TOURISM DESTINATION MARKETING ALLIANCES

Adrian Palmer
De Montfort University, UK
David Bejou
University of North Carolina at Wilmington, USA

Abstract: Tourism destination marketing involves many stakeholders and a complex product offer. Complexity and interdependency among stakeholders have resulted in the creation of many local tourism marketing alliances. The nature of their environments influences the domain over which they have authority. This paper uses a model describing the coverage, form, mode, and motivation of an alliance. A comparison of UK and USA alliances indicates that the domain of the latter are more constrained by the social, economic, and political environment in which they operate. Prescriptions for local tourism marketing alliances should not be made without understanding the needs of stakeholders and the constraints of their environments. Keywords: destination marketing, collaboration, collaborative alliances, United Kingdom, United States.

INTRODUCTION

The proportion of GDP spent on tourism related activities has increased significantly during recent decades. The World Tourism Organization (1987) has estimated that tourism—loosely defined—accounts for about 3.4% of GDP in the United Kingdom and 4.6% of GDP in the United States; while the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) has estimated that within member countries, each $1 billion of additional tourism spending creates 33,000 new jobs through a multiplier effect. As a means of gener-
ating local economic prosperity, tourism has often come to play a role previously attributed to manufacturing. Additionally, tourism can enable public authorities to achieve a variety of social objectives, such as improving the physical environment of an area.

As the demand for tourism services has increased, many public and private sector organizations have recognized a potential for adding to tourism supply in areas that were previously not considered attractive destinations for tourists. In this way, once derelict industrial sites have been transformed into tourism attractions. However, aspiring destinations face problems not shared with established "honeypots," where the supply of tourism infrastructure has been built up over time and the promotional program is aimed at managing demand rather than increasing demand per se. Aspiring destinations often start from a low level of infrastructure and negative attitudes from consumers who still associate the area with nontourism uses.

The total product offer of a tourism destination is complex, with both tangible and intangible dimensions. Tangibility is provided by the physical stock of hotels, visitor attractions, means of access, parking facilities etc. Intangibility is provided by the image of an area, augmented for example with historical associations. The complexity of the marketing task is compounded by the fragmented nature of the stakeholders who are responsible for components of the total offer. Tourists may typically select among destinations on the basis of the total set of destination attributes, rendering individual firms' marketing planning of limited value if it does not relate to strategies of other suppliers in the total offer.

The Need for Collaborative Tourism Destination Marketing

A "free market" solution to tourism destination marketing in which there is no collaboration among stakeholders gives rise to a number of potential problems for them. First, individually, stakeholders could create less promotional impact on potential visitors than a promotional campaign in which resources were pooled. In an increasingly competitive marketplace, the ability to create greater levels of awareness may give advantage to a poorly understood destination. By pooling efforts, all organizations involved can achieve economies of scale (Reid 1987).

Second, market mechanisms fail to support and share the benefits of collective promotion of an area. If half of the tourism businesses in an area paid for a campaign to promote their area, there would be little possibility of excluding the non-contributing businesses from benefiting from the additional business which a promotion campaign generated. Three, in the marketing planning process, stakeholders can achieve their objectives more effectively by recognizing their interdependencies. Strategic planning for the private sector can be made difficult in the absence of input from the public sector, for example in respect of the latter's strategic plans for developing access roads and sewerage facilities.

Alliances between the private and public sectors are particularly attractive in destination marketing, because there is usually a congruence of objectives between the two sectors—attracting more tourists
can benefit not only the narrow financial objectives of tourism operators, but also the more diverse social objectives of the public sector. There has been an increasing recognition of their value in tourism marketing (Boivin 1987; Crompton 1990; Gunn 1988; Stevens 1988).

Despite the potential advantages of tourism destination marketing alliances, they are not universal. Stakeholders may perceive little potential for tourism development, and therefore little benefit from investing in an alliance. On the other hand, stakeholders in tourism "honeypot" areas may perceive no need to take any additional collaborative action to attract visitors. Where the need to attract additional achievable business is recognized, there may be reluctance by stakeholders to be drawn into an alliance, based on a historical mistrust of potential alliance partners.

