

Tourism and entrepreneurship in island contexts:

A systematic review of the literature

Abstract

Entrepreneurship is vital to the success of the tourism industry and in turn tourism makes an important contribution to many island economies. Despite this, far too little attention has been paid by researchers to Tourism Entrepreneurship in Islands (TEI). We conducted a systematic literature review of the TEI literature in order to stimulate 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 the bibliographic and thematic content analysis.

The review revealed that, whilst there is an increase in TEI 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 generalisability of much TEI published research is limited. It is therefore suggested that researchers consider redressing this geographical bias and conducting more quantitative and comparative TEI studies. Further opportunities exist for TEI researchers to investigate into the characteristics and behaviours of tourism island entrepreneurs as well as the impacts of the industrial and spatial aspects of tourism entrepreneurship in islands.

Keywords: tourism entrepreneurship; islands; systematic literature review

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Introduction

Entrepreneurs are agents of change. Entrepreneurship involves these agents identifying opportunities, taking charge to exploit them, and giving rise to new ventures (Cunningham & Lisceron, 1991; Brockhaus & Horwitz, 1986; Gartner, 1989). Entrepreneurship can be transformative (Anderson & Starnawska, 2008) and is fundamental to the success of a destination's tourism industry (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 academics embracing the tourism industry as an interesting and relevant research context (Solvoll et al., 2015).

Tourism entrepreneurship in the context of islands (abbreviated throughout the paper as TEI) is considered an appropriate focus for examining research in this field. Islands are useful and interesting laboratories for research (Michael Hall, 2010), partly due to their small size and boundedness, but also due to the complex nature and interplay of specific island characteristics that make islands both attractive as tourism destinations and challenging to operate as such (Timothy, 2001). 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 research for this paper involved carrying out a systematic review of the TEI 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-related systematic reviews see, e.g. Garces et al., 2018, Becken 2013, Solvoll et al., 2015, Voorberg et al., 2015, Cheng et al., 2016, Pittaway & Cope 2007, Gomezelj 2016, Gross et al., 2013). Articles for this systematic review were searched for using Scopus (Elsevier 2017a), which is a comprehensive database of research publications and includes only those publications that meet rigorous selection criterion, 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 (2015a). Following this technique, a set of criteria were used to select the articles for inclusion in this research, 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 both a bibliographic analysis and thematic content analysis were carried out.

The aim of this analysis was to help us to more fully appreciate the range of approaches used in the TEI 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 the entrepreneurs under research. The findings of the systematic review are presented in two categories: First is the Bibliographic 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, combined, allow for the creation of a model which represents the research on tourism entrepreneurship in island contexts to date, and gives the opportunity to identify neglected areas of research on this topic.

Island characteristics

Islands vary greatly in terms of size, accessibility, climate, resources, and political power, but they share two important characteristics; by their nature, all islands are insular and peripheral. Islands are usually considered peripheral in a geographical sense, where they are distant from core populations, but many are also economically, politically and socially peripheral to their mainland counterparts (Brown & Hall, 2000; Nash & Martin, 2003; Scott, 2000; Timothy, 2001; Weaver, 2017). It is this shared peripherality that means islands exhibit many common characteristics and tend to face very similar challenges (Buhalis, 1999). Islands are stereotypically small in size, with ‘small island’ status a subjective designation that compromises between population and area (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 (Andriotis, 2004; Butler, 1996; Cross & Nutley, 1999; Harrison, 2001; Kakazu, 1994; Royle, 1989; Royle & Scott, 1996). 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 are more vulnerable to changes in business cycles and to external conditions (Croes & Ridderstaat, 2017). The riskier context for island businesses makes them less attractive to foreign investors and limits international trade options (Bojanic & Lo, 2016). 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, local involvement in tourism policy-making can be limited. Island residents may lack political

‘clout’ in decision making (Chaperon & Bramwell, 2013), and they also lack control over the implementation of decisions (Albrecht, 2010). 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 & Dursoy, 2015; Baldacchino, 2019).

In addition to geographic, economic and political peripherality, islands can also suffer from being socially peripheral where islanders are disadvantaged by being out of touch with the cultural mainstream and can never compete on equal terms with a neighbouring mainland. The smallness, remoteness and insularity of islands can mean that they are ‘out of sight and out of mind’ (Baldacchino, 2006, p. 6). All these characteristics mean it is often difficult for island governments to develop and sustain their economies and provide their residents with a living.

Islands and Tourism Development

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 industry 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 (Butler, 2017; Santana-Gallego et al., 2011). In some instances, the 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). The significance of tourism to island economies is reflected in the use of the acronym SITE – Small Island Tourist Economies (McElroy, 2006; Hampton & Jeyacheya, 2015).

