the literature that took up Husted's (1998) call to use justice theory as a means to develop a company-stakeholder relationship framework. Stakeholder theory studies who took up the call to use justice theory in a company-stakeholder context include Phillips (2003), Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010), Harrison and Wicks (2013). Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010) concluded that there was agreement among stakeholder theorists that justice and fairness were core considerations in managing for stakeholders. Previous studies such as those published by Bosse, Phillips and Harrison (2009), Donaldson and Preston (1995), Jones and Wicks (1999), Mitchell, Agle and Wood (1997) or Phillips, Freeman and Wicks (2003) depicted procedural justice as an important condition for a *managing for stakeholder*-approach to drive perceptions of organisational trustworthiness and trust in the focal organisation. By implication, the prevalent basic line of thinking has been that, unless stakeholder integration practices are implemented consistently and fairly, their positive effect on trustworthiness and efficiency (and other positive outcomes) is not likely.

The body of literature examined in chapter 2 (e.g. Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010; Harrison & Wicks 2013; Phillips 2003) implied a complementary relationship between stakeholder management practices and procedural justice. The empirical findings of this study support these findings, but only in part. On the one hand, both stakeholder integration and procedural justice had significantly positive coefficients, supporting the notion that stakeholders perceived the focal organisation as more trustworthy when stakeholder practices were used, and procedural justice was deemed higher.

However, on the other hand, the empirical results also supported Bosse, Phillips and Harrison (2009) who posited that the amount of value a firm can create through procedural

justice practices is subject to diminishing marginal returns. If what was found in this study is applied, the value of procedural justice to increase perceived organisation trustworthiness lessens once a certain level of perceived organisational trustworthiness is reached through the pursuit of stakeholder integration practices.

This finding also contributes to the work of Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010) who described a phenomenon called "overinvestment in stakeholders." According to their findings, stakeholders receive more utility if managers at a company invest a large amount of time in procedural justice practices, even in circumstances when the company invests more than the returns justify. The assumption that utility in the view of a stakeholder is understood as a risk-reducing effect in dealing with the focal organisation through perceived trustworthiness was only partially supported by the empirical findings of this study. As a result, the general assumption, that more investment in procedural justice practices ultimately increase the stakeholders' utility, in general, can be questioned in light of this study's results. This finding is also backed by a study done by Harrison and Bosse (2013). In this study, the authors focused on the optimal balance between the alignment of stakeholders and the productive efficiency of the enterprise. By defining the practical confines of stakeholder theory, the authors posit that stakeholder theory is not about "giving away the store" but about the optimization of a group in terms of value created. They conclude that "it is not strictly true that firms that provide more value to stakeholders outperform other firms (Harrison & Bosse 2013, p. 321).

Brockner et al. (1997) and Brockner and Wiesenfeld (1996) provide another perspective in support of findings that are contrary to hypothesis 4a). These authors argued that an organisation using procedural justice practices will still be seen as a competent and reliable decision maker even when there is an unfavourable outcome for the stakeholders. This could explain why procedural justice was more important when the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness was weak. The stakeholder integration process and its outcome may not have met the expectations of the stakeholders because the stakeholder integration practices only fostered the perceived organisational trustworthiness to a limited extent. When the stakeholder integration process and outcomes were not perceived as satisfactory, stakeholders still perceived the process as

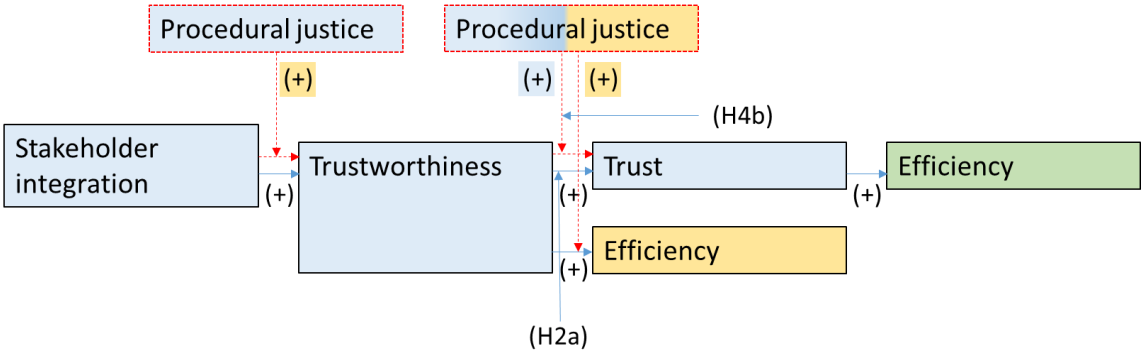
relatively fair, which in turn, mitigated the potential harm to the perceived organisational trustworthiness. Procedural justice practices did not play such an important role in signalling trustworthiness when the stakeholder integration process and outcomes were perceived as satisfactory.

5.2.2 Hypothesis 2a) and 4b): Relationship between perceived organisational trustworthiness and stakeholders' trust in the LTO and the role of procedural justice as a moderator

As discussed in chapter 2 of this study, the state of the art of trust measurement is fragmented. This was the finding of a meta-analysis based on an analysis of 171 papers of the last 48 years of trust research conducted by McEvily and Tortoriello (2011) who found 129 different ways of measuring trust. Their conclusion was that a common approach to measuring trust is necessary to integrate findings across disciplines. This is important in light of this study's empirical results, given that this study builds on the body of research suggesting that perceptions about trustworthiness lead to decisions regarding stakeholder willingness to be vulnerable (decision to trust) (Mayer & Davis 1999; Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995).

Hypothesis 2a) stated that there would be a positive relationship between perceived organisational trustworthiness and trust as a decision (Figure 35). According to the findings depicted in chapter 4, section 4.5.13.2, hypothesis 2a) was supported. This finding provided an answer for the second part of research question 4 (*Does stakeholder integration influence trust because stakeholder integration is associated with trustworthiness which in turn influences trust among hotels and LTOs at Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland*) because trustworthiness influenced trust among hotels and LTOs at touristic Alpine destinations in Switzerland.

Figure 35 Conceptual model of this study depicting hypotheses 2a) and 4b)



Source: Developed for this research

The three-dimensional model of trustworthiness developed by (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995) has become the dominant model for conceptualising trustworthiness in organisational research (McEvily & Tortoriello 2011) and was therefore used in this study. The empirical support of hypothesis 2a) is interesting insofar as the relationship between perceived trustee's trustworthiness and trust as a willingness of the trustor to be vulnerable also persisted in an inter-organisational stakeholder-context. Hotels showed themselves willing to be vulnerable if they perceived the LTO to be trustworthy in terms of their perceived ability, benevolence, and integrity. However, similar to results in previous studies that applied this construct in an inter-organisational context (e.g. McEvily & Tortoriello 2011; Searle et al. 2011), the three dimensions (ABI) as posited by Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) could not be clearly distinguished in a statistical sense. Instead, trustworthiness was measured as an aggregated one-dimensional construct.

The buffering function of procedural justice as a positive conditional effect on trusting (Brockner & Wiesenfeld 1996) was empirically supported. Hypothesis 4b) stated that procedural justice would moderate the positive relationship between perceived organisational trustworthiness and trust. This meant that when procedural justice is more or less developed, the relationship between perceived organisational trustworthiness and trust would be accordingly stronger or weaker. Procedural justice significantly moderated the relationship between trustworthiness and trust, as was discussed in chapter 4, sub-subsection 4.5.13.2. Van den Bos, Wilke and Lind (1998) posited that procedural justice acts as a catalyst for the lack of or a low-level of trust. As a result, a condition of high

procedural justice was suggested as a means to strengthen the relationship between trustworthiness and trust further. Partaking of this approach provided an answer to research question 9 that asked if *procedural justice moderates the relationship between trustworthiness and trust amongst Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland*.

5.2.3 Hypothesis 2b) and 4c): Relationship between perceived organisational trustworthiness and LTO efficiency

Hypothesis 2b) postulated that there is a positive relationship between perceived organisational trustworthiness and LTO efficiency (Figure 36). This hypothesis was mainly based on the literature by Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010) and Barney and Hansen (1994). The latter indicated that if the focal organisation was deemed trustworthy, stakeholders could be assured that the vulnerabilities that might exist in the interaction or exchange would not be exploited by the focal organisation. The expectation was that this would lead to higher efficiency in economic exchanges between the stakeholders (hotels) and the focal organisation (LTO), in the form of more efficient use of their common resources (hotel infrastructure). Nonetheless, the empirical results did not support Hypothesis 2b), as demonstrated by the results presented in chapter 4, sub-subsections 4.5.14.1 and 4.5.14.2. Research question 3 (*What is the relationship between stakeholder integration and efficiency amongst hotels and LTOs at Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland?*) can be answered in part only because stakeholder integration did not transmit its effect via trustworthiness alone on efficiency (Figure 36).

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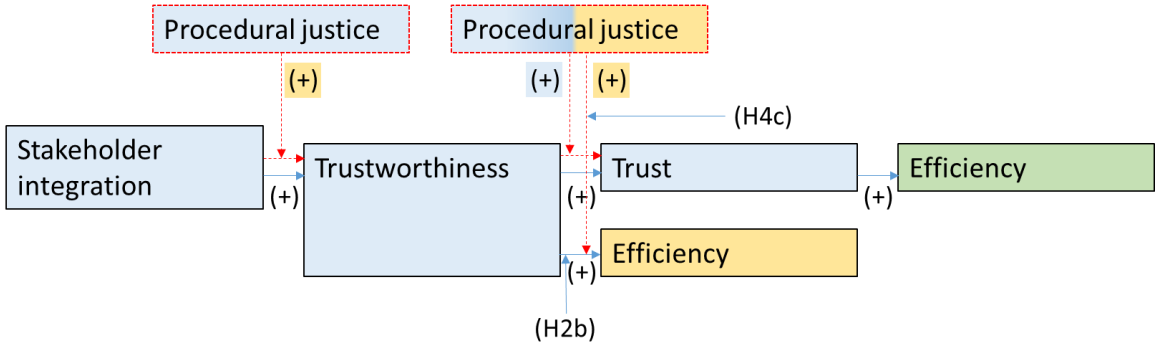
Figure 36 Conceptual model of this study depicting hypotheses 2b) and 4c)



Source: Developed for this research

One possible explanation for this disconnect was delivered by Gillespie (2003), who suggested that the sole assessment of another's trustworthiness is not as strong a predictor of future behaviour as the intention to trust. Even though Barney and Hansen (1994) differentiated between the definitions of *trustworthiness* and *trust* in their paper, they did not make this distinction at an operational level. In other words, the authors did not assume that there was a direct relationship between trustworthiness as a belief based on an attribute of the trustee and trust as an intention/decision of the trustor to render oneself vulnerable. They operationally conflated the concepts and only differentiated them at a conceptual level without assuming a relationship between the two: "while trust is an attribute of a relationship between exchange partners, trustworthiness is an attribute of individual exchange partners" (Barney & Hansen 1994, p. 176).

Hardin (2002) noted that the conflation of the two concepts (trustworthiness and trust) is very common in the literature. Even so though trustworthiness can never be fully extracted out of the context of the trust relationship within which it is integrated, Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) argued that trustworthiness and trust are both related and distinct. They differentiated between factors that cause trust (trustworthiness in the form of ability, benevolence, and integrity of the trustee as perceived by the trustor) and trust itself. Therefore, trustworthiness as operationalised in this study (Mayer & Davis 1999) was not the same construct described by Barney and Hansen (1994), who defined trustworthiness as "*an exchange partner worthy of trust is one that will not exploit other's exchange vulnerabilities"* (Barney & Hansen 1994, p. 176). They incorporated the expectation of the trustor towards the trustee that the trustors' vulnerabilities would not be exploited. This represented a blend of the definition of *trust* by Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995, p. 712) that incorporates "*the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party..."* and the idea of *trustworthiness* as a trait of the trustee. Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) did not, however, define trustworthiness in regard to the expectation of the trustor, that the trustee does not exploit another's vulnerabilities but to the belief of the trustor related to ability, benevolence and integrity of the trustee. This is one possible explanation why the findings of the study did not reflect the theoretical groundwork.

Similar issues applied for the paper by Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010, p. 62), who posited that trustworthiness is an essential element to unlock nuanced information about a stakeholders utility function which, in turn, leads to increased efficiency. Their study, similar to the approach taken in this study, conceptualised trust as suggested by Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) and did not differentiate the terms *trustworthiness* and *trust* on an operational level. Their approach found that relationships that are "based on trustworthiness" directly lead to the unveiling of the stakeholders' utility functions which potentially increases efficiency (Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010, p. 62). They too saw that trust might be a strong predictor of future behaviour rather than trustworthiness itself (Gillespie 2003). This observation was backed by an explorative analysis conducted as part of this study that tested if efficiency was positively influenced through stakeholder integration, trustworthiness and trust in serial. Even though not hypothesized, this serial mediation turned out to be significant, supporting Gillespie (2003) conclusion attributing the positive effects such as increased efficiency to trust and not to trustworthiness.

