



# ENTREPRENEURIAL TRAINING IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

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**Abstract:** This paper advocates a three-pronged approach to tourism education consisting of professional, vocational, and entrepreneurial training. In the past, the debate on appropriate tourism education in developing countries has centered on the relative merits of two of these approaches—professional education and vocational training. This discussion, however, focuses on the third component: entrepreneurial development. The importance of entrepreneurship in the tourism industry is discussed and some examples of existing programs are provided. Four criteria for the design of a successful entrepreneurial development program are outlined. Finally, the special economic, political, and social issues facing the educators of tourism entrepreneurs in developing countries are addressed. **Keywords:** Entrepreneurship, tourism education, developing countries.

**Résumé:** La formation de l'esprit d'entreprise dans les pays en voie de développement. L'article préconise une triple formation en tourisme: pour développer une compréhension théorique, des compétences pratiques et un esprit d'entreprise. Dans le passé, le débat sur la formation en tourisme dans les pays en voie de développement a tourné sur la formation théorique et la formation pratique. La présente discussion se concentre sur le but d'animer un esprit d'initiative. On discute l'importance de cet esprit dans l'industrie touristique, et on en présente quelques exemples actuels. On fait la liste de quatre critères pour un programme réussi pour développer l'esprit d'entreprise. On finit par aborder les questions économiques, politiques et sociales auxquelles doivent faire face les éducateurs en tourisme aux pays en voie de développement. **Mots-clés:** esprit d'entreprise, formation en tourisme, pays en voie de développement.

## INTRODUCTION

It is evident that the volume of international tourists visiting the developing countries is on the rise. In the last decade, the average annual increase in the number of tourist arrivals in the developing countries was 5.7%, well above the worldwide average increase of 3.9%. Furthermore, several developing countries, such as Mexico, Singapore, Thailand, and Korea, are among the world's top 20 tourism earners (World Tourism Organization 1992).

The changing travel pattern is due to many interrelated factors. Obviously, some developing countries are now more accessible to tourists due to expanding and more efficient air transportation networks. Several have been actively encouraging tourism by building the required facilities and infrastructure and by eliminating entry barriers, such as visa and currency controls. As a result, many now offer a

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readily accessible, inexpensive, alternative to the more traditional destinations in the developed world. Their popularity is further enhanced because they are unspoiled, adventurous, and exotic.

The sudden and rapid growth of tourism in certain developing countries has created an immediate demand for the facilities and personnel required to serve tourists. In many cases, developing countries have initially concentrated on providing the “hardware” of the industry: buildings and infrastructure such as hotels and transportation (Cullen 1988:76). In this rush to develop tourism facilities, the “software”—trained personnel needed to deliver tourism services—has often been given a lower priority. As a result, there is now an acute shortage of properly trained local personnel. As the volume of tourism to the developing countries continues to grow in the future, the need for appropriate tourism education and training becomes increasingly important and urgent.

But what does “appropriate tourism education and training” entail? What is the blend of skills and knowledge needed to ensure the successful development of local human resources? This paper advocates a “three-pronged” approach to tourism education in developing countries. This approach involves the cultivation of three types of skills: professional, vocational, and entrepreneurial (Figure 1). A brief overview of the professional and vocational components is discussed first. However, since the relative merits of the these two components have been debated at length elsewhere (Blanton 1981; Cooper and Westlake 1989; Hawkins and Hunt 1988; Howell and Uysal 1987; Jafari and Ritchie 1981; Jenkins 1980; Ritchie 1988; Theuns and Rasheed 1983), this paper focuses on the third, largely overlooked component of tourism education: entrepreneurial development.

Existing types of tourism education programs are diverse, differing greatly in duration, content, and context. However, they can, in general, be grouped into two basic categories: professional education and vocational skills. They comprise the first two components of the proposed three-pronged approach to tourism education.

