

LA COOPERACIÓN PÚBLICO-PRIVADA EN LOS DESTINOS TURÍSTICOS

PUBLIC-PRIVATE COOPERATION IN TOURIST DESTINATIONS

Rafael Robina Ramírez¹, rrobina@unex.es, Facultad de Empresa, Finanzas y Turismo,
Universidad de Extremadura.

Juan Antonio Pavón Pérez, jpavper@unex.es, Facultad de Derecho, Universidad de
Extremadura.

María Martín Lucas, mmartinha@alumnos.unex.es, Facultad de Empresa, Finanzas y
Turismo, Universidad de Extremadura

Ana Leal Solís, alealsol@alumnos.unex.es, Facultad de Empresa, Finanzas y Turismo,
Universidad de Extremadura

Área de Investigación: Gestión de destinos turísticos.

RESUMEN

La cooperación público-privada en destinos turísticos está expuesta a múltiples factores. Hasta la fecha se ha puesto el foco de atención en factores exógenos -aquellos que tienen su origen en fuera de la voluntad de las partes cooperantes-. Aspectos sobre la cooperación y el desarrollo económico, social, medioambiental, legal y territorial de un destino turístico han sido ampliamente estudiados. Sin embargo, para que la cooperación, basada principalmente en factores exógenos, sea exitosa es necesario determinar una serie de factores endógenos que contribuyen decisivamente al éxito de los segundos. Apenas encontramos estudios sobre destinos turísticos centrados en determinar los factores que radican en el interior de las personas que contribuyan decisivamente a la cooperación público-privada. A través de una metodología mixta cualitativa-cuantitativa se ha diseñado un modelo exploratorio que valide la importancia de los factores endógenos para abordar los exógenos. Cuatro constructos y quince indicadores extraídos de la revisión de la literatura se han aportado. Los descubrimientos han sido la relevancia de los factores denominados actitudes cooperativas, la formación en cooperación, el diseño y ejecución de acuerdos y normas de actuación como

¹ Autor de correspondencia.

elementos esenciales para lograr una cooperación público-privada eficaz. El interés y el sacrificio individual de las partes para lograr un bienestar común es primordial para establecer vínculos de cooperación. Además, la transparencia comunicativa y el beneficio mutuo son imprescindibles para garantizar el éxito del modelo. La toma de decisiones es más participativa si las partes involucradas cuentan con una adecuada formación enfocada a la cooperación y son conscientes de los roles que desempeñan.

Palabras clave: cooperación, empresas públicas, empresas privadas, destino turístico, formación.

ABSTRACT

Public-private cooperation in tourist destinations is exposed to multiple factors. To date, the focus has been on exogenous factors - those that have their origin outside the will of the cooperating parties. Aspects of cooperation and the economic, social, environmental, legal and territorial development of a tourist destination have been extensively studied. However, for cooperation, based mainly on exogenous factors, to be successful, it is necessary to determine a number of endogenous factors that contribute decisively to the success of the latter. We hardly find studies on tourist destinations focused on determining the factors that lie within the people that contribute decisively to public-private cooperation. Through a mixed qualitative-quantitative methodology, an exploratory model has been designed that validates the importance of endogenous factors to address exogenous ones. Four constructs and fifteen indicators extracted from the literature review have been contributed. The discoveries have been the relevance of the factors called cooperative attitudes, training in cooperation, the design and execution of agreements and standards of action as essential elements to achieve effective public-private cooperation. The individual interest and sacrifice of the parties to achieve a common welfare is paramount to establishing ties of cooperation. In addition, communicative transparency and mutual benefit are essential to ensure the success of the model. Decision-making is more participatory if the parties involved have adequate training focused on cooperation and are aware of the roles they play.

Key words: cooperation, public companies, private companies, tourist destination, training.

1. INTRODUCCIÓN

Since decades, public-private cooperation (CPP) has been developed mainly in three fields such as education, health care (Kuhnle and Selle, 1992; Bolleyer, 2018; Ibsen & Levinsen, 2019) and economic development (Mcquaid, 2000; Walzer and Jacobs, 1998; Weaver and Dennert, 1987; Westernen, 2000; Kickul and Lyons, 2020). Cooperation organizations, known as "public-private partnerships" (PPPs), go beyond the simple occasional collaboration between organizations (Ibsen and Levinsen, 2019), of informal meetings between politicians and the industry (Ansell and Gash, 2008; Rhodes, 1997; Sánchez-Oro, Castro-Serrano and Robina-Ramírez, 2021). Collaboration is the first step of stable cooperation. The latter is based on legal-organizational forms of stable duration over time (Pierre, 1998; Vaillancourt Rosenau, 2000; Korab-Karpowicz, 2020). It includes a variety of cooperative efforts with various ramifications, legal, economic, social etc., of a public-private nature (Mele and McLeskey, 2018; Ingerson, 1999; Lawther, 2000; Peters, 1998; Pforr, 2021).

Cooperation in tourism has usually been analyzed based on exogenous factors that greatly influence the willingness of the parties to cooperate (Baggio, 2011; Hall, 2008; Siakwah et al., 2020). Factors such as the strength of institutional and representative power of the parties in tourist destinations (Bramwell and Meyer, 2007; Church & Coles, 2007; Hall, 2010, 2011b; Macleod and Carrier, 2010; Pforr, 2005; Pforr, 2021), the economic collaboration between the parties to develop a destination (Romeiro & Costa, 2010; Van der Duim & Caalders, 2008; Bolleyer, 2018), private or public inter-organizational relations (Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydin, 2010; Ibsen and Levinsen, 2019); cooperation in destination with protected areas (Buckley, 2004; Lovelock, 2001; Kirkpatrick et al., 2022), the typology of cooperation between tourism agents (Zapata, Hall, Lindo, & Vanderschaeghe, 2011; Sánchez-Oro, Castro-Serrano and Robina-Ramírez 2021); the role that tourism clusters play in destinations (Hall, 2005; Michael, 2007; Dela Santa, 2018); communication networks and marketing in the promotion of the destination (Roxas et al., 2020; Beaumont & Dredge, 2010; Bramwell & Lane, 2011; Dredge & Pforr, 2008; Pforr, 2021), etc.

The study of the influence of those exogenous factors in public-private collaboration has left aside the analysis of the endogenous factors that contribute to its correct development. The cooperative predisposition between the parties is ascribed in the theory of the activation of norms and responsibility of Schwartz (1977). Any external circumstance (CC) entails an ascription of responsibility (AR), which generates a series of norms (N) to modify the behavior of people (C).

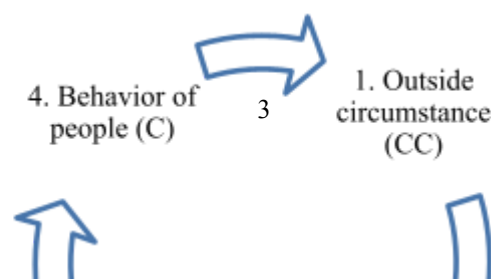


Figure 1. Theory of the activation of norms and responsibility of Schwartz (1977).

If we start from an external environment of cooperation between the administration and the private enterprises, the opening to cooperation is developed through the promotion of cooperative attitudes (AC) between both. This cooperative attitude generates an ascription of responsibility of both institutions (AR). Under the premises of trust in the design and execution of agreements (DEA), rules of procedure in cooperation (AN) are extracted. These are based on a planning of the cooperation process between both parties regarding investment policies, training, promotion. These endogenous factors are strongly connected with the exogenous ones referenced above.

