

Developing a Typology of Sustainable Tourism Partnerships

Steve Selin

*Division of Forestry, PO BOX 6125, West Virginia University, Morgantown, WV
26506-6125, USA*

Partnerships and collaboration have come of age in the tourism field. However, our understanding of how partnerships form and how to build the capacity of appropriate collaborative ventures has lagged behind developments in the field. This paper first discusses how, within a United States context, partnerships are contributing to sustainable tourism development and then reviews past partnership research across several disciplines. Next, this research is extended by developing a preliminary typology of sustainable tourism partnerships, identifying dimensions by which tourism partnerships vary or are similar across time and geographic region. Representative tourism partnerships are selected and plotted along a number of dimensions including: geographic scale, legal basis, locus of control, organisational diversity and size, and time frame. By better understanding the diversity of forms partnerships take in response to societal pressures, tourism managers can begin to design partnerships that provide the appropriate response to resolving intractable problems or taking advantage of significant opportunities.

As we approach the end of the 20th century, it has become quite clear to tourism managers, planners, and academics that no one individual or organisation can dictate the future of the tourism industry. Whether the tourism objective is economic development, conservation, social justice, or protected area management, we are discovering the power of collaborative action. This integration has spawned a diverse array of new inter-organisational forms and agreements including multinational firms, coalitions formed by global accords, regional planning authorities, joint management of protected areas, and community-based cooperatives. These emerging partnerships can be defined as situations where there is a 'pooling or sharing of appreciations or resources (information, money, labor, etc.) among two or more tourism stakeholders to solve a problem or create an opportunity that neither can address individually' (Selin & Chavez, 1995).

Much of the literature describing emerging partnerships in the tourism field has been descriptive in nature (Jamal & Getz, 1995). Typically, accounts of individual initiatives identify the advantages of working together and suggest the model be applied widely. Unfortunately, like other social forms, partnerships can be a force for good or bad. Concentration of power in multinational firms may be efficient in monetary terms but may marginalise national social justice and environmental laws. Missing from the tourism literature have been science-based investigations attempting to sift through the inflated rhetoric to develop a deeper understanding of tourism partnerships and collaboration, an understanding which can then be used to enhance the capacity of partnerships which contribute to the public good. The purpose of this paper is to, first, discuss

how partnerships are contributing to sustainable tourism development, primarily within a United States context. A second purpose is to develop a preliminary typology of sustainable tourism partnerships being convened or currently operating in the United States.

Partnerships and Sustainable Development

A variety of societal forces are providing powerful incentives for tourism interests to forge collective responses to industry challenges and opportunities. Rapid economic and technological change, global interdependence, and blurred boundaries between government, industry, and the voluntary sector have spawned a diverse array of collaborative responses to gain access to new technologies or spread the cost of marketing innovation over several parties (Selin, 1993). However, this assessment is focused on one genre of emerging tourism partnerships – those convened to pursue a ‘sustainable’ path for economic development, conservation or other mutually agreed upon tourism objective.

While there has been considerable debate within the tourism field about what ‘sustainable development’ is and how it applies to tourism development (Hunter, 1997), that is not the purpose of this paper. Rather, the purpose here is to illustrate how partnerships have emerged as a strategy for implementing a sustainable course for tourism development. In the United States, in 1993, President Clinton convened the President’s Council on Sustainable Development to develop a national sustainable development action strategy and to follow up on recommendations made at the Earth Summit, held in 1992. In a summary document to the work of this Council, Sitarz (1998) profiles sustainable development initiatives taking root in the United States and outlines actions needed to achieve a sustainable America. In the topical areas of most interest to tourism stakeholders – sustainable natural resources and sustainable communities – the report highlights emerging partnerships and collaborative approaches to natural resource and community planning and recommends actions to institutionalise these collective forms of planning and management.

A majority of tourism partnerships described in the sustainable development literature are cross-sector initiatives that often involve representatives from industry, government, and the voluntary sectors (Sitarz, 1998). For example, the Coalition for United Recreation in the Eastern Sierras, dedicated to provide coordinated planning for outdoor recreation resources, includes over 90 members representing 50 different agencies as diverse as the USDA Forest Service, resort owners, and the Sierra Club (Selin & Myers, 1998). This is not to say that sustainable tourism development cannot result from partnerships within one sector. Examples from the tourism field abound such as recent initiatives by hotel and restaurant associations to promote environmental responsibility through recycling and other eco-efficiency measures. However, the negotiation, mutually determined goals and actions, and monitoring resulting from cross-sector partnerships make it more likely that these initiatives will result in sustainable outcomes.