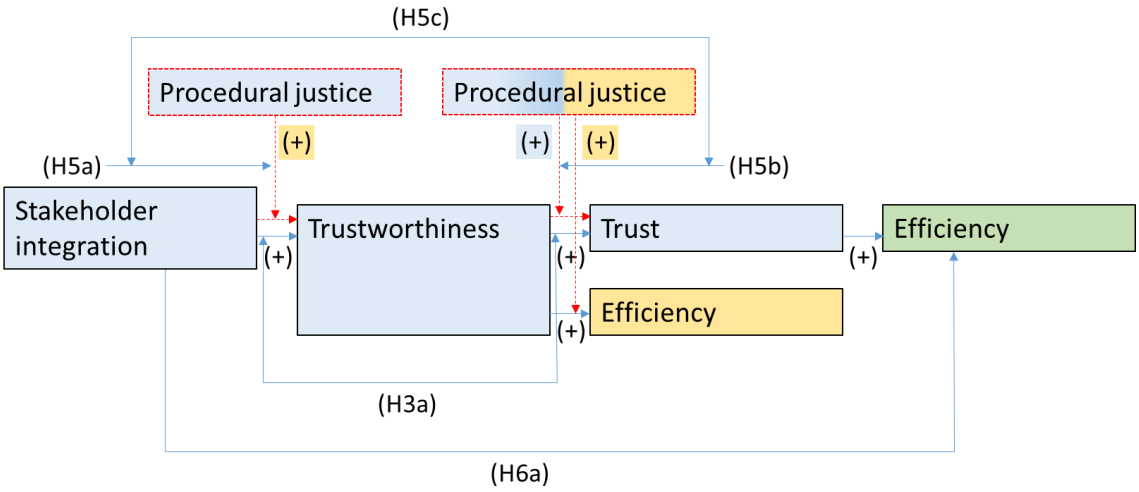
In line with hypothesis 4c), Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010) further contended that trustworthiness alone might not lead to the unveiling of the utility function and increased efficiency. They proposed that procedural justice is an important facilitator that fosters the positive effect that trustworthiness has on efficiency resulting from assurances of fair treatment of stakeholders willing to divulge sensitive or private information to the focal organisation. Empirical findings from this study did not support this assumption because hypothesis 2b) did not hold and consequently, hypothesis 4c) based on the former, did not hold either as shown in chapter 4, sub-subsection 4.5.14.1. Therefore, research question 10 (*Does procedural justice moderate the relationship between and trustworthiness and efficiency amongst Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland?*) can be answered negatively.

5.2.4 Hypothesis 3a), 5a), 5b), 5c), 6a): Relationship between stakeholder integration and stakeholders' trust in the LTO

Hypothesis 3a) stated that the relationship between stakeholder integration and stakeholders' trust in the LTO is fully mediated by perceived organisational trustworthiness (Figure 37). Hypothesis 3a) was supported by the empirical evidence in

chapter 4, section 4.5.13.2, even though, as postulated in hypothesis 6a), there was a direct effect of stakeholder integration on trust when trustworthiness was absent. Yet, in the presence of trustworthiness as a mediating variable, this direct effect was no longer significant. This result led to a finer-grained understanding of how stakeholder integration transmits its positive effects on trust. Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010) assumed that the practices that constitute stakeholder integration (knowledge, interaction, and adaptation) directly lead to trust. However, as this study has shown, stakeholder integration only positively affects the trustworthiness of the focal organisation as perceived by the stakeholders. By extension, stakeholder integration does not directly lead to a decision to trust the focal organisation by the stakeholders. Instead, stakeholder integration strongly enhances the trustworthiness of the focal organisation as perceived by the stakeholders, which in turn, leads to the decision to trust.

Figure 37 Conceptual model of this study depicting hypotheses 3a), 5a), 5b), 5c) and 6a)



Source: Developed for this research

In conclusion, research question 4 (Does stakeholder integration influence trust because stakeholder integration is associated with trustworthiness, which in turn influences trust among hotels and LTOs at Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland?) was answered affirmatively. Findings showed there was a full mediation between stakeholder integration and trust through trustworthiness. What is more, in answer to research question 2 (What is the relationship between stakeholder integration and trust amongst hotels and LTOs at

Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland?), it was found that stakeholder integration only has a direct influence on trust when trustworthiness was absent. Once trustworthiness was used as a mediator there no longer was a direct effect of stakeholder integration on the decision of the stakeholders to trust the LTO.

Hypothesis 5a) held that [1] the relationship between stakeholder integration and trust would be mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO and [2] the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness is contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation. A positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and trust (through perceived trustworthiness) was anticipated when procedural justice was high.

Given the results from the data, it was worthwhile to determine if procedural justice had an impact as a first stage moderator of this mediation. After mediation, hypothesis 3a) was found to be supported. The discussion in chapter 4, sub-subsection 4.5.13.4 showed that procedural justice had a larger impact on the trustworthiness perceptions of the hotel stakeholders if hotels felt less integration with the LTO, and consequently on trust, than if the hotel stakeholders thought of themselves as well integrated. In other words, procedural justice played a less important role in signalling trustworthiness and creating trust if the positive influence of stakeholder integration on the perceived organisational trustworthiness of the LTO and consequently on the willingness to trust the LTO was stronger. As a result, the answer to research question 7 (*Does procedural justice moderate the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness to predict trust amongst Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland*) is twofold. On one hand, procedural justice had an impact on the relationship between stakeholder integration and trust. However, on the other hand, it turned out that procedural justice did not work as a catalyst for this relationship. The impact of stakeholder integration on trust (mediated through trustworthiness) was stronger in conditions where procedural justice was low. In conclusion, the two concepts of stakeholder integration and procedural justice are substitutive and not necessarily complementary.

The literature in chapter 2 only partially supported the findings of the moderation effect of procedural justice. Interestingly, the substitutive effect of procedural justice persisted

even if the relationship between stakeholder integration and trust was mediated by perceived organisational trustworthiness. This finding from the study presented a clearer picture of the model as described by Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010). They assumed that managing for stakeholder practices signalled organisational trustworthiness, which in combination with procedural justice, would lead stakeholders to unveil their utility functions. Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010) named procedural justice practices as a facilitating condition to unlock the stakeholders' utility functions. The empirical evidence from this study suggested that stakeholder integration practices have a positive effect on trust, but only through increased perceived organisational trustworthiness. Besides, there was empirical proof that in this study's setting, procedural justice did not play the facilitating role in the value creation process as described by Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010). More precisely, procedural justice rather acted, to a certain extent, as a substitute for stakeholder integration practices. However, it is important to note that this study did not test the full model as delineated by Harrison et al. (2010) but only a narrow interpretation of it. For example, their model contains all three types of organisational justice (procedural, distributive, and interactional justice) and the managing for stakeholders approach contains more aspects than only stakeholder integration.

Results from this study were in line with Bosse, Phillips and Harrison (2009) with the finding that it was not advisable to overinvest in procedural justice measures. Procedural justice showed decreasing marginal returns, especially in the presence of stakeholder integration practices. Consequently, procedural justice was not an important condition to foster the development of trust when stakeholder integration practices were applied.

Hypothesis 5b) stated that [1] the relationship between stakeholder integration and trust would be mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO and [2] the relationship between trustworthiness and trust is contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation. A positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and trust (through perceived trustworthiness) was anticipated when procedural justice was high. As already discussed in section 5.2.2, procedural justice works as a kind of buffer for the lack of trust, thus acting as a catalyst (Brockner & Wiesenfeld 1996). This reinforcing function of procedural justice persisted even when

stakeholder integration was the independent variable and trustworthiness the mediator. Research question 9 (*Does procedural justice moderate the relationship between trustworthiness and trust amongst Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland?*) could, therefore, be answered affirmatively. In conditions of high procedural justice, the relationship between stakeholder integration and trust mediated through trustworthiness was stronger. Once hotel stakeholders perceive the LTO as trustworthy, procedural justice can help further increase trust among hotel stakeholders. In other words, in conditions of high procedural justice, hotel stakeholders tend to render themselves vulnerable.

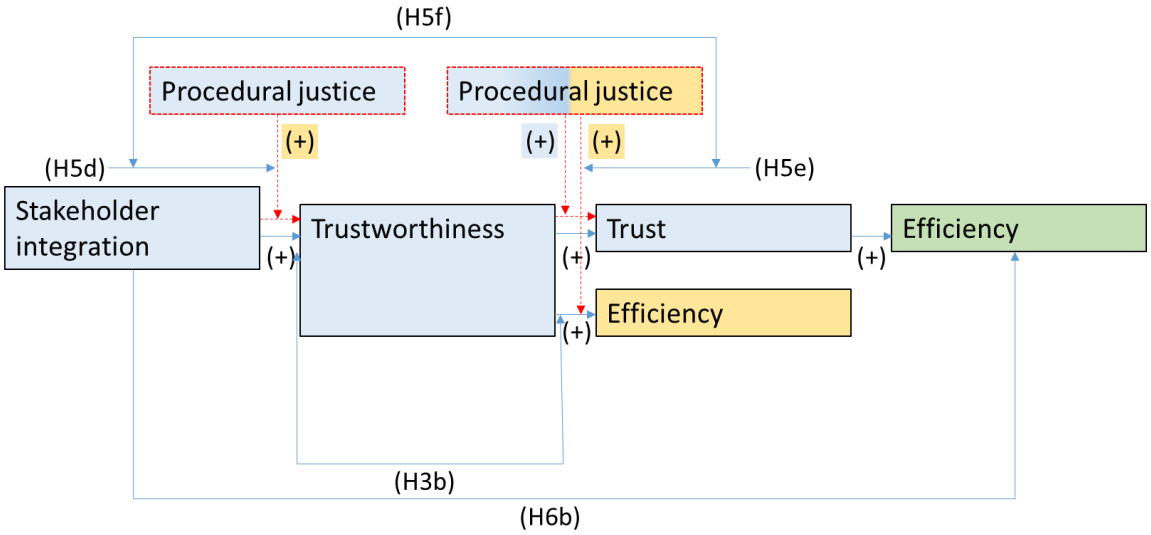
Hypothesis 5c) suggested that the relationship between stakeholder integration and trust would be mediated by the perceived trustworthiness of the stakeholders towards the LTO and both relationships were contingent on the level of procedural justice exerted by the focal organisation. This part of the hypothesis could be supported as procedural justice moderated both pathways. However, a positive indirect effect between stakeholder integration and trust (through perceived trustworthiness) was anticipated when procedural justice was high. As a result, hypothesis 5c) only held in part because procedural justice had a negative impact on both pathways, according to the empirical findings in chapter 4, sub-subsection 4.5.13.6. This was due to the same arguments made earlier in section 5.2.2. Research question 11 (*Does procedural justice moderate the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness and the relationship between trustworthiness and trust to predict trust amongst Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland?*) could be answered as follows: the condition of procedural justice had an impact on both relationships between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness as well as on trustworthiness and trust. The full mediation model was stronger in conditions of low procedural justice and vice versa. In light of hypothesis 5b) that stated that in conditions of high procedural justice the relationship between trustworthiness and trust is stronger, this finding is interesting since the role of procedural justice changed when both pathways (the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness as well as the relationship between trustworthiness and trust) were factored into the equation. The result, therefore, supported the substitutive rather than the complementary nature of the concepts of stakeholder integration and procedural justice.

According to hypothesis 6a), stakeholder integration would be positively related to stakeholder's trust in the LTO, but as the results showed, there was no significant positive relationship between stakeholder integration and trust. This finding supported the conceptual distinction of trustworthiness and trust described by (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman 1995). The result drew a more detailed picture on the proposition that specific forms of stakeholder management, such as stakeholder integration, have a positive impact on stakeholder trust. Stakeholder integration had an impact on stakeholder trust, but indirectly through signalling trustworthiness and did not directly evoke trust. In answer to research question 2, stakeholder integration did not directly lead to a decision of the stakeholder to trust the focal company.

5.2.5 Hypothesis 3b), 5d), 5e), 5f), 6b): The relationship between stakeholder integration and LTO efficiency

Hypothesis 3b) specified that the relationship between stakeholder integration and LTO efficiency would be fully mediated by perceived organisational trustworthiness (Figure 38). As elaborated in section 5.2.3, trustworthiness was not as a strong predictor of future behaviour as the intention to trust (Gillespie 2003). This may be one reason why stakeholder integration had no impact on LTO efficiency through perceived organisational trustworthiness, as found in chapter 4, subsection 4.5.14.2. Therefore, research question 5 needs to be answered as a negative because there is no impact on efficiency through stakeholder integration and trustworthiness.

Figure 38 Conceptual model of this study depicting hypotheses 3b), 5d), 5e), 5f) and 6b)



Source: Developed for this research

Motivated by the fact that the constructs of trustworthiness and trust are often conflated in research, in addition to testing for hypothesis 3b), a serial mediation model was tested as well, even thought it was not hypothesised. The serial mediation model was highly significant (see chapter 4, sub-subsection 4.5.14.3): Stakeholder integration practices by the LTO had a positive impact on organisational trustworthiness as perceived by the hotels. These practices fostered the decision by the hotels to trust the LTO. The result was an increased LTO efficiency and the destination as a whole. The relationship between stakeholder integration and LTO efficiency was fully mediated by both trustworthiness and trust. These empirical findings supported the argument that trustworthiness and trust are different but related constructs, and that trustworthiness was not as strong a predictor of future behaviour regarding the intention to trust (Gillespie 2003; Schoorman, Mayer & Davis 2007).