‘Size is important to tourists. They are fascinated by it’ (Timothy, 2001, p.63). The creation of ‘paradise islands’ (Guerrón Montero, 2011) and the use of myth-making to develop and sustain tourism destinations is not uncommon, with islands providing counter-worlds for the tourists that visit (Amoamo, 2011). It is crossing the marine barrier that provides tourists with a feeling of separateness, of difference, and of being cut off from the mainland which Baum (1997, p. 21) argues is ‘an important physical and psychological attribute of a successful vacation’, appealing to the utopian imaginations of tourists (Cave & Brown, 2012; Baldacchino & Clark, 2013). There is the appeal of a potentially distinct culture and language, of a wilderness environment, of a water focused society, and of distinctive niche attractions. The peculiarities of islands, and of island living, provide tourists with a quaintness, otherness, and

intrigue that are not replicable in more metropolitan locations (Timothy, 2001; Baldacchino, 2006). The appeal may be the confined space, with the possibility of easily reaching all corners of an island on foot. One can ‘get to know’ an island in a very short time, and due to the limited development options in very small islands they can appear less modern, offering a sense of being more ‘authentic’ than larger places, a slower pace, and the opportunity for relaxation and rejuvenation (Butler, 1996; Baum, 1997; Conlin & Baum, 1995).

Governments of many small islands have chosen to pursue the mass tourism development options such as cruise, all-inclusive resorts, and luxury hotels, for the foreign direct investment it generates and employment it creates (Lee et al., 2015). More recently, island governments have also chosen to pursue alternative tourism strategies, and rural tourism in islands is proving to be a popular development path (Serra Cantallops et al., 2015; Tolkach & King, 2015). To a lesser extent, cultural tourism in islands is becoming an important consideration in broadening islands’ appeal (Croes & Semrad, 2015; Johnson, 2016; Su et al., 2017), and smaller-scale tourism with independent travellers (i.e. backpackers) also contributes to island development (Hamzah & Hampton, 2013). Of course, the often-overlooked significance of domestic island tourism (Canavan, 2016) and domestic archipelagic tourism (Baldacchino, 2016) are also worthy of consideration thanks to their ability to support existing island tourism industries, especially in off-peak seasons. In addition, islets off islands are now being promoted to enhance tourism appeal (Gowreesunkar et al., 2018).

The remoteness of many islands can mean that accessibility is a challenge. Travel to islands can involve multiple modes of transportation, numerous transfers, and will inevitably cost more time and money (Royle & Scott, 1996; Chaperon & Theuma, 2015; Butler, 2016). Ironically, the appeal of isolation to potential visitors only becomes functional when islands become easily accessible through good transport links (Currie & Falconer, 2014). The true islands with the best connections generally attract the most visitors, thus they reap the benefits of the contribution they bring to local employment and the economy generally. Air and sea transport are crucial to link islands with the outside world, and advances in air and sea transport have assisted previously inaccessible islands to establish themselves in tourism markets (Andriotis, 2004; Baldacchino, 2007; Royle & Scott, 1996; Leung et al., 2017).

Challenges for Tourism Development in Islands

The tourism opportunities offered by the smallness and peripheral nature of islands can create obstacles to the industry’s successful development. Islands do tend to rely more heavily on tourism in terms of generating income relative to other countries (Bojanic & Lo, 2016), and

there is the concern that islands can become over-dependent on this single industry, which itself is dependent on numerous internal and external factors. However, there are also more positive commentaries about tourism in islands. Despite a common discourse of islands being controlled by governments on distant mainlands, the local population can be active agents in determining its own development path (Chaperon & Bramwell, 2011; 2013; Weaver, 2017; Butler, 2017). The seemingly predominant narrative is that islands are ‘vulnerable’ and this can be responsible for stifling initiative and the ability of islands to act autonomously, but small island states can demonstrate strong social dimensions in sustainability, resilience and adaptability (Scheyvens & Momsen, 2008), creating a more positive outlook.

Further, the small scale of an island’s physical resources makes it far more susceptible to tourism’s negative effects. Due to the small size, the influx of large numbers of tourists is likely to profoundly affect the destination in environmental, cultural, and social terms (Conlin & Baum, 1995; Michael Hall, 2010; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010). The lack of resources also has implications for visitors’ potential length of stay; it is difficult to encourage visitors to stay for a long time in places that can be covered by foot or by car in a few minutes or even a couple of hours. More generally, multinational companies may significantly control the development process in islands, and islanders may be forced to accept the inevitable expansion of conventional mass tourism, and thus the leakage of foreign exchange earnings may be high (Andriotis, 2004; Ryan, 2001; Wilkinson, 1989). Where international tourism is dominant in an island economy there are few alternatives for local workers. Small populations limit the pool of qualified human resources for the international tourism industry, 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). It has been argued that international tourism is an effective route to small island state development, but it leaves labour in islands in a precarious position given their lack of connectivity with, or autonomy from, transnational employers far removed from local governance (Lee et al., 2015).

Tourism is considered an inevitable development path for many small islands and is often presented as the solution to successful economic development. However, given the nature of tourism in islands, and of the labour market, it is not without its challenges. An entrepreneurial approach to the tourism sector may be needed (Russell & Faulkner 2004), particularly as a way of navigating the various obstacles specific to tourism development in islands.

Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship, as an activity and as an academic area of study, has garnered increasing attention in recent years. This rapid evolution has helped to provide a rich seam of multi-disciplinary research from diverse fields such as economics, management, psychology, education and tourism. Sarasvathy & Venkataraman (2011) posit the danger of making a categorical error and argue the case for entrepreneurship as a method akin to the scientific method. Here they boldly make the case for a dominant logic of 'effectuation' and suggest that entrepreneurship is not just the preserve of the privileged few but can be learned and is a useful way for to make sense of the world we live in. Despite this, entrepreneurship research has been criticised for rarely being interdisciplinary or innovative in this manner, it often creates a duplication of efforts, it has insufficient cross-pollination of ideas, and limited theoretical consistency (Koppl, 2007; Aldrich & Baker, 2000).

