

Challenges and successes in collaborative tourism governance: A systematic literature review

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Abstract

Collaborative governance is acknowledged to provide problem-solving alternatives that are superior to those generated solely by government organizations. It involves various related stakeholders, especially those related to tourism. The integrative processes provide a direct face-to-face alternative by assimilating various items of information, thus resulting in comprehensive and compromised strategic planning. This study aims to understand success stories in collaborative tourism governance and the lessons resulting from obstacles encountered in various contexts, including local, regional, and national. It employs a systematic literature review of 29 related articles published during 2010 to 2021, drawn from various sources, and conducts a bibliometric study to map research trends. The findings indicate that compared with a national context, local and regional contexts tend to have more complex and comprehensive results as more stakeholders are involved in the action scheme. The findings in the national context indicate that only two of the related articles examined in this study explain collaborative tourism governance. Furthermore, comprehensive results are elaborated within those two papers.

Keywords: Co-management, Stakeholder engagement, tourism solution, ecotourism, collaborative governance, collaborative tourism

Citation: Sentanu, I.G.E.P.S., Haryono, B.S., Zamrudi, Z. and Praharjo, A. (2023). Challenges and successes in collaborative tourism governance: A systematic literature review. *European Journal of Tourism Research* 33, 3302.



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1. Introduction

Collaborative governance has evolved as the best solution for wicked problems that are beyond the managerial capacity of a single department, in which various stakeholders are invited to collaborate in governmental activities resulting in any possible policies, models, or real action. Anyone from governmental organizations, private sectors, local actors, academic institutions, and citizens can be involved in corroborating possible potential solutions (Ansell & Gash, 2007, 2018; Cho *et al.*, 2019; K Emerson, 2018). In the particular context of strategic implementation, collaborative governance is a successor in essential public events (Cho *et al.*, 2019).

The use of collaborative governance in tourism is implemented to improve physical aspects and improve managerial elements. The use of collective management to manage heritage festivals in Seoul, South Korea, has shown massive events held in collaboration by citizens of public sectors and the various governments for 11 years from 2003 to 2013, which has drawn tremendous interest from both local and international visitors (Cho *et al.*, 2019). This finding is also supported by another study involving local stakeholders using integrative data sources, with the aid of information and technology by any members within the collaboration circle (Barandiarán *et al.*, 2019). Applied at specific times, this can also contribute to the sustainable development of tourism (Bettis *et al.*, 2020).

Though designed to equalize the impact against the whole stakeholder within the environment, the program still encounters many challenges regarding collaborative governance in tourism. The challenges may vary from organizational context issues related to implementing action plans to limited benefits in terms of socioeconomic impact (Keyim, 2018). Moreover, several problems may also arise due to rigid organizational hierarchy and non-flexible alliances among stakeholders (Keyim, 2018). Problems can also occur due to numerous organizational flaws, including the lack of transparency and consensus among collaborators (Bichler & Lösch, 2019; Djosetro & Behagel, 2020). The lack of clarity could rapidly give rise to detrimental effects, including mistrust and misunderstanding among the stakeholders, which are exacerbated by the absence of a forum between the public and private sectors (Anderson *et al.*, 2017; Djosetro & Behagel, 2020). The lack of consensus among government organizations and elites on citizen participation is also a challenge in collaborative tourism governance (Bichler & Lösch, 2019; Djosetro & Behagel, 2020; Ferreira *et al.*, 2020). However, as elaborated by several studies, a large-scale event such as a public event results in complex managerial and problem-solving activity (Bettis *et al.*, 2020; Charlie Charlie *et al.*, 2013; Dragouni & Fouseki, 2018). Many challenging issues have been described along with the success stories in various studies, which will thus be enlightening for collaborative governance in tourism in the near future.

However, collaborative governance in tourism has arisen and become the basis for developing subsequent tourism research. Adequate collaborative management has resulted in positive socioeconomic effects on community-based tourism in Lieksa, Finland (Keyim, 2018). The collaboration between the private and public sectors is expected to improve tourism development through knowledge transfer from any involved stakeholder to meet common interests (Gori *et al.*, 2021). In addition to this, understanding the collaboration by investigating the role of stakeholder engagement in the partnership is also necessary to deepen knowledge of collaborative tourism governance (Schofield *et al.*, 2018).

Recent research has primarily focused on the innovative development from the enterprise sector and neglected the role of policy and government (Pikkemaat *et al.*, 2019; Pinto & Guerreiro, 2010). Pikkemaat *et al.* (2019) propose further investigation of the role of collaborative governance in tourism innovation employing customer-driven innovation. Additionally, identifying and understanding the many types of barriers and challenges that may develop during the adoption of these governance models is also a

crucial step (Barandiarán *et al.*, 2019). Their study employs a systematic literature review and emphasized the four pillars of tourism innovation: innovation processes, context configuration, knowledge and technology, and eco-innovation. Another study conducted by Ferreira *et al.* (2020) focuses on nature-based solutions using the stakeholder point of view. Their study employs a systematic literature review that emphasizes increasing trends toward stakeholder engagement. In addition, Bichler's (2021) bibliometric study highlights the importance of community concern and management approaches to ensure collaborative governance in tourism. To the best of our knowledge, there is limited study emphasizing collective power in tourism. Most of the papers have stated the critical success factors for collaborative governance in tourism, but few also include the remaining challenges and barriers. Bichler (2021) noted a need to explore collective management challenges by identifying other related stakeholders' institutional design and roles.

Based on the statement above, this research explores the critical factors of collaborative governance in a tourism context. The present study examines the nexus between the stakeholder's roles in tourism from various studies. The main contribution of this research is the emphasis on giving a comprehensive image of literature on collaborative governance in tourism. By considering the development of collective management in tourism, this study addresses the following research aims:

1. Bibliometric mapping of collaborative tourism governance;
2. Analysis of the critical factors in successful collaborative tourism governance;
3. Presentation of future research opportunities.

This article is organized according to the following structure: introduction, literature review, research method procedures, results, discussion, and conclusions and future research. The next sections are organized as follows: Section 2 covers the literature review of collaborative governance, tourism governance, and collaborative tourism governance. In Section 3 of the research method, we present our proposed bibliometric approach to help answer the research question. Section 4 explains the results section by exhibiting the data analysis and research findings. Section 5 elaborates on the research findings through an exhaustive discussion section and presents the proposed research agenda for future research. Finally, Section 6 concludes our discussion by covering the theoretical and practical contributions.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Governance and Collaborative Governance

Processes and organizational structures are at the heart of governance (Pechlaner *et al.*, 2014). The political stream focuses on decision-making and authority, whereas governance is "the structure through which organizations are directed and controlled" (Bramwell, 2011). In a political setting, governance is defined as "the self-organizing of inter-organizational networks characterized by interdependencies, resource exchange, game rules, and autonomy from the state" (Rhodes, 1997).

Collaborative governance has emerged as a concept to unite private and public stakeholders to engage in the same direction to establish common goals (Ansell & Gash, 2007). There are at least two concepts of collaborative governance that are most influential. The first concept, by Ansell & Gash (2007), defines collaborative governance as "a governing arrangement where one or more public agencies directly engage non-state stakeholders in a collective decision-making process. It consists of formal, consensus-oriented, and deliberative and aims to make or implement public policy or manage public programs or assets." Thus, according to this definition, collaborative governance is proposed as a distinct concept focusing on public issues and policies. This concept differs from adversarialism and managerialism. The collaborative process within Ansell & Gash (2007) consists of trust building, commitment process,

shared understanding, intermediate outcomes, and face-to-face dialogue. However, Ansell and Gash (2007) mentioned that the iterative process within the collaborative process is hard to understand, as the process is somewhat cyclical as opposed to linear.

The second concept, proposed by Emerson *et al.* (2012), defines collaborative governance as “the processes and structures of public policy as decision making and management. Both aspects engage people constructively across the boundaries of public agencies, levels of government, and the public, private and civic spheres to carry out a public purpose that cannot accomplish.” The main feature of the concept proposed by Emerson *et al.* (2012) is the broader scope of stakeholder involvement, including the society/locals and society-based organization within the stakeholder groups. Following the concept in the collaborative process, the collective dynamics show cyclical collaboration rather than linear flow characteristics. Emerson *et al.* (2012) mentioned the interactive process within the collaboration process is more complex and, thus, an iterative process is more suitable. The collaborative dynamics consist of principle engagement, shared motivation, and capacity to joint action.

2.2. Tourism Governance

Definitions of tourist governance are a source of contention (Bevir, 2010). However, governance entails many aspects because governance is more significant than government concerns about how societies are governed, ruled, or guided and can involve several stakeholders (Bramwell, 2011). The definitions of business and political entities also contribute to improved understanding of the tourist setting. The management of tourism destinations requires coordination and collaboration among various stakeholders (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999; Wang & Fesenmaier, 2007). As a result of the interconnection and interdependent structure within tourism (e.g., interactions between tourists and service providers), influential actors and groups have arisen and tried to dominate tourism development (e.g., interactions between visitors, tourists, and service providers), e.g., through land-use concessions. Therefore, prior definitions of tourism governance have placed greater emphasis on the roles played by the public organization (e.g., various levels of government) and private sector (e.g., by restaurants, hotels, and travel agencies) as well as their networks and intermediaries (e.g., destination marketing organizations) (Beritelli *et al.*, 2007; Flagestad & Hope, 2001; Nordin & Svensson, 2007).

There are two perspectives related to tourism governance, which can be divided into horizontal and vertical perspectives. The flat view divides tourism government into three scopes: local context, regional context, and national context (Bramwell & Lane, 2011). Additionally, those three contexts are bound with the economic context, administrative affairs, and political situation (Eagles, 2009). From a vertical perspective, Bramwell and Lane (2011) stated that tourism governance is related to management and intertwined with civil society organizations. This condition involves many actors that act autonomously and independently.

2.3. Collaborative Governance in Tourism

Collaborative governance in the tourism context deals with the change and challenge in developing tourism objects that benefit many stakeholders under the community development scheme (Keyim, 2018). Even though much research has shown that the role of government has a central role within the collaboration, numerous studies have indicated that the role of the local community is critical in collaborative tourism governance. Robertson (2011) mentioned that the locally oriented tourism development approach is primarily interested in long-term tourism sustainability. To enhance related programs, the government must formulate an appropriate institutional design to facilitate collaboration as the primary regulatory institution. The institutional design must follow the needs of related stakeholders to design and develop a destination, foster valuable commitment, and synergize the

collaborative value (Barandiarán *et al.*, 2019; Bichler & Lösch, 2019). By establishing an appropriate institutional design and supporting a collaborative platform, the collaborative process under collective dynamics would result in a consensus toward establishing and achieving common goals (Barandiarán *et al.*, 2019).