The first component, professional education, is generally typified by

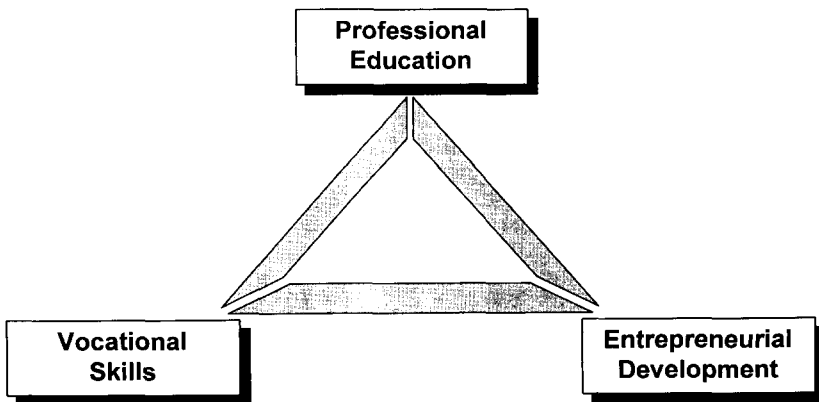


Figure 1. A Three-Pronged Approach to Tourism Education in the Third World

being more academic in nature. Such education is best accomplished at a tertiary (university) level. This type of education provides theoretical concepts and develops students' ability to interpret, evaluate, and analyze (Cooper and Westlake 1989:72). The result is a broader and deeper understanding of the nature and impact of tourism. As such, professional tourism education produces the qualified manpower needed at the strategic level in both the public and private sector.

In developing countries, there is an increasingly urgent need for local individuals possessing a holistic background. The accelerating growth of tourism has, in many cases, been accompanied by inept planning and severe social, economic, and environmental impacts on host communities. Furthermore, the harmonization of private-sector tourism initiatives with public-sector goals for development and social progress has often been ignored (Jenkins 1980:240). Professionals, prepared with the knowledge and skills to understand tourism in its totality—the interrelationships involved and the various impacts on the host community—are needed to reduce inappropriate forms of tourism development (Howell and Uysal 1987:63).

The main objective of the second type of training, vocational, is to teach skills that can be applied to specific positions, such as chef, travel counsellor, or housekeeping supervisor. The content of such programs is highly practical, focusing on specific on-the-job tasks (Cooper and Westlake 1989:72). Such training is critical in order to effectively deliver the products and services required by the tourism industry. However, in most developing countries, there is a chronic shortage of trained local individuals, both on the front line and the supervisory levels (Hegarty 1988). As a result, senior personnel are often attracted from abroad and the locals are relegated to the most unskilled, and correspondingly lowest paying, positions. The foreign personnel can be problematic as there is often an insensitivity to the local social and cultural framework. Therefore, vocational training is essential for the employment and the advancement of local inhabitants and for the prevention of unnecessary cultural frictions.

The debate concerning the content and approach to tourism education programs has centered on the relative merits of professional education versus vocational skills. These two types of tourism education are mainly concerned with creating the human resources needed to *work for others*, either in the public or the private sectors of tourism. In developing countries, many of these programs have focused on providing the trained manpower needed to efficiently run large scale tourism enterprises, particularly hotels (Theuns and Go 1991:341).

The third component of the proposed three-pronged approach, the development of entrepreneurship or the initiative to *work for oneself*, has been largely ignored in the tourism education debate. This is a significant oversight. By not encouraging and cultivating local tourism entrepreneurial development, an important portion of the human resource potential is not being tapped. In fact, it has been suggested that one of the most critical needs of the developing countries is the fostering of both entrepreneurs and an environment within which entrepreneurship can flourish (Nehrt 1987:76).

The third approach makes the assumption that entrepreneurship can

be taught. However, some would argue that entrepreneurs are born, not made. Certainly, it is difficult to deny that some individuals seem to have innate entrepreneurial flair, just as others have natural talents for mathematics or music. Nevertheless, success in any endeavor requires the appropriate mix of ingrained characteristics and learned skills. Aspiring entrepreneurs not only need certain behavioral traits but also need to acquire knowledge of the venture creation process, including an understanding of specific management tools (Loucks 1988b:53-54). While many innovative individuals would like to become entrepreneurs, they often lack the techniques and skills needed to succeed.