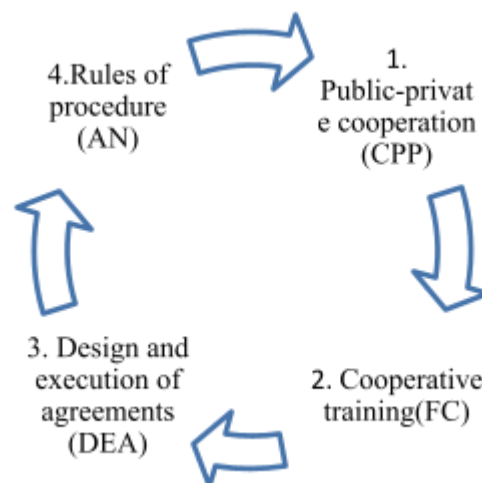


Figure 2. Public-private cooperation model based on Schwartz's theory (1977).

The contribution of this communication is to propose an evaluation model of endogenous factors in the process of public-private cooperation in tourist destinations from the Schwartz's theory (1977).

The process is structured from the explanation of the main reasons for the growth of public-private collaboration and the increase in the formation of associations in the tourism sector. Afterwards, the dimensions of the endogenous process will be analyzed based on the attributes extracted from the Schwartz (1977) model. Then, the methodology describes the means by which the data used in this document were collected and analyzed. From there we get the results from version 3.36 of the SmartPLS software. The article concludes with a

discussion of the results and the contribution of new theories to the understanding of public-private collaboration in the tourism sector.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

One of the essential elements in the development of a tourist destination is planning. According to Leal and Robina (2022) tourism planning has allowed the development of tourist destinations by interconnecting economic, environmental, social, and demographic perspectives. According to Nieto Masot and Ríos Rodríguez, (2021) cooperation between agents through orderly strategic planning has contributed to the harmonious growth of territories, especially in rural areas.

2.1. Public-private cooperation in tourism (CPP)

In recent decades the CPP has gained popularity as an instrument for tourism planning and the management and marketing of destinations (Leal-Solís & Robina-Ramírez, 2022; Roxas et al., 2020; Sánchez-Oro, et., 2021; Kirkpatrick et al., 2022; Siakwah et al., 2020). In this cooperation process, chambers of commerce, tourism commissions, tourism industry associations, city convention offices, development agencies or local tourism boards, among others, have been incorporated (Dredge & Jenkins, 2007; Hall, 2008, 2011a; Sánchez-Oro et 2021; Roxas et al., 2020).

The reasons for the growth of public-private collaboration and the increase in the formation of partnerships in the tourism sector are varied. First, the public sector's pursuit of effectiveness (Kirkpatrick et al., 2022; Solli, Demediuk and Sims, 2005; Mele and McLeskey, 2018) from the subcontracting of public services (Hall, 2008; Mele and McLeskey, 2018). Second, the State has developed a relational model based on building public-private networks (Bult-Spiering and Dewulf, 2006; Bolleyer, 2018), initiating proposals for cooperation with the tourism industry (Fayos-Solà, 1996; Pforr, 2021). Third, the effects of financial crises, deregulation processes and cuts in public funding have led to the privatization of public services (Kirkpatrick et al, 2022; Dredge & Jenkins, 2007; Hall, 2008). In this new scenario, the public sector tends to seek alliances with the private sector to implement policies and projects (Hall, 2009; Kirkpatrick et al, 2022; Pforr, 2021; Korab, 2020) favored by the fragmentation of tourism organizations and the high interdependence of the tourism sector of the public entity of private associations (Hall, 2008; Dela Santa, 2020).

However, the public development of CPPs contrasts with their practical ineffectiveness by requiring cooperation as a waste of time by tourism actors; the ineffectiveness of the advisory bodies and the power struggles between public-private entities (Brunsson, 2006).

Cooperating involves connecting decisions and actions based on the development of cooperative attitudes in public-private entities legally trained and legitimated to represent different groups. This requires an adequate training process in cooperation.

2.2. Cooperative attitudes (AC)

In the current post-pandemic era, tourism development cannot be built on an ideology focused solely on the interests of the organization (Collier, 2011; Harvey, 2005; Alphin, 2021), which does not see beyond economic interests.

In the commitment to cooperative attitudes of both public institutions and private agents, it is necessary to learn to sacrifice personal benefits to build a common good (Nowak & Highfield, 2011; Tremblay et al., 2019). This sacrifice is even more necessary in crisis situations (Sharma et al., 2021). According to Hosteltur (2020), there is a cooperative model in the tourism sector since the beginning of the pandemic crisis where tourists, local communities, SMEs and governments form an interdependent business ecosystem, capable of anticipating new disasters for the sector. Although in practice that cooperative model has failed.

As a solution, the tourism industry has proposed a sustainable model of public-private collaboration between companies and local, regional and national tourism authorities based on the protection of tourism resources and the development of destinations (Sömmez, 2002; Roxas et al., 2020). However, this model must necessarily go through the promotion of cooperative attitudes to transform the management of a territory into a participatory model at the service of those who live in the tourist destination (Tribe, 2006; Sánchez-Oro, Castro-Serrano and Robina-Ramírez, et al., 2021; Roxas et al., 2020; Tremblay et al., 2019).

This model requires the consideration of affected communities in tourist destinations (Jamal et al., 2013; Pforr, 2021) to reduce inequality (Cole & Morgan, 2010; Siakwah et al., 2020) and promoting fair and participatory tourism (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2008; UNWTO, 1999; Liasidou, 2019).

2.3. Cooperative training (FC)

At the basis of any cooperative institutional agreement between the public and private sectors lies a training model in cooperative processes that allows reaching agreements beneficial to both parties (Hodge and Greve, 2009).

According to the WTO (2015), public-private cooperation brings together stakeholders with various objectives, resources and skills in an informal or formal voluntary partnership not only to improve the productivity of tourist destinations, but also to contribute to improving the standard of living of the inhabitants in that destination through an efficient management of the power groups that act in the destination (Dar, 2022).

The government, as a planner and controller of tourism resources, must approach the private companies that manage those resources, and needs to articulate training strategies for joint decision-making with the private sector (Wiig, 2002; Roxas et al., 2020; Sánchez-Oro, et al., 2021). According to (WTO, 2011), cooperation between both sectors can improve not only the tourist attractiveness of the destination but also the competitive advantage of the communities receiving tourism. For this both parties must be well trained in cooperative attitude in the design and execution of agreements by both parties.

2.4. Design and execution of agreements (DEA)

The intention to cooperate through cooperative attitudes does not guarantee success. Decisions may be directed towards common values or ideals, but without coordination of specific actions and possible agreements aimed at achieving the purpose or mission it is not possible to move forward (Hodge and Greve, 2009; Bolleyer, 2018).

Communicative transparency in the design and execution of agreements between the public-private sector becomes the best ally to share a common achievement between both sectors (Gabriela et al., 2013, McQuaid, 2000; Kickul and Lyons, 2020). Only from the level of communicative transparency is it possible to cooperate with tourism service providers (mainly from the private sector) and regulators (mainly from the public sector) in each destination (Gabriela et al., 2013; Korab, 2020; Leal-Solís and Robina-Ramírez, 2021).

