Entrepreneurship in island contexts: A systematic review of the tourism and hospitality literature

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ABSTRACT
Entrepreneurship is vital to the success of tourism and hospitality and the sector makes an important contribution to many island economies. Despite this, far too little attention has been paid by researchers to tourism and hospitality entrepreneurship in islands (THEI). This research helps to address this gap through a systematic review of the literature, conducted to provide a platform for further research and to help investigators set their research priorities and thereby advance understanding of this important field. Using the Scopus database and the PRISMA technique, a total of 132 articles were included in bibliometric and thematic content analyses. The review revealed that, although there has been an increase in THEI research, this has tended to focus on the Asia-Pacific region rather than the European and North American contexts. It was also found that, hitherto, the generalizability of much THEI published research is limited. It is therefore suggested that researchers consider redressing this geographical bias and conduct more quantitative and comparative THEI studies. Further opportunities exist for scholars to investigate the characteristics and behaviors of tourism and hospitality island entrepreneurs as well as the impacts of the industrial and spatial aspects of THEI. For professionals working in island economic development and business support, this research identifies many of the challenges and opportunities associated with supporting THEI.

KEYWORDS
Tourism and hospitality entrepreneurship; islands; PRISMA technique; systematic literature review; bibliometric analysis; thematic analysis; Scopus
1. Introduction

Entrepreneurs are agents of change. Entrepreneurship involves these agents identifying opportunities, taking charge to exploit them, and giving rise to new ventures (Brockhaus & Horwitz, 1986; Gartner, 1989; Cunningham & Lischeron, 1991). Entrepreneurship can be transformative (Anderson & Starnawska, 2008) and is fundamental to the success of a destination’s tourism and hospitality (Russell & Faulkner, 2004). It is then perhaps surprising that such limited attention has been given to tourism entrepreneurship in mainstream entrepreneurship journals, suggesting a lack of engagement in this field by tourism academics, and also a paucity of entrepreneurship scholars embracing tourism and hospitality as an interesting and relevant research context (Solvoll et al., 2015).

Tourism and hospitality entrepreneurship in the context of islands (abbreviated throughout as THEI) is considered an appropriate focus for examining research in this field. Islands are useful and interesting laboratories for research (Hall, 2010), partly due to their small size and boundedness, but also due to their peripherality and the complex nature and interplay of specific island characteristics that make islands both attractive as destinations and challenging to operate as such (Brown & Hall, 2000; Scott, 2000; Timothy, 2001; Nash & Martin, 2003; Weaver, 2017).

Due to their small land area, islands usually have a scarcity of resources, and with their concomitant small domestic markets they suffer from diseconomies of scale in terms of production and consumption (Royle, 1989; Butler, 1996; Kakazu, 1994; Royle & Scott, 1996; Cross & Nutley, 1999; Harrison, 2001; Andriotis, 2004). These characteristics mean that - particularly for the smallest islands and those that are located furthest from foreign markets - there are several constraints to traditional forms of economic development. Often being rural in nature, islands are likely to rely on agriculture and/or fishing industries, and with few opportunities to diversify away from these industries island businesses tend to be more vulnerable to changes in business cycles and to external conditions (Croes & Ridderstaat,
The riskier context for island businesses makes them less attractive to foreign investors and limits international trade options (Bojanic & Lo, 2016).

However, it is the geographic peripherality of islands, and their subsequent less developed and more rural landscapes, that can provide huge touristic appeal (Chaperon & Bramwell, 2011). Given the nature of islands, specializing in tourism can be the most viable economic option (Croes, 2013; Croes et al., 2018). For many years, tourism has been proposed by governments as a strategy for islands to increase their economic growth (Santana-Gallego et al., 2011; Butler, 2017). In some instances, the relative contribution of tourism to the local economy is more significant than for tourism on mainlands (Seetanah, 2011) and tourism has become critical for the economy and quality of life of many small island destinations (Hernandez-Martin, 2008).

Where international tourism is dominant in an island economy, it is often controlled by multinational companies. Islanders may be forced to accept the inevitable expansion of conventional mass tourism, where leakage of foreign exchange earnings are high, (Wilkinson, 1989; Ryan, 2001; Andriotis, 2004), and there are few alternative employment options. Small populations limit the pool of qualified human resources for international tourism, and therefore outside workers may have to be brought in, which mitigates many of the positive economic impacts of tourism for host communities (Timothy, 2001; Shakeela et al., 2011; Garcia-Almeida & Hormiga, 2017).

Further, islands tend to be open to political and/or economic domination by outside nations or land areas of larger size and/or greater resources, that are usually able to overcome any insular resistance (Weaver, 1998; Weaver, 2017). Because government is often located off-island and can frequently have different priorities and policies to those of the island population, island residents may lack political ‘clout’ in decision making (Chaperon &
Bramwell, 2013). Consequently, islands (and archipelagos, see Baldacchino et al., 2013; Baldacchino, 2015) usually experience external economic and political dependency, often in inverse proportion to their size and population, and island affairs that are important to local residents can often be overlooked (Moscardo, 2011; Chaperon & Bramwell, 2013; Sinclair-Maragh & Gursoy, 2015; Baldacchino, 2019).

Despite these complexities, islands often have no other choice but to pursue a tourism development pathway (Croes et al., 2018), and discussions of entrepreneurship in this specific context can reveal unique opportunities and barriers to entrepreneurial success, as well as those more common to mainland settings. The findings of this study can be useful for island governments and business development agencies, whether located on or off island, to better understand the challenges for tourism and hospitality entrepreneurs in the often peculiar island tourism context.