The role of education can be better understood by breaking entrepreneurship into several components. Entrepreneurship can be envisaged as a combination of creativity and/or innovation, uncertainty and/or risk taking, and managerial and/or business capabilities (McMullan and Long 1990:168-170). Innovation and risk taking are attributes that are difficult to learn or change. In fact, Harper (1984:112) comments that it is unlikely that risk averse, noninnovative individuals can be trained to be entrepreneurial. Therefore, it is often recommended that the presence or absence of these two personal attributes be used to screen and select potential entrants to entrepreneurial development programs.

However, the third component, managerial and business capability, can be developed and enhanced through education. In other words, the role of an entrepreneurship development program is to provide business and management tools to persons that have been screened for the appropriate personality traits. Through the training of such individuals, the number of successful entrepreneurial endeavours can be substantially increased. "Since new venture success is foremost a function of knowledge and know-how, entrepreneurship education is an unavoidable component of modern economic development strategy" (McMullan and Long 1990:485). Proof of the success of well-designed entrepreneurship development programs in India, Africa, and other developing areas is provided by Gupta (1989), Dainow (1988), and Loucks (1988b).

## ENTREPRENEURIAL DEVELOPMENT IN TOURISM

Enterprises in the tourism industry range from large transnational corporations (usually foreign owned and managed), to medium-sized facilities (either foreign or locally owned), to small scale businesses (usually locally owned). One of the most common criticisms of tourism in developing countries concerns the negative social, economic, and environmental impacts of the larger scale tourism projects. It has been shown that large, transnational enterprises are often not as effective as originally believed in increasing foreign exchange earnings and job opportunities (Rodenburg 1989). This is because there is significant economic leakage due to the purchase of foreign supplies and labor and to the channeling of profits out of the developing countries.

On the other hand, locally-owned enterprises, albeit usually smaller in scale, offer greater direct economic payback and control. "Local ownership implies that economic success for the entrepreneur results in benefits to the local community" (Rodenburg 1989:219). In other

words, such developments are much more likely to rely on local sources of supplies and labor and are much less likely to produce the negative sociocultural effects associated with foreign ownership. Local tolerance to tourist activities is significantly enhanced if opportunities exist for active resident involvement in the ownership and operation of facilities (D'Amore 1983:146). Medium- and small-scale operations can also respond more effectively to changes in the marketplace and fill gaps overlooked by larger, more bureaucratic organizations. In sum, it has been argued that smaller-scale, locally-owned enterprises tend to enhance community stability, do less harm to the physical environment, and generally raise the level of popular participation in the economy (Loucks 1988b:2).

Entrepreneurs, in general, make significant contributions to the development process of the Third World. These contributions include raising productivity; creating employment; restructuring and diversifying the economy; reducing the concentration of economic power through a wider dispersal of industry ownership; reducing market inefficiencies by making the marketplace more dynamic and competitive; improving the social welfare of a country by harnessing dormant, previously overlooked talent; commercializing innovative products and services; and creating new markets (Ray 1988:1-2). Overall, entrepreneurship is touted as a low-cost strategy of economic and social development. It has been determined that the payback is very large relative to each unit of government assistance, whether such assistance is in the form of training entrepreneurs or the provision of low interest loans (Ray 1988:2).

Obviously, it would be difficult, and perhaps even undesirable, to eliminate large-scale, foreign-owned tourism projects in developing nations. However, there is still a need to encourage local entrepreneurs and to provide the training necessary for these individuals to develop and operate their tourism businesses. The importance of this type of resident-responsive, community-based tourism development is increasing as tourists demand more authentic "alternative, grass-roots" forms of tourism.

