

Evaluating The Effectiveness Of Tourism Promotion Strategies And Policy Frameworks For Destination Competitiveness: A Case Study Of Da Nang City, Vietnam

Nguyen Thi Kim Thoa^{1*}, Nguyen Tuong Huy², Le My Dung³, Nguyen Phu Thang⁴

^{1,4}The University of Danang, University of Science and Education, Vietnam

^{2,3}Hanoi National University of Education, Vietnam

*Corresponding author: ntkthoa@ued.udn.vn

Abstract

Destination competitiveness has emerged as a vital topic in tourism studies, especially in emerging economies where government-led promotion and policy strategies have a key but often mixed impact. In spite of increased theoretical interest, empirical research on the influence of various promotion and policy dimensions on competitiveness in Southeast Asia remains sparse. We fill this gap by assessing the effects of promotion strategy and tourism policy frameworks on destination competitiveness in Da Nang city, Vietnam. A close-ended survey was distributed to 250 tourism businesses, hotels, tour operators, and travel agencies. Data were processed using Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) in SmartPLS 3.0 to examine both measurement reliability and the hypothesized structural relationships. The findings reveal that mass media and digital promotion, partnership and product development, and sustainability and governance policies increase competitiveness, while event- and trade-based promotion has a negative effect on competitiveness. Economic and enterprise policies and product, human resource, and heritage policies are insignificant in influencing competitiveness. The model exhibits strong reliability and validity with acceptable fit indices (SRMR = 0.066). These results extend the resource-based view by highlighting the need for strategic alignment and suggest that policymakers should prioritize digital transformation, collaborative partnerships, and sustainable governance while revisiting event-based promotion and policy implementation mechanisms.

Keywords: Destination competitiveness; Resource-based view; PLS-SEM; Tourism policy; Digital promotion; Sustainable governance; Vietnam.

1. INTRODUCTION

Tourism has become a key global industry, playing a substantial role in economic growth, employment generation, and intercultural understanding (Jie, 2025; Zhao et al., 2023). Over the past decades, many destinations have increasingly realized the significance of developing a competitive tourism industry, not only to welcome tourists but also to sustain it in the long run (Crouch & Ritchie, 1999; Dwyer & Kim, 2003; Kumar & Dhir, 2020). A destination's competitiveness is determined by the integration of successful tourism promotion schemes and consistent policy structures that guide development, manage resources, and respond to changing market dynamics (Purwono et al., 2024; UNWTO, 2018). These factors play a vital role in designing destinations' images, improving their attractiveness, and providing a conducive environment for tourism businesses to thrive.

Vietnam, due to its natural beauty, cultural heritage, and geographical location, has witnessed unprecedented growth in the tourism sector (Thao, 2025). Da Nang city, in this national scenario, has developed into a bustling and now much sought-after destination. Famous for its UNESCO World Heritage Sites of Hoi An Ancient Town and My Son Sanctuary, unspoiled beaches, and mountainous regions, Da Nang receives a continuously increasing number of domestic and foreign tourists. But this growth has also increased competition with other regional and international destinations and thus necessitates strong promotional strategies and effective policy mechanisms to retain and consolidate its position in the market (H. K. T. Nguyen et al., 2023).

Despite the acknowledged importance of promotion and policy, empirical studies that have evaluated their effectiveness from the perspective of local tourism businesses, and especially in emerging destinations like Da

Nang, are scarce. Previous studies have often focused on outlining promotional actions or analyzing policy content (Reed et al., 2021; Siar, 2023), as opposed to quantitatively measuring their perceived effectiveness and practical implications. This gap limits evidence-informed decision-making and the effective distribution of resources by local governments and tourism organizations. Without knowledge of how tourism businesses view the effectiveness of current strategies and policies, efforts to drive competitiveness are liable to be misaligned, potentially leading to ineffective investments and missed opportunities for sustainable development (Khater et al., 2024); (Baum, 2018).

To fill this gap, this research examines the effectiveness of tourism promotion strategies and policy frameworks in Da Nang from the viewpoint of tourism enterprises. In particular, it aims to determine the strategies being used, assess how businesses view their contribution to competitiveness, and examine the challenges and opportunities in their implementation. In the process, the research puts forward empirical evidence that not only enhances theoretical models of destination competitiveness but also makes practical suggestions for policymakers and tourism authorities in the city. By bringing in industry insights, the research hopes to contribute to the development of more responsive, sustainable, and effective strategies for improving Da Nang's competitiveness amidst a more demanding global tourism environment.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

This section provides a comprehensive review of key theoretical concepts and empirical studies relevant to destination competitiveness, tourism promotion strategies, and tourism policy frameworks. Based on this review, specific hypotheses are developed to guide the empirical investigation.

2.1. Destination competitiveness

Destination competitiveness has become a key thread in tourism studies and policy that indicates the capacity of a destination to attract and retain tourists while providing value to stakeholders and guaranteeing long-term sustainability (Andrades & Dimanche, 2017; Cracolici & Nijkamp, 2009; Goffi, 2013; Purwono et al., 2024). In the wake of rising global competition, technological upheaval, and post-pandemic recovery, competitiveness is no longer solely a matter of attracting tourists—it is about developing responsive, inclusive, and sustainable tourism systems (Chakraborty, 2024; Raj, 2024; Wind, 2020).

Classic theories such as Ritchie and Crouch (2003) and Dwyer and Kim (2003) have shaped the academic literature. Ritchie and Crouch provide a multi-faceted model consisting of core resources and attractors, supporting factors, destination management, qualifying and amplifying conditions, and situational context. Dwyer and Kim, by using Porter's diamond model, highlight the inter-connection between demand conditions, related industries, government, and destination-specific factors. These models have provided a solid ground to study how destinations develop competitive opportunities.

However, more recent studies in academic literature have tried to advance such models in response to new trends. (Lasisi et al., 2023), for example, developed the OECD Tourism Competitiveness Framework, which emphasizes more the significance of innovation, sustainability, digital infrastructure, and crisis management capacity. At the same time, (Estiri et al., 2022) call for destination resilience to be considered as a central component of competitiveness, especially in the context of the COVID-19 crisis. Likewise, (Vecchio et al., 2018) highlight the need for "smart tourism ecosystems" where destinations utilize big data, real-time data, and digital platforms to co-create value with tourists and stakeholders.

There exists a vast amount of literature that has validated a set of constructs that define destination competitiveness, including tourism infrastructure, accessibility, quality of service, human capital, safety, innovation, and governance quality (González-Rodríguez et al., 2023; Manrai et al., 2018; Mira et al., 2016; Reisinger et al., 2019). Destination image created by induced and organic communication has also been reaffirmed as among the drivers of competitiveness through impacting tourist perception and behavioral intention (Chiu et al., 2016; Lee, 2009; Nguyen Viet et al., 2020). Furthermore, tourism competitiveness is also viewed from a stakeholder perspective. According to Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory, researchers have argued that inclusive government, where firms, people, and policymakers collaborate, lies at the heart of creating a competitive advantage (Veríssimo et al., 2024).

Empirical facts have pointed to context-specific conditions. Competitiveness within emerging economies is often constrained or supported by issues such as asymmetrical infrastructure building, erratic policy implementation, and digital uptake limitations (Balta-Ozkan et al., 2015; Vasani & Abdulkareem, 2024).

With more literature available, there are still some gaps. First, while existing models offer full theoretical insight, scant research studies examine how local tourism companies perceive and react to competitiveness drivers. Second, promotion and policy strategies are less empirically combined as twin competitiveness drivers—particularly from the business sector's perspective. Third, firm-level variables' moderation role (e.g., business size and type) remains less explored in competitiveness (Aktaş Çimen et al., 2024; Sharma et al., 2024). These limitations call for a research requirement that operationalizes the key constructs in a quantifiable manner and locates them within the context of a tourism destination.

In the case of Da Nang city, a region contrasting cultural heritage (My Son, Hoi An) with urban coastal tourism, destination competitiveness is dependent on the coordination of strategic promotion, enabling policy, and stakeholder involvement. As such, an investigation into how tourism businesses perceive the efficacy of these dimensions provides solid information on the operational facts of competitiveness and informs evidence-based planning approaches to sustainable destination development.

2.2. Tourism promotion strategies

Promotion of tourism has been viewed as a central instrument in building destination image, stimulating demand, and raising visitor engagement. Under an environment where destinations compete in a globalized, digitalized market space that has been increasingly congested, the effectiveness of tourism promotion activities has become a prime mover of destination competitiveness and performance (Pike, 2017; Pike & Page, 2014). Promotion not only stimulates awareness and curiosity but also propels the process of decision-making by tourists, loyalty, and perceived value.

Concepts of classic marketing, e.g., the AIDA model (Attention–Interest–Desire–Action), remain the foundation in explaining consumers' cognitive and affective processes through which they are influenced by promotional messages. Destination Image Theory (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991) in tourist literature contends that promotional behavior significantly affects both cognitive (attributes, infrastructure) and affective (feelings, experiences) destination perceptions, which in turn have a bearing on travel intentions and satisfaction.

Over the last ten years, methods of promoting tourism have radically evolved, with a robust transition from traditional media (e.g., broadcast, print, trade shows) to digital and experiential channels. Scholars have consistently focused on content marketing, user-generated content, social media influencers, and immersive technologies (e.g., AR/VR, virtual tours) in engaging potential travelers and building destination brands (Baker et al., 2023; Bilan et al., 2024; Bretos et al., 2023; H. K. T. Nguyen et al., 2023).