This research involved carrying out a systematic review of the THEI literature. A systematic review is a well-established method in the physical and medical sciences and is becoming increasingly popular in the social sciences (for tourism and hospitality related systematic reviews see for example Pittaway & Cope, 2007; Becken, 2013; Gross et al., 2013; Solvoll et al., 2015; Voorberg et al., 2015; Cheng et al., 2016; Gomezelj, 2016; Garces et al., 2018). Articles for this systematic review were gathered using Scopus (Elsevier, 2019a), a comprehensive database of research publications and includes only those publications that meet rigorous selection criteria, meaning that they can be relied on as representing peer-reviewed academic research. The PRISMA technique was applied to this review as a way of increasing its reliability and validity (PRISMA, 2019a). Following this technique, a set of criteria were applied to select the articles for inclusion, and a total of 132 were used. This process is explained in more detail in the Methods section. Based on this
sample of 132 publications, a bibliometric analysis and thematic content analysis were carried out.

The aim of this investigation was to more fully appreciate the range of approaches used in the THEI literature and the types of methods applied, and to better understand the kinds of issues, opportunities, and barriers that were deemed significant by both the authors and entrepreneurs under research. The findings of the systematic review are provided in two categories: First is the bibliometric analysis which presents an overview of the literature using more quantitative measurements, and second is the thematic analysis which takes a more inductive and qualitative approach to the identification and analysis of key themes in the literature. These analyses when combined allow for the creation of a model which represents the research on THEI contexts to date and gives the opportunity to identify neglected areas of research on this topic.

2. Methods
2.1. Systematic literature review and PRISMA

The systematic review method is widely applied in the physical and medical sciences and has become increasingly used within tourism and hospitality studies to synthesize the wide range of literature now published, in order to arrive at “objective, replicable, systematic, and comprehensive coverage of a defined area” (Weed, 2006). Recently, within this literature realm, the method has been applied to areas as diverse as China’s outbound tourism (Law et al., 2016), sustainability (Warren & Becken, 2017), gender (Yang et al., 2017), and tourist shopping (Jin et al., 2017).

The PRISMA methodology (PRISMA, 2019a) was used for the systematic review that formed the basis of this research. This methodology for was developed from the earlier QUORUM process, which was designed to increase the reliability of evidence produced by the review of medical trials (Moher et al., 2000). However, due to its rigorous approach and
wide usage and fields outside of medicine, it was improved and re-presented as the PRISMA method through a long, international consultation process, in order to provide benchmark for the transparent and complete reporting of systematic reviews and meta-analyses, across a range of fields (Liberati et al., 2009). The PRISMA checklist (PRISMA, 2019b) sets out the steps that should be followed to carry out a review that is replicable by other researchers and which will generate trustworthy data. Although some of these steps are only appropriate for reviews in the medical and physical sciences, the PRISMA methodology has been adapted for use in tourism research in a number of publications (for example, Stone & Duffy, 2015; Wijesinghe et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2017; Garcès et al., 2018). Using the PRISMA method, as opposed to carrying out a solely thematic or bibliometric review of the literature helps to ensure that the process of selecting and analyzing papers for inclusion is transparent and provides a clear references point for other in the field, distinguishing this research from previously published research on similar topics.

Articles for this systematic review were searched for using the Scopus (Elsevier, 2019a) database. Scopus is a widely used and comprehensive database of research publications (Solvoll et al., 2015). Publications listed in Scopus have been included in the database following rigorous selection criterion, meaning that they can be relied on as representing authoritative academic research. The criteria used by Scopus include publication policies, content evaluation, the standing of publications, publication regularity and availability, and each included publication has been reviewed by an acknowledged expert in the field of the publication under consideration (Elsevier, 2019b). Other systematic reviews of the tourism literature have similarly used Scopus (Becken 2013; Solvoll et al., 2015; Voorberg et al., 2015; Cheng et al., 2016) or similar databases such as ABI ProQuest
(Pittaway & Cope, 2007) Web of Knowledge (Gomezelj, 2016) or Science Direct (Gross et al., 2013), amongst others.

To carry out the search, a series of keywords were used in combination to search in the database within article titles, keywords, and abstracts. To capture literature relating to tourism, hospitality and travel businesses, the words ‘tourism’, ‘hospitality’ and ‘travel’ were used. To capture literature on entrepreneurship, the keyword ‘entrepreneur*’ was used, which additionally identified literature with the word ‘entrepreneurship’. Using such terms introduces a limitation; namely, that some less generic articles from the tourism and hospitality literature may have been missed in the review because they were about, for example, heritage, culinary products or sports. These, and other areas, can be more or less linked to the tourism and hospitality industries depending on the nature of their customers and the context of their locations, a definitional problem widely discussed in the literature (Morley, 1990; Ottenbacher et al., 2009). However, this limitation still generated 644 sources for the review (see below), which was deemed comparable to similar reviews in this field. If the search had generated a significantly smaller number of articles, then the search terms could have been widened. Future research may wish to specifically consider niche tourism and hospitality areas, and areas less directly connected to the industry, in order to develop complementary analyses to those offered here.

In order to ensure that the search was limited to the literature regarding island destinations, the word ‘island’ was originally used. However, this yielded only a very small number of publications and so the keyword search combinations were modified to use the list of island nations provided by the United Nations Earth Programme (2006), which contains the names of 1,991 islands, meaning that these many searches of the database were run in total. Alternative search terms such as ‘innovation’ and ‘growth’ were considered at an early stage of this process but rejected as they generated too many results which did not relate to
entrepreneurship, which was the key focus of this research. Initially, the review was limited to research published since the year 2000, but this also significantly limited the number of articles returned in the search because of the specialist nature of this topic. Instead, no time constraints were included in the search.