Recent Partnership Theory and Research

It is tempting to assume that the emergence of partnerships and collaboration in the tourism field is unique and that little systematic research has examined this important topic. Unfortunately, this assumption would ignore a wealth of knowledge that has accumulated over the past two decades attempting to understand these new inter-organisational forms and identify strategies for enhancing their capacity. As society has become more complex and economies more interdependent, organisations are finding it increasingly difficult to act unilaterally to achieve internal objectives. Over the past two decades, collaborative solutions have emerged to problems in every sector of society – business, government, labour, and the environment (Gray, 1989). As these non-traditional forms have gained prominence, they have attracted the attention of social scientists from a number of disciplinary perspectives seeking to better understand the internal dynamics of these partnerships as well as the external forces that either facilitate or constrain the formation and growth of these collaborative and partnership arrangements.

When collaboration and partnerships began to emerge as an alternative response to societal forces in the 1980s, a cadre of organisational theorists began to take note of these new inter-organisational forms (Gray, 1985, 1989; McCann, 1983; Waddock, 1989). Through primarily case study research and analysis, these theorists broke new ground in their efforts to conceptually define and understand the common characteristics of partnerships and collaboration. Other objectives of this formative work were to better understand the stages of development partnerships evolve through. In addition, these early studies explored those external and internal factors that either serve to facilitate or constrain partnership formation and growth.

Gray's work (1985, 1989) is emblematic of this genre of research. Gray (1989: 11) defines collaboration, 'as a process of joint decision making among key stakeholders of a problem domain about the future of that domain'. Gray proceeds to identify five characteristics critical to the collaborative process: (1) stakeholders are interdependent; (2) solutions emerge by dealing constructively with differences; (3) joint ownership of decisions is involved; (4) stakeholders assume collective responsibility for the future direction of the domain; and (5) collaboration is an emergent process. Perhaps the most potent lesson for tourism managers and scholars to draw from this formative work is that partnerships and collaborative arrangements are dynamic rather than static phenomena, evolving dynamically in response to a host of internal and external forces.

Managerial and scholarly interest in partnerships and collaboration has grown steadily during the 1990s. In addition to the continued interest of organisational theorists, partnership research has gained a foothold in a number of applied social science fields including natural resource management and tourism. Case study research has been complemented by an increasing number of quantitative investigations, including several studies assessing large regional or national populations of partnerships (Selin *et al.*, 1998; Williams & Ellefson, 1996; Wondollock & Yaffee, 1994; Yaffee *et al.*, 1996). New streams of inquiry represented in this work include assessing characteristics of successful and failed partnership efforts, identifying barriers to partnership formation and growth,

understanding motives for participation, and, increasingly, outcome-based assessments of partnership accomplishments.

This has certainly been true in the tourism field. The escalating importance of tourism partnerships has prompted a rash of descriptive case studies (Howe *et al.*, 1997) assessing these new organisational forms and identifying keys to success in initiating and sustaining these collaborative ventures. As in other social science disciplines, case studies have been followed by more systematic research examining the dynamics of these new structures. Recent work has developed conceptual models describing tourism partnerships (Darrow, 1995; Jamal & Getz, 1995; Selin, 1993; Selin & Chavez, 1995) and assessed member satisfaction and effectiveness attributes of regional tourism planning partnerships (Selin & Myers, 1998). These early investigations provide a signpost for an expanded programme of research, evidenced by this special issue examining collaboration and partnerships in the tourism field. The following assessment extends this line of research by developing a preliminary typology of sustainable tourism partnerships, identifying dimensions by which tourism partnerships vary or are similar across time and geographic region. Then, selected partnerships are plotted along these various dimensions.

Methods

Typologies have a rich tradition in social science disciplines. They are essentially an organisational model that systematically illustrates how a social phenomena varies or is similar along a number of selected dimensions or attributes (Waddock, 1989). The following typology was constructed by first identifying a diverse range of partnership forms at work within the tourism field. A second stage in developing the partnership typology was to identify multiple dimensions or attributes by which these partnerships vary or are similar across time and geographic region. Finally, representative tourism partnerships were selected and plotted along these various dimensions. Theoretically, there are likely to be an infinite number of dimensions or characteristics by which tourism partnerships vary or are similar. The purpose here is not to be exhaustive but to identify several preliminary dimensions that illustrate the contextual diversity under which tourism partnerships form and evolve.