Entrepreneurship is complex and can be examined at different levels, for example in terms of individuals, a team, or as an organisation, and also at the societal and macroeconomic levels. Entrepreneurship is also transformative and ephemeral (Anderson & Starnawska, 2008) and therefore there is no agreement on its definition (Gartner, 1989; Morris, 1998; Davidsson, 2003; Gartner & Baker, 2010). Typical definitions of entrepreneurship include; founding, the ability and willingness to act, taking charge, identifying and exploiting opportunities, managing risk, having an internal locus of control, and creating value, however, 'most of the attempts to distinguish between entrepreneurs and small business owners or managers have discovered no significant differentiating features' (Brockhuas & Horwitz, 1986, p. 42). What is clear is that entrepreneurship involves agents of change who, by identifying opportunities (Cunningham & Lischeron, 1991) give rise to new ventures (Gartner, 1989). Certainly, it seems inconceivable that someone can be described as entrepreneurial (albeit temporarily) without doing so.

Despite being 'perceived as an engine of economic and social development throughout the world' (Acs & Audretsch, 2006, p. 3), the impacts of entrepreneurial activity are difficult to measure (Van Stel et al., 2005; Audretsch, 2003) and can be productive, unproductive or even destructive (Baumol, 1990). Due to the multi-faceted and complex nature of the domain (Churchill & Bygrave, 1990) there seems unlikely to exist - and possibly no need for - a grand theory of entrepreneurship (Elam, 2006). However, the entrepreneurship arena has produced a substantial amount of high impacting research (Frank and Landström, 2016), despite often receiving criticism of the methodological approaches taken within the domain (McDonald et al., 2015).

A widely cited definition in the entrepreneurship literature is by Stevenson & Jarillo who stated, 'Entrepreneurship is a process by which individuals - either on their own or inside organizations - pursue opportunities without regard to the resources they currently control', (1990, p. 23). The propensity of individuals in an economy to pursue these opportunities is governed by policy which in turn creates the environmental conditions needed to harness entrepreneurial talent. Lundstrom & Stevenson, found that: 'Entrepreneurship policy encompasses those measures that intend to directly influence the level of entrepreneurial activity in a country or region and the consequences of that action for society.' (2005, p. 46). Many researchers have focussed their attentions on the factors and conditions needed for entrepreneurs to thrive (e.g. Gartner, 1985; Hawkins, 1993; Westhead, 1990). Ortega-Anderez & Lai (2017) found a causal link between entrepreneurial activity and culture, entrepreneurial activity and access to finance, and also human capital, and economic development. Other enabling factors and conditions prevailing in the literature include, support networks, education and training, state support, socioeconomic conditions, infrastructure, social capital and regulatory frameworks.

Entrepreneurs use diverse ways to perceive opportunities for change and to get things done Jóhannesson (2012). Social capital and effective knowledge management are crucial to an entrepreneurial orientation (Liu & Lee, 2015) and to firm performance and competitiveness (García-Almeida & Klassen, 2017). Owners of growth and profit-oriented enterprises can be clearly differentiated from those owners of lifestyle and autonomy businesses which predominate the tourism sector (Getz & Petersen, 2005).

Entrepreneurship and tourism

The tourism sector is a major contributor to the GDP of many developed and developing economies and boasts some internationally recognised entrepreneurial organisations. But although it can be said that entrepreneurship is fundamental to this sector (Russell & Faulkner, 2004), research is relatively sparse (Ball, 2005). Only two percent (97 out of 4917) of articles published in leading hospitality and tourism journals during a 21-year period (between 1996 and 2016) were related to entrepreneurship (Li, 2008). Whilst it can be said that quantity is certainly no indicator of quality, this evidence does typify the lack of importance being given to the significance of entrepreneurship within tourism. This limited attention is perhaps unsurprising since entrepreneurship is rarely included in the mission statements of tourism journals (Cheng et al., 2011). Li's study also found that there was no evidence to suggest that theoretical or empirical research show any signs of increasing in the future – 'Overall, the

findings reveal that entrepreneurship research has not been aggressively pursued in the field of the hospitality and tourism management', (2008, p. 1016). It is also clear that tourism entrepreneurship research is lacking in terms of more sophisticated methods such as structural equations modelling, with descriptive statistics proving to be the prevailing analytical approach (Li, 2008) and that few of these studies are published in high ranking entrepreneurship journals. Solvoll et al. (2015, p. 125) notes:

The lack of studies published in mainstream entrepreneurship journals indicates not only a limitation in engaging with the mainstream entrepreneurship debates but also reflects that mainstream entrepreneurship has not embraced the tourism industry as a relevant context for entrepreneurship research.