Gray (1985) adds that cooperation will improve the situation of the participants if the parties are clear in the execution of their agreements of the importance of pooling their resources, obtain efficiencies, and by combining complementary forces can increase the scope of their activities. For the design and execution of agreements between the parties, it is necessary to propose rules of procedure that regulate the relationship between both parties.

2.5. Rules of procedure (AN)

The proposal of cooperative attitudes and the design of agreements built from platforms of communicative transparency allows to establish rules of action between the parties that really

boost cooperation. These rules are based on four elements.

The first component is to develop action regulations that are beneficial to all. The parties can enter the negotiation expecting one side to win and the other to lose (Thompson, 1990; Dar, 2022). When a win-win spirit underlies the wording of the rule of action, it allows the parties in dispute to transfer to the option of reaching a mutually beneficial result through the adoption of a cooperative negotiation strategy (Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff, 2011; Ibsen and Levinsen, 2019).

The parties tend to argue from conflicting positions, based on a particular outcome, adopting limiting strategies to reach common agreements that are reflected in the rules of action. Hence, the second component is based on clarifying what the benefit or harm is for the parties (Schaeffer and Loveridge, 2002; Kickul and Lyons, 2020).

The third element of the development of standards is not only to be inclusive for relevant communities, businesses, and associations in tourism planning, but also to integrate tourists into the responsible tourism strategy (Medhekar, 2014; Dela Santa, 2018). New strategies should delve into new ways of connecting tourists, locals and public agents (Robina-Ramírez et al., 2022).

According to Lew, Cheer, Haywood, Brouder & Salazar (2020), adaptive resilience actions must lead the development of tourist destinations to avoid the collapse of the tourism system. And for this it is necessary to properly and responsibly channel tourism opportunities, innovation and creativity to adjust growth according to destination planning by implementing standards by institutions to consolidate sustainable tourism awareness.

In the tourism sector, this cooperative work contains five aspects: (1) tourism facilities as a key element of tourism planning and development of destinations, providing solutions from tourism authorities to seasonality and infrastructure maintenance costs (Scheyvens, 2003; Leal-Solís and Robina-Ramírez, 2021); (2) the provision of emergency health services to control the effects of new outbreaks of the virus (Horowitz, 2007; Robina-Ramírez et al., 2022) as well as other financial and economic services to favor the tourism industry for the benefit of local entrepreneurs (Kickul and Lyons, 2020); (3) train communities to develop cooperative work for the maintenance of tourist facilities (Lucchetti & Font, 2013; Siakwah et al., 2020); (4) improve transport infrastructure to support tourism and local development, especially in remote destinations (Gössling et al., 2020); and 5) build social justice related to the distribution of costs and benefits at the local, regional and national levels (Bolleyer, 2018). These five aspects allow us to build safer tourist destinations and manage them during the pandemic crisis and the post-virus phase with greater guarantees of success.

3. Methodology

3.1. Sample selection

The population consists of 1462 tourist offices distributed among the main regions of Spain and a total of 302 tourist planners. To obtain this information, the research team contacted during the month of April 2022 with all the general directorates of each region in Spain. Throughout the month of May, the invitation to participate in the research was sent by electronic mail. The final sample has been 205 tourist offices spread throughout Spain and

185 tourism planners spread throughout the Spanish geography. Table 1 shows the total number of tourism planners, as well as the tourist offices of local and regional governments throughout Spain.

Table 1. Tourist planners and tourist offices

Tourism Planning Services	Tourist planners Population	Tourist Offices Population
Provincial Government of Badajoz (Extremadura)	10	144
Provincial Government of Cáceres (Extremadura)	8	78
Local Government of Extremadura (Communities)	33	-
Regional Government of Extremadura	17	57
Regional Government of Murcia	36	41
Provincial Government of Albacete (Castilla-La Mancha)	10	39
Provincial Government of Murcia (Murcia)	14	41
Regional Government of Navarra	4	121
Regional Government of Castilla y León	18	223
Provincial Government of Salamanca (Castilla y León)	9	42
Provincial Government of Burgos (Castilla y León)	8	32
Provincial Government of Zamora (Castilla y León)	7	27
Provincial Government of Ciudad Real (Castilla La Mancha)	8	29
Provincial Government of Almería (Andalucía)	6	39
Government of Jaén (Andalucía)	4	38
Provincial Government of Sevilla (Andalucía)	6	51
Provincial Government of Córdoba (Andalucía)	7	49
Provincial Government of Toledo (Castilla-La Mancha)	10	32
Provincial Government of Lugo (Galicia)	8	36
Provincial Government of Pontevedra (Galicia)	7	27
Provincial Government of Vigo (Galicia)	9	38
Provincial Government of A Coruña (Galicia)	9	39
Provincial Government of Oviedo (Principado de Asturias)	6	37
Provincial Government of Gijón (Principado de Asturias)	6	31
Provincial Government of Valencia (Comunidad Valenciana)	14	58
Provincial Government of Alicante (Comunidad Valenciana)	11	48
Provincial Government of Elche (Comunidad Valenciana)	9	37
Regional Government of La Rioja	8	28
TOTAL	302	1462

Source: Self-made.

3.2. Variable selection criteria

Once the number of participants was known, four zoom meetings were held in order to explain the content of the work and its scientific nature. Special emphasis was placed on the importance of promoting public-private collaboration in tourist destinations. Various inputs were received on the type of cooperation and its benefits in tourism planning processes. From there, the research team informed the participants of conducting a series of interviews between the participants and private companies, chosen randomly. The objective was to know the degree of public-private cooperation in tourism and other factors related to cooperation. The participating entities were: tourist offices (19), tourist city guides (14), urban hotel chains (12), congress organizing companies (12), tourism companies (16), tourism clusters (11), travel agencies (16), regional administrations (5), provincial (6), local (8). To contrast the proposal of indicators according to the review of the literature. Although the indicators were mostly accepted, there were corrections in 6 indicators in the way of writing the questionnaire questions. Table 2 shows the main contributions of each of the groups of participants.

Table 2 shows the main contributions of each of the groups of participants.

Interview	Cooperation opinion	Protection of tourist áreas/ sustainability	Promotion of tourism and local involvement	Economic, social and environmental reinvestment	Perception of improvement of tourism after the Covid-19 confinement
Tourist offices	Promotion with campaigns and organization of events with the participation of public-private entities	Cooperation in the information of the maintenance of the cargo space.	Promotion of crafts and popular traditions in private entities. Authenticity and differentiation. Promotion based on what is genuine of the territory.	Agreements for the social and economic reinvestment of public-private entities in the destination.	Promotion of the perception of safe and non-crowded destination.
Guided tour company	Deficient public-private communication. Unwillingness on the part of the public administration to cooperate	Cooperation in destination towards an integral sustainability.	Public promotion without counting on private companies. Decision making away from the tourist.	Public-private debate on economic reinvestment	Incorporate rules of dissemination of the positive perception of the destination.