Several selection criteria were used to evaluate partnerships for possible inclusion in the typology. In keeping with the theme of this special issue, partnerships were selected if their stated purpose and activities focused on sustainable development. The investigator recognises the difficulty of reconciling stated purposes with actual sustainable outcomes. However, monitoring of partnership outcomes was beyond the scope of this study and should be recognised as a potential limitation. For practical purposes, the investigator delimited the population of tourism partnerships to those based in the United States though recognising the obvious international importance of emerging tourism partnerships. In addition, from the investigator's past research, many of the partnership examples used in this typology relate to tourism and natural resource management issues. Finally, partnerships considered for inclusion in the typology were quite diverse in their goals and objectives. In some cases, sustainable tourism development was the primary objective of the endeavour – for example, the work of the

Western States Tourism Policy Council (Seal, 1997). In other cases, tourism development was one part of a larger, integrated set of partnership goals and objectives such as the goals of the Northern Forest Lands Council which also included objectives such as forest conservation, economic development, and watershed protection (Poffenberger & Selin, 1998).

The investigator used a number of primary and secondary sources to construct a population of partnerships for possible inclusion in the typology. From past research, the investigator has compiled an extensive database of partnership case studies and reviews that were helpful in constructing this typology. Several other published databases of partnership information were also consulted in preparing this typology and provided enough background to reliably chart these partnerships along various typology dimensions (Wondolleck & Yaffee, 1994; Yaffee *et al.*, 1996).

A Typology of Sustainable Tourism Partnerships

The following figures and descriptions outline a preliminary typology of sustainable tourism partnerships. Representative tourism partnerships are plotted along five primary dimensions: geographic scale, legal basis, locus of control, organisational diversity and size, and time frame. The geographic scale dimension is common to each of the typology figures presented. Thus, in each of the figures, tourism partnerships are plotted at either a community, state, regional, or national scale depending on their geographic orientation.

Figure 1 plots tourism partnerships along both the geographic scale dimension and by the legal basis for convening the partnership. At one end of the continuum are primarily grassroots partnerships, initiated voluntarily by participating partners. Many of these grassroots partnerships are community-based in their orientation, representing the best tradition of voluntary associations in the United States. They may be organised informally or under some legal form such as a non-profit organisation. Local watershed associations are an excellent example of this type of voluntary partnership. These local partnerships convene for a myriad of reasons – sometimes to fight a perceived threat to a watershed area such as either point or non-point pollution sources. Other watershed partnership objectives typically include issues such as ecological restoration, improving outdoor recreation opportunities, fish habitat, and enhancing the quality of life for both local residents and visitors (Collins *et al.*, 1998). Ecotourism associations represent another emerging voluntary partnership in the United States. Convened at various geographic scales from community through region, the membership of ecotourism associations are dedicated to promoting responsible nature-based travel in their respective area. Texas is an industry leader in this area. The Texas Natural Tourism Association has been very active in developing voluntary guidelines for nature tourism operations, assisting in the promotion of nature-based visitor opportunities, and establishing a Texas Nature Tourism Information Center (Texas Parks and Wildlife Department, 1997).

At the other end of the legal basis continuum are partnerships that are either legally mandated, authorised, or compelled. Here, some legal entity or authority identifies a planning process that includes a participatory component

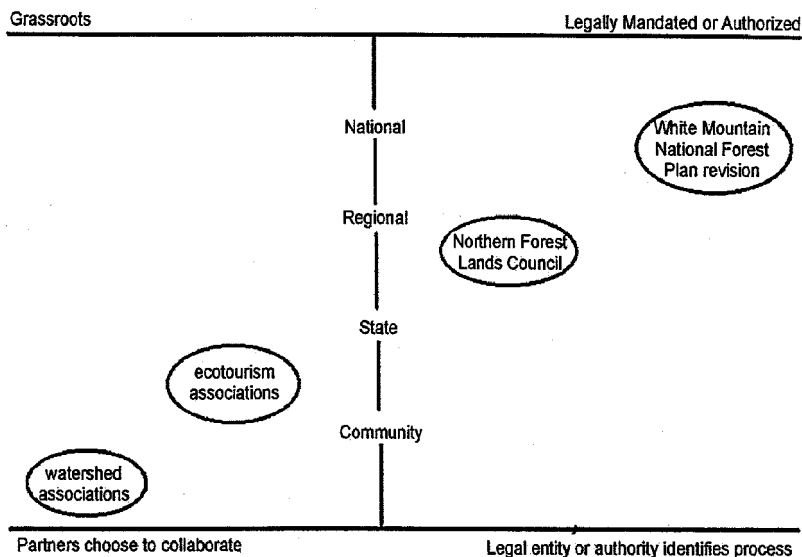


Figure 1 Geographic scale by legal basis

that falls within the partnership definition used for the study. Public tourism and natural resource management agencies are under intense public pressure to adopt more participatory, integrated planning approaches which incorporate partnership forms such as citizen advisory committees, task forces, and working groups (Selin & Chavez, 1995). The examples from Figure 1 illustrate two efforts in this vein.