The results depicted a more detailed picture of the mechanisms on which stakeholder integration practices transmit its effects on efficiency. According to the study's findings, only the decision to trust the LTO had the potential to increase efficiency. The decision of the stakeholders to unveil their utility functions was linked to the decision to trust the LTO. Mere perceptions of trustworthiness alone did not lead to such action. Only when stakeholders take the "leap of faith" and decide to trust (Möllering 2006) can investments

in governance be dramatically reduced while also fostering efficiency (Barney & Hansen 1994). Trustworthiness alone was not sufficient, however, because most exchange partners are, in fact, trustworthy (Etzioni 2010).

Hypotheses 5d), 5e) and 5f) were not supported since there was no mediation effect of trustworthiness on the relationships between stakeholder integration and efficiency due to the same reasons provided in sections 5.2.3 and 5.2.5. As a consequence, procedural justice did not have a significant effect as a moderator either (see chapter 4, subsection 4.5.14). Based on these findings research question 8 (*Does procedural justice moderate the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness to predict efficiency amongst touristic Alpine destinations in Switzerland?*) and research question 12 (*Does procedural justice moderate the relationship between stakeholder integration and trustworthiness and the relationship between trustworthiness and efficiency to predict efficiency amongst touristic Alpine destinations in Switzerland?*) had no as their answer.

Hypothesis 6b) was not supported either; therefore, the answer to research question 3 (*What is the relationship between stakeholder integration and efficiency amongst hotels and LTOs at Alpine touristic destinations in Switzerland*?) is that there is no direct connection between stakeholder integration and efficiency. Decisions by hotels to trust the LTO have a positive effect on efficiency at a destination only when stakeholder integration signals trustworthiness and trustworthiness. This finding is in contrast to studies like Green and Hunton-Clarke (2003) or Henisz, Dorobantu and Nartey (2014) that supported a direct connection between stakeholder integration and efficiency. While the study of Green and Hunton-Clarke (2003) was conceptual in approach, Henisz, Dorobantu and Nartey (2014) study used different measures of stakeholder cooperation and efficiency. Both differences in approach may explain why the direct link was not replicated in this study.

5.3 Research contributions

This study performed a comprehensive review of the literature on stakeholder theory and trust literature, weaving in the literature about organisational justice and tourism. The study focused on the instrumental aspects of stakeholder theory and contributes to this distinct stream of stakeholder theory research in different ways.

To begin with, findings contribute to a clearer understanding of the mechanisms and consequences and of the concept of stakeholder integration as put forth by Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez and Carmona-Moreno (2010). These authors created a valid and reliable measurement of stakeholder integration, but to date, there has been no published study known to the author that empirically scrutinised the effects of stakeholder integration on trust and efficiency as well as the role of procedural justice. This study is thus one of the first to empirically use the concept of stakeholder integration to test possible positive outcomes under specific conditions.

In addition, this study also contributes to the work of Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010) and their conceptual framework. They stated that even though a lot about stakeholder management has been published in the recent years, there is not much literature that systematically describes how a specific type of stakeholder management leads to competitive advantage based on an organisation's relationship with stakeholders. This study uses stakeholder integration as a specific form of stakeholder management. Thanks to this specificity, it was possible to empirically test and validate parts of their conceptual framework. The empirical results provided new insights into the limited role of procedural justice and the association between stakeholder integration and positive outcomes like trust and efficiency.

The findings also refine the framework of Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010) by adding more clarity to the mechanisms of how stakeholder integration transmits its positive effects. This study showed that stakeholder integration does not have a direct effect on the decision stakeholders make in regards to trusting the focal organisation. Stakeholder integration signalled trustworthiness in practice. Trustworthiness, in turn, lead to destination stakeholders trusting behaviour.

The study validated that trustworthiness and trust are two distinct but related constructs as put forth by Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) in the contexts of stakeholder groups and tourism. This distinction, especially mattered in the context of efficiency because trustworthiness, as a dependent variable, had no impact on efficiency on its own.

Finally, stakeholder theory scholars agree about the importance of procedural justice in stakeholder management (i.e., Bosse, Phillips & Harrison 2009; Donaldson & Preston

1995; Jones & Wicks 1999; Mitchell, Agle & Wood 1997; Phillips, Freeman & Wicks 2003). This study provides a more nuanced view of the role procedural justice has in the context of stakeholder management and stakeholder trust. It does so by showing the diminishing marginal returns of procedural justice if used in the context of stakeholder integration. This supports the suggestion made by Bosse, Phillips and Harrison (2009) who contend that a perceived deficiency in one form of justice can be substituted by another form.

5.4 Implications for theory

Stakeholder theory scholars distinguish between *relational* and *transactional* approaches to stakeholder management (Bridoux & Stoelhorst 2016). According to these authors, the *transactional* approach is based on the price mechanism and is likely to be less effective in fostering stakeholders' contribution to joint value creation. Bridoux and Stoelhorst (2016) argued that, from a *relational* perspective, stakeholder contributions are shaped by their *mental representations* of their relationships with the other stakeholders in value creation. These *mental representations* are themselves influenced by how the organisation's behaviour is perceived by the stakeholders. While the concept of stakeholder integration clearly falls on the *relational* side of the continuum, findings from this study support the notion that stakeholder integration fosters value creation (trust and efficiency) among stakeholders. Why *relational* approaches are superior to *transactional* approaches when it comes to joint value creation can be explained by what is called the team production problem (Alchian & Demsetz 1972). This problem occurs when the market fails to align individual interest with the collective interest in situations needing high task and outcome interdependence. In a tourism context, individual stakeholders are rather likely to pursue their individual instead of the collective interest when there is relatively high task and outcome interdependence. The reason for this is the fragmented value chain at tourism destinations. The production process is a complex one and requires inputs from the various stakeholders. These inputs are indicators of high task and outcome interdependence (Jones, Harrison & Felps 2018).

If the stakeholders are integrated, in other words, if a *relational* approach is used, the team production problem can be mitigated and the collective good (e.g., the entire destination)

benefits. This is empirically supported by the study based on its findings that destinations with higher levels of stakeholder integration tended, overall, to be more efficient than destinations with lower levels of stakeholder integration.

Destinations with higher stakeholder integration levels showed higher levels of stakeholder trust than destinations with lower stakeholder integration levels as well. This does not mean that individual hotels cannot be very successful at destinations where the stakeholder integration level is very low. However, such behaviour exacerbates the team production problem and often will negatively impact stakeholder trust and the collective destination efficiency.

Bridoux and Stoelhorst (2016, p. 230) also distinguished three different *relational* approaches that trigger higher stakeholder contributions based on Fiske (1991) work: *authority ranking* (a relationship of hierarchical differences, accompanied by the exercise of command and complementary display of deference and respect), *equality matching* (a relationship among equals manifested in balanced reciprocity), and *communal sharing* (a relationship of unity, community, and collective identity). The different relational approaches represent increasing levels of effectiveness on their value creation capacity. Bridoux and Stoelhorst (2016) postulated that stakeholders are able to frame their relationship with the organisation in all three ways, depending on the perceived behaviour of the organisation toward its stakeholders. However, if an organisation uses a *transactional* approach, the stakeholders will abandon their *relational* approach and consequently switch to a *transactional* approach too. This kind of behaviour is supported by the findings of the study. Low forms of *relational* stakeholder management or stakeholder integration respectively fostered trust and efficiency to a much lower extent than high levels of *relational* stakeholder management. According to the results, stakeholder integration potentially leads to firm-stakeholder relationships that fall near the communal sharing point on the continuum because stakeholder integration strongly supported the creation of trust and efficiency.

Another potential indicator that stakeholder integration is signalling communal sharing than equality matching, for example, is the role that procedural justice played in the interaction with stakeholder integration. Results showed a lower level of stakeholder need

for equal treatment to establish trust towards the LTO when there were increasing levels of stakeholder integration. Basically, stakeholders still trusted the LTO even if they did not perceive the interaction or process individually rewarding (stakeholder integration does not necessarily imply that the process is rewarding for all stakeholders) if they felt well integrated. Stakeholders who perceive their relationship with the focal firm as a communal sharing relationship perceive the stakeholder network as a community (Fiske 1991). Consequently, even if the process to a particular outcome is not individually rewarding, they remain satisfied because stakeholders equate the collective interest with their own (Bridoux & Stoelhorst 2016).

This kind of behaviour is also opposed to authority ranking relationships, which follow another fairness principle. Authority ranking relationships are fostered by building legitimacy. Legitimacy is evoked through procedures that are experienced as being individually fair (Tyler 2006). Decisions made in authority ranking relationships are made through a chain of command with directives coming from superiors. However, stakeholder integration anticipates decision-making through a consultation process between the relevant stakeholders and not according to a chain of command (Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010).

Not surprisingly, stakeholder integration is potentially linked to a more needs-based approach as described in communal sharing as opposed to an equality approach as portrayed in equality matching (Mossholder, Richardson & Settoon 2011). Rules like tit-for-tat, which are at the core of equality matching, do not comply with the idea of stakeholder integration. According to the stakeholder integration concept, companies are expected to adapt and align strategies by taking into account their stakeholders needs and demands without receiving something specific in return (Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010).

In addition, the link between stakeholder integration and communal sharing is strengthened by the capacity of stakeholder integration to increase efficiency in environments with high task and outcome interdependence. Communal sharing is said to lead to higher levels of cooperation since collective action is the more facilitated approach (Bridoux & Stoelhorst 2016). Jones, Harrison and Felps (2018) called this *improved*

reciprocal coordination. This approach increases efficiency, especially in industries with long and complicated value chains such as the Swiss Alpine tourism industry, where multiple stakeholders participate in supplying parts of the final service. In sum, stakeholder integration can be understood as a *close relationship capability* in the sense of Jones, Harrison and Felps (2018) based on the mental representation of communal sharing (Bridoux & Stoelhorst 2016).

5.5 Implications for policy and practice

"The LTO has a life of its own and does not care about the hotels." This quote in the additional comment-section of the survey from Participant 8 (2017) showed that a lack of integration and care can lead to frustration. Looking at the many negative comments of the surveyed hotel managers about the role of their LTO, displayed the disconnect between the two at many participating destinations.

This is especially alarming because collaboration and engagement among the various destination stakeholders are vital to the destination (Bramwell 2012). The disconnect appears to be even more important against the backdrop that destinations do not consist of independent enterprises; rather, they are an amalgamation of products and services provided by various stakeholders (Buhalis 2000). Without collective action, there is no individual success (d'Angella & Go 2009). This study yields implications for hotel and LTO managers alike; however, as the object of the study were LTOs, the implications are addressed to LTO managers.

5.5.1 Care about your stakeholders

As the study showed, the integration of hotel stakeholders by the LTO yields essential benefits for touristic destinations. It became evident that stakeholder integration signals care and evokes trust of the stakeholders towards the LTO. The findings from this study are a call to increase stakeholder integration efforts at touristic destinations. That there is a need for stakeholder integration was supported by Participant 89 (2017) who wrote: "There is a general dissatisfaction with the LTO pervading all stakeholders."

To care about stakeholders is not only an end in itself. Caring reveals important insights and thus can also be a means to other ends: "The LTO think that they know our needs but

actually, they do not, and thus the results are sometimes disastrous" (Participant 327 2017). Being selective and only caring about selected stakeholders does not suffice, according another hotel manager: "The LTO is out of touch with most hotels and is only taking care of the luxury hotels" (Participant 74 2017) and "the voice of the smaller properties is considered to be irrelevant by the LTO" (Participant 99 2017). In a worst case situation, not caring about stakeholders can jeopardise the legitimacy of the focal organisation: "There is no need for LTOs anymore" (Participant 95 2017). In one instance, the hotel manager did not only feel ignored but repressed: "We are surrounded by autocratic LTO managers who do not pay attention to our needs and wants. We have not seen any LTO representative in years. People that raise their voice are being repressed"(Participant 127 2017). One potential consequence of such LTO behaviour is a lack of collective action: "Unfortunately, the collaboration at our destination is poor" (Participant 36 2017).

Despite all the negative consequences that potentially arise from a lack of stakeholder integration such as was described above, there was also criticism aimed at stakeholder management in general. One of the most prominent criticisms of stakeholder theory and, consequently also of practices like stakeholder integration, is that it is impossible to satisfy more than one stakeholder demand or goal, which in the view of Jensen (2001) is the maximisation of the shareholder value.

It is evident that it is easier for an organisation or a manager to satisfy one stakeholder demand than dealing with the fuzziness of multiple stakeholder demands (Harrison & Wicks 2013; Tantalo & Priem 2016). Organisations, in general and specifically in a tourism context, inherently and constantly have to deal with competing priorities. Not incorporating stakeholders' needs and demands into the organisations' decisions might have negative consequences on the legitimacy of that organisation (Mitchell et al. 2016). Legitimacy is vital. Without the stakeholder support, an organisation might cease to exist (Freeman 1984).