In recent research, the development of collaborative governance has shifted from community empowerment to natural conservation responding to global climate change. As mentioned before, sustainable tourism must include local society as the key stakeholder. The core objective of sustainable tourism is to manage a tourist destination's resources such that economic, social, and human development goals can be met while adhering to shared cultural and ecological integrity standards (Robertson, 2011). In response to the condition, Zeppel (2012) proposes six key dimensions to evaluate the collaborative governance within the tourism context: accountability, transparency, involvement, structure, effectiveness, and power. An interesting finding suggests that research and managerial approaches to deal with local participation are still missing (Bichler, 2021).

3. Research Method

This part of the study describes research methods employed to answer the research questions above. This research uses the systematic literature review adopted from Wolfswinkel *et al.* (2013). The benefit of conducting a systematic literature review is identifying the generalization and knowing the limitations of those generalizations for furthering the research agenda (Pickering & Byrne, 2014). The method used in systematic literature reviews consists of definition, search, selection, analysis, and representation (Wolfswinkel *et al.*, 2013). In addition, Zupic and Čater (2015) propose review protocols to conduct science mapping using bibliometric methods. The difference between the two protocols lies in the data analysis section. Within the scope of the systematic literature review, bibliometric analysis will enhance the visualization of research findings while replicating ways to map knowledge developments (Linnenluecke *et al.*, 2020). The process adopted in the literature review is shown in Figure 1, which provides an overview of the research method workflow.

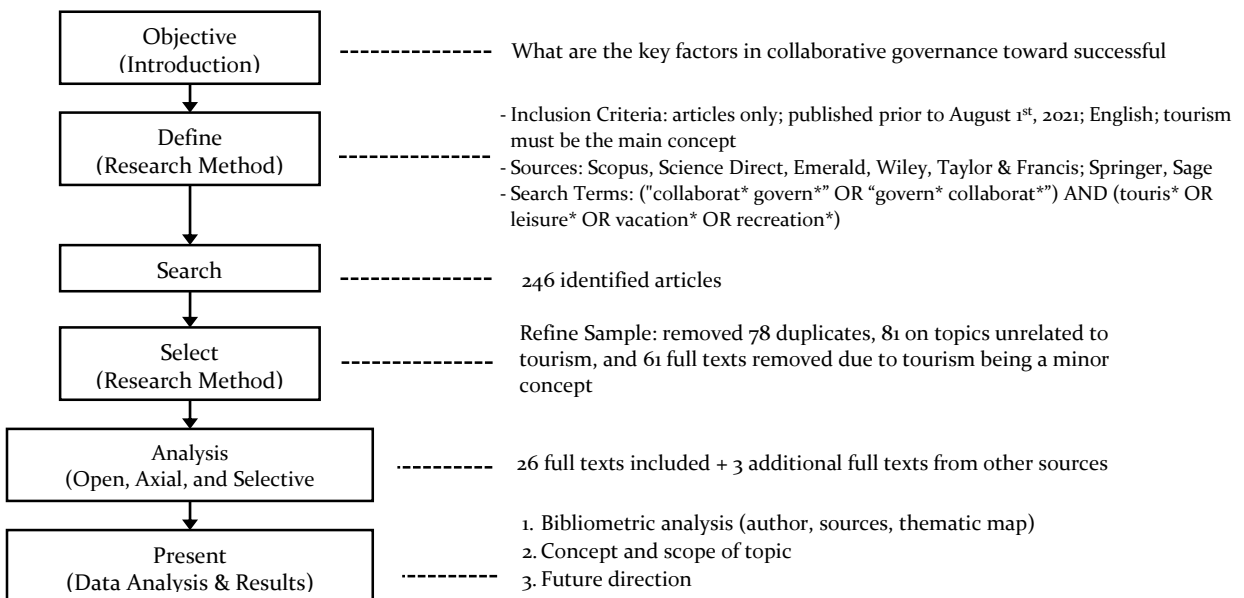


Figure 1. Literature review protocol.

Sources: Adopted from Wolfswinkel *et al.* (2013); Zupic and Čater (2015)

3.1. Define process

The definition process in this article starts with identifying the inclusions and exclusion criteria, the areas of interest related to the research, defining the database sources, and creating search term queries. The inclusion criteria for the identification process are that the type of paper must be article, published from 2010 to 1 August 2021, and written in the English language. On the other hand, an exclusion criterium is publications that are conference proceedings, book chapters, and books. The requirements only specify that the source be a journal article, as sources other than peer-reviewed journal articles have questionable quality (Wolfswinkel *et al.*, 2013). For our research, no specific area of study was applied, since the topics arise from various points of view. The search terms used in the query are ("collaborat* govern*" OR "govern* collaborat*") AND (touris* OR leisur* OR vacation* OR recreation*) and were used to search in Scopus and science direct. The search terms used in Wiley, Emerald, Springer, Taylor & Francis are "collaborative governance", "government collaboration", tourism, leisure, vacation, recreation, and travel. The formula of the search term query may differ from one database to another, thus necessitating adjustment of the keyword compositions.

3.2. Searching phase

From the search step, for which the plan is outlined in the previous section, 246 articles were identified. The 246 articles are from various sources, including publisher databases and research databases such as Scopus. The aim of employing different conceptions of databases is to attain more complete data to capture the evidence of current research interest (Wolfswinkel *et al.*, 2013). Additionally, Post *et al.* (2020) mentioned that in including various sources, more new perspectives on the current phenomenon are provided. The detailed information about the database searches is summarized in Table 1. More specifically, the source and corresponding number of articles are Scopus—156, Science Direct—24, Emerald—7, Wiley—9, Taylor & Francis—29, Springer—10, and Sage—11. These numbers correspond to identified articles before removing any duplicates.

Table 1. Number of articles identified from the indicated source through database searching.

Sources	Number of Articles
Emerald	7
Science Direct	24
Sage	11
Scopus	156
Springer	10
Taylor & Francis	29
Wiley	9
Total	246

3.3. Selecting the article (refining process)

Following the identification process of 246 articles, the refining process that was applied to select included papers consists of several techniques. The refinement process was conducted in reference manager software (Mendeley) and involves detection of duplicated records. In the initial step, 78 duplicates were removed, resulting in 168 articles. These 168 articles are further refined by screening the title of the article and abstract, and necessary full-text lookups are undertaken to address any doubts during screening. Four papers written in another language were removed, which is a reason for exclusion reason as indicated in the previously presented plan. A majority of papers (81 articles) were only related to collaborative government and not to a tourism context.

The resulting 87 titles were used as primary data for further review by downloading the full texts. During the full-text inspection, 61 full texts contained little discussion on tourism, thus resulting in 26 articles finally included in the full-text review.

3.4. Data Analysis

In the analysis stage, the full-text articles were analyzed using bibliometric and thematic analyses in a qualitative manner, coded using open, axial, and selective coding to extract the genuine value of the selected study (Wolfswinkel *et al.*, 2013). First, bibliometric analysis was used to understand the authorship records country-specific productivity and, at the same time, understand the thematic map (Liu *et al.*, 2020). To facilitate a comprehensive analysis regarding the datasets, the Bibliometrix package for R studio was employed. Bibliometrix offers integrated features covering the whole bibliometric workflow in a single interface (Dervis, 2019). The Bibliometrix R package was popularized by Aria and Cuccurullo (2017). In the second stage of the full-text data, after the list of necessary data has been created, the coding and classification with the aid of NVivo software create bases for further description. In the first step, the coding was made open to capture a larger area of topics. In the next step, repeated reading was used in axial coding by enabling clustering, grouping the same meanings and identifying their relationship. The final stage of selective coding aims to understand the relationship between main categories as indicated by the previous axial coding (Oliveira *et al.*, 2021; Wolfswinkel *et al.*, 2013). From the latest selective coding, we categorized the coding into several idea discussions from the thematic results (Williams & Moser, 2019). Finally, the presentation stage exhibits the effects and discusses the interrelated explanations of the concept being reviewed.

4. Results

The results of data analysis in this section are organized into bibliometric findings (including thematic analysis); the article's general focus; challenges; and success stories in collaborative tourism governance.

4.1. Bibliometric Findings

4.1.1. Publication Trends

The earliest published article in the bibliometric findings, shown in Figure 1, is from 2010. The number of articles, indicative of production, is growing, as indicated by the annual growth rate of 6.5%. The year in which the highest article production was observed was in 2019, with a decline in 2020. However, in the middle of 2021, the number of published articles also shows a declining trend.

4.1.2. Most Relevant Sources

The articles have been published in 24 different journals from various publishing companies, including commercial and university publishers. Table 1 shows that of the 24 journals, most are commercial publishers (19 journals) and at least 4 are university publishers. Table 2 shows the journal-specific number of article publications, journal impact, and the journal scope identified from Scopus source searches (<https://www.scopus.com/sources>). The journal with the most identified article publications, ranging from 1 to 3 articles for each journal, most likely corresponds to journal with the most overall publications. However, based on the total citation numbers, the most popular are *Tourism Management* (140 citations) and *Journal of Place Management Development* (63 citations). The areas of research of the 24 journals include business: tourism, leisure, and hospitality management (10 journals); environmental science (5 journals); social science (6 journals); management, monitoring, policy, and law (2 journals); and geography, planning, and development (1 journal).

4.1.3 Seminal Papers and Journal

As indicated in Figure 2, the article citation network shows that the publication by Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydin (2010) is the main cited article focusing on environmental governance for sustainable tourism. Several popular articles also derived from this concept, including Bichler and Lösch (2019), focusing on the collaborative management in tourism, and Keyim 2016 and 2018, focusing on the development of rural communities' tourism. Table 2 indicates the specific most-local-cited article of the 29 papers. It shows that the most cited authors have 4 cited articles (Erkuş-Öztürk & Eraydin, 2010), followed by three authors with 2 cited articles (Charlie *et al.*, 2013; Keyim, 2016; Zeppel, 2012), and four authors with 1 cited article (Dragouni & Fouseki, 2018; Gyimóthy & Meged, 2018; Robertson, 2011; Vignieri, 2019). However, the most comprehensive citation was of research conducted in 2019 by Bichler and Lösch (2019), which takes much study to sharpen the point of view.