The interdependency of organizations involved in producing and promoting the tourism destination product provides a basis for the development of a co-marketing alliance. This arises from a recognition and understanding that the success of each organization in a market depends in part on other organizations and that two or more of them can collectively achieve more than the sum of each individuals' own efforts (Anderson and Narus 1990). While manufacturers and distributors have a long history of collaborating to add value and/or reduce costs of the final product (Frazier, Spekman and O'Neil 1988, Johnston and Lawrence 1988), collaboration among organizations at the same level of a value added chain has become increasingly important.

The advocates of strategic contingencies theory argue that it is the interdependence among organizations that cause them to engage in joint efforts (Pfeffer and Salancick 1978; Schmidt and Kochan 1977). Co-marketing alliances can have a risk reduction function for their members. Faced with functional specialization in one aspect of the tourism product and a scarcity of resources, organizations seek to reduce environmental uncertainty by exchanging resources for mutual benefit (Frazier 1983; Pfeffer and Salanick 1978). An important element of this exchange is information. Interdependence alone is not sufficient to bring about collaboration. The collaborators must also recognize that the benefits of joint attempts are of great importance and outweigh the costs and the loss of autonomy that they must relinquish to partners.

The literature on co-marketing alliances identifies a number of underlying reasons for their creation. Within a political economy framework (Reve 1992; Stern and Reve 1980), alliances have been analyzed combining resource dependency theory (Pfeffer and Salancick 1978), transaction cost analysis (Williamson 1975), and relational exchange theory (Macneil 1974, 1980). Collins and Doorley (1991) suggest four essential features of an alliance: joint dependency, collaboration, an impact on competitive position, and longevity of the relationship. Based on this view, a strategic alliance is a joining together (by means of dependency and collaboration) of two or more organizations over a given time period in order to gain a competitive advantage.

Although comarketing alliances have traditionally been considered the domain of private sector organizations, a growing body of research
has sought to identify the antecedents of successful public-private sector alliances (Waddock 1989).

**Types of Collaborative Tourism Marketing**

While some collaboration is essential for tourism destination marketing, the nature of collaborative agreements varies widely. At one extreme, alliances can be formed with clearly defined goals and relationships between members of the alliance. At the other, collaboration can represent a latent understanding among members with little formal specification of objectives or relationships.

A number of attempts have been made to develop a taxonomy of co-marketing alliance types. A useful approach to studying the diversity of tourism alliances is to build on the taxonomy of Terpstra and Simonin (1993). In a synthesis of the work of a number of researchers (Bleeke and Ernst 1991; Ohmae 1989; Porter and Fuller 1986), they identify four distinguishing characteristics of an alliance: coverage, form, mode, and motive. By analyzing these four dimensions of an alliance, a measure of its maturity can be established. A poorly developed, or immature alliance is one which has only limited coverage, a loosely structured form and an informal mode of operation. Immaturity may itself result from a low level of motivation on the part of collaborators to develop a more deeper alliance.

The first characteristic of an alliance is **coverage** refers to the extensiveness of an alliance in terms of its functional competencies and geographical coverage (Bleeke and Ernst 1991). Simple alliances confine their shared activities to narrow product/market areas, specific areas of marketing mix activity (e.g., advertising) or close geographic areas.

A mature alliance is one that maximizes the control its members are able to exercise over their environment. Where competitive product areas are excluded from the activities of the alliance, the control that members of the alliance are able to exercise over their environment is lessened. Control is also lessened by restricting the alliance's activity to narrowly specified marketing functions.

The most basic coverage of tourism marketing alliances is provided by single sector alliances (e.g., ones restricted to hotels or restaurants) whose purpose is defined narrowly in terms of producing a joint publicity brochure, or agreeing joint representation at exhibitions. A more mature alliance would seek to exercise greater control over the marketing mix of the tourism product as more broadly defined.

A constraint on the development of coverage is the possibility of antitrust legislation being invoked against a horizontal alliance which is able to control its environment in such a way that the choice available to customers is restricted. In the case of local tourism marketing alliances, the existence of competing destinations lessens the antitrust implications.

The **form** of an alliance, as the second characteristic, may show a number of levels of development (Terpstra and Simonin 1993). The least developed form is a nonequity agreement, in which members of
the alliance agree on methods of operation, joint promotion, etc., which are to their mutual benefit, but their financial independence is maintained. A more developed alliance is the joint venture, in which two or more members collaborate on a specific project. While members retain their financial independence, the alliance may involve investing in a "child" project, or agreeing to exchange resources. The most evolved form of alliance occurs where two or more alliance members buy an equity stake in other alliance members, increasing the financial dependency of members to each other.