The Northern Forest Land Council (NFLC) was convened out of public concern in the Northeastern region of the United States over the potential large-scale transfer of land from forest to developed property. The NFLC was authorised and funded by Congress in 1990. Facilitated by the USDA Forest Service, the mission of the NFLC was to reinforce the traditional patterns of ownership by enhancing the quality of life of local residents through the promotion of economic stability, encouraging the production of sustainable yield of forest products, and protecting recreational, wildlife, scenic and wildland resources (Levesque, 1995). In developing their recommendations, the NFLC worked with citizen advisory committees from each state and held hundreds of regular public meetings and forums throughout the region. In addition, working groups were established that served in an advisory capacity for the issue areas being studied including sustainable tourism development in the region.

A second example of legally authorised partnership development are the Forest Plan Revisions currently being made within the National Forest System in the United States. While the National Forest Management Act of 1976 mandates broad public participation in national forest planning and management, some national forests have interpreted this legal requirement narrowly while others, such as the White Mountain National Forest (WMNF) in New Hampshire, have adopted more participatory and interactive approaches to forest planning

(USDA Forest Service, 1997). In the current round of Forest Plan Revision, the WMNF is encouraging collaborative planning through the formation of public planning groups composed of interest groups, local working groups, and other interested individuals. Participants are engaged in joint problem-solving throughout the planning process where everyone is responsible for helping to devise solutions to vexing natural resource problems.

Figure 2 plots geographic scale by the locus of control present between public tourism or natural resource management agencies and participating stakeholder interests. The locus of control continuum is adapted from Borrini-Feyerabend's (1997) level of participation scale which ranges from complete agency control at one end of the scale to complete stakeholder control at the other end of the scale. According to our working partnership definition, most partnerships and collaborative arrangements would be positioned towards the centre of this continuum where there is more shared responsibility for decision-making and problem resolution.

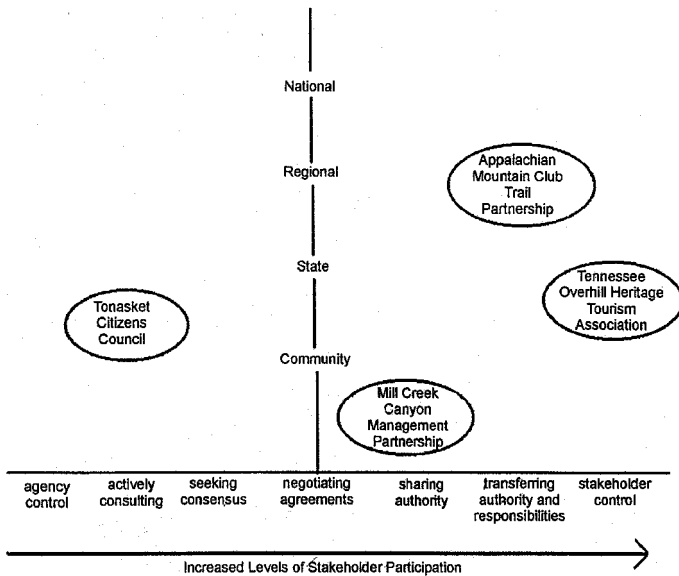


Figure 2 Geographic scale by locus of control

Advisory groups are a good example of collaborative arrangements operating towards the agency control side of the continuum. Typically, a diverse group composed of various stakeholder interests serves in an advisory capacity to the managing agency, providing input into decisions that the managing agency ultimately is legally responsible for making. The Tonasket Citizens Council, for example, operates in rural Washington State providing input into Forest Service decisions on the Okanogan National Forest (Wondolleck & Yaffee, 1994). Composed of about 40 members from diverse local groups and interests, the

Council assists the Forest Service in making decisions that balance the needs of various timber, recreation and tourism, wildlife, and watershed interests.

Towards the middle of the locus of control continuum are cooperative agreements and memorandums of understanding where responsibilities and resources are negotiated and shared between a managing authority and various stakeholder groups. For example, Mill Creek Canyon is a popular recreation area about an hour's drive from Salt Lake City, Utah. Unfortunately, high-density recreation use of this National Forest land had led to high rates of vandalism causing extensive damage to picnic and trail areas and severe degradation of water quality in Mill Creek (Wondolleck & Yaffee, 1994). In an innovative response to this problem, the Forest Service forged a Memorandum of Understanding with the County Boards of Public Health and Parks and Recreation where the County administered a day use recreation fee and then donated a portion of the proceeds back to the Forest Service for rehabilitation work in the Canyon. In addition, this Memorandum of Understanding led to the organising of an Interagency Canyon Management Team to coordinate future joint projects in the Canyon.