4.1.4. Country Scientific Production

From the 29 articles, we find that the contributions correspond to 14 countries, as shown in Table 4. From this data, the most productive country is the USA (4 articles, 29 citations), while Turkey is the most cited country (1 article, 140 citations). Other countries, such as Australia, have 3 articles (34 citations), Austria offers 2 articles (27 citations), Finland 3 articles (21 citations), and Portugal 2 articles (47 citations). Other countries have only 1 article with various citation records showing from only 1 to 14 citation records. No articles were from Suriname and Canada to the date that this research is reported.

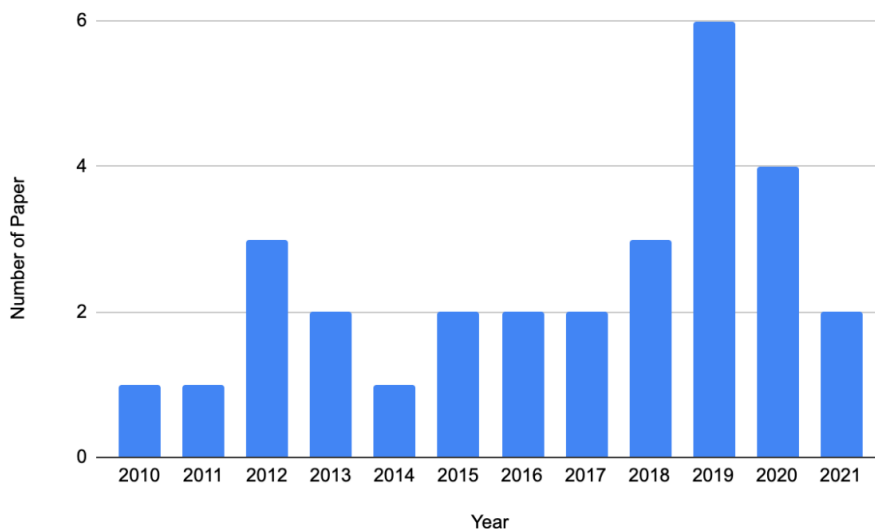


Figure 2. Annual article production according to number of papers.

Table 2. Publisher productivity.

Publishers	Number of Journals
Taylor & Francis Group	8
Elsevier	4
Emerald Publishing	3
Other commercial publishers including MDPI, WITPress, SAGE, Wiley	6
University/society publishers	4

Table 3. *Distribution of article publications.*

Sources	Articles	Citations	Area
<i>Tourism Planning and Development</i>	3	26	Social Sciences: Sociology and Political Science
<i>Journal of Environmental Planning and Management</i>	2	2	Tourism, Leisure and Hospitality Management
<i>Sustainability</i> (Switzerland)	2	31	Social Sciences: Public Administration
<i>Tourism Review</i>	2	7	Tourism, Leisure and Hospitality Management
<i>Community Development Journal</i>	1	7	Environmental Science: Management, Monitoring, Policy and Law
<i>Current Issues in Tourism</i>	1	23	Environmental Science: Management, Monitoring, Policy and Law
<i>International Journal of Public Administration</i>	1	10	Social Sciences: Development
<i>International Journal of River Basin Management</i>	1	5	Tourism, Leisure and Hospitality Management
<i>Journal of Heritage Tourism</i>	1	21	Tourism, Leisure and Hospitality Management
<i>Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management</i>	1	22	Social Sciences: Public Administration
<i>Journal of Place Management and Development</i>	1	63	Environmental Science: Water Science and Technology
<i>Journal of Travel Research</i>	1	14	Tourism, Leisure and Hospitality Management
<i>Mountain Research and Development</i>	1	18	Geography, Planning and Development
<i>Ocean and Coastal Management</i>	1	21	Tourism, Leisure and Hospitality Management
<i>Public Performance and Management Review</i>	1	6	Management, Monitoring, Policy and Law
<i>Restoration Ecology</i>	1	10	Social Sciences: Development
<i>Society and Natural Resources</i>	1	13	Management, Monitoring, Policy and Law
<i>Tourism Management</i>	1	140	Environmental Science: Ecology

4.2. Thematic Map Analysis

Finally, in the thematic mapping map, we explore the quantitative map by clustering multiple themes to understand the complex structure in collaborative tourism governance. In the first stage, from the 29 included articles, we included only the 250 most frequently used keywords and reduced noise by only including two clusters in each nearest node. The results were then automatically located under four quadrants where:

- The motor theme is indicated by high relevance and high development degree;
- The basic theme is characterized by lower development and increased relevance;
- The emerging declining theme is characterized by lower development and lower bearing;
- The niche themes are characterized by higher growth and a more inadequate approach.

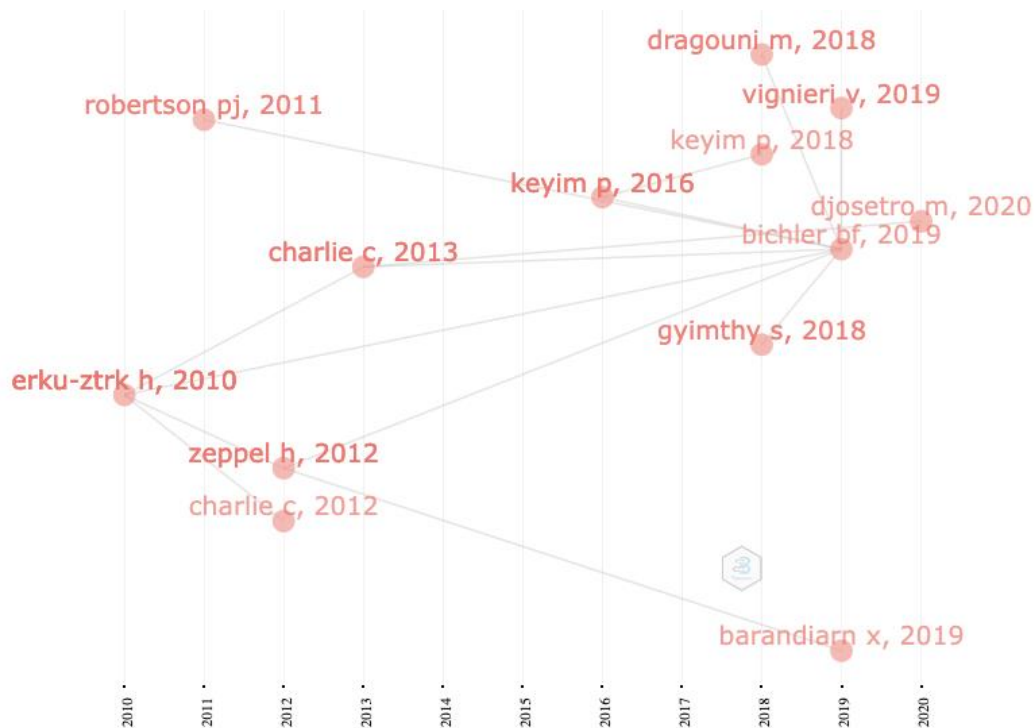


Figure 3. Historical direct citation network

Table 4. Local citation records.

Local Citation Records	Authors
1	Dragouni and Fouseki (2018); Gyimóthy and Meged (2018); Robertson (2011); Vignieri (2019)
2	Charlie <i>et al.</i> (2013); Keyim (2016); Zeppel (2012)
4	Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydin (2010)

Table 5. Country-specific productivity.

Country	Articles	Total Citations	Country	Articles	Total Citations
USA	4	29	Indonesia	1	1
Australia	3	34	Italy	1	3
Austria	2	27	South Korea	1	1
Finland	2	21	Netherlands	1	5
Portugal	2	47	Suriname	1	0
Canada	1	0	Tanzania	1	5
Denmark	1	14	Turkey	1	140

Figure 3 shows the thematic mapping of keywords from 29 articles. Figure 3 in the motor themes shows that the node consists of local participation and sustainable development. The fundamental theme quadrant indicates two major clusters that are composed of two subclusters. The largest cluster consists of a subcluster on governance approach and stakeholder, and the second cluster consists of two subclusters environmental protection and sustainability. In the third quadrant of emerging themes, there are two clusters of rural development and tourism. In the last, niche themes, there are two different clusters. The first cluster consists of two ecotourism and literature review subclusters, whereas the final group is the participatory approach. We identify two terms in methodological themes from this cluster: the participatory process and literature review.

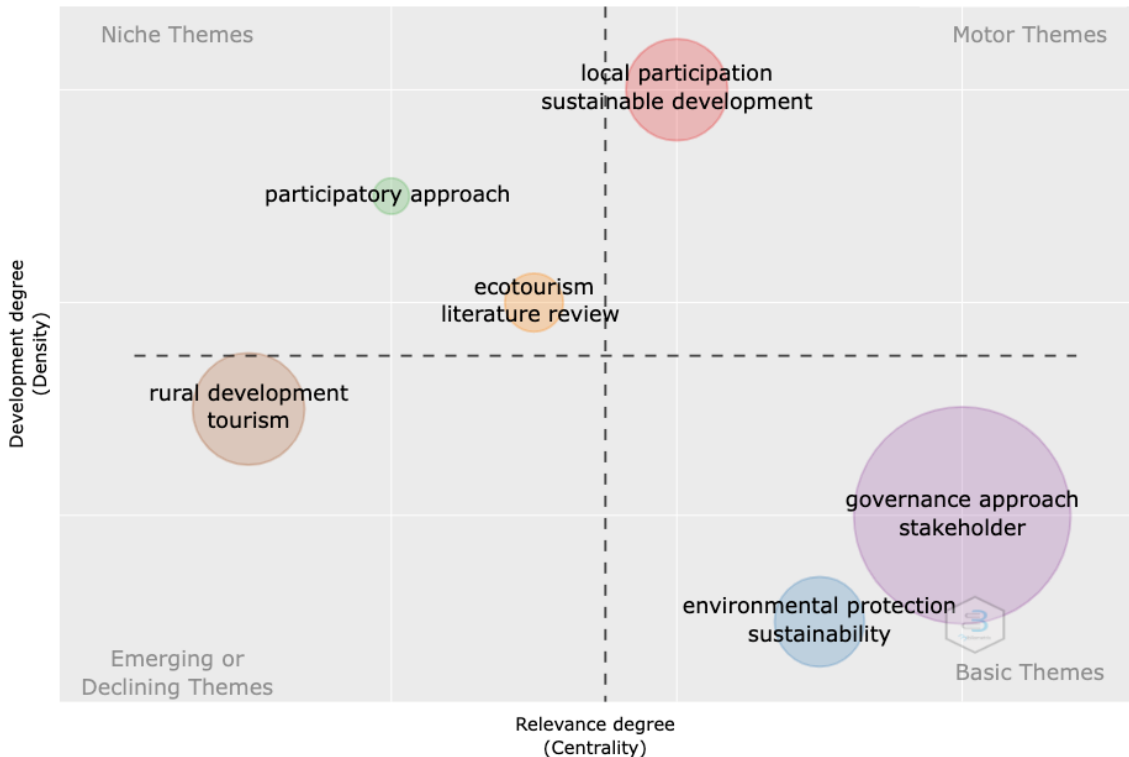


Figure 4. *Quantitative thematic map of keyword clusters.*

To identify the related thematic map in each cluster in Figure 3 and the specific interconnections of keyword occurrence in each group, we drew the subnetwork for those clusters through four quadrants. The groups of “local participants” and “sustainable development” from significant themes are shown in Figure 4. From this cluster, we identify those two keywords are closely related to other keywords such as “trust-building”, “sustainable management”, “project assessment”, “sustainable tourism”, “co-management”, “collaborative process”, and “citizenship”.