Tourism and Hospitality studies are an increasingly post-disciplinary fields (Lynch et al., 2011; Pernecky et al., 2016), meaning that research on tourism and hospitality can be published across a wide range of specialist journals, and therefore the searches for this review were not limited to tourism and hospitality journals, unlike some similar reviews on tourism topics (Li, 2008; Atelj evic & Li, 2009), but in common with Solvoll et al. (2015) and Gaudette et al. (2017); it included any publications found on the Scopus database which met the criteria. This meant that the search included journals from diverse fields including island studies, business management, human resources and marketing, as well as tourism and hospitality publications. The initial search yielded 644 unique articles and book chapters that were listed in Scopus. As part of the screening process, all of these articles were then manually checked to ensure that they were relevant to the topic, and irrelevant publications were excluded. Due to the comprehensive list of island nations used to carry out the search, those publications relating to islands with a population in excess of 10 million were excluded as the focus of this research was on islands that share some combination of characteristics of peripherality, remoteness, and low resource bases. This step excluded publications based on research in, for example, the United Kingdom and Sri Lanka. However, where publications related to islands that were adjacent to larger land masses within the same state, or where they were overseas territories or dependencies of a larger state, these were included. This is because insular entities within a larger state can still suffer from many of the issues associated with more traditionally peripheral islands (Moscardo, 2011; Chaperon & Bramwell, 2013; Sinclair-Maragh & Gursoy, 2015; Baldacchino, 2019) Only publications
written in English were included in this study. After applying these criteria, 132 articles remained for use in this review. The full process is outlined in Figure 1, which uses the standard PRISMA flow chart to explain the systematic selection of publications for inclusion in this research.

Figure 1. PRISMA diagram

2.2. Content, bibliometric, and thematic analyses

The 132 publications were all read and then imported into NVivo 11 software. NVivo is content analysis software that allows for the storage, systematizing, and coding of qualitative data sources, including journal articles (Bazeley & Jackson, 2013). The 132
articles were coded using the following standard bibliometric categories: year of publication, journal, methods/approach (conceptual, quantitative, qualitative, or mixed methods), geographical region, and journal ranking. In addition, NVivo was used to analyze the most frequently used words in the set of articles to inductively generate additionally useful information about the literature reviewed beyond that identified as of value deductively at the earlier stages of this research and described above. Bibliometric information about the sample of publications used in this research is set out in the following section. Finally, all publications were reviewed in detail in relation to the aims of this research through a thematic analysis approach. The following sections present the findings of this systematic review.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Bibliometric analysis

3.1.1. Publication of THEI research by year

Interest in THEI has been much more evident in the last decade than for the two preceding decades. Table 1 summarizes the total number of articles published about THEI between 1989 and 2018. From 1989 to 2009, there was a consistently low level of interest in this research area with only four years in which two or more articles were published. From 2010 the picture changes significantly with the number of publications in each year reaching 10 or more, and 101 out of the total 132 articles (almost 77%) being published during this latest period.

Table 1. Publication dates of the THEI publications, 1989-2018

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of publication</th>
<th>Number of publications</th>
<th>Percentage of total</th>
<th>Year of publication</th>
<th>Number of publications</th>
<th>Percentage of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.50%</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.80%</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Publications</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
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<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>1995</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.80%</td>
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<tr>
<td>1996</td>
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<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.50%</td>
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<tr>
<td>1998</td>
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<td>1999</td>
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<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.80%</td>
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<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.00%</td>
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<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>2004</td>
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<td>0.80%</td>
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<tr>
<td>2005</td>
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<td>8.30%</td>
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<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.00%</td>
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<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9.80%</td>
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<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.10%</td>
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<td>2009</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.80%</td>
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<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8.30%</td>
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<td>3.00%</td>
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<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9.80%</td>
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<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7.60%</td>
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<td>6.10%</td>
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<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.80%</td>
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<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9.00%</td>
<td></td>
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<td>2017</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>16.00%</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2018</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9.80%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 2. Frequency of publications on THEI, 1989-2018**

3.1.2. *Publication of THEI research by geographic focus*

There has been an overwhelming geographical research focus on the Asian region with almost 41% of all publications included pertaining to this. Table 2 summarizes this geographical distribution. The growth in European THEI research is evident, with 24.2% of the total number of published articles identified. This is closely followed by researchers focusing on the Americas, with 22% of the total. In stark contrast there continues to be very
little research (3) conducted in the African and Oceania (8) regions. Equally, it is noted there are very few (6) investigating multiple regions.

Table 2. Geographical focus of the THEI publications, 1989-2018

<table>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
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<td>10</td>
</tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oceania</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. Geographical focus of the THEI publications, 1989-2018

3.1.3. Publication of THEI research by methodological approach

There is a strong preference for qualitative research in this field (Table 3), with almost 64% of all publications adopting this methodological approach. This is consistent across the periods 2000-2009 and 2010-2018, when most of the research has taken place. Equally
consistent during these periods is the number of quantitative studies undertaken with 23 studies (17.4% overall) preferring this approach. A limited number adopted conceptual and mixed-method approaches, at 7.6% and 11.4% respectively.

Table 3. Number of publications by methodological approach

<table>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualitative</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>15</td>
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<tr>
<td>Quantitative</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceptual</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed-method</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.4. THEI research by journal

Table 4 provides a summary of the publications on THEI by journal. They are spread across a large number of journals (91 in total) with wide-ranging research foci including management, economics, gender studies, sustainability, education, coastal management, geography, and anthropology. The majority of these journals (75%), which have published two or more articles in the area of THEI since 1989, have tourism as part of their scope. However, very few entrepreneurship journals (8) have published in this research area, with only two of these publishing two or more articles during this time. The results demonstrate that, whilst tourism and hospitality journals consider research in this area to be important, mainstream entrepreneurship research continues to ignore tourism as a relevant context for entrepreneurship research. Interestingly, only a small number of journals which feature THEI research (3) specialize in island studies.

As noted earlier, this field of research has particularly attracted the attention of scholars focusing on the Asian region, so unsurprisingly the journal with the highest number
of publications, the *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, has published seven articles in total. The Nordic region has also been the focus of a relatively high number of articles, with the *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* publishing a total of five articles since 1989.