In some partnership cases, authority and responsibility are transferred from the managing agency to some stakeholder group. One of the best examples of this in the United States is the partnership between the Appalachian Mountain Club (AMC) and the USDA Forest Service. Since 1908, the AMC, through a series of cooperative agreements, has been responsible for constructing and maintaining hiking trails within several National Forests in New England (Jacobi & Wellman, 1983). These responsibilities have expanded over the years to include constructing and operating a system of mountain huts, providing interpretive programmes, and operating shuttle services for hikers. AMC members now maintain over 1500 miles of hiking trails in the Appalachian Mountains.

At the right end of the locus of control continuum are partnerships where stakeholder groups exert primary control over decision making. Public tourism or natural resource management agencies may provide technical assistance, grant support, or serve as members of the partnership. However, the partnership itself is legally autonomous in its decision making. The Tennessee Overhill Heritage Tourism Association (TOHTA) is an example of this type of tourism partnership (McAllister & Zimet, 1994). Organised in 1990, the TOHTA is a three-county corporation whose board is composed of 34 members of diverse local stakeholder groups. According to their strategic plan, the TOHTA, 'is an alliance of communities, historic and natural sites, the public and private sector, and individuals working to share with visitors the Appalachian experience in the Overhill country by showcasing the river stories, the forests, the Cherokee experience, and company towns created by industrialisation and the coming of the railroad' (p. 19). While the TOHTA has received technical assistance and grant support from a number of federal, state, and private agencies, they exert primary control over support for projects and programmes that relate to the heritage and culture of the region.

In Figure 3, geographic scale is plotted against the degree of organisational diversity and size. At one end of the continuum, tourism partnerships are relatively homogenous with a smaller number of partners from one sector, for example, from either the commercial, non-profit, or government sectors. At the

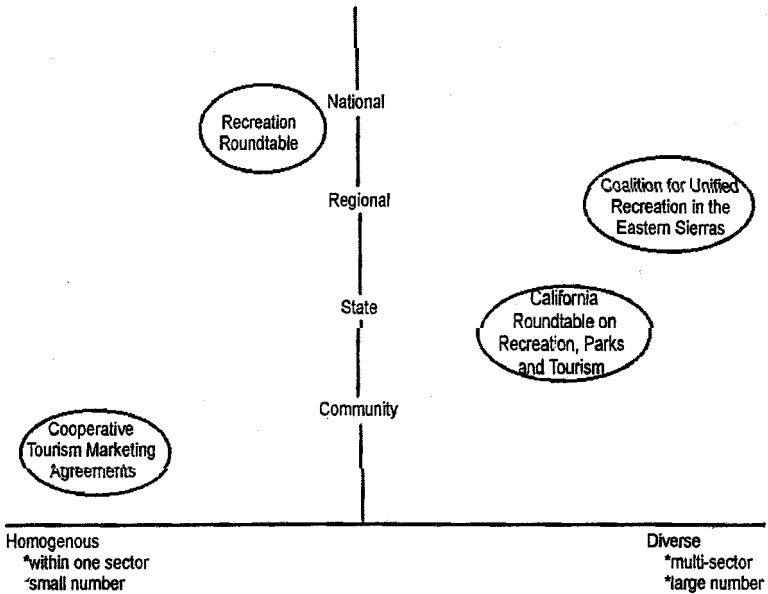


Figure 3 Geographic scale by organisational diversity and size

other end of the continuum are partnerships that are quite diverse, often with organisational partners from all three sectors and usually with a larger set of partners. Cooperative tourism marketing arrangements are a good example of relatively homogenous tourism partnerships. These partnerships range from community-based ventures where, for example, a downhill ski resort provides a discounted rate if skiers arrive with a receipt from a local pizza shop to national partnerships between airline carriers, hotels, and rental car companies to provide frequent flyer miles and awards to loyal customers.

Another example of a homogenous tourism partnership, though national in scale and with a larger set of partners, is the Recreation Roundtable (Recreation Roundtable, 1998). Founded in 1989, the Recreation Roundtable is composed of Chief Executive Officers from some of the largest recreation and tourism companies in the United States including L.L. Bean, Walt Disney Attractions, Times Mirror Magazines, Recreation Equipment, Inc. and many others. The full Roundtable meets twice annually although committees and task forces are active throughout the year. The goal of the Recreation Roundtable is to influence public policy affecting outdoor recreation and to enhance recreation opportunities in America. Roundtable initiatives have led to an increase in funding for federal recreation programmes of the Forest Service and National Park Service and led to the initiation of a National Scenic Byways Program. While these tourism partnerships fall within our conceptual definition of tourism partnerships, some would question how often one sector partnerships actually result in sustainable

outcomes, being driven by the values of only one sector rather than integrating the values of multiple sectors.