Innovation is a key element of entrepreneurial activity, but it is the rate of innovation a firm has, compared with its rivals, that really matters (Barnett & Hansen, 1996). The tourism sector is often criticised for its lack of innovation (Hjalager, 2009) which could be attributed to the dominant presence of small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs). Owing to limited resources and capabilities, it is unsurprising that SMEs find continually innovating more challenging than their larger counterparts. Whilst most economies are dominated by the contribution made by SMEs, this is more pronounced in small island economies and so their lack of ability to innovate becomes more significant. This is compounded by the structural handicaps that small island territories face and include, such as limited domestic markets, (that may also be dispersed in the case of an archipelago), high transport costs, lack of economies of scale, over reliance on a single market sector (such as agriculture or tourism), the diaspora (leading to a lack of expertise, knowledge and skills) and poor infrastructure (for example high speed internet connectivity and availability of finance) (Baldacchino, 2005).

Tourism has long been the mainstay economic activity of many small island territories. They are not only facing the structural challenges mentioned above but also face threats from environmental impacts of global warming, international financial markets and fierce foreign competition. Therefore, how innovation and entrepreneurial activity is harnessed within this sector and within small island developing states becomes fundamentally important.

Methods

The systematic review method is widely applied in the physical and medical sciences and has become increasingly used within tourism studies to synthesise the wide range of literature now published in the field, in order to arrive at “objective, replicable, systematic, and comprehensive coverage of a defined area” (Weed, 2006). Recently, within the tourism literature, 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 2015a) was used for the systematic review that formed the basis of this research. This methodology has been developed for use across the physical and social sciences and is an internationally applied technique for increasing the reliability and validity of systematic reviews. The PRISMA checklist (PRISMA 2015b) sets out the steps that should be followed in order 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 recently been adapted for use in tourism research in a number of papers (see, for example, Stone & Duffy, 2015; Yang et al., 2017; Wijesinghe et al., 2017; Garcês et al., 2018)

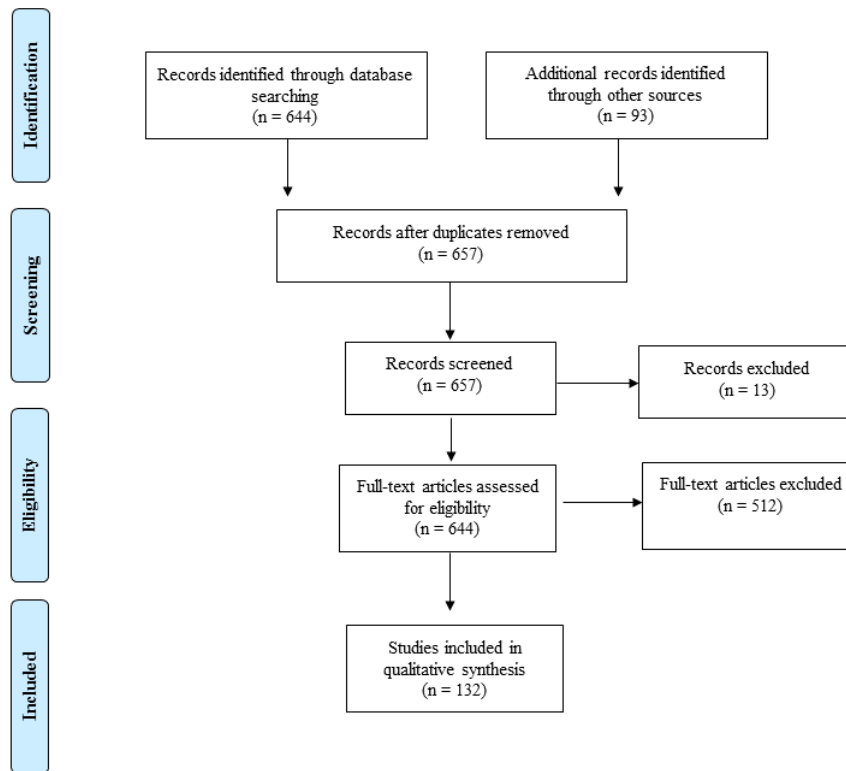
Articles for this systematic review were searched for using the Scopus (Elsevier 2017a) database. Scopus is a widely used and comprehensive database of research publications (Solvoll et al., 2015). Publications listed in Scopus have been included in the database following rigorous selection criterion, 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, 2017b). 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 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’. 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 papers 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 1991 islands, meaning that this 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 is the key focus of this paper. 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.

Unlike some similar reviews on tourism topics (Ateljevic & Li, 2009; Li, 2008), but in common with Slovoll et al. (2015) and Guadette et al. (2017), this review was not limited to the tourism journals, and 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 ten million were excluded as, following the literature review above, the focus of this paper is 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, or Sri Lanka. 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 the figure below, which uses the standard PRISMA flow chart (2015) to explain the systematic selection of articles for inclusion in this research.

Figure 1 - PRISMA diagram



The 132 articles were all read and then imported into NVivo 11 software. NVivo is content analysis software that allows for the storage, systematising and coding of qualitative data sources, including publications (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 analyse 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. Bibliographic information about the sample of papers 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 paper through a thematic analysis approach. The following sections of this paper presents the findings of this systematic review.