Table 4. List of journals with more than one THEI article, and their scope

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journal title</th>
<th>No. of articles</th>
<th>Scope of journal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Entrepreneurship</td>
<td>Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Management</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Issues in Tourism</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Economics</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Sustainable Tourism</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IOP Conf. Series: Earth and Environmental Science</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Geographies</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior &amp; Research</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Physics</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ocean &amp; Coastal Management</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annals of Tourism Research</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Destination Marketing &amp; Management</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Journal of Tourism Research</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Recreation Research</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Planning and Development</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.1.5. Publication of THEI research by journal ranking

Table 5 shows the number of articles that appear in journals specified by SCImago with SJR rankings (Scopus, 2019) and Table 6 is by Journal Impact Factor (InCites Journal Citation Reports, 2019). The same journals appear in both tables, with two exceptions: *International Journal of Tourism Research* makes it into the SCImago list (Table 5) at the expense of *Resources Policy* which is included in the Journal Impact Factor list (Table 6).

**Table 5. Journals by SCImago ranking and number of THEI publications**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journal title</th>
<th>SCImago (2018)</th>
<th>Total number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Management</td>
<td>2.924</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annals of Tourism Research</td>
<td>2.180</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Journal of Hospitality Management</td>
<td>1.999</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Hospitality &amp; Tourism Research</td>
<td>1.896</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management</td>
<td>1.849</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Issues in Tourism</td>
<td>1.843</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Small Business Management</td>
<td>1.684</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Sustainable Tourism</td>
<td>1.365</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Journal of Tourism Research</td>
<td>1.324</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Percentage of total number of articles (132)</strong></td>
<td><strong>17%</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 4. Journals by SCImago ranking and number of THEI publications

Table 6. Highest ranking journals by Journal Impact Factor and their publication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journal title</th>
<th>JIF</th>
<th>Total number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Management</td>
<td>6.012</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annals of Tourism Research</td>
<td>5.493</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Journal of Hospitality Management</td>
<td>4.465</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality</td>
<td>3.957</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Sustainable Tourism</td>
<td>3.400</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Issues in Tourism</td>
<td>3.395</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Small Business Management</td>
<td>2.876</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources Policy</td>
<td>3.185</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Journal of Hospitality &amp; Tourism Research</td>
<td>2.849</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of total number of articles (132)</td>
<td></td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
With a total of four articles, no other journal has published more than Tourism Management (highest ranking journal with both measures) in the last five years. However, it is notable (and clearly illustrated in Figures 4 and 5) that the majority of THEI articles have been published in unclassified and lower-ranked journals.

3.2. Thematic analysis

In this section, the key themes in the articles, that were identified using NVivo software, are the focus for a qualitative, thematic analysis, which aims to identify the pertinent issues associated with THEI that have been explored in the publications included in this systematic review. This is the final stage of the PRISMA methodology, which requires a synthesis of the findings to allow for the production of knowledge about the topic under review. The findings are presented below under six key theme headings: THEI and industrial restructuring, THEI and the role of the state, THEI and the role of community, The role of women in THEI, THEI and niche product development, and THEI, vulnerability and resilience.
3.2.1. THEI and Industrial Restructuring

One of the major themes to emerge from this review was the influence of the broader economic context on the extent to which THEI could be realized. A significant number of articles placed the development of THEI as resulting from industrial transitions in the destinations. For example, Vaugeois and Rollins’ (2007) study of Vancouver Island, Canada, showed that the emergence of tourism entrepreneurship was a necessary response to more broad economic changes in the island, involving the move from a resource-based, to a service-based economy. Lewis and Jordan (2008) suggest that, for Trinidad and Tobago, which was going through a similar transition, state support for tourism entrepreneurship was a way to encourage the development of tourism and to make this industrial transition less disruptive. Another example of successfully managing potentially disruptive transitions can be seen in the rural economy, where agro-tourism entrepreneurs in islands are often able to start tourism enterprises which combine the traditional work of their community in the agricultural sector with new family enterprises, as shown by Sgroi et al. (2014) in the case of Sicily, Italy.

In the Karst region of Indonesia, community helped the transition from the previously damaging exploitation of the area by the cement and paint industries (Cahyanti & Agus 2017). However, in Bali, resource extraction and tourism compete on a more even footing for capital and policy attention. The continuing presence of a relatively high-wage resource-based industry was identified by Rosyidie et al. (2018) as a deterrent to local people from becoming tourism entrepreneurs. In Sardinia, Italy, traditional extractive industries have had mixed fortunes due to high transport costs, poor infrastructure and global competition. However, the Orosei marble entrepreneurs, in particular, have found success by diversifying into heritage tourism based on its industrial past, and the development of tourism routes and facilities with specialist training offers (Careddu et al., 2017). Heritage tourism, based on the
recent industrial past, was also found to be of benefit to the indigenous entrepreneurs of the Windward Islands. The demise of the banana industry, which these economies were so heavily reliant upon during much of the last century, has, to some extent, been mitigated by the successful development of eco-, agro- and heritage tourism products (Isaac et al., 2009).

In the case of Cuba, Hingtgen et al. (2015) explored another form of transition, from a controlled to a market economy. In this case, the success of tourism entrepreneurship was seen as a function of the development of the entrepreneurial climate in the island, and the place of tourism within this. All of these factors: the transition from resource to services economies, investment and policy decisions, and the possibility to continue with traditional industries alongside tourism development were seen as factors affecting tourism entrepreneurship in the remote islands of New Zealand by Lovelock et al. (2010).

Not all THEI will be carried out by locals in response to their changing economic conditions. This was shown by Carboni’s (2016) study of entrepreneurship and employment in Zanzibar, where investment and entrepreneurship were mostly undertaken by foreigners, who then employed local people. A related point was made by Park (2011), who highlighted that, for many small islands, cruise tourism is attractive because it allows for tourism development without needing an indigenous tourism industry, although it does then limit tourism entrepreneurship to servicing the needs of this sector and its tourists. Douglas (1997), (discussing islanders in the South Pacific), explained that islanders can often be prevented from developing their own entrepreneurial activities by ‘the normally complex scale of tourism imposed by international and expatriate developers’ (p. 88).