Two examples from California illustrate more diverse, multi-sector tourism partnerships. At a state level, the California Roundtable on Recreation, Parks, and Tourism, initiated in 1996, has about 45 members representing the tourism industry, public land agencies, user groups and environmental organisations, as well as recreation equipment manufacturers and retailers (Seal, 1997). The Roundtable is involved in a number of initiatives including advocating increased funding for state and national parks, restructuring contracts between the government and private companies, and coordinating an outreach programme to publicise outdoor recreation to the state's various ethnic and cultural groups.

The Coalition for Unified Recreation in the Eastern Sierra (CURES) is a broad-based tourism partnership dedicated to preserving the Eastern Sierra's natural, cultural, and economic resources and enhancing the experiences of visitors and residents (Selin & Myers, 1998). Comprised of over 90 members representing over 50 different federal, state, and local government agencies, tourism businesses, user groups, and environmental organisations, CURES was initiated to provide comprehensive, coordinated planning for outdoor recreation resources in the Eastern Sierra region. CURES initiatives have led to completion of a regional marketing plan, visitor information/multi-media kiosks, and several scenic byway enhancement projects. In each of these cases, the joint information search, visioning, implementation, and monitoring activities engaged in by members of diverse tourism sectors has led to a number of sustainable outcomes.

In Figure 4, geographic scale is plotted against the time frame of the respective tourism partnership. At the left end of the continuum are tourism partnerships with a short time frame. These partnerships are convened temporarily, often to solve some pressing problem or take advantage of some important opportunity, and then participants return to their respective organisations and interests. Many of these ephemeral partnerships are informal in their structure. At the other end of the continuum are tourism partnerships with a longer time frame. Many of these partnerships are institutionalised in their legal form and structure as well as their decision-making practices.

Tourism partnerships with a shorter time frame can be illustrated by the inter-agency steering committee convened to assist the town of Dubois, Wyoming in designing and raising funds to support the construction of a National Bighorn Sheep Center in the community just south of Yellowstone National Park (Wondolleck & Yaffee, 1994). During its operation, the steering committee included representatives from the Town of Dubois, the Wyoming Game and Fish Commission, Bureau of Land Management, and the Forest Service. After raising over \$1.1 million to support the construction phase of the centre, its operation and management were turned over to the Town of Dubois.

Other community-based tourism partnerships with a short time frame have convened to manage urban growth. For example, the population of Jackson Hole, Wyoming, located within the shadow of the Teton Mountain range and Yellowstone National Park, doubled in the 1970s and early 1980s (Howe *et al.*, 1997). Many local residents were displaced by the rising cost of living – housing prices have tripled in the past 15 years. In 1995, both Teton County and Jackson

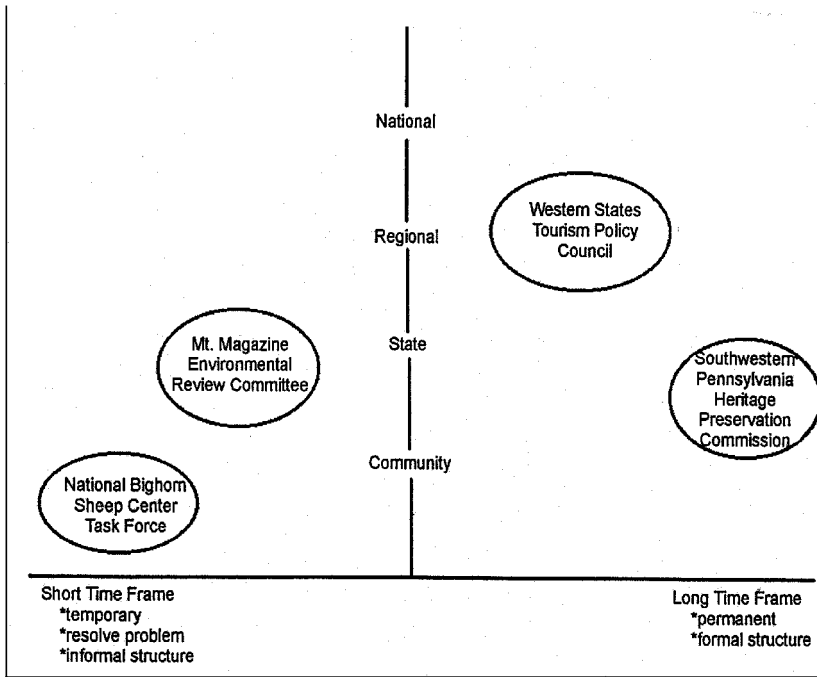


Figure 4 Geographic scale by time frame

Hole adopted new land-use plans to preserve the natural resources of the area and the character of the community. These plans were enacted after a series of public workshops held around the county and sponsored by 47 different community organisations. Success in implementing these plans was largely attributed to the impetus coming from the community to control the rate of community growth.