In particular, social media such as Instagram, TikTok, and YouTube have shifted the balance of destination marketing. Studies reveal that destinations that leverage short-form videos and engaging storytelling tend to achieve high reach, engagement, and conversion rates (Armutcu et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2024; Munar & Jacobsen, 2014; Xu et al., 2021). Furthermore, content co-creation—i.e., how tourists co-create a destination's narrative—has been established as an inexpensive and reliable vehicle to construct image and trust (Oliveira & Panyik, 2015).

Despite the technological innovation, promotion effectiveness still hinges upon destination identity, segmentation, and message consistency. The successful promotional approaches, according to (Morgan et al., 2012), are those that help to unambiguously differentiate the destination, resolve its own individual USPs, and engage the target audience's values. Also, integrated marketing communication (IMC) campaigns—benthal online and offline efforts—have been found to maximize synergies while maintaining brand consistency across channels (Madhavaram et al., 2005).

However, research also shows variations in promotional potential among destinations. Emerging destinations, including Southeast Asian destinations, are likely to be plagued by problems like limited budgets, fragmented branding, low digital literacy, and underdeveloped DMO organizations (Ha & Chuah, 2023). Coordination between local and national promotion in Vietnam sometimes fails to be consistent,

resulting in gaps or overlaps between communications. For destinations like Da Nang city, which has products spanning from cultural heritage to urban beach products, combined promotion is particularly vital for brand establishment and positioning in the market.

Moreover, stakeholder involvement also impacts the effectiveness of promotion. Tourism businesses—especially SMEs—are typically both recipients and generators of destination promotion but not always involved in strategy development. This can lead to brand communication messaging and on-the-ground actual service experiences being decoupled (T. Q. T. Nguyen et al., 2021). Hence, it is of vital importance to understand how tourism businesses perceive the effectiveness of promotional activity so that promotion is not only externally appealing but also internally sustainable.

Although empirical research has confirmed the positive effect of promotion on tourist arrival, image development, and revenue (Lu & Cui, 2022; Theriksen, 2003), comparatively less research has focused on its perceived effectiveness by local actors. It is particularly significant in decentralized tourism systems where implementation largely relies on local firms' and adoption of promotional approaches.

Overall, tourism marketing strategies have become multi-faceted and increasingly digitalized activities that critically contribute to a destination's image and competitiveness. However, success depends not just on design and delivery but also on consistency with destination traits and active participation of stakeholders. With the dynamism and complexity of the promotional environment, this study aims to assess the perceived effectiveness of tourism promotion strategies among Da Nang city businesses to inform more responsive and effective promotional frameworks.

2.3. Tourism policy frameworks

Tourism policy structures are the institutional setting of tourism development, providing the regulatory, strategic, and operational rules within which the stakeholders operate in the tourism industry. These structures encompass rules, regulations, guidelines, and objectives that define the way the tourism is planned, managed, and sustained within a particular jurisdiction (Edgell & Swanson, 2013; Jenkins et al., 2011; Siar, 2023). In both developing and advanced economies, tourism policy has a twofold purpose: supporting the development of the industry and safeguarding the environmental, social, and cultural foundations on which the industry is based (Hall, 2005).

Theoretical foundations for tourism policy research are based on the Institutional Theory (Amenta & Ramsey, 2010), emphasizing formal rules, informal norms, and enforcement regimes as critical in directing organizational behavior and market performance. In tourism, institutions of good quality reduce uncertainty, raise investor confidence, and bring about a congruence of public goals and private interests. Institutional quality has recently been asserted to be important to foster competitiveness, especially in risky or changing contexts (Buitrago R. & Barbosa Camargo, 2021).

An effective tourism policy framework typically addresses six key areas: (1) investment and infrastructure development; (2) human capital development and certification; (3) environmental conservation and heritage protection; (4) innovation and product diversification; (5) compliance with regulations and service quality; and (6) marketing, branding, and promotion (Stevenson et al., 2008; D. Wang & Ap, 2013). Harmonization with upper-level national and local master development plans is critical to prevent fragmentation and realize maximum effect from the policy.

But policy effectiveness depends less on design than on implementation and the extent to which the policy is responsive to conditions on the ground. For (Bramwell & Lane, 2011), top-down approaches regularly fail due to a lack of consultation with stakeholders, rigid regulation processes, or inadequate harmonization with market forces. On the other hand, inclusive and participatory policy-making processes have been associated with increased levels of compliance, local innovation, and stable destinations (De Smedt & Borch, 2022).

Adaptive policy approaches—that is, policy with capabilities to adapt to change, uncertainty, and crisis—gained momentum in the last few years. The COVID-19 pandemic was a test for tourism governance resilience that exposed weaknesses in coordination, crisis preparedness, and communication in most destinations (Sigala, 2020). Emerging literature argues that destinations with demonstrated policy agility, inter-sectoral

coordination, and digital governance capacity were best positioned for recovery as well as long-term competitiveness (Dubey et al., 2023).

In Southeast Asia and Vietnam, policy designs for tourism evolve to respond to decentralization, sustainability issues, and expanded digital infrastructure influence. While national policy provides overall direction, provincial and municipal governments often apply the operationalization of tourism policies. Decentralization, enhancing flexibility by context, results in heterogeneity of policy coherence, conformity, and private-sector engagement. In Da Nang city, this branch is observed in the different approaches to licensing, infrastructure construction, heritage preservation, and taxation of tourism.

In spite of growing awareness of tourism policy as a competitiveness driver, empirical research estimating the effectiveness of policy from the firm perspective is scarce. Policy content or macroeconomic performances are the focus of most assessments, with scant attention paid to how policies are read, lived, and responded to by frontline firms. This lack underscores the imperative to close the gap between institutional aims and firm-level realities through more conversational, data-driven, and responsive policy modes.

2.4. Relationship between Promotion strategies, Policy frameworks, and Destination competitiveness

The interdependent, dynamic interaction between destination competitiveness, tourism promotion policy, and promotion strategies is now better understood. While they were previously examined independently as individual levers of tourism development, recent literature sheds light on the complementarity of policy-promotion, which contributes to a destination's competitiveness and sustainable success (Therkelsen, 2003). Promotional measures are typically placed in the broader regulatory and strategic framework erected by tourism policy (Torres et al., 2025). Branding policies, digital transformation, and human capacity development can significantly augment the effectiveness of promotional measures (Shams et al., 2024). Investment by governments in online platforms, for instance, allows for the leverage of big data analytics as well as real-time marketing, while open regulatory frameworks establish uniformity in brand presentation and intellectual property rights for destination branding.

Promotion, on the contrary, can be utilized as an extension of successful policy as a supporting message of sustainability, security, accessibility, or innovation. While the policies and advertising campaigns are aligned, the two can build a harmonious brand image that attracts the tourists and the investors alike. Policy programs for green tourism or historic preservation, for example, tend to complement advertising campaigns exuding authenticity, responsibility, and value to the local (Smith, 2015).

Strategically, IDM is concerned with ensuring promotional, infrastructural, and regulatory components coordinate within a common picture of competitiveness (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003). IDM would propose that, without enabling policies—e.g., promotion of investment, standards of quality, or human resource improvement—promotion can generate expectations that cannot be fulfilled, which leads to reputational risk and visitor dissatisfaction (Go & Govers, 2000).

Empirical evidence has validated this interaction. (Bornhorst et al., 2010) found that places with well-coordinated promotion-policy regimes experienced greater visitor growth in arrivals, satisfaction scores, and stakeholder confidence. Similarly, (Mukherjee et al., 2021) found that conflicting or bureaucratic policy settings undermine the effectiveness of even the most highly endowed marketing initiatives. Such findings amplify the importance of policy-promotion cooperation not merely at the design level but at implementation and evaluation as well.

However, most destinations—particularly in emerging economies—lack such synergy. These include fragmented government, weak coordination between the national and local governments, under-resourced destination management organizations (DMOs), and lack of feedback loops from tourism enterprises. As a result, promotional activities are behind infrastructural readiness or regulatory transparency, thereby undermining overall competitiveness.

Another unexplored area of research is the mediating function of local tourist enterprises in policy and promotion impact. They are not only implementers but interpreters of policies and programs. Their perception of how effective promotion and policy are in practice offers useful feedback to the actual-world

effectiveness of such interventions (Setegn & Japee, 2025). Their opinions, however, are not heard when planning for tourism.

In total, the literature confirms that destination competitiveness is not solely the result of promotion or policy but is due to the extent of strategic congruity between them. Tourism governance of the future needs to make cross-sector collaboration, stakeholder engagement, and cyclical policy-promotion adaptation priorities in order to remain effective amidst rapidly evolving tourism landscapes.

2.5. Hypothesis Development

Based on the literature reviewed in sections 2.1 to 2.4, this study develops four hypotheses reflecting theoretically grounded and empirically testable relationships between tourism promotion styles, policy models, and destination competitiveness, with an eye toward possible moderating effects of firm characteristics.

H1: Destination competitiveness is predicted to be influenced positively by Perceived effectiveness of Mass Media & Digital Promotion (P1).

Mass media and electronic promotion are crucial for the image-making and global coverage of a destination (Veseli et al., 2025). Marketing communication, being one of the core drivers of destination attractiveness (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003), is a key component of the Destination Competitiveness Model. These are supported by recent studies as well: (Y. Wang, 2016) mentions that crisis communication and media branding improve competitive positioning; (Febrian et al., 2022) emphasizes social media campaign importance in developing brand equity; and (Hussain et al., 2024) conclude that destinations employing digital content achieve greater engagement and tourist arrivals.