3.2.2. **THEI and the Role of the State**

The role of the state is also a key influencing factor in the emergence of THEI. Baldacchino and Dana (2006) studied the role of the state in the split jurisdictions of the island of St Martin in terms of the support for, and standing of, entrepreneurship. They
argued that the national environment was a more important influence, than the specific characteristics of an island, in explaining whether or not tourism entrepreneurship was a significant feature of the economy. Navastara (2017) looked at the role of the state, (and the attention, or lack of it) in producing national policies that are specific to small island contexts. This was deemed to be a key factor that explained the lack of tourism entrepreneurship in Konawe Southeast Sulawesi. Burnett & Danson (2017) evidenced a similar phenomenon in the state’s support for new business development in remote Scottish islands. They showed the influence of a ‘dominant metropolitan paradigm’ (p. 32) on national policies, which negatively affected the appropriateness of support for these peripheral island locations.

Riley’s (1995) work on tourism development in the Falkland Islands revealed a lack of capacity to develop entrepreneurial activity, which coupled with a lack of state support, meant that the economy of the island was not able to benefit from potential growth in tourism. Furthermore, Bottema & Bush (2012) showed that while tourism entrepreneurs in Indonesia were able to increase awareness of conservation and generate income and financial support, they also required support from state institutions. Meanwhile, in Curacao, de Groot and Bush (2010) found that a lack of state intervention had resulted in tourism entrepreneurs taking the initiative and creating new marine protected areas for endangered coral reefs. However, the success of these areas is now dependent on not solely entrepreneurial collaboration, but also complex governance arrangements involving the state.

When the state takes an active role in tourism development, there are still issues to consider about how entrepreneurs are effectively engaged with these policies. Pongponrat (2011) analyzed the ways in which local entrepreneurs on the Thai island of Samui interacted with state-led developments in local tourism and found that local food-vendors and their families were not engaged with tourism strategies because of a lack of interest in
participation, which in turn was primarily due to a lack of a sufficient consultation phase in the development of these strategies. Porter et al. (2018) found in their study of the role of tourism entrepreneurship in two coastal communities in the Philippines that entrepreneurship itself offered opportunities for exactly this kind of missing engagement in wider tourism development strategies, and that where communities were difficult to engage in traditional tourism planning consultations, they could be brought into the process through offering opportunities for them to develop their livelihoods.

Fairbairn’s (2006) investigation of Pacific islander entrepreneurs also found ‘obstructive socio-cultural influences’ and determined that education, access to finance, and bureaucracy were contributory inhibitors of entrepreneurial success. Furthermore, in a 15 year long, ethnographic study of Indonesian entrepreneurs in Ngadha, Cole (2007) found that island tourism entrepreneurial success was constrained by deep socio-cultural barriers, but that the primary hindrance on the development of entrepreneurship has been from government. Thomas (2016) found in the case of the Bahamas, that sustainable development outcomes were improved where there was clear institutional support for small firms and entrepreneurs in the accommodation sector, to advocate for them and with them in the face of competition from international hospitality businesses.

Surprisingly very little of the literature focused on financial support for entrepreneurship. However, the comparative study of Haiti, coastal Kenya and Mauritius by Séraphin et al. (2013) found that funding was a major barrier to entrepreneurial development. Furthermore, the Thampradit and Fongsuwan (2014) study, examined the challenges faced by entrepreneurs in the island province of Phuket and found that despite changes in legislation the lack of availability of legitimate loans forced many entrepreneurs to seek finance from loan sharks who charge punitive rates of interest. They found that microfinance offers the
opportunity to overcome these restrictions while lending institutions benefit from increased profit and improved image through corporate social responsibility.

Baldacchino (2008) noted that many islands suffer from significant levels of out-migration and, despite investment and extensive efforts via education and training, these islands struggle to develop entrepreneurs. Similar constraints have been noted in other studies. For example, Jaafar and Rasoolimanesh (2015) found that tourism business in Sabah, Malaysia, also suffered from a lack of knowledge and training, in addition to being overly-reliant on family capital. Furthermore, Sharpley (2002), noted the challenges facing Cypriot rural tourism entrepreneurs. In addition to the low market potential and dominance of the large tourism operators, a lack of knowledge and skills were, again, identified as major limiting factors in this destination. Where these skill gaps have been acknowledged by the state, it is not always the case that the state itself has the required capacity to address the deficit. Alcaraz (2018) carried out research into the success of Active Labor Market policies in the Balearic Islands, where the economies are highly dependent on tourism, and identified significant weaknesses in the provision of training and support for entrepreneurs due to a lack of skills and knowledge in this area within indigenous agencies. Wong et al. (2008) showed through a critical comparison of Hong Kong and Singapore that entrepreneurship support from government, may be very different from general industrial policy, and that a low quality and availability of this support is an important factor in understanding the development of tourism entrepreneurship, even in an island destination with a strong track record of more general business support from the state. Roxas and Chadee (2013) also looked at the role of government institutions in supporting an entrepreneurial orientation within tourism firms, in the Philippines. They found that the characteristics of these state institutions, including an emphasis on the rule of law, business support services, regulatory quality and government
policies, had a significant effect on the entrepreneurial orientation of tourism firms in this island nation.

3.2.3. THEI and the role of the community

Research that examined the role of community in THEI tended to either view it as a brake on the development of entrepreneurial attitudes and activities, or as a resource upon which businesses could be built. Zeppel (1998) showed how the specific cultures of island communities could provide resources for entrepreneurs, using the example of the Iban people from the island of Borneo where local people had engaged with tour operators to provide cultural experiences as part of organized tours. Gowreesunker et al. (2015) also explain that tourism entrepreneurship, especially social entrepreneurship, offers opportunities for preserving and commercializing local cultures that would otherwise struggle to survive. Cultural values, as well as cultural practices, were seen as significant factors in explaining the emergence of tourism entrepreneurship in a village community in Bali, where tourism growth was linked to the interest from tourists in climbing a local mountain. The mountain played a central role in the identity of a local community, who engaged with tourism in order to manage the various taboos associated with the mountain, as well as to ‘safeguard its sanctity’.