Loosely formed alliances of tourism related organizations occur commonly—most hoteliers' associations have little formality about them and no financial interdependence. Joint ventures in tourism occur where a number of interested parties contribute resources to develop a tourism product whose total benefit to potential customers is greater than the sum that all members could offer independently. Multi-purpose conference centers are often the product of a joint venture between property companies, hoteliers, tourism services operators and local authorities. Joint ventures may evolve to the point where the parent organizations buy a financial stake in each other.

As the third characteristic of an alliance, the mode describes the intrinsic nature of the relationship among members (Terpstra and Simonin 1993). While legislation and/or popular opinion may be crucial to initiate the process of coalition formation, commitment to the coalition from the senior management of collaborators has been seen as crucial to its continuing success (Ackerman and Bower 1976, Murray 1976). If a partner only assigns junior staff to the collaboration, this may be seen as a lack of commitment by other partners who send more senior staff. If junior staff have only limited decision-making power, the momentum of the alliance may be delayed by the need to refer decisions back to the partner institutions for approval. A crucial role is played by an identifiable "convener" who has the authority and status to bring key collaborators together.

A great deal of attention has been given to the differences in cultural values which can occur between the public and private sector members of an alliance (Rainey 1983; Ring and Perry 1985). Pre-conceived stereotypes of the other party can inhibit the development of joint problem solving activity, for example in the way private sector members may perceive public sector collaborators as being overpaid and underworked. Team building to gain shared values facilitates the effectiveness of the alliance. The problem of differing cultural values can be particularly problematic in tourism alliances where public sector inputs, such as roads, are typically provided by officers working in a bureaucratic planning environment subject to political constraints, while private sector operators face the rigors of a market environment.

Motives, the fourth and final characteristic, refer to the underlying reason for the creation of an alliance. These can include a desire to internalize the core competencies of other alliance members, achieving economies in advertising and intelligence gathering, the joint development of new facilities and making a stronger case for the acquisition of resources.

Alliances can develop as a result of a legal mandate (Raelin 1980),
which may itself result from social pressure. In some instances, a perceived crisis may facilitate the process of coalition formation, as where the closure of a major manufacturing industry prompts government to create a new agency to exploit tourism potential (Fosler and Berger 1982; Gricar and Brown 1981).

In addition to popularly held beliefs which facilitate collaboration, the visionary leadership of individuals may be instrumental in initiating a partnership. A "champion" of collaboration can be a key factor in turning a general idea into a specific proposal that can be operationalized by potential collaborators (Gray 1985).

The motivation for creating a tourism marketing alliance is likely to be greatest where opportunities are perceived as being available within a competitive environment. Opportunities may occur, for example, through recognizing the tourism related uses which a collective redevelopment of disused industrial assets may provide. In such a situation, other tourism facilities available within tourists' choice-set represents threats to alliance members.

COLLABORATIVE MARKETING ORGANIZATIONS

While the underlying need to attract tourists through collaborative alliances may differ little among countries, the social, economic, and political environments have impacts on the nature of such collaboration. Environment affects the motivation to create an alliance and the coverage, mode and form which any resulting alliance takes. In this study, the nature of local tourism alliances in the United Kingdom and United States are compared.

Two types of stakeholders are common to both the UK and USA; tourism operators (who can be seen as a stakeholder in the collaborative process, but who may in turn be regarded as the primary customers of collaborative bodies); and state government (including federal government in the United States and the European Community in the United Kingdom).