H2: Destination competitiveness is expected to increase with perceived effectiveness of Events & Trade Promotion (P2).

The events and trade promotion activity of market access and B2B networks are encouraged by international tourism fairs, exhibitions, and presstrips/famtrips, which strengthen market access and B2B networks. According to the resource-based view (Seriki, 2023), such linkages of markets are strategic assets that provide firms and destinations with competitive advantage. Empirical supports are robust: (Menon & Edward, 2014) proved a direct relationship between trade fair visitation and other inbound visitors; (Mandagi & Centeno, 2024) are convinced that events lie at the heart of branding the destination and developing partnerships; and (Parshakov et al., 2020) proves event-based promotion increases regional competitiveness and economic spillover.

H3: The success perceived in Partnership & Product Development (P3) will positively influence destination competitiveness.

Strategic partnerships and joint product development ensure value co-creation between destination managers, airlines, transport suppliers, and local businesses. This aligns with the collaborative advantage approach (Dwyer & Kim, 2003), highlighting that competitiveness in destinations arises through cooperation among the stakeholders. Support for this is offered by (Zhang, 2025), illustrating how destination partnerships result in innovation and competitiveness; and (Perkins et al., 2022) confirm that stakeholder cooperation is a critical success factor for competitive destinations.

H4: Perceived effectiveness of Economic & Enterprise Policies (K1) will be expected to have a positive influence on destination competitiveness.

Economic and enterprise-developing policies, such as investment incentives, tax benefits, and fiscal support, provide tourism businesses access to resources to innovate and develop. Policy frameworks from resource-based theory are facilitating conditions, which allow firms to translate resources into competitive advantage. There is evidence from existing literature for this: Hall (2005) maintains that pro-tourism investment policies are determinant factors in destination competitiveness; Crouch & Ritchie (1999) acknowledge economic policies as determinant factors in competitive performance; and (Enright & Newton, 2005) demonstrate that government support policies are determinant factors in destination competitiveness in Asia.

H5: It is assumed that the perceived success of Product, Human Resource & Heritage Policies (K2) will positively influence destination competitiveness.

Product development policies, training policies for human resources, and heritage conservation policies increase not only the supply side of tourism but also the authenticity of tourist experience. Cultural heritage and human capital are sustainable long-run sources of differentiation based on models of sustainable competitiveness (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003). Support for these include: (UNWTO, 2007) suggests that destinations that are investing in developing their staff enjoy improved service quality; (Canale et al., 2019) highlight that heritage policy improves destination identity and attractiveness; and (Thao, 2025) empirically demonstrate that product and HR policy facilitate Vietnam's sustainable tourism competitiveness.

H6: The perceived effectiveness of Sustainability & Governance Policies (K3) is expected to have a positive impact on destination competitiveness.

Policy and sustainability for governance ensure environmental protection, visitor safety, and stakeholder participation, all of which are key to long-term competitiveness. The triple bottom line approach (Del-Aguila-Arcentales et al., 2022) claims that economic, environmental, and social sustainability all serve to facilitate competitiveness. This is also empirically validated: Ritchie & Crouch (2003) identify sustainability as a foundation of competitive destinations; Dwyer & Kim (2003) confirm that governance and stakeholder participation increase destination resilience; and (Campos-Soria et al., 2021) shows that environmental sustainability directly impacts tourists' destination choices.

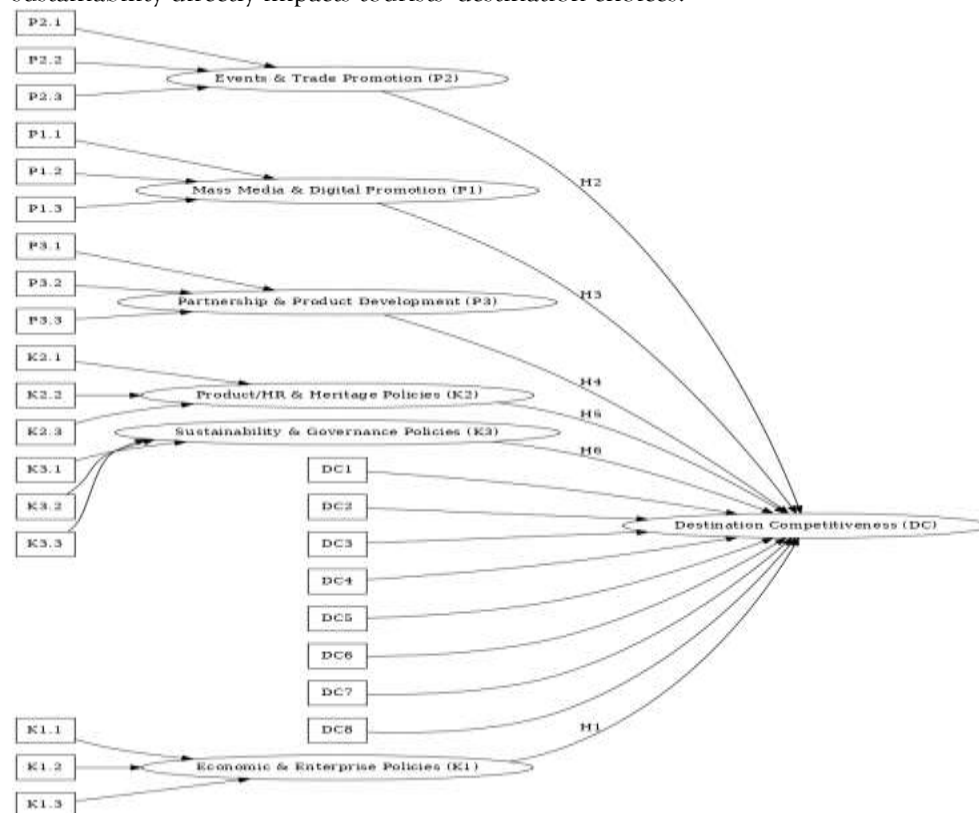


Figure 1. The research model

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study adopts a quantitative research approach in investigating the determinants of destination competitiveness in Da Nang city, Vietnam. A multidimensional analysis framework was adopted, integrating promotion strategies and tourism policy frameworks as the most important determinants of competitiveness. With the application of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), the research aims at empirically validating the hypothesized relationships and determining the effect size between constructs, thereby enlightening a deeper understanding of the determinants of tourism competitiveness.

The research tool was crafted carefully based on theoretical concepts and past studies. There were six main constructs measured in the questionnaire: Mass Media & Digital Promotion (P1), Events & Trade Promotion (P2), Partnership & Product Development (P3), Economic & Enterprise Policies (K1), Product, Human Resource & Heritage Policies (K2), and Sustainability & Governance Policies (K3). Each construct was operationalized by multiple observed items measuring perceptions of effectiveness, with responses scaled on a 5-point Likert scale anchored by 1 = "Very Ineffective" and 5 = "Very Effective." For the purposes of clarity, cultural appropriateness, and reliability, the instrument was pilot-tested with a group of 20 tourism managers before more extensive distribution.

Data were collected from 250 Da Nang city-based tourism businesses, including hotels, travel agencies, tour operators, and transport companies (Figure 2). Purposive sampling was employed to ensure variety in business size and type. Online and paper surveys were distributed between January and April 2025, with the assistance of local tourism organizations and trade fairs to maximize participation. The sample size exceeds the minimum recommendations proposed by the "10-times rule" (Hair & Alamer, 2022). 180 with the highest number of indicators. Furthermore, a G*Power analysis (Faul et al., 2007)) showed that sample size 250 is sufficient to detect medium effect sizes at a power of 0.80 and $\alpha = 0.05$.