The connections between primary theme clusters are indicated in Figure 5. The first cluster consists of a subcluster “governance approach”, which is closely related to the cluster “stakeholder”. In contrast, another cluster consists of a subcluster of “environmental protection” and “sustainability”. From the cluster of “governance approach”, other keywords related are “regional planning”, “decision making”, “environmental management”, adaptive management”, “planning method”, “policy approach”, and

“decision analysis”. The “stakeholder” cluster is closely related to “policy implementation”, “conservation management”, “leadership”, and river management. However, from those figures, the cluster of “stakeholder” appears closely related to “governance approach”. The second cluster consists of subcluster “environmental protection”, which is closely related to keywords “environmental quality”, “tourism development”, “environmental protection”, “organizational framework”, and “networking”. The “sustainability” subcluster is closely related to “fishery policy”, “conflict management”, and “natural resources”. However, the network between “sustainability” and “environmental protection” is far closer than to other keywords mentioned above.

The third quadrant of the emerging theme is indicated in Figure 6. There is a cluster that consists of two subclusters of “rural development” and “tourism”. The “rural development” subcluster is closely related to “public–private partnership”, “partnership approach”, “resource management”, “bottom-up approach”, “top-down approach”, and “state role”. The subcluster of tourism is related to “co-management”, “community development”, “rural policy”, “rural society”, “rural economy”, “local government”, and “socioeconomic status”. However, the strongly related keywords also have related networking to the “rural development” subcluster.

In the niche quadrant, there are two clusters, “ecotourism” and “participatory approach”. In this section, we exclude the subcluster “literature review”, as it is a technical aspect in research that has no relation to the topic being investigated. The “ecotourism” cluster is related to keywords “implementation process”, “emission control”, “carbon emission”, and “tourism management”. The next cluster of “participatory approach” is closely related to keywords “management procedures”, “project management”, “collaborative planning”, “recreational water”, and “water use conflict”. Unfortunately, those two distinctive clusters have no relation at all.

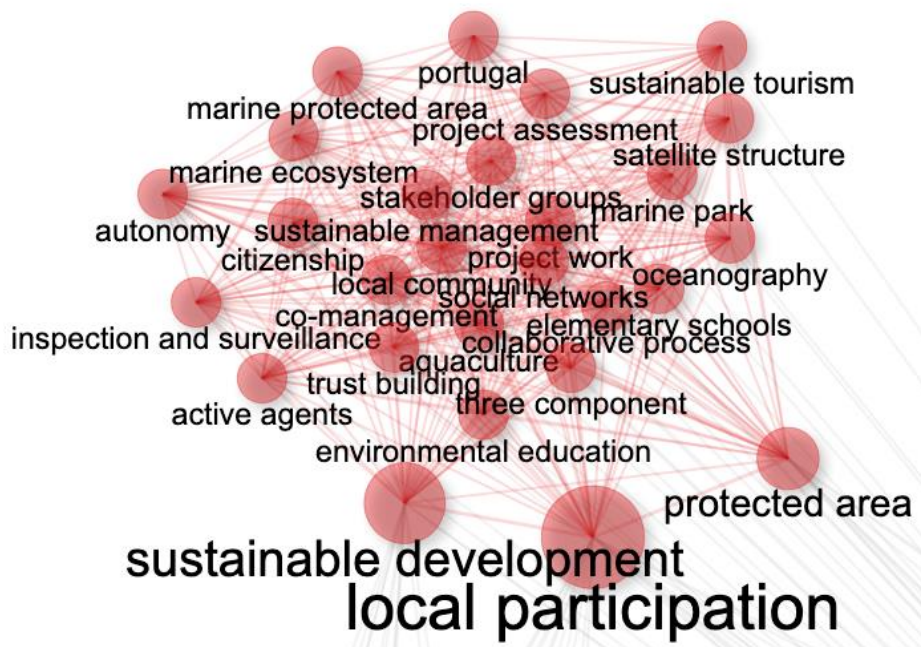


Figure 5. Motor theme network map

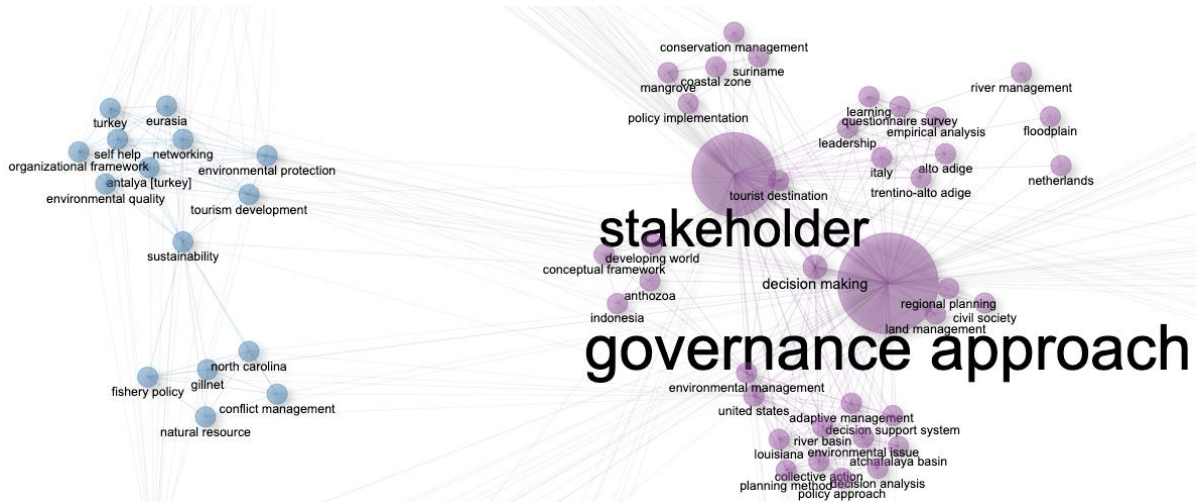


Figure 6. Basic themes network map.

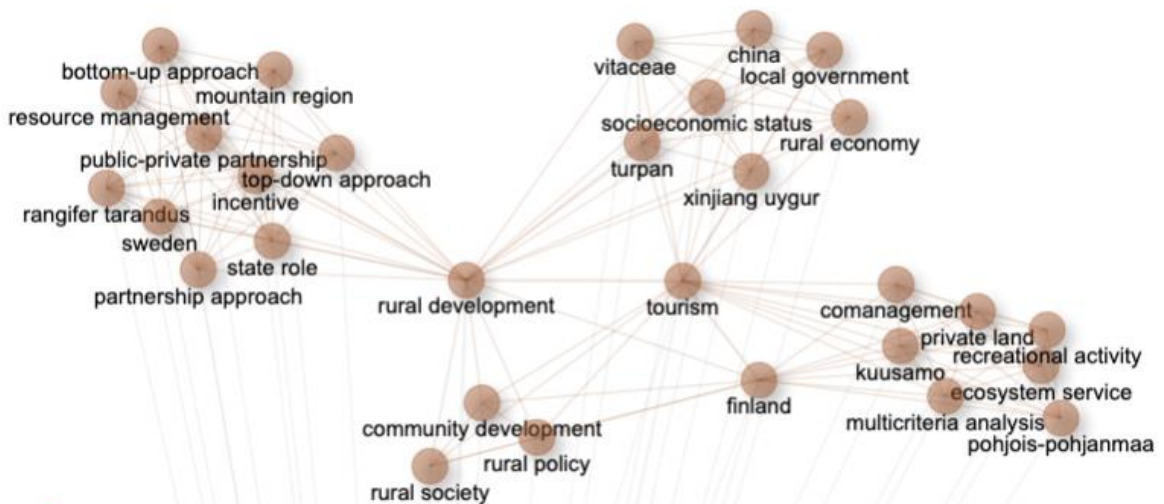


Figure 7. Emerging theme network map.

4.2.1 Thematic Analysis

In thematic analysis employing grounded theory described by Wolfswinkel *et al.* (2013), all of our coding was conducted with the help of NVivo software. In the first stage, we create an overview of the collaborative tourism dynamic by distinguishing the context of tourism collaboration into three levels: local, regional, and national (Bichler & Lösch, 2019). Figure 5 indicates that we identified 12 articles, regional level 11 articles, national level 2 articles, and 4 review paper articles at the local level. We include the review papers due to their importance in helping us to identify the schematic topics in axial coding later in the process.