In the UK framework, District and County Councils each have responsibility for tangible elements of the tourism infrastructure (e.g., roads and parking) and have an interest in securing the economic and social benefits of increased levels of tourism. In a number of areas, Urban Development Corporations have responsibilities for facilitating the development of infrastructure. In addition, a number of collaborative urban and rural regeneration organizations exist whose main purpose is in areas other than tourism. A considerable amount of collaborative tourism marketing takes place through ad hoc associations of tourism operators (e.g., local hotel or restaurant associations). These tend to be informally structured with few, if any, permanent staff. Sometimes such associations are used by other stakeholders as a channel through which promotional expenditure can be directed, or through which consultation in the planning process can be undertaken (Gunn 1988). Such associations seldom assume much coverage, often not extending beyond promotional activities. This, combined with their informal structure and processes, makes them a relatively undeveloped form of alliance.
The most developed form of UK tourism alliance is associated with Tourism Development Action Programs (TDAPs). TDAPs are an initiative of the English Tourist Board, a government sponsored body that acts as a facilitator in bringing together interested collaborators. They are created for an initial three year period and are charged with taking a comprehensive and integrated approach to the development and marketing of tourism in an area. Strategic plans for the development of the tourism product benefit by the active involvement of the main public and private sector partners, giving advantages over the production of a series of isolated plans by the partners. Implementation can be facilitated by giving loans or grants from the TDAP budget for projects which in isolation may be financially unattractive, but add significantly to the capacity of the area as a whole to attract tourist spending. Early TDAPs had a very loose separate identity, relying largely on temporary staff from sponsoring partners. More recent TDAPs have been incorporated as autonomous limited companies, making the organization more attractive to private sector partners, allowing for recruitment of dedicated rather than temporary staff and making an extension of the TDAP easier after its initial 3-year term expires.

An example of a collaborative TDAP is the Leeds TDAP created in 1991 which involved funding from Leeds City Council, Leeds Development Corporation, British Waterways, the English Tourist Board, and a number of hotel and visitor attraction operators. By January 1992, 26 TDAPs had been created in England.

In the United States, City and County government assume broadly similar responsibilities for tourism as their English counterparts, principally in relation to transportation and public utilities. As in England, a variety of social partnerships have ancillary impacts on tourism, for example downtown area restoration projects. A variety of voluntary collaborative tourism associations also exist, for example local hotel associations. One stakeholder in the American system which does not have a direct English equivalent is the Chamber of Commerce. These generally receive compulsory fees from businesses in an area and are charged with the task of representing the interests of members. This can include collaborative promotion and representing interests of members where these are threatened by legislative proposals. In many areas, Chambers of Commerce are the main forum for collaboration among tourism operators. However, where a sufficiently strong coalition of tourism organizations has existed within a Chamber, there has been strong motivation to create a collaborative body with a specific focus on tourism. The motivation coming from within a Chamber has often been combined with a desire by other public and private sector agencies to create such a body. A common result has been the development of Visitor and Convention Bureaus (VCBs).

The Visitor and Convention Bureaus can be regarded as the most developed form of local tourism marketing alliance in the United States. They vary in their authority and organization and while most are nominally independent of government, some are administered as just another department within a county's authority. They also vary in size and responsibilities. While many smaller VCBs operate with a few
staff members whose main duty is to promote inward tourism, some VCBs in major tourism areas become heavily involved in operational functions—for example, in operating visitor centers or organizing sightseeing services.

The funding for VCBs reflects their diverse size and organizational structure. Most are supported by local tax revenues, often in the form of directly attributable sales taxes on facilities used by tourists. Like TDAPs, VCBs generally only exist in areas where there is popular support for their introduction among potential collaborators.

The principal stakeholders in the two tourism marketing systems are shown in Figure 1. Alliances are shown as the focal point of the system, although individual stakeholders may regard themselves as the focus for an integrated tourism marketing strategy. Figure 1 shows the principal flows of finance and communication, which are both components of collaboration and mutual dependency.

Comparing Models of Collaboration

Tourism destination marketing faces broadly similar challenges in both the United Kingdom and the United States, with the total product offer showing the same characteristics of complexity in a competitive marketplace. However, the nature of collaborative marketing alliances, formed in response to broadly similar needs, differs between the two countries. It is apparent that differences in the economic, political, and social environments of the two countries have resulted in differences in the level of collaboration achieved. A highly evolved form of collaboration is one where stakeholders invest heavily and create mutual dependencies which collectively improve the marketing of a destination.

The notion that environmental differences between the two countries has influenced the level of evolution achieved by local tourism marketing alliances, and hence the ability of an area to attract visitors away from competing destinations, was investigated by reference to a sample of 54 alliances. The sample comprised the most highly developed form of public-private sector local tourism alliances present in the tourism system of each country. In the United States, these were the Visitor and Convention Bureaus (sometimes called Convention and Visitor Bureaus) and in England tourism development companies associated with Tourism Development Action Programs. Of the 54 alliances, 37 were Visitor and Convention Bureaus located throughout the southeastern United States. The remaining 17 were tourism development companies associated with TDAPs located throughout England. In order to try and exclude differences in collaboration which could be attributed to the product rather than the social, political, and economic environments, "honeypot" destinations were excluded. The sample focused on destinations where visitors had to be carefully encouraged, rather than having to be managed through weight of numbers.