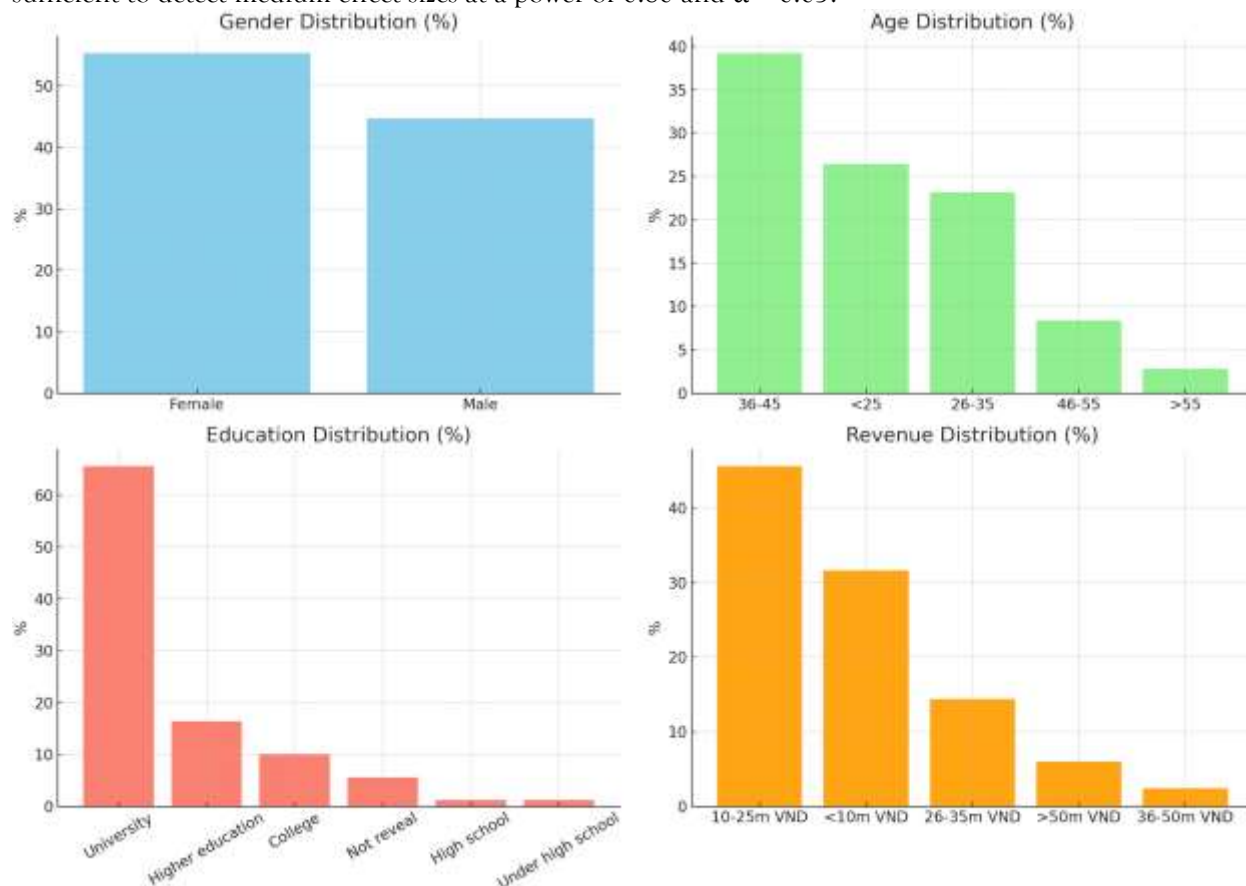


Figure 2. The Sample Characteristics

The survey consisted of 250 Da Nang tourism enterprises. According to gender, 55.3% were female respondents and 44.7% were male, reflecting the growing participation of women in the tourism industry. According to age, the majority of respondents were aged 36–45 (39.2%), followed by the less than 25 years group (26.4%) and the 26–35 years group (23.2%), reflecting a working population with high rates of young and middle-aged individuals. Levels of education were relatively high, with 65.6% having a university degree and 16.4% holding postgraduate qualifications, and just a small percentage reporting less than that. For revenue, the majority of enterprises fell within the 10–25 million VND/month bracket (45.6%), while 31.6%

earned less than 10 million, indicating that small- and medium-sized firms made up the majority of the sample.

For data analysis, Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) via SmartPLS software was used in this study. PLS-SEM was selected due to its suitability for research involving complex structural models, moderate sample size, and both formative and reflective constructs (Hair & Alamer, 2022). The procedure for analysis followed a well-structured series. First, the measurement model was specified, including latent constructs, observed indicators, and proposed causal relations. Second, the model was estimated to obtain path coefficients, factor loadings, and error variances. Third, the model was validated by performing internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's Alpha, ρ_A , Composite Reliability), convergent validity (Average Variance Extracted – AVE), and discriminant validity (Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio – HTMT). Multicollinearity was assessed using the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). To limit potential common method bias, Harman's single-factor test (Podsakoff et al., 2003)) was used, whereby the first factor accounted for only 34.7% of the overall variance—that is, much less than the 50% required to suggest serious common method bias.

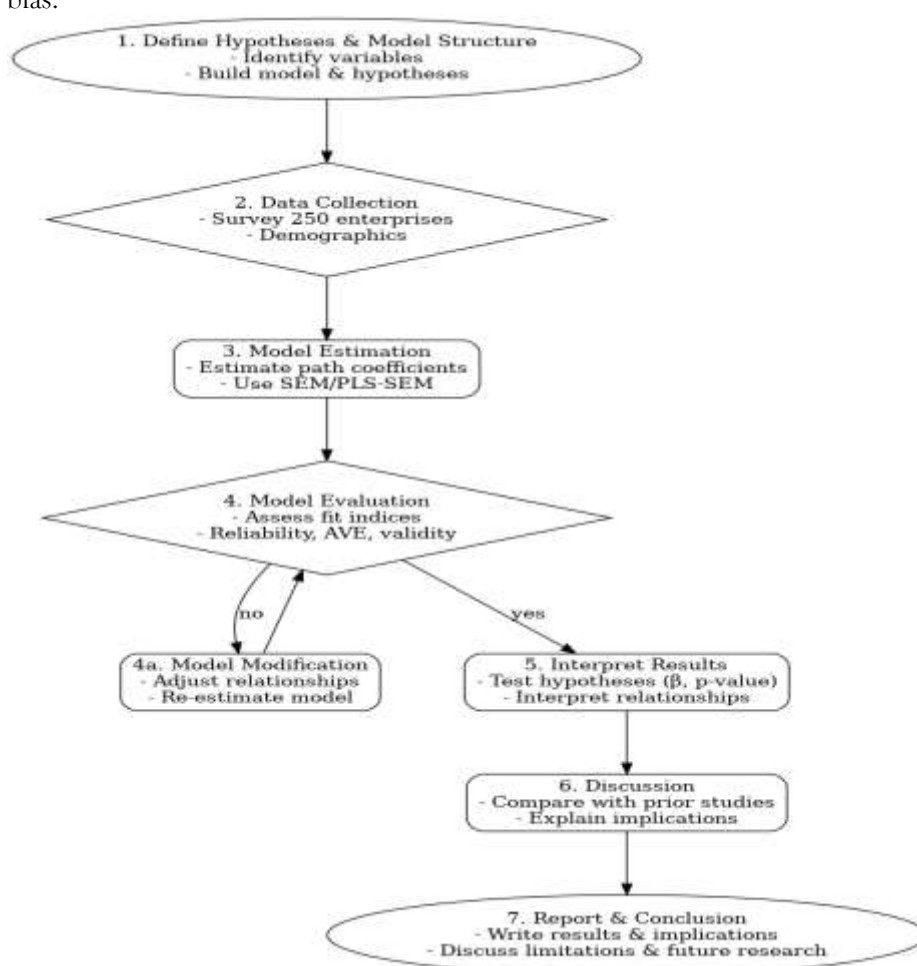


Figure 2. The research process

The results of SEM analysis are described in terms of path coefficients, R^2 statistics, and p-values from significance testing that reflect the relative contribution of each factor towards enhancing destination competitiveness. The results are contrasted with prior research to highlight similarities, differences, and contributions to the prior body of knowledge. Finally, policy and managerial implications of the results are presented, including prominent actionable recommendations for policymakers and tourism stakeholders in Da Nang city who want to improve the competitiveness of the city as a tourist destination.

4. FINDING AND DISCUSSION

- Outer Loading Analysis

The quality of the measurement model was first examined through the outer loadings of observed variables on their respective latent constructs. Following the guidelines of Hair & Alamer (2022), loadings greater than 0.70 indicate strong reliability, while loadings between 0.40 and 0.70 may be retained if the construct still meets thresholds for Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE). Items below 0.40 are usually removed.

Table 1. Outer Loadings of Indicators

Indicator	Original (O)	Sample (M)	Mean	STDEV	T- Statistics	P- Values
DC1 – Tourist Arrivals	0.867	0.867		0.026	33.30	0.000
DC2 – Tourism Revenue	0.876	0.875		0.024	36.08	0.000
DC3 – Image & Brand	0.898	0.897		0.017	53.08	0.000
DC4 – Product Diversity & Quality	0.920	0.919		0.014	66.48	0.000
DC5 – Service Quality	0.893	0.893		0.019	46.51	0.000
DC6 – Stakeholder Cooperation	0.866	0.867		0.022	38.91	0.000
DC7 – Price Competitiveness	0.836	0.835		0.027	30.99	0.000
DC8 – Sustainability	0.884	0.884		0.019	47.44	0.000
P1 – Mass Media & Digital	0.891	0.890		0.018	49.50	0.000
P2 – Events & Trade	0.890	0.889		0.017	52.42	0.000
P3 – Partnership & Product Dev.	0.880	0.879		0.020	43.65	0.000
K1 – Economic & Enterprise	0.835	0.833		0.034	24.60	0.000
K2 – Product, HR & Heritage	0.869	0.869		0.028	30.91	0.000
K3 – Sustainability & Governance	0.874	0.873		0.024	36.36	0.000

(Source: Research analysis, n=250, 2025)

The results confirm that all outer loadings exceed the recommended threshold of 0.70, ranging from 0.835 (K1) to 0.920 (DC4). This demonstrates that the observed variables are strongly representative of their latent constructs. In particular, the construct of Destination Competitiveness (DC) is well captured by its eight indicators, with DC4 (Product Diversity & Quality, loading = 0.920) and DC3 (Image & Brand, loading = 0.898) exhibiting the highest measurement strength. Similarly, the three promotion-related constructs (P1–P3) show consistently high loadings above 0.88, indicating that mass media, event-based activities, and partnership-driven initiatives are reliably measured and consistently perceived by respondents. The policy-related constructs (K1–K3) also demonstrate robust reliability, with loadings ranging from 0.835 to 0.874; among these, K3 (Sustainability & Governance) emerges as the strongest dimension, underscoring the central role of sustainable and participatory governance in policy effectiveness. Taken together, these findings provide strong evidence of indicator reliability and confirm that the measurement model adequately represents the theoretical constructs under investigation.