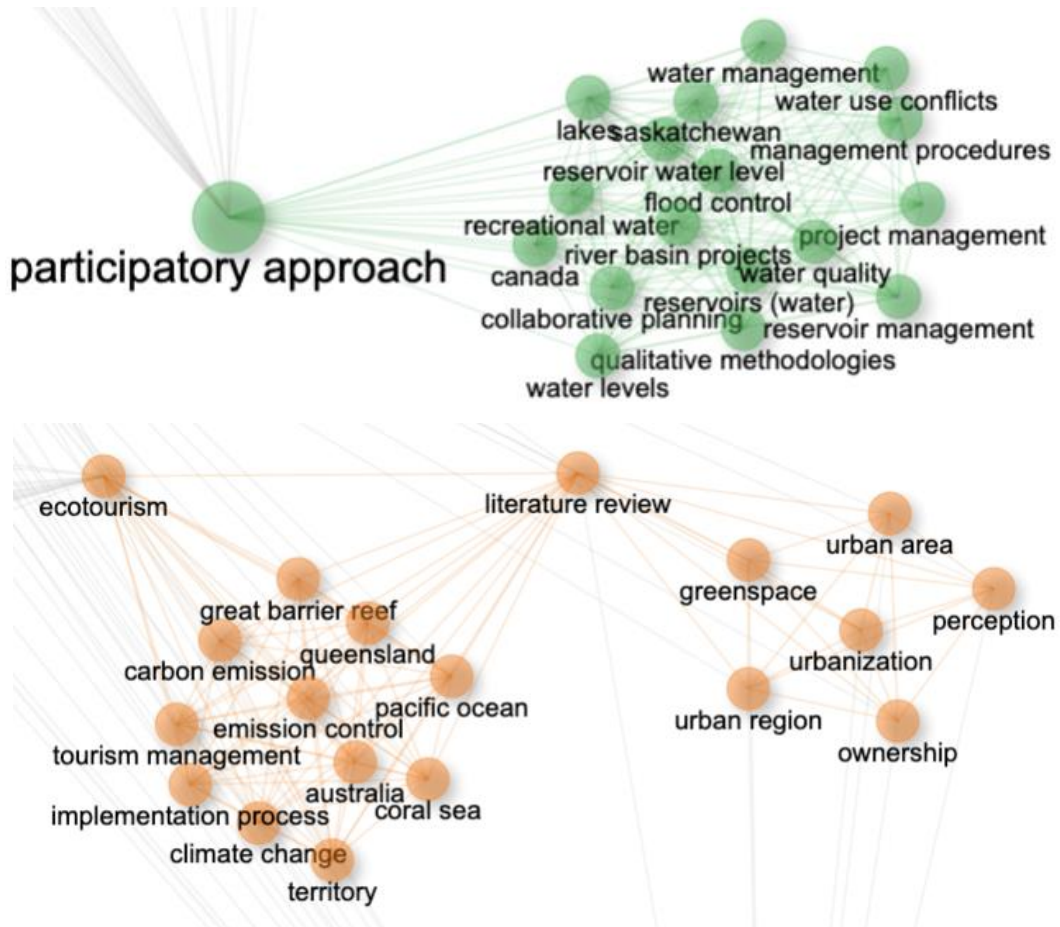


Figure 8. Niche theme network map.

Query tools are employed in the steps of open coding analysis to identify the most frequent words and manual keyword search guides according to research question and review papers. From this step, we identified 70 nodes from 29 articles. We then merged the 72 nodes into 38 codes in the axial coding process. From the 38 codes, we then created the 7 themes based on the collaborative governance model, adopting several collaborative dynamics by Emerson and Nabatchi. To better understand our findings, Figure 8 depicts the overall findings of our studies derived from our framework matrices of a recent review in Appendices 1 and 2. To describe our findings regarding the success and remaining problem in collaborative tourism governance, they are elaborated in the following discussion.

4.2.2. Success stories in Collaborative tourism governance

The role of government in its governing mode is vital in the success stories of collaborative tourism governance. As shown in Figure 8, 7 papers were identified at the local level, 4 at the regional level, and 1 at the national level. Tourism governance at the local group seems to give more insight into how collaborative management is conducted. The role of government as an initiator becomes a bridge of the gap between the public organizations (public resources, public transportation, public health, and tourism infrastructure) and private management (hospitality; tour and travel business) to ensure the same understanding in maintaining the sustainable tourism ecosystem (Barandiarán *et al.*, 2019). As the

government's role is essential, precise regulation and policy from the office are necessary, and thus, the high awareness from the government is essential (Charlie *et al.*, 2013). In the case of local government in Klungkung, Bali, Indonesia, the horizontal government mode of the public to the private organization has proven to provide more accessibility to the collaboration, thus leading to more effective results (Charlie *et al.*, 2012; Keyim, 2016; Kurttila *et al.*, 2020).

Table 6. Overview of the collaborative tourism governance research context.

Context	Publications
Local (12 articles)	Barandiarán <i>et al.</i> (2019); Bichler and Lösch (2019); Charlie <i>et al.</i> (2012); Charlie <i>et al.</i> (2013); Cho <i>et al.</i> (2019); Djosestro and Behagel (2020); Keyim (2016); Kozak and Piazza (2015); Kurttila <i>et al.</i> (2020); Pujiyono <i>et al.</i> (2019); Vasconcelos <i>et al.</i> (2013)
Regional (11 articles)	Anderson <i>et al.</i> (2017); Bettis <i>et al.</i> (2020); Chilima <i>et al.</i> (2021); Dragouni and Fouseki (2018); Eckerberg <i>et al.</i> (2015); Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydin (2010); Gyimóthy and Meged (2018); Keyim (2018); Mauldin (2012); May, (2016); Robertson (2011)
National (2 articles)	Minasi <i>et al.</i> (2021); Zeppel (2012)
Reviews (3 Articles)	Ferreira <i>et al.</i> (2020); Pikkemaat <i>et al.</i> (2019); Zenker and Erfgen (2014)

On the other hand, we also found several cases where the government role is dominant in South Korea, where the tourism festival was fully funded and operated by the government, which was critical for the success of collaboration (Cho *et al.*, 2019). This finding is also supported by the result of the government adopting government-centered modes as found in China. The government has multiple roles spanning from the planner, promoter, educator, regulator, and investor to the investment agent (Keyim, 2016). In Indonesia, we found that the role of government policy is considered to have a higher legitimate power. Thus, it increases the trust of the collaborative stakeholders (Pujiyono *et al.*, 2019). The public policies are generated through mutual understanding across public and private sectors (Anderson *et al.*, 2017). In the case of sustainable tourism, the role of the government as a nonprofit organization is essential. It creates a self-help character under the public supervisory board in the networks to achieve coherence in competitiveness and nature conservation (Erkuş-Öztürk & Eraydin, 2010; Keyim, 2018). In a less dominated example in RedeTuris, the government's role was to implement existing government rule/policy, thus creating a semi-independent governance network enabling the network to give a broader impact expanding from the collaborative network (Robertson, 2011). At the national level, the role of government is distributive in power, decentralism, deliberate process, flexibility, and revisability, facilitating experimentation and knowledge creation in the collaborative network (Zeppel, 2012).

The institutional design in collaborative tourism governance spans from the institutional role and the importance of parent/umbrella organization in organizing the ad hoc stakeholder. The local case, as evidenced in Indonesia and Turkey, has indicated the preference of an ad hoc collaborative parent organization that oversees private and public organizations (Barandiarán *et al.*, 2019; Charlie Charlie *et al.*, 2013). Even in a government-centered country, the role of the ad hoc organization is necessary to coordinate the various dedicated tourism and nature conservation object (Keyim, 2016). This institutional design is vital to pool the information and connect the network to enhance and evaluate collaborative programs (Kurttila *et al.*, 2020). The regional level of collaborative governance in tourism indicates that an ad hoc organization across a district under a parent organization is essential to

synchronize the plan to establish wildlife management areas and provide room for tourism purposes (Anderson *et al.*, 2017; Bettis *et al.*, 2020). In a self-regulating network in which the role of government is minimal, the ad hoc parent organization is crucial to establish equal understanding and commitment, solve problems, and even facilitate more global-centric strategies (Erkuş-Öztürk & Eraydin, 2010; Robertson, 2011). The ad hoc self-regulated network shifts from governmental funding to private funding, and self-funding organizations alternatively rely on sustainable development (Gyimóthy & Meged, 2018). On a national scale, the government is involved in the initiation process of new relationships between state, civil society, and other economic interest groups. At the same time, it also maintains the existing collaborative networks (Zeppel, 2012).

To ease the collaborative process while documenting the collaboration, the role of ICT is an essential tool for collaboration. This experiment has also been conducted in Etorkizuna Eraikiz in Basque, Spain. Moreover, a collaborative tourism organization indicates that the use of information technology, such as data analytics, and the roles of data center led by stakeholders from university have a more significant impact on understanding the customer role to define the further necessary development of the tourism attraction (Barandiarán *et al.*, 2019).

To enable the whole program and the collaborative network, the role of local participant/stakeholder is inevitable. In the local scope, the part of local stakeholder involvement will lead to better understanding of the urgent necessity in tourism development, thus strengthening the big picture of tourism development (Kurttila *et al.*, 2020). The finding at the regional level indicates that the local stakeholder, defined as a core action team, plays a more active role in frequent discussions of day-to-day problems instead of being rarely involved (Bettis *et al.*, 2020). They connect the strategic planning across districts (e.g., cooperativeness tradition across local associations) and create cohesion (Gyimóthy & Meged, 2018). The collaboration network must pay serious attention to the long-term improvement of local livelihood by involving them either during the planning or in the implementation phase, such as training toward labor skills, the use of private property, or any other program to familiarize the locals with the collaboration purposes (Gyimóthy & Meged, 2018; Minasi *et al.*, 2021). The role of a local participant at the national level is transformed to the regional level as the regional process is considered to have a closer relationship with the locals (Minasi *et al.*, 2021).

To ensure participation in a collaborative network, stakeholder commitment from all stakeholders is necessary. The long-term commitment at the local level is shown from time to time and creates a better understanding, with frequently shared responsibilities and shared motivation among the stakeholders through routine meetings and sharing sessions (Barandiarán *et al.*, 2019). Findings in Bigi Pan MUMA, Suriname, indicate that the awareness of interrelated connections among stakeholders shows that they cannot solely achieve this goal. Thus, they have a higher commitment to get the job done together (Djosetro & Behagel, 2020). The responsibility of stakeholders in local-oriented destinations also indicates that strong commitment from the parent organization and leaders in collaboration is central, as it is aware of the characteristics and interdependence in collaborative networks (Bichler & Lösch, 2019). The study in Verde Front also indicates that at the regional level in Arizona, involving three primary counties, all stakeholders have a higher commitment to river conservation, as it pulls many tourist interests across the state (Bettis *et al.*, 2020). The central government, at the national level, has a role in enforcing the regional level of public governance by increasing the collaborative partnership policy (Zeppel, 2012).

Finally, trust among stakeholders plays a vital role in the continual loop of communication and shared commitment. However, in the local context, trust at the local level was only shown for the public policy

as it is considered a reliable source in the collaborative network (Pujiyono *et al.*, 2019). This condition aligns with the finding wherein the government organization has taken a significant role in the collaborative network in the local context. The trust among cross-country collaborations in Verde River is also shown to be an essential aspect in the collaborative network (Bettis *et al.*, 2020). It also found that to strengthen the trust among stakeholders, the collaborative network has to focus on frequent small wins instead of long-term goals, as long-term goals need a different level of patience and understanding that can take a while in collaboration (Bettis *et al.*, 2020).