There are many types of entrepreneurial activity that can be encouraged in the tourism industry. The new venture may be the property of one individual or a cooperative effect. Some examples of smaller scale opportunities include selling handicrafts, either from the home or a small shop; guiding service; homestay or bed and breakfast; food services, such as tea stalls, small cafes, and restaurants; short distance shuttle/transportation service, for example, from resorts to towns or attractions; tours of the local area; rentals, for example, of sporting equipment and bicycles; medium-sized hotels or guesthouses; souvenir stalls or shops; folk entertainment, such as dance troupes and musicians; opening of traditional villages, homes, or privately-owned cultural/natural sites to tourists; opportunities to observe local activities, such as seeing production of handicrafts, pottery, baskets, and metal works; and opportunities to participate in local festivals and activities. This list, though incomplete, provides some indications of the large variety of options that are available to local entrepreneurs interested in the tourism industry.

The problem in the majority of developing countries is that the

private sector is small and entrepreneurial experience in many areas, including tourism, is lacking (Jenkins 1980:239). In order to develop an indigenous business sector, knowledge of the skills needed to set up and operate tourism businesses is needed. This is why the third approach to tourism education, entrepreneurial development, is so essential.

### *Examples of Existing Programs*

It would be useful, at this point, to introduce some existing programs as examples of the successful implementation of the entrepreneurial approach to tourism education. However, consultations with numerous organizations, including the World Tourism Organization (WTO), Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA), International Labor Office (ILO), and Council on Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education (CHRIE), seem to indicate that, to date, no tourism entrepreneurship training programs have been developed. The tourism sector could be incorporated into the existing United States Association for International Development (AID) entrepreneurship development program, particularly in Egypt, the Caribbean, and Central America. However, up to this point, no action has been taken in this direction.

One pioneering effort is a proposed joint effort between Capilano College in Canada and the Rajamangala Technical Institute in Thailand (White 1990). Special entrepreneurial courses developed at this Canadian college are to be modified for use in Thailand. The courses include small business skills, adventure tourism, tourism product development, small resort management, and events and attractions management. Emphasis is on "entrepreneurial and small business management skills suitable for smaller scale, rural and community based tourism operators" (White 1990:3). The Rajamangala Technical Institute is to be actively involved in the adaptation, revision, and creation of new materials and case studies to ensure a strong sense of ownership of the program. After programs have been adequately modified, faculty from Canada will be individually paired with Thai counterparts in a highly personalized "train the trainer" program.

While not strictly dealing with the tourism industry, more generic forms of entrepreneurial education programs are in place in certain developing countries. These include the Entrepreneurship Development Program in India, Programa de Incentivos y Soportes a las Microempresas (PRISMA) in Bolivia, and Improve Your Business (IYB) in various African countries.

The first of these programs, the Entrepreneurship Development Program, was developed in the 1980s and is offered through the Entrepreneurship Development Institute of India. The duration of the program can vary from 15 to 90 days, depending upon the degree of detail and complexity desired. Training focuses on achievement motivation, business opportunity guidance, and management skills (Gupta 1989:68).

The second program, PRISMA, was developed through the Mennonite Economic Development Associates. It is a 20-hour course, designed over a 2-week time frame. One of the features of this program is the prominent role of the consultant/mentor. In addition to the regular instructor, a business person is individually matched to each

student in the program and provides support and practical advice. The content of the programs centers around the business skills necessary to develop and manage an entrepreneurial venture (Mennonite Economic Development Associates 1989).

The third program, Improve Your Business (IYB), was originally designed in Sweden in the late 1970s by the International Labor Organization and the Swedish International Development Authority. It was subsequently adapted for use in various developing countries. The typical IYB delivery is a 5-day residential seminar, covering general entrepreneurial business skills. Besides courses for aspiring entrepreneurs, the program also offers individual counselling to existing entrepreneurs and "training of trainers" workshops (Dainow 1988:51).

In countries where generic entrepreneurship programs are already available, customized industry specific modules can easily be developed from the existing framework. For instance, the Indian Entrepreneurship Development Program has, in the past, been tailored to the specific requirements of certain industries or target groups. In these cases, the basic core components of the program were retained, but illustrations and cases were replaced by industry specific examples. In addition, new modules were often developed to address unique industry issues. The modifications of program content were made using the expertise of individuals in the particular industry, including academics, governmental officials, and private sector business practitioners (Gupta 1989:67). Although such existing generic entrepreneurship programs have not yet been customized for the tourism industry, this is a readily available, inexpensive option for the future.