Hotel chains	Comunicación público-privada inactiva Post-Covid 19. Desconocimiento de las políticas de promoción turística.	Public-private disconnection in environmental protection.	Public-private cooperation in elevating hospitality to the tourist and the local community.	Coordinated investment in promoting cities	Tourism improvement through the promotion of proposals with real results.
Conference organizers	Need for cooperation. Start joint work. Evaluation of results. Lack of business representativeness.	Balance tourism and environment. Protected areas as tourist attractions.	Respect for the well-being of the inhabitants. Local community involvement.	Reinvestment across the board	Improved perception. Visitors recommend the destination.
Tourism companies	Inadequate channeling of financial aid. Late communication of measures. Breakdown of the link between companies and workers. Tax pressure.	Sustainable companies. Protection of spaces by the local community. Sustainability as a political tool.	Lack of promotion of main tourist attractions. Lack of transport development.	Essential comprehensive reinvestment. There is a lack of business economic reinvestment due to future instability.	It does not improve perception. Impossibility of choosing a different destination.
Tourism Cluster	Little cooperation. Delayed financial aid. Communication that can be improved.	Protect the quality and proximity of local products.	Quality service. Variety of attractions.	Importance of comprehensive reinvestment. Bet on trained workers.	Creating new opportunities for local businesses
Travel agencies	Business maintenance thanks to personal effort. Lack of representativeness in communication.	Improves cleanliness and aesthetic appearance. Conservation quiet and safe destination.	Transmission of tourism value to the local population. Business union in institutional promotion.	Economic investment as a social and environmental engine.	Cooperation in promoting the attractions of the destination.
Regional administration	Little interest of private companies in cooperating actively. The administration must give them all the work done.	Permanent conflicts with the private sector in environmental matters.	Little interest from private companies in tourism tourism and sustainability.	Public-private reinvestment to strengthen the business sector.	Update the motivations of private enterprise towards cooperation.
Provincial administration	Advances in cooperation and communication. Conducting general consultations. Launch of plans by communities.	Enhancement of protected natural areas. Management improved by ICTs.	Promotion of sustainable tourism. Dissemination of tourist values to the local population.	Importance of comprehensive reinvestment.	Commitment to training. Sanitary and environmental maintenance
Local government	Fluid public-private relationship. Good cooperation and communication.	Implementation of sanitary measures in tourist areas. Lines of action towards sustainable and intelligent tourism.	Promotion through social networks. Key local community involvement. Good tourist-inhabitant coexistence.	Positive economic impact on society and the environment.	Continuation of positive perception. Consolidation of close and secure destination

From the interviews, the research team drew the following conclusions: 1) The tourist offices must transfer the effort of public-private cooperation to the tourist and provide information so

that tourism managers avoid excess load. 2) Guided tour companies denounce the lack of interest of the public administration in cooperating. 3) Hotel chains, shows the scarce cooperation with the public administration and their ignorance of tourism promotion policies. 4) Companies organizing congresses, lack of representativeness of the private sector in public administrations. 5) Tourism cluster, scarce public-private communication, importance of protecting the local. 6) Public-private cooperation to convey the tourist value of the destination. 7) Regional administration, little interest of private enterprise in cooperating. 8) Provincial administration, cooperation by geographical areas. 9) Local administration, fluid public-private communication.

From there, some contents of the interviews were incorporated into the literature review that had been previously ignored. And a list of indicators was presented (see Table 3). These indicators were validated by the 114 entities interviewed.

3.3. Conceptual model and working hypothesis

The model fixes the working hypotheses that are seven:

- H₁: Cooperative training (FC) influences rules of procedure (AN)
- H₂: Cooperative training (FC) influences design and execution of agreements (DEA)
- H₃: Cooperative training (FC) influences cooperative attitudes (AC)
- H₄: Design and execution of agreements (DEA) influences rules of procedure (AN)
- H₅: Cooperative attitudes (AC) influence design and execution of agreements (DEA)
- H₆: Cooperative attitudes (AC) influence rules of procedure (AN)
- H₇: Rules of procedure (AN) influence public- private cooperation in tourism (CPP)

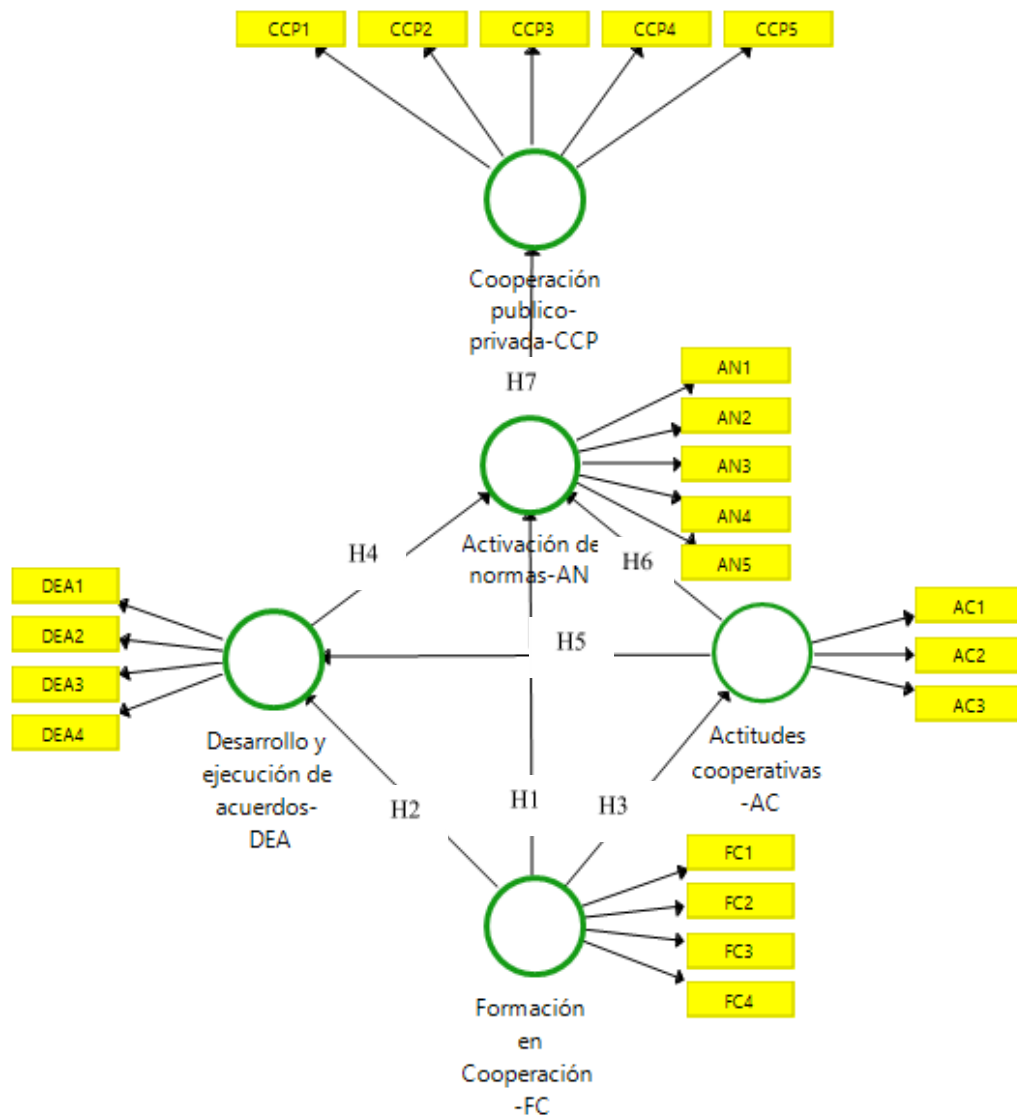


Figure 1. Research model designed.