Results of Bibliographic Analysis

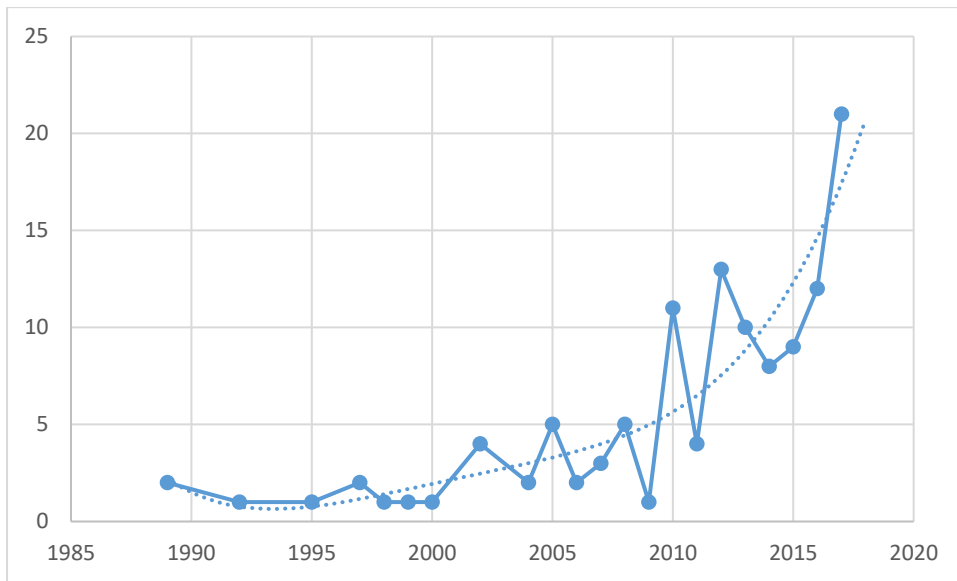
Publication of TEI research by year

Interest in TEI has been much more evident in the last decade than for the two preceding decades. Table 1 summarises the total number of articles published about TEI between 1989 and 2018. From 1989 to 2009, there was a consistently low level of interest in this research area with only 4 years in which 2 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 TEI articles, 1989-2018

Year of publication	Number of papers	Percentage of total	Year of publication	Number of papers	Percentage of total
1989	2	1.50%	2004	2	1.50%
1990	0	0.00%	2005	5	3.80%
1991	0	0.00%	2006	2	1.50%
1992	1	0.80%	2007	3	2.30%
1993	0	0.00%	2008	5	3.80%
1994	0	0.00%	2009	1	0.80%
1995	1	0.80%	2010	11	8.30%
1996	0	0.00%	2011	4	3.00%
1997	2	1.50%	2012	13	9.80%
1998	1	0.80%	2013	10	7.60%
1999	1	0.80%	2014	8	6.10%
2000	1	0.80%	2015	9	6.80%
2001	0	0.00%	2016	12	9.00%
2002	4	3.00%	2017	21	16.00%
2003	0	0.00%	2018	13	9.80%
			<u>Total</u>	<u>132</u>	<u>100%</u>

Figure 2 - Frequency of publication of TEI articles, 1989-2018



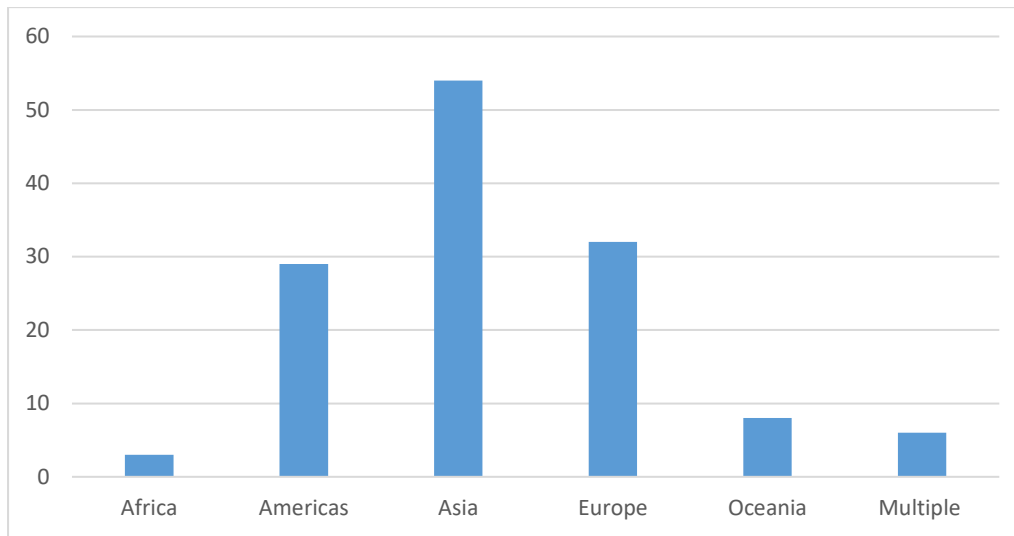
Publication of TEI Research by Geographic Focus

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

Table 2 -Geographical focus of the TEI articles, 1989-2018

Geographical focus	1980-1989		1990-1999		2000-2009		2010-2018		Total 1989-2018	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Africa	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1.01	3	2.3
Americas	1	100	2	33.3	10	41.6	16	15.8	29	22
Asia	0	0	3	50	6	25	45	44.6	54	40.9
Europe	0	0	0	0	6	25	26	25.7	32	24.2
Oceania	0	0	1	16.7	1	4.2	6	5.9	8	6.1
Multiple	0	0	0	0	1	4.2	5	4.95	6	4.5
Total	1	100	6	100	24	100	101	100	132	100

Figure 3 - Geographical focus of the TEI articles, 1989-2018



Publication of TEI Research by Methodological Approach

There is a strong preference for qualitative research in this field (see Table 3), with almost 64% of all articles adopting this methodological approach. This figure 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 of articles have taken a conceptual approach and a mixed methods approach, with 7.6% and 11.4% respectively.