In countries where such generic entrepreneurial development programs are not yet available, one alternative is to import and adapt successful programs already established in other nations. As mentioned previously, the IYB program was originally developed in Sweden but was later adapted for use in 11 countries in Africa. In each case, the materials had to be redesigned to overcome the cultural and literacy differences between Sweden and the African countries. A handbook was produced; it presented the theory in simple, practical terms and used many illustrations, graphics and local examples. In addition, a customized workbook, specifically tailored to each set of users, provided exercises to apply the concepts (Dainow 1988:58-59). In order to be most effective in tourism entrepreneurial development, such imported programs must be adapted both for the particular cultural setting and specifically for use in the tourism industry.

### *Designing a Program*

An alternative to adapting existing courses is to design a customized tourism entrepreneurial development program. In this case, it is useful to note four criteria central to the success of such a program: program content and style, identification and selection of trainees, follow-up, and qualified instructors. A detailed discussion of the design of entrepreneurship development programs can be found in Loucks (1988b) and Harper (1994).

1. *Program content and style.* Traditional business education addresses management issues through the study of standardized functional areas such as marketing, finance, accounting, information systems, and organizational behavior. In general, this functional approach provides the skills needed by managers in larger organizations. Therefore, it has been suggested that business management in the context of entrepreneurial training should be approached chronologically rather than cross-sectionally (McMullan and Long 1990:491-492). In other words, the dynamics of development, rather than the functional areas, become the central theme of entrepreneurial business management education. In this manner, the entrepreneur is provided with the specific skills and techniques that are necessary to guide the new venture through the earliest stages of strategic development: opportunity identification, feasibility analysis, initial financing, product design, and market development. As a result, entrepreneurship development programs are somewhat unique in terms of curriculum design and delivery when compared to the more traditional forms of business management education.

Topics generally covered by entrepreneurial programs include motivation and behavior training, opportunity assessment, venture development, strategic decision making, and general marketing skills. The level of detail required for each of these topics varies, depending on the scale of the proposed entrepreneurial ventures, the sophistication of the market, the degree of competition, and the background of the students. In the case of many of the existing programs discussed earlier, the level of detail is quite basic. For the most part, these programs have dealt with small scale ventures in fairly unsophisticated markets and with students who have little or no background in business management.

Normally, the major portion of the program includes such topics as understanding credit, financial planning, marketing, production, sales techniques, and success evaluation. It has been shown that the most important factor in a successful entrepreneurship development program is the requirement that students collect and analyze data and defend the feasibility of the start up and operation of their own business (Loucks 1988b:87). Therefore, most programs assist participants in completing a feasibility analysis, business plan, and financial proposal.

A customized entrepreneurial development program should retain these core components but should add material relevant to a particular industry and to the cultural setting. For example, a tourism entrepreneurial development program in Nepal should include the traditional core components and also modules that address the unique issues of the tourism industry and the cultural setting of the country. All illustrations, examples, and cases included in the course should also be customized to the tourism industry and to the specific national setting. As mentioned previously, this customization process is best accomplished by the use of tourism experts from the developing country, such as academics, governmental officials, and private sector business practitioners (Gupta 1989).

With regards to teaching style, entrepreneurial development programs should encourage the development of independent, self-reliant



individuals. Therefore, approaches such as case studies, real-life projects, and experiential exercises are preferred to the traditional lecture style format. Useful techniques include management games, field trips to existing businesses, role-play situations (for example, practice presentations to bankers), and individual counseling/mentoring by successful entrepreneurs (Loucks 1988a:14). Entrepreneurial "mentors" have been shown to be particularly important as they often serve as role models for the students (Nehrt 1987:77).

The ability to build a strong working relationship with existing local industries is an integral factor to the success of the smaller entrepreneur. Therefore, it is important that the private sector is encouraged to assume an active and participatory role in the development and implementation of the entrepreneurship program. One of the means to stimulate such involvement, namely entrepreneurial mentoring, was noted earlier. However, there are numerous other possibilities of private sector cooperation that should be considered. These include industry advisory boards; guest speakers and/or instructors from industry; field trips to various industries; provision of "real life" projects for student course work; participation in role play situations; and involvement in counselling and career planning (Cooper and Westlake 1989: 141; Middleton and Demsky 1989:9,38).