Research was undertaken using a combination of qualitative methods through personal visits (5 from each sample) and a 54 item questionnaire sent to 67 Visitor and Convention Bureaus in the USA and a
Figure 1. Stakeholders, Fund Flows, and Communication Flows of Tourism Alliances in (a) the United States and (b) the United Kingdom
slightly modified 42 item questionnaire sent to 24 tourism development companies in the United Kingdom (response rates were 55.2% and 70.8%, respectively).

**Study Findings**

The sample of tourism alliances was divided into two groups—the first comprising those operating in the United Kingdom (England) and the second group those operating in the United States. Comparison of the two samples focused on the four constructs coverage, form, mode, and motive described earlier.

In terms of the **coverage** of alliances, the UK sample showed much greater maturity in the range of activities covered. A qualitative analysis of the organizations' mission statements indicated that the UK organizations had defined their missions in a way which embraced strategic marketing planning, whereas the US VCBs defined their mission much more narrowly in terms of promotion. Interviews with managers of the organizations suggested that the narrower mission statement of the US organizations reflected a greater level of distrust which US citizens have in bodies connected with government and central planning. It was also apparent that the greater self-confidence and entrepreneurship of American tourism operators limited the level of enthusiasm for a collaborative alliance, whereas the operators of UK tourism businesses more readily accepted the role of centralized planning. It followed that the mission statements of the UK sample of alliances covered more strategic aspects of the marketing of an area. All except 2 of the UK sample (12%) had a mission statement which spoke about developing strategic tourism marketing plans in some form, compared to 46% of the US sample which made no reference to this function.

The quantitative analysis of functions performed by alliances indicated an emphasis by the US sample on operational aspects of collaboration (Table 1). Promotional campaigns, the operation of visitor centers, and hotel booking services were more often undertaken by the US sample, in contrast to the collection and dissemination of marketing

---

**Table 1. Functions Performed by the Sample of Tourism Alliances**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>UK Sample</th>
<th>US Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Promotions of the area at exhibitions and in press, etc.</td>
<td>86.5</td>
<td>76.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotel booking facility for incoming visitors</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Routine collection of marketing research info</td>
<td>91.9</td>
<td>94.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular dissemination of information to local tourism organizations</td>
<td>81.1</td>
<td>88.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operation of a visitor center</td>
<td>86.5</td>
<td>29.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total sample size</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
research information which was more likely to have been undertaken by the UK sample.

Funding for alliances affected their form. The US sample received an average of 46% of their total income in the form of contributions from sales/room occupancy taxes. By contrast, very little came from grants made for specific purposes (5% on average) and even less by way of contributions from tourism operators (.02% of total revenue). The continuous flow of funds from sales taxes contrasted with a discrete project based approach to the funding of the UK sample of alliances. None of the UK sample received mandated sources of taxation revenue, but instead received a range of grants and loans from stakeholders which generally had to be justified on a case by case approach.

Tourism operators did not in general have equity interests in the USA sample of alliances, in contrast to the UK sample where it was common for local authorities and tourism operators to contribute to the company in three principal ways: buying shares in the company, making loans to it and making grants or loans in respect to specific projects.

There was a lack of formality in the relationship between US VCBs and tourism operators, with 59% agreeing with the proposition that relationships were not based on written documents. About 73% agreed that relationships with tourism operators are based on informal understandings rather than specific terms and conditions. Possibly on account of the direct financial relationship between itself and tourism operators, the UK sample saw a higher degree of formality in their relationships (comparable figures were 48% and 60%).

Two thirds of US respondents stated that their organizations were completely independent of county and city government. By contrast, all of the UK sample claimed to be independent (indeed legislation required them to be independent in order for the full benefits of collaboration to be achieved).

The survey revealed a number of differences in the mode, or intrinsic nature of the sample of UK and US alliances. The first point of difference occurred in the size of the governing bodies, which in the US organizations tended to be larger (9.3 members) than the UK sample (7.2). This partly reflected the perception of VCBs as being more publicly accountable than their UK counterparts and, therefore, there was greater pressure to provide adequate representation for important interest groups on the governing body. In the UK sample, the size of the governing body was determined to a greater extent by the business needs of the organization.