Table 3 -Number of articles by methodological approach

Methods	1980-1989		1990-1999		2000-2009		2010-2018		Total 1989-2018	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Qualitative	0	0	3	50	15	62.5	66	65.3	84	63.6
Quantitative	0	0	0	0	4	16.7	19	18.8	23	17.4
Conceptual	1	100	3	50	1	4.1	5	5	10	7.6
Mixed methods	0	0	0	0	4	16.7	11	10.9	15	11.4
Total	1	100	6	100	24	100	101	100	132	100

TEI Research by Journal

Table 4 provides a summary of the articles on TEI by journal. The articles 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 2 or more articles in the area of TEI since 1989, have tourism as part of their scope. However, very few entrepreneurship journals (8) have published in this research area, with only 2 of these publishing 2 or more articles during this time. The results demonstrate that, whilst tourism 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 TEI research (3) specialise 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 7 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 5 articles since 1989.

Table 4 – List of Journals with more than one TEI article, and their scope

Journal title	No. of articles	Scope of journal		
		Entrepreneurship	Tourism	Islands
Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research	7	No	Yes	No
Tourism Management	6	No	Yes	No
Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism	5	No	Yes	No
Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes	4	No	Yes	No
Current Issues in Tourism	3	No	Yes	No
Tourism Economics	3	No	Yes	No
Journal of Sustainable Tourism	3	No	Yes	No
Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management	3	No	Yes	No
International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business	3	Yes	No	No
IOP Conf. Series: Earth and Environmental Science	3	No	No	No
Tourism Geographies	3	No	Yes	No
International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research	2	Yes	No	No
Journal of Physics	2	No	No	No

Ocean & Coastal Management	2	No	No	No
Annals of Tourism Research	2	No	Yes	No
Journal of Destination Marketing & Management	2	No	Yes	No
Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change	2	No	Yes	No
International Journal of Tourism Research	2	No	Yes	No
Tourism Recreation Research	2	No	Yes	No
Tourism Planning and Development	2	No	Yes	No

Publication of TEI Research by Journal Ranking

Table 5 shows the number of articles that appear in journals specified by SCImago ranking and Table 6 is by Impact Factor. The same journals appear in both tables, with two exceptions: *International Journal of Tourism Research* makes it into the SCImago table at the expense of *Resources policy* which is included in the Impact Factor list.

Table 5 – Journals by SCImago ranking and number of TEI publications

Journal title	SCImago (2017)	Total number
Tourism Management	3.027	6
Annals of Tourism Research	2.262	3
Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research	2.15	1
International Journal of Hospitality Management	2.027	1
Journal of Sustainable Tourism	1.543	4
Current Issues in Tourism	1.474	3
International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	1.452	1
Journal of Small Business Management	1.337	1
International Journal of Tourism Research	1.315	2
Total		22
Percentage of total number of articles (132)		17%

Figure 4 - Journals by SCImago ranking and number of TEI publications

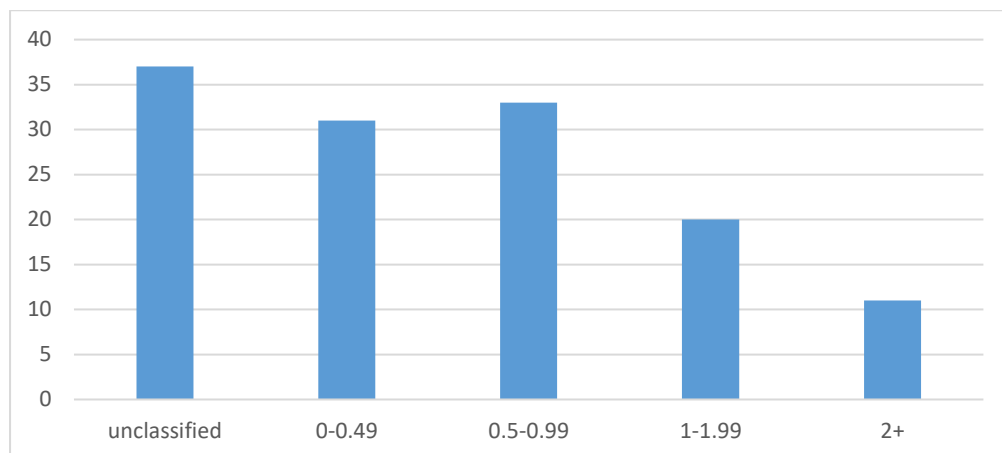
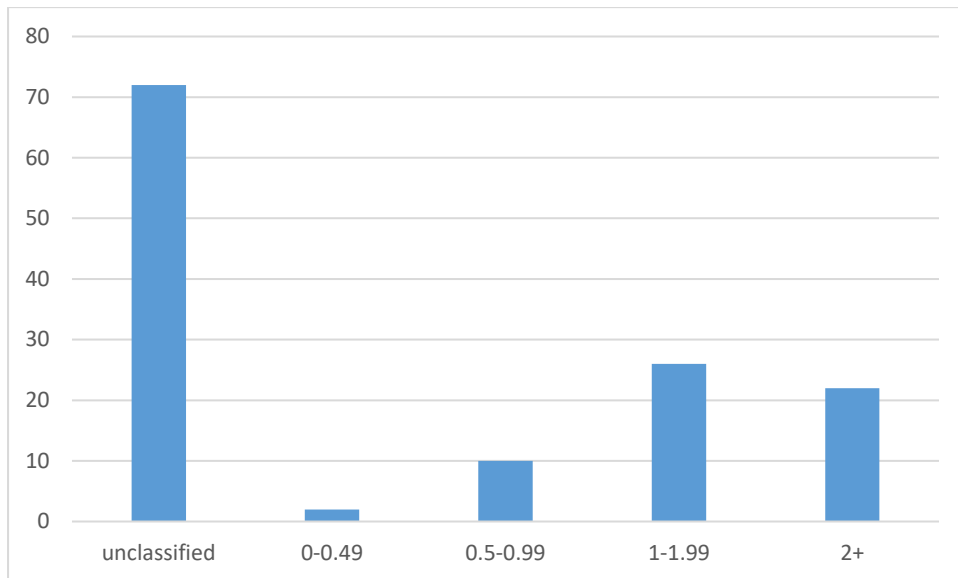