- Analysis of Construct Reliability and Validity

The reliability and validity of the constructs were assessed using Cronbach's Alpha, rho_A, Composite Reliability (CR), and Average Variance Extracted (AVE). According to Hair et al. (2022), Cronbach's Alpha values above 0.7 indicate acceptable reliability, while CR values between 0.7 and 0.9 are optimal. An AVE above 0.5 confirms convergent validity, showing that the latent variable explains more than 50% of the variance in its indicators.

Table 2. Construct Reliability and Validity

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	AVE
Destination Competitiveness (DC)	0.938	0.947	0.950	0.762
Economic & Enterprise Policies (K1)	0.872	0.876	0.921	0.796
Events & Trade Promotion (P2)	0.790	0.812	0.877	0.703
Mass Media & Digital Promotion (P1)	0.854	0.869	0.911	0.774
Partnership & Product Development (P3)	0.863	0.880	0.916	0.783
Product, HR & Heritage Policies (K2)	0.867	0.878	0.918	0.789
Sustainability & Governance Policies (K3)	0.766	0.772	0.895	0.810

(Source: Research analysis, n=250, 2025)

All constructs demonstrate strong internal consistency, with Cronbach's Alpha values ranging from 0.766 (K3) to 0.938 (DC), thereby surpassing the recommended threshold of 0.7. In particular, Destination Competitiveness (0.938) exhibits excellent reliability, confirming that its eight observed indicators consistently capture the latent construct. The rho_A coefficients (0.772–0.947) further reinforce this reliability, closely aligned with Cronbach's Alpha. Composite Reliability values also exceed 0.7 across all constructs, with DC (0.950), P3 (0.916), and K2 (0.918) achieving the highest levels, reflecting robust measurement quality. Convergent validity is equally strong, as all AVE values are greater than 0.70, indicating that each construct explains more than 70% of the variance in its observed indicators. Taken together, these results confirm that the measurement model demonstrates very high reliability and validity, providing a solid foundation for subsequent structural model testing.

Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity was assessed using the Fornell–Larcker Criterion, which requires that the square root of the AVE for each construct be greater than its correlations with other constructs. This ensures that each construct captures phenomena not represented by other constructs in the model (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 3. Discriminant Validity (Fornell–Larcker Criterion)

Construct	DC	K1	P2	P1	P3	K2	K3
Destination Competitiveness (DC)	0.873						
Economic & Enterprise Policies (K1)	0.452	0.892					
Events & Trade Promotion (P2)	0.350	0.563	0.839				
Mass Media & Digital Promotion (P1)	0.432	0.576	0.812	0.880			
Partnership & Product Development (P3)	0.389	0.590	0.911	0.800	0.885		
Product, HR & Heritage Policies (K2)	0.423	0.856	0.539	0.619	0.579	0.888	
Sustainability & Governance Policies (K3)	0.410	0.715	0.498	0.672	0.632	0.650	0.900

(Source: Research analysis, n=250, 2025)

The diagonal values represent the square roots of AVE for each construct and are consistently higher than the corresponding off-diagonal correlation coefficients, thereby confirming discriminant validity. For example, Destination Competitiveness ($\sqrt{\text{AVE}} = 0.873$) shows lower correlations with other constructs, underscoring its distinctiveness. Similarly, Events & Trade Promotion ($\sqrt{\text{AVE}} = 0.839$) and Mass Media & Digital Promotion ($\sqrt{\text{AVE}} = 0.880$), although moderately correlated ($r = 0.812$), still maintain validity because their AVE square roots remain larger than the shared variance. Sustainability & Governance Policies ($\sqrt{\text{AVE}} = 0.900$) also exhibit strong discriminant validity, standing apart from policy-related constructs such as K1 (0.715) and K2 (0.650). Taken together, these results confirm that all constructs are empirically distinct, supporting the multidimensional conceptualization of promotion and policy strategies in shaping destination competitiveness.

Structural Model Analysis

The structural relationships among constructs were assessed using PLS-SEM bootstrapping with 5,000 resamples. This procedure provides robust estimates of the standard errors of path coefficients, from which

t-statistics and p-values were derived (Hair et al., 2022). A threshold of $p < 0.05$ was applied to determine statistical significance. Table 4 summarizes the results of hypothesis testing.

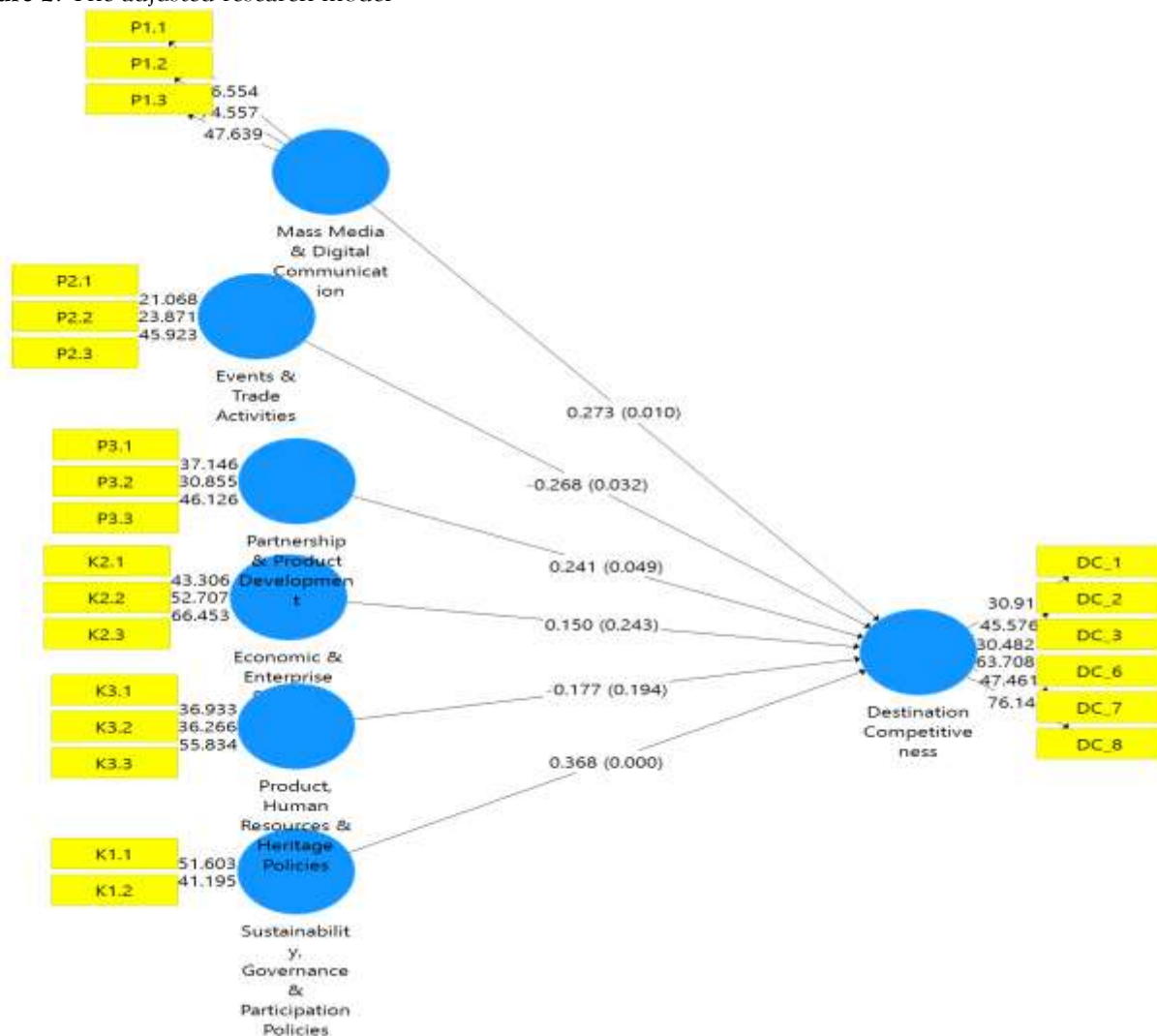
Table 4. Path Coefficients (Bootstrapping Results)

Hypothesis	Path	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	STDEV	T-Statistics	P-Values	Decision
H1	K1 → DC (Economic & Enterprise Policies)	0.150	0.153	0.128	1.170	0.243	Rejected
H2	P2 → DC (Events & Trade Promotion)	-0.268	-0.263	0.124	2.152	0.032	Accepted
H3	P1 → DC (Mass Media & Digital Promotion)	0.273	0.272	0.106	2.587	0.010	Accepted
H4	P3 → DC (Partnership & Product Development)	0.241	0.239	0.122	1.977	0.049	Accepted
H5	K2 → DC (Product, HR & Heritage Policies)	-0.177	-0.173	0.136	1.301	0.194	Rejected
H6	K3 → DC (Sustainability & Governance Policies)	0.368	0.367	0.102	3.625	0.000	Accepted

(Source: Research analysis, n=250, 2025)

The results reveal a differentiated set of influences of promotion and policy factors on destination competitiveness. The effect of Economic & Enterprise Policies (H1, $\beta = 0.150$, $p = 0.243$) is not significant, suggesting that although supportive measures such as tax relief or investment incentives exist, they are not yet perceived by businesses as impactful in enhancing competitiveness. In contrast, Events & Trade Promotion (H2) exerts a significant but negative influence ($\beta = -0.268$, $p = 0.032$), which may reflect inefficiencies in the organization of fairs, exhibitions, or famtrips where costs outweigh benefits or targeting is misaligned with enterprise needs. On the positive side, Mass Media & Digital Promotion (H3, $\beta = 0.273$, $p = 0.010$) significantly strengthens competitiveness, confirming the importance of digital marketing, social media, and online branding in shaping destination image (Dorta-Preen & Santana-Talavera, 2025). Similarly, Partnership & Product Development (H4, $\beta = 0.241$, $p = 0.049$) shows a significant positive relationship, indicating that collaboration with airlines, transport providers, and joint product design enhances attractiveness and positioning. By contrast, Product, Human Resources & Heritage Policies (H5, $\beta = -0.177$, $p = 0.194$) are not significant, implying that these policies are either insufficiently implemented or not aligned with business expectations. Finally, Sustainability & Governance Policies (H6) exert the strongest positive effect ($\beta = 0.368$, $p < 0.001$), underscoring the central role of sustainable practices, environmental protection, safety standards, and participatory governance in strengthening destination competitiveness.