Finally, in Arkansas, an Environmental Review Committee (ERC) convened to facilitate the construction of a new lodge at Mt. Magazine State Park which serves as another example of a partnership with a shorter time frame (Wondolleck & Yaffee, 1994). The ERC was composed of a diverse set of stakeholders including the Arkansas Natural Heritage Commission, the Arkansas Nature Conservancy, the Arkansas Game and Fish Commission and the Arkansas River Valley Area Council. The ERC provided a sounding board to both the Arkansas State Parks Authority and the Forest Service throughout the planning process and served as a liaison between these agencies and all interested stakeholder groups. The committee was dissolved once the planning process was complete.

Tourism partnerships can also have a much longer time frame and more permanent, formal structure. The Western States Tourism Policy Council is a regional partnership composed of tourism directors from eight western states (Seal, 1997). The Tourism Policy Council's goal is to influence public policy towards enhancing outdoor recreation opportunities on public lands in the West. The Council has taken on a number of initiatives including sponsoring an annual conference last attended by more than 440 participants from 13 states. The

success of the Tourism Policy Council has led to ambitious plans for the future to coordinate efforts between public land managers and tourism industry officials.

One final example of a more permanent and formal tourism partnership is the Southwestern Pennsylvania Heritage Preservation Commission (SWPHPC), established by Congress in 1986 to coordinate efforts to preserve, protect, and interpret the industrial heritage of the region (National Park Service, 1992). The 21-member Commission has representatives from each of the nine counties, the Pennsylvania Historic and Museum Commission, the National Park Service, and several Planning and Development Commissions. The SWPHPC receives federal funding to support community-based heritage preservation projects. In its mission to support community partnerships, the SWPHPC works through both Technical Advisory Groups as well as County Heritage Committees. The SWPHPC is an excellent example of a federally mandated partnership that disburses federal funds to support community-based heritage preservation projects.

Discussion and Conclusions

It is quite evident from this typology of tourism partnerships that collaboration can take on many different forms in response to a variety of societal forces. It is ironic that at a time when competitive pressures are mounting, many tourism stakeholders are choosing to engage in joint decision making and resource sharing. It is premature though simply to congratulate ourselves and move on. Tourism partnerships are still underdeveloped due to many geographic, organisational, and political constraints. It will take a concerted effort from many sectors to ensure that current and emerging tourism partnerships contribute to the sustainable future of the field.

It is also clear from this typology that tourism partnerships evolve dynamically. For example, related to the locus of control dimension, tourism and natural resource management agencies are under increasing public pressure to adopt more participatory planning and management methods (Selin & Chavez, 1995). So, in Figure 2, there is a trend within the tourism and environmental management fields to move towards the right side of this locus of control continuum, giving additional rights and responsibilities to various stakeholder groups. However, there has been a backlash against this trend towards more stakeholder control. Conservative resource managers fear collaborative initiatives will lead to a loss of agency power and influence while representatives of national environmental groups are loathe to see hard-fought environmental laws circumvented by community-based collaboration. McClosky (1996) fears that industry and small local minorities have the potential to coopt the collaborative process or veto actions that may be in the national interest. Emerging tourism partnerships must be monitored closely to ensure that their outcomes are truly sustainable and equitable in their distribution of benefits and costs.

It should be noted that this typology of tourism partnerships only captures one facet of the contextual diversity that characterises partnerships and collaboration in the field. Future typologies could integrate many other partnership attributes including diverse purposes, informal versus formal structure, partner characteristics, and initiating factors, to mention a few. Future work might also

incorporate an international perspective to the geographic scale dimension. However, this emerging work does begin to identify those internal and external factors that tourism partnerships evolve in response to and seek to influence.

This work should also be useful to tourism managers interested in initiating or building the capacity of ongoing collaborative efforts. By better understanding the diversity of forms partnerships take in response to societal pressures, managers can begin to design partnerships that provide the appropriate response to resolving intractable problems or taking advantage of significant opportunities. Managers can learn from the experience of partnerships elaborated here and avoid some of the mistakes that often plague the early stages of partnership development. For example, one clear lesson to emerge from these cases is the suggestion that the way to enhance public ownership and support of partnership outcomes is to provide meaningful opportunities for public involvement throughout the planning process.

Partnerships and collaboration have come of age in the tourism field. However, our understanding of how partnerships form and how to build the capacity of appropriate collaborative ventures has lagged behind developments in the field. Hopefully, special issues like this can serve as a signpost to tourism operators, planners, and academics interested in how partnerships and collaboration can contribute to the future sustainability of tourism both globally and locally.