What this study found from the data collection and analyses supports these arguments, especially the quotes reported in this subsection's first paragraph. It is not beneficial for the organisation and the entire stakeholder network when the focal organisation is only

accountable to one stakeholder and does not care about other stakeholders or fails to align stakeholder interests. Jensen (2001) argument that failure to have a single objective does not provide a basis for making trade-offs among competing interests and actors, turns out to be problematic in a destination management context. In this environment, dealing with competing interests does not necessarily mean that trade-offs need to be made by LTO managers. Results showed that stakeholders trusted and thus supported the organisation the more the organisation cared about them in terms of stakeholder integration practices. The better the stakeholders were integrated, the less important fairness considerations became. In other words, decision-making, including the buy-in of the stakeholders, was possible even though a multitude of needs and demands had to be considered and aligned. Stakeholder integration practices even led to higher efficiency even though not all hotel stakeholders that trusted the LTO were among the hotels that benefited the most from the transactions. By implication, as long as the hotels felt taken care of by the LTO, they maintained a trusting and constructive relationship regardless of the perceived fairness of the transaction.

The advice to managers is not to shy away from handling competing interests. It is not the responsibility of the managers to decide which stakeholders interests are superior and how to make the trade-offs, as stipulated by (Jensen 2001). Instead, managers should refrain from their desire to control. Nevertheless, it is the manager's responsibility to initiate and moderate the integration process by giving voice to stakeholders and coaching them along the way to find win-win situations. Without being part of the process, stakeholders cannot fully comprehend the issue at hand. Without this comprehension, stakeholders do not have the capability to understand and/or adopt the perspectives other stakeholders have, which is pivotal in aligning interests and finding constructive solutions. Following this line of reasoning, what initially looked like a conflict of interest among stakeholders can be turned into forms of collaboration, which, ideally work for the benefit of all (Wicks, Gilbert & Freeman 1994).

5.5.2 Trust paves the way for success

"After a recently performed re-organisation, the stakeholders and the LTO are in the process of aligning themselves and adapting to the new situation. Important topics are the

implementation of the destination strategy, the definition of responsibilities, and to build trust between the stakeholders and the LTO" (Participant 413 2017).

Trust plays between the destination stakeholders and the LTO. Trust has been identified not only by this particular LTO manager but also by many scholars across different fields as a vital foundation leading to numerous positive consequences, such as improved cooperation and value creation (e.g. Harrison, Bosse & Phillips 2010; Jones 1995; Nunkoo & Smith 2014; Pirson & Malhotra 2011; Sheehan, Ritchie & Hudson 2007). According to this study's results, one of the positive outcomes from engendering trusting relationships is increased destination efficiency. Destinations, where the relationship between the LTO and their stakeholders were based on trust, showed higher efficiency when compared to destinations with lower trust. Efficiency was operationalised in this study in terms of how well a destination's output (number of arrivals, number of room nights) managed its inputs (number of hotels, number of beds). The closer the destination operates at the production frontier, the more efficient it is. To put it differently, if a destination is unable to produce the maximum possible output given the input, it was considered to be inefficient. Not surprisingly, the efficiency of the LTO and the efficiency of the destination are strongly correlated (Volgger & Pechlaner 2014), and thus, they were interchangeably used in this study.

So, why does efficiency increase if the relationships between the LTO and its stakeholders are based on trust? As the LTOs main task is to market the destination (Bieger & Beritelli 2013), it is very likely that this task can be accomplished more effectively if the LTO knows its stakeholders' utility functions, as proposed by Harrison, Bosse and Phillips (2010). Stakeholders are more likely to reveal their utility function when they can be assured that any vulnerabilities they may have will not be exploited by the LTO. This nuanced information allows the LTO to better fine tune destination tactics, resource allocations and strategies that, together, help to attract more visitors. When the trust level is low at a destination, stakeholders do not or only partially unveil their utility functions, making the process of marketing the destination more inefficient.

Additionally, in a low trust environment, expensive government structures have negative consequences on efficiency. For example, in low trust conditions within the stakeholder

network, LTOs need to maintain expensive control mechanisms to ensure that the visitor's tax is paid correctly by the hotels: "Unfortunately, most of the hotels (80%) only want to benefit from us without giving something back. This self-interested behaviour also includes fraud by not declaring the actual number of room nights generated to withhold a part of visitor's tax" (Participant 354 2017). This quote is an example of a low trust condition in which the loss of visitor tax income or the cost of the control to enforce that payment by the LTO lowers the budget of the destination to market itself. In the intensifying global competition among touristic destinations (Buhalis 2000; Raths 2015; Swiss Federal Council 2013) this difference has the potential to turn the scale.

5.5.3 Cooperation beats competition

This quote is a good example of a collaborative effort based on stakeholders working synergistically based on cooperation. This is in contrast to a competitively organised destination where destination stakeholders are only operating linearly and not synergistically, which is what happens when every enterprise in the network act as individuals and do not cooperate (Sibila Lebe & Milfelner 2006). Trust acts as a lubricant for cooperation (Putnam, Leonardi & Nanetti 1994). Cooperation, in turn, generates synergies in tourism development (Nunkoo & Smith 2014).

Stakeholder relations hold a significant potential for cooperation because organisations are inherently cooperative systems (Freeman et al. 2010). This view contrasts with the prevailing competitive paradigms found at tourism destinations across the Alpine region of Switzerland. These paradigms tell a narrative of managers that need to make "tough choices", "kill or be killed", "outgun the opposition", and "look out for number one" (Wicks, Gilbert & Freeman 1994). In this vein, one LTO manager stated that "hotels mainly focus on their direct competitors. As long as the direct competition is doing worse, everything is fine. Neither the visitor nor other stakeholders are in focus. The hotels prefer to have no guests at all rather than their direct competitor having one more guest than they have"(Participant 354 2017).

As this example illustrates, competition and adversarial stakeholder relations spell doom for entire destinations, precisely because trust and cooperation are crucial ingredients for success (Peters 1987) and these ingredients are undermined in a competitive environment

(Wicks, Gilbert & Freeman 1994). The results from this study instead suggest seeking win-win solutions where what at first glance appear to be conflicts of interest among the hotels can be turned into forms of collaboration that work for the benefit of the entire destination (Wicks, Gilbert & Freeman 1994). Such win-win situations can be created through the process of stakeholder integration. One of the critical skills in forming stakeholder integration is communication. Communication is especially important when stakeholder relationships entail cooperation for mutual benefit and coordinated action. Effective communication is a must because it provides the mechanism for stakeholders to interact and learn from one another, to build trust, to find points of agreement and disagreement and to discover how a relationship can enrich each stakeholder involved (Wicks, Gilbert & Freeman 1994).

In conclusion, destinations need a new paradigm of cooperation instead of competition. LTOs as central nodes in tourism stakeholder networks should encourage participation and collective action among the various destination stakeholders in order to build the kind of environment destination stakeholders need to be successful.

5.6 Limitations

The following limitations should be considered regarding the findings that have been generated in this study.

- Even though statistical tests have been conducted to detect potential common method bias, the results may still suffer from common method variance to some degree (Podsakoff & Organ 1986) because some of the results are based on self-report surveys. Even though some scholars dispute the broad and comprehensive effects that are envisioned by critics (Crampton & Wagner 1994), common method bias remains an area of concern. However, as trust is perceptual and subjective, it is best measured by focal respondents. Constructs like stakeholder integration could be measured by asking the LTO to assess each hotel individually. This procedure was not pursued due to the large number of hotels that an LTO would need to evaluate at larger destinations.

- It was not possible to test the direction of causality due to the cross-sectional nature of the data. Directionality was inferred from theory. Longitudinal data would have been needed to infer the direction of causality statistically. As a result, the study was not able to fully exclude the possibility that stakeholders who trust the LTO are likely to rate stakeholder integration higher. That said, drawing on the theory, it can be assumed that, as hypothesised, it is the other way around.

- The findings can only be generalised within the confines of the underlying sample, which was the Alpine region of Switzerland non-response bias test was conducted to check if the dataset was biased by hotels that did not participate. The test yielded no problems with non-response, indicating appropriate applicability to the Alpine region of Switzerland.

- Generalisability can only be extended to similar settings in other parts of the world. Additionally, these findings can also be used in the realm of other "meta-organizations," such as business interest associations or other interest groups (Ahrne & Brunsson (2005).

5.7 Implications for further research

This study opens avenues for further research in different areas. Methodically, to enhance generalisability, the study could be replicated in different industries and regions. The issue regarding caution is the context of sectors and regions. Further, a longitudinal design could be applied to be able to determine the direction of causality with statistical means.

On the theoretical side, it would be interesting to get a clearer picture of the underlying motivation of organisations as well as the tactics used to integrate stakeholders to enrich the stakeholder integration construct qualitatively. Instead of measuring the degree of stakeholder integration quantitatively, a qualitative research design could yield valuable information about how stakeholder integration is being perceived by the hotels or a particular stakeholder group. This study focused on multiple dyad-level relationships between the focal organisation and the stakeholders. However, by applying a network view, the presumably multilevel dynamics and the consequences of stakeholder integration could be described across an entire stakeholder network.

To get a clearer understanding of the kind of relational approach that stakeholder integration represents according to the classification by Bridoux and Stoelhorst (2016), a future study could try to get a more granular level picture on the type of trust that stakeholder integration generates: calculus-based, knowledge-based or identity-based. Each of these different types of trust is evoked by either market pricing (transactional approach), equality matching, or communal sharing (both relational approaches) (Mossholder, Richardson & Settoon 2011). Stakeholder integration could serve as a concrete suggestion on how to trigger identity-based trust. It would also be interesting to know if and how stakeholder integration shapes the stakeholders' mental representations.

Finally, the conceptual model established in this study can be refined further. Additional mediation and moderation effects that would enrich the model could be derived from theory and then tested.

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Appendix 1

A 1.1 Stakeholder integration scale

Table 67 Items to measure stakeholder integration (Plaza-Úbeda, de Burgos-Jiménez & Carmona-Moreno 2010)

Knowledge of stakeholders and their demands
6) The company keeps documented information on the previous relationships with stakeholders (important meetings, conflicts, agreements, judicial or extrajudicial demands, etc.)
7) Knowledge of all stakeholders and their demands is very important for the managers (performance, relationships among them, positions of power, importance and satisfaction…)
8) The company obtains feedback on its repercussions on stakeholders
9) The company dedicates little time and few resources to knowing the characteristics of its stakeholders (relationships between different stakeholders, potential threats, cooperation, etc.)
10) There is a lack of information and documentation on stakeholders' demands
Stakeholder Interactions
7) The company frequently has meetings with the stakeholders
8) The company consults the Stakeholders and asks them for information before taking decisions
9) The company's formal or informal cooperation with the stakeholders is intense (commitments, collaboration agreements…)
10) Stakeholders participate in the company's decision-taking process
11) The company strives to develop new contacts with all the stakeholders
12) The company dedicates time and resources to assessing and prioritizing the demands of the different stakeholders
Behaviors of adaptation
6) The company makes a special effort to prepare the information for the different stakeholders
7) There is frequent managerial debate about the demands of the stakeholders

8) The company is willing to change its objectives in line with stakeholders' demands
9) The company dedicates little time and few resources to adapting to Stakeholders' demands
10) The company's policies and priorities are adapted to Stakeholders' demands

A 1.2 Trustworthiness scale

Table 68 Trustworthiness measure by Searle et al. (2011)

Ability scale
This organisation is capable of meeting its responsibilities.
This organisation is known to be successful at what it tries to do.
This organisation does things competently.
Benevolence scale
This organisation is concerned about the welfare of its stakeholders.
Stakeholders' needs and desires are important to this organisation.
This organisation will go out of its way to help its stakeholders.
This organisation would never deliberately take advantage of its stakeholders
Integrity scale
This organisation is guided by sound moral principles and codes of conduct
This organisation does not abuse its power.
This organisation does not exploit external stakeholders.