Figure 2. The adjusted research model



(Source: Research analysis, $n=250$, 2025)

Model Fit and Explanatory Power

In addition to path analysis, the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) was examined to assess model fit. The result, $SRMR = 0.066$, is below the recommended threshold of 0.08, indicating that the model achieves a satisfactory fit to the data (see Model Fit – SRMR table).

The model's explanatory power is confirmed by the R^2 value for Destination Competitiveness (DC), which exceeds the 0.50 threshold recommended by Hair et al. (2022). This means that the six promotion and policy factors collectively explain more than half of the variance in DC, validating the model's predictive adequacy.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This present study investigated the influence of promotion strategies and tourism policy frameworks on destination competitiveness (DC) of Da Nang city, Vietnam, employing a PLS-SEM approach. The findings show a pattern of differentiated relationship: while Mass Media & Digital Promotion (P1), Partnership & Product Development (P3), and Sustainability & Governance Policies (K3) significantly positively influence DC, Events & Trade Promotion (P2) has a counterintuitive reverse relationship, and Economic & Enterprise Policies (K1) and Product, Human Resources & Heritage Policies (K2) do not show significant effects.

The robust positive influence of electronic promotion (P1) concurs with a growing body of work finding the revolutionizing power of online identity and social media interaction in destination marketing (Dorta-Preen & Santana-Talavera, 2025; Hussain et al., 2024; Y. Wang, 2016). Such studies argue that in an era of global competition, electronic platforms provide low-cost, broad-based instruments with which to shape destination image and attract tourists. Similarly, the common good of partnerships and product co-development (P3) aligns with (Fyall & Garrod, 2005) and (Pechlaner & Innerhofer, 2016), who suggest that collaborative destination management fosters innovation and positive visitor experience.

Most importantly, the significant and high influence of sustainability and governance policies (K3) underlines the conceptual models of Ritchie & Crouch (2003) and Dwyer & Kim (2003), which pin sustainability, safety, and participative governance as central drivers of long-term competitiveness. Recent empirical studies (Cavalheiro et al., 2025); (Aniramu et al., 2025) further substantiate that destinations focusing on environmental conservation, safety management, and inclusive stakeholder participation achieve competitiveness in tourist attraction and retention.

By contrast, however, it is surprising that Events & Trade Promotion (P2) is found to be inimically related to competitiveness. Research in the past has broadly identified the role of fairs, exhibitions, and famtrips as exposing the market (Sarmiento & Simões, 2018). This research, however, suggests that in Da Nang city, these activities are misplaced in relation to business expectations or poorly targeted, leading to inefficiency or even opportunity cost. One such reason lies in the resource misallocation view, that in the absence of alignment, resource-intensive strategies will erode competitiveness instead of creating it.

The economically insignificant effects of Economic & Enterprise Policies (K1) and Product/HR/Heritage Policies (K2) also run counter to some previous studies (Enright & Newton, 2005; Garrod & Fyall, 2000; Hall, 2005). This finding could be a reflection of policy intention vs. implementation effectiveness gap. Even though there are supportive policies on paper, firms may not see them as directly impactful, perhaps due to bureaucratic obstacles, incentive accessibility restrictions, or the delay effects of policy implementation. These findings are in accordance with institutional arguments contending that policy designs do not simply need to be formally established but must also possess effective delivery mechanisms to be translated into competitiveness gains (Howlett, 2014)

Theoretical implications

Theoretically, these results lend support to the resource-based view (RBV) and the destination competitiveness model. The evidence for P1, P3, and K3 suggests that both macro-level enabling factors (e.g., sustainable governance) and firm-level resources (e.g., collaborative partnerships, digital marketing) serve as complementary drivers of competitiveness. Conversely, the ineffectiveness of K1 and K2 illustrates that all policy-based resources are not of equal value, highlighting resource fit and organizational consistency (Barney, 1991). The counter effect of P2 also extends RBV by illustrating how strategically misallocated resources reduce competitiveness, which is often an area of neglect in tourism competitiveness research.

Practical implications

Managerially, the results highlight several imperatives for policymakers and destination managers in Da Nang city. First, investment in digital marketing capabilities and infrastructure needs to be boosted to leverage the proven impact of P1. Second, multi-stakeholder partnerships (P3) have to be fostered involving airlines, tour operators, hotels, and government agencies to work together to craft seamless products and experiences. Third, leadership by sustainability governance (K3) necessitates a continued focus on environmental protection, visitor safety, and participatory planning. Conversely, the negative impact of event-driven promotion (P2) calls for critical evaluation and re-organization of trade fairs and exhibitions as cost-efficient, strategically directed, and responsive to business needs. Finally, the non-significance between K1 and K2 implies that existing policies must be reassessed to ensure accessibility, operational efficiency, and salient benefits to tourism enterprises.

Limitations and future research

The research is not faultless. First, it only considers firms located in major Da Nang city, which may limit generalizability to Vietnamese destinations or foreign environments. Second, cross-sectional data place a

bound on causal inference; longitudinal studies may enable stronger conclusions about temporal effects of policy and promotion strategies. Third, while SEM can reveal structural relationships, follow-up qualitative research (e.g., interviews with policymakers and entrepreneurs) might shed light on explanations for the ineffectiveness of specific policies. Follow-up studies might also explore the moderating roles of enterprise type and firm size, as suggested by organizational fit theory, in order to ascertain heterogeneity in strategy performance between different enterprise types.

Acknowledgments: We would like to thank the enterprisers for facilitating data collection. We are also grateful to the reviewers and editorial board of for their constructive feedback, which significantly improved the quality of this paper.

Data Availability Statement: The data presented in this study may be obtained on request from the corresponding author.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest

REFERENCES

1. Aktaş Çimen, Z., Kutlu, D., Sarıçoban, K., & Ongun, U. (2024). The Competitiveness of Turkish Tourism in the Global Market. *Sustainability*, 16(24), 11232. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su162411232>
2. Amenta, E., & Ramsey, K. M. (2010). Institutional Theory. In K. T. Leicht & J. C. Jenkins (Eds.), *Handbook of Politics: State and Society in Global Perspective* (pp. 15–39). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-68930-2_2
3. Andrades, L., & Dimanche, F. (2017). Destination competitiveness and tourism development in Russia: Issues and challenges. *Tourism Management*, 62, 360–376. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.05.008>
4. Aniramu, T., Aniramu, O., Olawale, J., Okebugwu, J., & Odelola, R. (2025). Assessment of sustainable tourism and tourist satisfaction using importance performance analysis and regression method. *Sustainable Environment*, 11(1), 2469988. <https://doi.org/10.1080/27658511.2025.2469988>
5. Armutcu, B., Tan, A., Amponsah, M., Parida, S., & Ramkissoon, H. (2023). Tourist behaviour: The role of digital marketing and social media. *Acta Psychologica*, 240, 104025. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actpsy.2023.104025>
6. Baker, J., Nam, K., & Dutt, C. S. (2023). A user experience perspective on heritage tourism in the metaverse: Empirical evidence and design dilemmas for VR. *Information Technology & Tourism*, 25(3), 265–306. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40558-023-00256-x>
7. Balta-Ozkan, N., Watson, T., & Mocca, E. (2015). Spatially uneven development and low carbon transitions: Insights from urban and regional planning. *Energy Policy*, 85, 500–510. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enpol.2015.05.013>
8. Barney, J. (1991). Firm Resources and Sustained Competitive Advantage. *Journal of Management*, 17(1), 99–120. <https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639101700108>
9. Baum, T. (2018). Sustainable human resource management as a driver in tourism policy and planning: A serious sin of omission? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 26(6), 873–889. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2017.1423318>
10. Bilan, Y., Tovmasyan, G., & Dallakyan, S. (2024). The Impact of Digital Technologies on Tourists' Travel Choices and Overall Experience. *Journal of Tourism and Services*, 15(29), Article 29. <https://doi.org/10.29036/jots.v15i29.805>
11. Bornhorst, T., Brent Ritchie, J. R., & Sheehan, L. (2010). Determinants of tourism success for DMOs & destinations: An empirical examination of stakeholders' perspectives. *Tourism Management*, 31(5), 572–589. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2009.06.008>
12. Bramwell, B., & Lane, B. (2011). Critical research on the governance of tourism and sustainability. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 19(4–5), 411–421. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2011.580586>
13. Bretos, M. A., Ibáñez-Sánchez, S., & Orús, C. (2023). Applying virtual reality and augmented reality to the tourism experience: A comparative literature review. *Spanish Journal of Marketing - ESIC*, 28(3), 287–309. <https://doi.org/10.1108/SJME-03-2023-0052>
14. Buitrago R., R. E., & Barbosa Camargo, M. I. (2021). Institutions, institutional quality, and international competitiveness: Review and examination of future research directions. *Journal of Business Research*, 128, 423–435. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2021.02.024>
15. Campos-Soria, J. A., Núñez-Carrasco, J. A., & García-Pozo, A. (2021). Environmental Concern and Destination Choices of Tourists: Exploring the Underpinnings of Country Heterogeneity. *Journal of Travel Research*, 60(3), 532–545. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287520933686>
16. Canale, R. R., De Simone, E., Di Maio, A., & Parenti, B. (2019). UNESCO World Heritage sites and tourism attractiveness: The case of Italian provinces. *Land Use Policy*, 85, 114–120. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.landusepol.2019.03.037>
17. Cavalheiro, E. A., Oliveira, I. R., Leandro, D., & Kontz, L. B. (2025). Governance, development, and environment: Pathways to a sustainable future. *Sustainable Futures*, 10, 100813. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sfr.2025.100813>
18. Chakraborty, P. P. (2024). Tourism in Transition in Sustainable World: Embracing Technology and Sustainability in the Post-Pandemic Era. In *Special Interest Trends for Sustainable Tourism* (pp. 348–374). IGI Global Scientific Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.4018/979-8-3693-5903-7.ch017>