The ability of alliances to develop good working relationships with local tourism operators may have been reflected in the observation that only 30% of the sample of US alliances had heads who had significant management experience in the tourism industry, compared to 52% in the UK. The US heads were perceived as being more likely to be political appointees rather than people appointed for their knowledge of the tourism industry.

The primary Motive for the creation of the UK alliances was the desire to draw in new sources of external finance. One external stimulus was the availability of funding from the English Tourist Board for
the creation of Tourism Development Action Programs, from which many tourism development companies were created. Funds were only made available if they were matched locally by private and public sector partners. The desire by local government for an autonomous joint equity venture was increased by legislation that required the company's expenditure to be included within an authority's maximum permitted expenditure, unless it could be demonstrated that the company operated at "arms length" from the authority and was not controlled by it.

The stimulus to the development of the US sample of VCBs derived from both the private and public sectors. For the former, a VCB allowed greater focus than was possible within the general purpose remit of a Chamber of Commerce. For local government, the creation of a VCB was seen as a means of focusing effort on bringing prosperity to the area at little direct cost to the authority, given that the bulk of finance to operate a VCB came from specific tourism sales taxes.

CONCLUSIONS

Faced with a broadly similar marketing problem, stakeholders in the UK and US tourism industries have formed different patterns of marketing alliances. In a comparison of the most highly developed local tourism marketing alliances (Visitor and Convention Bureaus in the United States and Tourism Development Action Program companies in the United Kingdom) the latter have been shown to be more highly developed, when assessed by frequently cited criteria. However, this alone cannot necessarily suggest that the end result of the UK model is to achieve stakeholders' objectives more effectively. In comparison to their American counterparts, UK alliances showed a greater domain coverage which included more strategic marketing activity, compared to the operational and promotion-focused domain of US collaboratives. Stakeholders were more likely to be financially committed to the UK collaboratives, through stockholdings in the alliance and through investment in jointly funded projects. The financial involvement of stakeholders in the UK alliances increased the formality of their involvement, compared to the US alliances where the bulk of funding came from taxation rather than directly from stakeholders. The greater sense of involvement in UK alliances is also reflected in the higher proportion of their heads having a tourism background, and their smaller governing bodies.

The form which the most highly developed alliance has taken is a reflection of the environment in which stakeholders operate. One frequently suggested influence was their underlying social and cultural value system. The majority of stakeholders in both countries are small scale tourism businesses. American small business owners show more self-centered entrepreneurship and are less likely to rely on others for their success. Combined with this, American society as a whole shows less trust for governments than is the case in the United Kingdom. Although two thirds of Visitor and Convention Bureaus claimed to be independent of government, they were still very dependent on government mandated taxation for their continued existence. With VCBs
being perceived as an instrument of government, it is possible that the community in general—as taxpayers—sought tighter control over the growth of VCBs’ activities. The UK alliances, by contrast, had no automatic right to precept general taxation and had to justify all income which they received. As a higher percentage of this income came directly from stakeholders who would be direct beneficiaries of its success, they more likely show commitment to the alliance.

The most important generalizable conclusion from this research is that no one unique approach for creating marketing collaboratives is applicable in all business environments. There must initially be a motivation for creating a collaborative, and a champion to promote the cause of collaboration. This champion could be within a private or public sector stakeholder. The subsequent coverage, mode, and form of a collaborative will reflect the environment in which stakeholders operate. Where there is a history of mutual suspicion among stakeholders, a chicken and egg situation may be developed where a strong and respected champion has a valuable role to play in making the first suggestions for collaboration.

Acknowledgment—The authors gratefully acknowledge assistance provided by the Cahill Research and Development Fund of the University of North Carolina at Wilmington.

REFERENCES


Johnston, Russell, and Paul Lawrence

Gunn, C.

Levy, David

Macneil, Ian

Ohmae, Kenichi

Pfeffer Jeffrey, and Gerald Salanick

Porter Michael, and M. Fuller

Raciu, J.

Reid, L.

Reve, Torger

Schmidt, S., and T. Kochan

Stern, Louis, and Torger Reve

Stevens, B.

Terpstra, Vern, and Bernard Simonin

Waddock, Sandra

Williamson, Oliver

World Tourism Organization

Submitted 24 March 1994
Resubmitted 12 August 1994
Accepted 14 September 1994
Coordinating Editor: Norbert Vanhove