Table 69 Procedural justice measure by Colquitt (2001)

Procedural justice	
The following items refer to the stakeholder integration procedures by the LTO	Source:
8) Have you been able to express your views and feelings during these procedures? (Process control)	Colquitt (2001)

9) Have you had influence over the outcome arrived at by those procedures? (Decision control)	based on justice rules by Leventhal (1980) and Thibaut and Walker (1975)
10) Have those procedures been applied consistently? (Consistency)	
11) Have those procedures been free of bias? (Bias suppression)	
12) Have those procedures been based on accurate information? (Accuracy)	
13) Have you been able to appeal the outcome arrived at by those procedures? (Correctability)	
14) Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards? (Ethicality)	

Appendix 2

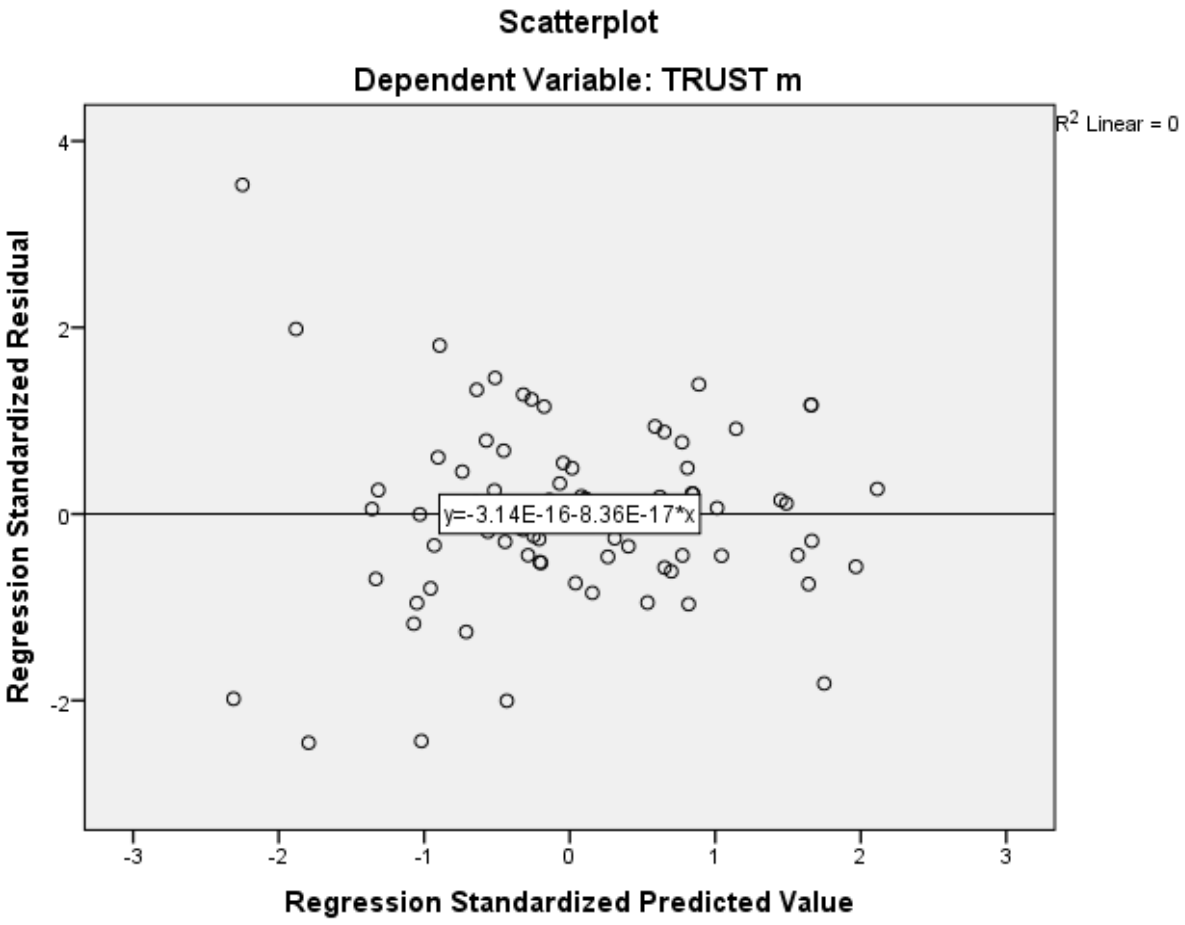
A 2.1 Pilot study: skewness and kurtosis

Table 70 Skewness and kurtosis pilot study

	Skewness	Standard Error	Kurtosis	Standard Error
KNOW1	-0,469	0,274	-0,250	0,541
KNOW2	0,013	0,274	-0,918	0,541
KNOW3	-0,210	0,274	-0,951	0,541
KNOW4	-0,389	0,274	-0,336	0,541
KNOW5	0,453	0,274	-0,674	0,541
INTER1	-0,201	0,274	-1,069	0,541
INTER2	0,260	0,274	-0,935	0,541
INTER3	0,222	0,274	-0,970	0,541
INTER4	0,502	0,274	-0,247	0,541
INTER5	0,442	0,274	-0,382	0,541
INTER6	0,320	0,274	-0,546	0,541
ADAP1	0,027	0,274	-0,741	0,541
ADAP2	0,589	0,274	-0,198	0,541
ADAP3	-0,129	0,274	-0,313	0,541
ADAP4	-0,063	0,274	-1,004	0,541
ADAP5	0,289	0,274	-0,003	0,541
BENE1	-0,342	0,274	-0,428	0,541
BENE2	-0,274	0,274	-0,531	0,541
BENE3	0,254	0,274	-0,242	0,541
BENE4	-0,604	0,274	-0,925	0,541
INTEG1	-1,284	0,274	1,448	0,541
INTEG2	-1,405	0,274	1,450	0,541
INTEG3	-1,606	0,274	2,402	0,541
TRUST1	-0,600	0,274	0,648	0,541
TRUST2	-0,580	0,274	0,600	0,541
TRUST3	-0,213	0,274	0,031	0,541
TRUST4	-0,460	0,274	0,166	0,541
TRUST5	0,000	0,274	-0,358	0,541
TRUST6	-1,107	0,274	1,423	0,541
TRUST7	-0,586	0,274	-0,219	0,541

A 2.2 Pilot study: Plot of standardised vs predicted values

Figure 39 Plot of standardized residuals against predicted values – pilot study



A 2.3 Pilot study: non-response bias test

Table 71 Non-response bias test pilot study

	Group 1 (first responders)			Group 2 (late responders)				
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	T	p
SI	41	2.884	0.826	36	2.854	0.857	-0.159	0.874
TW	41	3.588	0.762	36	3.658	0.883	0.374	0.709

A 2.4 Pilot study: stakeholder integration correlation matrix

Table 72 Stakeholder integration: correlations between items

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1 KNOW_1	1.00															
2 KNOW_2	0.58	1.00														
3 KNOW_3	0.30	0.33	1.00													
4 KNOW_4[a]	0.31	0.50	0.49	1.00												
5 KNOW_5[a]	0.44	0.63	0.25	0.40	1.00											
6 INTER_1	0.46	0.69	0.45	0.42	0.55	1.00										
7 INTER_2	0.47	0.68	0.35	0.41	0.69	0.65	1.00									
8 INTER_3	0.54	0.66	0.43	0.40	0.58	0.75	0.79	1.00								
9 INTER_4	0.43	0.50	0.22	0.30	0.59	0.51	0.70	0.63	1.00							
10 INTER_5	0.50	0.67	0.50	0.44	0.60	0.74	0.77	0.85	0.65	1.00						
11 INTER_6	0.47	0.67	0.43	0.46	0.57	0.66	0.74	0.81	0.66	0.88	1.00					
12 ADAP_1	0.41	0.52	0.31	0.43	0.54	0.65	0.67	0.62	0.48	0.64	0.63	1.00				
13 ADAP_2	0.48	0.58	0.39	0.41	0.50	0.72	0.66	0.75	0.54	0.75	0.72	0.69	1.00			
14 ADAP_3	0.47	0.63	0.39	0.44	0.50	0.67	0.65	0.66	0.53	0.73	0.70	0.64	0.78	1.00		
15 ADAP_4[a]	0.38	0.42	0.50	0.54	0.40	0.39	0.50	0.42	0.22	0.50	0.46	0.44	0.52	0.51	1.00	
16 ADAP_5	0.38	0.43	0.16	0.21	0.34	0.39	0.40	0.42	0.44	0.46	0.48	0.48	0.60	0.56	0.31	1.00

All correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

A 2.5 Pilot study: stakeholder integration communalities

Table 73 Stakeholder integration: communalities of items

	Initial	Extraction
KNOW1	1.000	.395
KNOW2	1.000	.636
KNOW3	1.000	.672
KNOW4	1.000	.634
KNOW5	1.000	.538
INTER1	1.000	.674
INTER2	1.000	.754
INTER3	1.000	.777
INTER4	1.000	.649
INTER5	1.000	.815
INTER6	1.000	.772
ADAP1	1.000	.597
ADAP2	1.000	.725
ADAP3	1.000	.686
ADAP4	1.000	.660
ADAP5	1.000	.408

Extraction method: Principal component analysis

A 2.6 Pilot study: stakeholder integration pattern matrix

Table 74 Stakeholder integration: pattern matrix

	Component 1	Component 2
KNOW1	.893	
KNOW2	.880	
KNOW3	.874	
KNOW4	.868	
KNOW5	.844	
INTER1	.816	
INTER2	.809	
INTER3	.788	
INTER4	.768	
INTER5	.768	
INTER6	.734	
ADAP1	.622	
ADAP2	.621	
ADAP3		.820
ADAP4		.801
ADAP5		.790

Extraction method: Principal component analysis. Rotation method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization

A 2.7 Pilot study: trustworthiness communalities

Table 75 Trustworthiness: communalities of items

	Initial	Extraction
ABI1	1.000	.623
ABI2	1.000	.656
ABI3	1.000	.790
BENE1	1.000	.777
BENE2	1.000	.823
BENE3	1.000	.855
BENE4	1.000	.321
INTEG1	1.000	.789
INTEG2	1.000	.721
INTEG3	1.000	.697

Extraction method: Principal component analysis

A 2.8 Pilot study: trustworthiness pattern matrix

Table 76 Trustworthiness: pattern matrix

	Component 1	Component 2
ABI1	.409	.486
ABI2	.757	
ABI3	.727	
BENE1		.633
BENE2		.749
BENE3		1.032
BENE4		.458
INTEG1	.863	
INTEG2	.898	
INTEG3	.861	

Extraction method: Principal component analysis. Rotation method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization

A 2.9 Pilot study: trustworthiness correlations

Table 77 Trustworthiness: correlations between items

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 ABI 1	1.00									
2 ABI 2	0.62	1.00								
3 ABI 3	0.71	0.82	1.00							
4 BENE 1	0.63	0.52	0.70	1.00						
5 BENE 2	0.62	0.53	0.69	0.90	1.00					
6 BENE 3	0.55	0.38	0.42	0.59	0.69	1.00				
7 BENE 4	0.28	0.34	0.38	0.34	0.35	0.49	1.00			
8 INTEG 1	0.57	0.59	0.70	0.70	0.64	0.34	0.35	1.00		
9 INTEG 2	0.48	0.52	0.60	0.57	0.50	0.30	0.37	0.78	1.00	
10 INTEG 3	0.49	0.60	0.63	0.51	0.51	0.32	0.45	0.67	0.66	1.00

All correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

A 2.10 Pilot study: trust communalities

Table 78 Trust: communalities of items

	Initial	Extraction
TRUST1	1.000	.780
TRUST2	1.000	.830
TRUST3	1.000	.754
TRUST4	1.000	.713
TRUST5	1.000	.590
TRUST6	1.000	.475
TRUST7	1.000	.517

Extraction method: Principal component analysis

A 2.11 Pilot study: trust component matrix

Table 79: Trust: component matrix

	Component
TRUST1	.883
TRUST2	.911
TRUST3	.868
TRUST4	.844
TRUST5	.768
TRUST6	.689
TRUST7	.719

Extraction method: Principal component analysis

A 2.12 Pilot study: trust correlation matrix

Table 80 Trust: correlation matrix

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 TRUST 1	1.00						
2 TRUST 2	0.90	1.00					
3 TRUST 3	0.78	0.83	1.00				
4 TRUST 4	0.71	0.69	0.68	1.00			
5 TRUST 5	0.61	0.63	0.66	0.63	1.00		
6 TRUST 6	0.49	0.51	0.40	0.54	0.41	1.00	
7 TRUST 7	0.45	0.56	0.52	0.53	0.44	0.71	1.00

All correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

A 2.13 Pilot study: trust pattern matrix

Table 81: Trust: pattern matrix for discriminant analysis

	Component 1	Component 2	Component 3
TRUST1	.945		
TRUST2	.915		
TRUST3	.956		
TRUST4	.780		
ABI1		.448	
ABI2			.664
ABI3			.595
BENE1		.693	
BENE2		.773	
BENE3		.984	
INTEG1			.813
INTEG2			.902
INTEG3			.911

Extraction method: Principal component analysis. Rotation method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. Rotations converged in 6 iterations.