4. Results

4.1. Definition of the model

To define the nature of the constructs that participate in it, it has been estimated that public-private participation has been modeled as a Composite (Henseler, 2017; Bollen, 2011; Bollen and Bauldry, 2011) is a compound in which its indicators are expected to correlate with each other (Sarstedt et al, 2016; Henseler et al., 2014). Public-private participation has been measured through 4 indicators. The rest of the variables of the model (attitudes of cooperation, training in cooperation, design and execution of agreements, norms) have been modeled as reflective common factor constructs (Henseler et al., 2016; Henseler, 2019). This type of model is the one that is generally used when it comes to behavioral constructs that measure personality traits or attitudes of individuals.

Measurement model

Through the Smart PLS v4 program the Partial Least Squares technique was used (Ringle et al., 2022) due to the predictive model presented (Henseler, 2018; Henseler et al., 2016). This research has been developed with 354 valid cases.

4.2. Individual reliability of construct ítems

The commonly used rule is the one expounded by Carmines and Zeller (1979) which determines the boundary of the coefficient λ (individual loads) at 0.707. Therefore, those indicators whose load or loading is equal to or greater than 0.707 should be maintained, while items with a loading of less than 0.707 should be deleted.

Composite reliability, measured by the internal consistency of each scale, has been analyzed through the Composite Reliability (CR), as well as with the confidence interval of the CR. In all cases the value of CR is greater than 0.7 so it can be said that there is composite reliability in all first-order constructs. Composite reliability suitability will come when $0.7 < CR < 0.95$ (Hair et al., 2019). This test is met for all latent variables. On the other hand, analyzing the coefficient Rho_A (Dijkstra and Henseler, 2015) we find no doubts about the internal consistency of any construct. In conclusion, it is stated that all constructs achieve optimal consistency.

Convergent validity expresses the extent to which the set of indicators on a scale represents a single underlying factor, showing signs of its probable one-dimensional character (Henseler, et al., 2009). The AVE parameter (mean extracted variance) is the main indicator of convergent validity, and it is required that the AVE of all constructs be equal to or greater than 0.5 which, in this model, is amply fulfilled in all cases.

Below is a summary table with the evaluation indicators detailed above of the measuring instruments, after the elimination of items that did not reach the minimum value of individual reliability (see Table 3).

Table 3. Individual reliability of construct ítems.

CONSTRUCT/INDICATOR		Media	S.D.	Carga (λ)	CR	α	Rho_A	AVE
PUBLIC-PRIVATE COOPERATION (CPP)					0,859	0,810	0,810	0,549
CPP1	Cooperation helps to market the management and marketing of destinations	5,12	2,03	0,763				
				0,711				
CPP2	Cooperation improves the effectiveness of the public sector in cooperation with the private sector.	4,76	1,73	0,777				
CPP3	Cooperation improves governance models through public-private networks.	5,2	2,03	0,715				
CPP4	Cooperation responds better to times of funding cuts	5,19	1,83	0,737				
CPP5	Cooperation is a response to the search for tourism alliances to implement policies and projects	5,02	2,01	0,763				
COOPERATIVE TRAINING (FC)					0,912	0,871	0,886	0,722

CONSTRUCT/INDICATOR		Media	S.D.	Carga (λ)	CR	α	Rho _A	AVE
FC1	Training is necessary for cooperative processes	6,77	1,84	0,901				
FC2	Public entities should promote training strategies of private companies	6,55	1,64	0,868				
FC3	Public entities must train in negotiation skills	7,22	2,15	0,774				
FC5	Training should be oriented to participatory public-private decision-making	7,61	1,87	0,850				
DESIGN AND EXECUTION OF AGREEMENTS (DEA)					0,935	0,913	0,915	0,744
DEA 1	The mission of public-private actions and agreements is to cooperate	7,24	1,72	0,886				
DEA 2	Communicative transparency between actions and public-private agreements			0,886				
DEA 3	Transparent cooperation agreements between suppliers and regulators of tourism services	6,98	1,80	0,838				
DEA 4	Union of public-private tourism resources to design actions and agreements.	6,93	1,86	0,806				
COOPERATIVE ATTITUDES (AC)					0,921	0,871	0,872	0,795
AC1	Attitudes of cooperation improve the destiny not only the organization	6,86	1,66	0,890				
AC2	To start sacrificing personal benefits to cooperate	7,12	1,62	0,875				
AC3	Cooperative attitudes must transform the management of the entity	7,14	1,75	0,909				
RULES OF PROCEDURE (AN)					0,910	0,876	0,880	0,670
AN1	The rules are oriented to the profit of both parties	6,81	1,93	0,845				
AN2	The rules clarify what the benefit or harm is for the parties	7,06	1,81	0,766				
AN3	The rules must begin with the tourism planning of the territory	6,92	1,89	0,820				
AN4	The rules must connect tourists, locals and public agents			0,843				
AN5	The rules should include resilience practices among tourism actors to meet the challenges set.	7,24	2,06	0,815				

Discriminant validity of constructs

Along with the observation of possible cross-loads, the criteria for assessing discriminant validity were the Fornell and Larcker criterion (1981) and the HTMT coefficient, as well as the observation of the HTMT confidence interval. The following table shows the data for these parameters (Table 4). From the ANALYSIS of the HTMT it is not perceived that there may be excessive overlap or convergence in the relationships between constructs. In the same vein, the matrix of Fornell and Larcker does not show problems of discriminant validity.

Tabla 4. Fornell and Larcker criterion

Fornell-Larcker criterion						Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)				
	AC	CCP	DEA	FC	NA	AC	CCP	DEA	FC	NA
AC	0,892									
CCP	0,345	0,741				0,389				
DEA	0,711	0,388	0,862			0,796	0,434			
FC	0,643	0,570	0,625	0,850		0,726	0,666	0,690		
NA	0,616	0,677	0,622	0,660	0,818	0,703	0,789	0,692	0,748	

4.3. Evaluation of the structural model

The causal relationships, which star in the relational hypotheses of the model, measured through the *path* coefficients present positive values, significantly different from zero at a confidence level of 99%. Therefore, all research hypotheses are accepted for such a strict level of confidence. The sizes of the causal effects (f^2) have a small size, the effects of the activation of norms on public-private cooperation and training in cooperation on cooperative attitudes are outstanding. Hence, the contribution of explanatory constructs (exogenous) such as AN and FC to explain the endogenous variables AC and CCP respectively, in terms of R^2 is very high.

The fit of the model measured through Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) is 0.076, it is less than 0.08 which is accepted (Cepeda-Carrion, Cegarra-Navarro, & Cillo, 2018). The second measure of adjustment is the value of NFI was 0.753, moving in a range of 0 to 1 and being close to 1 is considered accepted.

The R^2 of public-private cooperation reaches the value of 0.458. This indicates that the model manages to explain 45.8% of the variance of public-private cooperation in tourist destinations, which shows a moderate explanatory capacity of the model (Chin, 1998) being an interesting value. The R^2 of the other endogenous variables is also shown. The coefficient Q^2 presents positive values in all cases thus determining the predictive relevance of the model.