Table 6 -Highest ranking journals by impact factor and their publication

Journal title	I Factor (2017)	Total number
Tourism Management	4.707	6
International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	3.196	1
Annals of Tourism Research	3.194	3
Journal of Sustainable Tourism	2.978	4
Journal of Small Business Management	2.876	1
International Journal of Hospitality Management	2.787	1
Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research	2.646	1
Resources Policy	2.618	1
Current Issues in Tourism	2.451	3
Total		21
Percentage of total number of articles (132)		16%

Figure 5 -Publications classified by Impact Factor



With a total of four articles, no other journal has published more than Tourism Management (highest ranking journal with both measures) in the last 5 years. However, it is notable (and clearly illustrated in Figures 4 and 5) that the majority of TEI articles have been published in unclassified and lower ranked journals.

Thematic Analysis

In this section, the key themes in the articles, that were identified using NVivo software (see methods section, above), are the focus for a qualitative, thematic analysis, which aims to identify the pertinent issues associated with TEI that have been explored in the papers included in this systematic review. This is the final stage of the PRISMA methodology outlined above, which requires a synthesis of the findings to allow for the production of knowledge about the topic under review (PRISMA 2015). The findings of this thematic analysis are presented below under six key theme headings: TEI and industrial restructuring, TEI and the role of the state, TEI and the role of community, The role of women in TEI, TEI and niche product development, and TEI, Vulnerability and Resilience.

TEI 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 TEI could be realised. A significant number of articles placed the development of TEI as resulting from industrial transitions in the destinations. For example, Vaugeois & Rollins' (2007) study of Vancouver Island, Canada, showed that

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 & 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, Hingten 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 TEI 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).

TEI and the Role of the State

The role of the state has also been identified as a key influencing factor in the emergence of TEI. Baldacchino & 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 whilst 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 & 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) analysed the ways in which local entrepreneurs on the Thai island of Samui interacted with state-led developments in the local tourism industry, 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 found that education, access to finance and bureaucracy were contributory inhibitors of entrepreneurial success. Furthermore, in a fifteen year long, ethnographic study of Indonesian entrepreneurs in Ngadha, Cole (2007) found that island tourism entrepreneurial success has been 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 focussed 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 & 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 forces many entrepreneurs to seek finance from loan sharks who charge punitive rates of interest. They found that microfinance offers the opportunity to overcome these lending restrictions whilst 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 & 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 skills 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 Labour 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 & 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.

TEI and the Role of Community

Research that examined the role of community in TEI 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 organised tours. Gowreesunkar 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) recognises 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 commercialisation 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-commercialisation. 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 & 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 realised.

Pradono et al. (2016) explain these approaches to entrepreneurship as aspects of economic empowerment, using the example of where tourism development in the Punack region of Indonesia is enhanced by drawing on the resources of local communities, and that arguing 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 maximisation. These community perspectives on entrepreneurship are not necessarily static even within traditional island communities however, as shown by Haniza Mohamad & 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 & Kunjaraman (2015), noted that there were significant barriers to developing the homestay programme 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 do 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, enclavic tourism development was viewed less positively by local communities because it offered fewer opportunities for entrepreneurship.

Roessingh & Duijnhoven (2005) investigated the influences on TEI in the Dominican Republic. They described how entrepreneurs were forced to start working in the tourism industry 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 in 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.

The Role of Women in TEI

One of the themes that emerged from this review relates to issues associated with gender and TEI. This is a recent development in the literature since 2014 and is primarily concerned with women's employment.