*2. Identification and selection of trainees.* The careful screening and selection of trainees is fundamental to the success rate of the entrepreneurial development program. As mentioned previously, individuals that lack the ability to innovate or that have an aversion to risk are not likely to be entrepreneurial, even with the appropriate training. Therefore, in most existing programs, selection of the trainees is based on certain personality traits. Characteristics such as the need for achievement, capacity for risk-taking, originality, a positive self-concept, problem-solving ability, and perseverance are good indicators of entrepreneurial potential (Gupta 1989:67). These attributes are usually assessed through a series of informal and formal interviews, rather than by more rigid forms of measurement, such as written tests.

Another factor that could be taken into consideration in choosing trainees is previous experience with entrepreneurship. An individual that has already operated an entrepreneurial venture, or been exposed to one through working for relatives or friends, has a better understanding of what is involved in the entrepreneurial process. Such a person is likely to enter the program with more clearly defined goals and objectives and to have a more realistic perception of what is necessary to succeed.

A final factor that is sometimes considered is the individual's network of acquaintances. In most business ventures, the likelihood of success increases if an individual has an existing network of contacts to draw upon for business leads, financial backing, and even advice.

*3. Follow-up.* With regard to follow-up, ongoing counseling and advisory services should be readily available to the entrepreneurial graduate. For instance, in some programs, the instructor and/or the mentor

remain involved with the graduate throughout the implementation of the entrepreneur's business idea (Gupta 1989:68).

4. *Qualified instructors.* Once the entrepreneurial courses have been developed, suitable instructors must be recruited. Unfortunately, in many developing countries, there is a chronic lack of experienced educators and trainers. Such shortages of faculty and expertise can result in curricula that are diluted and that tend to lack focus (Cullen 1988: 77).

An initial solution is to employ foreign instructors from institutions that currently deliver entrepreneurship programs in other developing countries. For example, a number of experienced trainers from the Philippines and India have conducted effective entrepreneurship development programs in other developing countries (Harper 1984:108). However, such instructors need to draw on local experts to provide the supplementary knowledge relevant to tourism and to the new cultural setting. Even with such assistance, the use of foreign trainers is often not desirable, or possible, due to various linguistic, cultural, or social barriers. Even when feasible, foreign instructors are only an interim solution. The long-term goal should be the indigenization of the teaching staff. Therefore, a program of "training the trainers" needs to be established so that foreign teaching staff is eventually minimized. Some existing entrepreneurial development programs offer training courses that are useful for establishing a core of instructors in a new area or country.

Experienced trainers should be assisted by practicing entrepreneurs. Whereas the trainers are specialists in knowledge formation and dissemination, the practitioners bring expertise in "real-life" situations and community practices. The balanced teaching approach, trainers plus practitioners, is facilitated through such techniques as team teaching, entrepreneurs in residence, and guest lecturers (McMullan and Long 1990:492-493).

#### *Special Issues and Problems*

The issues and problems associated with the development and implementation of appropriate tourism training policy can be quite complex. The design of education policy at a national level is dependent upon several factors, including the state of the present educational system, the importance attached to the tourism industry, and the availability of resources (Fletcher and Latham 1989:164). Effective implementation requires the cooperation and coordination of various public and private organizations and institutions. Since developing countries frequently face unstable conditions, the resources and cooperation necessary for designing and implementing effective tourism education policy are often difficult to harness and control.

Conducive economic, political, and social conditions are required for the success of entrepreneurship development programs. In some developing countries, issues such as inadequate financial assistance for new ventures, complex bureaucracies, and traditional social barriers may inhibit small scale entrepreneurship. These barriers must be ad-

dressed and resolved in order for the training programs to be effective.