Green (2002) recognizes similar opportunities for entrepreneurship in the way that the heavily marketed (to tourists) carnivals of Trinidad and Tobago draw on ‘authentic’ community practices, and cautions against nostalgic academic constructions of inauthenticity and commercialization that frequently describe similar tourist activity as problematic for communities, showing that the entrepreneurial opportunities offered to local people are both welcomed and useful, despite local concerns about over-commercialization. d’Hautserre (2010) cautions also, that especially in a context where post-colonial power relations persist, such as in the numerous French overseas island territories, tourism development should
proceed in step with the wishes and capacities of indigenous peoples, and discussions of whether local communities have engaged sufficiently with entrepreneurial opportunities should be viewed through this lens.

Arias & Cruz (2018) found that through the application of entrepreneurial bricolage, artisan tourism enterprises in Roatan, Honduras, mitigate resource challenges and are able to meet an ever-increasing demand for local and authentic products. Ona and Solis (2017) found that, despite the many challenges facing the indigenous entrepreneurs of Ibaloy, Northern Philippines, through effective use of resources and timely government and institutional intervention, they are able to produce prime tourism products. Not only does this lead to improvements in food security and other economic benefits, but it also helps to promote and protect their culture. Entrepreneurs, government and institutions face challenges when developing heritage as a tourism commodity to protect the needs of the indigenous population whilst meeting the needs of the visitor. Tyson et al. (2005) also painted a positive picture, showing that where there was a catalyst for community involvement that appealed to broad constituencies within a community (in this case, the presence of the Cricket World Cup in a group of Caribbean islands), community support for tourism was higher, and this generated an increase in micro-business start-ups, although there was a clear need for greater coordination of this activity to make sure that the full benefits were realized.

Pradono et al. (2016) explain these approaches to entrepreneurship as aspects of economic empowerment, using the example of where tourism development in the Puncak region of Indonesia is enhanced by drawing on the resources of local communities, and that doing this will be key to the acceptance and success of tourism development. The same economic rationale for community acceptance of, and engagement with tourism entrepreneurship, is given by Nordin et al. (2014).
Gibson (2012) identified that, in the Fijian Yasawa Islands, communities that had recently begun to offer accommodation services to a new wave of backpacker tourists were limited in their entrepreneurial ambitions by the specific cultural obligations placed upon them as representatives of traditional communities, where social and community obligations were valued more highly than profit maximization. These community perspectives on entrepreneurship are not necessarily static even within traditional island communities however, as shown by Haniza Mohamad and Hamzah (2013), who demonstrated that sustained engagement with community-based-tourism and entrepreneurship within that framework, eventually led to a much greater acceptance of the significance of entrepreneurship in rural communities in Sabah, Malaysia.

In a recent study by Noor et al. (2017) it was found that tourism lifestyle businesses of Mantanani Island, including handicraft and homestay, provided acceptable economic benefits to the local economy, by taking advantage of the availability of local resources and culture and called for further development of an entrepreneurial mindset to help improve their local standard of living. However, an earlier study on the same island by Hussin, Kunjuraman, and Weirowski (2015), noted that there were significant barriers to developing homestay programs including cultural understandings, language barriers and access to financial capital.

Meanwhile, in Labuan, Malaysia, tourism planners also decided to promote homestay opportunities to tourists, based on the creation of homestay entrepreneurs in the local community, but although tourism planners saw this as creating new opportunities for local communities. However, this initiative was viewed by suspicion by locals, who did not feel that they received sufficient guidance or financial support from government agencies (Ponnan, 2013). However, in the Langkawi islands in Malaysia, Salleh et al. (2016), found that it was not primarily support from government agencies that mattered most. Instead, whether local people started tourism related businesses was influenced by support from their
families and the broader community, and the level of their own household incomes. Also, investigating the interaction between tourism development and local communities, Naidoo & Sharpley (2016) found that, in the case of Mauritius, enclave tourism development was viewed less positively by local communities because it offered fewer opportunities for entrepreneurship.

Roessingh and Duijnhoven (2005) investigated the influences on THEI in the Dominican Republic. They described how entrepreneurs were forced to start working in tourism because of the change of economic and social relations that took place in the island, following the introduction of (especially) cruise tourism from the 1980s onwards. This very small-scale entrepreneurship was mostly in the hospitality and transport sectors. They found that pre-existing community values, and a sense of nostalgia for how the communities of the island were before the advent of mass tourism was hindering the development of the networks and relationships that would allow entrepreneurship to flourish. Research into local entrepreneurs’ perspectives on the development of tourism on the Greek Island of Santorini (Lichrou et al., 2017) revealed that entrepreneurship in the beginning of the island’s tourism development in the 1970s was viewed in a romanticized way, with an emphasis on local culture and authentic ways of life on the island, but that contemporary entrepreneurship was focused on low value, high volume tourism that was seen as unsustainable for the island in the long term by respondents.

3.2.4. The role of women in THEI

One of the themes that emerged from this review relates to issues associated with gender and THEI. This is a recent development in the literature since 2014 and is primarily concerned with women’s employment. Tajeddini et al. (2017) identified six factors that influenced women’s decisions to engage in tourism entrepreneurship, in their study of mostly
hospitality and restaurant entrepreneurs in Bali: the extent to which entrepreneurship develops women’s self-esteem; the specific circumstances of individual women; the reactivity of the character of individual women; the success of networking and marketing; the status of women within the local tourism industry; whether suitable markets were available, and; the degree to which individuals and communities were concerned about the negative impacts of tourism. Another study that also sought to identify the factors influencing female entrepreneurship in Sri Lanka (Surangi, 2018) identified similar issues, but further suggested that the competing demands of family relationships (especially motherhood and marriage) and business had a significant influence.