A 2.14 Pilot study: procedural justice correlation matrix

Table 82 Procedural justice: correlation matrix

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 JUSTICE 1	1.00						
2 JUSTICE 2	.616	1.00					
3 JUSTICE 3	.471	.613	1.00				
4 JUSTICE 4	.340	.369	.501	1.00			
5 JUSTICE 5	.598	.412	.634	.585	1.00		
6 JUSTICE 6	.452	.524	.480	.284	.437	1.00	
7 JUSTICE 7	.527	.418	.350	.508	.405	.383	1.00

All correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

A 2.15 Pilot study: procedural justice communalities

Table 83 Procedural justice: communalities

	Initial	Extraction
JUSTICE1	1.000	.608
JUSTICE2	1.000	.590
JUSTICE3	1.000	.624
JUSTICE4	1.000	.469
JUSTICE5	1.000	.629
JUSTICE6	1.000	.463
JUSTICE7	1.000	.464

Extraction method: Principal component analysis

A 2.16 Pilot study: procedural justice pattern matrix

Table 84 Procedural justice: pattern matrix

	Component 1	Component 2
JUSTICE1	.735	
JUSTICE2	.781	
JUSTICE3	.702	
JUSTICE4	.730	
JUSTICE5	.609	
JUSTICE6	.613	
JUSTICE7	.804	
TRUST1		-.939
TRUST2		-.907
TRUST3		-.903
TRUST4		-.776

Extraction method: Principal component analysis. Rotation method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization

A 2.17 Main study: skewness and kurtosis

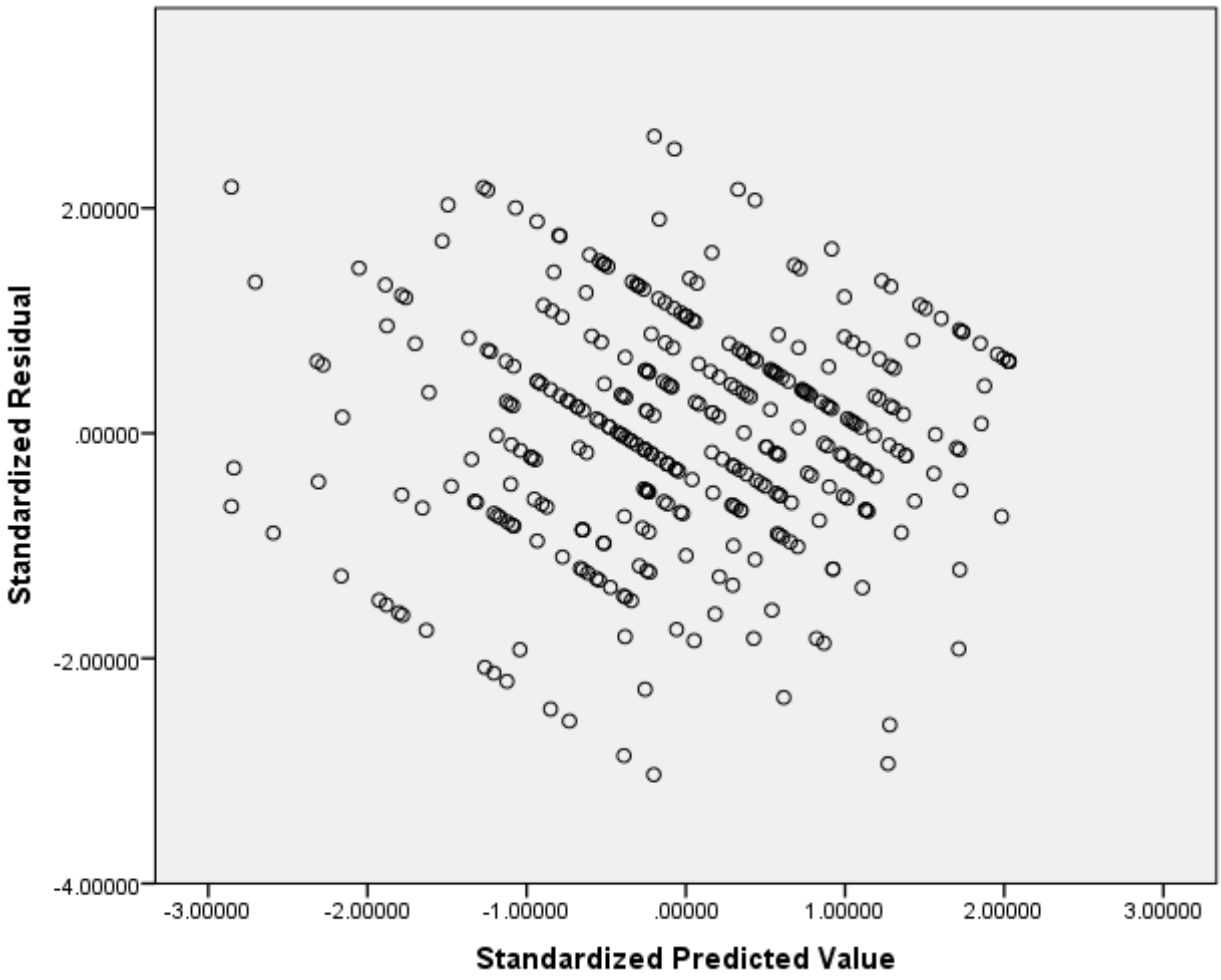
Table 85 Skewness and kurtosis main study

	Skewness	Standard Error	Standard Error x 3	Kurtosis	Standard Error	Standard Error x 3
KNOW1	-0,577	0,130	0,389	-0,455	0,259	0,776
KNOW2	0,140	0,130	0,389	-0,976	0,259	0,776
KNOW3	0,085	0,130	0,389	-0,997	0,259	0,776
KNOW4	-0,086	0,130	0,389	-0,599	0,259	0,776
KNOW5	0,025	0,130	0,389	-0,997	0,259	0,776
KNOWm	-0,056	0,130	0,389	-0,635	0,259	0,776
INTER1	-0,077	0,130	0,389	-1,066	0,259	0,776
INTER2	0,244	0,130	0,389	-1,004	0,259	0,776
INTER3	0,168	0,130	0,389	-0,897	0,259	0,776
INTER4	0,298	0,130	0,389	-0,842	0,259	0,776
INTER5	0,242	0,130	0,389	-0,706	0,259	0,776
INTER6	0,283	0,130	0,389	-0,734	0,259	0,776
INTERm	0,250	0,130	0,389	-0,704	0,259	0,776
ADAP1	0,195	0,130	0,389	-0,702	0,259	0,776
ADAP2	0,238	0,130	0,389	-0,604	0,259	0,776
ADAP3	0,047	0,130	0,389	-0,677	0,259	0,776
ADAP4	0,257	0,130	0,389	-0,720	0,259	0,776
ADAP5	0,309	0,130	0,389	-0,680	0,259	0,776
ADAPm	0,173	0,130	0,389	-0,467	0,259	0,776
Sim	0,131	0,130	0,389	-0,594	0,259	0,776
ABI1	-0,259	0,130	0,389	-0,368	0,259	0,776
ABI2	-0,088	0,130	0,389	-0,497	0,259	0,776
ABI3	-0,424	0,130	0,389	0,024	0,259	0,776
ABIm	-0,234	0,130	0,389	-0,232	0,259	0,776
BENE1	-0,348	0,130	0,389	-0,532	0,259	0,776
BENE2	-0,170	0,130	0,389	-0,651	0,259	0,776
BENE3	0,266	0,130	0,389	-0,463	0,259	0,776
BENEm	-0,137	0,130	0,389	-0,478	0,259	0,776
INTEG1	-0,850	0,130	0,389	0,764	0,259	0,776
INTEG2	-0,927	0,130	0,389	0,661	0,259	0,776

N = 354

A 2.18 Main study: Plot of standardised residuals vs predicted values

Figure 40 Plot of standardised residuals against predicted values – main study



A 2.19 Main study: non-response bias test

Table 86 Non-response bias test main study

	Group 1 (first responders)			Group 2 (late responders)				
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	T	p
SI	243	2.796	0.954	111	2.760	0.839	0.340	0.734
TW	243	3.420	0.829	111	3.409	0.733	0.118	0.906

A 2.20 Main study: stakeholder integration correlation table

Table 87 Stakeholder integration: correlations between items - main study

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1 KNOW_1	1.00															
2 KNOW_2	0.56	1.00														
3 KNOW_3	0.57	0.77	1.00													
4 KNOW_4[a]	0.50	0.65	0.73	1.00												
5 KNOW_5[a]	0.47	0.60	0.65	0.67	1.00											
6 INTER_1	0.51	0.65	0.68	0.55	0.60	1.00										
7 INTER_2	0.49	0.70	0.66	0.61	0.60	0.70	1.00									
8 INTER_3	0.54	0.73	0.72	0.69	0.62	0.73	0.77	1.00								
9 INTER_4	0.44	0.59	0.53	0.51	0.53	0.58	0.65	0.67	1.00							
10 INTER_5	0.54	0.71	0.75	0.71	0.67	0.68	0.73	0.78	0.65	1.00						
11 INTER_6	0.49	0.71	0.72	0.68	0.65	0.65	0.70	0.76	0.63	0.85	1.00					
12 ADAP_1	0.34	0.50	0.51	0.54	0.52	0.54	0.56	0.59	0.40	0.59	0.60	1.00				
13 ADAP_2	0.42	0.56	0.59	0.55	0.58	0.57	0.62	0.61	0.55	0.68	0.65	0.58	1.00			
14 ADAP_3	0.46	0.62	0.63	0.63	0.58	0.59	0.66	0.69	0.58	0.70	0.71	0.61	0.66	1.00		
15 ADAP_4[a]	0.44	0.62	0.64	0.63	0.61	0.61	0.69	0.70	0.61	0.78	0.77	0.65	0.70	0.80	1.00	
16 ADAP_5	0.43	0.60	0.61	0.59	0.60	0.55	0.65	0.67	0.58	0.73	0.71	0.60	0.68	0.76	0.82	1.00

All correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

A 2.21 Main study: stakeholder integration communalities

Table 88 Stakeholder integration: communalities of items - main study

	Initial	Extraction
KNOW1	1.000	.399
KNOW2	1.000	.678
KNOW3	1.000	.707
KNOW4	1.000	.635
KNOW5	1.000	.598
INTER1	1.000	.630
INTER2	1.000	.709
INTER3	1.000	.775
INTER4	1.000	.544
INTER5	1.000	.815
INTER6	1.000	.780
ADAP1	1.000	.501
ADAP2	1.000	.604
ADAP3	1.000	.693
ADAP4	1.000	.746
ADAP5	1.000	.683

Extraction method: Principal component analysis

A 2.22 Main study: stakeholder integration pattern matrix

Table 89 Stakeholder integration: pattern matrix - main study

	Component 1
KNOW1	.631
KNOW2	.824
KNOW3	.841
KNOW4	.797
KNOW5	.773
INTER1	.794
INTER2	.842
INTER3	.880
INTER4	.738
INTER5	.903
INTER6	.883
ADAP1	.708
ADAP2	.777
ADAP3	.833
ADAP4	.863
ADAP5	.826

Extraction method: Principal component analysis. Rotation method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization

A 2.23 Main study: trustworthiness correlations

Table 90 Trustworthiness: correlations between items - main study

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 ABI 1	1.000								
2 ABI 2	0.663	1.000							
3 ABI 3	0.679	0.785	1.000						
4 BENE 1	0.670	0.579	0.628	1.000					
5 BENE 2	0.630	0.530	0.588	0.845	1.000				
6 BENE 3	0.621	0.520	0.570	0.699	0.774	1.000			
7 INTEG 1	0.548	0.503	0.549	0.595	0.524	0.425	1.000		
8 INTEG 2	0.552	0.461	0.501	0.583	0.552	0.480	0.683	1.000	
9 INTEG 3	0.423	0.350	0.451	0.450	0.459	0.383	0.585	0.609	1.00

All correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

A 2.24 Main study: trustworthiness communalities

Table 91 Trustworthiness: communalities of items - main study

	Initial	Extraction
ABI1	1.000	.679
ABI2	1.000	.586
ABI3	1.000	.667
BENE1	1.000	.748
BENE2	1.000	.710
BENE3	1.000	.609
INTEG1	1.000	.576
INTEG2	1.000	.577
INTEG3	1.000	.421

Extraction method: Principal component analysis

A 2.25 Main study: trustworthiness component matrix

Table 92 Trustworthiness: component matrix - main study

	Component 1
ABI1	.824
ABI2	.765
ABI3	.817
BENE1	.865
BENE2	.843
BENE3	.780
INTEG1	.759
INTEG2	.760
INTEG3	.649

Extraction method: Principal component analysis. Rotation method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization

A 2.26 Main study: trust communalities

Table 93 Trust: communalities of items

	Initial	Extraction
TRUST1	1.000	.852
TRUST2	1.000	.863
TRUST3	1.000	.835
TRUST4	1.000	.759

Extraction method: Principal component analysis

A 2.27 Main study: trust component matrix

Table 94: Trust: component matrix

	Component
TRUST1	.923
TRUST2	.929
TRUST3	.914
TRUST4	.871

Extraction method: Principal component analysis

A 2.28 Main study: trust correlation matrix

Table 95 Trust: correlation matrix

Item	1	2	3	4
1 TRUST 1	1.00			
2 TRUST 2	0.87	1.00		
3 TRUST 3	0.78	0.79	1.00	
4 TRUST 4	0.71	0.72	0.76	1.00

All correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

A 2.29 Main study: trust pattern matrix

Table 96: Trust: pattern matrix for discriminant analysis

	Component 1	Component 2
TRUST1	-.901	
TRUST2	-.871	
TRUST3	-.918	
TRUST4	-.863	
ABI1		.871
ABI2		.841
ABI3		.665
BENE1		.886
BENE2		.771
BENE3		.712
INTEG1		.734
INTEG2		.621
INTEG3		.669

Extraction method: Principal component analysis. Rotation method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. Rotations converged in 6 iterations.