*1. Economic barriers.* A lack of financial resources is the overriding issue that faces the majority of developing countries in designing and implementing tourism education programs. In almost all cases, there are no or very limited funds available to develop adequate teaching materials and to train instructors. In view of this, it becomes apparent that careful consideration should be given to the expenditure of scarce resources so that highly cost effective tourism education programs are produced.

To address a lack of teaching materials, it is tempting to import existing programs of education. However, as already mentioned, although this course of action is inexpensive in terms of initial expenditures for program development, it can be costly in terms of inefficiency and ineffectiveness. Programs designed in the First World are based on the assumption of sophisticated business, distribution, and technological systems. These are rarely present in developing countries. Furthermore, differences in the culture, learning styles, composition and educational background of the student body, existing attitudes about tourism and job roles, and qualifications of the trainers may seriously affect the usefulness of externally developed materials (Blanton 1981). Thus, existing programs of education, course materials, and styles of teaching may not be appropriate in a particular Third World setting. In fact, it cannot even be assumed that a model developed within one developing region can be transferred without modifications and adaptations to another. Local, regional, and national factors, both economic and sociocultural, must be taken into consideration in designing the content and delivery of tourism education programs.

Rather than succumb to the seemingly "quick and cheap" solution of the direct adoption of foreign course materials and instructors, a cooperative program such as that previously outlined between Capilano College in Canada and the Rajamangala Technical Institute in Thailand could be followed. This kind of effort provides a more customized program and a pool of well-trained indigenous instructors. It also frequently results in increased access to funding through the "sister" country and various international lending agencies.

Furthermore, it is important to remember that the potential students themselves may face financial barriers that must be addressed in order for the entrepreneurial training program to be successful. If tuition costs are too high, this will prohibit members of lower socioeconomic groups from participating. In terms of the broader issues of social development, these are often the groups that should be targeted rather than excluded.

Upon completing the program, most students will require "start up" loans and other financial assistance. Governments, or other private organizations/institutions, must be prepared to offer some special financial concessions to encourage entrepreneurial growth. For example, the 1988 National Tourism Policy in India recommended to the federal government that tourism entrepreneurs be granted loans at lower interest rates. In response, the Tourism Financial Corporation of India was established to provide loans exclusively to the tourism

industry. As a further incentive, it was also recommended that tourism entrepreneurs be allowed to deduct 50% of their foreign-exchange earnings from taxable income (Ahmed 1991:76).

2. *Political barriers.* The development of tourism education programs can be hampered by the degree of stability in the existing political system. Lack of stability, and alternatively political stagnation, are common problems in the developing world. In other words, many Third World countries are either ruled by a series of frequently changing individuals and parties (instability) or are subject to long-term rule by one individual or party (stagnation). Either scenario can create complexities in the design and implementation of tourism education policies.

In the case of lack of stability, programs and policies designated as priorities by one government may be down scaled or abandoned by the succeeding administration. Therefore, long-term projects, such as the development of tourism education programs, may be initially approved only to be altered or rejected by subsequent governments. Although changes of government, and thereby changes in priorities and policies, are also a problem in developed countries, Third World nations are often characterized by more frequent and severe swings in politics. Indeed, if political unrest becomes too serious, the entire tourism industry may be at jeopardy.

Political stagnation, in the form of dictatorships or one party systems, can also be detrimental. If the government in control has little interest or initiative in tourism, it is unlikely that tourism education will be pursued to any great extent.

Public sector participation in the formulation of tourism education programs should not be limited to the national level of government. Each region should be encouraged to formulate its own policies, and training facilities and programs should be adapted to suit these local objectives. For example, in order to provide easier local access to tourism programs, especially in entrepreneurial development, it may be necessary to decentralize training. As a result, outreach programs may be offered in various communities, rather than courses only being offered at a central institutional location. But this type of coordinated effort between the various levels of government is often fraught with difficulty, due to conflicts of interests and chronic infighting.

Political orientation can also influence the design and content of the programs. For example, in Communist/Marxist countries, programs in entrepreneurship are counter to the existing political and social ideologies. Indeed, in many of the developing regions of the world, the past scarcity of entrepreneurial development programs can be attributed to communist or Marxist policies. However, in view of the dramatic political shifts occurring in several regions, including the Eastern Communist Bloc, China, Central America, and Africa, there should be greatly increased future interest and potential for entrepreneurship education in the developing world.