Tajedinni 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 paper, 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 TEI. 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 sexualised 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, Movano & 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 areas indicates that TEI can both reinforce and challenge traditional female roles.

TEI and Niche Product Development

There was no single type of tourism identified in the literature as most appropriate for TEI, instead, there were a wide variety of niche tourism product development initiative in evidence. Percy (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 eco-tourism, there was the potential for this type of tourism development pathway to be more sustainable in both economic and social terms.

Alonso & 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 nice tourism products were introduced to an island destination, Rhormens et al. (2017) reported that local entrepreneurs in Boibepa, 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 capitalise on the use of these natural resources. Finally, Kelly (2010) found the majority of wellness retreat providers to be lifestyle entrepreneurs who are product focussed but suffer from a lack of collective organisation.

TEI, Vulnerability and Resilience

Vleck's review (2016) of Baldacchino (2015) summarises 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. Vleck notes that by capitalising on the geographic location, focussing on niche markets and leveraging the creative use of territory's political and institutional status, some island economies have thrived. Vleck, 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 papers found in this study. For example, Adams and Sandarupa (2018) offer 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.

S raphin et al. (2017) noted the limited extent of research of tourism within the Caribbean region, despite its importance to the region's economy. This paper 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 Réunion) in order to seek government airfare subsidies and overcome Creole oppression from the Hindu majority.

Summary of Thematic Analysis

The literature reviewed in this research is dominated by a consideration of the economic context for TEI. 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 services 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 TEI.

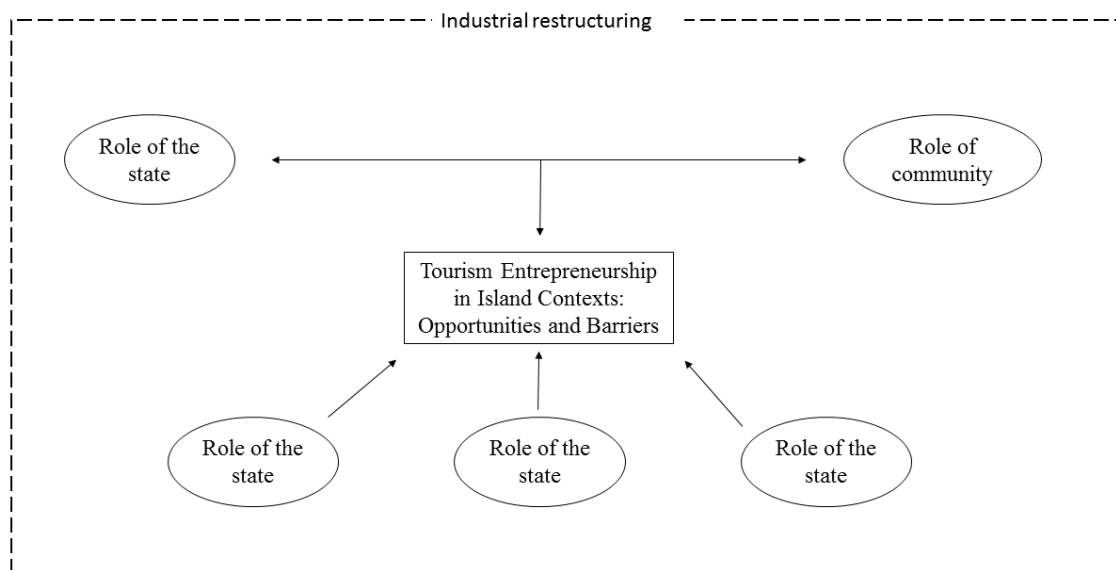
The next most significant area of thematic concentration was concerned with the relationship between this economic context and the role and interests of communities, most frequently placed into an oppositional relationship with the institutions of the state. Communities were discussed variously as working together, independently of the state, to develop TEI, 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 themes identified through this review concentrated on explaining the opportunities for, and barriers to, TEI. Figure six 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 TEI research



Conclusions

The aims of this research were to develop an appreciation of the range of approaches used in the TEI 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 TEI by the authors of the reviewed papers, and the entrepreneurs that they reported on. This conclusion

summarises some of the key findings of the analyses presented above, in order to provide useful insights for further research into TEI.

The bibliographic aspects of this analysis allowed for a very broad review of the nature of research into TEI. 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 TEI, with 77% of all publications reviewed in this research having been published since 2010. This suggests that TEI is of growing interest to researchers, and the subsequent bibliographic 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 TEI has a geographical bias, favouring the Asia-Pacific region. In this respect, the literature on TEI 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 TEI within discourses of post-colonialism, dependency and indigeneity and it also strongly emphasises the role of community and cultural identities. Future research into TEI should also 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 TEI 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 TEI literature is notable for a lack of attempts to produce generalizable findings, and there are no emerging models that can explain or critique TEI across multiple settings. However, given the recent growth of research in this field, and the multiple case studies available to analyse, further quantitative, and comparative, research into TEI 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 emphasised the economic and industrial context for TEI. 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, TEI 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 behaviours 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 TEI.

Despite the industrial and geographical specificities of this research, it is a surprising finding of this study 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 TEI 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 TEI for three main reasons. Firstly, the bibliographic 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 generalisability in their findings. Secondly, researchers in TEI 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 TEI 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.

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