Table 5. Estructural model results

<i>Estructural model results</i>						
	<i>Path Coefficient</i> <i>t</i>	<i>Path Int_{2,5%}</i>	<i>Path Int_{97,5%}</i>	<i>t-statistic</i>	<i>P-Value</i>	<i>Support</i> <i>t</i>
H1: FC -> AN	0,381**	0,293	0,476	7,992	0,000	YES
H2: FC -> DEA	0,287**	0,195	0,375	6,170	0,000	YES
H3: FC -> AC	0,643**	0,580	0,699	20,593	0,000	YES
H4: DEA -> AN	0,244**	0,104	0,372	3,291	0,001	YES
H5: AC -> DEA	0,526**	0,443	0,609	11,870	0,000	YES
H6: AC -> AN	0,198**	0,068	0,307	3,114	0,002	YES
H7: AN -> CCP	0,677**	0,627	0,725	27,366	0,000	YES
<i>Measuring the size of effects (f^2)</i>						
FC -> AN			0,161			
FC -> DEA			0,108			
FC -> AC			0,705			
DEA -> AN			0,056			
AC -> DEA			0,363			
AC -> AN			0,035			
AN -> CCP			0,844			
<i>Goodness of fit</i>						

SRMR	0,074
NFI	0,753

Explanatory capacity R2 and Predictive Capacity Q2

	R2	Q2
AC	0,414	0,326
CCP	0,458	0,242
DEA	0,553	0,405
AN	0,525	0,348

* significant to the 95%; ** significant to the 99%; ^{ns} not significant to the 95%

5. Discussion

Table 6. Effects on endogenous variables

<i>Effects on endogenous variables</i>					
	<i>Adjusted R²</i>	<i>Q²</i>	<i>Direct Effect</i>	<i>Correlation</i>	<i>Variance explained (%)</i>
Public- private cooperation (CCP)	0,458	0,242			
Rules of procedure (AN)			0,677	0,677	0,458
Rules of procedure (AN)	0,525	0,348			
Design and execution of agreements (DEA)			0,244	0,622	0,152
Cooperative training (FC)			0,381	0,66	0,251
Cooperative attitudes (AC)			0,198	0,616	0,122
Design and execution of agreements (DEA)	0,553	0,405			0,525
Cooperative attitudes (AC)			0,526	0,711	0,374
Cooperative training (FC)			0,287	0,625	0,1794
Cooperative attitudes (AC)	0,414	0,326			0,553
Cooperative training (FC)			0,643	0,643	0,413

The presented model of public-private cooperation addresses aspects hitherto little studied in the literature, more based on factors prior to any cooperation process than cooperation itself. These factors have been detected in interviews with public-private agents. In these interviews collected as a summary in Table 2, the important differences between the two parties have been revealed. Hence, it is necessary to carry out a previous work of training and training of tourism companies and public officials in tourism to prepare the ground for cooperation. According to Chin (1998) the public-private cooperation model is moderately significant R²=45.8%. This means that the model is valid to dispose the parties towards cooperation (Sömmez, 2002; Roxas et al., 2020). The interest in cooperation helps the parties to move beyond mere subjective interests based on profit and expansion of power quota (Nowak & Highfield, 2011; Tremblay et al., 2019)

If we analyze the contribution of each of the elements to develop an adequate public-private cooperation, we observe in Table 7 how, in terms of the variance explained, it is the "Design and execution of agreements (DEA)" ($R^2=0.553$) and the "Activation of Standards (AN)" ($R^2=0.525$) who contribute the most to the explanation of the model. It is significant how the third variable "cooperative attitudes" explains in similar terms its contribution to cooperation between the parties. If we analyze the weight that each of the variables has within each construct, we can say that for the "activation of norms" "training in cooperation" is essential ($\text{Var}=0.251$). This is explained by the importance of not only the development of cooperative skills to regulate the cooperative behaviors of the parties (Hodge and Greve, 2009), but to develop norms related to decision-making that affect the two sectors (Wiig, 2002; Roxas et al., 2020; Sánchez-Oro, et al., 2021). Cooperative training also contributes to the development of win-win standards between parties (Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff, 2011; Ibsen and Levinsen, 2019) and clarify the profits and losses of both parties (Schaeffer and Loveridge, 2002; Kickul and Lyons, 2020).

In the case of "design and execution of agreements" are, however, "cooperative attitudes" ($\text{Var}=0.374$). This design and execution of cooperative agreements has already existed in the minds of tourism companies (Hosteltur, 2020). However, the cooperative intention is largely far from the results due to the absence of teaching strategies of "cooperative attitudes" to transform tourist destinations from the design and execution of agreements (Tribe, 2006; Sánchez-Oro, Castro-Serrano and Robina-Ramírez, et al., 2021; Roxas et al., 2020; Tremblay et al., 2019).

Table 7. Analysis of variance by constructs

<i>Efectos sobre las variables endógenas</i>					
	<i>Adjusted R^2</i>	<i>Q^2</i>	<i>Direct Effect</i>	<i>Correlation</i>	<i>Variance explained (%)</i>
Public- private cooperation (CCP)	0,458	0,24 2			
Rules of procedure (AN)			0,677	0,677	0,458
Rules of procedure (AN)	0,525	0,34 8			
Design and execution of agreements (DEA)			0,244	0,622	0,152
Cooperative training (FC)			0,381	0,66	0,251
Cooperative attitudes (AC)			0,198	0,616	0,122
Design and execution of agreements (DEA)	0,553	0,40 5			0,525
Cooperative attitudes (AC)			0,526	0,711	0,374
Cooperative training (FC)			0,287	0,625	0,179
Cooperative attitudes (AC)	0,414	0,32 6			0,553

Cooperative training (FC)	0,643	0,643	0,413
---------------------------	-------	-------	--------------

If we analyze the hypotheses they are all significant. Above all the hypotheses, the close relationship between the variables "Training in cooperation (CF)" and "Cooperative Attitudes (CA)" stands out (H_3 : FC AC, β : 0.643, t : 20.593). At the base of any cooperative attitude in tourist destinations is training that overcomes a vision closed to the company that values cooperation only from the prism of personal gain (Collier, 2011; Harvey, 2005; Alphin, 2021). Hence the importance of moving to more participatory models that incorporate all the agents of the tourist destination (Tribe, 2006; Sánchez-Oro, Castro-Serrano and Robina-Ramírez, et al., 2021; Roxas et al., 2020; Tremblay et al., 2019). In this shift from an individual vision to one more committed to destiny and its agents, it is necessary to learn to sacrifice personal benefits for the benefit of destiny (Nowak & Highfield, 2011; Tremblay et al., 2019).

Similarly, the relationship between the variables "Cooperative Attitudes (CA)" and "Design and execution of agreements (DEA)" (H_5 : AC DEA, β : 0.526, t : 11.870) highlights the need for directionality in any agreement between the parties. This directionality not only takes into consideration the cooperative values of the parties but the specification of cooperative purposes that feed each of the steps of the agreements (Hodge and Greve, 2009; Bolleyer, 2018).

According to Chin (2010) and Hair et al. (2011), the values of Q^2 of the variable dependent "ET-Energy transitions" > 0.242 ($Q^2=0.24.2$). This indicates that the model can be replicated or in scenarios of similar socioeconomic characteristics. This conclusion is particularly relevant to be able to draw the positive consequences that this model brings when setting up a process of cooperation between the parties.

6. Conclusions

The development of public-private cooperation has been analyzed according to the motivation of the internal factors for its implementation. These factors are not only essential for the cooperation process to be consolidated and successful (Sömmez, 2002; Roxas et al., 2020).

This process has the capacity to feed back (Schwartz's model, 1977) thus improving the starting circumstance: the promotion of cooperation.