4.2.3. Issues and Barriers in Collaborative tourism governance

The challenges are interesting to discuss as they leave an important message to the other collaborative groups. We grouped the finding into three collaborative dynamics components according to Emerson *et al.* (2012), namely principled engagement, shared motivation, and capacity to joint action, and created categories of dedicated impact in facilitative leadership and institutional design (Ansell & Gash, 2007).

4.2.4. Principled Engagement

In principled engagement, we identified several barriers to collaborative governance in tourism due to lack of transparency, communication, attention, and participation. The lack of transparency is due to the unclear direction of collaborative purposes in managing the collaboration resulting in the irrelevant program or misleading program (Pujiyono *et al.*, 2019). The lack of communication in personal and cross-institutional relationships at the local level is shown to be a frequent problem in collaborative networks (Bichler & Lösch, 2019; Keyim, 2016). As the result of minimal communication/dialogue in monitoring the activities from the government, the local perception of negligence of the government or collaborative network is increased (Djosetro & Behagel, 2020). However, the finding also indicates that the lack of communication comes from the local stakeholder's avoidance or any passive reaction, even after several invitations to join the meetings/dialogue (Kurttila *et al.*, 2020; Pujiyono *et al.*, 2019). The lack of communication in the regional context arises from significant overlap among the stakeholders. The large-sized stakeholder representative's role is unclear, whether represented in local, regional, or national scope (Eckerberg *et al.*, 2015). There is also linear miscommunication between the tourist regions (provincial level) and the central government agency (Minasi *et al.*, 2021).

The minimal engagement in local stakeholders in China is due to centralistic governance policy, especially in several counties, as the government has a strict role, such as in Grape Valley (Keyim, 2016). To measure the lack of engagement in the program, an investigation was conducted into several fundamental aspects such as planning, organizing, implementing, and controlling an action plan (Pujiyono *et al.*, 2019). The minimum contact from local stakeholders could result in negative results in long-term resource management (Kozak & Piazza, 2015). Furthermore, as mentioned above, the interest of local stakeholders is in the early communication or discussion phase. However, there is lower interest in further engagement in the program, especially when discussing the type of activity that could be part of their corporate responsibility program (Kurttila *et al.*, 2020). Later, the lack of engagement in a regional context of dominant significantly sized stakeholders results in unequal decisions for local society (Anderson *et al.*, 2017; May 2016). As local stakeholders are less likely to want to be involved in the discussion, the decision will likely not have much impact (Robertson, 2011). This condition occurs due to the pessimistic feeling of locals, as the previous program is likely to benefit certain parties, particularly those with a large organization (Dragouni & Fouseki, 2018). In the national context of collaboration, this likely occurs due to the lack of representatives in the cooperation. There is a lack of clear strategies in inviting and involving the locals (Minasi *et al.*, 2021; Zeppel, 2012).

The lack of participation of local villagers is due to a lack of information from the government about any related programs (Keyim, 2016). Another finding also indicates a hesitant feeling from local tourism associations and entrepreneurs, even when they contribute to the conducted survey, which may have a different view of collaboration output in nature conservation (Kurttila *et al.*, 2020). This condition occurs due to weak cooperation agreements and synergy in addition to any negative tension among stakeholders (Djosetro & Behagel, 2020). Due to the lack of participation in a regional context, it is found that for collaboration involving local entrepreneurs or tourism operators, there is an unequal distribution of benefits toward its members, particularly local stakeholders (Dragouni & Fouseki, 2018; Keyim, 2018). A participatory approach by the government toward the stakeholder is also lacking (Chilima *et al.*, 2021).

4.2.5. Shared motivation

The problem of shared motivation in the collaborative tourism network is identified through three dimensions: the lack of a shared vision, a lack of trust, and a lack of understanding. As discussed above, the lack of shared vision is due to weak collaborative action or numerous stakeholder contributions. In the local context, a lack of shared vision usually occurs in the initial collaboration process, as the stakeholders still recognize the importance of collaborative action (Vignieri, 2019). In the further step of a joint initiative, prominent stakeholders even take salient efforts to avoid collaboration (Bichler & Lösch, 2019). At the regional level, we found that the lack of shared vision is a problem related to the systematic failure of collaboration.

As there is a failure to deliver the message of collaboration to all related stakeholders, and misunderstanding among stakeholders is severe (Chilima *et al.*, 2021). In the local context, unclear guidance and direction of the collaboration would result in lack of understanding among stakeholders (Pujiyono *et al.*, 2019). In other results, the lack of knowledge toward the collaborative purposes will result in different actions taken that are far from the initial collective goals (Kurttila *et al.*, 2020). The shallow understanding of nature conservation is understood as an additional cost or the reduction of potential income rather than sustainable potential income in the distant future (Charlie *et al.*, 2012). In the national context, a lack of understanding has occurred in federal organizations (Minasi *et al.*, 2021). A further step resulting from a lack of shared vision is the detrimental effect of trust. The change in local government structure creates unclear responsibility toward the collaboration, thus leading to a lack of confidence (Bichler & Lösch, 2019). In a regional scope, it is found that managerial behavior does not show higher accountability, resulting in decreased satisfaction and lower trust (Robertson, 2011).

4.2.6 Capacity to Joint Action

A barrier within the capacity to joint action is an inheritance effect from the previous phase in principled engagement and shared motivation. In our findings, the lack of ability to take collective action has more dimensions than the last collaborative dynamics concept. The local civilians and the local entrepreneurs indicate the lack of capacity due to unclear roles and functions in the combined network (Cho *et al.*, 2019; Kurttila *et al.*, 2020). As a result of the lack of a clear role, the commitment of each stakeholder may be limited as they work in an independent group or even individually (Pujiyono *et al.*, 2019).

The lack of competencies from local government representatives can be seen in any relevant management skills in the collaborative network (Charlie *et al.*, 2012). The fact is supported in subsequent studies indicating that the lack of government collaborative skills results in poor education in local societies, ending up with inefficient law application in preserving the tourism nature attractions (Charlie *et al.*, 2013; Djosetro & Behagel, 2020). The government cannot solve a conflict between private businesses and local citizens related to land ownership (Charlie Charlie *et al.*, 2013).

There is also a lack of consensus or any sectoral ego between prominent stakeholders, especially the government, related to local participation and any authority issues in fostering the innovativeness of collaborative network (Bichler & Lösch, 2019; Djosetro & Behagel, 2020). There is also a need to enrich and strengthen law enforcement without having a dedicated legal stakeholder involved in the networks (Djosetro & Behagel, 2020). There is also a condition where there is a lack of consensus as the dominating stakeholder has a different view in the network (Pujiyono *et al.*, 2019).

The lack of coordination occurs due to sole and partial interests at the local level (Pujiyono *et al.*, 2019). The unclear role of the local-regional part of stakeholders creates an overlap in the regional level collaboration networks in top-down and bottom-up collaboration actions (Eckerberg *et al.*, 2015). Another factor found in the salient stakeholder is the improper scope of an involved organization (May 2016).

The local stakeholder's lack of robust understanding in the future inhibits the collaborative output to conserve nature-based recreational objects (Charlie *et al.*, 2012; Kurttila *et al.*, 2020). The poor knowledge by the stakeholder at the local level is commonly related to financial and cost issues. There is a perception that nature conservation near tourism objects will generate higher prices (Charlie *et al.*, 2012). At the regional level, the finding is relevant to the local level, whereby the lack of knowledge of stakeholders leads to unequal distribution of tourism benefits (Keyim, 2018). Additionally, the lack of political power is described as the incapability of the official regional government to force law enforcement against policy infringements (May 2016).

The absence of regulatory instruments such as statutory regulation can neither enforce any related stakeholder within the collaboration network nor an outside network (Djosetro & Behagel, 2020). The overlap between the regulatory instrument at the regional level is also a source of ineffective collaborative networks (Chilima *et al.*, 2021), specifically through the absence of starting conditions in the policy to define the direction of collaboration, resulting in ambiguous understanding among stakeholders (Chilima *et al.*, 2021).

The lack of resources at the local level of collaborative tourism governance arises from insufficient human resources to participate in the collaboration and limited financial ability (Djosetro & Behagel, 2020). The conditions in the cooperation itself also contribute to the lack of resources toward the participating stakeholder, as it cannot give any funding or any related help (Anderson *et al.*, 2017).

In a local context, the lack of supervision in the collaboration network occurs due to limited oversight from the local government toward tourism development, resulting in mushrooming tourism sites managed by expatriates with low or no contribution to the surrounding environment (Charlie Charlie *et al.*, 2013). There is also a concern toward the managerial change from the local tourism actor that is out of sight from government/collaboration network supervision (Djosetro & Behagel, 2020). In the implementation process of strategic planning in collaborative tourism governance, the visible vulnerability results in many problems, such as power misuse and corruption within the network (Keyim, 2016). On a larger scale of the regional level, the lack of supervision from any interrelated stakeholder could lead to misunderstanding and mistrust (Anderson *et al.*, 2017). Thus, the need for maintenance is used as a self-evaluation of the collaborative network closely related to retaining sustainable development within networks (May 2016).

4.2.7. Another External Issues

As additional information is also necessary for this research, we identified external issues outside the dynamic collaboration circle according to the following levels: one at local level, three at regional levels, and one at national level. However, there is a potential trait in the large scale where the greater participation in several objects results in less effective decision making.