Bakas (2017a) carried out ethnographic research alongside female entrepreneurs in Crete, Greece, and reported that some were motivated in their work by the notion of reciprocity; a sense that they were ‘giving back’ to the communities that had supported them in other areas of their lives. In a related article, Bakas (2017b) suggested that female entrepreneurship in tourism was something that became more possible for women in communities where this type of gendered activity was normally perceived negatively, after periods of crisis and exogenous shocks, such as the period when the Greek economy was affected by the recent global financial crisis. When orthodox economic opportunity is not possible, alternative practices, such as female-led entrepreneurship can be seen as more permissible, or achievable. In Favre’s (2017) research into women’s entrepreneurship in post-conflict destinations, three islands were included in her sample, but no island-specific factors relating to the growth of female entrepreneurship were identified, despite a similar general conclusion being drawn that destinations emerging from crises offer opportunities for female entrepreneurship.

There is limited discussion elsewhere in the literature about other gendered aspects of THEI. For example, researching the role of women in the development of tourism in Anping,
Taiwan, Yu (2014), showed how cultural heritage associated with traditional narratives about women were exploited to help the destination become more competitive. Gendered and sexualized representations of destinations are frequently portrayed in tourism destination marketing. In this case, however, there was an appropriation of gendered resources taking place, not genuine female entrepreneurship. In contrast to this exploitation, Movono and Dahles (2017) showed that the empowerment that took place as part of the growth of female entrepreneurship in Fiji was having a positive impact on women’s social and political status, despite taking place in ‘patriarchal and embedded indigenous communities’ (p. 681). Taken together, this emerging research area indicates that THEI can both reinforce and challenge traditional female roles.

3.2.5. THEI and niche product development

There was no single type of tourism identified in the literature as most appropriate for THEI, instead, there were a wide variety of niche tourism product development initiatives in evidence. Pearcy (2010) argues that the creation of eco-tourism entrepreneurship opportunities for local communities in Jamaica had the potential to contribute to successful tourism development in the island. Similarly, Ajagunna et al. (2014) found that where local people were able to take advantage of entrepreneurial opportunities within ecotourism, there was the potential for this type of tourism development pathway to be more sustainable in both economic and social terms.

Alonso and Liu (2012) show that, in the example of the Canary Islands, the growth of mass tourism creates markets for entrepreneurs in wine tourism, which supports development in the islands through the preservation of local industries, traditions, and the environment. In a case where more niche tourism products were introduced to an island destination, Rhormens et al. (2017) reported that local entrepreneurs in Boipeba, Brazil, were keen to see
the new products introduced, but did not want to start businesses delivering them, preferring to provide ancillary products and services, such as accommodation and transport.

The often-idyllic nature of islands also lends itself to the development of wellness tourism which is of growing importance to some island economies. For example, the rugged nature of Iceland’s landscape and the availability of geo-thermal pools has led to the creation of wellness tourism enterprises. However, Huijbens (2011) found a more international orientation is needed to develop Iceland as a wellness destination and thus capitalize on the use of these natural resources. Finally, Kelly (2010) found the majority of wellness retreat providers to be lifestyle entrepreneurs who are product focused but suffer from a lack of collective organization.

3.2.6. THEI, vulnerability, and resilience

Vlcek’s review (2016) of Baldacchino (2015) summarizes the more positive notion of resilience as opposed to the more traditional idea of vulnerability of small states and territories. Examining a series of cases of entrepreneurial successes, it is found that size has been identified as more of an opportunity (Åland Islands) than a constraint. Vlcek notes that by capitalizing on the geographic location, focusing on niche markets and leveraging the creative use of territory’s political and institutional status, some island economies have thrived. Vlcek, however also notes that global restrictions and geographical limitations of more remote islands maybe at times underestimated. Some more recent literature on island tourism frames sustainability in terms of resilience; for example, Bakas (2017b) suggests that new forms of tourism entrepreneurship can help to increase the resilience of communities affected by economic crises, improving local sustainable development.

The vulnerability of island-based tourism entrepreneurs and their need for resilience is the theme of a number of publications found in this research. For example, Adams and
Sandarupa (2018) offer an interesting discussion of the ways in which small-scale tourism entrepreneurs, operating in turbulent and unpredictable times, make use of local knowledge for building resilience strategies. Meanwhile Brown (2017) investigated how small-scale tourism entrepreneurs in two Honduran islands were more vulnerable to the uncertainties that resulted from the global financial crisis than their larger counterparts. Furthermore, Hamzah and Hampton (2012) made use of resilience theory to examine how small-scale tourism entrepreneurs from Perhentian Kecil, Malaysia have responded to threats in their operating environments, some of which are linked to the actions of the state.

Séraphin et al. (2017) noted the limited extent of research of tourism within the Caribbean region, despite its importance to the region’s economy. This research identified the need for transformational entrepreneurs and transformational enterprises that engage in effective collaboration and have innovation at the heart of their activities in order to compete effectively. Hitchcock (2000) noted that networks of cooperation and alliances are used in order to reduce risk particularly when the regulatory climate is uncertain. These alliances are often along ethnic lines and help groups control resources at the expense of outsiders. An ethnographic study enabled Wergin (2012) to examine the impact of the 2008 global financial crisis on small island states and territories. Entrepreneurs in the tourism sector from Rodrigues, Mauritius established a tourism association (Associations du Tourisme Réunies) in order to seek government airfare subsidies and overcome Creole oppression from the Hindu majority.

3.2.7. Summary of thematic analysis

The literature reviewed in this research is dominated by a consideration of the economic context for THEI. This is unsurprising, given the nature of the subject matter. However, this literature tends to look at the economic context primarily through the twin
lenses of, firstly, a broader industrial restructuring that is taking place in many island contexts, and which is creating, or necessitating the transition towards a service economy with tourism as a major component. The second lens through which this economic context was viewed was in terms of the role of the state, with many publications positioning the state as both the arbiter and conductor of this restructuring. This economic context was seen as the primary explanatory factor for the emergence or otherwise of THEI.