A 2.30 Main study: procedural justice correlation matrix

Table 97 Procedural justice: correlation matrix

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 JUSTICE 1	1.00						
2 JUSTICE 2	.617	1.00					
3 JUSTICE 3	.520	.494	1.00				
4 JUSTICE 4	.443	.385	.675	1.00			
5 JUSTICE 5	.484	.422	.611	.578	1.00		
6 JUSTICE 6	.531	.663	.472	.413	.424	1.00	
7 JUSTICE 7	.570	.442	.586	.572	.546	.495	1.00

All correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

A 2.31 Main study: procedural justice communalities

Table 98 Procedural justice: communalities

	Initial	Extraction
JUSTICE1	1.000	.601
JUSTICE2	1.000	.554
JUSTICE3	1.000	.665
JUSTICE4	1.000	.574
JUSTICE5	1.000	.572
JUSTICE6	1.000	.546
JUSTICE7	1.000	.618

Extraction method: Principal component analysis

A 2.32 Main study: procedural justice pattern matrix

Table 99 Procedural justice: pattern matrix

	Component 1	Component 2
JUSTICE1	.850	
JUSTICE2	.781	
JUSTICE3	.758	
JUSTICE4	.653	
JUSTICE5	.676	
JUSTICE6	.747	
JUSTICE7	.815	
TRUST1		-.935
TRUST2		-.926
TRUST3		-.914
TRUST4		-.829

Extraction method: Principal component analysis. Rotation method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization

A 2.33 Main study: DEA efficiency coefficients

Table 100 DEA efficiency coefficients

DMU Name	Output-Oriented CRS Efficiency
Adelboden Total	1.95180
Aeschi bei Spiez Total	1.31117
Airolo	2.58865
Albula/Alvra	2.52036
Andermatt	2.18994
Anniviers	2.05650
Arosa Total	2.06234
Avers Total	3.62956
Ayent	2.83624
Bad Ragaz Total	1.97965
Beatenberg	1.58306
Beckenried Total	1.59641
Bergün/Bravuogn Total	1.68511
Bettmeralp Total	1.94114
Binn	1.70161
Blatten im Lötschental Total	2.46266
Kandergrund	1.60289
Breil/ Brigels	2.77283
Brienz Total	1.49340
Brig	5.99486
Buochs Total	1.00000
Celerina Total	2.16703
Champéry Total	2.48263
Chur Total	1.54972
Churwalden Total	3.46559
Commune de Bagnes	2.17025
Crans-Montana Total	2.53230
Davos Total	1.83057
Disentis	2.75839
Engelberg Total	1.39978
Evolène Total	3.14789
Domleschg	3.77324
Fiesch	3.20664
Filisur Total	2.39320
Flims Total	2.25140
Flums	3.50705
Giswil	1.46043
Glarus Total	3.13107
Glarus Nord Total	2.60297

Glarus Süd Total	3.79074
Goms Total	2.40548
Grächen	2.19121
Grindelwald Total	1.48642
Gruyères	2.32176
Ingenbohl Total	1.37767
Innertkirchen	2.79158
Interlaken Total	1.00000
Isenthal	3.86146
Kandersteg	1.87986
Kerns	2.01359
Kippel	3.49987
Klosters Total	2.63850
Laax	1.47783
Lauenen	2.72696
Lauterbrunnen Total	1.56866
Lenk Total	1.93985
Lens	2.67718
Leuk	2.51291
Leukerbad Total	1.77005
Leysin	1.02232
Lumnezia	7.58081
Luzern (ev. Delete)	1.00144
Martigny Total	2.41341
Matten bei Interlaken Total	1.40619
Meiringen Total	1.96077
Mörel-Filet	2.62166
Morschach Total	1.00000
Naters Total	2.58221
Obergoms	2.01543
Ormont Dessous Total	2.72332
Orsières Total	2.74648
Plaffeien Total	3.59086
Pontresina Total	1.59048
Poschiavo Total	3.29780
Quarten Total	2.64326
Raron	1.75191
Riederalp	2.83099
Saanen Total	2.05401
Saas Fee Total	1.99379
Saas-Almagell	2.18643
Saas-Grund	2.12456
Samnaun Total	1.90942
Sarnen Total	1.79300
Savognin Total	2.94504
Scuol Total	1.77394
Sigriswil	1.25617

Sils im Engadin Total	1.65364
Silvaplana	2.11791
Sion Total	1.61191
St. Moritz Total	1.21318
Stansstad	1.80146
Täsch Total	2.44169
Thusis Total	2.12289
Tschappina	3.62508
Tujetsch Total	2.79237
Unterseen	1.20244
Val d'illiez Total	3.20938
Val Müstair Total	2.86062
Vals	1.97455
Vaz/Obervaz Total	1.72934
Villars-sur-Ollon Total	1.25458
Visp	2.02706
Vitznau Total	1.88480
Walenstadt	2.89988
Weesen	5.10611
Weggis Total	1.52093
Wilderswil	1.56742
Wildhaus-Alt St. Johann Total	3.32003
Zermatt Total	1.39201
Zernez Total	2.93636
Zuoz Total	2.01463
Zweisimmen	3.19578

Appendix 3

A 3.1 Hotel survey German

Fragebogen

1 Sprachauswahl

Bitte wählen Sie Ihre Sprache aus. / Choisissez votre langue, s'il vous plaît.

- ○ Deutsch
- ○ Français

2 Anfang

Herzlich willkommen zur Befragung "Stakeholder Management im Tourismus".

Vielen Dank, dass Sie sich ca. 10 Minuten Zeit für meine Umfrage nehmen!

Ihre Daten werden **vollständig anonymisiert** und ausschliesslich zu wissenschaftlichen Zwecken analysiert.

Vielen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme!
Mit „Weiter" beginnen Sie die Umfrage.

Freundliche Grüsse

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Doktorand USQ/HWZ

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Telefon: 078 732 66 99

3 Politische Gemeinde

Bitte geben Sie die politische Gemeinde an, in der sich Ihr Hotel befindet.

Politische Gemeinde:

Bitte geben Sie den Namen der Tourismusorganisation an, die für Ihr Hotel relevant ist.

Mit "Tourismusorganisation" ist die Organisation gemeint, welche lokale tourismuspolitische Massnahmen trifft und Ihr Hotel primär an der Destination bei der Zielerreichung unterstützt.

Beispiel: Für das "Grand Hotel Zermatterhof" ist "Zermatt Tourismus" die zuständige lokale Tourismusorganisation.

Die für mich relevante lokale
Tourismusorganisation heisst:

Bitte bewerten Sie die Intensität des Kontakts mit Vertretern der Tourismusorganisation an Ihrer Destination:

- ○ sehr hoch
- ○ hoch
- ○ mittel
- ○ tief
- ○ sehr tief
- ○ keinen Kontakt

3.1.1 Filter

HERZLICHEN DANK FÜR IHRE TEILNAHME...

...doch leider können wir Sie aufgrund Ihrer fehlenden Erfahrung in der Zusammenarbeit mit Ihrer Tourismusorganisation nicht für die Umfrage berücksichtigen. Diese Erfahrung ist leider eine sehr wichtige Voraussetzung für die Beantwortung der Fragen. Trotzdem besten Dank für Ihre Teilnahme.

Freundliche Grüsse

Urs Jäckli

Hochschule für Wirtschaft Zürich

3.1.1.1 Endseite

4 Kategorie

Welche Besitzerstruktur trifft am ehesten auf Ihr Hotel zu?

- ○ Internationales Kettenhotel
- ○ Nationales Kettenhotel
- ○ Unabhängiges Hotel
- ○ Anderes

Welche Bezeichnung trifft am ehesten auf Ihr Hotel zu?

- ○ Kongress-/Seminarhotel
- ○ Landgasthof
- ○ Wellnesshotel
- ○ Familienhotel
- ○ Boutiquehotel
- ○ Pension
- ○ Berggasthaus
- ○ Sporthotel
- ○ Jugendherberge
- ○ Hotel mit anderer Positionierung

Über wie viele Sterne verfügt Ihr Hotel? (offizielle Klassifikation)

- ○ Keine Klassifikation
- ○ 1 Stern
- ○ 1 Stern Superior
- ○ 2 Sterne
- ○ 2 Sterne Superior
- ○ 3 Sterne
- ○ 3 Sterne Superior

- 4 Sterne
- 4 Sterne Superior
- 5 Sterne
- 5 Sterne Superior

5 Stakeholder-Integration KNOW

Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern die folgenden Aussagen auf die für Sie relevante Tourismusorganisation zutreffen.

Grundsätzliches zu den folgenden Fragen: Ihre Antworten können nicht richtig oder falsch sein. Es geht um Ihre Auffassungen und Meinungen. Wenn Sie sich in Ihren Antworten nicht ganz sicher sind, ist das nicht schlimm. Die meisten Fragen können und sollen „aus dem Bauch heraus" beantwortet werden.

	trifft überhaupt nicht zu	trifft eher nicht zu	teils-teils	trifft eher zu	trifft voll und ganz zu
Unser Hotel und unsere Anliegen zu kennen, ist für die Vertreter der Tourismusorganisation wichtig.	○	○	○	○	○
Vertreter der Tourismusorganisation holen bei unserem Hotel Feedback darüber ein, wie sich ihr Handeln auf uns auswirkt.	○	○	○	○	○
Die Tourismusorganisation investiert ausreichend Zeit, um unser Hotel besser kennenzulernen.	○	○	○	○	○
Die Tourismusorganisation dokumentiert unsere Anliegen ausreichend.	○	○	○	○	○
Die Tourismusorganisation dokumentiert unsere Geschäftsbeziehung ausreichend (es existieren Protokolle, schriftliche Abmachungen, etc.).	○	○	○	○	○

6 Stakeholder-Integration INTER

Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern die folgenden Aussagen auf die für Sie relevante Tourismusorganisation zutreffen.

	trifft überhaupt nicht zu	trifft eher nicht zu	teils-teils	trifft eher zu	trifft voll und ganz zu
Vertreter der Tourismusorganisation treffen sich regelmässig mit Vertretern unseres Hotels.	○	○	○	○	○
Vertreter der Tourismusorganisation konsultieren Vertreter unseres Hotels und fragen uns um Auskunft, bevor Entscheidungen getroffen werden.	○	○	○	○	○
Die Tourismusorganisation arbeitet intensiv mit unserem Hotel zusammen.	○	○	○	○	○
Unser Hotel nimmt jeweils am Entscheidungsprozess der Tourismusorganisation teil.	○	○	○	○	○
Die Tourismusorganisation investiert ausreichend Zeit in die Entwicklung der Beziehungen mit unserem Hotel.	○	○	○	○	○
Die Tourismusorganisation wendet genügend Zeit und Ressourcen auf für die Bewertung und Priorisierung der Anliegen unseres Hotels.	○	○	○	○	○

7 Stakeholder-Integration ADAP

Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern die folgenden Aussagen auf die für Sie relevante Tourismusorganisation zutreffen.

	trifft überhaupt nicht zu	trifft eher nicht zu	teils-teils	trifft eher zu	trifft voll und ganz zu
Die Tourismusorganisation betreibt einen besonderen Aufwand, um geschäftsrelevante Informationen für unser Hotel aufzubereiten.	○	○	○	○	○
Vertreter der Tourismusorganisation debattieren oft über unsere Anliegen.	○	○	○	○	○
Die Tourismusorganisation ist gewillt, die					

eigenen Ziele mit den Anliegen unseres Hotels in Einklang zu bringen.	○	○	○	○	○
Die Tourismusorganisation wendet ausreichend Zeit und Ressourcen auf, um sich den Anliegen unseres Hotels anzupassen.	○	○	○	○	○
Die Tourismusorganisation passt ihre Strategien und Prioritäten so an, damit diese mit den Anliegen unseres Hotels in Einklang sind.	○	○	○	○	○

8 Vertrauenswürdigkeit Ability

Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern die folgenden Aussagen auf die für Sie relevante Tourismusorganisation zutreffen.

	trifft überhaupt nicht zu	trifft eher nicht zu	teils-teils	trifft eher zu	trifft voll und ganz zu
Die Tourismusorganisation ist fähig, ihre Verantwortung gegenüber den Hotels wahrzunehmen.	○	○	○	○	○
Die Tourismusorganisation ist bekannt dafür, dass sie generell erfolgreich ist, in dem was sie tut.	○	○	○	○	○
Die Tourismusorganisation ist kompetent.	○	○	○	○	○

9 Vertrauenswürdigkeit Benevolence

Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern die folgenden Aussagen auf die für Sie relevante Tourismusorganisation zutreffen.

	trifft überhaupt nicht zu	trifft eher nicht zu	teils-teils	trifft eher zu	trifft voll und ganz zu
Der Tourismusorganisation liegt das Wohl unseres Hotels am Herzen.	○	○	○	○	○
Die Bedürfnisse und Wünsche unseres Hotels sind der Tourismusorganisation wichtig.	○	○	○	○	○
Die Tourismusorganisation scheut keinen Aufwand um unser Hotel zu unterstützen.	○	○	○	○	○

10 Vertrauenswürdigkeit Integrity

Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern die folgenden Aussagen auf die für Sie relevante Tourismusorganisation zutreffen.

	trifft überhaupt nicht zu	trifft eher nicht zu	teils-teils	trifft eher zu	trifft voll und ganz zu
Die Tourismusorganisation hält sich an anerkannte moralische Grundsätze und Verhaltensnormen.	○	○	○	○	○
Die Tourismusorganisation missbraucht ihre Macht nicht.	○	○	○	○	○
Die Tourismusorganisation nutzt unser Hotel nicht aus.	○	○	○	○	○