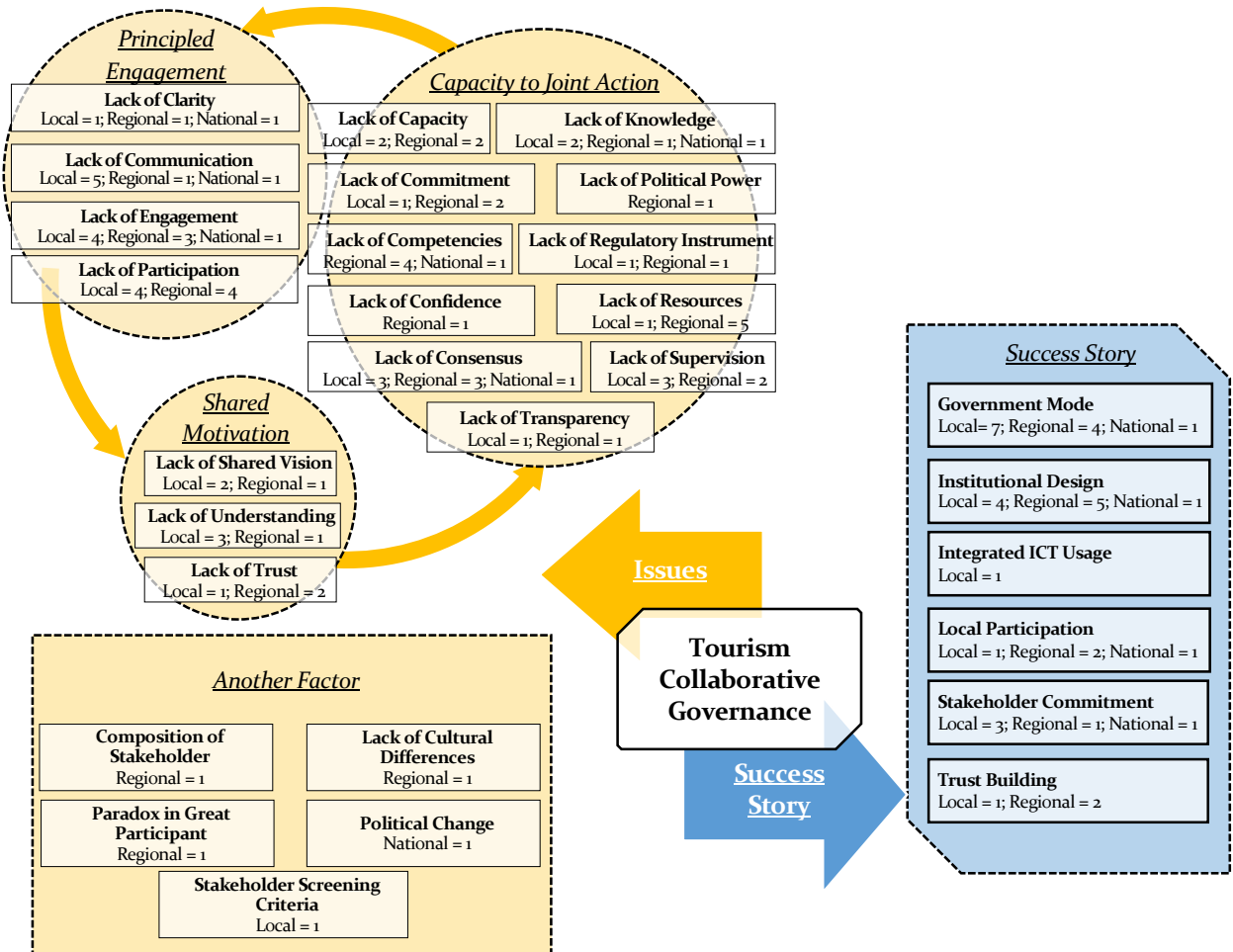


Figure 9. Mapping of issues and success in collaborative tourism governance.

5. Discussion

Research in collaborative tourism governance has increased in recent years. Researchers have responded to the massive expansion of tourism objects and an urge to create an appropriate instrument to facilitate much interest from various stakeholders. This study aimed to give a bigger picture of collaborative tourism governance, employing a systematic literature review to portray trends in the current topic and proposing the factors of collaborative tourism governance that contributed to success. Our research finds that the current topic trend has an inclining movement and has drawn interest from various experts. The diversity in recent studies has benefited readers by providing multiple perspectives

on partnership, innovation, sustainable development, public management, and cooperation (Barandiarán *et al.*, 2019).

The country-wise analysis indicates that most of the publications in the field are from advanced countries such as the United States, Australia, Austria, Finland, and Portugal. Developed countries are more aware of creating sustainable tourism by establishing collaborative tourism governance (source: keyword awareness). On the other hand, the developing-country context seems to have received less attention. Recent research has indicated that the involvement of residents plays a crucial role in collaborative tourism governance, but the concern toward their position still needs to be encouraged (Anderson *et al.*, 2017; C. Charlie *et al.*, 2012).

The main contribution of this paper is presented within the thematic analysis divided into a bibliometric thematic map based on a bibliographic and thematic analysis involving grounded theory as an inductive analysis. We combined those two methods to give a more comprehensive image of the current research map, presenting alternatives for future studies. First, this research finds various topics within collaborative tourism governance from the thematic map. This notable finding shows that sustainable development and local participation are the main topics: sustainability, environmental protection, and government approach. The subject of sustainability within collaborative governance is the primary concern, as the concept of collaborative governance is aimed to facilitate many stakeholders (Emerson & Gerlak, 2014; Ferreira *et al.*, 2018; Ferreira *et al.*, 2020).

In thematic analysis employing the inductive processes, we are more concerned with how collaborative governance runs within the tourism context by dividing it into success stories and remaining challenges. It is shown that the main contributors toward the success stories of collaboration within the local context are government mode, institutional design, and stakeholder commitment (Barandiarán *et al.*, 2019; Charlie Charlie *et al.*, 2013; Cho *et al.*, 2019; Kurttila *et al.*, 2020). Nonetheless, other factors support the collaboration, such as trust building, local participation, and integrated ICT. Local participation seems essential, but recent research has shown a lack of approaches to handle participation (Bichler, 2021). Furthermore, this inability to control participation could result in trust building being a slow process (Pujiyono *et al.*, 2019). The dominant factors are the government mode, institutional design, and local participation in the regional context. The government mode and institutional design are the main factors, as the broader tourism objects involve various districts and many stakeholders (Bettis *et al.*, 2020). Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydin (2010) find that the well-organized stakeholder-regulated inappropriate institutional designs could foster creativity and increase flexibility for preparing programs. The more decentralized role of government in the regional context will also provide private-to-public shared funding in tourism development (Gyimóthy & Meged, 2018). Finally, the part of government at the national level is to distribute power, decentralization, and flexibility, allowing for experimentation and knowledge generation in the collaborative network (Zeppel, 2012).

However, our thematic evolution findings also identify several challenges in collaborative tourism governance. As indicated in Figure 9, we use the framework of the collaborative dynamic from Emerson *et al.* (2012), employing three components: principled engagement, shared commitment, shared motivation, and additional factors.

Our findings indicate that more complex issues are found in local context than in the regional and national contexts. The problem is dominated by moral engagement and capacity to joint action, where principled engagement appears to have more issues. This finding is in line with the previous results in the success stories, where there is a lack of clarity, communication, engagement, and participation

(Bichler, 2021; Bichler & Lösch, 2019; Charlie Charlie *et al.*, 2013; Djosetro & Behagel, 2020; Keyim, 2018). As a result of this condition, a lack of capacity to joint action is manifested by a lack of commitment, low ability, confidence, and coordination (Charlie *et al.*, 2012; Kurttila *et al.*, 2020). However, several important issues have been pointed out in the literature, such as lack of competencies, lack of consensus, and lack of supervision (Bichler & Lösch, 2019; Djosetro & Behagel, 2020).

In the regional context, we find that the problem is still coming from the moral engagement and capacity to joint action. We identify significant issues within the principled engagement construct: lack of participation and engagement. The inability of collaborative initiators from public to private organizations to establish an appropriate participatory approach with the stakeholder could result in lower perceived attractiveness (Anderson *et al.*, 2017; Chilima *et al.*, 2021). The lack of participation within the collaborative circle is due to pessimistic feelings related to collaborative impacts (Dragouni & Fouseki, 2018). Regarding the capacity to joint action, this research emphasizes several points that create barriers. First, some studies identify resources that are lacking. These include the lack of financial resources and any practical resources (Anderson *et al.*, 2017; Dragouni & Fouseki, 2018; Eckerberg *et al.*, 2015; Mauldin, 2012); lack of regulatory instruments ensuring collaboration objectives (Chilima *et al.*, 2021); lack of consensus among the dominating stakeholder (Dragouni & Fouseki, 2018; May, 2016), and lack of capacity, as the involved representative for the respective stakeholder was not the decision-maker (Chilima *et al.*, 2021; Mauldin, 2012; Robertson, 2011). These findings suggest that the most significant barriers are funding issues.

Our research finds that only two articles discuss the national context in collaborative tourism governance within the national context. However, both papers agree on principled engagement from these two articles. There are significant barriers to the engagement process, as there is no specialized stakeholder representing the central government conducting risk assessment, project evaluation, and any strategic issues in each field in a comprehensive manner (Minasi *et al.*, 2021; Zeppel, 2012). Other than that, only one point is stated differently from those two types of research.

5.1. Research Agenda

From our findings, as elaborated in the previous discussion, we point out five possible research agendas regarding collaborative tourism governance. First, our results reveal additional challenges in collaborative tourism governance. Showing the critical success factors within the context is crucial to overcoming community needs and expectations (Ferreira *et al.*, 2018; Minasi *et al.*, 2021). Second, from our investigation, there is an unclear framework measuring collaborative tourism governance. Measuring the collective governance performance matrix proposed by Emerson and Nabatchi (2015) using three performance levels can give better insight into the collaborative processes. Additionally, the identification of collaborative processes involves evaluating each participant's contribution within the collaborative processes (Ferreira *et al.*, 2020). Emerson and Nabatchi (2015), using three levels of performance, can give a better insight into the collaborative processes. Third, we also suggest future studies to discover more about the dominating role of the legitimate position within the collaboration. The government's position as a legitimate stakeholder is essential for establishing "public systems" (Robertson, 2011). On the other hand, the collaborative network's position is to create more legitimate and sustainable policies (Bettis *et al.*, 2020; Eckerberg *et al.*, 2015; Keyim, 2018). Corresponding to this finding, we encourage future studies to study the collaborative workflow within the tourism object employing the dynamic, collaborative framework to understand how the collaboration flow is executed. Four, we propose a need to identify and understand the different processes within collaborative tourism governance in developing and advanced countries, especially in relation to nature-based tourism. Finally, in terms of the methodological approach, we identify that most of the published papers included

in this research rely a post-positivist point of view, employing the qualitative approach. We suggest that employing a multi-facet research approach will yield more comprehensive results, such as a quantitative or combined qualitative and quantitative based approach under the mixed method scheme.

6. Conclusion

The need for collaborative governance in tourism is necessary and must be considered as the primary tool for tourism innovation and ecological conservation. This study finds that joint governance tourism is closely related to a nature reserve. Even in environmental tourism or ecotourism, the tourism industry is considered to have a more significant environmental impact. The waste from the tourism industry is one of the concerns in collaborative governance. The findings from bibliometric studies indicate several central topics from studies in recent decades, which are closely related to sustainability topics and the involvement of local stakeholder, including local societies.