19. Chiu, W., Zeng, S., & Cheng, P. S.-T. (2016). The influence of destination image and tourist satisfaction on tourist loyalty: A case study of Chinese tourists in Korea. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 10(2), 223–234. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCTHR-07-2015-0080>
20. Cracolici, M. F., & Nijkamp, P. (2009). The attractiveness and competitiveness of tourist destinations: A study of Southern Italian regions. *Tourism Management*, 30(3), 336–344. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.07.006>
21. Crouch, G. I., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1999). Tourism, Competitiveness, and Societal Prosperity. *Journal of Business Research*, 44(3), 137–152. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0148-2963\(97\)00196-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0148-2963(97)00196-3)
22. De Smedt, P., & Borch, K. (2022). Participatory policy design in system innovation. *Policy Design and Practice*, 5(1), 51–65. <https://doi.org/10.1080/25741292.2021.1887592>
23. Del-Aguila-Arcentales, S., Alvarez-Risco, A., Jaramillo-Arévalo, M., De-la-Cruz-Diaz, M., & Anderson-Seminario, M. de las M. (2022). Influence of Social, Environmental and Economic Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) over Continuation of Entrepreneurship and Competitiveness. *Journal of Open Innovation: Technology, Market, and Complexity*, 8(2), 73. <https://doi.org/10.3390/joitmc8020073>
24. Dorta-Preen, J. M., & Santana-Talavera, A. (2025). Shaping Places Together: The Role of Social Media Influencers in the Digital Co-Creation of Destination Image. *Urban Science*, 9(7), 262. <https://doi.org/10.3390/urbansci9070262>
25. Dubey, R., Bryde, D. J., Dwivedi, Y. K., Graham, G., Foropon, C., & Papadopoulos, T. (2023). Dynamic digital capabilities and supply chain resilience: The role of government effectiveness. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 258, 108790. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpe.2023.108790>
26. Dwyer, L., & Kim, C. (2003). Destination Competitiveness: Determinants and Indicators. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 6(5), 369–414. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500308667962>
27. Edgell, D. L. E., Jason Swanson, Maria Delmastro Allen, Ginger Smith, David L., & Swanson, S., Jason R. (2013). *Tourism Policy and Planning: Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow* (2nd ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203113332>
28. Enright, M. J., & Newton, J. (2005). Determinants of Tourism Destination Competitiveness in Asia Pacific: Comprehensiveness and Universality. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(4), 339–350. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287505274647>
29. Estiri, M., Heidary Dahooie, J., & Skare, M. (2022). COVID-19 crisis and resilience of tourism SME's: A focus on policy responses. *Economic Research-Ekonomska Istraživanja*, 35(1), 5556–5580. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1331677X.2022.2032245>
30. Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Lang, A.-G., & Buchner, A. (2007). G*Power 3: A flexible statistical power analysis program for the social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences. *Behavior Research Methods*, 39(2), 175–191. <https://doi.org/10.3758/bf03193146>
31. Febrian, A., Nani, D. A., Lina, L. F., & Husna, N. (2022). The Role of Social Media Activities to Enhance Brand Equity. *Journal of Economics, Business, and Accountancy Ventura*, 25(1), 20–30. <https://doi.org/10.14414/jebav.v25i1.2881>
32. Fyall, A., & Garrod, B. (2005). *Tourism Marketing: A Collaborative Approach*. Channel View Publications.
33. Garrod, B., & Fyall, A. (2000). Managing heritage tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(3), 682–708. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(99\)00094-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(99)00094-8)
34. Go, F. M., & Govers, R. (2000). Integrated quality management for tourist destinations: A European perspective on achieving competitiveness. *Tourism Management*, 21(1), 79–88. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177\(99\)00098-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(99)00098-9)
35. Goffi, G. (2013). *A Model of Tourism Destination Competitiveness: The Case of the Italian Destinations of Excellence (Un Modelo De Destino Turístico Competitivo: El Caso De Los Destinos Italianos De Excelencia)* (SSRN Scholarly Paper 2435376). Social Science Research Network. <https://papers.ssrn.com/abstract=2435376>
36. González-Rodríguez, M. R., Díaz-Fernández, M. C., & Pulido-Pavón, N. (2023). Tourist destination competitiveness: An international approach through the travel and tourism competitiveness index. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 47, 101127. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2023.101127>
37. Ha, H., & Chuah, C. K. P. (2023). Digital economy in Southeast Asia: Challenges, opportunities and future development. *Southeast Asia: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 23(1), 19–35. <https://doi.org/10.1108/SEAMJ-02-2023-0023>
38. Hair, J., & Alamer, A. (2022). Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) in second language and education research: Guidelines using an applied example. *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics*, 1(3), 100027. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rmal.2022.100027>
39. Hall, C. (2005). Time, Space, Tourism and Social Physics. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 30, 93–98. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02508281.2005.11081236>
40. Howlett, M. (2014). Chapter 9 / Policy Design: What, Who, How and Why? In *L'instrumentation de l'action publique* (pp. 281–316). Presses de Sciences Po. <https://doi.org/10.3917/scpo.halpe.2014.01.0281>
41. Hussain, K., Didarul Alam, M. M., Malik, A., Tarhini, A., & Al Balushi, M. K. (2024). From likes to luggage: The role of social media content in attracting tourists. *Heliyon*, 10(19), e38914. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2024.e38914>
42. Jenkins, J., Dredge, D., & Taplin, J. (2011). Destination planning and policy: Process and practice. In *Destination marketing and management: Theories and applications* (pp. 21–38). <https://doi.org/10.1079/9781845937621.0021>
43. Jie, Z. (2025). How does international tourism revenue affect economic development? A perspective of human capital. *Economic Analysis and Policy*, 86, 1546–1568. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eap.2025.05.009>
44. Khater, M., Ibrahim, O., Sayed, M. N. E., & Faik, M. (2024). Legal frameworks for sustainable tourism: Balancing environmental conservation and economic development. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 0(0), 1–22. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2024.2404181>