Three theoretical and three empirical conclusions are deduced from the model:

Theoretical conclusions

Although the perception of cooperation has been highly polarized by the public and private sectors, communication and collaboration are essential in the development of public-private cooperation models (Gabriela et al., 2013, McQuaid, 2000; Kickul and Lyons, 2020). The

private sector expresses certain shortcomings regarding the lack of corporate representativeness in the decision-making process and the limited communication between the two parties. According to these perceptions expressed during the interviews, current cooperation lacks effectiveness and balance between the two parties (Brunsson, 2006).

Second, it is imperative that the common welfare prevail over individual achievements (Nowak & Highfield, 2011; Tremblay et al., 2019) to ensure satisfactory results in the cooperation process. Therefore, the commitment and willingness of the parties to sacrifice their own interests for the achievement of group benefits is paramount.

Third, the results achieved through public-private cooperation should benefit all parties involved (Hodge and Greve, 2009). To achieve this shared benefit it is necessary to specify the roles that each party will play in achieving the achievements (Gray, 1985).

Empirically

In the first place, the results highlight the importance of having a good planning and implementation of the agreements linked to an adequate execution of the rules to establish an effective public-private cooperation. These agreements must be geared towards cooperation and resilience.

Second, the assessments of the elements that define the model also highlight the improvement of financing and the transformation of management through cooperation and the positive influence of training on decision-making. In this way, these elements have to be priorities within the objectives and requirements projected in the public-private cooperation process.

Thirdly, the analysis carried out in this model responds positively to the replicability of the phenomenon. It can be extrapolated to other similar cooperation situations.

The limitations of this study refer to the difficulty of contact and organization of groups in virtual meetings. To this end, it has been necessary to increase the number of contacts by reducing the groups of companies surveyed. On the other hand, the absence of studies that have addressed the role of endogenous factors in public-private cooperation to develop tourist destinations has limited the comparison with these studies. In this sense, future lines of research are emerging aimed at the incorporation of other endogenous factors that influence the cooperative process and the reproduction of the model proposed in other regions.

References

Ansell, C., & Gash, A. (2008). Collaborative governance in theory and practice. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 18, 543–571.

- Baggio, R. (2011). Collaboration and cooperation in a tourism destination: A network science approach. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 14, 183–189.
- Beaumont, N. & Dredge, D. (2010). Local tourism governance: A comparison of three network approaches. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 18, 7–28.
- Bolleyer, N. (2018). *The State and Civil Society: Regulating Interest Groups, Parties, and Public Benefit Organizations in Contemporary Democracies*. Oxford University Press.
- Bramwell, B., & Lane, B. (2011). Critical research on the governance of tourism and sustainability. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 19, 411–421.
- Bramwell, B., & Meyer, D. (2007). Power and tourism policy relations in transition. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34, 766–788.
- Brinkerhoff, D. W., & Brinkerhoff, J. M. (2011). Public–private partnerships: Perspectives on purposes, publicness, and good governance. *Public administration and development*, 31(1), 2–14.
- Brunsson, N. (2006). *Mechanisms of hope. Maintaining the dream of the rational organization*. Malmö: Liber
- Buckley, R. (2004). Partnerships in ecotourism: Australian political frameworks. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 6(2), 75–83.
- Bult-Spiering, M., & Dewulf, G. (2006). *Strategic issues in public–private partnerships. An international perspective*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Church, A., & Coles, T. (Eds.) (2007). *Tourism, power and space*. London: Routledge
- Cole, S., & Morgan, N. (Eds.). (2010). *Tourism and inequality: Problems and prospects*. CABI. <https://doi.org/10.1079/9781845936624.0000>
- Collier, S. J. (2011). *Post-Soviet social: Neoliberalism, social modernity, biopolitics*. Princeton University Press.
- Nieto Masot, A.; Ríos Rodríguez, N. (2021). Rural Tourism as a Development Strategy in Low-Density Areas: Case Study in NorthernExtremadura (Spain). *Sustainability*, 13, 239
- Current Issues in Tourism*. 14(8), 725–749. DOI: 10.1080/13683500.2011.559200.
- Dela Santa, E. (2018). Power and Politics in Tourism Policy and Planning in the Philippines. En Y. Wang, A. Shakeela, A. Kwek, & C. Khoo-Lattimore (Eds.), *Managing Asian Destinations* (pp. 23–34). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-8426-3_2
- Dredge, D., & Jenkins, J.M. (2007). *Tourism planning and policy*. Milton: John Wiley.
- Dredge, D., & Pforr, C. (2008). Policy networks and tourism governance. In N. Scott, R. Baggio, & C. Cooper (Eds.), *Network analysis and tourism: From theory to practice* (pp. 58–78). Clevedon: Channel View Publications

- Erkuş-Öztürk, H., & Eraydin, A. (2010). Environmental governance for sustainable tourism development: Collaborative networks and organisation building in the Antalya tourism region. *Tourism Management*, 31, 113–124.
- Fayos-Solà, E. (1996). Tourism policy – a midsummer nights dream. *Tourism Management*, 17 (6), 405–412.
- Gabriela, T., Bogman, C. V., & Bulin, D. (2013). Public-Private Partnership-a new path for tourism development. *Canadian Center of Science and Education*.
- Gray, B. (1985). Conditions facilitating interorganizational collaboration. *Human Relations*, 38 (1 0), 911-936.
- Hall, C.M. (2005). Rural wine and food tourism cluster and network development. In D. Hall, I. Kirkpatrick, & M. Mitchell (Eds.), *Rural tourism and sustainable business* (pp. 149–164). Clevedon: Channelview.
- Hall, C.M. (2008). *Tourism planning processes and relationships* (2nd ed.). Harlow: Prentice-Hall.
- Hall, C.M. (2008). *Tourism planning processes and relationships* (2nd ed.). Harlow: Prentice-Hall
- Hall, C.M. (2009). Archetypal approaches to implementation and their implications for tourism policy. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 34(3), 235–245.
- Hall, C.M. (2011a). Framing governance theory: A typology of governance and its implications for tourism policy analysis. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 19, 437–457.
- Hall, C.M. (2011b). Policy learning and policy failure in sustainable tourism governance: From first and second to third order change? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 19, 649–671.
- Hall, C.M. (2011b). Policy learning and policy failure in sustainable tourism governance: From first and second to third order change? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 19, 649–671
- Harvey, D. (2005). *A brief history of neoliberalism*. Oxford University Press
- Higgins-Desbiolles, F. (2008). Justice tourism and alternative globalisation. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(3), 345–364. [https:// doi. org/ 10. 1080/ 09669 58080 21541 32](https://doi.org/10.1080/09669580802154132).
- Hodge, G. A., Greve, C. (2009) ‘PPPs: The Passage Of Time Permits A Sober Reflection’, *Economic Affairs* 29(1): 33–39.
- Hosteltur, (2020). La biocrisis que afectara al turismo. Retrieved, 2ndMay, 2022, from [https:// www. hosteltur. com/ comun idad/ 003891_ la- bio- crisis- que- afect ara- al- turis mo](https://www.hosteltur.com/comunidad/003891_la-bio-crisis-que-afectara-al-turismo).
[Html](https://www.hosteltur.com/comunidad/003891_la-bio-crisis-que-afectara-al-turismo)