In terms of the aspiring entrepreneurs themselves, cumbersome bureaucracies, corruption, and lack of appropriate "connections" can be major obstacles to business start-up. Since such types of problems are

pervasive in many developing countries, it follows that there is no point in training entrepreneurs if these issues cannot be addressed. Working closely with, and gaining the support of, local industry members and officials is a good place to start. Using the "mentor" program discussed earlier can provide the budding entrepreneur with advice from an individual experienced in dealing with some of these problems. It is important to note, however, that these types of issues are often quite tenacious and, therefore, the training program must provide the entrepreneurs with the know-how (the "street smarts") of operating within and dealing with the existing system.

3. *Social barriers.* The aspiring entrepreneur often faces traditional social barriers. In a study of tourism entrepreneurship, Din (1992:14-17) concluded that business ownership in multicultural societies is usually controlled by one or two ethnic groups. This ethnic dominance in business ventures is often based on factors such as historical ownership of territory, religious philosophy, or a high degree of internal cohesion and cooperation (Michaud 1991:615-617). As a result, the dominant ethnic groups have the economic, social, and political advantages to immediately exploit any new business opportunities that might arise. In addition to these ethnic groups, foreign investors, state agencies, local wealthy speculators, and government officials also have distinct advantages in exploiting lucrative business opportunities. In contrast, subordinate groups may not even possess the capacity to appreciate entrepreneurial opportunities, let alone capitalize on them.

Since tourism development should relate to and harmonize with a country's overall social development plan, it is important to recognize and deal with these social inequities. In some cases, sociocultural concerns should take precedence over the economic rate of return (Go 1989:12). For example, entrepreneurship development programs may be offered to disadvantaged minority groups (specific tribal members, ethnic groups, women) even though the success rate might be higher if offered to the population in general. In a similar vein, programs may be offered in economically depressed areas, even though the most cost-effective strategy would be to concentrate elsewhere.

It is also important to monitor the methods of screening used to ensure that entry to the programs is based as much as possible on individual merit versus social class or ethnic background. As already mentioned, screening should be based mainly on desirable personality traits, such as the need for achievement and capacity for risk-taking. Other frequently used screening factors, namely previous experience with entrepreneurship and existing business contacts, should be applied with caution, as they may work in favor of the dominant ethnic group(s).

## CONCLUSIONS

Although a developing nation should ideally incorporate all components of the three pronged approach into its tourism education program, ultimately whether or not all are included, and the degree to which each is emphasized, depends on the country's overall social and

economic development plans. In developing countries, the fundamental goals of tourism education not only should be concerned with improving the functioning of the tourism sector, but also should address the need to increase living standards in the host community. In other words, "need led" priorities should often take precedence over the traditional "market led" approach (Theuns and Go 1991:335). Governments must strike a balance between what is essential, what is desirable, and what is possible (Hegarty 1990:41).

Early on in the tourism development process, business formation will be taking place. Entrepreneurship, of course, will occur at the top of the social system through the indigenous economic elite and the multinationals, but it will also be attempted in other layers of the social strata (Ray 1988:12). If local residents are to have a significant role in tourism development, the means must be found to target more of them in training and education. Throughout this paper, it has been suggested that entrepreneurship programs may be one of the most cost effective means of reaching, educating, and, significantly, empowering local individuals.

The development of any country depends on the effective and proper utilization of human resources. An education system must be capable of responding to the internal developmental problems of poverty and unemployment; it must also be capable of responding to the problem of dependency (Hegarty 1990:41). By utilizing an entrepreneurial approach to tourism education, a developing country can build the human resources it needs to ensure well-qualified, indigenous entrepreneurs. In this way, tourism can occur with locally-owned and managed businesses at the helm. Under the control of local residents, tourism is more likely to produce direct economic benefits and less likely to produce severe negative social and cultural impacts. □ □

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