45. Kumar, S., & Dhir, A. (2020). Associations between travel and tourism competitiveness and culture. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 18, 100501. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2020.100501>
46. Lasisi, T. T., Odei, S. A., & Eluwole, K. K. (2023). Smart destination competitiveness: Underscoring its impact on economic growth. *Journal of Tourism Futures*, 11(2), 286–306. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JTF-09-2022-0243>
47. Lee, T.-H. (2009). A structural model for examining how destination image and interpretation services affect future visitation behavior: A case study of Taiwan's Taomi eco-village. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(6), Article 6. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669580902999204>
48. Liu, J., Wang, C., & Zhang, T. (Christina). (2024). Exploring social media affordances in tourist destination image formation: A study on China's rural tourism destination. *Tourism Management*, 101, 104843. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2023.104843>
49. Lu, Y., & Cui, B. (2022). Intelligent Tourism Marketing and Publicity Methods for Revenue Enhancement. *Mobile Information Systems*, 2022(1), 6943120. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2022/6943120>
50. Madhavaram, S., Badrinarayanan, V., & McDonald, R. E. (2005). INTEGRATED MARKETING COMMUNICATION (IMC) AND BRAND IDENTITY AS CRITICAL COMPONENTS OF BRAND EQUITY STRATEGY: A Conceptual Framework and Research Propositions. *Journal of Advertising*, 34(4), 69–80. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00913367.2005.10639213>
51. Mandagi, D. W., & Centeno, D. (2024). Destination brand gestalt: Dimensionalizing co-created tourism destination branding. *International Journal of Tourism Cities*, 0(0). <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJTC-02-2024-0049>
52. Manrai, L. A., Manrai, A. K., & Friedeborn, S. (2018). Environmental determinants of destination competitiveness and its Tourism Attractions-Basics-Context, A-B-C, indicators: A review, conceptual model and propositions. *Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Science*, 25(50), 425–449. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JEFAS-01-2018-0010>
53. Menon, S., & Edward, M. (2014). Exhibitors and visitors' motivations at destination trade shows. *International Journal of Services, Economics and Management*, 6(2), 193–208.
54. Mira, M. R., Moura, A., & Breda, Z. (2016). Destination competitiveness and competitiveness indicators: Illustration of the Portuguese reality. *Tékhnē - Review of Applied Management Studies*, 14(2), 90–103. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tekhne.2016.06.002>
55. Morgan, N., Pritchard, A., & Pride, R. (2012). *Destination Brands* (3rd ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780080969312>
56. Mukherjee, I., Coban, M. K., & Bali, A. S. (2021). Policy capacities and effective policy design: A review. *Policy Sciences*, 54(2), 243–268. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11077-021-09420-8>
57. Munar, A. M., & Jacobsen, J. Kr. S. (2014). Motivations for sharing tourism experiences through social media. *Tourism Management*, 43, 46–54. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.01.012>
58. Nguyen, H. K. T., Tran, P. T. K., & Tran, V. T. (2023). The relationships among social media communication, brand equity and satisfaction in a tourism destination: The case of Danang city, Vietnam. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights*, 7(2), 1187–1210. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JHTI-11-2022-0567>
59. Nguyen, T. Q. T., Dong, X. D., & Ho, T. (2021). Stakeholder Involvement In Destination Marketing: A Network Analysis Of Two Destinations In Vietnam. *Tourism and Hospitality Management*, 27(1), 189–203.
60. Nguyen Viet, B., Dang, H., Huu Phuc, & Nguyen, H. H. (2020). Revisit intention and satisfaction: The role of destination image, perceived risk, and cultural contact. *Cogent Business & Management*, 7(1), 1796249. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2020.1796249>
61. Oliveira, E., & Panyik, E. (2015). Content, context and co-creation: Digital challenges in destination branding with references to Portugal as a tourist destination. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 21(1), 53–74. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1356766714544235>
62. Parshakov, P., Naidenova, I., & Barajas, A. (2020). Spillover effect in promotion: Evidence from video game publishers and eSports tournaments. *Journal of Business Research*, 118, 262–270. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2020.06.036>
63. Pechlaner, H., & Innerhofer, E. (2016). *Competence-Based Innovation in Hospitality and Tourism*. Routledge.
64. Perkins, R., Khoo, C., & Arcodia, C. (2022). Stakeholder contribution to tourism collaboration: Exploring stakeholder typologies, networks and actions in the cluster formation process. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 52, 304–315. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2022.07.011>
65. Pike, S. (2017). Destination positioning and temporality: Tracking relative strengths and weaknesses over time. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 31, 126–133. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2016.11.005>
66. Pike, S., & Page, S. J. (2014). Destination Marketing Organizations and destination marketing: A narrative analysis of the literature. *Tourism Management*, 41, 202–227. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.09.009>
67. Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879–903. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879>
68. Purwono, R., Esquivias, M. A., Sugiharti, L., & Rojas, O. (2024). Tourism Destination Performance and Competitiveness: The Impact on Revenues, Jobs, the Economy, and Growth. *Journal of Tourism and Services*, 15(28), 161–187. <https://doi.org/10.29036/jots.v15i28.629>
69. Raj, I. A. E. A. (2024). Tourism towards Sustainability and Innovation, Post COVID-19: A Literature Review. *International Journal of Advanced Scientific Multidisciplinary Research*, 1(2), 50–77.
70. Reed, M. S., Ferré, M., Martín-Ortega, J., Blanche, R., Lawford-Rolfe, R., Dallimer, M., & Holden, J. (2021). Evaluating impact from research: A methodological framework. *Research Policy*, 50(4), 104147. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.respol.2020.104147>

71. Reisinger, Y., Michael, N., & Hayes, J. P. (2019). Destination competitiveness from a tourist perspective: A case of the United Arab Emirates. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 21(2), 259–279. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.2259>
72. Ritchie, J. R. B., & Crouch, G. I. (2003). *The Competitive Destination: A Sustainable Tourism Perspective*. CABL.
73. Sarmiento, M., & Simões, C. (2018). The evolving role of trade fairs in business: A systematic literature review and a research agenda. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 73, 154–170. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indmarman.2018.02.006>
74. Seriki, O. (2023). Resource-Based View. In S. O. Idowu, R. Schmidpeter, N. Capaldi, L. Zu, M. Del Baldo, & R. Abreu (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Sustainable Management* (pp. 2776–2778). Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-25984-5_469
75. Setegn, A. E., & Japee, G. P. (2025). Promotional elements and the performance of tourism marketing of visitor attraction places with the mediating role of public relations: Empirical evidence from visitors in Ethiopia. *Cogent Business & Management*, 12(1), 2454325. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23311975.2025.2454325>
76. Shams, R., Chatterjee, S., & Chaudhuri, R. (2024). Developing brand identity and sales strategy in the digital era: Moderating role of consumer belief in brand. *Journal of Business Research*, 179, 114689. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2024.114689>
77. Sharma, G. D., Taheri, B., Cichon, D., Parihar, J. S., & Kharbanda, A. (2024). Using innovation and entrepreneurship for creating edge in service firms: A review research of tourism and hospitality industry. *Journal of Innovation & Knowledge*, 9(4), 100572. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jik.2024.100572>
78. Siar, S. (2023). The challenges and approaches of measuring research impact and influence on public policy making. *Public Administration and Policy*, 26(2), 169–183. <https://doi.org/10.1108/PAP-05-2022-0046>
79. Sigala, M. (2020). Tourism and COVID-19: Impacts and implications for advancing and resetting industry and research. *Journal of Business Research*, 117, 312–321. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2020.06.015>
80. Smith, M. K. (2015). *Issues in Cultural Tourism Studies* (3rd ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315767697>
81. Stevenson, N., Airey, D., & Miller, G. (2008). Tourism Policy Making: The Policymakers' Perspectives. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(3), 732–750. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2008.05.002>
82. Thao, H. T. P. (2025). Tourism policy in Vietnam: An evaluation using the difference-in-differences model. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*, 17(3), 656–679. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19407963.2023.2273558>
83. Theriksen, A. (2003). Imagining Places: Image Formation of Tourists and its Consequences for Destination Promotion. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 3(2), 134–150. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1502250310003105>
84. Torres, I., Teruel-Serrano, M.-D., & Viñals, M. J. (2025). Tourism policy in the European Union: Progress, challenges and prospects. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*, 0(0), 1–21. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19407963.2025.2527652>
85. UNWTO. (2007). *A Practical Guide to Tourism Destination Management*. https://docenti.luiss.it/protected-uploads/472/2013/10/20131002182435-UNWTO_DM_practicalguide_bible_2007.pdf
86. UNWTO. (2018). *Tourism and the Sustainable Development Goals – Journey to 2030*. <http://www.e-unwto.org/doi/book/10.18111/9789284419401> - Tuesday, May 01, 2018 2:47:49 PM - IP Address:165.65.120.193
87. Vasani, S., & Abdulkareem, A. M. (2024). MSME market presence and competitiveness in a global economy. *Cogent Economics & Finance*, 12(1), 2416992. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23322039.2024.2416992>
88. Vecchio, P. D., Mele, G., Ndou, V., & Secundo, G. (2018). Creating value from Social Big Data: Implications for Smart Tourism Destinations. *Information Processing & Management*, 54(5), 847–860. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ipm.2017.10.006>
89. Verissimo, C., Pereira, L., Fernandes, A., & Martinho, R. (2024). Complex problem solving as a source of competitive advantage. *Journal of Open Innovation: Technology, Market, and Complexity*, 10(2), 100258. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joitmc.2024.100258>
90. Veseli, A., Bytyqi, L., Hasanaj, P., & Bajraktari, A. (2025). The Impact of Digital Marketing on Promotion and Sustainable Tourism Development. *Tourism and Hospitality*, 6(2), 56. <https://doi.org/10.3390/tourhosp6020056>
91. Wang, D., & Ap, J. (2013). Factors affecting tourism policy implementation: A conceptual framework and a case study in China. *Tourism Management*, 36, 221–233. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.11.021>
92. Wang, Y. (2016). Brand crisis communication through social media: A dialogue between brand competitors on Sina Weibo. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 21(1), 56–72. <https://doi.org/10.1108/CCIJ-10-2014-0065>
93. Wind, N. R., Jerry. (2020). *Transformation in Times of Crisis: Eight Principles for Creating Opportunities and Value in the Post-Pandemic World*. Notion Press.
94. Xu, H., Lovett, Jon, Cheung, Lewis T. O., Duan, Xiaolei, Pei, Qing, & Liang, D. (2021). Adapting to social media: The influence of online reviews on tourist behaviour at a world heritage site in China. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 26(10), 1125–1138. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10941665.2021.1952460>
95. Zhang, J. (2025). Patterns of innovation-driven tourism competitiveness: Insights from 270 Chinese cities. *Tourism Management*, 107, 105063. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2024.105063>
96. Zhao, J., Yang, D., Zhao, X., & Lei, M. (2023). Tourism industry and employment generation in emerging seven economies: Evidence from novel panel methods. *Economic Research-Ekonomska Istraživanja*, 36(3), 2206471. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1331677X.2023.2206471>