- Ibsen, B., & Levinsen, K. (2019). Collaboration between sports clubs and public institutions. *European Journal for Sport and Society*, 16(2), 187-204. <https://doi.org/10.1080/16138171.2019.1610619>
- Ingerson, A. E. (1999). *Is "public-private partnership" empty rhetoric?* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University, Institute for Cultural Landscape Studies. (Retrieved March 6, 2000, from <http://www.icis.harvard.edu/ppp/critic1.htm>)
- Jamal, T., Camargo, B., & Wilson, E. (2013). Critical omissions and new directions for sustainable tourism: A situated macro-micro approach. *Sustainability*, 5(11), 4594–4613. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su5114594>
- Kickul, J., & Lyons, T. S. (2020). *Understanding Social Entrepreneurship: The Relentless Pursuit of Mission in an Ever Changing World* (3.^a ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429270406>
- Kirkpatrick, J. B., Fielder, J., Davison, A., Pearce, L. M., & Cooke, B. (2022). The role of government in a partial transition from public to private in the expanding Australian protected area system. *Conservation and Society*, AOP: 1-10. https://doi.org/10.4103/cs.cs_100_21
- Korab-Karpowicz, W. J. (2020). The United Citizens Organization: Public-private partnerships in global governance. *Research in Globalization*, 2, 100012. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resglo.2020.100012>
- Kuhnle, S., & Selle, P. (Eds.). (1992). *Gobierno and voluntary organizations: A relational perspective*. Aldershot, UK: Ashgate.
- Lawther, W. C. (2000). *Privatizing toll roads: A public-private partnership*. Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Leal-Solís, A., & Robina-Ramírez, R. (2022). Tourism Planning in Underdeveloped Regions—What Has Been Going Wrong? The Case of Extremadura (Spain). *Land*, 11(5), 663. <https://doi.org/10.3390/land11050663>
- Lovelock, B. (2001). Interorganisational relations in a protected area – tourism policy domain. Macleod, D., & Carrier, J. (Eds.) (2010). *Tourism, power and culture: Anthropological insights*. Channelview: Bristol.
- McQuaid, R. W. (2000). The theory of partnership: Why have partnerships? En *Public-Private Partnerships*. Routledge.
- Medhekar, A. (2014). Public-private partnerships for inclusive development: Role of private corporate sector in provision of healthcare services. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 157, 33-44.

- Mele, C. & McLeskey, M. H. (2018). Pro-growth urban politics and the inner workings of public-private partnerships. En *The Routledge Handbook on Spaces of Urban Politics*. Routledge.
- Michael, E.J. (2007). *Micro-clusters and networks: The growth of tourism*. Amsterdam: Elsevier
- Nowak, M., & Highfield, R. (2011). *Supercooperators: Altruism, evolution, and why we need each other to succeed*. Simon and Schuster.
- Peters, B. G. (1998). "With a little help from our friends": Public-private partnerships as institutions and instruments. In J. Pierre (Ed.), *Partnerships in urban governance: European and American experience* (pp. 11-33). New York: St. Martin's.
- Pförr, C. (2005). Three lenses of analysis for the study of tourism public policy: A case from northern Australia. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 8, 323–343.
- Pförr, C. (2021). Tourism and public policy. *Handbook of Business and Public Policy*, 378-391.
- Pierre, J. (Ed.). (1998). *Partnerships in urban governance: European and American experience*. New York: St. Martin's.
- Romeiro, P., & Costa, C. (2010). The potential of management networks in the innovation and competitiveness of rural tourism: A case study on the Valle del Jerte (Spain). *Current Issues in Tourism*, 14, 183–189.
- Roxas, F. M. Y., Rivera, J. P. R., & Gutierrez, E. L. M. (2020). Mapping stakeholders' roles in governing sustainable tourism destinations. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 45, 387-398. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2020.09.005>
- Sánchez-Oro, M. S., Castro-Serrano, J., Robina-Ramírez, R., & nueva, E. a sitio externo E. enlace se abrirá en una ventana. (2021). Stakeholders' Participation in Sustainable Tourism Planning for a Rural Region: Extremadura Case Study (Spain). *Land*, 10(6). <https://doi.org/10.3390/land10060553>
- Schaeffer, P. V., & Loveridge, S. (2002). Toward an understanding of types of public-private cooperation. *Public Performance & Management Review*, 26(2), 169-189.
- Sharma, G. D., Thomas, A., & Paul, J. (2021). Reviving tourism industry post-COVID-19: A resiliencebased framework. *Tourism management perspectives*, 37, 100786.
- Siakwah, P., Musavengane, R., & Leonard, L. (2020). Tourism Governance and Attainment of the Sustainable Development Goals in Africa. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 17(4), 355-383. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21568316.2019.1600160>

- Solli, R., Demediuk, P., & Sims, R. (2005). The namesake: On best value and other reformmarks. In B. Czarniawska & G. Sevón (Eds.), *Global ideas: How ideas, objects and practices travel in the global economy*. Malmö: Liber & Copenhagen Business School Press.
- Sommez, T. S. (2002). *Resident's attitudes toward tourism development* (pp. 668–688). *Annals of Tourism Research*.
- The influence of macro-economic policy. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 4, 253–274.
- Theobald (Ed.), *Global tourism* (3rd ed., pp. 406–426). Oxford: Elsevier.
- Tremblay, E., Hupper, A., & Waring, T. M. (2019). Co-operatives exhibit greater behavioral cooperation than comparable businesses: Experimental evidence. *Journal of Co-Operative Organization and Management*, 7(2), 100092. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcom.2019.100092>
- Tribe, J. (2006). The truth about tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33(2), 360–381. [https:// doi. org/ 10. 1016/j. annals. 2005. 11. 001](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2005.11.001)
- United Nations World Tourism Organization (2010). *Joining forces. Collaborative processes for sustainable and competitive tourism*. Madrid: SNV Netherlands Development Organisation – UNWTO.
- UNWTO, (1999). The global code of ethics for tourism. [https:// www. unwto. org/ global-code- ofeth ics- fortourism](https://www.unwto.org/global-code-ofeth ics- fortourism)
- Vaillancourt Rosenau, P. (Ed.). (2000). *Public-private partnerships*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Van Der Duim, V.R., & Caalders, J. (2008). Tourism chains and pro-poor tourism development: An actor-network analysis of a pilot project in Costa Rica, *Current Issues in Tourism*, 323–343
- Walzer, N., & Jacobs, B. D. (Eds.). (1998). *Public-private partnerships for local economic development*. Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Weaver, C., & Dennert, M. (1987). Economic development and the public-private partnership. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 53(4), 430-437.
- Westeren, K. I. (2000). Developing services in sparsely populated municipalities in Nordic countries. In P. V. Schaeffer & S. Loveridge (Eds.), *Small town and rural economic development: A case studies approach* (pp. 227-236). Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Wiig, K. M. (2002). Knowledge management in public administration. *Journal of knowledge management*
- World Tourism Organization (WTO) (2011) UNWTO Annual Report: A Year of Recovery. Madrid: UNWTO. Available at:

<http://media.unwto.org/sites/all/files/pdf/finalannualreportpdf.pdf> (accessed 30 January, 2019).

World Tourism Organization (WTO) (2015) Affiliate Members Global Reports, Vol. 11: Public-Private Partnerships: Tourism Development. Madrid: UNWTO

World Tourism Organization. (2011). *Tourism towards 2030*. Madrid: UNWTO.

Zapata, M.J., Hall, C.M., Lindo, P., & Vanderschaeghe, M. (2011). Can community-based tourism contribute to development and poverty alleviation? Lessons from Nicaragua.