11 Vertrauen

Vorletzte Frage:Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern die folgenden Aussagen zutreffen.

	trifft überhaupt nicht zu	trifft eher nicht zu	teils-teils	trifft eher zu	trifft voll und ganz zu
Ich bin gewillt, mich auf die fachlichen Einschätzungen der Tourismusorganisation zu verlassen.	○	○	○	○	○
Ich bin gewillt, mich auf die Fähigkeiten und Kenntnisse der Tourismusorganisation zu verlassen.	○	○	○	○	○
Wenn es darum geht, im Namen unseres Hotels wichtige Themen zu behandeln,	○	○	○	○	○

bin ich gewillt, mich auf unsere Tourismusorganisation zu verlassen.					
Wenn es darum geht, unser Hotel adäquat bei Kunden/Gästen zu repräsentieren, bin ich gewillt, mich auf unsere Tourismusorganisation zu verlassen.	○	○	○	○	○

12 Procedural Justice

Letzte Frage: Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern die folgenden Aussagen zutreffen.

	trifft überhaupt nicht zu	trifft eher nicht zu	teils-teils	trifft eher zu	trifft voll und ganz zu
Ich kann im Kontakt mit der Tourismusorganisation meine Sicht der Dinge sowie meine persönlichen Empfindungen jeweils einbringen.	○	○	○	○	○
Ich kann, als Vertreter unseres Hotels, die Resultate der Tourismusorganisation beeinflussen.	○	○	○	○	○
Die Kommunikation mit der Tourismusorganisation ist frei von Widersprüchen.	○	○	○	○	○
Die Vertreter der Tourismusorganisation sind unbefangen (neutral) im Umgang mit unserem Hotel.	○	○	○	○	○
Die Kommunikation seitens der Tourismusorganisation basiert auf präzisen Informationen.	○	○	○	○	○
Unser Hotel hat die Möglichkeit, die Entscheide der Tourismusorganisation nachzuverhandeln.	○	○	○	○	○
Während des Austauschs mit der Tourismusorganisation werden ethische und moralische Standards hochgehalten.	○	○	○	○	○

13 Arbeit bestellen

Sie haben die Befragung abgeschlossen. Vielen Dank! Möchten Sie gerne eine Zusammenfassung der wichtigsten Resultate sowie eine Übersicht der Erkenntnisse für die Praxis erhalten?

○ Ja

○ Nein

Freiwillige allgemeine Bemerkungen zur Umfrage:

Hier finden Sie Platz für Anregungen, Wünsche, Kommentare oder Kritik.

14.1 Filter

Gerne möchte ich Zusammenfassung der wichtigsten Resultate und Erkenntnisse für die Praxis erhalten.

Bitte geben Sie Ihre E-Mail-Adresse an:

15 Endseite

HERZLICHEN DANK FÜR IHRE TEILNAHME!

Sie haben substantiell zum Erfolg der Studie beigetragen.

Freundliche Grüsse

Urs Jäckli
Doktorand USQ/HWZ

Kontakt:
urs.jaeckli@student.fh-hwz.ch
Telefon: 078 732 66 99

A 3.2 Hotel survey French

Fragebogen

1 Sprachauswahl

Bitte wählen Sie Ihre Sprache aus. / Choisissez votre langue, s'il vous plaît.

- Deutsch
- Français

2 Anfang

Bienvenue dans l'enquête sur la « gestion des Stakeholder dans le monde du Tourisme Alpin ».

Merci de me consacrer environ 10 minutes pour me faire part de vos expériences avec votre organisation touristique locale.

Les données personnelles restent anonymes et ne servent qu'à des fins scientifiques.

Je vous remercie de votre participation à cette enquête!
Cliquez "suivant" pour débuter le questionnaire.

Avec mes meilleures salutations.

Urs Jäckli
Doctorant USQ/HWZ

Contact:
urs.jaeckli@student.fh-hwz.ch
Tél.: 078 732 66 99

3 Politische Gemeinde

Veuillez indiquer la commune dans laquelle se trouve votre hôtel.

Nom de la commune:

Veuillez indiquer le nom de l'organisation touristique responsable de votre hôtel.

Par organisation touristique on désigne une organisation qui prend des décisions concernant la politique locale dans le domaine du tourisme et qui soutient les efforts des différentes exploitations qui en dépendent.

Pour exemple: Zermatt Tourisme est l'organisation touristique dont dépend le « Grand Hôtel Zermatterhof ».

Nom de l'organisation touristique responsable de
votre hôtel:

Veuillez indiquer votre niveau d'expérience avec les représentants de l'office de tourisme:

- Très élevée
- Elevée
- Moyen
- Bas
- Très bas
- Aucun contact

3.1.1 Filter

Merci d'avoir participé à notre enquête...

...malheureusement, au vu de votre manque d'expérience dans la collaboration avec une organisation touristique, nous ne pouvons pas tenir compte de vos réponses dans cette enquête.

Meilleures salutations.

Urs Jäckli

Haute Ecole de Gestion, Zurich

3.1.1.1 Endseite

4 Kategorie

Comment définir la famille de votre hôtel ?

- chaîne d'hôtels internationale
- chaîne d'hôtels nationale
- hôtel indépendant
- Autre

Comment présenter votre hôtel ?

- hôtel congrès et séminaires
- auberge de campagne
- hôtel wellness
- hôtel familles
- hôtel-boutique
- hôtel pension
- auberge de montagne
- hôtel sport & spa
- auberge de jeunesse
- autre définition

Combien d'étoiles votre hôtel affiche-t-il ? (classification officielle)

- aucune
- 1 étoile
- 1 étoile Superior
- 2 étoiles
- 2 étoiles Superior
- 3 étoiles
- 3 étoiles Superior
- 4 étoiles
- 4 étoiles Superior

- 5 étoiles
- 5 étoiles Superior

5 Stakeholder-Integration KNOW

Dans quelle mesure, êtes-vous d'accord avec les déclarations suivantes concernant votre organisation touristique ?

En principe, vos réponses ne peuvent pas être justes ou fausses. Nous souhaitons avoir votre point de vue sur le sujet. Si vous n'êtes pas tout à fait sûr de vos commentaires ce n'est pas grave...La plupart des réponses devraient être spontanées.

	Pas du tout d'accord	Pas d'accord	Ni en désaccord ni d'accord	D'accord	Tout à fait d'accord
Notre hôtel et nos requêtes intéressent vraiment les représentants de l'organisation touristique.	○	○	○	○	○
Les représentants de l'organisation touristique s'intéressent au résultat de leurs démarches en notre faveur et prennent contact avec notre hôtel.	○	○	○	○	○
L'organisation touristique s'investit suffisamment pour mieux connaître notre hôtel.	○	○	○	○	○
L'organisation touristique se préoccupe suffisamment de documenter nos requêtes.	○	○	○	○	○
L'organisation touristique se préoccupe de nos relations professionnelles (en présentant des procès-verbaux, des accords écrits, etc.)	○	○	○	○	○

6 Stakeholder-Integration INTER

Dans quelle mesure, êtes-vous d'accord avec les déclarations suivantes concernant votre organisation touristique ?

	Pas du tout d'accord	Pas d'accord	Ni en désaccord ni d'accord	D'accord	Tout à fait d'accord
Des représentants de l'organisation touristique se rencontrent régulièrement avec des représentants de notre hôtel.	○	○	○	○	○
Des représentants de l'organisation touristique consultent des représentants de notre hôtel et se renseignent avant de prendre des décisions.	○	○	○	○	○
L'organisation touristique travaille en étroite collaboration avec notre hôtel.	○	○	○	○	○
Notre hôtel participe à chaque débat précédant une décision prise par l'organisation touristique.	○	○	○	○	○
L'organisation touristique s'investit suffisamment dans le développement des relations avec notre hôtel.	○	○	○	○	○
L'organisation touristique consacre suffisamment du temps et des fonds à l'évaluation et à la priorisation des requêtes de notre hôtel.	○	○	○	○	○

7 Stakeholder-Integration ADAP

Dans quelle mesure, êtes-vous d'accord avec les déclarations suivantes concernant votre organisation touristique ?

	Pas du tout d'accord	Pas d'accord	Ni en désaccord ni d'accord	D'accord	Tout à fait d'accord
L'organisation touristique fait des efforts particuliers pour préparer des informations d'importance commerciale pour notre hôtel.	○	○	○	○	○
Des représentants de l'organisation touristique débattent régulièrement de nos requêtes.	○	○	○	○	○
L'organisation touristique est d'accord de poursuivre ses propres objectifs en accord avec les requêtes de notre hôtel.	○	○	○	○	○
L'organisation touristique consacre	○	○	○	○	○

suffisament de temps et de ressources pour s'adapter aux besoins de notre hôtel.					
L'organisation touristique adapte ses stratégies et ses priorités afin d'être en accord avec les requêtes de notre hôtel.	○	○	○	○	○

8 Vertrauenswürdigkeit Ability

Dans quelle mesure, êtes-vous d'accord avec les déclarations suivantes concernant votre organisation touristique ?

	Pas du tout d'accord	Pas d'accord	Ni en désaccord ni d'accord	D'accord	Tout à fait d'accord
L'organisation touristique est capable de défendre ses propres responsabilités.	○	○	○	○	○
L'organisation touristique a la réputation d'avoir du succès dans ce qu'il entreprend.	○	○	○	○	○
L'organisation touristique est compétent.	○	○	○	○	○

9 Vertrauenswürdigkeit Benevolence

Dans quelle mesure, êtes-vous d'accord avec les déclarations suivantes concernant votre organisation touristique ?

	Pas du tout d'accord	Pas d'accord	Ni en désaccord ni d'accord	D'accord	Tout à fait d'accord
L'organisation touristique prend à cœur la prospérité de notre hôtel.	○	○	○	○	○
L'organisation touristique accorde de l'importance aux besoins et aux souhaits de notre hôtel.	○	○	○	○	○
L'organisation touristique ne recule devant aucun effort pour soutenir notre hôtel.	○	○	○	○	○

10 Vertrauenswürdigkeit Integrity

Dans quelle mesure, êtes-vous d'accord avec les déclarations suivantes concernant votre organisation touristique ?

	Pas du tout d'accord	Pas d'accord	Ni en désaccord ni d'accord	D'accord	Tout à fait d'accord
L'organisation touristique se soumet aux principes moraux et aux normes de conduite reconnus.	○	○	○	○	○
L'organisation touristique n'abuse pas de son pouvoir.	○	○	○	○	○
L'organisation touristique ne profite pas de notre hôtel.	○	○	○	○	○

11 Vertrauen

Avant-dernière question: Dans quelle mesure, êtes-vous d'accord avec les déclarations suivantes concernant votre organisation touristique ?

	Pas du tout d'accord	Pas d'accord	Ni en désaccord ni d'accord	D'accord	Tout à fait d'accord
Je suis d'accord de m'en remettre aux évaluations professionnelles de l'organisation touristique.	○	○	○	○	○
Je suis d'accord de m'en remettre aux compétences et aux connaissances de l'organisation touristique.	○	○	○	○	○
S'il s'agit de traiter des sujets en notre nom, je suis d'accord de m'en remettre à notre organisation touristique.	○	○	○	○	○
S'il s'agit de représenter correctement notre hôtel auprès de clients/hôtes, je suis d'accord de m'en remettre à l'organisation touristique.	○	○	○	○	○

12 Procedural Justice

Dernière question: Dans quelle mesure, êtes-vous d'accord avec les déclarations suivantes concernant votre organisation touristique ?

	Pas du tout d'accord	Pas d'accord	Ni en désaccord ni d'accord	D'accord	Tout à fait d'accord
J'ai dans mes échanges avec l'organisation touristique, l'occasion de faire valoir mon point de vue et mes positions personnelles.	○	○	○	○	○
Je peux influencer les résultats de ces échanges avec l'organisation touristique.	○	○	○	○	○
Ces échanges avec l'organisation touristique sont exemptés de contradictions.	○	○	○	○	○
Les représentants de l'organisation touristique sont impartiaux (neutres).	○	○	○	○	○
Les échanges sont basés sur des informations précises.	○	○	○	○	○
Votre hôtel a la possibilité de renégocier les décisions de l'organisation touristique.	○	○	○	○	○
Ces échanges prennent en considération les normes de la morale et de l'éthique.	○	○	○	○	○

13 Arbeit bestellen

Nous sommes parvenus au terme de notre questionnaire. Merci ! Souhaiteriez-vous recevoir un résumé des résultats les plus importants de notre enquête, ainsi qu'un aperçu des conclusions à tirer dans la pratique ?

○ Oui

○ Non

Commentaires:

14.1 Filter

Merci de me faire parvenir un résumé des résultats les plus importants de l'enquête, ainsi qu'un aperçu des conclusions à tirer dans la pratique.

Veuillez indiquer votre adresse e-mail :

15 Endseite

Merci de votre participation!

Le succès de cette étude dépend de vous aussi!

Meilleures salutations

Urs Jäckli
Doctorant USQ/HWZ

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