From our findings of the thematic analysis, employing grounded theory analysis, we find that the involvement of local stakeholders is limited even in the local context. This study summarizes the success stories from recent research and the barriers that led to detrimental effects of collaborative governance by using the concept from Emerson and Nabatchi. From the findings, we conclude that the government's role as the parent organization in managing the cooperative network is critical, representing primarily a local and regional success factor. However, from the analysis, we also find that several factors inhibit the collaboration dynamics. In the moral engagement process, the most significant issues are lack of communication, lack of engagement, and lack of participation. Factors such as unclear roles, limited capacity of the stakeholder, and complete information may explain the current finding. Those barriers affect the shared motivation, as there is little understanding and limited shared vision. Finally, we find that the lack of capacity to joint action shows more consequences in the last. There are 12 limitations in a collaborative effort, dominated by lack of competencies and lack of consensus, leading to sectorial ego and lack of supervision. We also identified external factors, such as the competition of stakeholders, lack of cultural differences, political change at the national level, and unclear stakeholder screening criteria.

Finally, this research contributes to the current debates within the collaborative government in tourism through the following ways. First, this research emphasizes the theoretical contribution by providing a comprehensive image of existing success stories and the challenges remaining for collaborative governance in tourism by distinguishing the scope of context to local, regional, and national issues. The results indicate that the government's role remains an essential aspect in nature-based tourism, especially in a local and regional context. On the other hand, there is little evidence emphasizing the role of local society and the use of integrated ICT to enhance collaborative performance. Second, the practical contribution of this study is we take the focal point of the government as an initiator and the primary regulator ensuring the success of collaborative governance by achieving common goals. As the study has distinguished the basis of victory according to the various elements of the context in relation to issues and success, the policymaker can take advantage by formulating appropriate strategies while, at the same time, anticipating the potential threats to collaboration.

6.1. Limitations and Future Research Directions

This research has several limitations. This study focuses on the main factor in the success stories and barriers toward collaborative governance. Less attention has been dedicated to the existing conditions prior to collaborative management. We find that there is a need to investigate the implementation of ecotax in many tourism objects, especially regarding ecological-based tourism.

This research employs a systematic literature review with a rigorous procedure resulting in a less flexible review. In a future study, combination with another review method, such as scoping review, could be conducted. The use of a thorough process in systematic literature review and only considering published peer-reviewed papers results in limited dataset records that would give different results. Thus, future studies could include unpublished articles such as reports from related stakeholders, e.g., government, local projects, and any trusted reports. We also find that future studies could use several methodological techniques, such as social network analysis, participatory approach, and quantitative survey to generalize the collaboration factor and focus group discussion in open communication. This dataset comprises published papers drawn from the database that are from various countries. Thus, future studies can focus on a specific category, such as the case between advanced and emerging economies. Finally, we also encourage greater focus on ecological and nature-based tourism in future research, and many current studies are showing signs of shifting in this direction.

Acknowledgements

This study is sponsored and financed by the University of Brawijaya's Institute for Research and Community Service via a research grant competition scheme for the associate professor scheme in 2021, with the contract registration number: 4546/UN10.F03.06/PN/2021.

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Appendix

Appendix 1. Success in Collaborative Governance.

Dimension	Local Context		Regional Context		National Context	
	N	Sources	N	Sources	N	Sources
Government Mode	7	(Barandiarán <i>et al.</i> (2019); Charlie <i>et al.</i> (2012); Charlie <i>et al.</i> (2013); Cho <i>et al.</i> (2019); Keyim (2016); Kurttila <i>et al.</i> (2020); Pujiyono <i>et al.</i> (2019)	4	Anderson <i>et al.</i> (2017); Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydin (2010); Keyim (2018); Robertson (2011)	1	Zeppel (2012)
Institutional Design	4	Barandiarán <i>et al.</i> (2019); Charlie <i>et al.</i> (2013); Keyim (2016); Kurttila <i>et al.</i> (2020)	5	Anderson <i>et al.</i> (2017); Bettis <i>et al.</i> (2020); Gyimóthy and Meged (2018); Robertson (2011)	1	Zeppel (2012)
Integrated ICT	1	Barandiarán <i>et al.</i> (2019)	-	-	-	-
Local Participation	1	Kurttila <i>et al.</i> (2020)	2	Bettis <i>et al.</i> (2020); Gyimóthy and Meged (2018)	1	Minasi <i>et al.</i> (2021)
Stakeholder Commitment	3	Barandiarán <i>et al.</i> (2019); Bichler and Lösch (2019); Djosestro and Behagel (2020)	1	Bettis <i>et al.</i> (2020)	1	Zeppel (2012)
Trust Building	1	Pujiyono <i>et al.</i> (2019)	1	Bettis <i>et al.</i> (2020)	-	-

Appendix 2. Issues and barriers in Collaborative Governance

Concept	Dimension	Local Context		Regional Context		National Context	
		N	Sources	N	Sources	N	Sources
Principled Engagement	Lack of clarity	1	Pujiyono <i>et al.</i> (2019)	1	May (2016)	1	Zeppel (2012)
	Lack. of communication	5	Bichler and Lösch (2019); Djosestro and Behagel, (2020); Keyim (2016); Kurttila <i>et al.</i> (2020); Pujiyono <i>et al.</i> (2019)	1	Eckerberg <i>et al.</i> (2015)	1	Minasi <i>et al.</i> (2021)
	Lack of engagement	4	Keyim (2016); Kozak and Piazza (2015); Kurttila <i>et al.</i> (2020); Pujiyono <i>et al.</i> (2019)	4	Anderson <i>et al.</i> (2017); Dragouni and Fouseki (2018); Robertson (2011); May (2020)	2	Zeppel (2012); Minasi <i>et al.</i> (2021)
	Lack of participation	4	Djosestro and Behagel (2020); Keyim (2016); Kurttila <i>et al.</i> (2020); Pujiyono <i>et al.</i> (2019)	4	Anderson <i>et al.</i> (2017); Chilima <i>et al.</i> (2021); Dragouni and Fouseki, (2018); Keyim (2018)	-	-
Shared Motivation	Lack of shared vision	2	Bichler and Lösch (2019); Vignieri (2019)	1	Chilima <i>et al.</i> (2021)	-	-
	Lack of trust	1	Bichler and Lösch (2019)	2	May (2016); Robertson (2011)	-	-
	Lack of understanding	3	Charlie <i>et al.</i> (2013); Pujiyono <i>et al.</i> (2019)	-	-	1	Minasi <i>et al.</i> (2021)
Capacity to Joint Action	Lack of capacity	2	Cho <i>et al.</i> (2019); Kurttila <i>et al.</i> (2020)	3	Mauldin, (2012); Robertson (2011); Chilima <i>et al.</i> (2021)	-	-
	Lack of commitment	1	Pujiyono <i>et al.</i> (2019)	2	Anderson <i>et al.</i> (2017); Dragouni and Fouseki (2018)	-	-
	Lack of competencies	3	Charlie <i>et al.</i> (2012); Charlie <i>et al.</i> (2013); Djosestro and Behagel (2020)	4	Anderson <i>et al.</i> (2017); Chilima <i>et al.</i> (2021); Keyim (2018); Robertson, (2011)	1	Zeppel (2012)
	Lack of confidence	-	-	1	Anderson <i>et al.</i> (2017)	-	-
	Lack of consensus	3	Bichler and Lösch (2019); Djosestro and Behagel, (2020); Pujiyono <i>et al.</i> (2019)	3	Dragouni and Fouseki, (2018); May, (2016); Robertson (2011)	1	Minasi <i>et al.</i> (2021)
	Lack of coordination	1	Pujiyono <i>et al.</i> (2019)	2	Eckerberg <i>et al.</i> (2015); May (2016)	-	-

Concept	Dimension	Local Context		Regional Context		National Context	
		N	Sources	N	Sources	N	Sources
	Lack of knowledge	2	Kurttila <i>et al.</i> (2020); Charlie <i>et al.</i> (2012)	1	Keyim (2018)	1	Minasi <i>et al.</i> (2021)
	Lack of power	-	-	1	May (2016)	-	-
	Lack of regulatory instrument	1	Djosetro and Behagel (2020)	1	Chilima <i>et al.</i> (2021)	-	-
	Lack of resources	1	Djosetro and Behagel (2020)	6	Anderson <i>et al.</i> (2017); Chilima <i>et al.</i> (2021); Dragouni and Fouseki, (2018); Eckerberg <i>et al.</i> (2015); Keyim (2018); Mauldin (2012)	-	-
	Lack of strategy	1	Cho <i>et al.</i> (2019)	-	-	-	-
	Lack of supervision	3	Djosetro and Behagel (2020); Keyim (2016); Pujiyono <i>et al.</i> (2019)	2	Anderson <i>et al.</i> (2017); May (2016)	-	-
	Lack of transparency	1	Djosetro and Behagel (2020)	1	Anderson <i>et al.</i> (2017)	-	-
	Bottom-up initiatives	-	-	1	Eckerberg <i>et al.</i> (2015)	-	-
	Legislation	-	-	1	Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydin (2010)	-	-
	Participatory process	1	Vasconcelos <i>et al.</i> (2013)	-	-	-	-
Institutional Design	Procedural arrangement	1	Cho <i>et al.</i> (2019)	1	May (2016)	-	-
	Tourism board	1	Barandiarán <i>et al.</i> (2019)	1	Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydin (2010)	-	-
	Capacity building	-	-	1	Anderson <i>et al.</i> (2017)	-	-
Leadership	Leadership style	-	-	2	Bettis <i>et al.</i> (2020); Dragouni and Fouseki (2018)	1	Zeppel (2012)
	User group conflict	-	-	1	May (2016)	-	-
	Competition of stakeholders	1	Kurttila <i>et al.</i> (2020)	-	-	-	-
Other factors	Great participation brings paradox	-	-	1	May (2016)	-	-
	Implementation gap	1	Charlie <i>et al.</i> (2013)	-	-	-	-
	Lack of cultural differences	-	-	1	May (2016)	-	-
	Political change	-	-	-	-	1	Minasi <i>et al.</i> (2021)
	Stakeholder screening criteria	1	Barandiarán <i>et al.</i> (2019)	-	-	-	-
	Tension	1	Charlie <i>et al.</i> (2012)	-	-	-	-

Received: 24/11/2021

Accepted: 17/06/2022

Coordinating editor: Giacomo Del Chiappa