Correspondence

Any correspondence should be directed to Dr Steve Selin, Associate Professor, Division of Forestry, PO BOX 6125, West Virginia University, Morgantown, WV 26506-6125, USA (sselin@wvu.edu).

References

- Borrini-Feyerabend, G. (1997) *Collaborative Management of Protected Areas: Tailoring the Approach to the Context*. Switzerland: IUCN.
- Collins, A., Constantz, G., Hunter, S. and Selin, S. (1998) Collaborative watershed planning: The West Virginia experience. *Conservation Voices* 1 (2), 31–35.
- Darrow, K. (1995) A partnership model for nature tourism in the eastern Caribbean Islands. *Journal of Travel Research* 33, 48–51.
- Gray, B. (1985) Conditions facilitating interorganizational collaboration. *Human Relations* 38 (10), 911–936.
- Gray, B. (1989) *Collaborating*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Howe, J., McMahon, E. and Propst, L. (1997) *Balancing Nature and Commerce in Gateway Communities*. Washington, DC: Island Press.
- Hunter, C. (1997) Sustainable tourism as an adaptive paradigm. *Annals of Tourism Research* 24 (4), 850–867.
- Jacobi, C.D. and Wellman, J.D. (1983) Recreation management in cooperation with nonprofit organizations: Pros and cons. *Journal of Forestry* 8 (9), 589–592.
- Jamal, T.B. and Getz, D. (1995) Collaborative theory and community tourism planning. *Annals of Tourism Research* 22 (1), 186–204.
- Levesque, C.A. (1995) Northern Forest Lands Council: A planning model for use of regional natural resource land. *Journal of Forestry* 93 (6), 36–38.
- McAllister, W.K. and Zimet, D. (1994) *Collaborative Planning: Cases in Economic and Community Diversification*. Durham, NH: USDA–Forest Service.
- McCann, J.E. (1983) Design guidelines for social problem-solving interventions. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science* 19, 177–189.

- McCloskey, M. (1996) The limits of collaboration. *Harper's Magazine*, November, pp. 34–36.
- National Park Service (1992) *Comprehensive Management Plan for the Southwestern Pennsylvania Heritage Preservation Commission*. Denver, CO: NPS.
- Poffenberger, M. and Selin, S. (eds) (1998) *Communities and Forest Management in Canada and the United States*. Berkeley, CA: WG-CIFM.
- Recreation Roundtable (1998) *The Recreation Roundtable*. Available from <http://www.funoutdoors.com/rndtable.html>.
- Seal, K. (1997) Tourism, public-land official seek accord. *Hotel and Motel Management* 212, 3, 8.
- Selin, S.W. (1993) Collaborative alliances: New interorganizational forms in tourism. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing* 2 (2), 217–227.
- Selin, S. and Chavez, D. (1995) Developing a collaborative model for environmental planning and management. *Environmental Management* 19 (2), 189–195.
- Selin, S.W. and Myers, N.A. (1998) Tourism marketing alliances: Member satisfaction and effectiveness attributes of a regional initiative. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing* 7 (3), 79–93.
- Selin, S., Schuett, M. and Carr, D. (1998) Developing a model of collaborative initiative effectiveness. Unpublished manuscript, West Virginia University.
- Sitarz, D. (ed.) (1998) *Sustainable America*. Carbondale, IL: Earthpress.
- Texas Parks and Wildlife Department and Texas Department of Commerce (1997) *Nature Tourism in the Lone Star State, Economic Opportunities in Nature*. Austin, TX: State Task Force on Texas Nature Tourism.
- USDA Forest Service (1997) *Forest Plan Revision: Fitting the Pieces of Forest Management Together*. White Mountain National Forest, VT: USDA Forest Service.
- Waddock, S.A. (1989) Understanding social partnerships: An evolutionary model of partnership organizations. *Administration and Society* 21 (1), 78–100.
- Williams, E.M., and Ellefson, P.V. (1996) *Natural Resource Partnerships: Factors Leading to Cooperative Success in the Management of Landscape Level Ecosystems Involving Mixed Ownership*. St Paul, MN: University of Minnesota.
- Wondolleck, J.M. and Yaffee, S.L. (1994) *Building Bridges Across Agency Boundaries: In Search of Excellence in the United States Forest Service*. Ann Arbor, MI: USDA-Forest Service.
- Yaffee, S.L., Phillips, A.F., Frenzt, I.C., Hardy, P.W., Maleki, S.M. and Thorpe, B.E. (1996) *Ecosystem Management in the United States: An Assessment of Current Experience*. Washington, DC: Island Press.