The next most significant area of thematic concentration was concerned with the relationship between this economic context and the role and interests of communities, most frequently placed into an oppositional relationship with the institutions of the state. Communities were discussed variously as working together, independently of the state, to develop THEI, or supported well or poorly by the state through funding and training, or as preventing the implementation of the policies of the state due to their traditional value systems.

However, there were also three other less prominent, but significant themes in the literature that emerged from this research. Issues associated with female entrepreneurship made up an important theme in the literature from 2014 onwards, corresponding with a more general growth in research into the gendered aspects of tourism (Figueroa-Domecq et al., 2015). Opportunities for women to become entrepreneurs in an island context were seen as being opened up by the collapse of orthodox economic development models in crisis-hit destinations, and also as well aligned with a more social entrepreneurship context in traditional communities. In some research, opportunities for female entrepreneurship was also seen as limited by indigenous cultural contexts. Another area that was identified as significant, but which represents a relatively small amount of the research, was concerned with the specificities of the tourism products being developed by entrepreneurs in island contexts. A number of different niche tourism products were described in the research,
although some mention was made of providing complementary experiences for mass tourists. In the majority of the cases, these products were linked to indigenous cultural heritage or to the natural heritage of the islands. The final significant theme that emerged from this review was connected to the unique vulnerabilities of islands and the resilience that they can develop in the face of this. This theme contained a broad mixture of cases, ranging from responses to climate change and resource depletion through entrepreneurship to the role of community alliances and collaboration in the face of dominant cultures. Given the spatial context of this research, it is surprising to note the lack of publications with this theme, with the notable exceptions of work by Baldacchino (2005, 2006, 2010, 2019) and other associated with the island studies field.

Research associated with all of the themes identified through this review concentrated on explaining the opportunities for, and barriers to, THEI. Figure 6 summarises this in a visual way, to provide an overview of the literature in this field and to help researchers to identify opportunities for future research.

**Figure 6. Thematic areas in THEI research**
4. Conclusions

The aims of this research were to develop an appreciation of the range of approaches used in the THEI literature and the types of methods applied therein, as well as to understand the kinds of issues – opportunities and barriers – that were deemed as significant for THEI by the authors of the reviewed publications, and the entrepreneurs on which they reported. This conclusion summarizes some of the key findings of the analyses presented above, in order to provide useful insights for further research into THEI.

The bibliometric aspects of this analysis allowed for a very broad review of the nature of research into THEI. This is an advantage of the strategic literature review approach, which enables an aerial view of a large body of work. There has been a recent growth in the number of publications on THEI, with 77% of all publications reviewed in this research having been published since 2010. This suggests that THEI is of growing interest to researchers, and the subsequent bibliometric analyses then provided further detail on the nature and scope of this research. There were two strong methodological biases evident in the review.

Firstly, research into THEI has a geographical bias, favoring the Asia-Pacific region. In this respect, the literature on THEI reflects a broader trend in the island tourism and island studies literature which has historically developed from the study of warm-water and ‘exotic’ destinations. Because of this, much of the reviewed literature places THEI within discourses of post-colonialism, dependency and indigeneity and it also strongly emphasizes the role of community and cultural identities. Future research into THEI should examine how it takes place within cold-water, European and North American contexts, to ensure that the barriers and opportunities to entrepreneurship are also considered within less contested cultural and spatial settings.
Secondly, publications on THEI have a strong bias towards qualitative and conceptual research, with only 17.4% of publications taking a quantitative approach. In addition, the overwhelming majority of studies were based on data from individual island destinations or were framed as case studies of individual islands. Because of this, the THEI literature is notable for a lack of attempts to produce generalizable findings, and there are no emerging models that can explain or critique THEI across multiple settings. However, given the recent growth of research in this field, and the multiple case studies available to analyze, further quantitative, and comparative, research into THEI should take place in order to develop more generalizable findings that can inform theory and practice.

The thematic analyses revealed that the literature was dominated by a structuralist approach which emphasized the economic and industrial context for THEI. This mirrors the historical concentration in the tourism literature on business and economic issues, which has more recently begun to change along with developments such as the growth of critical tourism studies and sustainable tourism research (Morgan et al., 2018). Because of this, THEI was mostly viewed as a response to, or a component of, the shift towards a service industry within an island, or as taking place opportunistically in the wake of foreign direct investment in the local tourism industry. Because of this, prominent areas of research within the mainstream entrepreneurship literature were overlooked. In particular, there was a distinct lack of research into the characteristics and behaviors of tourism entrepreneurs in islands, or of studies that considered entrepreneurs as agents of change, rather than as passive subjects of wider economic developments. This gap in the literature could be addressed through the use of the substantial body of work in other fields, suggesting fruitful new avenues of research into THEI.

Despite the industrial and geographical specificities of this research, it is a surprising finding that neither context is fully considered in the literature. Although the island tourism
field is a relatively mature area of study, entrepreneurship in this review is mostly considered as a unique phenomenon, and without links being made to previous research into the settings and activities involved in island tourism. The island tourism literature has identified the factors that affect tourism development in islands, and although opinions on the impacts of the unique characteristics of islands of tourism are not uncontested, the literature on THEI barely acknowledge these debates, except for a few authors aligned with the island studies field.

The findings of this research are of value to future studies into THEI for three main reasons. Firstly, the bibliometric analysis highlights biases in publications in this area. Future research should seek to redress this imbalance in order to make the literature more representative of international island environments, including through greater use of quantitative studies that seek greater generalizability in their findings. Secondly, researchers in THEI should engage in greater depth with the mainstream entrepreneurship literature, including publishing in entrepreneurship journals, to extend their analyses of the agency of entrepreneurs. Finally, research into THEI should be placed more firmly within the island tourism and island studies literature, to ensure that the impacts of the industrial and spatial aspects of tourism entrepreneurship in island contexts is fully understood.
References


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